1	Recovery of noble metals from spent catalysts: a review
2 3 4	Sai Krishna Padamata ¹ , Andrey S. Yasinskiy^{1*} , Peter V. Polyakov ¹ , Evgeny A. Pavlov ² , Dmitriy Yu. Varyukhin ¹
5 6	¹ School of non–ferrous metals and materials science, Siberian federal university, Krasnoyarsk, Russia 660025
7	² ISC "Krastsvetmet" Krasnovarsk Russia 660027
, 8	* corresponding author
9	
10	saikrishnapadamata17@gmail.com
11	* ayasinskiykrsk@gmail.com
12	p.v.polyakov@mail.ru
13	doc50@mail.ru
14	dimka1933@yandex.ru
15	
16	Abstract
17	
18	During several past decades, plenty of technologies for platinum group metals (PGM) and
19	rhenium (Re) recovery from electronic wastes and spent catalysts have been developed and
20	published. The reasons for the rising interest in this area are:
21	\Box The abundance of these elements in the earth's crust is less than 10^{-3} ppm (~6.6
22	10^4 t all over the world);
23	\Box global demand for PGMs is over 590 t;
24	□ electronics and catalysts industry consumes over 90% of precious metals (about
25	65% of Pd, 45% of Pt and 84% of Rh are consumed in catalytic converters);
26	□ properties of PGMs and Re (resistance towards corrosion and oxidation, high
27	melting temperatures, electrical conductivity, and catalytic activity) are of great commercial
28	interest.
29	Even though several comprehensive reviews on the recovery of precious metals from
30	spent catalysts have been recently published, several developments were out of the attention of
31	the scientific community. The reviews divide the technologies into hydro- and pyrometallurgical
32	ones. However, the variety of different approaches requires a more detailed classification. This
33	article is an overview of the recently reported works and the comparison of different
34	technologies in terms of extraction efficiency, environmental friendliness, and capital and
35	operational expenditures. The new electrochemical method, which is now under development, is
36	also presented.
37	
38	Keywords: spent catalysts processing, platinum group metals, hydrometallurgical
39	process, pyrometallurgical process, electrochemical process, magnetic separation
40	
41	1. Introduction
42	Platinum group metals incorporate six noble metals namely, platinum (Pt), palladium
43	(Pd), iridium (Ir), osmium (Os), rhodium (Rh), and ruthenium (Ru). All the metals from this
44	group possess more or less identical physical and chemical properties. PGMs are chemically
45	inert, highly resistant against corrosion, electrically and thermally stable, shows high mechanical
10	strength [1, 2] The properties passaged by them are highly desirable and over 00% of overall

strength [1–3]. The properties possessed by them are highly desirable and over 90% of overall
PGMs are used by electrical and catalyst industries. PGMs are limited natural resources with
only 66000 tons available across the earth. Only 2–10 g/t of PGM content is present in its natural

ores. The recovery of the PGM as a co-product or a by-product depends upon their percentage in
 the ore. Recent advancements in the technologies for the extraction and recovery of PGM have

enhanced its application in the chemical industry, oil refining, medical practices, vehicle and
equipment construction, jewelry making, etc. [4, 5].

Production of 73% of primary PGMs in the world is associated with the Bushveld 53 54 Complex of South Africa, while the rest of the PGMs reserves are mainly concentrated in Russia, Zimbabwe, the United States, and Canada [6]. The PGM ores are mainly in the form of sulfide 55 and arsenide materials like PtAs₂, Pt(AsS)₂, PtS, (Pt, Pd)S, (Pt, Pd, Ni)S, Pd₃Sb and RuS₂ along 56 with elemental ruthenium [7]. Fernandez [8] presented comprehensive data related to the 57 amounts of PGMs in different forms. PGMs are recovered from the high-grade concentration 58 ores (200 to 2000 g/t of PGM and 0.3 to 2.5% Cr₂O₃) by matte-smelting-refining technique. 59 Initially, the PGM ores are crushed and ball-milled to make them fine particles. This ore in the 60 61 form of particles is treated in the gravity separators and transferred to the flotation cells to produce a sulfide-rich PGM concentrate, where reagents like dithiophosphate and xanthate 62 collectors are used for flotation process at pH of 7.5 to 9 [9]. Smelting is performed on the 63 64 sulfide-rich PGM concentrates to remove feldspar, plagioclase, pyroxene, and biotite gangue materials. The matte is treated in converters where the slag containing SO₂, FeO is removed. The 65 converter matte is transferred to a base metal refinery where Cu, Ni, and other metals are 66 removed. The PGM concentrate with more than 65% PGM is refined in precious metal refinery 67 68 and high-quality PGMs are recovered (see figure 1).



Figure 1. PFD of the PGM extraction from ores

The demand for PGMs is increasing due to its various applications in the industries. 71 72 Figure 2 shows the demand and recycling of PGM for the year 2019. The demand for Pt, Pd, and Rh is around 660.305 tons but the recycling only provides 189.02 tons. This shows that the 73 future acquirement of these metals would highly depend on the recycling of the secondary source 74 75 due to its lack of availability as a natural resource. Concentrations of PGMs are higher in spent catalysts than in ore deposits. For example, an automotive catalytic converter contains about 76 2000 g/t of PGMs in a ceramic block while an average PGMs concentration is less than 10 g/t in 77 78 most of PGM ores [10].





Figure 2. The total supply and demand for PGMs in 2019 (in tons) [11]. 1– Total supply, 2– Gross
demand, 3– Total recycling, 4– Total net demand, 5–Movements in stocks. Note: *– No available data

Spent catalyst is one of the sources for the PGM recovery. The catalyst used in the refining and petrochemical industries constitutes of Al_2O_3 -based carrier with 0.05 - 1% of noble metals (PGM and rhenium) as the active components. The catalyst loses its catalytic properties after a certain time (3 to 5 years), technology to regenerate and reactivate the metal fouled catalyst is not available at present and are discarded as the solid wastes [12,13]. The spent refinery catalyst amounts only 4% of the total refinery wastes but still is considered to be the most hazardous waste generated in the petroleum industry [14, 15].

The catalyst industry heavily depends on PGMs, which act as active components. The oil-89 refining, automobile emission purification, chemical engineering industries are the main 90 consumers of PGMs in the form of the catalyst [16]. Immense research has been conducted by 91 researchers to replace the PGMs with fewer abandon materials but no significant results were 92 attained. About 45% of platinum (99.82 tons), 65% of palladium (186.5 tons) and 84% of 93 rhodium (24.07 tons) were used in catalytic converters in the year 2018. The recycling of PGMs 94 from the spent catalyst is difficult as it is used for different purposes and varying proportions of 95 PGMs from 200 ppm to 100% in an entire catalyst material. Table 1 elaborates on the 96 97 information of catalysts used in automobiles and chemical industries.

Tabl	e 1.	GMs used for applications in industries [17].	

Application areas	Application	Catalyst type support	PGMs	PGMs loading/ %	Life span (year)
Fine chemicals	Hydrogenation	Activated carbon	Pd; Pd/Pt Ru;	0.5–10	0.1–0.5
	Oxidation		Rh; Ir		
	Debenzylation				
Automotive	Catalysts	Cordierite monolith	Pt/Rh Pt-Pd-	0.1–0.5	>10
		ceramic pellets	Rh Pt		
		Metallic monolith			
	Diesel particulate	SiC or cordierite			
	filter		Pt/Pd		
Oil–refining	Reforming	Al ₂ O ₃	Pt; Pt/Re, Pt/Ir	0.02–1	1–12
	Isomerization	Al ₂ O ₃ , zeolites	Pt; Pt/Pd		
	Hydrocracking	SiO_2 , zeolites	Pd; Pt		
	Gas to liquid	Al_2O_3 , SiO_2 , TiO_2	Co+(Pt; Pd;		
<i>c</i> i i i		~	Ru; Re)	100	o -
Chemical	Nitric acid	Gauzes	Pd	100	0.5
engineering	H_2O_2	Powder (black)	Pd	100	1
	PTA*	Carbon granules	Pd	0.5	0.5–1
	HCN*	Al ₂ O ₃ or gauzes	Pt; Pt/Rh	0.1; 100	0.2 - 1
	VAM*	Al ₂ O ₃ , SiO ₂	Pd/Au	1–2	4
	KAAP*	Activated carbon	Ru		
Homogeneous	Oxo Alcohols	Homogeneous	Rh	100–500 ppm in the	1–5
	Acetic acid		Rh; Ir/Ru	process solution	

100 Note*: PTA - Purified terephthalic acid, HCN - Hydrogen cyanide, VAM - Vinyl Acetate Monomer, KAAP - KBR 101 Advanced Ammonia Process.

102

Effective recovery of PGMs and extraction from spent catalysts are environmentally and 103 104 economically desirable. Three factors are influencing the recyclability of spent catalysts: (1) the 105 composition of the spent catalyst, (2) the intrinsic metal value, and (3) the associated lifecycle structure and the application segment, including the turnaround speed (catalyst life), recycling 106 107 chain and business model.

108 In this paper, the methods implemented to recover the PGMs from the spent catalyst are discussed. The advantages and disadvantages associated with the various recycling methods will 109 be mentioned. This topic is particularly important, as in the future the industries will be relying 110 on recycling processes to obtain PGMs. Recycling should be efficient and environmentally 111 friendly. The recovery of PGMs from the spent catalyst is important because of: 112

113

simple catalyst composition with carriers being Al₂O₃, activated carbon, cordierite, and so 114 on:

115 high PGM proportion of about several kilograms per ton.

116 Therefore, the recovery of PGMs from the spent catalysts should be economically advantageous, small scale, simple, and environmentally friendly process. Techniques like non-117 cyanide leaching, smelting in the furnace, mild leaching, and physical separation pre-treatment 118 119 cause less pollution and have been developed in the last two decades. Nevertheless, even with many advantages, they show negative effects on the environment and recovery process [18, 19]. 120

121

123

2. Techniques used for the PGMs recovery from spent catalysts 122

The supply of spent catalysts to the recycling process is a crucial step as it is a decisive factor 124 in the recovery of the PGMs. The spent catalyst should undergo (1) dismantling, (2) size 125 126 reduction, and (3) physical separation before the start of the main process [20]. The selection of the recycling technique mainly depends on three factors: (1) type of catalyst's supporter, (2) 127 PGM (loading) content, and (3) presence of other base metals. Finally, recycling of spent catalyst 128 129 to extract PGMs can be distinguished into five basic steps: sampling/homogenization, pre-130 concentration, dissolution, enrichment, and purification. Several recovery techniques have been introduced for the past 20 years and few of them are already employed at the industrial level [21, 131 132 22]. The below techniques are a few of them, which will be discussed briefly.

133 134

135

2.1. Hydrometallurgy

In the hydrometallurgical process, the spent catalysts are dissolved in the aqua regia, 136 cyanide, or strong acids like HNO₃, HCl, and H₂SO₄. The leaching efficiency is enhanced by 137 138 adding oxidizing agents like O₂, H₂O₂, Cl₂, and I₂. Before the leaching process, the PGMs should be reduced to the metallic state as they turn into the inert state due to the sulfuration or oxidation. 139 In this process, Pd is leached easily while Rh cannot be leached for more than 90%. Cyanide 140 leaching is a more efficient recovery process but as this method is performed at high 141 142 temperatures, cyanide is highly toxic.

143 144

145

2.1.1. Hydrochloric acid + oxidant system leaching

146 In this process, PGMs are leached in HCl medium with oxidizing agents such as Cl₂, H₂O₂, HNO₃, and NaClO₃, etc. [23–25]. The PGMs form the soluble chloro-complexes when 147 reacted with HCL and the oxidizing agent, according to the following reactions: 148

$$3Pd + 12HCl + 2HNO_3 \rightarrow 3[PdCl_4]^{2-} + 6H^+ + 2NO + 4H_2O$$
 (1)

152
$$3Pt + 18HCl + 4HNO_3 \rightarrow 3[PtCl_6]^{2-} + 6H^+ + 4NO + 8H_2O$$
 (2)

153 154 $Rh + 6HCl + HNO_3 \rightarrow [RhCl_6]^{3-} + 3H^+ + NO + 2H_2O$ (3) 155 156 The above reactions (1) – (3) show the formation of the complex PGM ions when HNO_3

oxidizing agent is used and similar ions are obtained when Cl_2 is used as an oxidizing agent and can be seen from the reactions [26]:

$$Pd + 2HCl + Cl_2 \rightarrow [PdCl_4]^{2-} + 2H^+$$
(4)

162
$$Pt + 2HCl + 2Cl_2 \rightarrow [PtCl_6]^{2-} + 2H^+$$
(5)

163 164 165

160 161

$$2Rh + 6HCl + 3Cl_2 \rightarrow 2[RhCl_6]^{3-} + 6H^+$$
(6)

166 Decomposition of Hydrochloric acid when oxidizing agents are added occurs according to the 167 reactions (7)–(10). Obtained Cl_2 react with the PGMs, leading to the formation of soluble PGM 168 chloro–complexes and reduces the processing time.

$$2\mathrm{HCl} + \mathrm{H}_2\mathrm{O}_2 \to \mathrm{Cl}_2 + 2\mathrm{H}_2\mathrm{O} \tag{7}$$

 $12\text{HCl} + 2\text{NaClO}_3 \rightarrow 2\text{NaCl} + 6\text{Cl}_2 + 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$ (8)

$$3HCl + HNO_3 \rightarrow NOCl + Cl_2 + 2H_2O \tag{9}$$

173 174

 $2HCl + NaClO \rightarrow 2NaCl + Cl_2 + H_2O$ (10)

The extraction of PGMs highly depends upon its dissolution and the formation of chloride complexes, which are stable at pH < 1, whereas at high pH values, the chloride complexes are hydrolyzed forming hydroxy complexes [27]. To avoid slow leaching the pretreatment should be performed on the PGMs as their surface is covered with many organic substances. Processes such as pre-leaching, reduction roasting, and oxidation roasting are suggested [28].

Shams et al. [29] conducted a study where 280 g of spent dehydrogenation catalyst was 184 decoked at 400-450 °C and then crushed to a particular size required. Leaching of the particles 185 was then made with a mixture of 3850 gm of concentrated hydrochloric acid (5 mol. L^{-1}) and 186 nitric acid (HNO₃ - 0.2 vol.%) solution which is used as a leaching agent in a 5000 cc container. 187 The recovery process is followed by the ion exchange of the metallic complexes with the help of 188 strong base ion exchange resin (AMBERTJET 4200 Cl, industrial grade). The replacement of 189 chloride anion by hydroxyl group ion to treat the strong basic anionic resin by using a sodium 190 hydroxide solution. It was observed that the PGM recovery increased with the increase of HCl 191 concentration in the solution. At 9 mol. L^{-1} HCl concentration, the results were excellent. This 192 process is temperature-sensitive with the best extraction obtained at 100 °C. This states that the 193 recovery of PGMs from spent catalyst while using HCl requires less leaching severity reactions. 194 The process is also not time-efficient (slow) as studies show that after 24 hours of leaching, no 195 further recovery of PGMs was possible. Angelidis et al. [30] developed a laboratory-scale 196 197 hydrometallurgical process for the recovery of Pt and Rh from the spent catalyst. The process constitutes oxidation leaching (NaClO, HCL, and AlCl₃), reduction leaching (H₂SO₄ and 198 N₂H₆SO₄) and final leaching with HCl followed by the neutralization of the metal. About 94% of 199 200 Pt and 89% of Rh were recovered. Similar results were obtained in a process where CeO₂ was 201 used as an additive to increase the recovery rate of the PGMs, although while separating the PGMs from the residue, a significant amount of Ce was leached along with the PGMs [31]. 202

Matjie et al. [32] reported that the spent catalyst was first calcined at around 800 °C to remove the wax present in it to heighten the extraction efficiency during the leaching process. The calcined spent catalyst containing 7.67 % of Pt was then dissolved in 1000 ml aqua regia (3HCl:1HNO₃) at 90 °C for 240 mins at atmospheric pressure to attain chloroplatinic acid species. Then filtration is carried out to separate the metal from the insoluble aqua regia residue. The XRD was performed on aqua regia residue to find the Pt content and only traces of Pt were seen, stating that almost all the Pt present in the calcined catalyst was dissolved (see figure 3).



211 212

Figure 3. PFD of aqua-regia leaching process [32]

The HCl leaching was performed on spent activated carbon-supported Pd catalyst with 213 hydrogen peroxide as a leaching agent for the Pd recovery. The leaching process was carried out 214 for 90 mins at 90 °C. A maximum leaching rate of 99% was attained for Pd when the solution 215 mixture contained 10 vol. % HCl and 5 vol. % H₂O₂. The increase in temperature and time 216 improved leaching efficiency. The optimum conditions to recover Pd were when the solution 217 with 10 vol. % HCl and 5 vol. % H₂O₂ was used at 90 °C for 180 mins [33]. Paiva et al. [34] 218 219 investigated the hydrometallurgical process to extract Pd from the spent alumina catalyst, where the HCl solution is used for the leaching. The main task of this investigation was to achieve a 220 promising recovery of Pd with minimal Al contamination. H₂O₂ was used as an oxidizing agent, 221 which improved the Pd leaching in HCl to above 90%, the ideal conditions were being (2.0 mol. 222 L^{-1}) HCl, (1.0 mol. L^{-1}) H₂O₂ at 25 °C and reaction time is 10 – 15 mins. The Al contamination 223 can be decreased by reducing the acidity, a mixture of HCl, H₂O₂, and additives like NH₄Cl or 224 225 MgCl₂ were tested and high Pd leaching was obtained for long periods (30 - 60 mins) with low 226 Al contamination.

Kasuya et al. [35] introduced a novel method for the recovery of the Pt, where the PGMs are dissolved in the HCl using complex oxides. Platinates were produced by calcining the mixture of Pt/Al_2O_3 and alkali metal salts. The formation reaction of platinates includes O_2 and CO₂ (equation 11, where M = Li & Na). At 600 °C, Pt is converted into Li₂PtO₃ when reacted with Li₂CO₃. This promotes the fact that alkali metal salts enhance the oxidation of Pt.

- 233
- 234

 $Pt + M_2CO_3 + O_2 \rightarrow M_2PtO_3 + CO_2$ (11)

The platinates obtained are leached in HCl (12 mol. L^{-1}) at 180 °C for 120 mins, the solubility of Pt was nearly 100% with proper dissolution conditions. The PGMs recovery through the leaching process from the spent catalyst is adopted widely due to its simple technique. The disadvantage with the process is the low recovery of PGMs, especially rhodium, also it is a difficult process to extract PGMs from low grade spent catalysts.

240 A microwave (MW) assisted PGMs extraction process was performed by Spooren and 241 Atia [36]. The spent catalyst of about 1 g was initially milled and mixed with the sulfate salt (7.5 242 g NaHSO₄.H₂O, 8.37 g KHSO₄ or 0.5 g H₂SO₄ solution) and oxidation agent (2.5 g NaClO₃, 5 ml NaOCl or 5 ml H₂O₂). They were well mixed by pestle and mortar, transferred to the ceramic 243 244 crucible and MW roasted at 750 W for 30 mins. The roasted mixture was leached using 100 ml of de-ionized water for 30 mins at 60 °C. The slurry was cooled at room temperature and the 245 solid residue was separated and dried at 105 °C. The remaining leachate was analyzed to 246 determine the presence of PGMs (see figure 4). 247

It was observed that the leachability rate of PGMs while using 1M HCl instead of deionized significantly improved. The ideal parameters suggested for the recovery of the PGMs after the studies were as follows:

- 251
- \Box the salt: spent catalyst ratio of 5
- 252 253
- \square NaClO₃: NaHSO₄·H₂O molar ratio of 0.05
- \Box the liquid to a salt ratio of 10 and HCl = 1 M,

At the above conditions the leachabilities for Pd, Pt, and Rh of $96 \pm 1\%$, $85 \pm 5\%$, and >96% were achieved respectively. The concentration of Pd, Pt, and Rh in the solid residue of 0.34 g were measured to be 97 ± 18 mg/kg, 207 ± 66 mg/kg and <20 mg/kg, respectively. It can be highlighted that when leaching the mixture without NaClO₃, the leaching efficiency for Pd and Rh was low, and it was 0% for Pt. Although using KHSO₄ salt resulted in a slightly higher leachability rate of Pt, using NaHSO₄ was considered economically friendly.





Figure 4. PFD of microwave-assisted extraction process [36]

263 In [37, 38], novel Phosphonium ($P_{8,8,8,12}$ Cl)-based ionic liquid was used to separate the 264 PGMs from the automobile leach liquor. Initially, 570 g of the spent catalyst was mechanically crushed followed by ball milling for 30 to 300 mins until the particle size of 75 µm is attained. 265 The leaching process was performed using HCl with 5 mol. L⁻¹ concentration for 2 days at 70 °C. 266 The P_{8.8,8,12}Cl was added to the leachate and centrifuged at 8000 rpm for 5 min. The Pd was 267 extracted (reaction 12) within 5 mins while the extraction of Rh from the raffinate to $P_{8,8,8,12}Cl$ is 268 performed after the removal of Pd and Pt. The process is highly efficient in the extraction of 269 PGMs. Scrubbing of Fe is performed using 1.2M Na₂SO₃ while the PGMs stripping (back 270 271 extraction) from the complex ion is performed by the required solutions accordingly (see figure 272 5).

- 273
- 274 275

 $\left[PdCl_{4} \right]_{aq}^{2-} + 2 P_{8,8,8,12}Cl \rightarrow \left[P_{8,8,8,12} \right]_{2} PdCl_{4} + 2Cl_{aq}^{-}$ (12)





278 279

2.1.2. Cyanide solution leaching

Industries have desired to recover PGMs by using cyanide-leaching technology for
 decades [39–41]. The following equations are the dissolution reactions occurring while using
 cyanide solution:

283 284 $2Pd + 8NaCN+O_2 + 2H_2O \rightarrow 2Na_2[Pd(CN)_4] + 4NaOH$ (13)285 286 $2 Pt + 8NaCN+O_2+ 2H_2O \rightarrow 2Na_2[Pt(CN)_4] + 4NaOH$ (14)287 288 $Rh + 24NaCN + 3O_2 + 6H_2O \rightarrow 4Na_3[Rh(CN)_6] + 12NaOH$ (15)289 290 The decomposition of cyanide occurring while reacting with the oxidizing agent is as follows: 291 292 $CN^- + H_2O \rightarrow HCN + OH^-$ (16)293 $2HCN + O_2 + 2H_2O \rightarrow 2NH_3 + 2CO_2$ 294 (17)295 296 Shams et al. [42] reported a process where the spent catalyst was first crushed into small particles while its size was determined by a mesh size sieved to find the dependency of the 297 particle size with the recovery of PGMs. The spent catalysts are leached with 1 wt.% of NaCN at 298

160 – 180 °C at a pressure between 618 and 1002 kPa for an hour. The weight ratio between the 299 sodium cyanide solution and the spent catalyst is 2:1. To prevent sintering, the spent catalyst was 300 decoked at a temperature range of 450–480 °C. Pt in the form of anion $Pt[CN]_4^{2-}$ is replaced by 301 anion Cl⁻ in an ion exchange reaction with the resultant being $N^{+}(CH_3)_3]_2$ Pt[CN]₄²⁻ (Styrene 302 303 divinylbenzene copolymer) formation. It was observed that the decoking of the coked catalyst is 304 not required at high-temperature cyanide leaching. With the decrease in the particle size of the 305 catalyst, the Pt recovery increases. At 2:1 weight ratio of NaCN and catalyst and temperature 306 between 140 and 180 °C, optimum results were attained.

307 Chen et al. [41] investigated the recovery of PGMs from spent catalyst with NaCN 308 leaching. The recovery of Pt is 96%, Pd is 98% and Rh is 92% with an oxygen pressure of 1.5 309 MPa, NaCN 0.1275 mol. L^{-1} , NaCN to catalyst ratio of 4:1 at around 160 °C. The cyanide 310 leaching order was Pt > Pd > Rh, due to the complex ions metal bonding strength. The cyanide 311 leaching process is highly toxic at high temperatures and still difficult to be implemented at the 312 industrial level. The optimization of the method is still highly considered.

313 314

315

2.1.3. Bioleaching

In bioleaching, the microorganisms with their metabolites are used to extract metals from 316 the spent catalyst. This process is eco-friendly and cost-efficient when compared to other 317 leaching techniques [43]. The bioleaching method can be in two ways, direct (one or two-step 318 process) or an indirect two-step process. In the one-step process (direct), fermentation and 319 leaching take place at the same time, which means that the metal leaching and microorganism 320 cultivation happen at the same time. In the two-step (direct) process, the cultivation takes place 321 322 before the leaching even though both the processes takes place in the same container. In an indirect process, the leaching process takes place in the spent medium (microorganism free 323 medium obtain through fermentation) [44,45]. 324

Malekian et al. [46] conducted an experiment for the Pt recovery through bioleaching, (Aspergillus niger produced oxalic acid solution) was investigated, where direct (one-step, twostep) and indirect (spent medium bioleaching with and without pH control) process were performed. It was observed that the production of oxalic acid and Pt recovery were higher with the pH-controlled process. The optimal conditions were: 0.5 pH, 1 wt. % of pulp and bioleaching temperature of 70 °C, which resulted in 37% recovery of Pt. By replacing HNO₃ with HCl, the pH value was adjusted resulting in the increase of Pt recovery to 41%. The bioleaching process is extensively used at industrial scale to recover metals like Ni, V, and Mo but is still under study for the PGMs recovery. The recovery of the PGMs by using bioleaching is low when compared with the conventional methods, but still the former is environmentally friendly, energy-efficient while the latter is hazardous, and energy-consuming process. Improvements can be made to increase the PGM recovery percentage by optimizing the process accordingly.

- 337
- 338 339

2.1.4. Supercritical fluids oxidation

340 The use of supercritical fluids (SF) is an alternative method of PGMs extraction, which is eco-friendly, low energy, easy recycling, good sensitivity and facile. SFs are used for different 341 342 types of reactions as unique solvents [47]. It is known that creating an SF is simple: by moving the substance beyond its critical point (critical temperature, critical pressure) with increasing the 343 344 temperature and pressure, supercritical fluids are obtained. Due to its relatively low critical 345 temperature and pressure ($T_c = 31.1 \circ C$, $P_c = 7.38$ MPa), CO₂ is considered as the best substance to make supercritical fluid. CO₂ is low in cost, reactivity, and toxicity and also widely available. 346 Supercritical CO₂ can be used to extract nonpolar and slightly polar substances such as 347 348 aldehydes, alkanes, terpenes, esters and alcohols [48].

By using the modifiers (polar: acetone, methanol & nonpolar: propane, octane), the 349 solubility of polar and nonpolar solids in SF CO₂ can be enhanced. In the SF solution, low 350 concentrations (5 vol. %) of modifiers are added. As SF CO₂ possesses low polarizability, the 351 addition of modifiers improves this property and the same was stated in the papers [49,50]. 352 353 Faisal et al. [51] conducted an experiment to determine the extraction of PGMs using the supercritical CO₂ in combination with tributyl phosphate, no extraction of PGMs was observed. 354 355 HNO₃ ligand was introduced into the system and above 96% of Pd extraction was attained. It is also stated that the present process is not suitable for the recovery of Pt and Rh (as less than 3% 356 357 of these metals are recovered). The optimal conditions for the extraction process are when it is 358 performed at 60 °C, 20 MPa for 60 min of static extraction time. Supercritical water was used for 359 the recovery of PGMs from the homogeneous precious metal catalysts by Collard et al. [52]. At 500 to 600 °C with 30 MPa and oxygen injection (0–15%), over 95% of leaching rates for Pt, Pd 360 361 and Rh from organic catalyst was attained. The process has been effective but limited to only 362 certain types of catalysts.

363 364

365

2.1.5. Supported liquid membranes

The possibility of utilizing thin layers of organic solutions (supported liquid membranes, SLM), immobilized on microporous inert supports interposed between two aqueous solutions (feed and strip), for removing selectively metal ions (A) from a mixture (AB+...) was first proposed more than 55 years ago [53]. The schematic representation of the process is shown in Figure 6. In some processes, the addition (C) is added to the strip to form the insoluble compound (AC).

The general problems of using this technique are connected with the membrane instability due to the pressure difference, the carrier and membrane dissolution, the presence of osmotic pressure, and other issues described in [54]. Since it was first proposed, supported liquid membrane technology has been used for the separation of a wide range of metals ions [55].



377 378

Figure 6. Schematic representation of supported liquid membrane [55, 56]

Fontas et al. [56, 57] described the new system combining two hollow-fiber-supported 379 liquid membranes for the separation and concentration of platinum, palladium, and rhodium 380 381 from spent automotive catalytic converters. Selective separation of these metals was achieved when the feed solution (to which a small amount of thiocyanate had been added) was first 382 383 introduced into the HFLM system containing Cyanex 471 (triisobuthylphosphine sulfide) as the 384 extractant and then passed through the second liquid membrane system consisting of Aliquat 336 (Tricaprylmethylammonium chloride) as the carrier. Only an insignificant amount of aluminum 385 was co-transported. In the later work [57], palladium separation and concentration was achieved 386 in a single step when using the liquid membrane system in hollow fiber geometry. Its efficiency 387 has been demonstrated working with real solutions of PGMs obtained from the leaching of 388 automotive catalysts, where palladium has efficiently been separated and concentrated, while no 389 390 platinum extraction was observed. More developments of supported liquid membranes technique 391 are described elsewhere [58].

392 393

394

2.2. Pyrometallurgy

In the pyrometallurgical process, the spent catalyst is transformed physically and chemically by performing a thermal treatment. Calcination, chlorination, and PGM smelting collection are considered as the three kinds of pyrometallurgical technologies [59, 60]. These technologies can be performed at a higher rate compared to the hydrometallurgical processes, as in the latter case there is no geometrical significance for the scrap materials used in the extraction of PGMs. In this process, a high amount of energy is consumed and leads to the emission of SO₂, which is an environmental hazard [61].

402 403

404

2.2.1. Sintering process

The sintering process was performed by Bronshtein et al. [62] to extract the PGMs with high efficiency by mixing the spent catalyst with the metal chloride salts including (for Pd extraction)/ excluding (for Pt extraction) fumed silica powder. Two procedures were followed: in procedure #1, CaCl₂ was mixed with the crushed catalyst materials under dry conditions and in procedure #2, the spent catalyst was immersed in the aqueous calcium chloride solution followed by drying. An optimal chloride salt to catalyst ratio was 6.7:2.5 for procedure #2. During the

experiment, continuous airflow was provided into the reactor. In procedure #1, the sintering 411 process was performed for 120 mins and Pt extraction efficiency did not exceed $63 \pm 3\%$ for the 412 temperatures between 500 to 1000 °C. The calcium hypochlorite addition (20% w.r.t. catalyst 413 wt.%) to the dry mixture improved the extraction efficiency to $74 \pm 4\%$. In procedure #2, the 414 extraction efficiency of Pt was up to $80 \pm 4\%$, the addition of ammonium chloride and sodium 415 chloride salts as a supplement to the mixture to enhance the Pt extraction did not show any 416 417 positive effect. At 1100 °C, Pt was 100% extracted from the catalyst mixture using the procedure 418 #2.

The Pd extraction by using procedures #1 and #2 was poor (< 3%), fumed silica paste was used as an additive and a significant improvement in the extraction efficiency was observed ($76 \pm 4\%$) when sintered between 1000 to 1100 °C. The addition of silica paste leads to a significant negative Gibbs energy for the reaction to form CaSiO₃ from CaO and SiO₂ (equation 18) ($\Delta G^0 = -220$ KJ/mol at T = 1100 °C) and without the silica paste addition, the $\Delta G^0 = -45$ KJ/mol.

- 425
- 426 427

431

432 433 $2Pd + 2CaCl_2 + 2SiO_2 + O_2 (gas) \rightarrow 2PdCl_2 (gas) + 2CaSiO_3$ (18)

The primary advantage of the process is that it does not use strong acids or bases, no corrosive gases, and no hazardous chemicals. It produces nontoxic silicate waste as a by-product, which is minimal.

2.2.2. Chlorination process

In this process, the PGMs from the spent catalysts are transformed into their respective chlorides at high temperatures [63]. The PGMs are then separated based on the difference between the metal chlorides or by adsorption on an activated carbon bed or by repulp washing [40]. Murray et al. [64] in his patent mentioned that the PGMs in the spent catalyst are converted into chlorides in a chlorine gas/fluid field at 600 to 1200 °C. The separation is then carried out by absorption of PGM chlorides by ammonium chloride liquor or water. The recovery of Pd, Pt, and Rh were up to 80–90%, 80–90%, and 85–90% respectively.

Horike et al. [65] proposed a chlorination process for an efficient Pt recovery. CuCl₂ was used as a chlorine solution for the chlorination of Pt at 400 to 600 °C. Due to high chemical stability, pure Pt was insoluble in HCl (aq), scrap containing Pt was then alloyed with Mg and physically mixed with CuCl₂ at 500 °C and then dissolved in HCl (aq). The solubility of Pt in the HCl(aq) improved after the chlorination process. The recovery of Pt through this process can be environmentally friendly.

447 Xu et al. [66] proposed a method where the spent catalyst was pre-treated by crushing, 448 roasting, and reducing. Then NaCl was added to it to perform chlorination at 600–700 °C. The 449 mixture was then dealt with by the hot water and steam, resulting in PGM chloride salt solution. 450 The recovery of Pd, Pt, and Rh was up to 90%. This process is not adaptable to the industrial 451 scale as it results in the emission of toxic gases, high equipment requirement, and is performed at 452 high temperatures.

453 454

2.2.3. Metal smelting collection

455

In this process, the spent catalysts are mixed with flux, collector and reducing agent and then smelted in a high-temperature electric arc or plasma furnace or induction furnaces at around 1000 °C (Figure 7). PGMs are converted into easily treatable complex ions and later refined to recover the PGMs. The pre-treatment processes such as the dismantling of non-metallic components, calcination or reduction are performed before the smelting, which is done at high temperatures with the addition of collectors (with high specific gravity) such as lead, iron, copper. The PGMs form an alloy with the collectors; at the same time catalysts, carriers are 463 melted in the presence of flux to form a slug with the low viscosity. Then the separation 464 procedure is performed were the PGM enriched alloy is separated from the slag and the 465 purification process is done. High recovery rates of PGM are expected from this process [67]

465 purification process is done. High recovery rates of PGM are expected from this process [67]. Spent catalyst



466 467

Figure 7. Flowsheet illustrating the PGMs recovery by the pyrometallurgical process

The lead collection is the oldest method used to recover PGMs from the spent catalyst 468 469 [68]. In this process, the spent catalyst is crushed and then added to a mixture containing PbO, anhydrous borax, sodium carbonate, and potassium bitartrate, which is then smelted for 2h at 470 1100 °C. The PbO is reduced to Pb, forming an alloy with the PGMs while SO₂ from the catalyst 471 472 is oxidized to form a slag namely borosilicate, which floats on top of the molten lead layer. The 473 borosilicate slag is removed and molten Pb containing PGMs is left for purification. This process is easy to operate and Pt recovery is highly efficient but also has disadvantages: the Rh recovery 474 475 being less than 80% and the emission of toxic PbO gas.

The copper collection process is recommended for the spent catalyst containing cordierite 476 477 carriers [69–71]. The copper collectors are CuCO₃, CuO, or Cu with the flux being SiO₂, CaO, and the reducing agent is usually powder coke. The collector, the flux, the reducing agent and the 478 spent catalyst mixture is placed in an induction furnace and smelted at 1400 °C. PGMs are 479 collected at low temperature under ambient atmosphere. The ceramic carriers of the PGMs form 480 481 a slag on the top of the molten copper, which can be poured out easily. The PGM contained copper is cast into anodes and electrolysis is performed. A slime containing 25% of PGMs is 482 obtained after the electrolysis, 99% of PGMs can be recovered overall through this process. 483

Using iron as a collector is economically beneficial. Fe shows a strong chemical affinity towards the PGMs [72]. The crushed spent catalyst mixed with the flux (CaO), Fe powder, and reducing agent (powder coke) is smelted in a plasma arc furnace at 1500 – 2000 °C. The PGM enriched Fe alloy and the carrier slag can be easily separated because of their large densities differences (density ratio = 2:1). The recovery rates of Pd, Pt, and Rh were over 98%, 98%, and 97%, respectively [73].

490 The matte collection is a relatively new method used for the recovery of PGM from spent 491 catalyst [74, 75]. When the spent catalyst is smelted, a matte type substance is formed, which 492 acts as a collector of PGMs. PGMs enriched matte is obtained at 1000 to 1450 °C by adding Ni 493 or NiS and the flux (Na₂B₄O₇, Na₂CO₃, CaO). You et al. [76] reported that nickel and sulfur can 494 be used as collectors in the smelting of spent catalyst in the presence of borax and sodium 495 carbonate for 30 min at 1050 °C. The recoveries of Pd, Pt, and Rh were 93%, 90%, and 88%
496 respectively for this process.

497 A novel Pd recovery method was proposed by Zhang et al. [77] where the eutectic copper is used to capture Pd from the spent automobile catalyst. The recovery of Pd is difficult 498 compared to the rest of the PGMs, as the element possesses inert behavior [78]. Cu is used as a 499 500 capture agent, where Pd forms an alloy with Cu at a temperature above 1250 °C. The studies 501 were conducted at temperatures between 1200 and 1400 °C. The spent catalyst mainly comprised of cordierite (2MgO:2Al₂O₃:5SiO₂), aluminum oxide, and 1650 mg/kg of Pd. The spent catalyst 502 sample was transferred to a crucible along with CuO, 5wt % C, 30 wt.% CaO, 20 wt % SiO₂, 10 503 504 wt.% borax, and 8 wt.% Na₂CO₃, where borax and Na₂CO₃ enhances the melting of the slag. The 505 CaO-SiO₂-Al₂O₃ glass phase, which plays a key role in the formation of Cu-Pd alloy, is expected to formed. At 1200 °C, the recovery of Pd was 0% as the spent catalyst was not in the molten 506 507 form. At 1250 °C, the Pd recovery reached 90% and was up to 100% when the operating temperature reached 1400 °C. The authors suggested the optimal temperature to be 1350 °C 508 509 where the Pd recovery rate was 97%.

The metal smelting collection process can be implemented on a wide range of secondary materials, especially low grade, and refractory spent catalysts. Factors like collector materials, flux, reducing agents, operational conductions affect the efficiency of the process. Copper collection technology has relatively low cost, high efficiency, and low smelting temperature. The collector material can be re-used. Therefore, this method can be easily adapted to an industrial scale. It is also worth mentioning that adding metal collectors to the briquettes increases the PGM yielding and significantly decrease the dust-gas emission [79].

517 518

519

2.3. Physical separation

520 In the spent catalyst, the catalyst carriers are honeycomb-structured items with the porous catalyst layers on its surface. The PGMs are only present on these porous layers where a simple 521 522 low-energy-consuming and low-cost process like physical separation can be implemented to 523 separate the PGMs or PGM containing layer from the carrier would be significant to eliminate 524 the toxic gases usually released from the regular recycling process. By pulverizing the spent 525 catalyst, a magnetic separation technique can be employed to physically separate the PGMs from 526 the catalyst carriers. The magnetic separation can be performed only on old catalysts with nickel content. Techniques like selective grinding followed by size separation [80, 81] and selective 527 grinding followed by quenching/heat treatment [82] can enhance the PGM-containing catalyst 528 529 layer concentration.

Taninouchi et al. [83] came up with a new process (Figure 8), where a magnetic separation technique is used to recover the PGMs from spent catalysts.





534

Figure 8. Flowchart illustrating physical concentration technique [83]

In this process, the Ni deposition on the PGMs is done by using an electroless-plating 535 bath along with a complexing agent and reduction agent, which are glycine and sodium 536 hypophosphite respectively. The composition of electroless plating bath (NiSO₄· $6H_2O = 35.6$ 537 $c^{i}/g.L^{-1}$, glycine = 22.0 $c^{i}/g.L^{-1}$, NaHPO₂. H₂O = 24.1 $c^{i}/g.L^{-1}$ and PbCl₂ = 0.004 $c^{i}/g.L^{-1}$). The 538 pH value was adjusted to 7.7 \pm 0.4 at room temperature (25 °C) by using NaOH(aq.). The 539 catalyst sample is immersed in the plating solution (40 ml) at room temperature. The container 540 with the catalyst sample and plating solution is then heated to 70 °C for 15 mins. The 541 542 ferromagnetic nickel was plated on the surface of the porous catalyst layer successfully without 543 additional steps like sensitization or activation. Crushing and pulverization were performed on catalyst samples. Neodymium magnet (Nd-Fe-B alloy) was used for the magnetic separation 544 545 process under dry conditions. Results from the separation process showed that this process can 546 be further developed and can be adapted to the industrial scale.

547 The recovery of PGM by treating the spent catalyst with $FeCl_x$ (x= 2, 3) was tested by 548 Taninouchi et al [84, 85]. The idea was to convert Pt into the Pt–Fe alloy, which exhibits ferromagnetic behavior. The FeCl₂ vapor reacted with Pt samples under the coexistence of Fe 549 metal at 927 °C for 60 mins, resulted in the formation of the γ_2 -FePt ferromagnetic phase. Fe 550 was transported from metallic Fe to Pt sample due to the disproportionation of FeCl₂ vapor and 551 the gaseous phase FeCl_x acted as a mediator between the metals. When the γ_2 -FePt alloy was 552 exposed to FeCl₃, Fe was removed from the alloy resulting in the loss of the magnetic property. 553 It can be stated that Pt can be only treated with FeCl₂ but not with FeCl₃. Further tests were 554 555 conducted on the rest of the PGMs and the result was the same. Pd and Rh formed alloys with Fe showing strong ferromagnetic character. The carriers like Al₂O₃ did not react with the FeCl₂ but 556 La_2O_3 and CeO_2 were converted into their respective oxychlorides. Magnetic separation was 557 558 effective on the PGMs after the FeCl₂ vapor treatment. These processes showed promising results and have the potential to be used at a higher level. The process can be performed at a low 559 cost with a quick pace and is environmentally friendly. 560

- 561
- 562 563

2.4. Electrochemical techniques

564 High-temperature electrochemical treatment can be applied to extract precious metals 565 from spent catalysts. In general, the electrochemical methods are easy to arrange, can be 566 performed with low waste emission and with low energy and reactant consumption. The major disadvantage is that these methods are not universal. They can be applied for the treatment of 567 catalyst based on γ -Al₂O₃ carrier with a minor content of other oxides (SiO₂, Fe₂O₃, MgO, TiO₂, 568 CeO₂, etc.), however automotive exhaust gas convertors, which are catalysts with the highest 569 annual amount can barely be successfully treated by electrochemical process due to their 570 complexity. They generally have cordierite $(2MgO \cdot 2Al_2O_3 \cdot 5SiO_2)$ as a substrate coated with γ -571 572 Al₂O₃ wash-coat where precious metals (basically Pt, Pd, Rh) are placed. Each of the oxide components requires separate treatment and adjustment of the technology. 573

2.4.1. Two-step method

574

575

586 587 588

Belov et al. [86, 87, 88] proposed an electrochemical method for the extraction of Pd
from spent Al₂O₃-based catalysts, which was carried out in several stages, based on the HallHeroult process for the primary aluminum production and the three-layer refining process for the
high-purity aluminum production (shown in Figure 9). These stages are:

1. Calcination of the catalysts at 800 °C under air (or oxygen) atmosphere to remove
 organic impurities and partially transform PGMs into oxides;

Dissolution of the catalysts in the molten fluoride system (Na₃AlF₆-AlF₃-CaF₂),
 electrodeposition of aluminum and PGM on the cathode alloy with the simultaneous evolution of
 carbon dioxide on the carbon anode according to the reaction:

$$Al_2O_3(dis) + 1.5C(s) \Rightarrow 2Al(l) + 1.5CO_2(g)$$
 (19)

589 3. Electrolytic refining of the Al–Cu–PGM alloy (Cu is added to heighten density) with 590 electrodeposition of high-purity aluminum at the cathode and concentration of PGMs in the 591 anode alloy.



Figure 9. Schematic representation of the commercial Hall-Heroult Cell and the aluminum refinery cell [89]

This process requires high (950–970 °C) temperature and should be operated within a narrow window of catalysts concentration to prevent the sludge formation and the emission of perfluorocarbons during low- or high-voltage anode effect that in case of slow dissolution can be a difficult problem to overcome.

599 Despite the mentioned considerations, several experimental facts confirm the 600 perspectivity of the electrochemical extraction method [86–88]:

with the introduction of palladium oxide into molten cryolite, palladium is sufficiently fully
 reduced and dissolved in aluminum, while the addition of finely dispersed palladium to the
 melt leads to its appreciable distribution between aluminum and cryolite (in the latter,
 palladium forms suspension);

palladium from the catalysts is dissolved and almost completely concentrated in primary
 aluminum (98–99%);

replacing smelter grade alumina with the catalyst in the Hall-Heroult process has virtually no
 effect on the performance of the aluminum production;

the presence of palladium in the anode alloy in the three-layer refining process has almost no
 effect on the current efficiency of the aluminum refining;

high palladium extraction degree (>98%) and the simultaneous production of high-purity
 aluminum (A97, A99) were achieved.

613 614

615

2.4.2. One-step method

The cost of noble metals extraction from spent catalysts can be significantly reduced by 616 using a one-step electrochemical method. Moreover, the temperature of the process can be 617 618 lowered to 700-850 °C by replacing sodium cryolite with low-temperature fluoride or chloride melts with considerable solubility of Al₂O₃. The promising option, the molten 1.3KF-AlF₃ 619 system has been studied elsewhere [89-91]. Dividing the cell into two parts (half-cells) by 620 supported vertical or unsupported horizontal liquid Al membrane (bipolar electrode) can be a 621 beneficial solution for one-step extraction. The first half-cell acts as the aluminum reduction cell, 622 the second one plays the role of the aluminum refinery cell. The schematic representation of the 623 cell is shown in Figure 10. 624

625

Figure 10. Concept of one-step electrometallurgical process, (1) KF–AlF₃ electrolyte for catalyst
 decomposition, (2) Al-based bipolar electrode, (3) wettable substrate TiB₂ or W – optional, (4) NaCl–
 KCl–AlF₃ (+optional BaCl₂) electrolyte for removing Al from the bipolar electrode, (5) oxygen-evolving
 anode, (6) cathode for high-purity aluminum evolution

630

This process is patented [92] and now is under the laboratory scale studies [93] with the spent $Pt(+Re)/\gamma Al_2O_3$ catalysts from the petrochemical industry with 0.35 wt.% Pt and 0.2 wt.% Re (optional). The catalysts were calcined under air atmosphere in the electrical furnace at 800 °C for 30 mins with the manual stirring, ground and treated with mechanical activation for 10 s for better performance in terms of dissolution rate. The 24-hours experiment showed that Pt extraction reaches 99%. This value obtained by comparing the Pt concentration in the bipolar electrode and high-purity aluminum. The detailed description of these results is a subject of 638 further publications. The spent catalyst used by the authors for the recovery of Pt is shown in Figure 11.

639

640 641 Figure 11. Spent catalyst Pt/ Al₂O₃: a) before sintering, b) after 10 minutes of calcining at 800 °C, c) after 30 minutes of calcining at 800 °C with manual stirring 642

643

657

658 659

662

While Pt is successfully concentrated in the alloy, Re requires additional effort to be 644 extracted as it is oxidized in a wide range of temperatures. The boiling temperatures of rhenium 645 646 oxides are lower than 620 °C that makes it difficult to extract it to the alloy. This is another 647 drawback of this process when the catalyst contains Re.

648 The catalysts based on the cordierite can also be dissolved in molten cryolite. In that case, 649 silicon (and iron) will be collected in the alloy along with precious metals. Magnesium will be collected in the refinery electrolyte in the form of MgCl₂ due to the significant differences 650 between the electrode potentials of Al and Mg. The same is true for cerium, which will also be 651 652 collected in the electrolyte in an oxidized form.

The complexity of cordierite (and another mineral supports as zeolites) makes the 653 possibility of using the electrochemical technology for the treatment of spent catalysts other than 654 Al₂O₃-based questionable. Major changes should be made to adjust this technology for different 655 656 types of catalysts.

2.5. **Comparative analysis of the technologies**

The comparison between different approaches for the extraction of metals from spent 660 catalysts is presented in table 2. 661

Generic	Recycling		Recovery	Advantages and disadvantages of	environment and	Extractio	Application	Rof
composition	technology	Operating	effect	the recycling	pollutants	n%	scale	NCI .
(WL.%)		condition		process	released	D1 00 %	<i>a</i>	
Pt/Al ₂ O ₃	HCI +	Low operating	High Pt, Pd	+High recovery	Wastewater	Pd: 99%,	Commercial	23-31
Pt- 0.35, Al-	Cl ₂ /NaClO/Na	temperature (60-	and Rh	efficiency, +mature	pollution (heavy	Pt: 94%	level	
52.80, Fe- 0.02,	ClO ₃ leaching	150 °C),	recovery rate	technology,	metal ions); Cl ₂	Rh:89%		
C- 0.35		Emission of		+low toxicity,	emission			
		SO ₂ , Cl ₂		+low investment and				
				cost				
Pd/Al ₂ O ₃	$HCl + H_2O_2$	Low operating	High Pt, Pd	+High recovery	Low	Pd: 97%,	Commercial	32-36
PdO ₂ - 0.03%	leaching	temperature (60-	and Rh	efficiency,	environmental	Pt: 90%	level	
CrO ₃ - 0.03%	C C	150 °C), Low	recovery rate	+ mature	pollution due to	Rh:>97%		
Al ₂ O ₃ matrix –		emission of Cl ₂	,	technology.	the low emission			
99.94%				+negligible toxicity.	of Cl2			
				+low investment and				
				cost short process				
Pt/Al ₂ O ₃	Cvanide	Low operating	High Pt Pd	+Low recovery	Wastewater	Pd· 98%	Laboratory	39-41
$PtO_{2} = 0.56\%$	leaching	temperature (60-	and Rh	efficiency	pollution (CN ⁻).	Pt: 96%	level	57 11
$CdO_{-} 0.44\%$	ieuciiiig	150 °C)	recovery rate	+low investment and	HCN emission	Rh:92%	10,01	
$SiO_2 = 0.17\%$		Hazardous gases	recovery rate	cost	TICT CHIISSION	111.7270		
5102 0.1770		Thizardous gases		0051			1	

•	-					
Table 2.	The com	parison of	f different	technologies	for cataly	ysts processing

Al ₂ O ₃ - 96.09% rest of the matrix < 1%		emission		-immaturetechnology,-high toxicity,				
Pt/Al ₂ O ₃ Pt- 0.307% Cl- 1.43% Fe ₂ O ₃ - 0.343% Al ₂ O ₃ - 92.15% Loss of ignistion- 4.95%	Bioleaching	Low operating temperature, No harmful gases emitted	moderate Pt, Pd and Rh recovery rate	+moderate recovery efficiency (relatively new process for the recovery of PGMs), +non-toxicity, +low investment and cost, +low energy consumption, – immature technology –low extraction rate	Environmentally friendly, no chemical emission	Pt: 41%	Laboratory level (Industrial level while extracting metals like (Ni, V, Mo, etc)	43-46
Pt,Pd, Rh/carbon Pt- 1.3% Pd- 0.8% Rh- 0.973% C- rest of the % with respect to the PGM	Supercritical fluids oxidation	Low operating temperature	The high Pd recovery rate	+High recovery efficiency (only Pd), +low investment and cost -Low Pt and Rh recovery, -immature technology,	Waste gas and waste oil pollution	Pd: 96%, Pt: 95% Rh:95%	Laboratory level	47-52
Pt,Pd/Al Pt- 0.15% Pd- 0.07% Pb- 1.56% Al- 98.21%	Supported liquid membrane	High operating temperature	High selectivity	+High selectivity -Low extraction rate -High wastes	wastes	No reliable data available	Laboratory level	53-58
Pt,Rh/slug Pt- 0.23% Rh- 0.053% Ce- 6.153% Zr- 1.437% Ba- 1.15% Mg- 5.893% Al- 20.27% O- 64.814%	Pyrometallurgi cal process	High operating temperature (750 – 1500 °C)	High Pt, Pd and Rh recovery rate	+High recovery efficiency, +Mature technology, -high investment, -high energy consumption	Large volumes of slags and air pollution	Pd: 98%, Pt: 98% Rh:97%	Industrial level	59-78
Pt,Pd,Rh/ Mg2Al4Si5O18 Pt- 0.0056% Pd- 0.0062% Rh- 0.0019% Al2O3- 42.0% SiO2- 32.9% MgO- 8.2%	Separation process (magnetic)	High operating temperature (800 – 1300 °C), low pollutants	Moderate Pt, Pd and Rh recovery rate (experimental stage)	+Moderate recovery efficiency, +low investment, +low energy consumption -immature technology	Environmentally friendly, negligible Cl ₂ emission	No reliable data available	Laboratory level	80-85
Pd/Al base metal Pd- 1.2% Al- 98.80%	Two-steps electrochemica l process in molten salts	High operating temperature (950-970 °C), emission of greenhouse gases	The concentration of metals in Al alloy	+High recovery efficiency – Two steps	Greenhouse gasses emission	Pd: 98- 99%	Laboratory level	86-88
Pt(+Re)/γAl ₂ O ₃ Pt- 0.35% Re-0.2% Al ₂ O ₃ - 99.45%	One-step electrochemica l process in molten salts	High operating temperature (700-850 °C)	The concentration of metals in Al alloy	+High recovery efficiency +Low waste emission +Co-production of high-purity aluminum +O ₂ production – Under study	Under study	Under study	Laboratory level	92

Note: Generic composition of the feed mentioned in this table is only for one particular study with a high recovery rate, the composition varies with studies and can be found in the references mentioned.

665
666 The methods can be united into several groups according to the diagram presented in the
667 figure. 12; however this classification is rather suppositive as combined approaches are often

668 used in practice.

Figure 12. Variety of techniques used for spent catalysts processing and related products (Note: *SCF – supercritical fluid; Me* = Fe, Cu, Pb, Al; SLM – supported liquid membrane) [94–101].

The comparison shows that among the huge variety of technologies several have prospects of further development. Different products of the processes require appropriate treatment to extract valuable metals and purify them. Common significant drawbacks of the methods often are the high cost of equipment and consumables, the high specific energy consumption, and the huge amount of waste.

- 677 678
- 3
- 679

3. Separation process

In this process, individual PGMs, which are in their chlorocomplex form are separated 680 from the leaching solution. Solvent extraction, ion exchange, and precipitation methods are 681 usually implemented, where the extractants are added to the synthetic solution for individual 682 PGMs separation. Extractants, ion exchange resins, and precipitants play a vital role in the 683 separation behavior of Pt and Pd metals. In this section, the three separation methods mentioned 684 685 above will be discussed in brief along with the effects of extractants/ion exchange 686 resin/precipitants on the separation behavior of PGMs from the leach liquor. (Note: these separation methods are only used in hydrometallurgical processes) 687

688 689

690

3.1. Solvent extraction (SX) method

691 In the SX method, extractants are added to the pretreated leaching liquor where ideal concentrations of PGMs are available for the separation. Three types of extractants added 692 693 according to the requirements are namely, basic (amine), neutral, and acidic extractants. According to the literature study conducted in Nguyen et al. [102], Pt and Pd can be completely 694 extracted by selective stripping from the leaching solution by using amines, although 695 complications with the formation of the third phase and difficulties in stripping leading to the 696 697 compulsion in adjusting the stripping solution might occur. By using neutral extractants, 698 selective extraction of Pd

Table 3. Summary of the advantages and disadvantages of extractants in the separation andextraction of Pt and Pd in chloride leaching (adopted from [102]).

Extractants	Aqueous	Advant	age		Disadvan	tage		Ref.
Alamine 300 ^a	0.01 M Pt and Pd	Individual extraction	of Pt over Pd	Critical	stripping	issues.	Co-	104

		while using saturated NaCl solution at pH 1.5	extraction of Pd	
Alamine 336 ^a	0.0001 M Pt and Pd	Simultaneous extraction of Pt and Pd from the 1-5 M HCl.	High co-stripping of Pt along with Pd	105
	Pt, Pd	Extraction of both Pt and Pd from HCl with 15% w/w concentration	No data on Pt and Pd separation from stripping	106
TIOA ^a	Pt, Pd, Ru, Ir, Au	Extraction of Pt, Pd, and Au over Pu and Ir from 3.5-6 M HCl.	No data on Pt and Pd separation from stripping	107
DMDCHTDGA ^b	0.1 g/L Pt, Pd	Pd and Pt co-extraction at 8 M HCl. Pd and Pt separation using the stripping step.	Extraction is synthesized. separation efficiency is low	108
DBSO ^b	1000 g/L Pt, Pd	Pd extraction over Pt at 0.1 M HCl	Extraction is synthesized. Usage of 5 M ammonia solution + 3% v/v NH ₄ Cl for metal stripping.	109
Cyanex 923 ^b	50mM of Pd and Pt	Pt extraction over Pd at 5 M HCl	The low separation efficiency of Pd and Pt	110
Cyphos IL 101/104 ^b	2.5 mM of Pd, Pt, Ni, Cu, Ir, Pb, Ir, Ru, Rh	Pd extraction over other metals at 0.1 M HCl	The low separation efficiency of Pd and Pt	111
TBP ^b	Pt-0.55, Pd-0.15, Cr- 0.1, Mn-0.5, Ni-1, Fe- 1.5 g/L	Pd extraction over other metals at 3 M HCl	Loss of Pt from Fe precipitation	112
PC 88A ^c	0.001 g/L Pt, Pd	Extraction of Pd over Pt from 1 M HCl + 1 M HClO ₄ solution	Low metal concentration and low HCl concentration in the leaching solution	113
N530 ^c	Pt-10.23, Pd-5.95, Au- 5.42 g/L	Extraction of Au over Pt in 5 M HCl. Extraction of Pd over Au and Pt in HCl solution of pH 2.0	Pd stripping only possible at high HCl concentration (6 M)	114
LIX 63°	100 ppm of Pd(II), Pt(IV), Ir(IV) and Rh(III), 6 M HCl	Individual Pd extraction over other metals, easily desorbed by using 0.5 M (NH ₂) ₂ CS stripping reagent	Coextraction of other PGMs occurs at high LIX 63 concentrations (over 0.2 M)	115
LIX 84I ^c	Pt-0.55, Pd-0.15, Cr- 0.1, Mn-0.5, Ni-1, Fe- 1.5 g/L	Extraction of Pd over other metals at 3 M HCl.	Co-extraction of Fe is high	116
	1 g/L Pt, Pd	Individual extraction of Pd over other metals from the solution with pH values 1-3, Separation factor= 400	Metal stripping from 6M HCl, low HCl concentration in the leaching solution.	117

701 Note: a-Basic extractants, b-Neutral extractants, c-Acidic extractants

Alamine 300 = tri-n-octyl amine; Alamine 336 = tri-octyl/ dodecyl amine; TIOA = tri-iso-octylamine;
DMDCHTDGA = N,N'-dimethyl-N,N'-dicyclohexylthiodiglycolamide; DBSO = dibutyl sulfoxide; Cyanex 932 =
the phosphine oxides; Cyphos1IL 104 = trihexyl(tetradecyl)phosphonium bis-2,4,4-trimethylpentylphosphinate;
Cyphos IL 101 = trihexyl(tetradecyl)phosphonium chloride; TBP = tributyl phosphate; PC-88A = 2-ethylhexyl
phosphonic acid mono-2-ethylhexyl ester; N530 = 2-hydroxy-4-sec-octanoyl diphenyl-ketoxime; LIX 63 = 5,8 diethyl-7-hydroxydodecane-6-oximeLIX 84I = 2-hydroxy-5-nonylacetophenone oxime.

- 709 The separation behavior of Pt(IV) and Ir(III) in three different leaching solutions (HCl/HNO₃/H₂SO₄) between the varying concentrations 0.1-6 mol/L using Cyanex 471X 710 extractant was investigated [118]. Cyanex 471X was diluted with toluene and the concentration 711 712 of the extractant in this organic solution was 0.1 mol/L. The extraction percentage of Pt(IV) was about 80% at low HCl concentrations of 0.1-0.5 mol/L, and a sudden decrease in the percentage 713 714 to 50% was recorded at 2.0 mol/L HCl and remained constant on further increase in HCl 715 concentration. The same phenomena were seen while using HNO₃ and H₂SO₄ solutions as the initial recovery rate was 55% and 67% respectively but with the increase in their concentrations 716 reduced that recovery rate. The reason reported was that Pt(IV) could not form an extractable 717 718 sulphate complex. On contrast to Pt(IV), Ir(III) was easily extracted in HCl solution as it could form extractable chlorocomplexes. Ir(III) from HNO₃ and H₂SO₄ solutions had high recovery at 719 0.1 mol/L concentration and were low when their respective concentrations reached 6.0 mol/L. 720
- 721
- 722

3.2. Ion-exchange method

In the ion-exchange method, the ion exchange resin is added to the leaching solution, 724 725 sometimes combined with the synthetic solution loaded with PGMs in their complex form. Ionexchangers play a vital role in the separation process and some of the details on the ion-726 727 exchangers are mentioned in table 4. The PGMs are adsorbed on the resin surface. The elution process is carried out on loaded organic resins by adding eluents like Na₂CO₃, NaCl, and a 728 mixture of thiourea and HCl to strip the PGMs. Separation of Pt and Rh from the HCl solution 729 730 with varying concentrations of 0.1-5 M using IX technique was investigated in [119]. Three 731 different ion exchangers were used namely AGMP-1, AG1-x2, and AG1-x8. The adsorption phenomena of Pt and Rh were similar in all the anion exchangers. Pt showed better adsorption 732 percentage even at 5M HCl solution while the percentage was less than 20% in the case of Rh 733 734 throughout 0.1 to 5 M concentration. It is worth noting that an increase in the concentration of exchangers in the solution increased the adsorption percentage of both Pt and Rh. Langmuir 735 736 isotherm was followed by resins for Pt adsorption. The adsorption percentage of Rh increases 737 with an increase in the HCl concentration, while the percentage of Pt decreases. AG1-x8 was a better exchanger compared to the other two, as AG1-x8 had better Pt loading capacity and also a 738 739 high separation factor between Rh and Pt. Further continuous column experiment showed that Pt 740 and Rh can be completely separated using 0.1 HCl solution mixture. Na₂CO₃, NaCl, and a mixture of thiourea and HCl were used as eluting agents, and thiourea was more effective in 741 eluting Pt from the loaded organic resin. The process is effective and can be adapted to the 742 743 commercial level. The resin used in this process can be regenerated after the desorption of the 744 PGMs.

In [120], the separation behavior of Pt, Pd, and Rh in 2.35 M HCl solution was 745 746 investigated where ion exchanger resins namely XUS 43600 (thiouronium functional group), Lewatit MonoPlus (M+) MP 600 (quaternary ammonium functional group), and Purolite S985 747 (polyamine functional group) were used. It was reported that Pt and Pd show high adsorption 748 749 percentage in the XUS 43600 while Rh had poor adsorption behavior for all three resins. Sodium thiocyanate (2 mol/L), thiourea (1 mol/L) in sodium hydroxide (2 mol/L) thiourea (1 mol/L) in 750 751 hydrochloric acid (2mol/L), and hydrochloric acid (2mol/L) were used as an eluting agent. Desorption of Pt, Pd from the loaded resins was better using acidic thiourea. In both [119] and 752 753 [120], it is stated that the adsorption of Rh on the resins and desorption from the loaded resins using the eluting agent were difficult. Alternative methods need to be used for the recovery of 754 755 Rh.

- 756
- **Table 4.** Summary of the advantages and disadvantages of ion-exchangers in the separation and
 extraction of Pt, Pd, and Rh in chloride leaching

entraction of f	, i u, unu iui in emoi	lae leaething		
Ion exchanger	Aqueous	Advantages	Disadvantages	Ref.
AG1-x2	0.001 M Pt, 0.001 Rh, 0.1	High Pt adsorption at 0.1 M	Poor Rh adsorption	119
		HCl	percentage at all HCl	
			concentrations	
AG1-x8	0.001 M Pt, 0.001 Rh, 0.1	High Pt and Rh loading	Requires high HCl (5 M)	119
	to 5 M HCI	capacity, selectivity between	and high resin (20 g/L)	
		(large separation factor) Pt	concentrations separate Rh	
		and Rh		
AGMP-1	0.001 M Pt, 0.001 Rh, 0.1	High Pt separation and	low Rh separation and	119
	to 5 M HCl	extraction	extraction	
XUS 43600	Leaching solution	High Pt and Pd extraction	low Rh final elution	120
	(0.000129 M Pt,	from both the solution type	percentage	
	0.000125 M Pd,	of around 99.9%		
	0.000033 M Rh, 2.35			
	M HCl), synthetic			
	solution(, 0.000513			
	M Pt, 0.000470 M			
	Pd, and 0.000194 M			
	Rh, 4.11 M HCl)			
Lewatit (M+)	Leaching solution	High Pd extraction	Low Rh recovery and no	120
MP 600	(0.000129 M Pt,	percentage and high elution	data on elution data	

	0.000125 M Pd, 0.000033 M Rh, 2.35 M HCl), synthetic solution(, 0.000513 M Pt, 0.000470 M Pd, and 0.000194 M Rh, 4.11 M HCl)	percentage (using Thiourea 1 M eluant in HCl 2 M)		
Purolite S985	Leaching solution (0.000129 M Pt, 0.000125 M Pd, 0.000033 M Rh, 2.35 M HCl), synthetic solution(, 0.000513 M Pt, 0.000470 M Pd, and 0.000194 M Rh, 4.11 M HCl)	High Rh recovery percentage of 87.8% and 94.8% respectively from leaching and synethetic solution.	Low Pd recovery and low Rh final elution percentage	120
Purolite S920	0.150g/L Pd, 109.5 g/L HCl, 53.5 g/L NH ₄ Cl, 3.2 g/L Cu(II), 3.3 g/L Zn(II), 2.8 g/L Fe(III), 6 g/L Sn(IV)	High Pd adsorption percentage	No elution data	121
Purolite S924	0.150g/L Pd, 109.5 g/L HCl, 53.5 g/L NH ₄ Cl, 3.2 g/L Cu(II), 3.3 g/L Zn(II), 2.8 g/L Fe(III), 6 g/L Sn(IV)	No particular advantages noted in Pd recovery investiagtion	Adsorption percentage of Pd less than 65%	121
Lewatit TP-214,	0.0011 M Pd(II), 0.1– 0.9 M HCl – 0.9–0.1 M HNO ₃ , 0.0011 M Pd(II), 1–2.0 M HCl, 1.0 M NaCl	High ion exchange rate	Difficulty in elution process	122, 123

Note: AG 1- strongly basic anion exchangers with quaternary ammonium functional groups attached to the styrene divinylbenzene copolymer lattice, XUS 43600- Thiouronium (thiourea) attached to the Styrene-divinylbenzene, Lewatit (M+) MP 600- Quaternary ammonium (type 2) attached to the Styrene-divinylbenzene, Purolite S985 Polyamine attached to the Polyacrylic-divinylbenzene, Purolite S920- thiourea functional group, Purolite S924- thiol functional group, Lewatit TP 214- thiourea or isothiourea functional group attached to Polystyrene-divinylbenzene

764 765

766

3.3. Precipitation method

767 In this method, a suitable precipitating agent is added to the leaching solution containing PGM ions, where the PGMs interact with the agents and form insoluble substances and are 768 individually separated thereafter. The further step involves filtration where their pure metallic 769 770 forms can be obtained. In [124], selective separation of Rh from the HCl solution containing Pt 771 (IV), Pd (II), and Rh (III) (1 mmol/L) metals was performed using the precipitation method. 4hexylaniline and 4-butylaniline were used as precipitants in high HCl concentrated solution for 772 773 Rh separation. Centrifugation was used to separate the metal precipitates from the mixture. The findings showed that while using 4-hexylaniline precipitant, more than 90% of Pt and Pd were 774 775 precipitated in 1-2 M HCl concentration although a sudden decrease in the precipitation percentage with further increase in HCl concentration. In contrast to that, 85% of Rh was 776 precipitated from the solution at high HCl concentrations (3-8 M). Using 4-butylaniline had 777 poor precipitation percentage of Pt and Pd throughout the (1-8 M) HCl concentration, while Rh 778 was successfully precipitated with an increase in HCl concentration. The color of the Rh 779 precipitate was pinkish, and unique ion-pair complex composed of [RhCl₆]³⁻ /chloride/anilinium 780 ions in a 1:3:6 ratio was found. The process shows promising results for selective separation of 781 782 Rh and authors claim that the process could influence the PGM recovery process at an industrial 783 scale.

High extraction of Pt from HCl/H₂O₂ leach liquor (9 M HCl and 0.8 vol% H₂O₂) was 784 785 attained using precipitation technique in [125]. The suitable precipitation concentration of Pt species in the leaching solution is 0.2 g/L, which was attained by heating the solution at 190 °C 786 to make the excess liquid evapourate. NH₄Cl (290 g/L) was added to the solution with 787 simultaneous stirring at 40 °C. The yellowish Pt precipitate in a complex form of (NH₄)₂[PtCl₆] 788 789 was obtained. The later steps involved washing the precipitate with NH₄Cl solution (140 g/L) 790 followed by the calcination. The Pt recovery rate was 96% and the purity was around 99.6%. This method is simple, energy-efficient, and promising with no harmful gas emission. 791

793 **4. Industrial operations**

794

792

On an industrial level, many advancements and optimizations have been made in extracting the PGMs from spent catalysts. Commercial processes for the PGMs recovery from the spent catalyst and used electronic products have successfully been implemented by industries like Engelhard (USA), BASF (USA), Hereaus (Germany), Johnson Matthey (UK), Mitsubishi (Japan), Umicore (Belgium), Nippon (Japan). Table 5 shows the processes already in use commercially.

800

 Table 5. Processes used for PGM recovery on a commercial scale [28, 126].

Process	Specification	Industry
ROSETM method	Pyrometallurgy	Nippon PGM Co.
Melting method-1	Pyrometallurgy	
Metal Vapour Treatment	Pyrometallurgy	MatsudaSangyo Ltd
The Plasma arc smelting process	Pyrometallurgy	Texasgulf, USA and Safina, Czech
		Republic
Chlorination	Hydrometallurgy	Tanaka Kikinzoku
Segregation		N.E. ChemCat
Aqua regia	Hydrometallurgy	
CN extraction	Hydrometallurgy	US Bureau of Mining
HCl leaching	Hydrometallurgy	Heraeus (Germany)

802 A new novel semi-industrial process combining pyrometallurgical treatment and 803 electrolytic refining is been proposed by the Institute for Mining and Metallurgy Bor [127]. They 804 claim that the process is economical, environmental, and highly efficient. A novel membrane 805 electrode assemblies process has been developed by BASF catalysts LLC (USA) to eliminate the emission of highly toxic gas (HF) in the present recycling processes [128]. Cyanide leaching has 806 807 been extensively used by the industries, although special attention needs to be given on the harmful byproducts released through this process. A novel three-liquid-phase extraction has 808 shown promising results at the laboratory scale and can open a new path in developing an 809 environmentally friendly extraction technique [129,130]. In a novel combination of pyro and 810 hydrometallurgical process, the catalytic converter carrier and Pt-Cu alloy samples acquired 811 from the pyrometallurgical method were treated with aqua-regia (with and without fluoric acid). 812 813 Solution and solid wastes were by-products of this process making it undesirable, although it has been stated that economical and environmental benefits can be excepted with an adequate 814 combination of pyro and hydrometallurgical methods and can be adopted at commercial scale 815 816 [131]. Biotechnological recovery where the metal ion-reducing bacterium (Shewanella algae) reduces and deposits the PGMs ions (Pt (IV), Pd (II), and Rh (III)) into metal nanoparticles at 817 neutral pH and room temperature within 60 min using the electron donor formate was 818 successfully developed by Saitoh et al. [132]. The adoption of this technology would be 819 revolutionary and environmentally friendly. Currently, a lot of research is conducted to find the 820 optimal way to recover the PGMs from the spent catalyst and a lot has been achieved at a 821 laboratory scale. Some of them are transferable to the industrial level. 822 823

- 824 **5.** Conclusion
- 825

The platinum group metals are widely used in various industrial applications. The 826 827 demand for the PGMs is inevitable because of its unique properties and the natural PGM resources are limited, which demands to recycle PGMs spent catalyst. The recycling process 828 satisfies the demand and consumes the leftover catalysts in environmentally friendly way. This 829 paper gives an overview of the processes used for the recycling of the spent catalyst. The 830 processes are distinguished into hydrometallurgy, pyrometallurgy, physical magnetic separation, 831 832 and electrochemical, which has advantages and disadvantages accordingly. While using the hydrometallurgical process, the by-products like toxic water wastes are released and recovery of 833 Rh is poor when compared with the pyrometallurgical process. The bioleaching process is eco-834 friendly but the recovery efficiency of PGMs should be improved. The pyrometallurgical process 835 836 needs huge energy and investments while the process is environmentally friendly compared to the hydrometallurgical process. The process can be economically beneficial when used in the 837 838 large-scale industrial level. The physical magnetic separation process is relatively new and novel but promising results were attained, nonetheless, the process is still at its beginning stages. The 839 840 new one-step electrometallurgical process with Pt recovery up to 99% was proposed by the 841 authors of this paper. The process is still under study and major results are expected to be obtained soon. A lot of work has been done in different recycling processes and still, there is a 842 scope of further improvement. 843

844 845

846

6. Future scope

Hydrometallurgical techniques are highly efficient for Pd extraction and get much more 847 attention in comparison with other ones during recent years; however, Rh cannot be leached for 848 more than 90 %. Strong solvents (aqua regia, cyanide, H₂SO₄, etc.) are used to dissolve the spent 849 catalysts in the leaching process. The PGMs should be reduced to the metallic state before that. 850 851 Cyanide leaching is a more efficient recovery process but it requires high temperatures, and cyanide is highly toxic. Pyrometallurgical techniques are well studied and applied in industry. 852 853 The advantage is that calcination, chlorination, and PGM smelting collection (infiltration) can be 854 performed at a higher rate compared to the hydrometallurgical processes. However, in the 855 pyrometallurgical process, a high amount of energy is consumed. The emission of SO_2 is also a significant drawback. Physical separation techniques are more simple, energy-efficient, and low-856 857 cost. It also eliminates the toxic gases usually released while using the hydro- and pyrometallurgical methods. Ni deposition on the PGMs is done by using an electroless-plating 858 bath, complexing, and reducing agents. High-temperature electrochemical methods are much less 859 860 studied. They are easy to set up, can be performed with low waste emission and with low energy and reactant consumption. However, they are not universal as they can only be applied for the γ -861 Al₂O₃-based catalysts. Complex cordierite-based (or similar) automotive exhaust gas converters 862 863 can barely be successfully treated by the electrochemical process. Optimization of this technology is required for each of the oxide components. Nevertheless, the one-step 864 electrochemical method appears to be a promising solution. However, it requires further research 865 to be implemented on an industrial scale. 866

867 868

872 873

Acknowledgments

The reported study was funded by RFBR according to the research project № 18–29–
24122.

- References
- 1. Richards, J.: Journal of Cleaner Production, 2006, vol. 14, pp. 324–333.
- 875
 2. Mpinga, C.N., Eksteen, J.J., Aldrich, C., Dyer, L.: Minerals Engineering, 2015, vol. 78, pp. 93–113.

926	33.	Sarioğlan, S.: Platinum Metals Review, 2013, vol. 57, pp. 289–296.
925	<i>3</i> 2.	Matjie, K.H., Scurrell, M.S., Bunt, J.: Materials Engineering, 2005, vol. 18, pp. 801–810.
924	22	$\frac{\text{nups://doi.org/10.1016/j.jnazmat.2019.1207/2}}{\text{Metric D H} Constant L Metric L E in the Constant L Metric L Metric L E in the Constant L Metric L Me$
923	31.	http://doi.org/10.1016/i.iborrect.2010.120772 (Japanes)
922	3U.	Aligenuis, 1.1N.: Topics in Catalysis, 2001, vol. 10–17, pp. 419–423.
921	29.	Angelidie T.N. Tonice in Catelysis 2001 and 16, 17 and 402
920	28.	FORMACZYK, A., Salernus, NI.: Metalurgija, 2009, Vol. 48, pp. 133–136.
930	20	JYJ. Formologyk A. Sotomous M. Motolynalis 2000 yel 49 an 122 126
910 010	21.	205
918	27	Angelidis TN Skouraki F · Annlied Catalysis A · General 1006 vol 1/2 nn 287
917	20.	Institute of Mining and Metallurgy 2004 vol 104 nn 323-331
916	26	Green, G., Smit, D.M.C., Maumela, H., Coetzer, G.: The Journal of The South African
915	20.	Materials, 2011, vol. 192, pp. 1155–1160.
914	25	Marinho, R.S., da Silva, C.N., Afonso, I.C., da Cunha, I.W.: Journal of Hazardous
913	24.	Sun, P.P., Lee, M.S.: Hydrometallurgy, 2011, vol. 110, pp. 91–98.
912		Production, 2016, vol. 126, pp. 178–190.
911	23.	Ghodrat, M., Rhamdhani, M.A., Brooks, G., Masood, S., Corder, G.: Journal of Cleaner
910		Recycling, 2018, vol. 135, pp. 296–312.
909	22.	Işıldar, A., Rene, E.R., van Hullebusch, E.D., Lens, P.N.: Resources, Conservation &
908		recycling", Waste Management, 2016, vol. 50, pp. 234–256.
907	21.	Syed, S., "Silver recovery aqueous techniques from diverse sources: hydrometallurgy in
906	20.	Hagelüken, C.: Chemistry Today, 2006, vol. 24, pp. 14–17.
905	• •	vol. 45, pp. 258–271.
904	19.	AKCII, A., Veglio, F., Ferella, F., Okudan, M.D., Tuncuk, A.: Waste Management, 2015,
903	1ð.	Alrail A. Vaskà E. Espella E. Olymber M.D. Tyrayla A. West, Margarette (2015)
902 002	10	Thang I C. Xu 7 M : Journal of Cleanar Draduation 2016 yel 127 nr. 10.26
003 201	1/.	Mineral Processing 2015 vol 145 nr 108 112
900 901	17	Haigang D Jiachun 7 Jialin C Vuedong W Rojie I · International Journal of
900	10.	Science 2014 vol 7 nn 1010-1023
899	16	Deng I Ren P Deng D Yu I Yang F Rao X · Energy and Environmental
898	10.	88 nn 202–209
897	15	Mishra, D., Kim, D.J., Ralph, D.E., Ahn, J.G., Rhee, Y.H.: Hydrometallurgy 2007 vol
896	14.	Marafi, M., Stanislaus, A.: Journal of Hazardous Materials, 2003, vol. 101, pp. 123–132.
895		26.
894	13.	Marafi, M., Stanislaus, A.: Resources Conservation and Recycling, 2008, vol. 1–2, pp. 1–
893		873.
892	12.	Marafi, M., Stanislaus, A.: Resources Conservation and Recycling, 2008, vol. 6, pp. 859-
891	11.	Johnson Matthey, PGM Market Report February 2020.
890		132.
889	10.	Angelidis, T.N., Sklavounos, S.A.: Applied Catalysis A: General, 1995, vol. 1, pp. 121-
888		Metallurgy Review, 2018, vol. 1, pp. 1–17.
887	9.	Safarzadeh, M.S., Horton, M., Van Rythoven, A.D.: Mineral Processing and Extractive
886	8.	Fernandez, V.: International Review of Financial Analysis, 2017, vol. 52, pp. 333–347.
885	7.	Xiao, Z., Laplante, A.R.: Minerals Engineering, 2004, vol. 17, pp. 961–979.
884	_	pp. 120–121.
883		Survey. Reston, Virginia: CreateSpace Independent Publishing Platform, 2015, vol. 196,
882	6.	Jeweii, S., Kimbali, S.M.: Mineral Commodity Summaries 2015. U.S. Geological
881	\mathbf{c}	118, pp. 101–107.
880	5.	KONONOVA, U.N., MEINIKOV, A.M., BOTISOVA, I.V.: Hydrometallurgy, 2012, vol. 117–
8/9	4. 5	Watchity, C.: Journal of Catalysis, 2005, vol. 210, pp. $4/-62$.
878	4	pp. 30-02.
8//	3.	Suoranta, I., Zugazua, O., Niemela, M., Peramaki, P.: Hydrometallurgy, 2015, vol. 154,
077	2	Suggester T. Zuggstup, O. Niemale, M. Denemalri, D. Hydromotallyngy, 2015, yel 154

929	35. Kasuya, R., Miki, T., Morikawa, H., Tai, Y.: Minerals Engineering, 2016, vol. 87, pp.
930	25–31.
931	36. Spooren, J., Atia, T.A.,: Minerals Engineering, 2020, vol. 46, pp. 106153.
932	37. Firmansyah, M.L., Kubota, F., Yoshida, W., Goto, M.: Industrial and Engineering
933	Chemistry Research, 2019, vol. 58, pp. 3845–3852.
934	38. Firmansyah, M.L., Kubota, F., Goto, M.: Journal of Chemical Engineering of Japan,
935	2019, vol. 52, pp. 835-842.
936	39. Atkinson G. B.: 1992. US Patent. 5160711.
937	40. Allen, R.J., Foller, P.C., Giallombardo, J.: 1992, U.S. Patent 5,102,632.
938	41. Chen, J., Huang, K.: Hydrometallurgy, 2006, vol. 82, pp. 164–171.
939	42. Shams, K., Beiggy, M.R., Shirazi, A.G.: Applied Catalysis A: General, 2004, vol. 258.
940	pp. 227–234.
941	43. Zhuang, W.O., Fitts, J.P., Aio–Franklin, C.M., Maes, S., Alvarez–Cohen, L., Hennebel,
942	T : Current Opinion in Biotechnology 2015, vol. 33, pp. 327–335.
943	44 Asghari I. Mousavi S.M. Amiri F. Tavassoli S. Journal of Industrial and
944	Engineering Chemistry 2013 vol 19 nn 1069–1081
945	45 Santhiya D. Ting Y.P. Journal of Biotechnology 2005 vol 116 np 171–184
945 946	46 Malekian H. Salehi M. Biria D: Waste Management 2019 vol 85 nn 264_271
040 0/17	47 Eckert C A Knutson B L Debenedetti P G : Nature 1996 vol 383 np 313-318
0/0	47. Eckert, C.A., Khutson, D.E., Debendetti, T.O., Nature, 1990, Vol. 505, pp. 515–516.
940 0/0	46. Thelps, C.L., Smart, N.G., Wal, C.W.: Journal of Chemical Education, 1990, Vol. 75, pp. 1163–1168
050	40 White G.L. Lire C.T.: Eluid Phase Equilibrium 1002 vol 78 pp 260-284
950	50 Vitu S Privat P Jaubert IN & Mutalet E: The Journal of Supercritical Eluide
050	2008 vol 45 np 1 26
952	51 Faisal M Atsuta V Daiman H Fujia K: Asia Dacific Journal of Chamical
955	Engineering" 2008 vol 2 nn 264 267
954	52 Collard S. Gidner A. Harrison B. Stenmark L : 2006 U.S. Patent 7 122 167
900	52. Conard, S., Oldher, A., Harrison, D., Steinhark, L., 2000, O.S. Fatch, 7,122,107.
950	54 Kamparman A I B Bargaman D Van Dan Baamgaard The Strethmann H.
957	54. Kemperinan, A. J. D., Dargeman, D., Van Den Doolingaard, Th., Straumnann, Th.
950	55 da Guuas I. San Migual D.E. Industrial and Engineering Chemistry Descerab. 1000.
959	vol 28 pp 2182 2202
900	Vol. 56, pp. 2162–2202.
901	2002 vol 41 pp 1616 1620
902	57 Fontes C. Salvado V. Hidalgo M: Journal of Mambrana Science 2003 vol 223 nn
905	57. Folitas, C., Salvado, V., Hidaigo, W.: Journal of Memorane Science, 2005, vol. 225, pp. 20/48
904	58 Amini M. Dahhar Kalichami A. Alinour, M. Vahidi O.: Journal of Mambrana
905	Science and Pessereh 2018 vol 4 pp 121 125
900	50 Jadhay IIII Hochang H: Journal of Achievements in Materials and Manufacturing
907	Engineering 2012 vol 54 pp 150 167
900	60 Derkinson C. Johio S.; Chemical Engineering 1097 vol 04 np. 25, 21
909	61 Havlik T. Orac D. Detranikova M. Miskufova A. Kukurugva F. Takacova 7.
970	Journal of Hazardova Matoriala 2010 vol 182 pp 866 873
9/1	62 Pronghtain I Foldman V Shilstoin S Waahtal F Luhamiraku I Kanlan V.
972	Journal of Sustainable Metallurgy 2018 vol 4 pp 102 114
5/5 07/	63 Kim CH Woo SI Jeon SU: Industrial & Engineering Chamistry Descerable 2000
974 075	vol 30 pp 1185 1102
975 076	64 Murray M I \cdot 1062 US Datant 2021200
970 077	65 Horika C. Morita K. Okaba T.U. Matallurgical and Matarials Transactions D. 2012.
977 070	vol 43 pp 1300 1307
3/0 070	vol. 43, μp. 1300-1307. 66 Vu. S.O. Vu. L. China Nat. Das. Daaval. 1009 vol. 10 cm. 7, 11

979 66. Xu, S.Q., Xu, L.: China Nat. Res. Recycl. 1998, vol. 10, pp. 7–11.

- 67. Kayanuma, Y., Okabe, T.H., Maeda, M.: Metallurgical and Materials Transactions B, 980 2004, vol. 35, pp. 817-824. 981 68. Benson, M., Bennett, C.R., Harry, J.E., Patel, M.K., Cross, M.: Resources, Conservation 982 983 and Recycling, 2000, vol. 31, pp. 1-7. 69. Ezawa N.: 1993, US patent 5252305. 984 70. Hoffmann, J.E.: JOM, 1988, vol. 6, pp. 40-44. 985 986 71. Kolliopoulos, G., Balomenos, E., Giannopoulou, I., Yakoumis, I., Panias, D.: Open 987 Access Library Journal, 2014, vol. 1, pp. e736. 72. Mishra, R.K., Reddy, R.G.: 10th International Precious Metals Institute, Florida, 1986, 988 989 pp. 217–231. 73. He, X., Li, Y., Wu, X., Zhao, Y., Wang, H., Liu, W.: Precious Metals, 2016, vol. 37, pp. 990 991 1-5.992 74. Van Schalkwyk, R.J., Eksteen, J.J., Akdogan, G.: Hydrometallurgy, 2013, vol. 136, pp. 993 36-45. 994 75. Eksteen, J.J.: Minerals Engineering, 2011, vol. 24, pp. 676–687. 995 76. You, G., Fang, W., Li, Q., Ma, Y., Yang, X., Yang, H.: Metallurgical Analysis, 2016, 996 vol. 36, pp. 7–11. 77. Zhang, L., Song Q., Liu, Y., Xu, Z.: Journal of Cleaner Production, 2019, vol. 239, 997 998 1180933. 78. Wei, X., Liu, C., Cao, H., Ning, P., Jin, W., Yang, Z., Wang, H., Sun, Z.: Journal of 999 Cleaner Production, 2019, vol. 239, pp. 1180312. 1000 79. Kirichenko, A.S., Seregin, A.N., Volkov, A.I.: Metallurgist, 2014, vol. 58, pp. 250-255. 1001 1002 80. Kim, W., Kim, B., Choi, D., Oki, T., Kim, S.: Journal of Hazardous Materials, 2010, vol. 183, pp. 29–34. 1003 81. Liu, G., Ichinose, T., Tokumaru, A., Owada, S.: Materials Transactions, 2014, vol. 55, 1004 1005 pp. 978–985. 82. Liu, G., Tokumaru, A., Owada, S.: Resources Processing, 2013, vol. 60, pp. 28–35. 1006 83. Taninouchi, Y., Watanabe, T., Okabe, T.H.: Materials Transactions, 2017, vol. 58, pp. 1007 1008 410-419. 1009 84. Taninouchi, Y., Okabe, T.H.: Materials Transactions, 2018, vol. 59, pp. 88–97. 85. Taninouchi, Y., Okabe, T.H.: Metallurgical and Materials Transactions B, 2018, vol. 1010 49B, pp. 1781–1793. 1011 86. Belov, S.F., Igumnov, M.S., Lovchinovsky, I.Yu. [In Russ]: Tsetnye metally, 1997, vol. 1012 5, pp. 46–48. 1013 87. Belov, S.F., Igumnov, M.S., Lovchinovsky, I.Yu. [In Russ]: Izvestiya VUZov. Tsvetnaya 1014 metallurgiya, 1985, vol. 4, pp. 63-67. 1015 88. Belov, S.F., Igumnov, M.S., Lovchinovsky, I.Yu. [In Russ]: Tsvetnye metally, 1997, vol. 1016 5, pp. 39–41. 1017 89. Padamata, S.K.; Yasinskiy, A.S., Polyakov, P.V.: Metallurgical research & technology, 1018 2019, vol. 116, pp. 410. 1019 90. Yasinskiy, A.S., Suzdaltsev, A.V., Polyakov, P.V. Padamata, S.K. Yushkova, O.V.: 1020 Ceramics International, 2020 vol. 46 (8) Part B, pp. 11539–11548. 1021 91. Padamata, S.K., Yasinskiy, A.S., Polyakov, P.V.: New Journal of Chemistry, 2020 vol. 1022 44, pp. 5152-5164. 1023 1024 92. Yasinskiy, A.S., Polyakov, P.V., Popov, Yu.N., Polyakov, A.A., Padamata, S.K.: 2018. RU Patent. 2689475. 1025 93. Yasinskiy, A.S., Padamata, S.K., Polyakov, P.V., Varyukhin, D.Yu.: Non-ferrous metals, 1026 2019, vol. 2, pp. 23–30. 1027 94. Myrzabekov, B.E., Bayeshov, A.B., Makhanbetov, A.B., Mishra, B., Baigenzhenov, 1028 O.S.: Metallurgical and Materials Transactions B, 2018, 49, 23–27. 1029
- 1030 95. Giridhar, P., Venkatesan, K.A., Reddy, B.P., Srinivasan T. G., Vasudeva Rao, P. R.:
 1031 Radiochimica Acta, 2006, 94, 131–136.

1032	96. Tumanova, N.Kh, Kochetova, S.A., Savchuk A.V.: ECS Transactions, 2009, 16 (49) 453-
1033	459.
1034	97. Leclerc, N., Legeai, S., Balva, M., Hazotte, C., Comel, J., Lapicque, F., Billy, E., Meux,
1035	E.: Metals, 2018, 8, 556.
1036	98. Sharma, R., Gyergyek, S., Andersen, S.M.: ChemSusChem, 2018, 11, 3742–3750.
1037	99. Song, Y., Tsuchida, Y., Matsumiya, M., Tsunashima, K.: Hydrometallurgy, 2018, 181,
1038	164–168.
1039	100. Liu, C., Sun, S.C., Zhu, X.P., Tu, G.F., Zhang, J.Y.: IOP Conf. Ser.: Mater. Sci.
1040	Eng., 2019, 479 012058.
1041	101. Fornalczyk, A., Golak, S., Saternus, M.: Mathematical Problems in Engineering.
1042	2013. Article ID 461085. https://doi.org/10.1155/2013/461085.
1043	102. Nguyen, T.H., Sonu, C.H., Lee, M.S.: Journal of Industrial and Engineering
1044	Chemistry, 2015, vol. 32, pp. 238-245.
1045	103 Paiva P A : Davis B et al. (eds), TMS 2018, 2018, pp. 2063-2073.
1046	104 Swain B. Jeong J. Kim S.K. Lee, I.C.: Hydrometallurgy 2010, vol 104 pp.
1047	1–7
1048	105 Sun P.P. Lee M.S. Hydrometallurgy 2011 vol 109 nn 181–184
1040	106 Vin C V Nikoloski Δ N Wang M W : Minerals Engineering 2013 vol 45
1045	nn 18 21
1050	pp.10-21. 107 Mirza M.V.: Talania 1080 vol 27 pp. 101 106
1051	107. Wilza, W. L. Talalia, 1980, Vol. 27, pp. 101–100.
1052	Extraction and Ion Evolution 2014 vol 22 nm 78 04
1053	Extraction and Ton Exchange, 2014, vol. 52, pp. 76–94.
1054	109. Fall, L., Zhalig, Z., Winerals Engineering, 2009, vol. 22, pp. $12/1-12/0$.
1055	110. Gupta, B., Singh, I.: Hydrollietanurgy, 2015, vol. 154, pp. 11–18.
1056	111. Cleszyńska, A., wismewski, M.: Separation and Purification Technology, 2011,
1057	VOI. 80, pp. 383-389.
1058	112. Lee, J. I., Kaju, B., Kumar, B.N., Kumar, J.K., Park, H.K., Reddy, B.K.:
1059	Separation and Purification Technology, 2010, vol. 73, pp. 213–218.
1060	113. Bandekar, S.V., Dnadke, P.M.: Separation and Purification Technology, 1998,
1061	vol. 13, 129–135.
1062	114. Shen, Y.F., Xue, W.Y.: Separation and Purification Technology, 2007, vol. 56.
1063	pp. 278–283.
1064	115. Nguyen, T.H., Sonu, C.H., Lee, M.S.: Hydrometallurgy, 2016, vol. 164, pp. 71-
1065	
1066	116. Reddy, B.R., Raju, B., Lee, J.Y., Park, H.K.: Journal of Hazardous Materials,
1067	2010, vol. 180, pp. 253–258.
1068	117. Rane, M.V., Venugopal, V.: Hydrometallurgy, 2006, vol. 84, pp. 54–59.
1069	118. Gupta, B., Singh, I., Mahandra, H.: Separation and Purification Technology,
1070	2014, vol. 132, pp. 102–109.
1071	119. Sun, P.P., Lee, J.Y., Lee, M.S.: Hydrometallurgy, 2012, vol. 113–114, pp. 200–
1072	204.
1073	120. Nikoloski, A.N., Ang, K., Li, D.: Hydrometallurgy, 2015, vol. 152, pp. 20–32.
1074	121. Blokhin, A.A., Abovskii, N.D., Murashkin, Y.V.: Russian Journal of Applied
1075	Chemistry, 2007, vol. 80, pp. 1058–1062.
1076	122. Hubicki, Z., Leszczyńska, M., Łodyga, B., Łodyga, A.: Desalination, 2007, vol.
1077	207 (1–3), pp. 80–86.
1078	123. Hubicki, Z., Wołowicz, A.: Journal of Hazardous Materials, 2009, vol.164, pp.
1079	1414–1419.
1080	124. Matsumoto, K., Yamakawa, S., Sezaki, Y., Katagiri, H., Jikei M.: ACS Omega,
1081	2019, vol. 4, pp. 1868–1873.
1082	125. Yousif, A.M.: Journal of Chemistry, 2019, vol. 2019, 2318157.

- 1083126.Jha, M.K., Lee, J.C., Kim, M.S., Jeong. J., Kim, B.S., Kumar, V.:1084Hydrometallurgy, 2013, vol. 133, pp. 23–32.
- 1085 127. Ivanović, S.Z., Trujuć, V.K., Gorgievski, M.D., Mišić, L.D., Božić, D.S.: 15th
 international research/expert conference "Trends in the development of machinery and
 associated technology", 2011, pp. 12–18.
- 1088 128. Panda, R., Jha, M.K., Pathak, D.D.: Kim H. et al. (eds) Rare Metal Technology,
 1089 TMS 2018, 2018, pp. 119–130.
- 1090 129. Zhang, C., Huang, K., Yu, P., Liu, H.: Separation and Purification Technology,
 1091 2012, vol. 87, pp. 127–134.
- 1092 130. Zhang, C., Huang, K., Yu, P., Liu, H.: Separation and Purification Technology,
 1093 2013, vol. 108, pp. 166–173.
- 1094 131. Fornalczyk, A., Saternus, M.: Acta Metallurgica Sinica (English Letters), 2013, vol. 26, pp. 247-256.
- 1096 132. Saitoh, N., Nomura, T., Konishi, Y.: Kim H. et al. (eds) Rare Metal Technology.
 1097 TMS 2017, 2017, pp. 129-135