



www.elsevier.com/locate/cattod

CATALYSIS

July 119 (2007) 187–193

Catalysis Today 119 (2007) 187-193

The effect of the Rh–Al, Pt–Al and Pt–Rh–Al surface alloys on NO conversion to N₂ on alumina supported Rh, Pt and Pt–Rh catalysts

A. Pietraszek ^a, P. Da Costa ^b, R. Marques ^b, P. Kornelak ^a, T.W. Hansen ^c, J. Camra ^d, M. Najbar ^{a,*}

^a Department of Chemistry, Jagiellonian University, 30-060 Kraków, Ingardena 3, Poland ^b Laboratoire de Réactivité de Surface, Université P. et M. Curie, 4 Place Jussieu, 75 252 Paris Cedex 05, France ^c Fritz Haber Institut der Max Planck Gesellschaft, Faradayweg 4-6, D-14195 Berlin, Germany ^d Regional Laboratory of Physicochemical Analyses and Structural Research, 30-060 Kraków, Ingardena 3, Poland

Available online 11 September 2006

Abstract

NO conversion to N₂ in the presence of methane and oxygen over 0.03 at.%Rh/Al₂O₃, 0.51 at.%Pt/Al₂O₃ and 0.34 at.%Pt–0.03 at.%Rh/Al₂O₃ catalysts was investigated.

δ-Alumina and precious metal-aluminum alloy phases were revealed by XRD and HRTEM in the catalysts.

The results of the catalytic activity investigations, with temperature-programmed as well as steady-state methods, showed that NO decomposition occurs at a reasonable rate on the alloy surfaces at temperatures up to 623 K whereas some CH_4 deNO_x takes place on δ -alumina above this temperature. A mechanism for the NO decomposition is proposed herein. It is based on NO adsorption on the precious metal atoms followed by the transfer of electrons from alloy to antibonding π orbitals of $NO_{(ads.)}$ molecules. The CH_4 deNO_x was shown to occur according to an earlier proposed mechanism, via methane oxidation by $NO_{2(ads.)}$ to oxygenates and then NO reduction by oxygenates to N_2 . © 2006 Elsevier B.V. All rights reserved.

Keywords: Rh-Al, Pt-Al and Pt-Rh-Al alloys; NO decomposition; CH₄ deNO_x

1. Introduction

The removal of NO_x (NO and NO_2) from oxygen-containing off-gases of stationary and mobile sources of emission is a fundamental problem of environmental catalysis. Fuel combustion in diesel engines, power and heat plants, nitric acid factories and waste incinerators are the main sources of such off-gases [1,2].

The SCR of NO_x with ammonia is widely used for cleaning flue gases emitted by the power stations and chemical industrial plants. NH_3 is an expensive and corrosive reducer and is itself a pollutant. For off-gases of stationary sources of emission, NO_x reduction by hydrocarbons (HC) or direct NO decomposition both represent alternative methods of NO_x removal. The substitution of ammonia by methane seems to be economically

attractive as it is non-corrosive and the most available hydrocarbon and thus the cheapest one. Methane is also quite neutral

for the living organisms though it is a strong greenhouse gas [3–

6]. Methane can be an internal reducer of NO_x in effluent gases of

boilers using natural gas as a fuel. The temperature of NO

reduction decreases if NO is earlier oxidized to NO_2 [5,7–13]. It

was shown that HCs are first oxidized by NO₂ to oxygenates.

transition metals or non-noble transition metal supported on

zeolites [5,7–9,14] or sulfated zirconia [10–12] were investi-

gated as promising catalysts for NO reduction by methane.

Catalysts containing two noble metals, noble and non-noble

Li et al. [11] examined catalysts containing transition metals (Co, Mn, In, Ni) supported on sulfated ZrO₂ (SZ). They found that the most active was the 4 wt.%Co/(SZ) catalyst, which

E-mail address: mnajbar@chemia.uj.edu.pl (M. Najbar).

Mixed noble-metal-based catalysts (Ru, Rh, Pd, Ag, Ir, Pt and Au) supported on sulfated zirconia (SZ) were investigated in SCR of NO_x by methane in the presence of excess oxygen. It was shown that the most active catalyst contains 0.38 wt.%Pd and 0.12 wt.%Pt [10–12].

^{*} Corresponding author.

yielded a conversion above 60% and showed good stability in a 60 h test.

Pd-Co/SZ catalysts with various Pd and Co loadings were studied by Cordoba et al. [12]. The 2.1 wt.%Co-0.06 wt.%Pd/SZ catalyst showed the highest activity.

Co–Pd catalysts supported on zeolites were investigated by Lee et al. [5] and Djéga-Mariadassou [14]. Co–Pd/Mordenite showed high activity in the temperature range 443–613 K [14]. The Co/Ferrierite catalyst with the addition of Pd showed higher activity in the temperature range 573–873 K than Co/Ferrierite catalysts with the addition of Pt, Ir, La or In. The deactivation of the Co–Pd/Ferrierite catalyst was rather slow even in the presence of water vapor [5]. Resini et al. [7] examined the influence of the support on the cobalt catalyst activity. The Co/MFI catalyst revealed higher activity than a Co/Ferrierite one. Burch and Scire [15] have observed NO decomposition on reduced metallic or metal ions sites of Cu-, Co-, Rh- and Pt-ZSM5 catalysts in the methane presence. This decomposition was accompanied by sites poisoned by oxygen, which was next removed by reduction with hydrocarbons.

Indium catalysts exhibit the highest activity in NO reduction by CH_4 among all the investigated systems containing transition non-noble metals. The H-ZSM5 supported catalysts were studied by Wang et al. [8] and Ren et al. [9]. Modifications in In/H-ZSM5 catalysts with Fe₂O₃ [8] or Al₂O₃ [9] resulted in increased activity. According to the authors [8,9] the presence of Al₂O₃ promotes the formation of NO₂ and increases methane activation.

A WO_3 – ZrO_2 supported palladium catalyst was the subject of studies conducted by Okumura et al. [4]. The catalyst showed relatively high and stable activity in the presence of 10% water vapor.

Bimetallic 1.40 wt.%Pt–0.06 wt.%Rh catalyst used by Lyman and co-workers [16] exhibited high activity in NO reduction by H₂ or CO. The authors ascribed catalyst activity to homogenous Pt–Rh alloy formation.

Mechanisms of NO decomposition on Rh and Pt are widely discussed in Garin's review [17]. Platinum, rhodium and palladium supported on oxides are known to be the most active catalysts in NO decomposition [17–31].

Gorte et al. [18] and Sugisawa et al. [19] examined the NO adsorption and decomposition over Pt monocrystals. Gorte et al. [18] have found that Pt(1 0 0) is exceptionally active in NO decomposition even at room temperature. Sugisawa et al. [19] have claimed that about half of the NO adsorbed on Pt(1 1 2) decomposed to N₂ at 383 K. Pt(1 1 1) and Pt(1 1 0) were found to be non-active in NO dissociation [18,19]. Pt(1 1 2) is nominally constructed from (1 1 0) step sites and (1 1 1) terrace sites. Sugisawa has found that NO adsorbs molecularly on Pt(1 1 2) at 95 K then about half of the NO molecules adsorbed on step sites decomposes at 483 K.

Wang et al. [20] have studied the influence of particle size and the support on NO decomposition over Pt supported on SiO₂, Al₂O₃, TiO₂ and MgO. They found NO decomposition over Pt/SiO₂ catalyst at 873 K insensitive to particle size and observed an absence of support effect on NO decomposition activities for Pt/SiO₂, Pt/Al₂O₃ and Pt/TiO₂. On the contrary,

the NO decomposition activity of Pt supported on strongly basic MgO was found to be significantly lower.

Ishii et al. [21] investigated desorption states of nitric oxide, dioxygen and dinitrogen on Rh(100) surface. Two states of atomic oxygen were observed after NO adsorption and dissociation: an adatom state and oxidic state. The other state is NO molecule adsorbed on this surface. They suggested that N_2 desorbing at around 300 K is formed by the reaction of the nitrogen adatoms with the adsorbed NO molecules and nitrogen desorbed at around 560 K is formed by the reaction of two adatoms species of nitrogen.

An oxygen adsorption study on Rh(1 0 0) was carried out by Ueda et al. [22]. They reported three oxygen adsorption states: one inactive and two active.

Ho and White [23] reported that a low temperature desorption peak and three high desorption peaks were observed in the TPD spectra of nitrogen following the NO adsorption on Rh(1 0 0) at 100 K. They claimed that the recombination of adatoms was responsible for the highest temperature desorption. Root et al. [24] reported that at higher NO coverage on Rh(1 1 1) a new desorption state appears at 470 K. They stated that one possible mechanism for the desorption is the reaction of adsorbed NO with an adatom nitrogen. They also claimed that behaviour of NO adsorption and decomposition on Rh(1 1 1) is qualitatively similar to that on Rh(1 0 0). Major difference between Rh(1 1 1) and Rh(1 0 0) is the stronger bonding of nitrogen from NO decomposition on Rh(1 0 0), with the N_2 recombination peak occurring above 700 K on Rh(1 0 0) and at 560 K on Rh(1 1 1) [25].

Kondarides et al. [26] have observed 100% NO reduction by CO in the presence of O_2 at 573 K over Rh/Ti O_2 . They have shown that the process occurs via NO decomposition and removal of the forming oxygen adatoms by CO.

Almusaiteer et al. [27] have studied NO decomposition process at 673 K over Rh and Pd catalysts supported on alumina and carbon. They have observed poisoning of the Rh/Al₂O₃ and Pd/Al₂O₃ with the oxygen originating from NO decomposition. However, catalysts supported on carbon were much more stable because of the migration of oxygen adatoms to the carbon support. In the case of the Rh/C, CO₂ was formed as a result of carbon interaction with oxygen adatoms. However, in the case of Pd/C, carbon served only as an oxygen adsorbent.

Papp and Sabde [28] have investigated the influence of the preparation method on the dissociation activity of the Rh/SiO $_2$ at 373–673 K. They used a pulse reactor after decomposition of NO, with hydrogen pulse being used as an oxygen adatom scavenger. They found that at higher temperatures O $_2$ competes with NO for the same active sites. They also observed that N $_2$ O was formed only for the high rhodium dispersion.

Nakatsuji and Komppa [29] have studied NO_x reduction on Rh supported catalysts in lean and rich operations and confirmed that Rh promotes the reduction of NO to N_2 even in the presence of SO_2 .

Rahkamaa and Salmi [30] have studied the decomposition of NO on Rh/Al $_2$ O $_3$ and concluded that N $_2$ O is the necessary intermediate for NO decomposition to nitrogen.

Hanaoka et al. [31] have found that the synthesis procedure of Rh supported catalysts, which determines catalyst structure and chemical surface composition, plays a crucial role in the performance of these catalysts.

Comparison of NO dissociation on the (1 0 0) and (1 1 1) surfaces of Pt and Rh revealed that Rh is more active than Pt [18]. Recently it was found the formation of the surface Al₉Rh₂ nanocrystallites during the reduction of high-surface area alumina supported rhodium catalyst [32].

The aim of this paper was to investigate the correlation between the activity of the high surface alumina supported Rh, Pt, and Pt–Rh catalysts in NO conversion to N_2 and the surface structure.

The surface structure of the catalysts was investigated by HRTEM and the chemical composition of their surface nanolayer was determined by XPS. The catalysts' activity was investigated using transient (TPSR) as well as steady-state methods. It was expected that the Pt–Rh alloying effect reported by Lyman and co-workers [16] for CO and H₂ SCR would be observed.

2. Experimental

2.1. Catalysts preparation

High surface area alumina was obtained with the sol–gel method; 20.7 cm³ aluminum tri-sec butoxide (>97%, Merck-Schuchardt) was slowly purred to 200 cm³ of deionized water at 353 K. About 0.3 cm³ of concentrated nitric acid was then added for peptization. An obtained sol solution was kept at 353 K under stirring for 2 h. The solutions of H₂PtCl₆, and/or RhCl₃·3H₂O in water were next added to the alumina sol solution. The catalyst precursor was calcined in air at 773 K for 3 h. At the end of the synthesis procedure the sample was reduced in a hydrogen stream at 573 K for 2 h and at 773 K for 1 h.

2.2. Catalysts' characterization

To characterize the catalysts, specific BET surface area, chemical composition of the surface nanolayers and phase composition were determined.

The specific BET surface area was measured by N_2 adsorption at 77.35 K using ASAP 2010 MICROMETRICS instrument

X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) was used to determine the chemical composition of the surface nanolayers for the freshly prepared catalysts. The measurements were conducted using an ESCA system 150 Vacuum Science

Workshop with an aluminum anode as an X-ray source resulting in a surface sensitivity of approximately 2 nm. Rh 3d, Al 2p and Pt 4f binding energies were determined using the Al^{3+} 2p binding energy with 74.5 eV as a reference [33]. The phase composition of catalysts was determined by powder X-Ray Diffraction (XRD) on Siemens D 500 diffractometer with CuK α radiation.

High-resolution electron images of the freshly prepared catalysts were acquired to determine phase composition in nanoareas of the catalysts. The HRTEM studies were conducted in a Philips CM 200 FEG instrument operated at 200 kV and equipped with a Gatan Image Filter (GIF) and CCD camera. The specimens for HRTEM were prepared by the dispersion a small amount of the samples in methanol and depositing them on holey carbon films supported on copper grids.

2.3. TPD of NO and catalytic activity measurements

Temperature-programmed desorption (TPD) experiments were performed in a quartz reactor. The adsorption was conducted in a gas mixture containing 150 ppm NO, 7% O₂ and argon as a balance at room temperature for 1 h. After the adsorption the reactor was purged with argon at room temperature until NO reached zero signal. TPD measurements were carried out up to 772 K, with the heating rate 3 K/min. in the mixture composed of 7% O₂ in argon. The GHSV was equal to $20.000 \ h^{-1}$.

NO and NO₂ concentrations were determined simultaneously by Eco Physics CLD 700 AL NO_x chemiluminescence analyzer and an Ultramat 6 Siemens IR analyzer was used to monitor N₂O.

The catalytic activity measurements were performed under transient as well as steady-state conditions in a quartz reactor. The feed gas mixture consisted of 150 ppm NO, 1500 ppm ${\rm CH_4}$, 7% ${\rm O_2}$ and Ar as a balance was used in both cases. The gas hour space velocity (GHSV) was equal to 20,000 h⁻¹. The heating rate was maintained at 3 K/min.

Before the TPSR, the catalyst was pretreated in flowing argon at 773 K for 1 h, with the heating rate 10 K/min, whereas before the steady-state experiment it was annealed in the reaction mixture and consecutive measurements were performed stepwise starting from 773 to 473 K.

A FID detector was used to follow the total concentration of hydrocarbons (HC) and the N_2 formation over Rh/Al₂O₃ catalyst was checked by micro-GC.

3. Results and discussion

The contents of the metal atoms and ions in the surface nanolayers determined from XPS spectra as well as the specific

Pt and/or Rh contents in the bulk and in the surface nanolayers of the Pt/Al₂O₃, Rh/Al₂O₃ and Pt–Rh/Al₂O₃ catalysts and the catalyst specific BET surface areas

Catalyst	Pt and/or Rh (bulk) (at.%)	Pt and/or Rh (surface) (at.%)	Pt ⁰ and/or Rh ⁰	Pt ²⁺	Pt ⁴⁺	Rh ³⁺	Rh ⁴⁺	BET surface area (m²/g)
Pt Rh Pt–Rh Al ₂ O ₃	0.51 0.03 0.34Pt + 0.03Rh	0.4 0.7 0.5Pt + 0.5Rh	0.1 0.4 0.1Pt + 0.2Rh	0.2	0.1	0.2 0.2	0.1 0.1	283 330 302 287

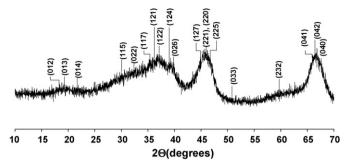


Fig. 1. XRD pattern of the Rh/Al₂O₃ catalyst (δ-alumina hkl).

BET surface area of the catalysts are summarized in Table 1. The total amount of the metal atoms and cations were taken as 100%. The fact that the rhodium content in the surface nanolayer of the 0.03 at.%Rh/Al₂O₃ (0.06 wt.%Rh/Al₂O₃) catalyst is higher than the platinum content in the surface nanolayer of 0.51 at.%Pt/Al₂O₃ (1.56 wt.%Pt/Al₂O₃) can be explained by the different ways that Rh and Pt are deposited on the surface. The Rh cations are probably deposited by exchange with protons of the Brönsted acidic OH groups, while [PtCl₆]²⁻ anions are partially exchanged with the basic OH groups and partially impregnated. The higher platinum exposition on the 0.34 at.%Pt–0.03 at.%Rh/Al₂O₃ (1.03 wt.%Pt–0.05 wt.%Rh/Al₂O₃) catalyst surface than on the 0.51 at.%Pt/Al₂O₃ one suggests that some [PtCl₆]²⁻ anions undergo adsorption on earlier deposited Rh³⁺ cations. This suggests that the clusters

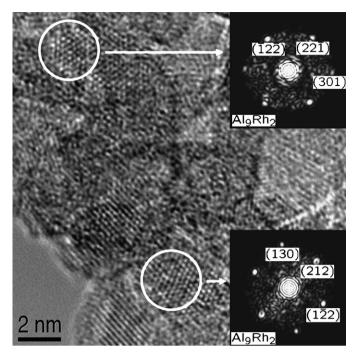


Fig. 2. HRTEM image of the Rh/Al_2O_3 catalyst with the marked areas of the crystalline Al_9Rh_2 alloy.

composed of both precious metal atoms are probably formed during the next stage of the Pt–Rh catalyst synthesis. Metallic and ionic species are present in the surface nanolayers of all the catalysts. Metallic species prevailed in the surface nanolayers

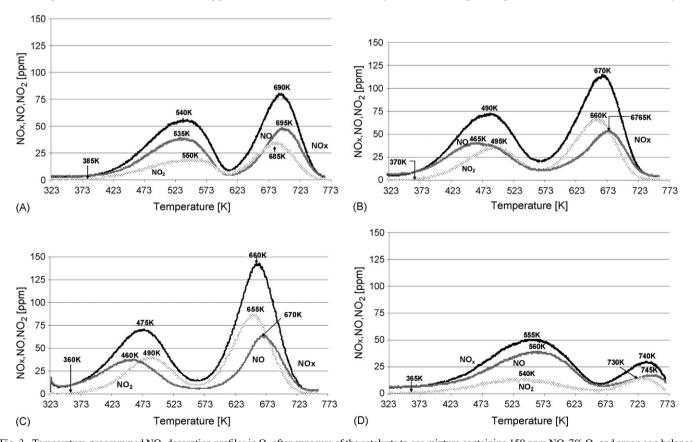


Fig. 3. Temperature-programmed NO_x desorption profiles in O_2 after exposure of the catalysts to gas mixture containing 150 ppm NO, 7% O_2 and argon as a balance at room temperature for 1 h; Rh/Al₂O₃ (A), Pt/Al₂O₃ (B), Pt-Rh/Al₂O₃ (C) and Al₂O₃ (D). GHSV = 20,000 h⁻¹, heating rate maintained at 3 K/min.

of 0.03 at.%Rh/Al₂O₃ catalyst, while ionic ones in 0.51 at.%Pt/Al₂O₃ and 0.34 at.%Pt–0.03 at.%Rh/Al₂O₃ catalysts.

The specific BET surface areas of all the catalysts are quite close. The largest specific BET surface area of Rh catalyst suggests that rhodium hinders alumina crystallization.

Fig. 1 shows XRD pattern of the Rh/Al₂O₃ catalyst which match well to one of δ -alumina [34].

In Fig. 2 HRTEM representative image of the Rh/Al₂O₃ catalyst is presented. The crystalline areas of Al₉Rh₂ [35] are well seen. In the Pt/Al₂O₃ and Pt-Rh/Al₂O₃ catalyst the crystalline Al₂Pt alloy was found [36]. It is obvious that the Al₂Pt phase revealed in the bimetallic Pt-Rh catalyst also contains rhodium. The presence of the relatively small crystallites in the Rh/Al₂O₃ catalyst is associated with incorporation of the Rh⁴⁺ ions, with the ionic radius close to that of Al³⁺ $(r_{\rm Rh^{4+}} = 0.60 \,\text{Å} \text{ and } r_{\rm Al^{3+}} = 0.54 \,\text{Å} \text{—octahedral coordination}$ in δ -alumina phase [37]), as discussed elsewhere [32]. Rh ions in alumina lattice retard growth of the alumina crystallites and facilitate alumina reduction, which leads to Al₉Rh₂ alloy, due to the formation of cationic vacancies [32]. On the other hand, platinum does not incorporate so easily into alumina due to its larger ionic radius ($r_{p_14+} = 0.63 \text{ Å } [37]$) and nor does it distinctly change alumina crystallinity. These observations are consistent with differences in the specific BET surface area of particular catalysts. We did not notice the presence neither Rh particles nor Pt-Rh alloy crystallites demonstrated by Lakis et al. for catalysts of similar compositions [38].

Fig. 3 shows TPD profiles of NO, NO₂ as well as NO + NO₂ from the Rh/Al₂O₃ (A), Pt/Al₂O₃ (B) and Pt-Rh/Al₂O₃ (C) catalysts and Al₂O₃ support (D). In all cases, two groups of NO_x, NO and NO₂ desorption peaks are present, a fact which may be attributed to the presence of two different phases adsorbing nitrogen oxides with different strengths. Both groups of peaks of all the catalysts are distinctly shifted towards lower temperatures in comparison with those of the alumina support. This indicates that precious metals are incorporated in both adsorbing phases, changing their adsorptive properties. Comparing the peaks' positions allows us to conclude that the temperature of NO desorption from the metallic phase is lower than that of NO2. On the contrary NO2 desorbs at lower temperatures than NO does from the oxide phase (Fig. 3A-C). It may be concluded that on alloys, NO is adsorbed on precious metal (PM) atoms and NO₂ on oxygen species formed on Al atoms. However, in the oxidic phase NO may strongly adsorb in the oxygen vacancies and NO2 may be formed due to NO adsorption on oxygen species on bare aluminum ions. The great shift of the first peaks of the Pt-containing catalysts towards lower temperatures with respect to alumina confirms that platinum forms surface alloy with relatively high platinum content. The much smaller shift of the first group of peaks in the case of the Rh/Al₂O₃ catalyst coincidence well with lower rhodium content in Rh-Al alloy.

In Fig. 4, TPSR profiles for Rh/Al₂O₃ (A), Pt/Al₂O₃ (B), Pt–Rh/Al₂O₃ (C) and Al₂O₃ support (D) are shown. It should be

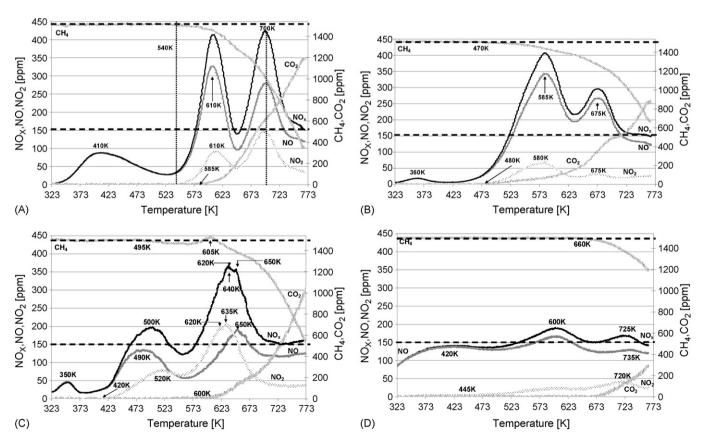


Fig. 4. Temperature-programmed surface reaction profiles after exposure of the catalysts to gas mixture containing 150 ppm NO, 7% O₂, 1500 ppm CH₄ and argon as a balance in the temperature range 323–773 K. Rh/Al₂O₃ (A); Pt/Al₂O₃ (B); Pt–Rh/Al₂O₃ (C); Al₂O₃ (D). GHSV = 20,000 h⁻¹, heating rate maintained at 3 K/min.

emphasized that N₂O was not detected at any temperature and therefore the N₂O profile was omitted. As in TPD profiles, two groups of peaks of nitrogen oxides are here easily recognizable. However, whereas the peaks connected with oxide phase occur approximately at the same temperature ranges on TPSR and on TPD profiles, the TPSR peaks connected with metallic phase are distinctly shifted towards higher temperature with respect to TPD ones. Beyond these two groups of peaks, the asymmetric low-temperature NO peaks centered in the 353–418 K range of temperature appeared. The shift of the alloy-derived TPSR peaks towards higher temperatures with respect to TPD ones may only be explained if the occurrence of the direct decomposition of NO to N_2 and O_2 is taken into account. Thus, one may be led to believe that the low temperature NO peaks, not having counterparts in TPD profiles, are artificially formed from the left shoulders originating from a decrease in the rate of NO adsorption and the right ones illustrating an increasing rate of NO decomposition.

The initial temperature of the methane activation, and its subsequent oxidation to CO_2 , is the lowest (470 K) for the Pt/ Al_2O_3 catalyst and the highest (660 K) for the alumina support. Over the Pt–Rh/ Al_2O_3 catalyst, methane consumption begins at 495 K but is not initially followed by CO_2 formation. Methane activation followed by CO_2 formation starts only at 605 K. One may conclude that CH_4 molecules undergo oxidation by oxygen species adsorbed on Al atoms. The presence of the precious metal clusters on the surface of Pt–Rh–Al alloy in the

bimetallic catalyst makes physical methane adsorption possible (Fig. 4C). The adsorbed CH₄ molecules start to be oxidized at higher temperatures after gaining sufficient energy to migrate to oxygen active species on aluminum atoms.

In the case of the Pt/Al₂O₃ catalysts, the amount of NO₂ desorbed during TPSR is much smaller than during TPD. This suggests that NO₂ is used for CH₄ oxidation. Following the shape of the CO₂ curve, one can conclude that CH₄ oxidation has two temperature ramps; total methane oxidation to CO₂ at lower temperatures, demonstrated by the CO₂ curve with a big slope to temperature axis as well as partial CH₄ oxidation, illustrated by the segment of the CO2 curve, which is almost parallel to the temperature axis. It may also be concluded that molecules of NO_{2(ads.)} of relatively high concentration cause total methane oxidation to CO₂, while those of relatively small concentration result in partial CH₄ oxidation. At the same time a distinct decrease in the ratio of the NO amounts desorbed from oxidic and metallic phases with respect to that in TPD suggests that in the course of TPSR NO is partially reduced by the products of partial methane oxidation. A similar but less evident effect is observed on the CO₂ curve for the Rh/Al₂O₃ and Pt-Rh/Al₂O₃ catalysts. The HC-deNO_x mechanism involving CH₄ oxidation by NO₂ to oxygenates and the subsequent NO reduction by those oxygenates was earlier proposed by Djéga-Mariadassou [14].

NO conversion (C_{NO}), selectivity to N₂ (S_{N_2}) and N₂ yield (N₂), calculated from the results of the steady-state experiments

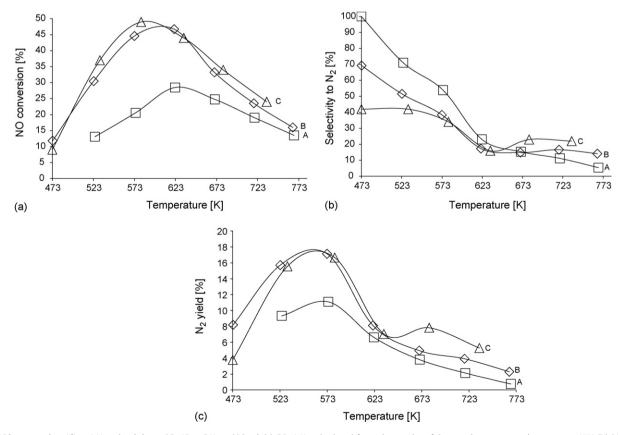


Fig. 5. NO conversion (C_{NO} (a)), selectivity to N_2 (S_{N_2} (b)) and N_2 yield (N_2 (c)) calculated from the results of the steady-state experiment over; (\square) Rh/Al₂O₃ (A); (\diamondsuit) Pt/Al₂O₃ (B); (\triangle) Pt-Rh/Al₂O₃ (C). The feed gas mixture consisted of 150 ppm NO, 1500 ppm CH₄, 7% O₂ and Ar as a balance was used; the experiments were performed in the direction from 773 to 473 K after TPSR ones. GHSV = 20,000 h⁻¹, heating rate maintained at 3 K/min.

over the Rh/Al₂O₃ (A), Pt/Al₂O₃ (B) and Pt–Rh/Al₂O₃ (C) catalysts, are presented in Fig. 5. It should be noted that NO conversion at 473 K over the Rh/Al₂O₃ catalyst was not stable and therefore it is not presented in Fig. 5a and c.

As mentioned in Section 2, steady-state experiments were performed in the direction from 773 to 473 K after the TPSR ones. Activity of the catalysts towards NO decomposition observed at temperatures lower than 623 K shows that the sites active in this process do not undergo poisoning by the reagents. Therefore, it is reasonable to assume that the PM atoms of the alloy phases are the active sites in the low temperature NO decomposition. A comparison of C_{NO} , S_{N_2} and Y_{N_2} curves reveals that the NO decomposition over alloy phases stops earlier than the NO oxidation. This may occur because the NO adsorption on PM atoms stops at a lower temperature than the oxygen adsorption on aluminum atoms of alloys. The NO oxidation that occurs on δ-alumina phase not followed by $deNO_x$ can also be a factor in the difference in shape between C_{NO} and Y_{N_2} . As mentioned above, the slight CH_4 de NO_x , observed above 623 K occurs on δ-alumina phase due to NO reduction with oxygenates and is formed by the partial methane oxidation with NO2 adsorbed.

It should be emphasized here that N_2 formation over the Rh/ Al_2O_3 catalyst was confirmed in the whole range of temperature by micro-GC, but is not shown here.

Unlike Rahkamaa and Salmi [30], who claimed that N_2O is the intermediate for NO decomposition to N_2 over an Rh/Al $_2O_3$ catalyst, we did not observe at all the formation of N_2O . Thus, we agree with Almusaiteer et al. [27] who found that NO decomposition over an alumina supported rhodium catalyst occurs according to the equation: $Rh + 2NO \rightarrow 2Rh - O + N_2$. Wang et al. [20] claimed that low temperature NO decomposition in the absence of oxygen over an alumina supported platinum catalyst initially yields N_2 and N_2O and results in rapid catalyst deactivation due to oxygen poisoning. The absence of rapid catalyst deactivation by oxygen adsorption over our Rh/Al $_2O_3$ catalyst may be attributed to the migration of oxygen from rhodium to aluminum atoms. Suppression of Rh poisoning by oxygen due to oxygen migration to support was earlier observed by Almusaiteer et al. [27] for a Rh/C catalyst.

4. Conclusions

0.03 at.%Rh/Al₂O₃, 0.51 at.%Pt/Al₂O₃ and 0.34 at.%Pt-0.03 at.%Rh/Al₂O₃ catalysts were obtained, respectively, by cationic exchange of Rh³⁺ with protons of the acidic alumina OH groups, anionic exchange of [PtCl₆]²⁻ with basic OH groups of alumina and both cationic and anionic exchange. All the catalysts contained δ -alumina with incorporated precious metal atoms and Rh-Al, Pt-Al and Pt-Rh-Al phases—isostructural with Al₉Rh₂ and Al₂Pt alloys. They were investigated as possible catalysts for NO conversion to N₂ in the presence of oxygen and methane. Each of them showed reasonable low temperature activity in direct NO decomposition to N₂ and O₂ over alloy phases at the temperature ranges 410–623, 360–623 and 350–623 K, respectively. At temperatures above 623 K some CH₄ deNO₈ on δ -alumina with some

precious metal cations was also observed. It was suggested that NO first adsorbs on precious metal atoms and next undergoes decomposition due to electron transfer to nitric oxide antibonding π orbitals. One hundred percent selectivity to N₂ was observed over Rh/Al₂O₃ when oxygen active species on aluminum atoms did not have a role in NO conversion. It was demonstrated that CH₄ deNO_x occurs according to Djéga's mechanism based on CH₄ oxidation by NO₂ to oxygenates, which were subsequently employed to reduce NO.

References

- [1] X. Gao, O. Yu, L. Chen, J. Natural Gas Chem. 12 (2003) 264.
- [2] A. Fritz, V. Pitchon, Appl. Catal. B 13 (1997) 1.
- [3] R.M. Heck, R.J. Farrauto, S.T. Gulati, Catalytic Air Pollution Control Commercial Technology, Wiley–Interscience, 2002, pp. 72–311.
- [4] K. Okumura, T. Kusakabe, M. Niwa, Appl. Catal. B 41 (2003) 137.
- [5] T.J. Lee, I.-S. Nam, S.-W. Ham, Y.-S. Baek, K.-H. Shin, Appl. Catal. B 41 (2003) 115.
- [6] V.I. Pârvulescu, P. Grange, B. Delmon, Catal. Today 46 (1998) 233.
- [7] C. Resini, T. Montanari, L. Nappi, G. Bagnasco, M. Turco, G. Busca, F. Bregani, M. Notaro, G. Rocchini, J. Catal. 214 (2003) 179.
- [8] X. Wang, T. Zhang, X. Sun, W. Guan, D. Liang, L. Lin, Appl. Catal. B 24 (2000) 169.
- [9] L. Ren, T. Zhang, J. Tang, J. Zhao, N. Li, L. Lin, Appl. Catal. B 41 (2003) 129
- [10] H. Ohtsuka, Appl. Catal. B 33 (2001) 325.
- [11] N. Li, A. Wang, J. Tang, X. Wang, D. Liang, T. Zhang, Appl. Catal. B 43 (2003) 195.
- [12] L.F. Cordoba, W.M.H. Sachtler, C.M. de Correa, Appl. Catal. B 56 (2005) 269.
- [13] H. Ohtsuka, T. Tabata, Appl. Catal. B 29 (2001) 177.
- [14] G. Djéga-Mariadassou, Catal. Today 90 (2004) 27.
- [15] R. Burch, S. Scire, Appl. Catal. B 3 (1994) 295.
- [16] R.E. Lakis, Y. Cai, H.G. Stenger, Ch.E. Lyman, J. Catal. 154 (1995) 276.
- [17] F. Garin, Appl. Catal. A 222 (2001) 183.
- [18] R.J. Gorte, L.D. Schmidt, J.L. Gland, Surf. Sci. 109 (1981) 367.
- [19] T. Sugisawa, J. Shiraishi, D. Machihara, K. Irokawa, H. Miki, C. Kodama, T. Kuriyama, T. Kubo, H. Nozoye, Appl. Surf. Sci. 169/170 (2001) 292.
- [20] X. Wang, S.M. Sigmon, J.J. Spivey, H.H. Lamb, Catal. Today 96 (2004) 11.
- [21] M. Ishii, T. Hayashi, S. Matsumoto, Appl. Catal. A 225 (2002) 207.
- [22] K. Ueda, A. Takano, K. Tanaka, Jpn. J. Appl. Phys. 34 (1995) 3662.
- [23] P. Ho, J.M. White, Surf. Sci. 137 (1984) 117.
- [24] T.W. Root, L.D. Schmidt, G.B. Fisher, Surf. Sci. 134 (1983) 30.
- [25] G.B. Fisher, S.J. Schmieg, J. Vac. Sci. Technol. A 1 (1983) 1064.
- [26] D.I. Kondarides, T. Chafik, X.E. Verykios, J. Catal. 191 (2000) 147.
- [27] K. Almusaiteer, R. Krishnamurthy, S.S.C. Chuang, Catal. Today 55 (2000)
- [28] H. Papp, D.P. Sabde, Appl. Catal. B 60 (2005) 65.
- [29] T. Nakatsuji, V. Komppa, Catal. Today 75 (2002) 407.
- [30] K. Rahkamaa, T. Salmi, Chem. Eng. Sci. 54 (1999) 4343.
- [31] T. Hanaoka, W.Y. Kim, M. Kishida, H. Nagata, K. Wakabayashi, Chem. Lett. (1997) 645.
- [32] M. Zimowska, J.B. Wagner, J. Dziedzic, J. Camra, B. Borzęcka-Prokop, M. Najbar, Chem. Phys. Lett. 417 (2006) 137.
- [33] C.D. Wagner, W.M. Riggs, L.E. Davis, J.F. Moulder, G.E. Muilenberg, Handbook of X-ray Photoelectron Spectroscopy, Physical Electronics Division, Perkin-Elmer Corporation, Eden Prairie, Minnesota, 1979, available from: www.lasurface.com.
- [34] Y. Repelin, E. Husson, Mat. Res. Bull. 25 (1990) 611.
- [35] L.E. Edshammar, Acta Chem. Scand. 22 (1968) 2822.
- [36] A. Pietraszek, P. Da Costa, G. Djéga-Mariadassou, J.B. Wagner, P. Kornelak, M. Najbar, in preparation.
- [37] Handbook of Chemistry and Physics, 85 ed., CRC Press, Boca Raton, 2004.
- [38] R.E. Lakis, Ch.E. Lyman, H.G. Stenger, J. Catal. 154 (1995) 261.