

Navigating the rare earth elements landscape: Challenges, innovations, and sustainability

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ABSTRACT

This review provides a comprehensive analysis of the rare earth elements (REEs) sector, encompassing their classification, properties, and global distribution, as well as their indispensable role in various high-tech, renewable energy, and defense applications. The significant environmental impact of REE mining and processing, characterized by ecological degradation and health risks, is examined alongside the economic and geopolitical challenges arising from the concentrated supply chain and market volatility. The review emphasizes the ongoing efforts and research initiatives aimed at developing sustainable extraction methods, promoting recycling from electronic waste, and exploring alternative materials. Despite these efforts, the effectiveness and scalability of recycling technologies, as well as the feasibility of substitute materials, remain limited, highlighting the need for further research. The review also delves into the impact of international and national policies on the REE industry, underlining the critical role of regulatory frameworks in shaping sustainable practices. Conclusively, this review not only provides insights into the current state of the REE sector but also identifies key areas for future research and development, crucial for the sustainable management and utilization of these vital resources in various industries.

1. Introduction

The realm of rare earth elements (REEs) has garnered significant attention in recent years, primarily due to their indispensable role in a wide array of high-tech (Dong et al., 2022; Liu et al., 2021; Zhong et al., 2023), renewable energy (Shameem et al., 2023; Zheng et al., 2021), and defense applications (Hao et al., 2023). Characterized by their unique magnetic (Oliveira et al., 2021), catalytic (Trovarelli, 1996), and luminescent properties (Binnemans, 2015), REEs have become pivotal in the advancement of modern technology (Cheisson and Schelter, 2019; Sun et al., 2020). The global distribution of these elements, however, is uneven, with certain nations holding substantial reserves, thus dominating the market (Chen et al., 2021b). Advances in extraction and

processing technologies have enabled more efficient utilization of these elements (Hidayah and Abidin, 2017, 2018; Xie et al., 2014), fostering innovations in various sectors. Consequently, the demand for REEs has escalated, aligning with the global push towards sustainable and advanced technological solutions.

The rare earth elements sector, pivotal for a range of high-tech and defense applications, confronts substantial challenges that threaten its sustainability and global supply chain stability (Tukker, 2014). These challenges include significant environmental impacts from mining and processing activities, which frequently lead to ecological degradation and pose health hazards (Zaimes et al., 2015). Market volatility, compounded by a concentrated supply chain, poses additional risks to global economic stability and security. Moreover, the reliance on a limited

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number of suppliers intensifies geopolitical and supply chain vulnerabilities (Wang et al., 2024), particularly affecting nations dependent on imports for their technological and defense capabilities. Focusing on China, which controls over 70 % of the global rare earth supply, the industry is marred by critical sustainability challenges (Zhao et al., 2024a). Unregulated mining practices have led to severe environmental degradation, including substantial soil and water contamination that causes long-term ecological damage and adversely affects local communities and biodiversity (Ji et al., 2018). These issues are further aggravated by low resource utilization efficiency and minimal value addition, stemming from a lack of innovation in core technologies (He and Yang, 2022). Moreover, China's rare earth sector is hindered by incomplete industrial policies and significant regulatory enforcement challenges, which do not adequately curb illegal mining activities or ensure adherence to environmental standards (Packey and Kingsnorth, 2016).

In response to these challenges, various strategies and research initiatives have been undertaken. Efforts to develop more sustainable and less environmentally damaging extraction methods are underway (Dutta et al., 2016), with a focus on reducing the ecological footprint of mining operations. Recycling of REEs from electronic waste has emerged as a potential solution to address supply chain issues, promoting a circular economy approach (Stratiotou Efstratiadis and Michailidis, 2022; Yuksekdag et al., 2022). However, these initiatives are in nascent stages, and the effectiveness and scalability of recycling technologies remain limited. Moreover, there is a growing need for research into alternative materials that can substitute REEs in certain applications, potentially alleviating the demand pressure (Li et al., 2019; Pan et al., 2016; Riba et al., 2016).

This review aims to provide a comprehensive overview of the current state, challenges, and future outlook of the REE sector. It delves into the classification, properties, and global distribution of REEs, highlighting their critical applications in various industries. The review discusses the economic, political, and environmental aspects of REE mining and processing, including the impact of international and national policies on the industry. Furthermore, it examines the sustainability challenges, technological innovations, and potential solutions to address the issues faced by the REE sector. The significance of this review lies in its holistic analysis, which not only sheds light on the complexities of the REE industry but also identifies areas requiring further research and development, thereby contributing to the sustainable management and utilization of these vital resources.

2. Methodology

For the comprehensive review of REEs, an extensive literature search was undertaken across multiple scientific databases, including Science Direct, Scopus, China National Knowledge Infrastructure (CNKI), and Web of Science. This search strategy was meticulously designed to cover a broad array of keywords and their permutations, ensuring comprehensive coverage of the topic. The primary keyword 'Rare Earth Elements' was systematically integrated with an array of secondary keywords, as detailed in Table 1, which delineates the categorization of these keywords by thematic area.

In this stringent literature review process, a rigorous data filtration strategy was employed to ensure the relevance and quality of selected publications. Emphasis was placed on retaining literature specifically related to the properties, mining and development, economy, policy, applications, and national/international regulations of REEs. This included research focused on the critical examination of REEs in contexts such as "sustainability," "technological innovations," and "supply chain challenges." Conversely, literature solely concentrating on aspects not directly connected to these core areas, such as "unrelated technological applications" or "general geological studies," was systematically excluded. This careful selection process aimed to filter out the most relevant and impactful studies, thereby aligning with the scope and

Table 1
Categorization of secondary keywords by theme.

Theme	Main secondary keywords
Overview	Classification, properties, distribution, reserves, history
Mining	Mining, purification, process, extraction, environmental impact
Applications	Applications, renewable energy, consumer electronics, defense, aerospace, environmental engineering, environmental engineering, air quality, water treatment, soil remediation, green technologies, construction, manufacturing, regulations
Economics and Geopolitics	Economy, policy, market, international trade
Challenges and Prospects	Sustainability, innovation, recycling, future trends

objectives of the research.

For an in-depth understanding of the dynamics within REEs sector, this review extends to incorporate the latest data on global production and reserve quantities as disclosed by the United States Geological Survey (USGS, <https://www.usgs.gov/>). This includes the comprehensive analysis of 2023 production figures and reserve estimates, offering a crucial perspective on the current state and potential future trends of the REE market.

In addition, the investigation was extended to encompass the specific trade data pertaining to rare-earth metals, scandium, and yttrium for the year 2022. Data were meticulously sourced from the Observatory of Economic Complexity (OEC) website, specifically from the dedicated profile on rare-earth metals, scandium, and yttrium (<https://oec.world/en/profile/hs/rare-earth-metals-scandium-and-yttrium#la-test-data>).

3. Overview of rare earth elements

The realm of REEs is essential to numerous modern technologies due to their unique physical and chemical properties. This section provides a comprehensive overview of REEs, detailing their classification, properties, global distribution, reserves, and historical development. Understanding these elements' fundamental characteristics and their intricate role in technological advancements is crucial for appreciating their significance and the challenges associated with their extraction and use. This overview sets the stage for an in-depth exploration of REEs, highlighting the critical need for sustainable management practices and innovative technological solutions to ensure their availability for future applications.

3.1. Classification and properties

In the domain of REEs, classification is primarily based on atomic number and chemical properties. These elements, typically encompassing the lanthanide series from lanthanum (La) to lutetium (Lu), along with scandium (Sc) and yttrium (Y), are distinguished by their similar chemical properties. This similarity arises due to their comparable ionic radii and electronic configurations, particularly the filling of 4f orbitals. As the atomic number increases in the series, a notable contraction in ionic radii, known as lanthanide contraction, is observed. This contraction results in a subtle yet significant variation in chemical reactivity and physical properties across the series. REEs are predominantly trivalent, although a few can exhibit other valence states. This trivalency is a consequence of their electronic structure, where the removal of three outer electrons leads to a stable electronic configuration.

The physical and chemical properties of REEs are pivotal in their application in various technological domains. Table S1 depicts the classification and basic physical and chemical properties of REEs. Their magnetic (Qiao et al., 2024), catalytic (Wang et al., 2022b), and luminescent (Li et al., 2024c) properties are intrinsically tied to their

unpaired 4f electrons. For instance, the unpaired electrons contribute to the unique magnetic properties observed in neodymium (Nd) (Sahanashree et al., 2017) and samarium (Sm) (Masunga et al., 2023), making them essential in the production of high-strength permanent magnets. These magnets are integral in modern technologies, from wind turbines (van Nielen et al., 2023) to electric vehicles (Bailey et al., 2021). Similarly, the luminescent properties of europium (Eu) (Deyneko et al., 2023; Zhao et al., 2024c) and terbium (Tb) (Paikarav et al., 2023) are harnessed in the manufacturing of phosphors used in lighting and display technologies. Furthermore, the catalytic properties of cerium (Ce) are exploited in automotive exhaust systems to reduce harmful emissions (Cui et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2023a).

It is crucial to note the variability in the abundance and geochemical behavior of REEs. Despite their collective nomenclature, the abundance of REEs in the Earth's crust varies significantly. Cerium is the most abundant (Gad, 2024), whereas thulium and lutetium are among the least (Wall, 2021). This variability extends to their geochemical behavior, where certain REEs are more prone to concentration in specific mineral deposits. The extraction and separation of these elements are challenging due to their chemical similarities, necessitating complex and often costly processing techniques (Chen et al., 2022; Owusu-Fordjour and Yang, 2023). The subtle differences in ionic radii (Do-Thanh et al., 2023) and electron configurations (Liu and Chen, 2021; Mosadeghsedghi et al., 2023) play a critical role in these processes, dictating the efficacy of various separation methodologies.

3.2. Global distribution and reserves

The global distribution of REEs is characterized by a heterogeneous dispersion across various geological formations, with concentration levels varying significantly. It is observed that these elements are not typically found in their pure elemental form but are more commonly

located within specific minerals such as bastnaesite (Cen et al., 2021a; Cen et al., 2021b; Wang et al., 2017b), monazite (Corbett et al., 2024; Kumari et al., 2015; Shakiba et al., 2023), and xenotime (Chelgani et al., 2015; Roy et al., 2020). The concentration of REEs in these minerals is a critical factor in determining the feasibility of their extraction and subsequent commercial viability. Globally, China holds a predominant position in the REE sector (Lin et al., 2024), not only in terms of reserves but also in processing capabilities (Nkiawete and Vander Wal, 2024). The Bayan Obo mine in Inner Mongolia is one of the world's largest known REE deposits (Hao et al., 2015). Other notable reserves are found in countries such as Australia (Guo and You, 2023), Brazil (de Freitas et al., 2023), India (Patel et al., 2023), and the United States (Dushyantha et al., 2020; Zhao et al., 2024d), with the Mountain Pass mine in California being one of the most significant in the Western Hemisphere.

The extraction of REEs from their ores is a complex and multi-stage process (Brown et al., 2023; Pereira Neves et al., 2022), often involving crushing, milling, and various forms of separation to refine the minerals into usable forms. The distribution of REEs within these ores is typically uneven, with a higher concentration of light rare earth elements (LREEs) such as lanthanum and cerium, compared to heavy rare earth elements (HREEs) like dysprosium and yttrium. This distribution pattern poses significant challenges in the separation and purification processes, as the similarity in chemical properties of LREEs and HREEs necessitates the use of intricate and precise extraction techniques (Battsengel et al., 2018; Dashti et al., 2023). Furthermore, the presence of radioactive elements such as thorium and uranium in some REE ores adds an additional layer of complexity, requiring stringent regulatory compliance and environmental management (Jun et al., 2023; Su et al., 2021).

Fig. 1 presents the global rare earth production and reserves, which underscores the significant disparities in REEs production and reserve quantities among leading countries in 2023. China dominates global

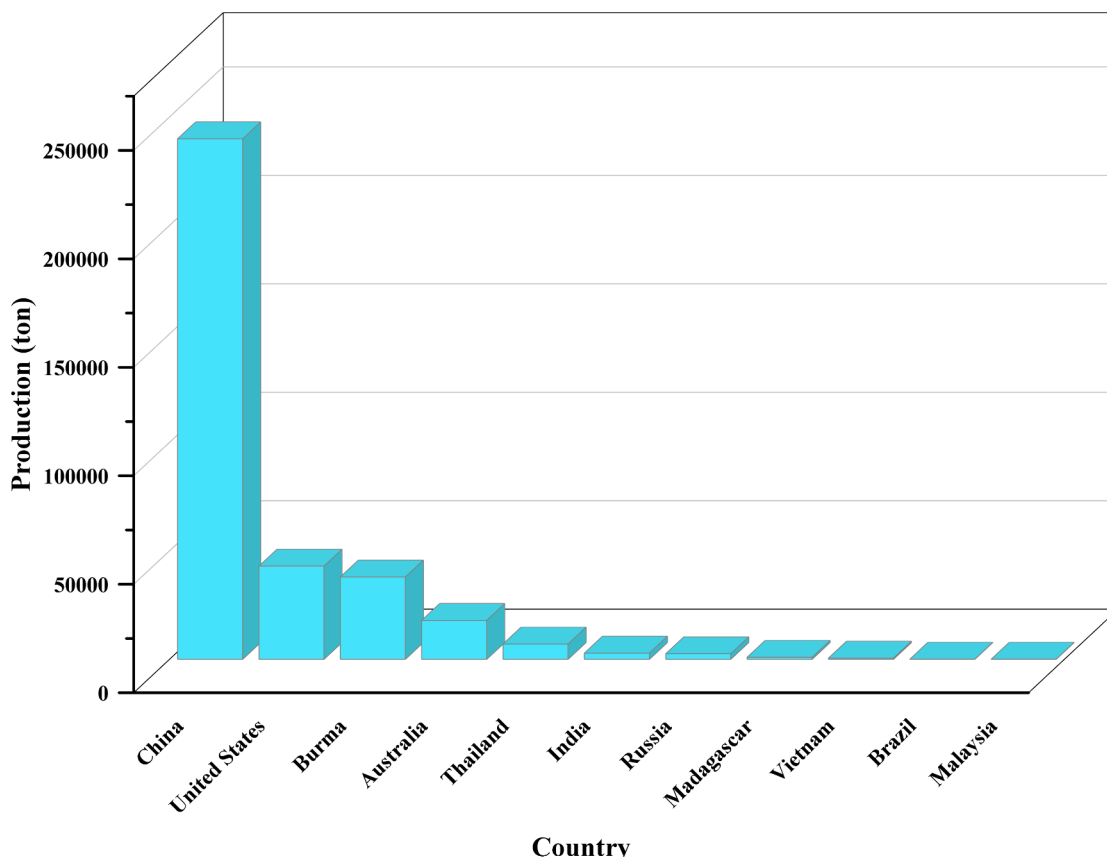


Fig. 1a. Global rare earth production overview in 2023 (U.S. Geological Survey, 2024).

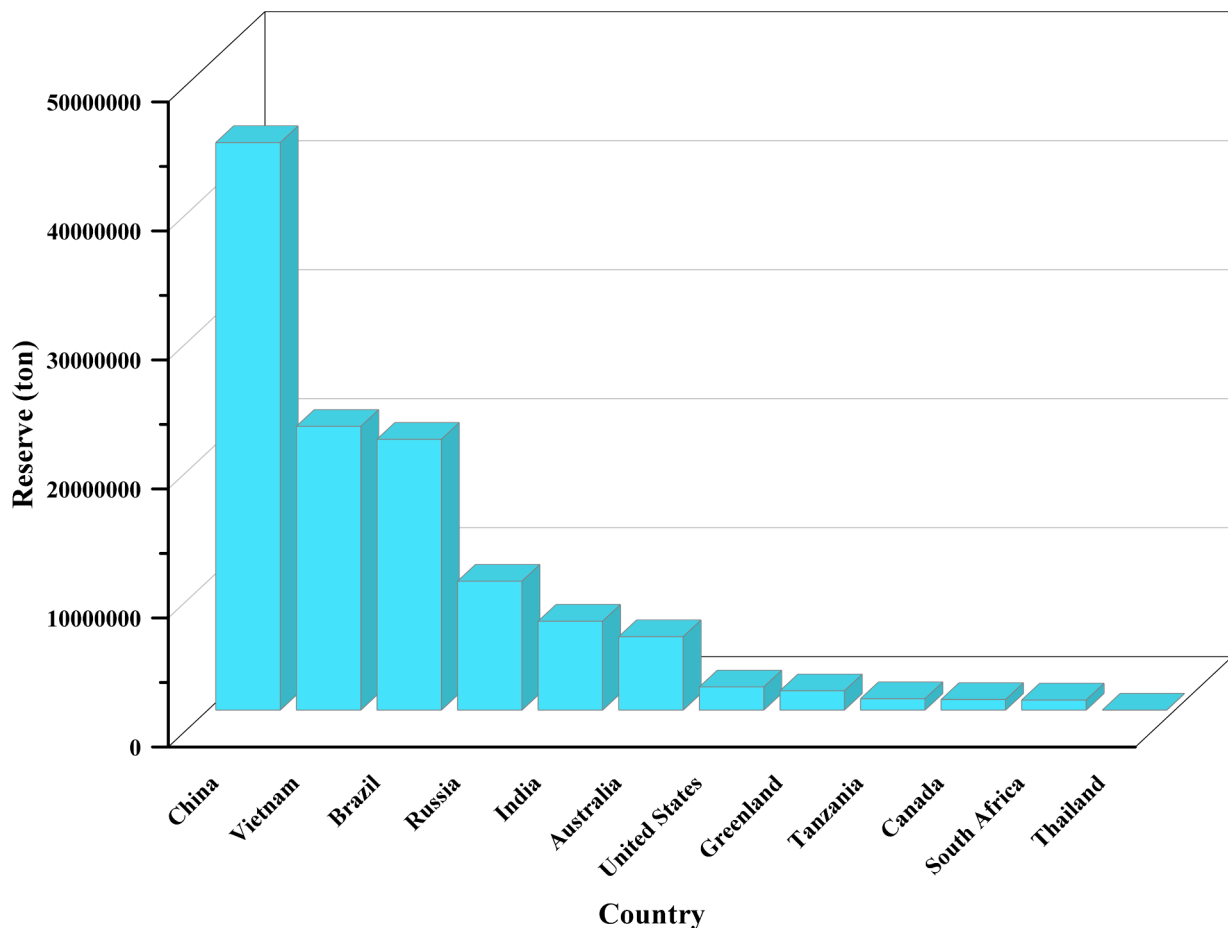


Fig. 1b. Global rare earth reserves overview in 2023 (U.S. Geological Survey, 2024).

production, contributing significantly to the world total, followed by the United States, Burma, and Australia, reflecting geopolitical and economic influences on the REE market. In contrast, reserve data reveal a broader distribution, with China, Vietnam, and Brazil holding substantial shares of global reserves.

According to the report from the Ministry of Industry and Information Technology of the People's Republic of China and the Ministry of Natural Resources (Ministry of Industry and Information Technology of the People's Republic, 2023), the 2023 quotas for rare earth mining and smelting separation in China have been set at 255,000 tons and 243,850 tons, respectively. This data underscores the significant role that China continues to play in the global rare earth industry, not only in terms of reserve holdings but also in processing capabilities.

The estimated reserves of REEs are subject to change based on ongoing exploration activities and technological advancements in extraction methods. Advances in extraction and processing technologies can potentially make previously uneconomical deposits viable, thereby altering the global landscape of REE reserves. It is pertinent to note that the future availability of REEs is not only a matter of geological abundance but also hinges on geopolitical (Chen et al., 2024d; Li et al., 2023c), economic (Charalampides et al., 2015; Pell et al., 2019), and technological factors (Leng et al., 2021).

3.3. Historical perspective

The historical development of REEs has been marked by gradual advancements in both the understanding and utilization of these elements. Table S2 displays the discovery and historical development of REEs. Initially, in the late 18th and early 19th centuries, the discovery of REEs was a byproduct of the quest for new elements and compounds.

The first recognized rare earth mineral, ytterbite (later renamed gadolinite), was discovered in 1787 in a quarry near the Swedish village of Ytterby (Khalajmasoumi et al., 2017), a location that later gave its name to yttrium, terbium, erbium, and ytterbium. Over the following century, the identification and isolation of individual REEs proved to be exceptionally challenging due to their similar chemical properties and the lack of sophisticated separation techniques. It was not until the development of ion-exchange methods (Costis et al., 2021) and solvent extraction techniques (Traore et al., 2023) in the 20th century that the separation of REEs became more efficient and commercially viable.

The application of REEs remained limited until the mid-20th century when their unique magnetic, phosphorescent, and catalytic properties began to be harnessed in developing technologies. The discovery of the strong magnetic properties of some REEs, such as neodymium and samarium, led to significant advancements in the design of high-performance magnets used in various applications (Gherardini et al., 2023; Guo et al., 2023), from compact electronic devices (München and Veit, 2017) to wind turbines (Severson et al., 2022; Sherwood et al., 2022) and electric vehicles (Martínez-Hernando et al., 2023). Similarly, the distinctive luminescent properties of europium played a pivotal role in the development of color television technology (Mehare et al., 2023). The 1960s and 1970s witnessed a surge in demand for REEs due to their critical role in the burgeoning electronics and telecommunications industries (Blanc et al., 2023).

The geopolitical landscape has also played a significant role in the history of REEs. The latter part of the 20th century saw a shift in REE production from the United States and other countries to China (Klinger, 2015), which possesses substantial reserves and invested heavily in mining and processing infrastructure. This shift has led to China's dominance in the global REE market (Chen et al., 2018), raising

concerns about supply security for other nations. As a result, there has been a renewed interest in diversifying the sources of REEs, prompting exploration and development efforts in countries like Australia (Palle Paul Mejame et al., 2022), Canada (Paulick and Machacek, 2017), and the United States (Park et al., 2023). Moreover, the environmental impact of REE mining and processing has become a subject of increasing concern (Aziman et al., 2023; Talan and Huang, 2022a; Wang et al., 2022a), driving research into more sustainable extraction methods and the recycling of these elements from electronic waste (Chen et al., 2023c; Kaim et al., 2023). The historical trajectory of REEs reflects not only the evolution of scientific understanding and technological capability but also the dynamic interplay of economic, environmental, and geopolitical factors.

4. Mining of rare earth elements

The mining of REEs is a critical component of the global supply chain, providing essential materials for a multitude of high-tech and green energy applications. This section examines the intricate processes involved in extracting REEs from their mineral ores, highlighting the advanced technologies and methodologies employed. The environmental and economic implications of REE mining are also explored, emphasizing the need for sustainable practices and regulatory compliance. Through a comprehensive analysis, this section aims to shed light on the challenges and innovations in the REE mining sector, underscoring its significance in modern industry and technology. Fig. 2 outlines the framework for discussing REE extraction and processing.

4.1. Extraction and process techniques

The extraction and process of REEs from their mineral ores involves a series of complex, multistep processes that are essential for obtaining these elements in their usable forms. Table 2 shows the main technologies and methods used in the extraction and process of REEs. Initially, the ore is subjected to physical processes such as crushing and grinding, which are followed by concentration techniques. These concentration techniques typically involve the use of gravity separation, magnetic separation, or froth flotation, methods selected based on the specific mineralogy of the ore. For instance, bastnaesite, one of the more

common REE-bearing minerals, is often concentrated through froth flotation (Wang et al., 2023f; Zhou et al., 2023a), a process where the mineral particles are separated from the waste rock based on their hydrophobic properties.

Following concentration, the extracted REE minerals undergo hydrometallurgical processing, a critical step in which the REEs are leached out of the ore (Jha et al., 2016; Kim et al., 2021). This process usually involves the use of acid or alkaline solutions. For example, sulfuric acid is commonly used to leach REEs from bastnaesite (Feng et al., 2013; Yörükoğlu et al., 2003), while an alkaline process using sodium hydroxide is preferred for high grade monazite and xenotime ores (Alves et al., 2021; Demol et al., 2019). The choice of leaching agent and conditions is dependent on the specific REE mineralogy and the associated gangue materials. The leaching process not only solubilizes the REEs but also other impurities, necessitating subsequent purification steps.

The purification of this leach solution is achieved through solvent extraction and ion exchange techniques, which are designed to selectively separate REEs from each other and from other impurities. Solvent extraction involves the transfer of REEs from an aqueous phase into an organic phase using specific extractants (Xie et al., 2014). This step is repeated multiple times in a series of mixer-settler units or extraction columns to enhance the purity and separation of individual REEs (Dewulf et al., 2022; Lu et al., 1992). Ion exchange, on the other hand, employs resin beds to selectively adsorb REEs, which are then eluted using suitable solutions (He et al., 2022; Hermassi et al., 2022). These techniques are critical in obtaining high-purity REEs, which are essential for their subsequent industrial and technological applications (El Ouardi et al., 2023).

Taking ion-adsorbed clays as an example, the extraction methods employed for these deposits in Southern China, such as tank leaching, heap leaching, and in-situ leaching, each present distinct environmental challenges (Chen et al., 2024b). Tank leaching processes the ore in tanks using a dilute sulfuric acid solution to dissolve rare earth elements, offering controlled conditions but requiring significant chemical use which poses contamination risks. Heap leaching, a less costly alternative, involves stacking ore and applying the leaching solution overhead, allowing it to percolate through by gravity, which can lead to potential leachate escape and water source contamination. In-situ leaching, the

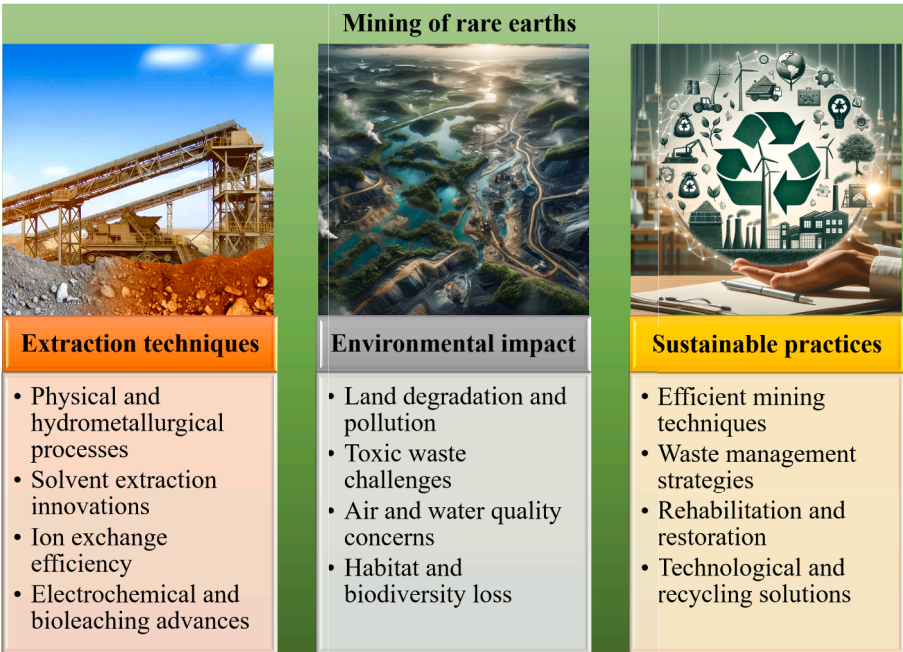


Fig. 2. Conceptual framework of REEs mining exploration.

Table 2
Main technologies and methods for extraction and process of REEs.

Technique	Description	Advantages	Challenges	References
Physical Separation	Involves crushing and grinding of the ore, followed by physical methods like gravity separation, magnetic separation, or froth flotation to concentrate REE minerals.	Simple and cost-effective for initial ore concentration.	Limited to initial concentration; not suitable for final purification.	(Alsabbagh and Mustafa, 2023; Eskinlou et al., 2022; Liu et al., 2023; Yen Chau Nguyen et al., 2021)
Hydrometallurgical Processing	Leaching process where REEs are dissolved from the ore using acid or alkaline solutions, separating them from the gangue material.	Effective for extracting REEs from different mineralogies.	Requires careful handling of chemicals and waste management.	(Ippolito et al., 2017; Tunsu et al., 2015; Wu et al., 2018)
Solvent Extraction	Uses organic solvents to selectively separate REEs from the leach solution. REEs transfer from an aqueous phase to an organic phase, enhancing purity and separation.	Highly efficient for separating individual REEs.	Complex and requires precise control of process conditions.	(Dzulqornain et al., 2024; Han et al., 2023; Hung et al., 2022; Pavón et al., 2022)
Technique	Description	Advantages	Challenges	References
Ion Exchange	Employs resins to adsorb REEs from leachates. REEs are then eluted using suitable solutions, allowing for their selective recovery.	Suitable for selective recovery and purification.	Can be slow and expensive for large-scale operations.	(Bernardo José et al., 2024; Burdzy et al., 2024; Roa et al., 2024; Zhou et al., 2023b)
Bioleaching	Utilizes microorganisms to extract REEs from ore. This method is more environmentally friendly, reducing the use of harmful chemicals.	Environmentally sustainable, with lower ecological impact.	Currently limited in scale and application.	(Cui et al., 2023; Ma et al., 2023a; Rasoulnia et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2020a; Zhou et al., 2024a)
Electrochemical Processing	Involves the use of electrical currents to extract REEs, offering a potentially cleaner alternative to traditional chemical methods.	Reduces chemical usage, with potential for lower environmental footprint.	Still in developmental stages; not widely implemented	(Brewster et al., 2020; Sciacca et al., 2023; Zhou et al., 2020)

most environmentally invasive method, involves injecting the leaching solution directly into the ore body and extracting the solution enriched with dissolved REEs (Packey and Kingsnorth, 2016). While this method avoids the landscape disruption of traditional mining, it significantly risks groundwater contamination if not carefully managed.

The establishment of new rare earth mines and processing facilities represents a pivotal development within the global rare earth industry. This endeavor, essential for addressing the increasing demand for rare earth elements, entails considerable challenges, notably in terms of environmental compliance, technological feasibility, and economic viability. Initiating such operations requires rigorous environmental impact assessments to mitigate the ecological disruptions commonly associated with mining activities. Furthermore, the technological challenges involve the adaptation of extraction and processing techniques to the specific mineralogy of new deposits, which may differ significantly from those previously exploited. Economically, the substantial initial capital investment and the uncertainty regarding future rare earth prices add layers of complexity to the financial sustainability of new mining projects. These factors collectively necessitate a comprehensive approach, integrating advanced scientific methods and robust regulatory frameworks to ensure that new ventures in the rare earth sector are both sustainable and economically feasible.

4.2. Environmental impact

The environmental impact of REEs extraction and processing is a subject of significant concern, characterized by a range of ecological and human health implications (Dai et al., 2023a; Dai et al., 2023b; Henriques and Böhm, 2022; Migaszewski and Gatuszka, 2015; Tian et al., 2020; Xu et al., 2023c). The mining of REE-bearing minerals typically involves substantial disruption of the land (Chen et al., 2023a; Hengkai et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2017a), leading to deforestation, soil erosion, and habitat destruction. These impacts are particularly pronounced in open-pit mining operations (Yang et al., 2013), which are common for extracting REEs. Furthermore, the generation of large volumes of waste rock and tailings (Azizi et al., 2022), which often contain hazardous substances like heavy metals and radioactive elements (thorium and uranium), poses a critical environmental challenge (Phan et al., 2019). These wastes, if not managed properly, can lead to soil and water contamination, affecting local ecosystems and potentially entering human food chains.

The processing of REEs is equally impactful, notably due to the

extensive use of chemicals in the extraction and refining processes. The use of strong acids and alkalis in leaching processes can lead to air and water pollution (Zhang et al., 2020c). For example, acid mine drainage, a common issue associated with sulfide mineral mining (Migaszewski et al., 2019), can lead to the release of toxic metals into nearby water bodies, adversely affecting aquatic life and water quality (Shu et al., 2023). Additionally, the release of airborne particulate matter and gaseous emissions during processing operations contributes to air pollution and poses health risks to workers and nearby communities (Jamaludin and Patunru, 2022; Zhou and Ge, 2021).

In Myanmar's Kachin State, intensive illegal mining operations for heavy REEs have led to significant environmental degradation. This region, controlled by local militias and outside the central government's regulatory reach, witnesses widespread land disruptions due to non-compliant mining practices (FX168, 2021; Irrawaddy, 2021). Techniques such as in-situ leaching, where ammonium sulfate is used to dissolve underground minerals, have resulted in substantial deforestation, soil erosion, and the destruction of habitats. The unregulated use of toxic chemicals in these processes contributes to severe water pollution, impacting aquatic life and contaminating local water sources used by surrounding communities (Naing, 2022). Additionally, the handling of waste materials laden with heavy metals and radioactive elements, primarily thorium and uranium, poses persistent environmental hazards. These activities in Kachin not only disrupt local ecosystems but also threaten human health, emphasizing the critical need for stringent environmental oversight and the implementation of sustainable mining technologies in the region.

Addressing the environmental impacts of REE extraction and processing requires the implementation of stringent regulatory frameworks and the adoption of best practices in environmental management (Ligang and Meijuan, 2020). This includes the development of more sustainable mining practices (Kalisz et al., 2022), such as the implementation of effective waste management strategies to minimize and remediate the environmental footprint (Kotte-Hewa et al., 2023). Moreover, advancements in technology play a crucial role in reducing the environmental impact (Lima and Ottosen, 2021). Innovations in extraction and processing methods aim to increase efficiency and reduce the use of harmful chemicals (Luo et al., 2024a; Zhang et al., 2023b). Additionally, the recycling of REEs from end-of-life products and industrial waste is gaining attention as a means to mitigate the environmental impacts associated with primary extraction (Gómez et al., 2023; Jyothi et al., 2020), offering a potentially less environmentally

damaging source of these critical materials. These approaches are essential not only for mitigating the current ecological impacts but also for ensuring the sustainable supply of REEs in the face of growing global demand.

4.3. Sustainable practices

In the context of REEs extraction and processing, sustainable practices are increasingly being recognized as crucial for mitigating the environmental and social impacts associated with these activities. These practices are focused on reducing the ecological footprint of mining operations (Nassani et al., 2021), enhancing resource efficiency, and promoting the health and safety of local communities and ecosystems. One fundamental approach is the adoption of more efficient mining techniques that minimize land disturbance and reduce waste generation (Akinoyemi et al., 2021; Kamenopoulos et al., 2016). Techniques such as in-situ leaching, where chemicals are used to dissolve REEs from ore bodies without traditional mining (Wang et al., 2023b; Zhao et al., 2024b), have been explored. Although not universally applicable, this method holds potential for reducing surface impacts and the volume of generated waste.

Another critical aspect of sustainable practices in REE extraction involves the management and disposal of mining waste and tailings (Dushyantha et al., 2022). Efforts are made to develop more effective waste management strategies, including the stabilization of tailings, to prevent leaching of hazardous substances into the environment (Chen et al., 2024a; Wang et al., 2023e). Moreover, the rehabilitation of mining sites post-extraction is essential for restoring ecosystems and preventing long-term environmental damage (Liu et al., 2017). This involves recontouring the land, replacing topsoil, and reintroducing native vegetation (Wang et al., 2023d; Zhang et al., 2020d). Such rehabilitation efforts not only address environmental concerns but also help in maintaining the social license to operate within local communities.

Advancements in extraction and processing technology are also integral to sustainable practices. Research and development efforts are focused on reducing the use of hazardous chemicals in extraction processes, thereby decreasing environmental pollution and health risks (Shin et al., 2023). For example, the development of solvent extraction methods that use more environmentally benign solvents or the optimization of process conditions to enhance efficiency and reduce waste are areas of active research (Quijada-Maldonado and Romero, 2021; Su et al., 2022). Furthermore, the recycling of REEs from electronic waste

and other end-of-life products is gaining attention as a sustainable alternative to primary extraction (Patil et al., 2023; Xu et al., 2023b). This not only reduces the environmental impact associated with mining but also addresses the issue of electronic waste management. Overall, the integration of sustainable practices in the extraction and processing of REEs is imperative for balancing the growing demand for these critical elements with the need to protect and preserve the environment and ensure the well-being of communities affected by these operations.

5. Applications of rare earth elements

The applications of REEs span a wide array of industries, underpinning numerous high-tech and environmentally sustainable technologies. Their unique properties make them indispensable in enhancing performance and efficiency across various sectors. This section provides an in-depth exploration of REE applications, from renewable energy and consumer electronics to defense, aerospace, and environmental engineering. By examining these applications, the critical role of REEs in modern technology and industry is underscored, along with the challenges and opportunities presented by their utilization. Fig. 3 illustrates the conceptual framework for the applications of REEs.

5.1. In renewable energy

The incorporation of REEs in renewable energy technologies is a critical area of development, with these elements playing indispensable roles in enhancing the efficiency and functionality of various green energy solutions. In the field of wind energy, REEs such as neodymium and dysprosium are crucial components in the fabrication of high-strength permanent magnets used in wind turbine generators (Imholte et al., 2018; Weng and Mudd, 2023). These magnets are favored for their ability to maintain strong magnetic fields, which is essential for generating electricity efficiently (Fishman and Graedel, 2019; Zhdanev et al., 2024). The use of REEs in wind turbines significantly contributes to the reduction of turbine size and weight while increasing power output, a vital factor in the economic viability and performance of wind energy systems.

In solar energy technologies, specific REEs like cerium and lanthanum are used in the production of advanced photovoltaic materials (Bellucci et al., 2020; Ostadebrahim and Dehghani, 2021; Varghese et al., 2023a; Varghese et al., 2023b). These elements are incorporated into solar cells to improve their light absorption and conversion efficiency (Li et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2024), thereby enhancing the overall

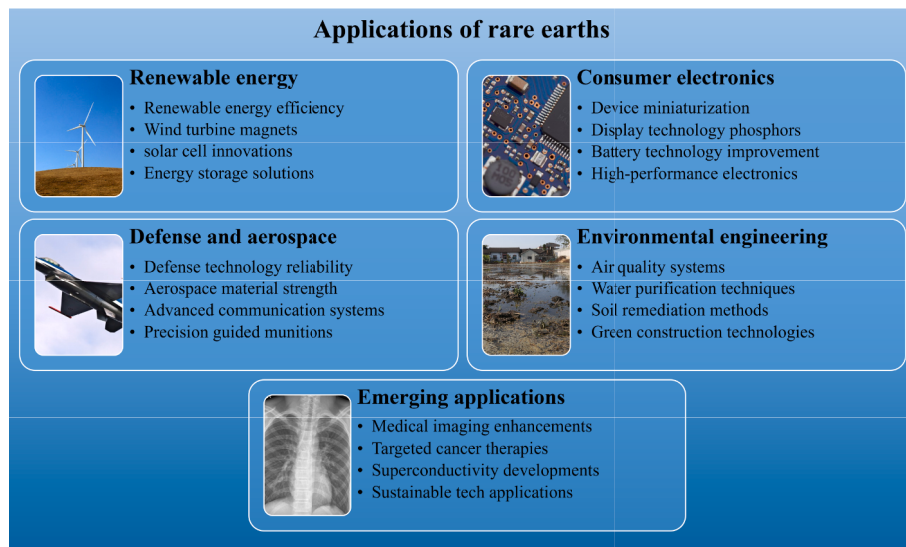


Fig. 3. Conceptual framework of REEs applications.

performance of solar panels. The application of REEs in photovoltaic cells is particularly significant in the context of the global shift towards sustainable energy sources, as it enables the development of more efficient and cost-effective solar energy solutions (Chen et al., 2021a; Sun et al., 2022). Additionally, the use of REEs in energy storage systems, including batteries and capacitors, is noteworthy (Zhao et al., 2019). For example, lanthanum and cerium are used in the production of nickel-metal hydride (NiMH) batteries (Khedimallah et al., 2022; Zhang et al., 2019), which are known for their high energy density and long cycle life. These batteries are integral in storing energy generated from renewable sources, thereby addressing one of the key challenges in the renewable energy sector – the intermittent nature of sources like wind and solar.

The role of REEs in renewable energy extends to various supporting technologies as well. For instance, yttrium and terbium are used in the manufacturing of energy-efficient lighting solutions, which are critical in reducing overall energy consumption (Varun et al., 2015; Yang et al., 2023b; Zhang et al., 2017a). The ongoing research and development in this field are continually uncovering new applications of REEs in renewable energy technologies (Toro et al., 2020), further solidifying their importance in this sector. However, the demand for REEs in renewable energy also brings forth challenges related to supply security and environmental impacts of REE mining and processing (Smith Stegen, 2015). As such, the integration of REEs in renewable energy technologies presents a complex interplay of advancing sustainable energy solutions while addressing the associated environmental and supply chain challenges.

5.2. In consumer electronics

The integration of REEs in consumer electronics has become increasingly significant, owing to their unique properties which enhance the performance and functionality of these devices (Bouri et al., 2021). In the production of smartphones, laptops, and tablets, REEs such as neodymium, praseodymium, and dysprosium are extensively utilized in the manufacture of miniature yet powerful permanent magnets (Kumari and Sahu, 2023; Tripathy et al., 2021). These magnets are essential components in miniature speakers, headphones (earphones), and vibrating motors, where they are favored for their ability to produce strong magnetic fields, crucial for high-quality sound and efficient motion (Bell, 2024; Li et al., 2016; Livingston, 1996). The compact nature of these magnets, enabled by the use of REEs, is instrumental in the ongoing trend of miniaturization in consumer electronics, allowing devices to become smaller, lighter, and more powerful.

In the realm of display technology, elements such as europium and terbium play a pivotal role. They are used as phosphors in color displays, contributing to the vivid and bright screens of modern televisions (Kottaisamy et al., 1995), computer monitors (Resende and Morais, 2015), and smartphone displays (Chancerel et al., 2015). The red and green colors in LED and LCD screens are typically produced using these phosphors (Ayoub et al., 2023; Gupta et al., 2021), which are valued for their high color saturation and stability (Lu et al., 2024). This application of REEs is particularly critical in the context of the increasing demand for high-definition and energy-efficient display technologies in consumer electronics. Additionally, cerium is used in the polishing of glass for screens and lenses (Janoš et al., 2016; Sabia et al., 1999), ensuring high clarity and scratch resistance, which are vital attributes for consumer electronic devices.

The utilization of REEs in the battery technology of consumer electronics is also noteworthy. Lanthanum and cerium are used in the production of nickel-metal hydride (NiMH) batteries, while lithium-ion batteries, which power a vast majority of portable electronic devices (Alemu et al., 2024; Ying et al., 2006), often contain lanthanum, neodymium, and other REEs to improve their performance and longevity (Al-Thyabat et al., 2013). These elements enhance the energy density and durability of batteries, a crucial factor in the usability and lifespan of

consumer electronic products (Omodara et al., 2019). The extensive use of REEs in consumer electronics underscores their importance in the industry but also raises concerns about supply security and the environmental impact of their extraction and processing. As such, the role of REEs in consumer electronics represents a critical aspect of modern technology development, balancing the enhancement of device performance with the challenges associated with the sustainable and ethical sourcing of these materials.

5.3. In defense and aerospace

In the defense and aerospace sectors, the application of REEs is of paramount importance, largely due to their unique properties that are critical for various advanced technologies (Wu et al., 2021a). The use of REEs in the production of high-strength permanent magnets, primarily composed of neodymium, praseodymium, and dysprosium, is a notable example. These magnets are integral in numerous defense applications (Powell-Turner and Antill, 2015; Talan and Huang, 2022b), including precision-guided munitions, radar systems, and advanced communication equipment. Their high magnetic strength and resistance to demagnetization at elevated temperatures make them indispensable in these applications, where reliability and precision are paramount.

In aerospace, REEs are utilized in various components of aircraft and spacecraft. Samarium-cobalt (SmCo) magnets, known for their thermal stability and resistance to corrosion (Cui et al., 2022a), are used in aerospace applications (Cui et al., 2022b; Henke et al., 2018), particularly in satellite and aircraft control systems. The ability of these magnets to maintain their magnetic properties under extreme conditions is crucial for the functionality and safety of these systems. Furthermore, yttrium and other REEs are employed in the manufacturing of specialty alloys used in jet engines (Ding et al., 2007). These alloys are designed to withstand high temperatures and stress, ensuring the durability and performance of engine components (Li et al., 2024b). The addition of REEs in these alloys results in materials with superior strength-to-weight ratios, a critical factor in aerospace engineering.

Additionally, the role of REEs in the production of optical and laser systems is significant in both defense and aerospace. Elements such as erbium, ytterbium, and neodymium are used in the construction of high-powered lasers and optical fibers (Rosol et al., 2024; Wu et al., 2022). These systems are essential in various applications, ranging from communication and reconnaissance to missile defense systems (Affan Ahmed et al., 2021). The utilization of REEs in these technologies is driven by their specific optical properties, which enable the development of devices with enhanced performance, miniaturization, and reliability (Xiao et al., 2023b; Zervas, 2014). The strategic importance of REEs in defense and aerospace is underscored by their contribution to the advancement of critical technologies and systems. This reliance, however, also presents challenges in terms of supply security and the sustainability of REE extraction and processing, making the exploration of alternative materials and recycling strategies increasingly important in these sectors.

5.4. In environmental engineering

The integration of REEs in environmental engineering encapsulates a comprehensive approach to combating pollution and fostering sustainable practices. The application of REEs in air quality enhancement, water treatment and purification, soil remediation techniques, and green technologies in construction and manufacturing, collectively represents a significant advancement in environmental stewardship. Each of these domains leverages the unique properties of REEs to address specific environmental challenges, from reducing air and water pollutants to rehabilitating contaminated soils and enhancing green manufacturing processes. The continued exploration and application of REEs in these areas not only contribute to the mitigation of current environmental issues but also pave the way for more sustainable and

efficient solutions for future generations. This strategic utilization of REEs underscores their vital role in the ongoing quest for environmental sustainability and technological innovation in various sectors.

5.4.1. Air quality enhancement

In the domain of air quality enhancement, REEs are increasingly recognized for their unique contributions. One of the primary applications is in the development of sophisticated air filtration systems. These systems, which often incorporate REEs like cerium and lanthanum, are capable of trapping and neutralizing a wide array of airborne pollutants (Kante et al., 2009; Tang et al., 2021), including fine particulate matter and noxious gases. The mechanism involves the interaction of these elements with pollutants, leading to the absorption and subsequent breakdown of harmful compounds (Bhatt et al., 2017; Zhan et al., 2014). This process is vital in mitigating the health risks associated with air pollution, particularly in urban and industrial settings. Additionally, the use of REEs in the fabrication of pollution sensors has gained momentum (Angadi et al., 2023; Fois et al., 2021). Sensors equipped with REE-based components exhibit enhanced sensitivity and specificity, crucial for the accurate detection of low-concentration pollutants (Hastir et al., 2017). These sensors are integral in real-time monitoring of air quality, providing essential data for environmental management and policy-making.

Another significant application of REEs in air quality management involves their role in automotive catalytic converters (Hou et al., 2020).

Elements such as cerium are employed in these converters to facilitate the oxidation of hazardous exhaust gases into less harmful substances (Wang et al., 2021). The efficiency of REEs in catalyzing these reactions is instrumental in reducing vehicle emissions (Ozawa, 2006; Shinjoh, 2006), a major source of urban air pollution. This catalytic activity not only contributes to compliance with stringent environmental regulations but also plays a critical role in improving overall air quality. Furthermore, the ongoing research in this field is focused on enhancing the efficacy and durability of REE-based catalysts, ensuring their long-term performance in various environmental conditions.

In addition to these applications, REEs are also being explored for their potential in large-scale air purification projects (Ho et al., 2019; Zou et al., 2020). These projects aim to deploy REE-based technologies in industrial emissions control and urban air cleaning systems. The adaptability of REE compounds to various environmental contexts and their effectiveness in pollutant removal position them as valuable assets in combating air pollution. However, the extraction and processing of REEs for these applications necessitate a careful consideration of environmental impacts, urging a balanced approach that weighs the benefits in air quality improvement against the ecological footprint of REE production.

5.4.2. Water treatment and purification

In the field of water treatment and purification, REEs are gaining prominence due to their distinctive properties that contribute

Table 3
Application of REEs in water treatment and purification processes.

Material	Application	Usage parameters	Efficiency	Reference
Cellulose/lanthanum alginate /La (III) composite microspheres	Adsorption of phosphate	Dosage of adsorbent: 0.4 g/L Initial concentration of phosphate: 80 mg/L Reaction time: 1440 min	Adsorption efficiency for phosphate: 159.5 mg/g	(Wu et al., 2024)
Lanthanum-modified natural zeolite	Adsorption of phosphorus	Dosage of adsorbent: 0.4 g/L Initial concentration of phosphate: 10–150 mg/L Reaction time: 1440 min	Adsorption efficiency for phosphorus: 109.1 mg/g	(Luo et al., 2024b)
Lanthanum-loaded biochar	Adsorption of arsenate	Dosage of adsorbent: 1 g/L Initial concentration of arsenate: 10–100 mg/L Reaction time: 1440 min	Adsorption efficiency for arsenate: 21.3 mg/g	(Wang et al., 2023a)
Cerium-based porous carbon microsphere	Adsorption of rhodamine B	pH: 5 Dosage of adsorbent: 0.2 g/L Initial concentration of rhodamine B: 100 mg/L pH: 4 Reaction time: 1440 min	Adsorption efficiency for rhodamine B: 508.2 mg/g	(Li et al., 2024a)
Material	Application	Usage parameters	Efficiency	Reference
Ru(II) and Ru(III)	Peroxymonosulfate activation for degradation of triclosan	Dosage of Ru(II)/ Ru(III): 30μM/ 10μM Initial concentration of triclosan: 10 mg/L Initial concentration of peroxymonosulfate: 0.6 mM Reaction time: 30 min pH: 7	Removal efficiency for triclosan using Ru (II)/ Ru(III): 65.2%/77.4%	(Dai et al., 2024)
Thiophene insertion and lanthanum molybdate modification of g-C ₃ N ₄	Photocatalysis degradation of tetracycline	Dosage of photocatalyst: 0.5 g/L Initial concentration of tetracycline: 20 mg/L Light source: 300 W Xe lamp Reaction time: 90 min	Removal efficiency for tetracycline: 95.1%	(Zhang et al., 2022a)
Lanthanum-doping BiFeO ₃	Photocatalysis degradation of phenol	Dosage of photocatalyst: 1 g/L Initial concentration of phenol: 20 mg/L Light source: 300 W Xe lamp Reaction time: 180 min	Removal efficiency for tetracycline: 96%	(Meng et al., 2016)
Boron-doped lanthanum ferrite	Photocatalysis degradation of ciprofloxacin	Dosage of photocatalyst: 0.6 g/L Initial concentration of ciprofloxacin: 40 mg/L Reaction time: 120 min pH: 6.9	Removal efficiency for ciprofloxacin: 91.2%	(Nanda et al., 2024)

significantly to the removal of contaminants (Mon et al., 2024). Table 3 exemplifies the application of REEs in water treatment and purification processes. The incorporation of REEs, such as lanthanum and cerium, into water treatment processes has been acknowledged for their efficacy in eliminating phosphate compounds (Liu et al., 2024; Wu and Lo, 2020; Wu et al., 2020; Xiao et al., 2024; Yang et al., 2023a; Zhang et al., 2021). This elimination is achieved through the formation of insoluble precipitates when REEs interact with phosphates, effectively reducing eutrophication risks in aquatic ecosystems (Lürling et al., 2014). Such applications are critical in areas where runoff from agricultural and urban sources leads to high phosphate concentrations in water bodies, posing a threat to biodiversity and water quality (Mng'ong'o et al., 2022; Zhou et al., 2024b). The use of REEs in phosphate removal not only addresses a key environmental concern but also enhances the overall efficiency of wastewater treatment facilities.

Further to their application in phosphate removal, REEs demonstrate a profound capacity for the adsorptive elimination of heavy metals, inorganic pollutants and organic pollutants from water matrices (Barreto et al., 2023; He et al., 2023b; He et al., 2019; Lv et al., 2022). The efficiency of REEs in sequestering these contaminants is pivotal for enhancing water quality and safeguarding aquatic ecosystems against the deleterious effects of pollution. Through the exploitation of their unique adsorptive properties, REEs contribute to a robust approach towards water purification, facilitating the removal of a broad spectrum of pollutants (Chen et al., 2023b). This capability is especially crucial in the context of industrial and urban wastewater treatment, where conventional methods may fall short in effectively addressing the complexity of contaminant profiles present in such effluents.

In the enhancement of water treatment methodologies, REEs are instrumental in catalyzing advanced oxidation processes (AOPs), pivotal for the generation of reactive oxygen species (ROS) that facilitate the degradation of persistent organic pollutants and neutralization of pathogens (Qin et al., 2024; Razmi et al., 2019b; Thinley et al., 2023; Wang et al., 2023c). The efficacy of REEs in promoting the formation of ROS under diverse operational conditions significantly contributes to the remediation of contaminated water (Li et al., 2021; Razmi et al., 2019a; Zhao et al., 2023a), enabling the restoration of potable water quality, the effective treatment of industrial effluents, and the purification of agricultural wastewater. The deployment of REE-based catalysts within AOPs is celebrated for its adaptability across various water treatment frameworks, providing a robust mechanism for the disinfection process and the comprehensive removal of contaminants.

Following their foundational role in AOPs, the application of REEs in the domain of photocatalysis has been notably prominent, with their capacity to activate catalytic reactions using solar energy widely recognized (Gomez et al., 2012; Ma et al., 2023b). The utilization of REEs, including the integration of cerium, lanthanum, and yttrium into various photocatalytic matrices, has been identified as enhancing the absorption efficiency of solar radiation (Abdo et al., 2022; Ghafoor et al., 2023; Martin et al., 2019; Nazir et al., 2023). Consequently, this accelerates the photocatalytic breakdown of a broad spectrum of pollutants (da Silva Júnior et al., 2024; Lin et al., 2021), thereby broadening the scope of photocatalysis in environmental management. This application, not limited to the photodegradation of complex dye molecules (Keerthana et al., 2024; Kousar et al., 2023; Sathishkumar et al., 2014) but also extends to the breakdown of pharmaceutical residues, heavy metals, and endocrine-disrupting compounds present in wastewater streams (Amirulsyafiee et al., 2022; Liu et al., 2022; Shan et al., 2023; Wu et al., 2021b; Yao et al., 2020). Positioning REEs as critical components in the drive towards sustainable water purification strategies, their inclusion in photocatalytic systems has been shown to markedly improve the degradation rates of hazardous compounds under visible light. This illustrates the profound impact of REEs on enhancing the operational efficiency of photocatalytic water treatment systems, highlighting their indispensable role in advancing sustainable environmental remediation efforts.

5.4.3. Soil remediation techniques

In the arena of soil remediation, REEs are increasingly acknowledged for their capabilities in addressing soil contamination (Elkhilfi et al., 2021), particularly heavy metal pollution. The application of REEs such as lanthanum and cerium in immobilizing heavy metals in soils is gaining attention (Bagherifam et al., 2022). This immobilization process involves the formation of stable complexes between REEs and heavy metals, thereby reducing the mobility and bioavailability of these toxic substances (Lin et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2020b). Such stabilization is crucial in areas affected by industrial activities and mining operations, where heavy metal contamination poses significant risks to environmental health and human safety. The efficacy of REEs in soil remediation is attributed to their specific chemical properties, which enable the formation of strong bonds with heavy metals, effectively sequestering them and preventing leaching into groundwater or uptake by plants.

Additionally, the use of REEs in phytoremediation strategies is a subject of ongoing research. Certain REEs have shown potential in enhancing the growth and metal-accumulation capabilities of plants used in phytoremediation (Guo et al., 2024; Li et al., 2023b). This enhancement facilitates the extraction of contaminants from the soil, utilizing plants as natural accumulators (He et al., 2023a). The role of REEs in supporting the health of these plants, thereby increasing their efficiency in removing pollutants, represents a novel approach in remediating contaminated lands (Hu et al., 2004). Furthermore, the incorporation of REE-based compounds in soil amendments is being explored (Ayub et al., 2023; Lu et al., 2019). These compounds can improve soil quality and structure, aiding in the recovery of degraded lands. The introduction of such amendments is particularly beneficial in restoring the ecological balance of areas where soil properties have been adversely affected by contamination.

In developing these soil remediation techniques, the potential environmental impact of introducing REEs into ecosystems is carefully considered (Preetha et al., 2023; Tang et al., 2022). The sustainability of using REEs in soil treatment is evaluated in terms of their long-term effects on soil health and the surrounding environment (Zhang et al., 2017b). This consideration is paramount to ensuring that the benefits of REE-based remediation techniques do not inadvertently lead to secondary environmental issues. In summary, the application of REEs in soil remediation techniques presents promising solutions to some of the most challenging environmental issues related to soil contamination. Their unique chemical properties, coupled with innovative application methods, hold the potential to effectively restore contaminated soils, making them safe for agricultural use and habitat restoration while safeguarding environmental health.

5.4.4. Green technologies in construction and manufacturing

Within the construction and manufacturing industries, the adoption of REEs is crucial for the advancement of green technologies. These elements, when incorporated into cement and alloys (Chatterjee, 2009; Sha, 2009), bestow enhanced durability, strength, and environmental performance. Specifically, REEs in cement formulations lead to concrete with improved mechanical properties and extended service life (Li et al., 2023a), thus mitigating the need for frequent repairs and reducing both resource consumption and construction waste. This aligns perfectly with goals for sustainable development. Moreover, integrating REEs into manufacturing alloys significantly enhances corrosion resistance and mechanical integrity (Yang et al., 2021a; Zhang et al., 2023d), crucial for the development of eco-friendly industrial applications. Consequently, REEs are identified as pivotal in steering the construction and manufacturing sectors toward more sustainable and environmentally responsible practices, highlighting the necessity for their conscientious sourcing and utilization.

In the manufacturing sector, REEs are crucial in the advancement of green technologies, particularly in the production of cleaner and more efficient machinery. The implementation of REE-based components in manufacturing equipment has been shown to enhance performance

while reducing energy consumption. For instance, the use of samarium-cobalt magnets in electric motors results in devices that are not only more powerful but also more energy-efficient (Bailey et al., 2021; Nordelöf et al., 2019). This improvement is significant in industries where energy consumption constitutes a major operational cost and environmental concern. Furthermore, REEs are instrumental in the development of advanced manufacturing techniques, such as additive manufacturing (Popov et al., 2018; Yan et al., 2022; Yang et al., 2021b) or 3D printing (Gultekin et al., 2023; Kumar and Kumar, 2022). The integration of REE-based alloys in these processes allows for the creation of components with enhanced properties, such as increased strength and durability, which are essential for reducing waste and enhancing the longevity of products.

5.5. Other emerging applications

The emerging applications of REEs extend beyond traditional sectors, showcasing their versatility and indispensability in various innovative technologies. One such area is in medical imaging and treatment. Gadolinium, for instance, is utilized as a contrast agent in magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) (Zhao et al., 2023b). Its paramagnetic properties enhance the contrast of images, aiding in the accurate diagnosis of medical conditions. Additionally, holmium and other REEs are being explored for use in cancer treatment (Bozkurt et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2023c), particularly in the development of targeted radiation therapies. These applications underscore the potential of REEs in advancing healthcare technologies, offering new avenues for diagnosis and treatment.

The exploration of REEs in the field of superconductivity also represents a significant emerging application. Certain REEs, when used in the composition of superconducting materials, contribute to the achievement of superconductivity at higher temperatures (Chow et al., 2023; Pigalskiy and Trakhtenberg, 2020). This development is critical in reducing the energy and cooling requirements for superconductors, making them more practical and cost-effective for applications such as magnetic levitation, energy storage, and advanced medical equipment like MRI machines.

6. Economic and geopolitical context of rare earth elements

The economic and geopolitical landscape of REEs is shaped by their critical roles in various advanced technologies and their concentrated global supply. REEs are indispensable in numerous high-tech applications, ranging from consumer electronics to renewable energy and defense. The global demand for these elements continues to rise, driven by technological advancements and the shift towards greener energy solutions. This increasing reliance on REEs underscores their strategic importance, influencing international trade policies and geopolitical strategies. The following sections delve into the intricate market dynamics, political implications, and regulatory frameworks that govern the global REE industry, highlighting the multifaceted challenges and opportunities it presents. Fig. 4 outlines the conceptual framework of economic governance and policy structure of REEs.

6.1. Market dynamics

The market dynamics of REEs are characterized by a complex interplay of supply and demand, influenced significantly by technological advancements and geopolitical factors (Alonso et al., 2023; Wang et al., 2024). Demand for REEs has seen a consistent rise, primarily fueled by their critical applications in high-tech industries such as consumer electronics (Buechler et al., 2020), renewable energy (Madaleno et al., 2023), and defense (Riddle et al., 2021). This surge reflects the global shift towards green technology and energy sustainability. However, the market is also marked by a high degree of volatility (Song et al., 2021), attributed to the concentrated supply chain and fluctuating demand in key sectors.

Trade policies and geopolitical considerations play a crucial role in shaping the international market for REEs (Hau et al., 2022; Vivoda et al., 2024). Export restrictions (Mancheri, 2015; Seiler, 2021), tariffs (Han et al., 2015; Trujillo, 2017), and trade agreements (GU, 2011) have been instrumental in influencing the availability and pricing of these elements on the global stage (Chen et al., 2024c). The rare earth market is also subject to speculative trading, further contributing to its volatility. Supply of REEs is heavily dominated by China, accounting for a

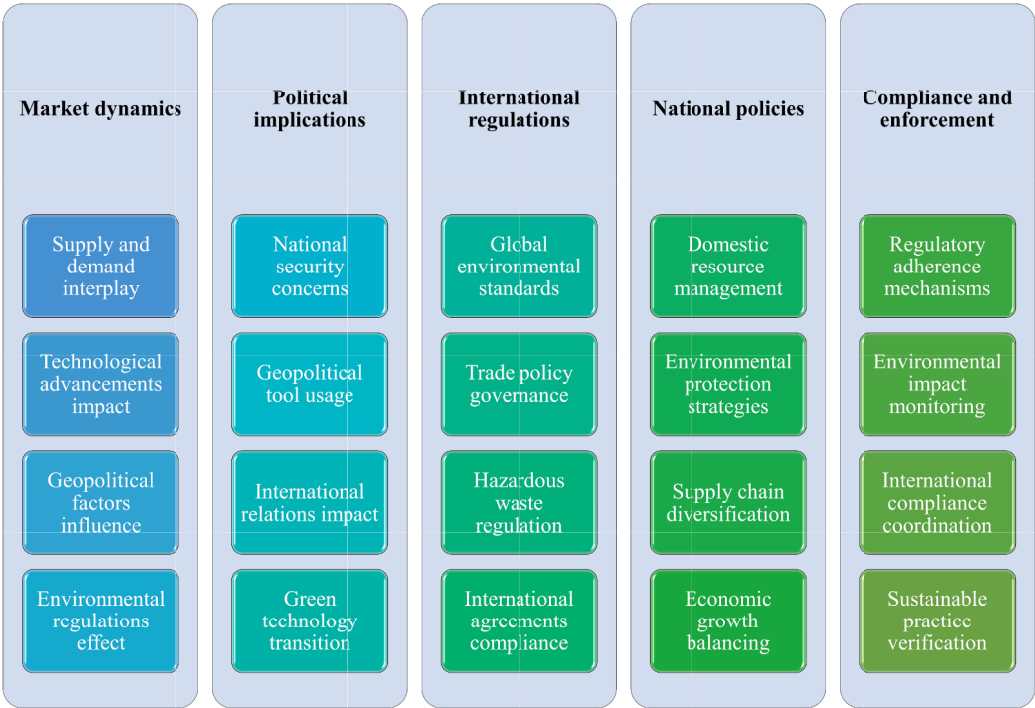


Fig. 4. Conceptual framework of economic governance and policy structure of REEs.

significant portion of both global production and processing capacity (Jowitt, 2022). Trade disputes (Proelss et al., 2018) and export quotas (Shen et al., 2020) imposed by major supplying countries can lead to significant disruptions in the supply chain, compelling importing countries to seek alternative sources or invest in domestic production capabilities. For instance, projects in countries such as Australia, the United States, and Canada have been initiated, aiming to reduce dependency on a single supplier (Lee and Dacass, 2022; Xu et al., 2023a).

Environmental and regulatory aspects significantly impact the market dynamics of REEs (Wang et al., 2017c). The mining and processing of REEs are energy-intensive and pose environmental risks (Jia et al., 2024; Shi et al., 2022), particularly in the form of radioactive waste and toxic byproducts (Weng et al., 2013). As a result, stringent environmental regulations in various countries can influence the supply chain, affecting the overall production costs and market prices of these elements (Madaka et al., 2022; Peng and Shehabi, 2023). Furthermore, the increasing awareness of sustainable practices in mining and the potential for recycling REEs from electronic waste are shaping future market trends (Sahajwalla and Hossain, 2023). These trends are expected to influence not only the supply and pricing of REEs but also the strategic investments and research focus in this sector. The market dynamics of REEs, therefore, represent a complex matrix of technological, environmental, economic, and geopolitical factors, necessitating a multi-faceted approach to ensure both the availability and sustainable utilization of these critical resources.

Fig. 5a illustrates the global exports of rare-earth metals, scandium, and yttrium for 2022, delineating the prominent roles of key exporting countries. China maintained its position as the dominant exporter, channeling goods worth \$395 million into the global market, thereby affirming its pivotal role in rare-earth processing. Vietnam, Australia, and Thailand also made substantial contributions to the exports, totaling \$197 million, \$162 million, and \$121 million respectively. These figures reflect not only the robust mining infrastructures of these nations but also their strategic geopolitical maneuvers to bolster export-driven economic frameworks. In contrast, Japan, with exports amounting to \$20.3 million, demonstrated its strategic engagement in the supply chain, albeit on a smaller scale compared to its counterparts.

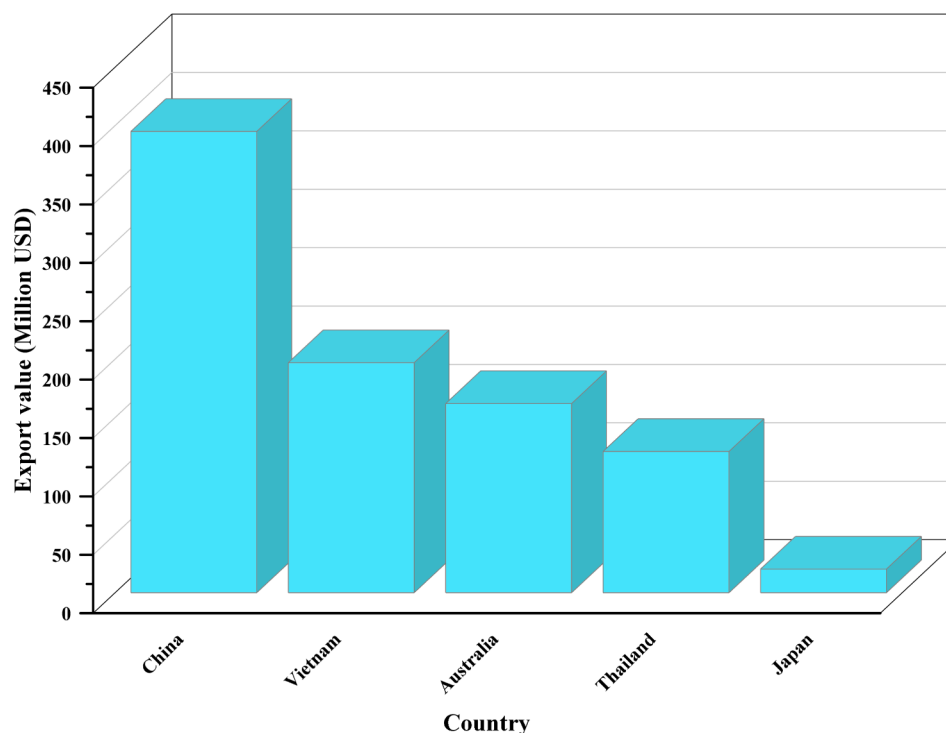


Fig. 5a. Global exports of rare-earth metals, scandium, and yttrium by country for 2022.

Fig. 5b depicts the 2022 global imports of rare-earth metals, scandium, and yttrium, with Japan leading as the primary importer at \$628 million. This significant import volume is primarily driven by Japan's acute demand for these elements to support its advanced technological sectors, coupled with an absence of domestic reserves. Following Japan, Malaysia and Vietnam registered imports valued at \$166 million and \$56.8 million, respectively, positioning themselves as crucial hubs within the Asian technology manufacturing landscape that heavily depends on these imported materials. Additionally, Thailand and the United States were noted for their imports valued at \$18.4 million and \$14 million, respectively. These figures underscore the expanding needs of their high-tech industries for rare-earth elements, essential for developing a range of technologies from consumer electronics to renewable energy systems. This pattern of importation is influenced profoundly by the strategic imperative to secure critical resources essential for sustaining and advancing technological capabilities in a highly competitive global arena, marked by intricate supply chain interdependencies.

6.2. Political implications

The political implications of REEs are profound, stemming from their critical role in a wide array of modern technologies and their concentrated global supply (Fan et al., 2023). The geopolitical landscape surrounding REEs is marked by a complex interplay of national interests (Klinger, 2018), security concerns (Chapman, 2018; Zhang, 2022), and economic strategies (Santillán-Saldivar et al., 2021). The dominance of certain countries, particularly China, in the supply of REEs has led to significant political discourse and strategic maneuvering on an international scale (Xia et al., 2023). This dominance is not merely a matter of resource possession but extends to the capabilities in processing and refining these elements, which are equally critical in the supply chain (Salim et al., 2022). Such control over the supply has been leveraged at times as a geopolitical tool, influencing global politics and international relations.

In 2010, the notable China-Japan REEs dispute was ignited when China slashed its export quotas of rare earth elements by 40 %,

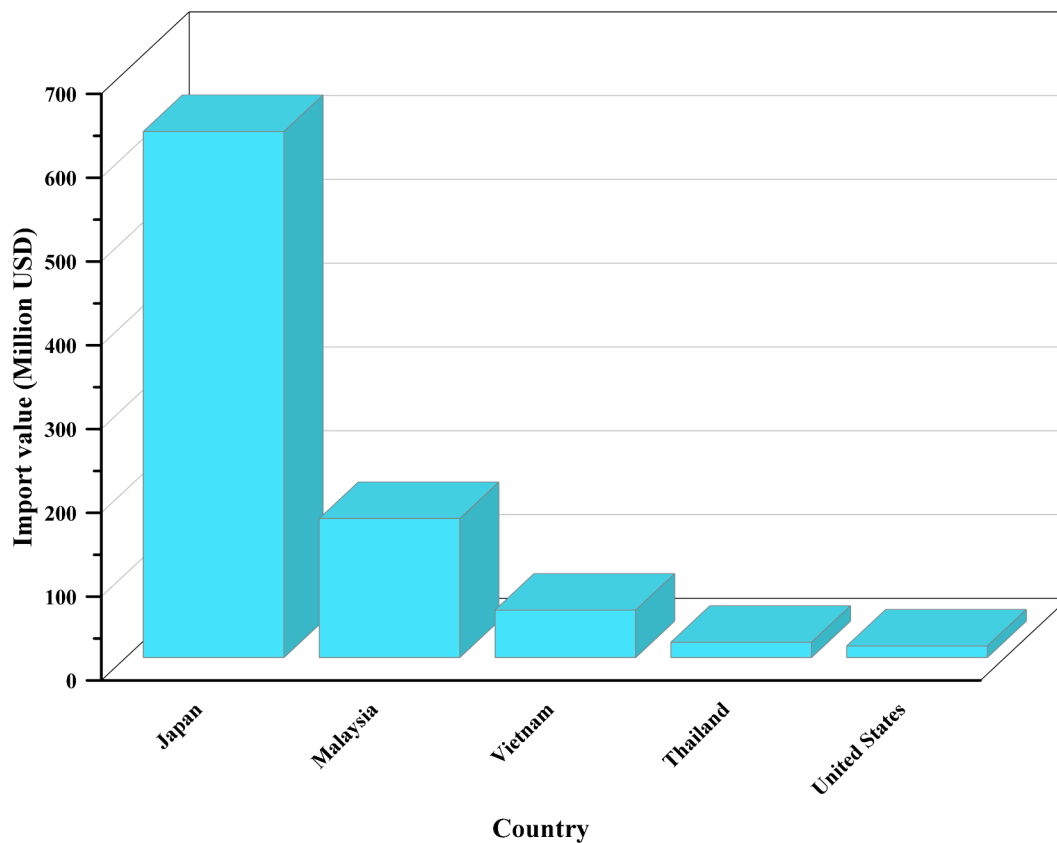


Fig. 5b. Global imports of rare-earth metals, scandium, and yttrium by country for 2022.

triggering a steep escalation in global prices. While China defended its actions on environmental grounds, international observers predominantly interpreted these measures as a tactical maneuver amid escalating diplomatic tensions with Japan (Zhou et al., 2022), following an incident near the disputed Senkaku/Diaoyu Islands involving a Chinese fishing trawler and Japanese Coast Guard vessels (Sprecher et al., 2017). This significant reduction in the export of essential materials, for which China was a primary global supplier, provoked severe international trade tensions, especially impacting Japan, whose high-tech industries were particularly dependent on these resources. Consequently, the United States, European Union, and Japan sought redress through the World Trade Organization (WTO), challenging China's export restrictions as violations of its WTO commitments (Charlier and Guillou, 2014). The WTO ultimately adjudicated against China, ruling that the export limits were unjustified under the cited environmental protections and represented a discriminatory practice against foreign importers.

The security implications of REEs are particularly pronounced in the defense sector, where these elements are indispensable in the production of advanced military equipment and technologies (Xiao et al., 2023a). The reliance on external sources for these critical materials has been recognized as a vulnerability by several nations, prompting initiatives to develop alternative supply chains and enhance domestic production capacities (Andersen et al., 2024; Schmid, 2019). This aspect of REEs has become a strategic focus in national defense policies, with implications for international diplomacy and military preparedness (Wübbecke, 2013; Zhang et al., 2015). Additionally, the strategic importance of REEs in the transition to green energy technologies has placed them at the center of international environmental policies and agreements (Depraiter and Goutte, 2023). As nations strive to reduce carbon emissions and invest in renewable energy, the demand for REEs in technologies such as wind turbines and electric vehicles heightens, further entangling the political dynamics associated with their supply.

6.3. International regulations

The international regulations governing the extraction, trade, and use of REEs are multifaceted and play a crucial role in shaping the global REE industry. These regulations are primarily designed to address the environmental impacts of REEs, ensure fair trade practices, and mitigate geopolitical risks associated with the concentrated supply of these elements. The Basel Convention on the Control of Transboundary Movements of Hazardous Wastes and their Disposal, for instance, is instrumental in regulating the international movement of hazardous waste (Rummel-Bulska, 2004). This convention aims to protect human health and the environment against the adverse effects of hazardous waste (Zeng et al., 2022).

Another significant aspect of international regulations is related to trade policies. WTO plays a pivotal role in overseeing the trade of REEs, ensuring that member countries adhere to fair trade practices (Barteková and Kemp, 2016). Disputes related to export quotas, tariffs, and other trade barriers in the REE sector have been addressed under the WTO framework, seeking to maintain an equitable and non-discriminatory trading environment (GU, 2011). This is particularly important given the strategic nature of REEs and their critical role in various high-tech and green industries. For example, the WTO has been involved in resolving disputes related to export restrictions imposed by major REE-producing countries, which have significant implications for global supply and pricing (Mancheri, 2015).

Moreover, the Rare Earth Industry Association (REIA), headquartered in Belgium, plays a crucial role in uniting stakeholders across the global REE industry. Established in 2019 under the European Union's EIT RawMaterials initiative, REIA aims to foster sustainability and ensure best practices within the REE sector. As the only industry association outside of China, REIA's efforts are pivotal in promoting international collaboration, advocating for regulatory coherence, and facilitating the adoption of environmental and ethical standards across

the rare earth supply chain

Environmental regulations at both international and national levels also significantly impact the REE industry (Dallas et al., 2021). Agreements like the Paris Agreement on climate change indirectly influence the REE market, as the transition to green technologies, heavily reliant on REEs, is a key component of global climate change mitigation strategies (Li et al., 2024d). These regulations drive the demand for REEs in clean energy technologies, such as wind turbines and electric vehicles, while also imposing strict environmental standards on mining practices. The adherence to these international environmental agreements and standards ensures that the extraction and processing of REEs are conducted in a manner that minimizes environmental degradation and promotes sustainable practices.

6.4. National policies

National policies pertaining to REEs are crucial in shaping the exploration, extraction, processing, and utilization of these resources within individual countries. Table 4 summarizes the national policies and laws regarding REEs industry.

These policies are often driven by the need to balance economic interests, environmental protection, and national security concerns. In countries with significant REE reserves, such as China, national policies have historically focused on the development and control of the REE industry (Shen et al., 2020). These policies encompass regulations on mining practices, export quotas, and environmental standards (Liu and Ge, 2023). For example, China’s approach to regulating its REE industry has included measures to consolidate mining activities, impose export restrictions, and enforce environmental regulations to mitigate the

ecological impact of mining (Mancheri, 2016; Zhū et al., 2016). These actions, influenced by both economic and environmental considerations, have had far-reaching implications on the global supply of REEs (Zhang et al., 2022b).

In other countries, particularly those dependent on REE imports, national policies often emphasize the diversification of supply sources and the development of domestic production capabilities (Zuo et al., 2022). The United States and the European Union, for instance, have implemented strategies aimed at reducing dependence on imported REEs (Charalampides et al., 2015; Eheliyagoda et al., 2023). These strategies include funding for research and development in REE exploration, mining, and recycling technologies, as well as initiatives to establish partnerships with other countries to secure stable and sustainable REE supplies (Golev et al., 2014; Machacek et al., 2015; Rabe et al., 2017). Such policies are not only motivated by supply security concerns but also by the desire to develop a competitive domestic REE industry.

Environmental policies at the national level also significantly impact the REE sector. Countries with REE mining activities are increasingly implementing stringent environmental regulations to address the negative impacts of mining, such as land degradation, water contamination, and radioactive waste management (Chai et al., 2020; Zapp et al., 2022). These regulations often require mining companies to adhere to specific standards for environmental protection, waste management, and rehabilitation of mining sites. Additionally, some countries are actively promoting the recycling of REEs from electronic waste as part of their national policy frameworks (Ramprasad et al., 2022). This approach not only helps in reducing the environmental impact associated with REE mining but also contributes to the creation of a circular economy for these critical materials.

6.5. Compliance and enforcement

Compliance and enforcement in the context of REEs involve a multifaceted approach to ensure adherence to various international and national regulations and policies governing the REE sector. Compliance is critical in maintaining a sustainable and ethically responsible REE industry, particularly given the environmental and geopolitical sensitivities associated with these elements. Enforcement mechanisms are often instituted at both international and national levels to ensure that stakeholders in the REE industry, including miners, processors, and traders, adhere to established guidelines and standards.

At the international level, compliance is monitored through various treaties and agreements, such as the Basel Convention on the Control of Transboundary Movements of Hazardous Wastes (Zhang, 2021). Countries party to these agreements are required to implement domestic legislation that aligns with international standards. Enforcement is carried out through mechanisms such as reporting requirements, inspections, and audits. Non-compliance can lead to penalties, including trade restrictions or sanctions. These international frameworks are crucial in managing the transboundary environmental impacts of REE mining and processing (Yakovleva et al., 2023), ensuring that hazardous waste is handled in an environmentally sound manner.

National enforcement of REE-related regulations often involves government agencies responsible for mining, environmental protection, and trade. These agencies implement a range of enforcement actions, including permitting and licensing for mining operations (Barakos and Mischo, 2021; Riesgo García et al., 2019), regular inspections, and monitoring of environmental impacts. In countries with significant REE reserves, such as China, the government has established strict regulations on REE mining to control environmental damage and illegal mining activities (Packey and Kingsnorth, 2016; Zheng et al., 2023). Enforcement of these regulations is critical to mitigate the extensive ecological disruption often associated with REE mining.

Furthermore, compliance with environmental standards is enforced through various mechanisms, including environmental impact

Table 4
National policies and laws regarding REEs industry.

Country	Key Policies/Laws	Focus Areas	Recent Developments
China	Resource Tax Law, Environmental Protection Law, Regulations on the Management of REEs	Resource control, environmental protection, export quotas	Consolidation of domestic REE industry, crackdown on illegal mining, increased investment in REE recycling
United States	National Defense Authorization Act, Critical Minerals Policy Act	Supply security, defense sector reliance, domestic production enhancement	Investment in domestic REE mining and processing capabilities, partnerships with other countries
Australia	Environmental Protection and Biodiversity Conservation Act, Critical Minerals Facilitation Office	Environmental conservation, development of critical mineral resources	Strategic partnerships for REE exploration and processing, focus on environmental sustainability
India	National Mineral Policy, Atomic Energy Act	Resource management, nuclear materials regulation, self-reliance	Enhanced exploration activities, emphasis on self-sufficiency in critical minerals
Japan	Act on the Promotion of Recycling and Related Activities for the Treatment of Cyclical Food Resources	Resource recycling, technological innovation, supply chain diversification	Collaboration in international REE supply chains, focus on recycling and secondary production
European Union	Raw Materials Initiative, European Green Deal	Sustainable resource use, green technology promotion, supply chain resilience	Funding for research in REE alternatives, establishment of secure and sustainable supply chains

assessments (EIAs) before the initiation of mining projects, ongoing monitoring of mining sites, and rehabilitation requirements after mining activities have ceased (Pereira et al., 2023; Wang et al., 2020). Non-compliance with environmental regulations can result in legal actions, fines, and revocation of licenses. Additionally, some countries have introduced initiatives to encourage responsible sourcing of REEs, including certification schemes that verify the ethical and sustainable extraction of these elements (Chadly et al., 2023). These measures aim to promote compliance throughout the REE supply chain, from extraction to end-use.

7. Challenges and prospects

REEs sector is at the intersection of technological innovation, environmental stewardship, and geopolitical strategy. As the demand for REEs intensifies due to their indispensable role in high-tech and green energy applications, the sector faces significant challenges and opportunities. This section delves into the multifaceted sustainability challenges, explores the latest technological innovations aimed at mitigating these issues, and provides an outlook on the future prospects of the REE industry. By addressing the environmental, economic, and social dimensions of REE production and utilization, a comprehensive understanding of the path forward for sustainable and resilient REE supply chains is offered.

7.1. Sustainability challenges

The sustainability challenges in the context of REEs are multifaceted, encompassing environmental, economic, and social dimensions. One of the primary environmental challenges is the significant ecological impact associated with REE mining and processing. These activities often lead to substantial land disruption, soil and water contamination, and biodiversity loss. The release of toxic substances, including radioactive materials inherent in some REE ores, poses serious environmental risks. Addressing these impacts necessitates the implementation of more sustainable mining practices, effective waste management strategies, and the rehabilitation of mining sites. The adoption of such practices is crucial to mitigate the adverse environmental effects and ensure the long-term viability of REE resources.

Economically, the sustainability of the REE sector is challenged by the volatility of the market and the concentrated nature of the supply chain. The majority of the world's REEs are sourced from a limited number of countries, with China being the dominant player. This concentration raises concerns about supply security, particularly for countries dependent on these imports for their high-tech industries. The fluctuating prices and supply uncertainties pose significant risks for businesses and economies reliant on these critical elements. Diversifying the supply sources, developing new extraction and processing technologies, and enhancing recycling and recovery of REEs from electronic waste are essential to overcome these economic challenges and ensure a stable and sustainable REE market.

Social challenges related to REE mining and processing include health and safety concerns for workers and surrounding communities. Exposure to hazardous chemicals and radioactive materials in mining and processing sites can have detrimental health effects. Ensuring the safety and well-being of workers and residents in these areas is imperative. Furthermore, the socio-economic impacts on local communities, such as displacement and disruption of livelihoods due to mining activities, necessitate the incorporation of social responsibility in the REE sector. Engaging with local communities, ensuring fair compensation, and providing opportunities for sustainable development are key to addressing these social challenges. In summary, tackling the sustainability challenges in the REE sector requires a comprehensive approach that balances environmental protection, economic stability, and social responsibility. This approach is vital for the responsible management and utilization of rare earth resources in a way that is equitable and

sustainable for current and future generations.

7.2. Technological innovations

The field of REEs is witnessing significant technological innovations aimed at addressing sustainability challenges and optimizing their utilization. One key area of innovation is the development of more efficient and environmentally friendly extraction techniques. Traditional methods of REE extraction, often involving intensive use of chemicals and significant energy consumption, are being reevaluated. Emerging techniques, such as bioleaching, where microorganisms extract REEs from ore, offer a more sustainable alternative by minimizing harmful chemicals and lowering energy requirements. These advancements in extraction are essential for reducing the environmental footprint and ensuring the sustainable management of REEs.

Advancements in recycling technologies represent another critical innovation area, driven by the increasing use of REEs in various high-tech applications. Innovative methods for recovering REEs from discarded products are being developed, aiming to reduce reliance on primary sources and mitigate mining's environmental impacts. These methods include hydrometallurgical processes that dissolve REEs from electronic waste and electrochemical processes that use electrical currents to separate REEs from other components. Efficient and cost-effective recycling technologies are crucial in establishing a circular economy for REEs, contributing significantly to the industry's sustainability. Nonetheless, the environmental impact of the chemicals used in hydrometallurgical processes and the energy consumption of electrochemical methods must be minimized to achieve true sustainability.

Research into alternative materials that can substitute for REEs in certain applications is also ongoing, with the goal of finding materials with similar properties but less environmental impact or supply risk. This research is particularly important in high-demand sectors like renewable energy and electronics. These innovations help reduce the demand pressure on REEs and contribute to diversifying materials used in various industries, enhancing overall sustainability. While promising, the development and production of alternative materials must be evaluated for their own environmental footprints and resource requirements to ensure they offer a genuinely sustainable option. Continuous advancements in extraction, recycling, and material substitution are vital for the sustainable management and use of REEs, ensuring their availability for future technological applications while minimizing ecological and social impacts.

7.3. Future outlook

The future outlook for the REEs sector is shaped by a convergence of technological, environmental, and geopolitical factors, indicating a trajectory towards more sustainable and diversified practices. Anticipated advancements in extraction and processing technologies, such as solvent extraction techniques with lower environmental footprints and more effective separation processes, are expected to reduce environmental impacts and increase efficiency. These advancements will not only address current ecological concerns but also enable more cost-effective recovery of REEs, crucial for meeting the growing global demand and ensuring the sector's sustainability.

Efforts are being made to reduce dependence on a limited number of sources, contributing to a more geographically dispersed supply chain. Exploration projects in various parts of the world are likely to result in the discovery of new REE deposits. Additionally, the development of secondary sources from recycling electronic waste is expected to gain momentum, alleviating pressure on primary sources and contributing to a circular economy. This shift towards recycling reduces waste and mitigates the environmental impact associated with the disposal of electronic products, enhancing overall sustainability in the REE sector.

The role of REEs in emerging and future technologies, particularly in the green energy sector, is expected to expand significantly. With the

global push towards renewable energy and sustainable technologies, the demand for REEs in wind turbines, electric vehicles, and advanced battery technologies is projected to rise. This increase in demand underscores the need for continued innovation in the REE sector, focusing on material efficiency and the development of alternative materials with similar properties but lower environmental and geopolitical risks. Balancing the growing demand with sustainable practices, ensuring supply security, and navigating geopolitical landscapes will be essential for shaping a sustainable and resilient future for the REE industry, critical for advancing modern technologies and the transition towards a more environmentally conscious global economy.

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Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Data availability

Data will be made available on request.

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