Selective Recovery of Precious Metals through Photocatalysis

- 2 Yao Chen¹, Mengjiao Xu¹, Jieya Wen¹, Yu Wan¹, Qingfei Zhao¹, Xia Cao³, Yong Ding⁴,
- 3 Zhong Lin Wang^{3,4*}, Hexing Li^{1,2*} & Zhenfeng Bian^{1*}
- 4 MOE Key Laboratory of Resource Chemistry and Shanghai Key Laboratory of Rare
- 5 Earth Functional Materials, Shanghai Normal University, Shanghai 200234, China.
- 6 ² Shanghai University of Electric Power, Shanghai 200090, China.
- 7 ³ Beijing Institute of Nanoenergy and Nanosystems, Chinese Academy of Sciences,
- 8 Beijing 100083, China.

- 9 ⁴ School of Materials Science and Engineering, Georgia Institute of Technology,
- 10 Atlanta, Georgia 30332-0245, United States.
- 11 Precious metals such as gold and platinum are valued materials for a variety of
- 12 important applications, but their scarcity poses a risk of supply interruption.
- 13 However, the dissolution and recovery of precious metals using the current
- 14 methods are limited by associated serious environmental pollution and high
- energy consumption. Here, we show a photocatalytic process that allows one to
- selective retrieve 7 kinds of precious metal elements (Ag, Au, Pd, Pt, Ru, Rh and
- 17 Ir) (with dissolution efficiency of 99%) from waste circuit boards, ternary
- 18 automotive catalysts and even ores. Precious metals is recovered with high purity
- 19 (≥98%) through a simple reductive method. The whole process only needs light
- and catalyst without strong acid, strong base and highly toxic cyanide. It has an
- 21 environmentally friendly, scalable and efficient way, in which the catalyst has been
- 22 recycled more than 100 times under normal temperature and pressure without
- 23 performance degradation. It has successfully realized the scale of dissolution from
- 24 grams to kilograms, and it is expected to realize large-scale recovery of precious
- 25 metals in industrial application. This general approach provides an unprecedent
- 26 technology for recycling resources on earth.

Introduction

27

28

29

30

31

32

33

34

35

36

37

38

39

40

41

42

43

44

45

46

47

48

49

50

51

52

53

54

55

Precious metals (PMs) possess not only good physical properties (ductility, electrical conductivity), but also high chemical stability and strong corrosion resistance¹. In recent years, precious metals have been increasingly used in the fields of electronic devices and modern industrial catalysis^{2,3} etc. It is reported that the global demand for gold, silver and palladium in the electronics industry was about 250 tons, 12,800 tons and 40 tons, respectively⁴⁻⁶. In addition, due to the continuous development of the automobile industry, the consumption of platinum group metals is increasing⁵. The global electronic waste (e-waste) production shows that the gold content in 40 mobile phones is equivalent to one ton of ore⁷. In 2019, a total of 53.6 million tons of precious metal-containing e-waste were generated globally, including discarded computers, mobile phones and households electronic equipment^{8,9}. It is a very meaningful to recycle precious metals from e-waste and waste catalyst.

It remains a grand challenge to mine and retrieve precious metals from ores, catalysts and electronic wastes for reusage¹⁰⁻¹³. The recovery process of precious metal is divided into two steps: firstly, dissolve PM⁰ into PM^{x+} from electronic wastes; then reduce PM^{x+} to PM⁰ from the leachate. In the process of dissolving PM⁰ to PM^{x+}, dissolution methods in the industry involving the use of corrosive and toxic aqua regia and cyanidation endanger the environment and characterized of high chemical consumption¹⁴⁻¹⁸. In view of the toxicity of aqua regia and cyanide, scientists have developed non-toxic leaching agents such as thiourea, thiosulfate and iodine to treat the dissolution of gold, but they are ineffective for the dissolution of platinum group precious metals and the operation steps are complicated (Extended Data Table 1)¹⁸⁻²³. Moreover, Yang et al. used n-bromosuccinimide (NBS) and pyridine (Py) directly leached Au⁰ waste to form Au^{III} from gold ore and electronic²⁴. Hong et al. used sulfuryl chloride (SOCl₂) and some organic solvents/reagents (pyridine, N, Ndimethylformamide and imidazole) to form "organic aqua regia" to dissolve gold and palladium²⁵. The limitation of the above method is that it can only dissolve one or two precious metals and the reagent composition is complicated, which not only increases

the difficulty of actual operation, but also increases the cost of recovery. In the process of reducing PM^{x+} to PM⁰, scientists usually design materials that can withstand acid to extract precious metal ions. Hong et al. reported a porous porphyrin polymer which can quantitatively capture precious metals ion from the acidic exudate of e-waste²⁶. The existing methods in the literature can achieve selective reduction of a precious metal. Smith et al. used 1,3:2,4-dibenzylidenesorbitol as a raw material to prepare a hydrogel material capable of extracting gold/silver ions²⁷. Queen et al. prepared Fe-BTC/PpPDA composite material, which was proven to quickly extract trace amounts of gold ion from water mixtures²⁸. In fact, the dissolution process of precious metals is more difficult to achieve than reduction because precious metals are chemically inert, which require strong oxidizing reagents.

It has been reported that the photocatalysis can generate highly reactive free radicals in the reaction system under mild conditions. Moreover, the photocatalytic technology has the advantages of simple operation, low energy consumption, no secondary pollution and high efficiency. Photocatalytic oxidation has become a technology of choice to tackle environmental pollution and energy crisis due to its direct utilization of solar light-driven reaction and good catalyst stability. The oxidizing ability of photo-generated holes (TiO₂ (2.91 V_{NHE})) is sufficient to oxidize PM⁰ into PM^{x+} (Rh (0.75 V_{RHE}) < Ir (0.9 V_{RHE}) < Pt (1.1 V_{RHE}) < Au (1.3 V_{RHE})) But so far, there is no report on the oxidation and dissolution of precious metals by photocatalytic method.

Here, we have realized the use of photocatalysis to dissolve precious metals, without strong acids, strong bases and toxic solvents. It has good leaching effect for 7 kinds of precious metals (Ag, Au, Pd, Pt, Ru, Rh and Ir). Interestingly, selective dissolution of precious metals can also be achieved, providing an easy way of separating these metals. More importantly, this photocatalytic technology for dissolving precious metals can not only realize the recovery of noble metal nanocatalysts in the laboratory, but also effectively leached precious metals from e-waste, ore and automobile three-way catalyst on a large scale. To our best knowledge, this is

the first time that an environmental friendly photocatalysis has been applied to the dissolution and recovery of precious metals.

Results

Photocatalytic Dissolution of Precious Metals

Here, photocatalysis was used to recycle precious metals from waste electrical and electronic equipment (WEEE), ore waste and three-way catalytic (TWC). As shown in Fig. 1, gold (Au) from central processing unit (CPU) board (Fig. 1a-1c) and gold ore (Fig. 1d-1f) was successfully dissolved by light irradiation, as well as palladium (Pd), platinum (Pt) and rhodium (Rh) contained in TWC (Fig. 1g-1i). The required reaction conditions are mild and the raw materials can be simply added and mixed (Extended Data Fig. 1). By crushing the bulk samples, the reaction contact surface can be increased and more metals will be dissolved out (Extended Data Fig. 2). As shown in Extended Data Fig. 3, there are several metals such as copper (Cu), nickel (Ni) and gold (Au) in the CPU board. In the process of photocatalytic dissolution, these nonnoble metals can also be dissolved (Extended Data Fig. 4). Compared with the aqua regia method, the photocatalytic process has a mild reaction. The dissolution process of aqua regia reacts violently and produces a large amount of toxic and harmful substances, such as chlorine. The fracture of CPU block was seriously cracked (Extended Data Fig. 5).

Scalability Dissolution of Precious Metals

The whole dissolution process is very simple, and the scale of the experiment can be easily increased to the kilogram level. Take CPU and gold ore as examples (**Fig. 1j–1o**), we used 1.137 kg of CPU board and 1.169 kg of ore respectively. With the increase of reaction time, the content of gold in the solution increased gradually. The color of the solution showed the yellow characteristic of gold ions. These showed that the method is feasible in scale-up.

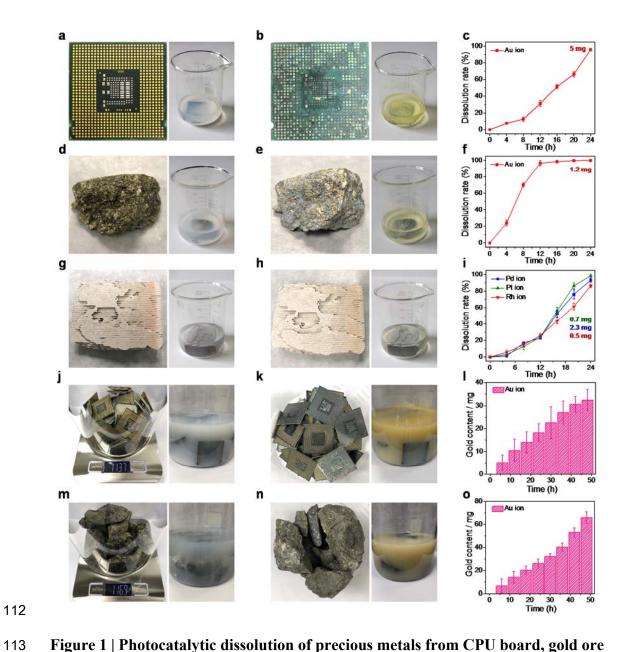


Figure 1 | **Photocatalytic dissolution of precious metals from CPU board, gold ore and TWC.** Photographs of retrieving gold from CPU board (a) before and (b) after reaction. Photographs of retrieving gold from gold ore (28.8 g) (d) before and (e) after reaction. Photographs of retrieving precious metals from TWC (17.9 g) (g) before and (h) after reaction. Photographs of retrieving gold from CPU board (1.137 kg) (j) before and (k) after reaction. Photographs of retrieving gold from ore (1.169 kg) (m) before and (n) after reaction. The amount of precious metals obtained by photocatalyzing unbroken CPU board (c) (l), gold ore (f) (o) and TWC (i).

Selective Dissolution of Precious Metals

122

We investigated the dissolution rate of different solvents for different metals under 123 photocatalytic conditions. In the mixed system of acetonitrile (MeCN) and 124 dichloromethane (DCM), 7 kinds of precious metals (Au, Ag, Pd, Pt, Ru, Rh and Ir) 125 can be effectively dissolved under light irradiation (Fig. 2a and Extended Data Fig. 126 6). While only Au, Ag and Cu can be dissolved in MeCN under the same conditions. 127 (Fig. 2b). Through screening 9 kinds of common solvents, it is found that only MeCN 128 can be used as solvent to realize this dissolution process (Fig. 2c). The selective 129 130 dissolution of precious metals was achieved by adjusting the reaction solvent and 131 reaction time. Taking the CPU board as the research object, the results showed that Cu, Ag and Au on CPU board dissolved step by step with the increase of irradiation time 132 (Fig. 2d-2e). 133 134 To evaluate the selectivity of photocatalytic dissolution, TiO₂ samples loaded with commonly used metals Cu, Ag, Au and Pt were selected as the research object. As 135 136 shown in Figure 2f and 2g, we sequentially dissolved Cu, Ag and Au in MeCN by controlling the reaction time, then Pt is further dissolved by adding DCM. Finally, we 137 choose the e-waste powder, which contains Fe, Ni, Cu, Ag, Au and Pd. By adjusting 138 the solvent and reaction time, we can selectively recover the precious metals Ag, Au 139 140 and Pd (Fig. 2h-2i).

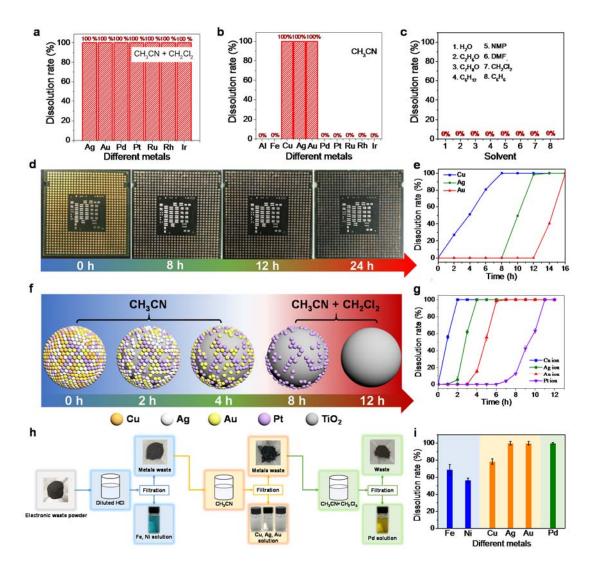


Figure 2 | **Photocatalytic selective dissolution of metals.** (a) Dissolution rate of Ag, Au, Pd, Pt, Ru, Rh and Ir in the mixed system of MeCN and DCM under photocatalytic conditions. (b) Dissolution rate of Al, Fe, Cu, Ag, Au, Pd, Pt, Ru, Rh and Ir in MeCN under photocatalytic conditions. (c) Dissolution rate of Au in different solution. (d) Photographs of selective retrieving metal from CPU board. (f) Schematic diagram of selective dissolution process of metals catalyst (1% Cu/TiO₂, 1% Ag/TiO₂, 1% Au/TiO₂ and 1% Pt/TiO₂). (h) Flow-sheet of stepwise extraction of Fe, Ni, Cu, Ag, Au and Pd from e-waste powder. The amount of metals obtained by selective photocatalyzing (e) CPU board, (g) metals catalyst and (i) e-waste powder.

There are many ways to reduce PM^{x+} to PM⁰, such as hydrogen reduction, thermal reduction, and reducing agents. Here, we choose the simplest hydrogen reduction method, which can directly obtain the precious metals. The reduction process is divided into two steps: the first is to recycle the solvent, and the second is to reduce the precipitated solid to the precious metal. (**Fig. 3a-3d**). The analysis shows that the purity of the recovered precious metals is more than 98% (**Fig. 3e-3h**). Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) shows that the precious metals are nanoparticles (**Fig. 3i-3l**). X-ray diffraction (XRD) further proved that these samples were metal Ag, Au, Pt and Pd, respectively (**Fig. 3m-3p**).

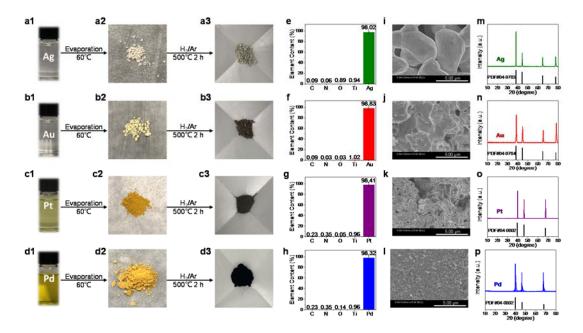


Figure 3 | Precious metal ion reduction process. The solvent of the dissolved product is removed and then calcined in a reducing atmosphere to obtain metal (a) Ag, (b) Au, (c) Pt and (d) Pd. The proportion of metal elements in the (e) Ag, (f) Au, (g) Pt and (h) Pd after roasting. SEM image of the reduced product (i) Ag, (j) Au, (k) Pt and (l) Pd. XRD pattern of the reduced product (m) Ag, (n) Au, (o) Pt and (p) Pd.

Discussion

In order to understand the mechanism of photocatalytic dissolution of precious metals, some controlled experiments have been conducted. A commercial 5% Pt/C

sample is used first for photocatalyzing precious metals dissolution. Photocatalysts (TiO₂) and precious metal catalysts (5% Pt/C) are directly mixed in solvents and stirred (Extended Data Fig. 7). As shown in Fig. 4a, Pt nanoparticles are evenly distributed on carbon surface. Pt nanoparticles disappeared from the surface after UV light illumination (Fig. 4b). This can be further analyzed based on the analysis of the elements in the solution, which shows that the content of Pt gradually increases in the solution and Pt is completely dissolved after 4 hours (Fig. 4g, red line). The change of Pt content on the surface was further analyzed by XPS spectra²³. As the reaction proceeded, the binding energies of Pt⁰ 4f dropped substantially (**Fig. 4c**)³¹. To further analyze the structure of the product, we removed the solvent from the reaction solution (after reaction 4 h) and extracted the luminous the yellow powder sample (Extended Data Fig. 8a). The infrared spectrum of the powder extracted from the solution after the reaction confirmed the formation of new materials species (Fig. 4d). By comparing the infrared spectra of the solution after the reaction, a new infrared absorption peak appeared in the powder sample, located in the region of 3344–2913 cm⁻¹, which is a typical N-H stretching vibration peak³². Moreover, the original C-N peak disappeared. which indicates that MeCN can react to form a substance containing N-H bond during the dissolution process³³. X-ray diffraction (XRD) analysis of powder samples showed that the diffraction of ((NH₄)_xPtCl_y) sample has the hexachloroplatinate structure ((NH₄)₂PtCl₆) (PDF#07-0218)) (**Fig. 4e**). Compared with the commercial (NH₄)₂PtCl₆, the powder samples have similar colors and XRD peak shapes (Extended Data Fig. **8b-8c**). The N-H peak in powder infrared should be the amino vibration peak in this sample. Energy disperse spectroscopy (EDS) mapping analysis demonstrated that there were only three elements (N, Cl, Pt) in powder samples (Extended Data Fig. 9), which is consistent with the results of XRD. X-ray photoelectronic spectroscopy (XPS) analysis further showed that the valence states of platinum in the sample were mainly tetravalent and divalent (Pt⁴⁺ (73.4 eV and 75.3 eV) and Pt²⁺ (76.7 eV and 78.6 eV)) (Fig. 4f)³⁴. The N and Cl elements also exhibit corresponding peaks of N-H and Pt-Cl (Extended Data Fig. 10). Through electron paramagnetic resonance (EPR) test of the solution, the valence states of platinum in the sample might also have a small amount

172

173

174

175

176

177

178

179

180

181

182

183

184

185

186

187

188

189

190

191

192

193

194

195

196

197

198

199

200

of Pt⁺ or Pt³⁺ (**Extended Data Fig. 11**)³⁵. From the valence state of Pt, it shows that Pt has been oxidized from Pt⁰ to Pt⁴⁺.

Platinum nanoparticles (Pt NPs) on different supports (SiO₂, Al₂O₃ and molecular sieve) can be dissolved by photocatalytic technology (Extended Data Fig. 12). The main function of the TiO₂ is to produce active species under light irradiation. Other photocatalysts, such as ZnO (under UV light irradiation) or CdS (under visible light irradiation), can also realize the dissolution of Pt NPs (Extended Data Fig. 13). Through the study of the content and change of various solvents, it indicates the importance of cyano group and chloric substituent (Extended Data Fig. 14). The aqueous solution of ammonium chloride cannot dissolve Pt NPs through photocatalytic technology, and the inorganic chloride is also ineffective for the dissolution of Pt NPs (Extended Data Fig. 15). The control experiments indicate that the presence of oxygen, UV light, and photocatalyst is essential for Pt NPs dissolution (Fig. 4g). According to the dissolution efficiency of capturing electrons (the superoxide radicals (•O₂-) formed by the combination with oxygen) and holes (Fig. 4h), the photogenerated electrons and holes are the main active charge carriers.

In addition, the •O₂- and methyl radicals (•CH₂R) generated during the reaction were further verified by ESR test (Extended Data Fig. 16a). Under the condition of no photocatalyst, free radical is not detected (Extended Data Fig. 16b). Further, the content of hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂) in the system was not detected by the iodometric method, proving that the superoxide radical has not been converted to H₂O₂ (Extended Data Fig. 17). Through a comprehensive analysis of the dissolution system, acetylene was found in the gas phase (Extended Data Fig. 18). The experiments of discolored silica gel were used to prove that there was water in the solution after reaction, and the water content in the dissolution reaction is quantitatively detected by Karl Fischer analysis. (Extended Data Fig. 19).

Based on the above results, the reaction mechanism of the photocatalyzing dissolution process is proposed in **Fig. 4i**. Photogenerated electrons and holes on TiO₂ are first excited by UV light (stage 1). Photogenerated electrons react with oxygen

molecules to form •O2⁻ (stage 2)³⁶. Holes react with MeCN in mixed solvents to deprotonate into •CHCN radical (stage 2). DCM decomposes into •CH2Cl with strong oxidizing ability under the excitation of light (stage 3). These active species oxidize PM⁰ to form PM^{x+} (stage 4). At the same time, the solvent is decomposed into acetylene, amino group and water. Finally, the ions coordinate with each other to form (NH₄)_xPMCl_y (stage 5). The dissolved products of Cu and Au also have similar compound structures, which further verifies the reliability of the mechanism. The XPS spectra of Cu and Au show that the metal is ionized after dissolution (Extended Data Fig. 20a and 20b). The XRD patterns of Cu compound correspond ammonium chlorocuprate ((NH₄)₂CuCl₄·2H₂O) (Extended Data Fig. 20c). It can be shown that the Au product should be (NH₄)_xAuCl_y by data fitting (Extended Data Fig. 20d). The oxidation potential and coordination environment were changed by the regulation of solvent. Therefore, the selective dissolution of Cu, Ag and Au in MeCN can be realized by adjusting the solvent.

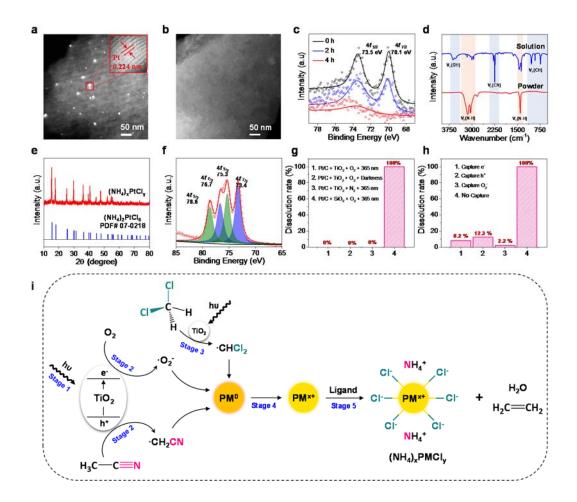


Figure 4 | **Exploration of mechanism.** High-angle annular dark-field (HAADF) scanning transmission electron microscopy (STEM) images of 5% Pt/C (a) before and (b) after reaction. (c) The Pt element distribution in Pt/C sample determined by XPS spectra with reaction time. (d) FTIR spectra of solution and powder sample after reaction. (e) XRD patterns and (f) Pt 4f7 XPS spectra of Pt compound obtained from the solution. (g) Dissolution rate of Pt under different conditions. (h) Dissolution rate of Pt under the capture of different living species (DDQ capture electrons (e⁻), EDTA-2Na capture holes (h⁺), p-benzoquinone capture superoxide radical (•O2⁻)). (i) Proposed mechanism for the retrieving precious metal by photocatalysis.

In this work, we are able to take the advantage of the photocatalytic oxidation technology to solve the complete and selective dissolution of precious metals under mild conditions. We realized the oxidation leaching of precious metal ions from e-waste, ore and TWC, and then recovered the precious metals. The method is simple, mild and environmentally friendly, and is suitable for all kinds of precious metals. It indicated that the whole reaction process is stable and can be recycled. The reaction solvent can be continuously circulated for more than 45 times (Extended Data Fig. 21). In addition, the photocatalyst can be recycled more than 100 times (Extended Data Fig. 22a). The morphology and structure of the photocatalyst did not change before and after the reaction (Extended Data Fig. 22b and 22c), and no free form of Ti ions was detected in the solution after dissolution (Extended Data Fig. 22d). Such a general method has a wide range of applications and can be applied not only to the recovery of precious metals from powder nanocatalysts, but also the recovery of precious metals from WEEE, mining of precious metals ores and TWC. It provides a breakthrough solution for the smelting, dissolution and recovery of precious metals, and broadens the application field of photocatalysis.

272 Data availability

- 273 The data supporting the findings of the study are available within the paper and its
- 274 Supplementary Information.

275 References

- 276 1. Fan, Z. & Zhang, H. Crystal phase-controlled synthesis, properties and
- applications of noble metal nanomaterials. *Chem. Soc. Rev.* **45**, 63-82 (2016).
- 278 2. Zhao, M. et al. Metal-organic frameworks as selectivity regulators for
- 279 hydrogenation reactions. *Nature* **539**, 76-80 (2016).
- Sean T. Hunt *et al.* Self-assemblyofnoble metal monolayers ontransition metal
- carbide nanoparticle catalysts. *Science* **352**, 947-978 (2019).
- 282 4. USGS, Commodity Statistics and Information, 2017.
- 283 https://minerals.usgs.gov/minerals/pubs/commodity/.
- 5. Li, B. et al. Recovery of platinum group metals from spent catalysts: A review.
- 285 Int. J. Miner. Process. 145, 108-113 (2015).
- 286 6. NIMS (National Institude for Material Science, Japan), 2015. Available at:
- 287 www.nims.go.jp/jpn/news/press/pdf/press215 2.pdf.
- 288 7. Cafer T. Yavuz et al. Gold Recovery from E-Waste by Porous
- Porphyrin–Phenazine Network Polymers. *Chem. Mater.***32**, 5343-5349 (2020).
- 290 8. Liu, C. et al. Economic and environmental feasibility of hydrometallurgical
- process for recycling waste mobile phones. *Waste Manage*. **111**, 41-50 (2020).
- 292 9. Prudence Dato. Economic analysis of e-waste market. *Int Environ Agreements*.
- **17**, 815-837 (2017).
- 294 10. Doidge, E. D. et al. A simple primary amide for the selective recovery of gold
- 295 from secondary resources. *Angew. Chem. Int. Ed.* **55**, 12436-12439 (2016).
- 296 11. Sun, D. T., Gasilova, N., Yang, S., Oveisi, E. & Queen, W. L. Rapid, selective
- 297 extraction of rrace amounts of gold from complex water mixtures with a metal-
- organic framework (MOF)/polymer composite. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 140, 16697-
- 299 16703 (2018).

- 300 12. Liu, Z. et al. Selective isolation of gold facilitated by second-sphere
- 301 coordination with alpha-cyclodextrin. *Nat. Commun.* **4**, 1855 (2013).
- 302 13. Yue, C. et al. Environmentally benign, rapid, and selective extraction of gold
- from ores and waste electronic materials. *Angew. Chem. Int. Ed.* **56**, 9331-9335
- 304 (2017).
- 305 14. Cherevko, S. et al. Dissolution of noble metals during oxygen evolution in
- acidic media. *ChemCatChem* **6**, 2219-2223 (2014).
- 307 15. McGivney, E. et al. Biogenic cyanide production promotes dissolution of gold
- 308 nanoparticles in soil. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* **53**, 1287-1295 (2019).
- 309 16. Birich, A., Stopic, S. & Friedrich, B. Kinetic investigation and dissolution
- behavior of cyanide alternative gold leaching reagents. *Sci Rep* **9**, 7191 (2019).
- 311 17. Ahtiainen, R. & Lundström, M. Cyanide-free gold leaching in exceptionally
- 312 mild chloride solutions. *J. Clean Prod.* **234**, 9-17 (2019).
- 313 18. James Hutton: father of modern geology, *Nature* **119**, 1726–1797 (1927).
- 314 19. Lee, H., Molstad, E. & Mishra, B. Recovery of gold and silver from secondary
- sources of electronic waste processing by thiourea leaching, JOM 70, 1616-
- 316 1621 (2018).
- 317 20. Burdinski, D. & Blees, M. H. Thiosulfate- and thiosulfonate-based etchants for
- the patterning of gold using microcontact printing. *Chem. Mater.* **19**, 3933-3944
- 319 (2007).
- 320 21. Cho, E. C., Xie, J., Wurm, P. A. & Xia, Y. Understanding the role of surface
- charges in cellular adsorption versus internalization by selectively removing
- gold nanoparticles on the cell surface with a I₂/KI etchant. *Nano Lett.* **9**, 1080-
- 323 1084 (2009).
- 22. Parga, J. R., Valenzuela, J. L. & T., F. C. Pressure cyanide leaching for precious
- metals recovery. *JOM* **59**, 43–47 (2007).
- 326 23. Lopes, P. P. et al. Dynamics of electrochemical Pt dissolution at atomic and
- 327 molecular levels. J. Electroanal. Chem. 819, 123-129 (2018).

- 328 24. Peng, Y. et al. Environmentally Benign, Rapid, and SelectiveExtraction of Gold
- from Ores and Waste ElectronicMaterials. Angew. Chem. Int. Ed. 56, 9331 –
- 330 9335 (2017).
- 331 25. Hong, J. et al. "Organic Aqua Regia"—Powerful Liquids for Dissolving Noble
- 332 Metals. *Angew. Chem. Int. Ed.* **49**, 7929 –7932 (2010).
- 333 26. Hong, Y. et al. Precious Metal Recovery from Electronic Waste by a Porous
- Porphyrin Polymer. *PNAS* **117** (28), 16174-16180 (2020).
- 335 27. David K. Smith. et al. SelectiveExtraction and In Situ Reduction ofPrecious
- Metal Salts from Model Waste To Generate Hybrid Gels with Embedded
- Electrocatalytic Nanoparticles. *Angew. Chem. Int. Ed.* **55**, 183 –187 (2016).
- 338 28. Wendy L. Queen. et al. Rapid, Selective Extraction of Trace Amounts of Gold
- from Complex Water Mixtures with a Metal-Organic Framework
- 340 (MOF)/Polymer Composite. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 140, 48, 16697–16703 (2018).
- 341 29. Wang, X. et al. Semiconductor Heterojunction Photocatalysts: Design,
- Construction, and Photocatalytic Performances. Chem. Soc. Rev. 43, 5234
- 343 (2014).
- 344 30. Serhiy, C. et al. Dissolution of Noble Metals during Oxygen Evolution in Acidic
- 345 Media. ChemCatChem 6(8), 2219-2223 (2014).
- 346 31. Dong, C. et al. Size-dependent activity and selectivity of carbon dioxide
- photocatalytic reduction over platinum nanoparticles. *Nat. Commun.* **9**, 1252
- 348 (2018).
- 349 32. Sun, C. & Xue, D. In situ IR spectral observation of NH₄H₂PO₄ crystallization:
- structural identification of nucleation and crystal growth. J. Phys. Chem. C 117,
- 351 19146-19153 (2013).
- 352 33. Ennis, C., Auchettl, R., Ruzi, M. & Robertson, E. G. Infrared characterisation
- of acetonitrile and propionitrile aerosols under Titan's atmospheric conditions.
- 354 *Phys. Chem. Chem. Phys.* **19**, 2915-2925 (2017).
- 355 34. Li, Y. H. et al. Unidirectional suppression of hydrogen oxidation on oxidized
- 356 platinum clusters. *Nat. Commun.* **4**, 2500 (2013).

- 357 35. Chaudhuri., P. et al. Electronic structure of bis(o-
- iminobenzosemiquinonato)metal complexes (Cu, Ni, Pd). The art of
- establishing physical oxidation states in transition-metal complexes containing
- radical ligands. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 123, 2213-2223 (2001).
- 36. Siemer, N. et al. Atomic scale explanation of O₂ activation at the Au-TiO₂
- interface. J. Am. Chem. Soc. **140**, 18082-18092 (2018).
- 363 37. Han, G. et al. Visible-light-driven valorization of biomass intermediates
- integrated with H₂ production catalyzed by ultrathin Ni/CdS uanosheets. *J. Am.*
- 365 *Chem. Soc.* **139**, 15584-15587 (2017).
- 366 38. Xiao, J. et al. Integration of Plasmonic Effects and Schottky Junctions into
- Metal Organic Framework Composites: Steering Charge Flow for Enhanced
- 368 Visible-Light Photocatalysis. *Angew. Chem. Int. Ed.* **57**(4), 1103-1107 (2017).
- 369 39. Frens, G Controlled Nucleation for the Regulation of the Particle Size in
- 370 Monodisperse Gold Suspensions. *Nat. Phys. Sci.* **241**, 20-22 (1973).
- 371 40. P. C. Lee and D. Melsel. Adsorption and Surface-Enhanced Raman of Dyes on
- 372 Silver and Gold Sols. J. Phys. Chem. **86**, 3391-3395 (1982).
- 373 41. Liu, L., Gao, F., Zhao, H. & Li, Y. Tailoring Cu valence and oxygen vacancy
- in Cu/TiO₂ catalysts for enhanced CO₂ photoreduction efficiency. *Appl. Catal.*
- 375 *B-Environ.* **134-135**, 349-358 (2013).

Acknowledgments This work was supported by the National Natural Science 377 378 Foundation of China (21876114, 21761142011), Shanghai Government 379 (19DZ1205102, 19160712900, 18JC1412900), Chinese Education Ministry Key 380 Laboratory and International Joint Laboratory on Resource Chemistry, and Shanghai Eastern Scholar Program. Shanghai Engineering Research Center of Green Energy 381 Chemical Engineering (18DZ2254200). A patent has been filed to protect the method. 382 Author Contributions Y.C., M.J.X., Z.F.B. and H.X.L. conceived the idea for the 383 paper. Y.C., Z.F.B. and H.X.L. designed the experiments. Y.C., J.Y.W., Y.W. 384 385 synthesized the material. Q.F.Z., Y.D., X.C. and Z.L.W. performed the HAADF STEM 386 images. Y.C. performed the sample characterization. Z.F.B., Z.L.W and H.X.L. conducted the experiments. Y.C., Z.F.B. and H.X.L. analyzed the data and wrote the 387 388 manuscript. All authors contributed to writing the paper. **Competing interests** The authors declare no competing interests. Author Information 389 390 Reprints and permissions information is available at www.nature.com/reprints. Readers are welcome to comment on the online version of the paper. Correspondence and 391

requests for materials should be addressed to Z.L.W. (zlwang@gatech.edu), H.X.L.

(hexing-li@shnu.edu.cn) or Z.F.B. (bianzhenfeng@shnu.edu.cn).

392