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# Low temperature $NO_x$ removal from diesel exhaust by coupling ethylene glycol reforming with SCR

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#### Abstract

The reduction of  $NO_x$  at 185 °C on Pd supported on Ti–pillared clay was studied using  $H_2$  and CO generated by reforming of ethylene glycol (EG) over a Na–Pt/ $\gamma$ -Al $_2O_3$  catalyst. It was found that for a stream containing 490 ppm NO, 5.8%  $O_2$ , and 2.9%  $H_2O$ , at a space velocity of  $\sim$ 24,000 h $^{-1}$ , a stable  $NO_x$  conversion of  $\sim$ 55% was obtained when a stream of 1.36% EG was reformed under a condition that the EG conversion was complete and sufficient  $H_2$  and CO was produced. However, if the EG conversion was incomplete, the unreacted EG deactivated the  $deNO_x$  catalyst, possibly by coking, that could not be regenerated by  $O_2$  treatment at reaction temperature.  $H_2O$  suppressed the  $deNO_x$  activity, but the effect was reversible and the activity could be recovered after removal of  $H_2O$ . The  $deNO_x$  activity was found to be higher on catalysts containing more highly dispersed Pd.

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### 1. Introduction

The recent tightening of permissible  $NO_x$  release from combustion engines has intensified the search for a catalytic system that can effectively remove NO<sub>x</sub> under challenging diesel exhaust conditions. While direct decomposition or reduction of NO<sub>x</sub> using residual hydrocarbons present in the exhaust is the most ideal, these reactions do not show sufficient activities at the diesel exhaust conditions, especially the low temperatures. Investigations over the last decade have eventually led to the implementation of a selected number of promising  $NO_x$  technologies, such as lean  $NO_x$  traps (LNTs) and urea selective catalytic reduction (urea-SCR). Although LNTs have been implemented, issues such as deactivation of these systems due to sulfur poisoning and thermal aging remain to be solved. Furthermore, LNTs require advanced control systems for their periodic regeneration. As for urea-SCR, implementation of this technology in the US would need a nonexisting infrastructure for urea distribution as well as devices in vehicles to prevent ammonia release in the tail gas.

In a recent review, hydrogen-assisted  $NO_x$  removal was suggested as a promising method to meet diesel emission standards with the potential to overcome the drawbacks associated with the current technologies for diesel exhaust  $NO_x$  removal [1]. The suggestion was based on studies showing that  $H_2$  is one of the few reductants effective for  $NO_x$  reduction at low temperatures [2]. These studies also showed that cofeeding  $H_2$  with hydrocarbons resulted in considerable improvement in the  $NO_x$  conversion, particularly in the low temperature region [3], and hydrogen is very effective in regenerating LNTs of stored  $NO_x$  [4]. Although  $H_2$ -assisted SCR offers significant promises for lean  $NO_x$  treatment, the concentration of  $H_2$  in the diesel exhaust is too low for effective diesel cleanup. Therefore, a practical source of  $H_2$  needs to be available on-board a vehicle.

Although reforming or partial oxidation of diesel fuel might seem to be an obvious on-board source of hydrogen, this method would incur a fuel penalty. Previously, we have demonstrated that vapor phase reforming of ethylene glycol (EG) is possible under conditions amenable to vehicle applications [5]. One significant advantage of EG compared to fossil fuel as a H<sub>2</sub> source is that EG can be readily manufactured from sources such as sugars or sorbitol, thus making EG a renewable reductant. The objective of this work is

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to couple the EG reforming process to a lean  $NO_x$  reduction process to demonstrate the effect on  $NO_x$  removal using reductants (H<sub>2</sub>/CO) derived from EG. As supporting information,  $NO_x$  reduction using a simulated feed of H<sub>2</sub> and CO mixture was also conducted.

Since CO is a product from EG reforming under most conditions and also present in low concentrations in diesel exhaust, the deNO<sub>x</sub> catalyst needs to be resistant to any negative impact of CO. We chose Pd catalyst for this purpose. Unlike Pt-based catalysts for which the activities are significantly suppressed by CO, CO promotes H2-SCR of NO over some Pd catalysts [6]. It has been suggested that the reaction proceeds by NO dissociation on Pd. Then CO reacts with the nitrogen atom to form isocyanate, which is then hydrolyzed to NH<sub>3</sub> for NO<sub>r</sub> reduction [7]. The activity of Pd catalysts, however, depends on the support and the Pd precursor [8], and there is a wide variation in the activities reported by different research groups. Unfortunately, the origin of the variation is not entirely understood. We chose Pd supported on titania-pillared clay (Pd/Ti-PILC) as the deNO<sub>x</sub> catalyst because of its high activity as well as high selectivity to N<sub>2</sub> [9]. The effects of Pd particle size and the reforming condition were investigated.

### 2. Experimental

### 2.1. Catalysts preparation

A Na–Pt/ $\gamma$ -Al $_2$ O $_3$  catalyst (1.4 wt.% Na and 1 wt.% Pt), identical to the one used previously [5], was used for EG reforming. The BET area of the  $\gamma$ -Al $_2$ O $_3$  support was 235 m $^2$ /g, and the Pt was introduced by incipient wetness using an aqueous solution of tetraamine platinum(II) nitrate (Pt(NH $_3$ ) $_4$ (NO $_3$ ) $_2$ , Alfa Aesar). The solid was dried at 110 °C overnight and then calcined at 260 °C for 2 h. Na was added as an aqueous solution of Na $_2$ CO $_3$  to the calcined sample by incipient wetness. The final solid was dried at 110 °C overnight, then calcined to 400 °C.

For the Pd/Ti-PILC catalysts, the Ti-PILC support was prepared in a similar manner as that described by Sterte [10]. Two batches of Ti-PILC prepared with different amounts of Ti were made and used. To prepare the pillaring solution, TiCl<sub>4</sub> (Aldrich) was first added to a 2 M HCl solution, and then deionized distilled (DDI) water was added slowly while the solution was vigorously stirred until the final Ti concentration reached 0.82 M for one sample (Ti-PILC-A) and 0.66 M for the other (Ti-PILC-B), and the final HCl concentration was 0.11 M. The partially hydrolyzed Ti-polycation solution was aged for 12 h at room temperature before use. Meanwhile, 4 g of a purified montmorillonite powder (Bentonite, Fisher) was dispersed in 11 of DDI water for 5 h with vigorous stirring. Then, the Ti pillaring solution (10 mmol Ti/g clay) was added slowly with vigorous stirring to the clay suspension. Intercalation was allowed to take place for 18 h after which the mixture was suction-filtered. The solid was washed with DDI water and resuspended in DDI H<sub>2</sub>O repeatedly until the filtrate was free of chloride ions. The sample was dried at

Table 1 Chemical compositions of bentonite and Ti-PILC determined by XRF

Oxides (wt.%)	Bentonite	Ti–PILC-B		
SiO <sub>2</sub>	69.5	42.0		
$TiO_2$	0.1	39.4		
$Al_2O_3$	20.3	12.9		
$Fe_2O_3$	3.7	3.2		
MgO	2.5	1.3		
K <sub>2</sub> O	0.4	0.2		
Na <sub>2</sub> O	2.6	0		
CaO	1.0	0.2		

120 °C overnight and calcined at 300 °C for 12 h. The clay was ground and sieved before being impregnated with Pd.

The chemical compositions of the starting clay and the Ti–PILC-B samples as determined by XRF are listed in Table 1.

The loss of  $Na_2O$  upon pillaring is an indication that successful intercalation of Ti has taken place since intercalation occurs by the exchange of the Na cations located between the layers by the Ti polycations. The large increase in the BET surface area of the clay material upon pillaring (from 30 m<sup>2</sup>/g to 279 m<sup>2</sup>/g) further confirms the incorporation of Ti into the clay structure.

Pd was added to the Ti–PILC by incipient wetness using aqueous solutions of palladium(II) nitrate (Aldrich). A batch of catalysts of 0.1 wt.%, 0.2 wt.%, and 0.5 wt.% Pd loading was prepared with Ti–PILC-B, and another batch of 0.1 wt.% Pd was prepared with Ti–PILC-A. After impregnation, the solids were dried at 120 °C overnight and then calcined at 500 °C for 6 h.

### 2.2. Catalytic reaction

EG reforming and  $deNO_x$  were carried out in two independently controlled but connected reforming and  $deNO_x$  reaction units, such that the products from the reforming unit could be fed to the feed stream of the  $deNO_x$  unit. The reactions were carried out in a flow system at near atmospheric pressure using quartz tubular reactors that were placed in electric furnaces. The powder catalyst samples were held in place between plugs of quartz wool in the reactors. The tips of the thermocouples were placed outside the reactors but in contact with the middle section of the catalyst beds to monitor the catalyst temperature during reaction, which were also used to control the electric furnaces. All reactor lines were heated to 100 °C to prevent condensation.

All EG reforming reactions were conducted at 230  $^{\circ}$ C. EG (Alfa Aesar) and DDI H<sub>2</sub>O were injected directly into the quartz wool upstream of the catalyst bed in the reforming unit using a Harvard syringe pump. N<sub>2</sub> (ultra high purity, Airgas) and O<sub>2</sub> (20% O<sub>2</sub>/N<sub>2</sub>, Matheson) were used as purchased. The feed composition was adjusted using the liquid injection rate and the gas flow rates (controlled using mass flow controllers), while maintaining the total flow rates within the range of 30–77 ml/min, unless otherwise stated [5].

For SCR of  $NO_x$  using a simulated  $H_2/CO$  feed,  $H_2$  (2%  $H_2/Ar$ , Airgas), CO (5% CO/Ar, Matheson), and NO (1% NO/He, Matheson) were used as purchased. The flow rates of these

gases were adjusted to form a 200 ml/min feed stream containing 500 ppm NO, 3000 ppm  $H_2$ , 1200 ppm CO, 5%  $O_2$  and when present, 4%  $H_2O$ . For  $NO_x$  reduction using EG reformate in the coupled system, the reformate stream leaving the reforming reactor was combined with a simulated exhaust stream containing NO,  $O_2$ , and  $O_2$ , such that the 200 ml/min stream entering the  $O_3$  reactor was composed of 3640–14,000 ppm  $O_3$  no 3200 ppm CO, 2.9–6.8%  $O_3$  H2O, 500 ppm NO, and 5–5.8%  $O_3$ .

The compositions of the feed and product streams were analyzed with four separate columns in two gas chromatographs as described previously [5]. EG conversions were calculated from conversions to CO and  $\rm CO_2$ , and  $\rm H_2$  production efficiency was defined as moles of  $\rm H_2$  produced per mole of EG reacted. The NO and  $\rm NO_2$  concentrations were measured by a chemiluminescence analyzer. All  $\rm NO_x$  conversions reported here are steady state values obtained after at least 1 h of reaction.

The Pd dispersions were 27% for 0.2 wt.% Pd/Ti–PILC-B and 40% for 0.1 wt.% Pd/Ti–PILC-B, as determined by pulse  $O_2$  (5%  $O_2$  in helium) chemisorption at room temperature followed by pulse  $H_2$  titration (5%  $H_2$  in  $N_2$ ) at 100 °C to avoid  $H_2$  absorption by palladium [11]. Before chemisorption, the catalysts were first cleaned in a stream containing  $O_2$  at 300 °C, purged with helium briefly, and then reduced in flowing  $H_2$  at 150 °C and purged with He at 400 °C. Metal dispersions were calculated assuming one O atom adsorbs on one Pd surface atom.

### 3. Results and discussion

## 3.1. Effect of Pd loading on SCR of $NO_x$ using simulated feed

The reduction of NO by  $H_2$  and CO was conducted over Pd/Ti–PILC-B catalysts containing 0.1–0.5 wt.% Pd. The amount of catalyst used for each catalytic testing was equivalent to 0.0005 g Pd in every case. Fig. 1 shows the NO conversion as a function of reaction temperature.

The 0.1 wt.% Pd catalyst was the most active, and the maximum  $NO_x$  conversion was observed at 170 °C. These results differ somewhat from those reported by Qi et al. [9] that showed a higher maximum activity that occurred at a lower temperature. The cause of the difference was not investigated in detail, and could be due to differences in Pd dispersion (ref. [9]

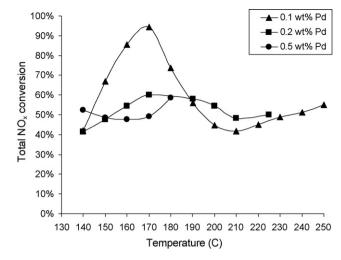


Fig. 1.  $NO_x$  reduction with Pd/Ti–PILC-B catalysts as a function of temperature. Reaction conditions: 500 ppm NO, 3000 ppm H<sub>2</sub>, 1200 ppm CO, 5% O<sub>2</sub>, total flow rate 210 ml/min. In each case, the amount of catalyst used (50 mg, 25 mg, and 10 mg for the 0.1 wt.%, 0.2 wt.%, and 0.5 wt.% sample, respectively) corresponds to 0.0005 g Pd.

did not provide dispersion information) since the surface areas of the Ti–PILC supports were different between the two studies. Minor differences in catalytic behavior for the clay samples are not unusual since the final characteristic of the intercalated clay is known to be modified by slight variations in the preparation procedure [12].

The NO conversion, H<sub>2</sub> and CO consumptions, N<sub>2</sub> selectivity, and NO<sub>x</sub> reduction efficiency for the various Pd catalysts at 140 °C and 170 °C are reported in Table 2. The data show that as the Pd loading increases (Pd dispersion decreases), the NO<sub>x</sub> reduction efficiency decreases while the corresponding rates of H<sub>2</sub> and CO oxidation increase. As shown in Fig. 1, this effect is evident only for reaction temperatures below about 200 °C, in agreement with what was observed by Qi et al. [13]. As was observed by McCarthy et al. [14], we also found that H<sub>2</sub> chemisorption was suppressed on highly dispersed Pd samples during our preliminary dispersion measurements (which led to our decision to use titration measurements instead). It is possible that NO adsorption is more competitive on these samples due to the lower coverage of H<sub>2</sub>. In addition, NO decomposition on Pd has been proposed to be the initial step of the reduction reaction [7], and dissociation of NO is a structure sensitive reaction, one that occurs more extensively on smaller Pd particles [15]. Thus, taking all these together, it appears that

Table 2 Effect of Pd loading on  $NO_x$  reduction, CO and  $H_2$  conversions,  $N_2$  selectivity,  $NO_x$  reduction efficiencies

Catalyst	Temperatu	ire								
	140 °C	170 °C	140 °C	170 °C	140 °C	170 °C	140 °C	170 °C	140 °C	170 °C
	NO conv.	NO conv. (%) CO conv. (%)		H <sub>2</sub> conv. (	H <sub>2</sub> conv. (%)		N <sub>2</sub> selectivity (%)		NO <sub>x</sub> eff. <sup>a</sup>	
0.1Pd/Ti–PILC-B	44	94	5	91	23	100	76	88	0.30	0.15
0.2Pd/Ti-PILC-B	42	61	15	61	46	90	79	87	0.14	0.11
0.5Pd/Ti-PILC-B	52	49	44	100	85	100	84	90	0.10	0.08

Reaction conditions: 3000 ppm H<sub>2</sub>, 1200 ppm CO, 500 ppm NO, 5% O<sub>2</sub>, total flow rate 200 ml/min.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup>  $NO_x$  efficiencies = NO converted/ $H_2$  consumed.

Pd particle size is an important factor for  $NO_x$  activity, and is likely the principal differences observed in the de $NO_x$  catalytic activity observed over Pd catalysts on different supports as well as catalysts prepared using different precursors.

Unlike  $NO_x$  reduction efficiency,  $N_2$  selectivity improved as the temperature increased from 140 °C to 170 °C. Within error, the  $N_2$  selectivity did not depend on the Pd particle size. This is in agreement with the literature report for  $H_2$ -SCR with Pt where the  $N_2$  selectivity was found not to depend on the active metal properties, but on the acidity of the support, being higher on more acidic supports due to a higher concentration of adsorbed  $NH_4^+$  ions that could reduce NO as in  $NH_3$ -SCR [16]. This would explain the higher selectivity observed with the Pd/ Ti-PILC compared to Pd supported on oxide supports such as alumina. Other than the influence of the support, addition of alkali elements such as potassium has been reported to promote the  $N_2$  selectivity of Pd-based catalysts for  $NO_x$  reduction by  $CO + H_2$  [17].

# 3.2. Effect of $H_2O$ on $NO_x$ reduction activity using simulated feed

The effect of water on the  $NO_x$  reduction activity at 185 °C is shown in Table 3. Addition of 4%  $H_2O$  caused the  $NO_x$  conversion to drop from 73% to 44%, most likely due to competitive adsorption by water. This loss in  $NO_x$  activity is fully reversible and can be recovered once water is removed from the feed as shown in Fig. 2. The lower  $NO_x$  conversion in the presence of water is accompanied by a marked decrease in CO conversion, while the  $H_2$  conversion remained high. This suggests that  $H_2$  oxidation is more facile than CO oxidation, and in the absence of added  $H_2O$ ,  $H_2$  is likely nearly completely consumed in the early part of the catalyst bed. Then, CO reduction of  $NO_x$  would be the primary process in the latter part of the bed.

### 3.3. Coupled EG reforming and deNO<sub>x</sub> reactions

All experiments with the coupled systems were carried out using the 0.1 wt.% Pd/Ti–PILC catalyst for deNO<sub>x</sub>, and the Na–Pt/ $\gamma$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> catalyst for EG reforming. The gas composition was adjusted so that feed to the deNO<sub>x</sub> unit always contained  $\sim$ 500 ppm NO,  $\sim$ 5.5% O<sub>2</sub>, with variable amounts of H<sub>2</sub>, CO, and H<sub>2</sub>O depending on the EG reforming condition. Fig. 3 shows the NO conversion for a 2.2% EG feed to the reformer. As expected, there was significant NO<sub>x</sub> conversion. However, the activity declined with time-on-stream, and 1/3 of the activity was lost in an hour. The NO conversion increased with

Table 3 Effect of  $H_2O$  on the  $NO_x$  reduction activity at 185 °C

Water conc. (%)	NO conversion (%)	CO conversion (%)	H <sub>2</sub> conversion (%)	N <sub>2</sub> selectivity (%)
0	73	42	98	85
4	44	14	97	85

Reaction conditions: 3000 ppm H<sub>2</sub>, 1400 ppm CO, 470 ppm NO, 5% O<sub>2</sub>, total flow rate 200 ml/min, 0.5 g 0.1 wt.% Pd/Ti–PILC-A.

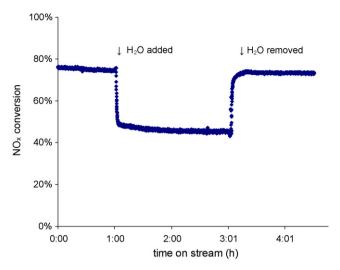


Fig. 2. Effect of water on  $NO_x$  reduction at 185 °C. Reaction conditions: 3000 ppm  $H_2$ , 1400 ppm CO, 470 ppm NO, 5%  $O_2$ , 4%  $H_2O$ , total flow rate 200 ml/min, 0.5 g 0.1 wt.% Pd/Ti–PILC-A.

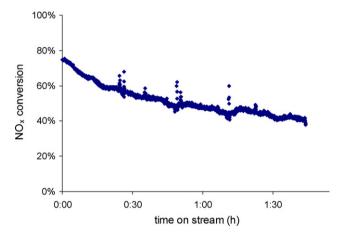


Fig. 3. Coupled EG reforming-deNO $_x$  reduction reaction. Reaction conditions for EG reforming: a feed of 2.2% EG, 2.65% O $_2$ , 13.7% H $_2$ O, total flow rate 77 ml/min, 0.1 g Na–Pt/Al $_2$ O $_3$  catalyst, 230 °C. Reaction conditions for coupled-deNO $_x$ : a feed of 1.4% H $_2$ , 3200 ppm CO, 1100 ppm EG, 500 ppm NO, 5.3% O $_2$ , 5.3% H $_2$ O, total flow rate 200 ml/min, 0.5 g 0.1 wt.% Pd/Ti–PILC-B, 170 °C.

higher EG concentration used (Table 4), which is expected because of higher concentrations of  $H_2$  and CO produced.

Since the Pd catalyst did not deactivate when a simulated reforming feed was used, we reasoned that the observed deactivation must be associated with the small amounts of unconverted EG, which was detected in these experiments. To determine if exposure to EG deactivates the catalyst and if the deactivation is reversible, a Pd catalyst was first tested with a simulated reforming feed containing  $H_2$  and CO. Then it was used with a EG reformate the same as that shown in Fig. 3, such that the deNO<sub>x</sub> feed containing 0.1% EG would passed over the catalyst for 3 h. Afterwards, the sample was purged with 150 ml/min gas mixture containing 6.7%  $H_2$ 0 balance  $H_2$ 1 for 5 h at 170  $H_2$ 0 C to remove any material condensed in the pores and the deNO<sub>x</sub> activity was tested again using the simulated reforming feed. The results (Table 5) show that exposure to unreacted EG

Table 4 Effect of EG concentration in the reformer on  $NO_x$  conversion at 170 °C in the coupled reactor unit

EG reforming unit			deNO <sub>x</sub> unit			
EG feed conc. (ppm)	O <sub>2</sub> /EG	EG conv. (%)	H <sub>2</sub> conc. (ppm)	CO conc. (ppm)	NO conv.	
3630 4700	1.6 1.5	78 75	3640 5600	390 520	48 70	

Other reaction conditions for the deNO<sub>x</sub> unit: 6.8% H<sub>2</sub>O, 470 ppm NO, 5% O<sub>2</sub>, total flow rate 200 ml/min, 0.3 g Na–Pt/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>.

deactivates the catalyst irreversibly under our conditions. Along with the decrease in the  $NO_x$  activity, the catalyst sample also changed color from yellow to gray, suggesting deposition of carbonaceous compounds as a possible cause of deactivation.

Experiments were then conducted to find conditions where EG conversion is complete in the reforming unit by changing the EG and  $\rm O_2$  concentrations in the feed. Table 6 shows the results of changing EG concentration. Increasing the EG concentration from 3.5% to 8.2% did not affect the EG conversion significantly. On the other hand, increasing the  $\rm O_2/EG$  ratio increased the EG conversion, eventually attaining 100% conversion for a ratio of 2.0 (Table 7).

Using the conditions derived from these experiments, the  $deNO_x$  reaction using the coupled reaction unit was tested again, and the results are shown in Fig. 4. Unlike the previous tests, a stable activity was attained for the duration of the test.

Table 5 Effect of exposure to ethylene glycol on the  $\mathrm{NO}_x$  activity of Pd/Ti–PILC at 170  $^{\circ}\mathrm{C}$ 

	NO conversion (%)	CO conversion (%)	H <sub>2</sub> conversion (%)	N <sub>2</sub> selectivity (%)
Before EG	94	91	100	88
After EG	21	49	83	86

Reaction conditions: 3000 ppm  $H_2$ , 1400 ppm CO, 490 ppm NO, 5%  $O_2$ , total flow rate 200 ml/min, 0.5 g 0.1 wt.% Pd/Ti–PILC-B.

Table 6 Effect of EG concentration on the EG conversion and  $H_2$  efficiency in EG reforming. Reaction conditions: 0.1 g Na–Pt/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, O<sub>2</sub>/EG = 1.0, H<sub>2</sub>O/EG = 6.2, total flow rate = 30–49 ml/min, 230 °C

EG concentration (%)	EG conversion (%)	H <sub>2</sub> /EG	CO/CO <sub>2</sub>
3.5	71	1.85	0.30
5.0	68	1.84	0.31
8.2	68	1.68	0.55

Table 7 Effect of  $O_2/EG$  ratio on EG reforming over 0.3 g Na–Pt/Al $_2O_3$  , total flow rate 45 ml/min, 230  $^{\circ}C$ 

EG concentration (%)	O <sub>2</sub> /EG	H <sub>2</sub> O concentration (%)	H <sub>2</sub> formed (%)	CO formed (%)	EG conversion (%)
0.89	1.2	16.5	2.3	0.105	86
0.73	1.5	13.7	1.8	0.026	93
0.57	2.0	10.7	0.87	0	100

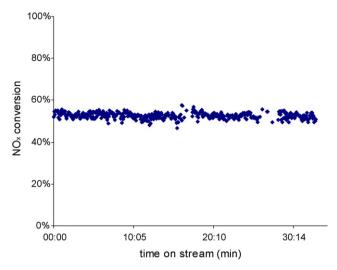


Fig. 4. Coupled EG reforming-deNO $_x$  reduction reaction. Reaction conditions for EG reforming: a feed of 1.36% EG, 2.8% O $_2$ , 8.5% H $_2$ O, total flow rate 71 ml/min, 1.0 g Na–Pt/Al $_2$ O $_3$  catalyst, 230 °C. Reaction conditions for coupled-deNO $_x$ : a feed of 5400 ppm H $_2$ , 960 ppm CO, 490 ppm NO, 5.8% O $_2$ , 2.9% H $_2$ O, total flow rate 200 ml/min, 0.5 g 0.1 wt.% Pd/Ti–PILC-A, 185 °C

Under these conditions, 450 ppm unreacted  $H_2$  and 300 ppm unreacted CO were detected in the effluent from the deNO<sub>x</sub> unit.

### 4. Conclusions

We have investigated  $NO_x$  reduction over Pd/Ti–PILC catalysts using  $H_2$  and CO derived from the reforming of EG over a Na–Pt/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> catalyst. A condition was found where stable, effective reduction of  $NO_x$  was achieved at 185 °C. The deNO<sub>x</sub> catalyst was found to be deactivated by unreacted EG from the reforming unit. Thus, it is important that the reforming condition results in complete EG conversion while generating sufficient concentrations of  $H_2$  and CO. In addition, using a simulated reforming feed, the catalytic activity of Pd was found to depend on the Pd dispersion. Further improvement of hydrogen yield in EG reforming and in  $NO_x$  conversion would make commercialization of this demonstrated concept more attractive.

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