



Study on the catalytic reaction mechanism of low temperature oxidation of CO over Pd–Cu–Cl_x/Al₂O₃ catalyst

Yuxin Shen, Guanzhong Lu*, Yun Guo, Yanqin Wang, Yanglong Guo, Xueqing Gong

Key Laboratory for Advanced Materials and Research Institute of Industrial Catalysis, East China University of Science and Technology, Shanghai 200237, PR China

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ABSTRACT

The Pd–Cu–Cl_x/Al₂O₃ catalysts were prepared by an NH₃ coordination-impregnation (CI) method in water and organic solvents, and exhibited much higher activity for CO oxidation than the catalyst prepared by conventional wet impregnation (WI) method. Their chemical and physical properties were characterized by X-ray diffraction (XRD), transmission electron microscopy (TEM), temperature-programmed reduction (TPR), X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) and *in situ* diffuse reflectance infrared Fourier transform spectroscopy (DRIFTS). The results show that in the process of preparing the catalysts by CI, different solvents affect obviously their catalytic performance and isopropanol is the most suitable solvent among water, ethanol, acetone and isopropanol. The CO oxidation over Pd–Cu–Cl_x/Al₂O₃ catalyst (CI) can be accelerated remarkably with an increase of H₂O concentration in the reactant gas, and it is weakly dependent on the CO and O₂ concentrations. Compared with the catalyst prepared by WI, the catalyst prepared by CI possesses the higher dispersion and lower-temperature reducibility of copper phase, much more active Cu²⁺ species, and easier re-oxidation of Cu⁺. The Pd⁺ active site on the catalyst (CI) is more active than Pd²⁺ on the catalyst (WI), and the rate-determining step is the re-oxidation of Pd⁰ to Pd⁺ by Cu²⁺ on the catalyst (CI) instead of the re-oxidation of Cu⁺ to Cu²⁺ by O₂ on the catalyst (WI).

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1. Introduction

Low temperature CO oxidation is a very important research subject all the time, because of its importance for practical applications and academic studies in the catalysis field, such as air purification, CO leak detection and automotive emission control [1–4]. Among the oxide catalysts for the CO oxidation, the hopcalite catalyst (a mixture of manganese and copper oxides) and Co₃O₄ are active at room temperature, especially Co₃O₄ catalyst that is active even at –77 °C, but both of them deactivate severely in the presence of trace amount of moisture [5–8]. The moisture level in air sometimes is near to saturated vapor, so their applications are now restricted. Since the pioneering work by Haruta [9], gold-based catalysts show the exceptional activity for low temperature CO oxidation and the good stability under moisture [10,11]. However gold-based catalysts also suffer several unsolved defects, for example, deactivation in the storage and the indoor light, sensitiveness to halogen-including compounds, high cost of gold [12–15]. Therefore the high property catalysts that are impervious to chloride ions and moisture, stable in both the reaction feed and storage are extremely desirable to commercial applications.

Supported PdCl₂–CuCl₂ catalyst has been used to produce dimethyl carbonate, diethyl carbonate and acetaldehyde [16–19]. It has also been reported to be a stable and active catalyst for CO oxidation even in the presence of organic halogen compounds and large amounts of moisture in the feed [20–22]. These advantages make supported PdCl₂–CuCl₂ catalyst become a promising catalyst for CO oxidation in the presence of water and halogen compounds at low temperature. However, the supported PdCl₂–CuCl₂ catalysts are less active compared with gold-based catalysts, and a large amount of research works was done for improving their catalytic activities. For instance, adding Cu(NO₃)₃ as a promoter in supported Pd catalyst can enhance its catalytic activity [22]. Park and Lee [23] tested the effects of different Cu precursors, such as Cu(OH)₂, Cu(CH₃COO)₂, and CuCO₃–Cu(OH)₂ and their mixtures with CuCl₂ on the catalytic performance of Pd, and found that Cu(NO₃)₂ was the most appropriate Cu precursor. Lee et al. [24] investigated the effects of different supports on the performances of Pd–Cu bimetallic complexes, and found that hydrophobic supports were superior to hydrophilic supports. The studies [21,25] further show that the catalyst supported on hydrophobic carbon has higher activity than one on hydrophilic alumina. Park and Lee [22] examined the effect of pretreatments of active carbon support on the catalytic performance, and their results showed that carbon support pretreated with HNO₃ can promote the catalytic activities of Pd–Cu bimetallic complexes.

* Corresponding author. Fax: +86 21 64253824.

E-mail address: gzhlu@ecust.edu.cn (G. Lu).

There have been a number of research works on the catalytic active sites and surface reactions over supported $\text{PdCl}_2\text{--CuCl}_2$ catalysts. Using an X-ray absorption fine structure (XAFS), Lee et al. [26,27] examined the $\text{PdCl}_2\text{--CuCl}_2/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ catalysts and found that the active palladium phase was Pd^{2+} species containing Cl and carbonyl ligands. And any direct interaction of Pd–Pd or Pd–Cu was not observed. The active copper phase was suggested to be solid $\text{Cu}_2\text{Cl}(\text{OH})_3$ particles, which was the indispensable redox partner of palladium species in the Wacker chemistry. Choi and Vannice [25,28] investigated the mechanism of CO oxidation by the kinetics and infrared spectroscopy, and they suggested that the active species on the catalyst surface were PdClCO and CuClCO , and possibly the Pd–Cu complex. Park et al. [29,30] thought that $\text{Cu}_2\text{Cl}(\text{OH})_3$ was the most active phase, and the formation of $\text{Cu}_2\text{Cl}(\text{OH})_3$ was based on basic hydroxyl groups on the surface of support, irrespective of combination with the palladium species.

In order to improve the performances of $\text{PdCl}_2\text{--CuCl}_2$ catalysts for the CO oxidation, the previous works mainly focused on adding different additives or searching for a proper support. We have used the coordination-impregnation (CI) method to prepare Al_2O_3 supported Pd–Cu– Cl_x catalysts that exhibit the excellent activity for low temperature CO oxidation [31]. Herein, we have systematically studied the relationship between the preparation method and high catalytic performance of Pd–Cu– Cl_x catalysts by the kinetics parameters testing, XRD, TEM, TPR, XPS and *in situ* DRIFTS. It is found that the Pd^+ species is the active site for CO oxidation over the catalysts prepared by CI method, and the rate-determining step is the re-oxidation of Pd^0 by Cu^{2+} in the Pd–Cu– $\text{Cl}_x/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ catalyst (CI) instead of the re-oxidation of Cu^+ to Cu^{2+} by O_2 in the conventional supported $\text{PdCl}_2\text{--CuCl}_2/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ catalysts.

2. Experimental

2.1. Materials

CuCl_2 (AR), 25% ammonia solution and all organic reagents (ethanol, isopropanol and acetone, AR) were from Sinoharm Chemical Reagent Co., Ltd. (SCRC); PdCl_2 (AR) from Heraeus Materials Technology Shanghai Ltd.; Al_2O_3 (WHA-204, BET surface area of $194\text{ m}^2/\text{g}$) from Wen-Zhou Jingjing Aluminum Ltd.

2.2. Catalysts preparation

The supported 1.7 wt.%Pd–3.3 wt.%Cu– $\text{Cl}_x/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ catalysts were prepared by an NH_3 coordination-impregnation (CI) method with different solvents [31]. Weighed PdCl_2 and CuCl_2 were dissolved in 2 ml 25% ammonia solution under ultrasonic at room temperature, and this mixed aqueous solution of PdCl_2 and CuCl_2 was diluted to 8 ml with de-ionized water or the organic reagents (such as ethanol, acetone and isopropanol). Then 1 g Al_2O_3 was impregnated in this solution. After being aged for 24 h, the catalyst was dried at room temperature and calcined at 300°C for 4 h. The Pd–Cu– $\text{Cl}_x/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ catalyst prepared by the CI method is denoted as PC–CI. In the preparation of catalyst, water, acetone, ethanol, or isopropanol were used as the solvent respectively, the catalyst was denoted as PC–Clw, PC–Cla, PC–Cle, and PC–Cli.

The 1.7 wt.%Pd–3.3 wt.%Cu– Cl_x catalyst was prepared by the wet impregnation (WI) method [23–31] with water as a solvent and dried at room temperature, denoted as PC–WI.

2.3. Catalysts characterization

The powder X-ray diffraction (XRD) pattern of sample was performed on a Brook D8 focus diffraction spectrometer with $\text{Cu K}\alpha$ radiation at room temperature. The average crystalline size of sample was determined by the Scherrer formula based on the

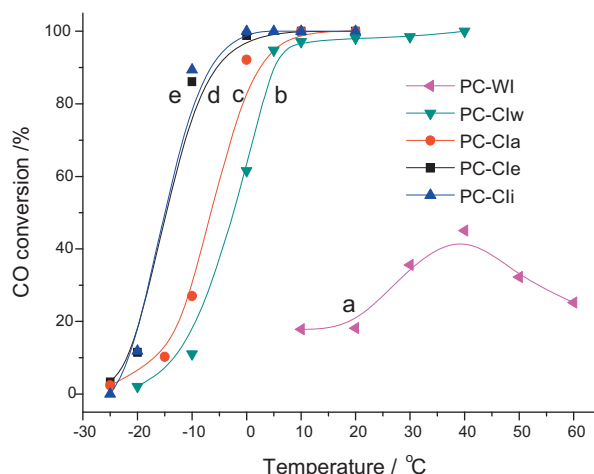


Fig. 1. Catalytic activity of (a) PC–WI, (b) PC–Clw, (c) PC–Cla, (d) PC–Cle and (e) PC–Cli for CO oxidation. (1500 ppm CO and ~6000 ppm water in air, WHSV $15,000\text{ ml g}^{-1}\text{ h}^{-1}$).

diffraction peak broadening. The transmission electron microscopy (TEM) images of catalyst were obtained on a TECNAI 20S-TWIN. The X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) spectra were obtained at 298 K on a Thermo ESCALAB 250 spectrometer with $\text{Al K}\alpha$ (1486.6 eV) radiation as the excitation source. All binding energies (BE) were determined with respect to the C1s line (284.8 eV) originating from adventitious carbon. The powder samples were pressed into self-supporting disks loaded in the sub-chamber, and evacuated for 4 h.

H_2 -temperature programmed reduction (H_2 -TPR) was performed in a quartz U-tube with 100 mg catalyst. The catalysts prepared by CI were firstly pretreated in N_2 flow at 300°C for 1 h, and cooled down to room temperature; the catalysts prepared by WI were pretreated in N_2 flow at room temperature for 1 h. The reduction gas was consisted of 5% H_2/N_2 (45 ml/min). The heating rate was 10°C/min . The uptake amounts of H_2 were measured by a thermal conductivity detector (TCD), which was calibrated by the quantitative reduction of CuO to the metallic copper.

Diffuse reflectance infrared Fourier transform spectroscopy (DRIFTS) of CO adsorbed on the catalyst was measured on a Nicolet Nexus 670 spectrometer equipped with a MCT detector, and the sample cell was fitted with ZnSe windows and a heating chamber can be heated up to 600°C . The DRIFTS spectra obtained were saved in Kubelka–Munk unit with a resolution of 4 cm^{-1} and 64 scans. The PC–WI sample was pretreated in a He (99.999%) flow of 50 ml/min at room temperature for 1 h and the PC–CI catalysts were pretreated in a He flow at 300°C for 1 h, and then cooled down to 25°C and the background spectrum in a He flow was acquired. (1) After the mixture gases of 0.15% $\text{CO} + \text{O}_2$ (0%, 5%, 10%, and 20%) + balanced He with 50 ml/min flowed through the sample cell for 30 min, the spectra were taken down at 25°C ; (2) ~6000 ppm H_2O was added in the mixture gases (1) above, and the spectra were taken down again at 25°C ; (3) CO was removed from the mixture gases (2) above, and the spectra were also taken down at 25°C .

2.4. Testing of the catalytic activity and kinetic parameters

The activities of catalysts for CO oxidation were measured in a ($\varnothing 5\text{ mm}$) quartz U-tube reactor, and 0.2 g catalyst (20–40 mesh) was used and a glass wool was plugged in both sides of catalyst. The feed gas of 1500 ppm CO in air at a flow rate of 50 ml/min was directly through a water vapor saturator immersed in ice-water bath, and then flowed into the reactor. The water concentration in the feed gas was ~6000 ppm. Changing the temperature of cold

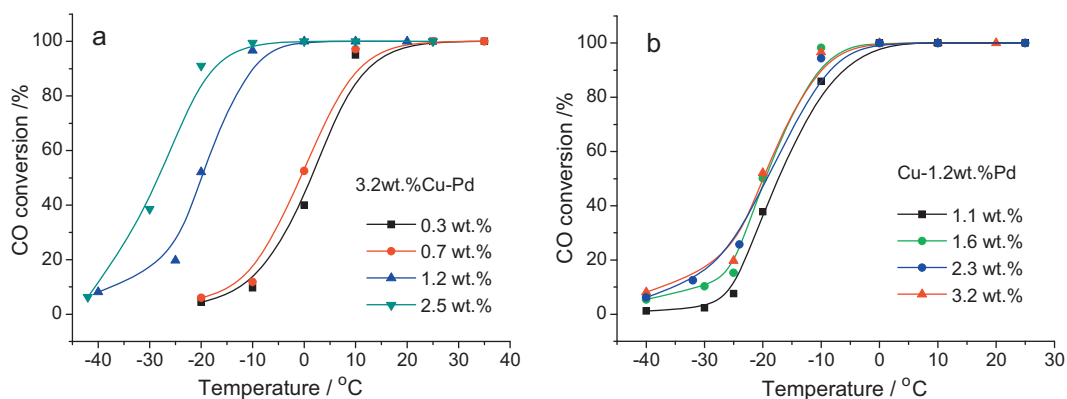


Fig. 2. Effects of (a) Pd and (b) Cu loadings on the activity of PC-Cl for CO oxidation. (Pd and Cu loadings were measured by ICP-AES instrument (Varian 710); 1500 ppm CO and ~6000 ppm water in air, WHSV 15,000 ml g⁻¹ h⁻¹).

trap can adjust the water concentration in the feed gas. After the steady operation for 10 min, the activity of catalyst was tested. The reactants and products were analyzed by an on-line gas chromatograph equipped with a column packed with carbon molecular sieve, a methanator and a FID. The minimum detection level of CO concentration was 1 ppm. The reaction temperature was controlled as follows: below room temperature was obtained by using ethanol/liquid nitrogen mixture in a vacuum bottle, and above room temperature was achieved by using warm water bath.

In the measurement of kinetic parameters, the reaction temperature was 20 °C, the reactant gas consisted of CO of 700–3000 ppm, O₂ of 2–20%, H₂O of 400–6000 ppm balanced with N₂, and the hourly gas space velocity was 2×10^5 – 9×10^5 ml g⁻¹ h⁻¹. The conversion of CO was adjusted to below 15% in order to calculate the reaction rates under different reaction conditions. The reaction rates were obtained after the reaction run for 30 min.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Effect of preparation method on the catalytic activity

Fig. 1 shows the effects of different preparation methods on the catalytic activity of 1.7 wt.%Pd–3.3 wt.%Cu–Cl_x/Al₂O₃ (PC) for CO oxidation. The CO conversion over PC-WI (Fig. 1a) at 40 °C reaches a maximum of ~40%, and then decreases with an increase in the reaction temperature, due to the loss of chlorine and water from the catalyst surface at high temperature [21,30,32]. The CO conversion over PC-Clw increases remarkably with a temperature rise and reaches to 100% at 40 °C. When organic reagents were used as solvents in the catalyst preparation, the catalytic activity can be improved obviously. PC-Cl_i prepared by using isopropanol as a solvent is the most excellent one among the catalysts prepared by Cl method, the complete conversion temperature of CO (T_{100}) is 0 °C and even at –10 °C ~90% CO conversion can be obtained. The activity of PC-Cl_e is slightly lower than that of PC-Cl_i, and higher than that of PC-Cl_a. For PC-Cl_e catalyst, its T_{100} is 10 °C and lower than T_{100} over PC-Clw. Compared with the PC-WI catalyst prepared by WI method, PC-Cl catalysts prepared by Cl method present much higher activities for low temperature oxidation of CO.

Based on the results above, the PC-Cl_i catalyst prepared by Cl with isopropanol solvent is used in the following tests unless stated otherwise.

3.2. Effect of Pd and Cu loadings on the catalytic activity

The effects of Pd and Cu loadings on the catalytic activity of PC-Cl_i for the CO oxidation were investigated, and the results are shown in Fig. 2. The results in Fig. 2a show that the catalytic activity

of PC-Cl_i with a fixed Cu loading (3.2 wt.%) is improved gradually with an increase in the Pd loading. When the Pd loading is 0.3 wt.%, T_{100} is 25 °C; when Pd loading is 2.5 wt.%, T_{100} is –10 °C, which indicates Pd species should be the main catalytic active species [20–24]. The effect of Cu loading on the catalytic activity of PC-Cl_i with a fixed Pd loading (1.2 wt.%) for the CO oxidation is shown in Fig. 2b. It was reported that a high Cu loading was needed for the PdCl₂–CuCl₂ catalyst in order to maintain its catalytic activity for CO oxidation, and the CO conversion could be increased with an increase in Cu loading as Pd loading was a fixed constant [21–24]. However, the results in Fig. 2b show that the Cu loading has a little influence on the catalytic activity of PC-Cl_i, for instance, when the Cu loading increases from 1.1 wt.% to 3.2 wt.%, T_{50} is changed only from –17 °C to –20 °C. This is different from the PdCl₂–CuCl₂ catalyst reported previously. Hence, the PC-Cl_i catalyst may have the different active sites or the different reaction mechanism for CO oxidation.

3.3. Effect of WHSV on the CO catalytic oxidation

Fig. 3 shows that the CO conversion over PC-Cl_i as the function of space velocity (WHSV). When a WHSV is below 15,000 ml g⁻¹ h⁻¹, the CO conversion is hardly affected by the space velocity. When the space velocity increases, the CO conversions over PC-Cl_i decrease because the residence time of CO in the catalyst bed decreases with the increase of WHSV, and suitably raising temperature is needed in order to achieve a sufficient conversion of CO at a higher space velocity.

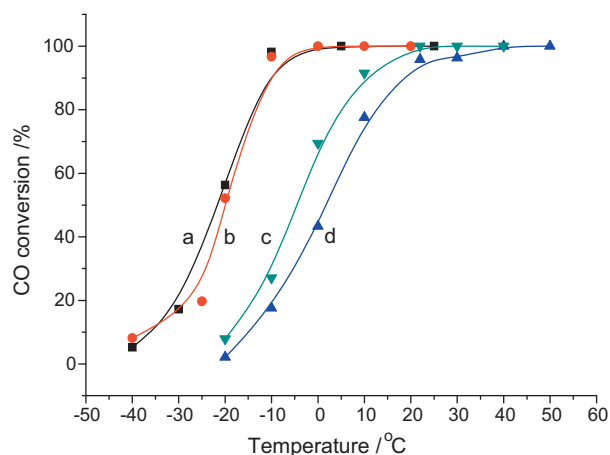


Fig. 3. Catalytic activity of PC-Cl for CO oxidation in a WHSV (ml g⁻¹ h⁻¹) of (a) 10,000, (b) 15,000 (c) 20,000 and (d) 30,000. (1500 ppm CO and ~6000 ppm water in air).

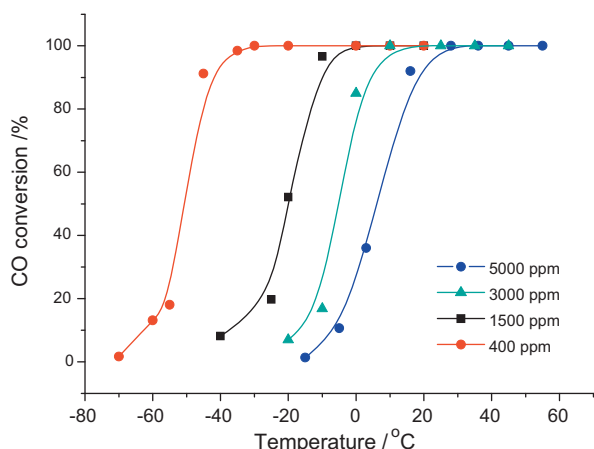


Fig. 4. Effect of CO concentrations on the CO conversion over PC-Cl catalyst. (~6000 ppm water balanced with air, WHSV 15,000 ml g⁻¹ h⁻¹).

3.4. Effect of CO concentration on the CO catalytic oxidation

The effect of the CO concentration on the CO conversion over PC-Cl at the space velocity of 15,000 ml g⁻¹ h⁻¹ was investigated, and the results are shown in Fig. 4. It can be seen that the CO conversion increases (or T_{100} falls) significantly with a decrease in the CO concentration from 5000 to 400 ppm. Using the feed gas with CO concentration of 400 ppm, T_{100} is only -30 °C. When the CO concentration is 1500, 3000 and 5000 ppm, T_{100} is increased to 0 °C, 10 °C and 28 °C, respectively.

3.5. Effect of water in feed gas on the CO catalytic oxidation

Water was considered to be essential for maintaining the high catalytic activity of supported PdCl₂-CuCl₂ catalyst for the CO oxidation, and it may contribute as a reactant to form CO₂ for the water gas shift reaction [25]. Fig. 5 shows the effect of water on the CO catalytic oxidation over PC-Cl. The results show that, as water feed is stopped, the conversion of CO oxidation falls from 100% to 45% during ~45 min. However, once water is re-fed, the CO conversion recovers quickly. Therefore, the presence of water in feed gas exhibits the prompting effect on the CO oxidation over the PC-Cl catalyst.

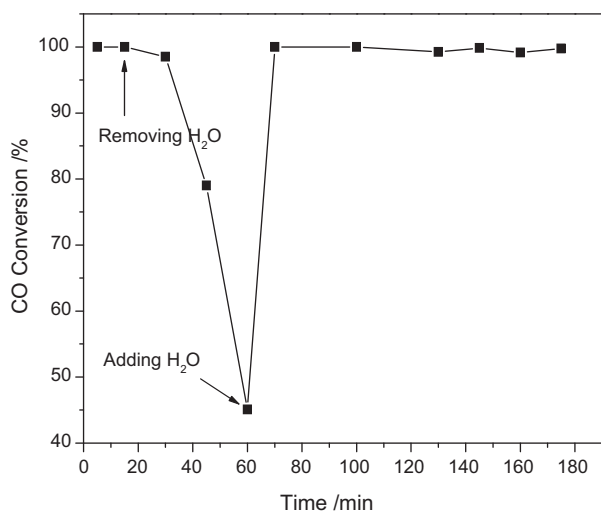


Fig. 5. Effect of water on the CO oxidation over PC-Cl at 25 °C. (1500 ppm CO and ~6000 ppm water in air, WHSV 15,000 ml g⁻¹ h⁻¹).

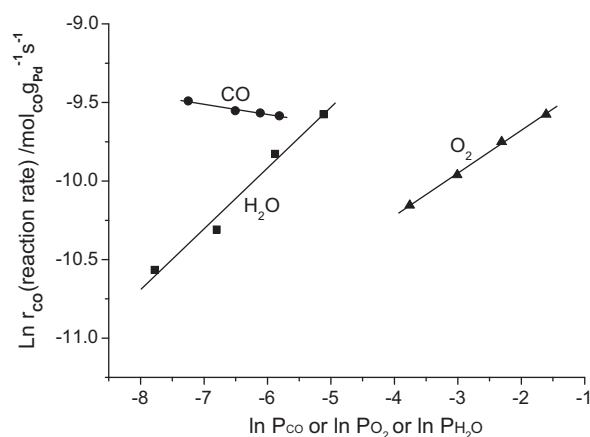


Fig. 6. Reaction rates (r_{CO}) as a function of (●) CO, (▲) O₂ or (◆) H₂O concentration over PC-Cl at 20 °C. (The concentrations of CO, O₂ and H₂O were 700–3000 ppm, 2–20% and 400–6000 ppm respectively. P_{CO} , P_{O_2} and P_{H_2O} , partial pressures.)

3.6. Testing for kinetic parameters of CO oxidation over PC-Cl catalyst

The reaction orders of CO, O₂ and H₂O were obtained simply by the linear slopes of the reaction rate r_{CO} as a function of CO or O₂ or H₂O concentration over PC-Cl catalyst. When the order of CO (O₂ or H₂O) was tested, the CO (O₂ or H₂O) concentration was varied and the concentrations of others were kept constant. In testing the CO order, the concentrations of O₂ and H₂O were 20% and 6000 ppm respectively; testing the O₂ order, the concentrations of CO and H₂O were 1500 and 6000 ppm; testing the H₂O order, the concentrations of CO and O₂ were 1500 ppm and 20% respectively. The obtained reaction orders of CO, O₂ and H₂O over PC-Cl are -0.065, 0.27 and 0.39, respectively (Fig. 6).

The fact that reaction order of CO is about zero shows the CO concentration affect hardly the rate of CO oxidation. H₂O with a positive order (0.39) indicates that the presence of H₂O is in favor of the CO oxidation and increasing its concentration can enhance the catalytic activity of PC-Cl, which is in accordance with the result in Fig. 5. For the reaction order of O₂, Kotareva et al. reported [33] that it was 0.8 and near to first-order for the PdCl₂-CuCl₂/γ-Al₂O₃ catalyst at 27 °C, because the rate of re-oxidation of Cu⁺ by gas oxygen was the rate-determining step [25]. Herein, the order of O₂ over PC-Cl is 0.27 and much smaller than 0.8. These results indicate that the surface of the catalyst is almost saturated with CO and O₂, leading to very weak dependency of the reaction rate on the gas-phase CO and O₂ concentrations. This also demonstrates that there are much more active oxygen species on the surface of PC-Cl catalyst at the reaction condition, resulting in that the rate of re-oxidation of Cu⁺ by active oxygen species over PC-Cl is accelerated compared with that over PC-WI, and the difference between the re-oxidation of Cu⁺ and surface reaction of adsorbed CO and the nearby oxygen is lower. We have found also that the apparent activation energy of CO oxidation over PC-Cl is much lower than that over PC-WI [31], implying that the surface active site or the rate-determining step for CO oxidation over these two catalysts may be different. At lower temperature the adsorption rate of reactant can usually exceed the rate of surface reaction. Therefore, the surface reaction between the adsorbed CO and the nearby oxygen species to form CO₂ or the re-oxidation of Pd⁰ by Cu²⁺ seems to be the rate-determining step.

3.7. Catalyst characterization

3.7.1. XRD and TEM

The XRD patterns of catalysts are shown in Fig. 7. For Wacker type catalyst, the palladium species was suggested to be the active

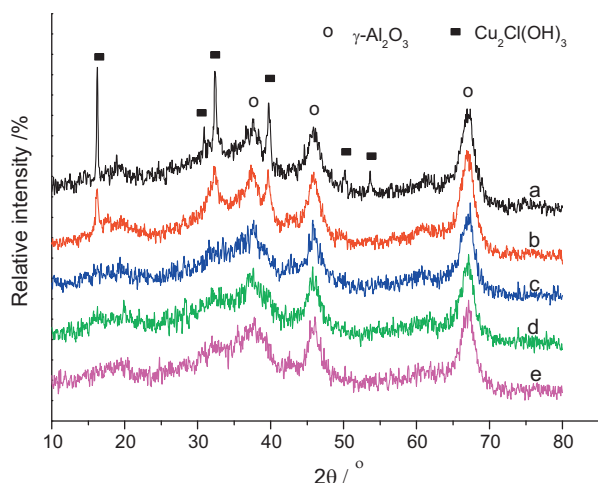


Fig. 7. XRD patterns of (a) PC-WI, (b) PC-Clw, (c) PC-ClI, (d) PC-ClA, and (e) PC-ClE.

composition [20–29], however the palladium species cannot be observed in Fig. 7, indicating that the palladium species may be highly dispersed on the surface of alumina or below detection limit of XRD.

Although the copper species is a redox partner of palladium in supported $\text{PdCl}_2\text{--CuCl}_2$ catalyst, it has been believed that it is closely correlated with the catalytic activity and plays a critical role in converting Pd^0 to Pd^{2+} [26,28]. Park and Lee [23] thought that the active copper phase was solid $\text{Cu}_2\text{Cl}(\text{OH})_3$ particles, and its catalytic activity increased with an increase in the peak intensity of $\text{Cu}_2\text{Cl}(\text{OH})_3$, which suggests that bigger crystal $\text{Cu}_2\text{Cl}(\text{OH})_3$ particles lead to higher catalytic activity but this is unconvinced. According to the catalytic mechanism of supported $\text{PdCl}_2\text{--CuCl}_2$ catalyst [28,29], the step of restoring Cu^+ to Cu^{2+} by oxygen is the rate-determining step. Hence, it can be speculated that the rate of CO oxidation can be accelerated if oxidizing Cu^+ to Cu^{2+} becomes more easily and $\text{Cu}_2\text{Cl}(\text{OH})_3$ particles highly disperse on the support surface.

The results in Fig. 7a and b show that $\text{Cu}_2\text{Cl}(\text{OH})_3$ phase can be observed in the XRD patterns of PC-WI and PC-Clw, but CuCl_2 phase cannot be discerned. The crystalline sizes of $\text{Cu}_2\text{Cl}(\text{OH})_3$ in PC-WI and PC-Clw are 34 nm and 21 nm respectively, which are calculated by the Scherrer equation based on the (1 0 1) peak of $\text{Cu}_2\text{Cl}(\text{OH})_3$, indicating that the dispersion of copper phase on the catalyst can be improved by Cl preparation method. In the XRD patterns of PC-ClA, PC-ClE, and PC-ClI, only $\gamma\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ phase can be detected and any copper phase is hardly discerned, which indicates that the copper

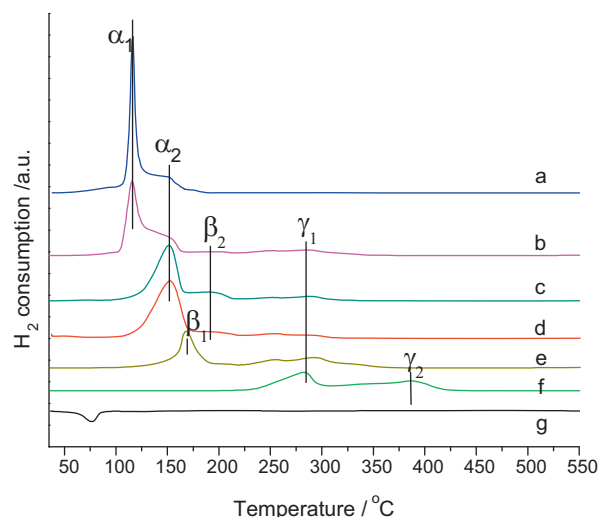


Fig. 9. TPR profiles of (a) PC-ClI, (b) PC-Clw, (c) PC-ClA, (d) PC-ClE, (e) PC-WI, (f) $\text{CuCl}_2/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$, and (g) $\text{PdCl}_2/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$. ($\text{PdCl}_2/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ and $\text{CuCl}_2/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ were prepared by the same method as PC-WI.)

phase is highly dispersed on alumina surface or its crystalline sizes is too small to be detected by XRD technique.

In the TEM image (Fig. 8) of PC-ClI catalyst, some stacking of Al_2O_3 layers can be evidently observed, and the crystalline copper and palladium phase are hardly observed, indicating further the very high dispersion of copper and palladium on the support. Other PC-Cl catalysts except PC-Clw were also examined by TEM (not shown), the same features as PC-ClI can be observed.

3.7.2. H_2 -TPR

The TPR profiles of the $\text{PdCl}_2/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$, $\text{CuCl}_2/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$, PC-WI, and PC-Cl samples are shown in Fig. 9. $\text{PdCl}_2/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ shows a negative peak at $\sim 75^\circ\text{C}$ (Fig. 9g), due to the decomposition of Pd β -hydride to release hydrogen [34–36], indicating that $\text{PdCl}_2/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ can be reduced at room temperature in the absence of copper species. $\text{CuCl}_2/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ shows two reduction peaks at $\sim 285^\circ\text{C}$ and $\sim 385^\circ\text{C}$ (Fig. 9f). There are also two reduction peaks in the TPR profiles of PC-WI (Fig. 9e), β_1 at $\sim 168^\circ\text{C}$ and the broad peak γ_1 at $\sim 285^\circ\text{C}$. Compared with the TPR profiles of $\text{PdCl}_2/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ and $\text{CuCl}_2/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$, the reduction peaks of copper species in PC-WI shift to lower temperature due to the presence of palladium species and the negative peak at $\sim 75^\circ\text{C}$ disappears.

Hydrogen consumption in the reduction of PC-WI is $\sim 615 \mu\text{mol/g}$, more than the theoretical hydrogen consump-

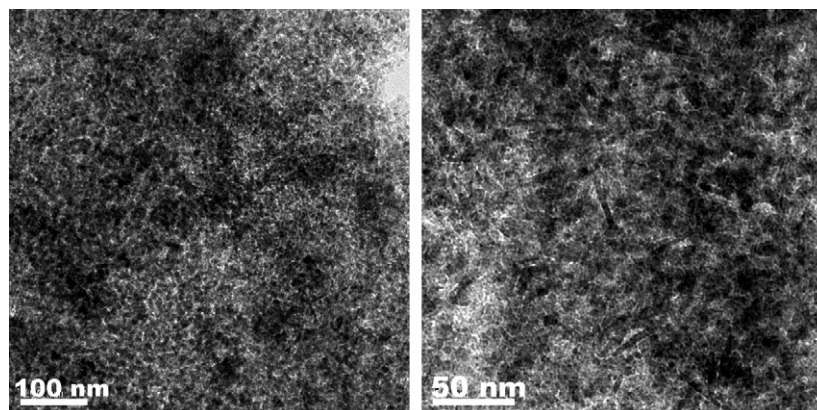
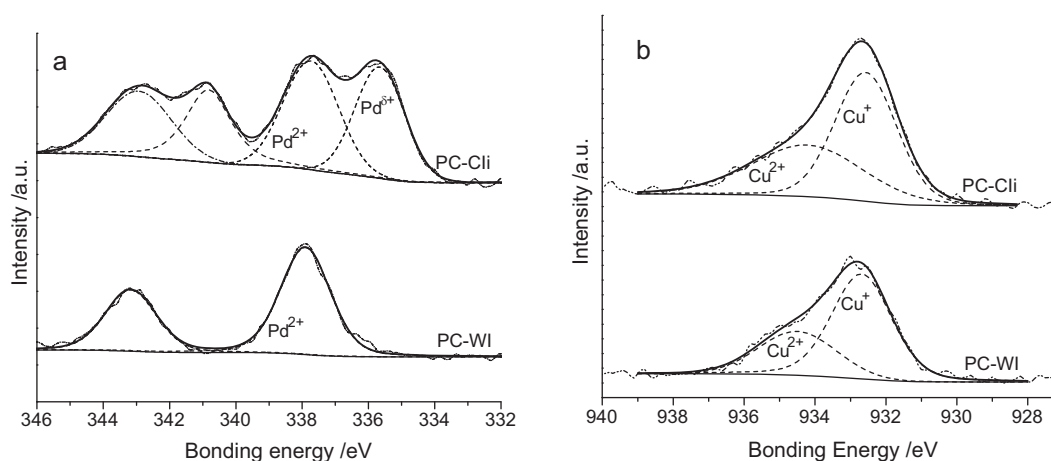


Fig. 8. TEM images of PC-ClI sample.

Table 1Pd and Cu loadings and H₂-TPR results of the PC catalysts.

Catalyst	Pd/wt.%	Cu/wt.%	H ₂ uptake/ μ mol/g					Total	Theoretical
			α_1	α_2	β_1	β_2	γ_1		
PC-WI	1.4	3.1	–	–	334	–	281	615	620
PC-Cl _i	1.2	3.2	454	167	–	–	–	621	616
PC-Cl _w	1.3	3.2	254	279	–	–	99	632	625
PC-Cl _a	1.3	3.2	–	474	–	79	75	628	625
PC-Cl _e	1.5	3.1	–	466	–	88	75	629	629

**Fig. 10.** (a) Pd3d and (b) Cu2p XPS spectra of PC-WI and PC-Cl.

tion in the reduction of 3.3%Cu–Cl₂/Al₂O₃ (519 μ mol/g) and similar to the theoretical hydrogen consumption (620 μ mol/g) for the reduction of Pd and Cu species, indicating that the peak β_1 should be ascribed to the co-reduction of palladium and copper species, which also demonstrates the interaction between palladium and copper phase. The broad peak γ_1 at \sim 285 °C is due to the reduction of bulk copper phase that is not interacted with palladium phase.

All PC-Cl catalysts have two reduction peaks (Fig. 9a–d). Based on different peak positions and shapes, the PC-Cl samples can be divided into two groups. The first group includes PC-Cl_a and PC-Cl_e, and their TPR profiles (Fig. 9c and d) are very similar, showing a main peak α_2 at \sim 150 °C for the co-reduction of Pd and Cu species and a broad small peak β_2 at \sim 192 °C for the reduction of bulk Cu phase. The second group includes PC-Cl_w and PC-Cl_i, and in their TPR profiles, there are a very sharp main peak α_1 at \sim 115 °C for the co-reduction of Pd and Cu phase and a broad shoulder peak α_2 at \sim 150 °C due to the reduction of bulk Cu phase. Compared with the α peaks of PC-Cl_w, the α_1 peak of PC-Cl_i with a H₂ consumption of 454 μ mol/g is much larger and its shoulder peak α_2 is weaker. The hydrogen consumptions in the reduction of PC-Cl catalysts are also very close to the theoretical hydrogen consumptions for the reduction of both Pd and Cu species (Table 1). This situation demonstrates Pd and Cu species in the PC-Cl catalysts can be co-reduced by H₂.

It is evident that the reduction peaks of second group catalysts are located at lower temperature and their main reduction peaks are much stronger and sharper, especially for the PC-Cl_i catalyst, compared with first group catalysts. This indicates that Cu²⁺ species over second group catalysts is much easy to be reduced, indicating that the rate of the re-oxidation of Pd⁰ by Cu²⁺ is faster

than that over first group catalysts. Therefore, it can be concluded that the performances of the catalysts are influenced by the low temperature reducibility of Cu²⁺ species.

3.7.3. XPS

The PC-WI and PC-Cl_i catalysts were tested by XPS, and the results are shown in Fig. 10 and Table 2. The Pd 3d spectrum of PC-WI shows only Pd²⁺ peaks at 337.9 and 343.2 eV [34–37], which is considered to be the active Pd species for conventional PdCl₂–CuCl₂ catalyst. The Pd 3d spectrum of PC-Cl_i exhibits the Pd²⁺ peaks and another pair of peaks at 335.7 and 340.8 eV that is below the bonding energy of Pd²⁺ and above that of Pd⁰ [34–37]. So this pair of peaks may be ascribed to Pd^{δ+} species, which may be an important factor resulting in the higher catalytic activity of PC-Cl_i.

The Cu 2p spectra of PC-WI and PC-Cl_i exhibit the Cu⁺ (932.6 eV) and Cu²⁺ (934.3 eV) species [37]. The Cu²⁺ species is considered to be the active component in the PdCl₂–CuCl₂ catalyst. The relative percentages of Pd and Cu species are quantified based on the area of their XPS peaks and shown in Table 2. The results show that PC-Cl_i catalyst possesses much more surface active Cu and Pd species than PC-WI, therefore the higher catalytic activity of PC-Cl_i may also correlate with more surface active Cu and Pd species.

3.7.4. In situ DRIFTS

In situ DRIFTS technology was employed to test the surface reaction of CO adsorbed on the catalysts in different atmospheres, and the results are shown in Figs. 11–15. In these DRIFTS spectra, the absorption peaks at 2300–2400 cm^{−1} are assigned to gaseous CO₂ [4,38], the peaks at 1600–1700 cm^{−1} are due to OH groups [4,38], the strong peaks at 2126 cm^{−1} are ascribed to Cu⁺–CO complex, the

Table 2

Surface composition of the catalysts calculated by the XPS data.

Catalyst	Pd ²⁺ /at.%	Pd ^{δ+} /at.%	Cu ²⁺ /at.%	Cu ⁺ /at.%	Total Pd/at.%	Total Cu/at.%
PC-WI	0.25	0	0.33	0.69	0.25	1.02
PC-Cl _i	0.28	0.25	0.57	0.79	0.53	1.36

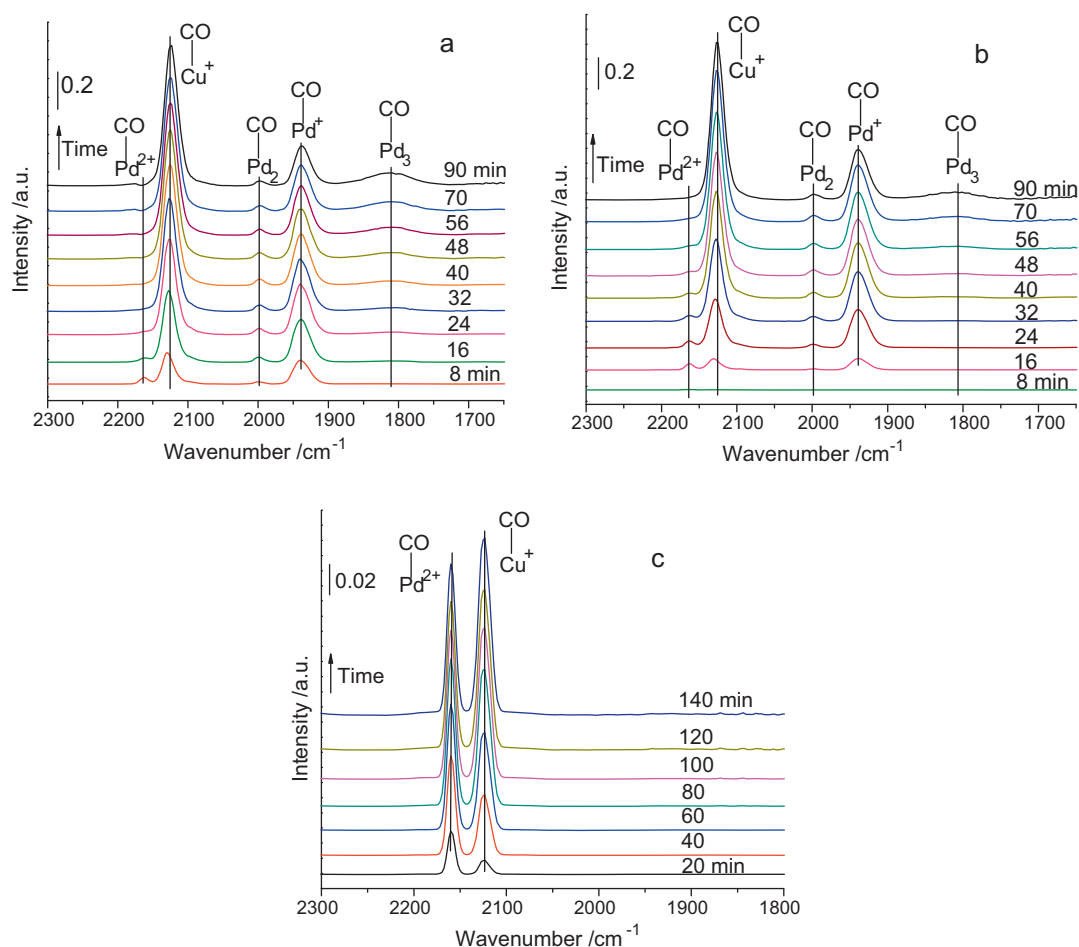


Fig. 11. *In situ* DRIFTS spectra of CO adsorbed over (a) PC-Cl, (b) PC-Clw and (c) PC-WI at 25 °C.

peaks at 2162 cm^{-1} are associated with terminal CO groups in Pd^{2+} complexes ($\text{Pd}^{2+}\text{-CO}$), the peaks at $1990\text{--}2000\text{ cm}^{-1}$ are related with bridge-bonded CO on palladium metal surfaces ($\text{Pd}_2\text{-CO}$), the peaks at $1930\text{--}1940\text{ cm}^{-1}$ are associated with bridged carbonyl ligands in Pd^+ complexes ($\text{Pd}^+\text{-CO}$) [25,28], and the broad peaks at 1810 cm^{-1} are assigned to triply bonded CO on metallic Pd ($\text{Pd}_3\text{-CO}$) [39,40].

In the DRIFTS spectra over PC-Cl catalyst (Fig. 11a), the CO adsorption peaks are located at 2162 cm^{-1} ($\text{Pd}^{2+}\text{-CO}$), 2126 cm^{-1} ($\text{Cu}^+\text{-CO}$), 1939 cm^{-1} ($\text{Pd}^+\text{-CO}$) and 1997 cm^{-1} ($\text{Pd}_2\text{-CO}$), respectively. With an increase in the contact time, the $\text{Pd}^{2+}\text{-CO}$ peak disappears gradually and all the other peaks retain their positions and their intensities grow obviously, and the absorption peak of $\text{Pd}_3\text{-CO}$ at 1810 cm^{-1} appears gradually [39,40]. For PC-Clw catalyst, it exhibits similar DRIFTS spectra of CO adsorbed (Fig. 11b) with that of PC-Cl, however the rate of CO adsorption on PC-Clw is slight slow because it needs a little more time to reach the steady-state.

For the PC-WI catalyst, its absorption spectra of CO adsorption (Fig. 11c) are different with that on PC-Cl. Only the $\text{Pd}^{2+}\text{-CO}$ and $\text{Cu}^+\text{-CO}$ peaks can be observed, indicating that only Pd^{2+} species exists on PC-WI in accord with XPS results, and it cannot be reduced to other low valent Pd species by CO at 25 °C . Being different with PC-Cl, the peak intensity of $\text{Pd}^{2+}\text{-CO}$ ($\sim 2162\text{ cm}^{-1}$) on PC-WI are much stronger than one on PC-Cl, showing that CO adsorbed mainly on Pd^{2+} and Cu^+ sites and not on Pd^+ sites.

Fig. 12 shows the *in situ* DRIFTS spectra of CO/O_2 co-adsorbed over the catalysts. For the PC-Cl catalyst, when $5\%\text{ O}_2$ is added to the mixture gases of $0.15\%\text{ CO/He}$, the $\text{Cu}^+\text{-CO}$ peak decreases, because Cu^+ is re-oxidized to Cu^{2+} and $\text{Cu}^{2+}\text{-CO}$ is very unstable, resulting in

its CO absorption peak being hardly observed [25,28]. The absorption peaks of $\text{Pd}_2\text{-CO}$ and $\text{Pd}^+\text{-CO}$ increase at the expense of $\text{Pd}_3\text{-CO}$ peak, because one of Pd atoms in Pd_3 cluster is oxidized to Pd^+ by Cu^{2+} , hence CO adsorbs on other two Pd atoms to form $\text{Pd}_2\text{-CO}$, resulting in an enhancement of its peak intensity. With an increase in the O_2 concentration, this phenomenon above becomes more distinct. For the PC-Clw catalyst (Fig. 12b), its spectra are similar to these on PC-Cl except for the larger effect of the O_2 concentration on the CO adsorption on PC-Clw.

For the PC-WI catalyst (Fig. 12c), the intensities of the $\text{Pd}^{2+}\text{-CO}$ and $\text{Cu}^+\text{-CO}$ peaks decrease with an increase in the O_2 concentration. Compared with the DRIFTS spectra over PC-Cl or PC-Clw, the peak of gas-phase CO_2 on PC-WI catalyst is smaller, that is to say, the amount of CO_2 on PC-WI catalyst is less than that on PC-Cl or PC-Clw catalyst. And the change of $\text{Cu}^+\text{-CO}$ peak intensity on PC-WI is less with the change of O_2 amount, indicating that Cu^+ species on PC-WI is much harder to be re-oxidized.

Fig. 13 shows *in situ* DRIFTS spectra of $\text{CO/O}_2/\text{H}_2\text{O}$ adsorbed over the catalysts. For the PC-Cl catalyst (Fig. 13a), when H_2O is introduced to the mixture gases of $0.15\%\text{ CO}/20\%\text{ O}_2/\text{He}$, the intensity of $\text{Cu}^+\text{-CO}$ peak decreases significantly. After $\sim 10\text{ min}$, this peak almost disappears and only a small broad peak maintains, which suggests that the presence of water promote the rate of Cu^+ re-oxidation. The intensities of other CO related peaks simultaneously decrease with the abatement of $\text{Cu}^+\text{-CO}$ peak but the peaks of gaseous CO_2 and OH group increase remarkably. After $\sim 40\text{ min}$, all the peak intensities are almost no longer alterable and the $\text{Pd}^+\text{-CO}$ and $\text{Pd}_3\text{-CO}$ peaks still retain, which indicates that CO oxidation over PC-Cl is via $\text{Pd}^+\text{-CO}$ and $\text{Pd}_3\text{-CO}$ as intermediates.

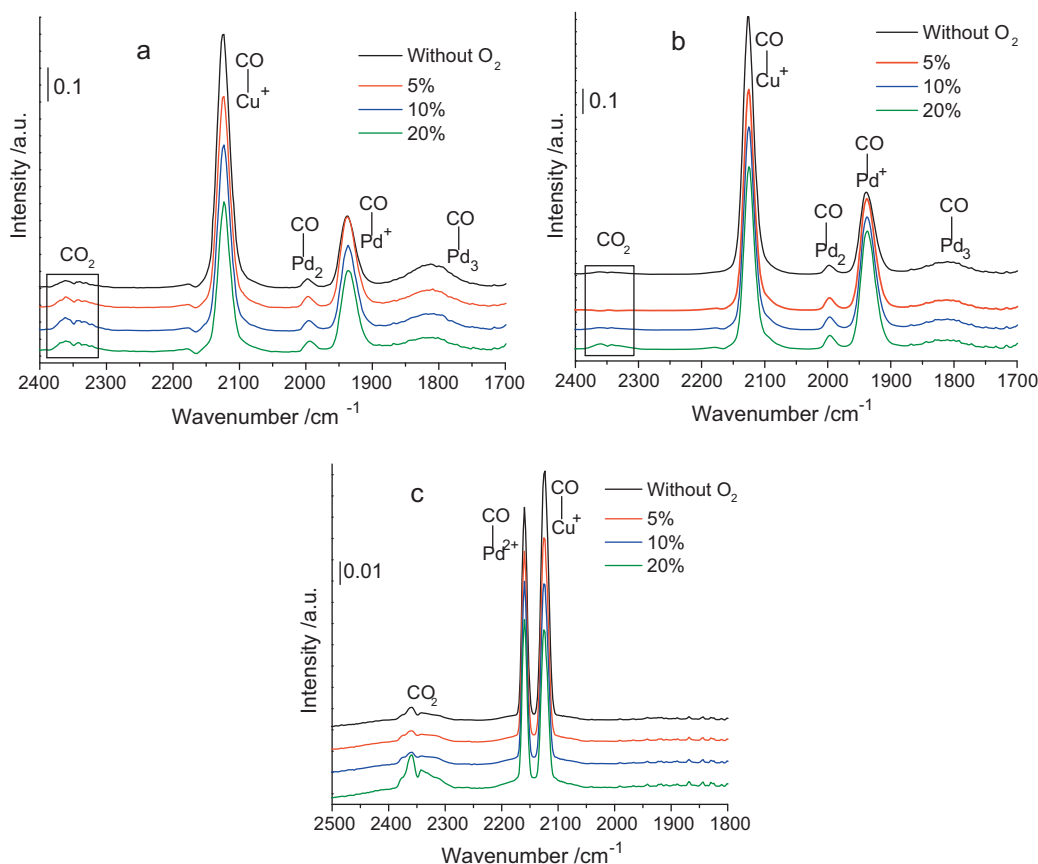


Fig. 12. *In situ* DRIFTS spectra of CO adsorbed over (a) PC-Cl, (b) PC-Clw and (c) PC-WI in the presence of O₂ with different concentrations at 25 °C.

The *in situ* DRIFTS spectra of PC-Clw (Fig. 13b) are similar to that of PC-Cl. All CO related peaks decrease quickly, and the peaks of gaseous CO₂ and OH group increase with an increase in time. However, some differences can still be found. Firstly, it needs much time to reach a steady-state, such as, after ~30 min the Cu⁺–CO peak disappears, which is much slower compared with that on PC-Cl, indicating a slower rate of oxidation of Cu⁺ to Cu²⁺. It may explain the better catalytic performance of PC-Cl for CO oxidation than PC-Clw. Secondly, the peak intensity of gas CO₂ in Fig. 13b develops more slowly and seems to be weaker than that in Fig. 13a, which also suggests that the rate of CO oxidation over PC-Clw is slower than over PC-Cl.

For PC-WI (Fig. 13c), when H₂O is introduced into the mixture gases of 0.15%CO/20%O₂/He, the peak intensities of Pd²⁺–CO and Cu⁺–CO decrease and that of gas phase CO₂ increase simultaneously. After ~45 min, the spectra are almost no longer changed and the Pd²⁺–CO and Cu⁺–CO peaks still exist. Compared with the absorption peak of Pd⁺–CO over PC-Cl (Fig. 13a), the intensity of Pd²⁺–CO peak over PC-WI decreases much more slightly and slowly, indicating that CO adsorbed on Pd⁺ species of PC-Cl is more easily oxidized to CO₂ compared with CO on Pd²⁺ species of PC-WI. Further this demonstrates that Pd⁺ species is much more active than Pd²⁺ species for CO oxidation.

The Cu⁺ species cannot be completely re-oxidized by oxygen over PC-WI because the re-oxidation of Cu⁺ is the rate-determining step in the conventional PdCl₂–CuCl₂ catalyst. And the fact that the faster complete re-oxidation of Cu⁺ species by oxygen over PC-Cl (Fig. 13a) reveals that the rate determining step is remarkably accelerated or changed, which is also proved by the little effect of Cu loading on the catalytic activity of PC-Cl for CO oxidation (Fig. 2b) and weaker dependency of the reaction rate on the O₂ concentrations (Fig. 6).

The results above show that, there are mainly two surface reaction steps relating to the rate-determining step over the PC-Cl catalyst: the oxidation of adsorbed CO on Pd⁺ to form CO₂ and the re-oxidation of Pd⁰ by Cu²⁺ to regenerate active Pd⁺. In order to determine the rate-determining step in the whole catalytic cycle over PC-Cl catalyst, *in situ* DRIFT spectra in the feed of CO + O₂ + H₂O with the time of removing CO are measured, and the results are shown in Fig. 14. The results show that the intensity of the Pd⁺–CO peak decreases much faster when CO is removed from the feed gas, and disappears within ~24 min, indicating that the oxidation rate of adsorbed CO on the Pd⁺ active sites is much faster. The Pd₃–CO peak still retains after CO being removed for 30 min. These phenomena reveal that the re-oxidation of Pd⁰ to Pd⁺ by active copper species is the rate determining step for CO oxidation over PC-Cl catalyst.

3.7.5. Discussion about the catalytic mechanism of CO oxidation

Based on the results obtained herein and achievements reported previously [22–29], a potential reaction pathway is proposed for CO oxidation over PC-Cl catalyst as shown in Fig. 15. At first, Pd²⁺ is totally reduced by CO and H₂O to form active Pd⁺ species (Fig. 11). This initial step can quickly occur to give a small amount of CO₂, but this step is not included in the real catalytic cycle because Pd⁺ cannot be re-oxidized to Pd²⁺ in the catalytic reaction (Figs. 12 and 13). A small amount of formed active Pd⁺ species is further reduced to Pd⁰ and CO is adsorbed on three palladium atoms with the Pd₃–CO structure (Fig. 11). Then Pd⁰ is re-oxidized to Pd⁺ by Cu²⁺ species (Fig. 12), and Cu²⁺ is reduced to Cu⁺ simultaneously. Afterwards, Cu⁺ species is re-oxidized back to Cu²⁺ species by oxygen (Figs. 12 and 13) and the catalytic cycle is completed. These steps in the mechanism above-mentioned can be well proved by *in situ* DRIFTS testing, and are similar to the well-known Wacker process

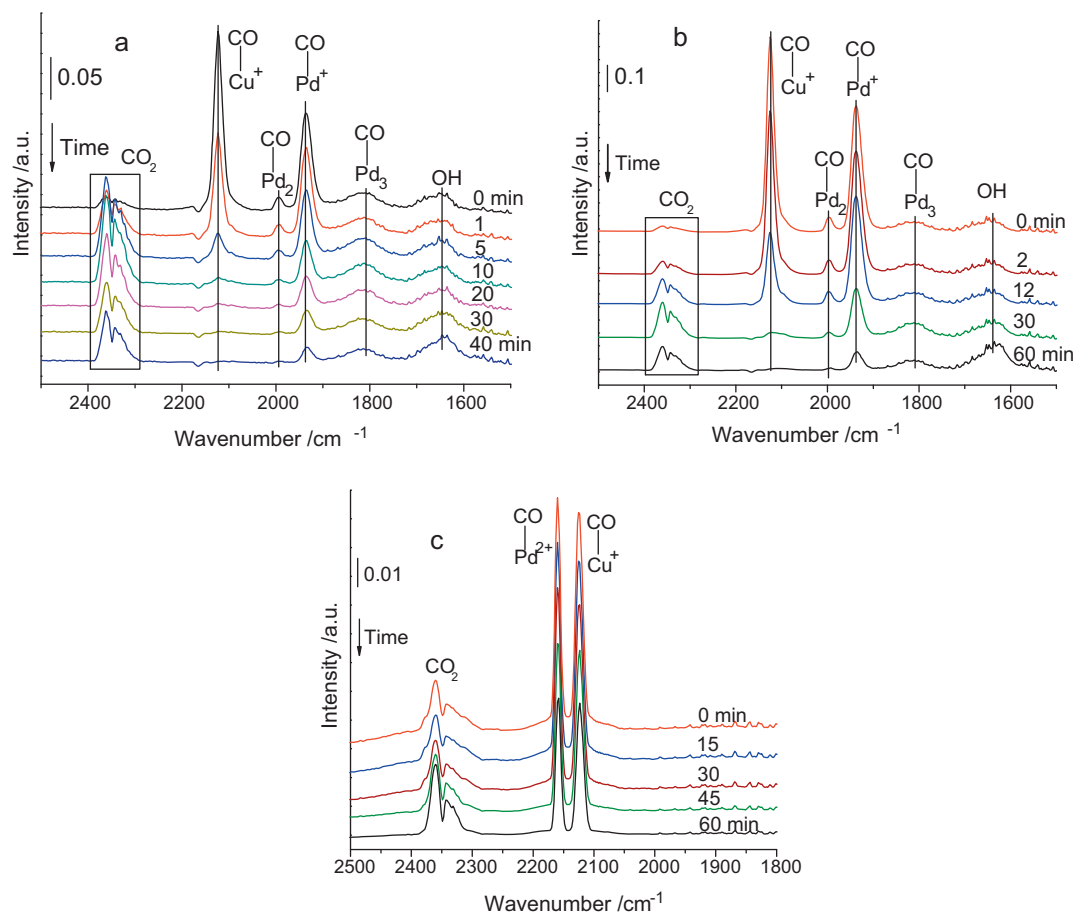


Fig. 13. *In situ* DRIFTS spectra of CO adsorbed over (a) PC-Cl, (b) PC-Clw and (c) PC-WI in the presence of 20% O₂ and ~6000 ppm H₂O at 25 °C.

over the conventional PdCl₂–CuCl₂/Al₂O₃ catalyst. However, there are still two remarkable differences between them. One is that Pd⁺ is the active palladium species over the PC-Cl catalyst, and over the PC-WI catalyst Pd²⁺ is the active species. Another is that the rate-determining step (rds) of CO oxidation over the PC-Cl catalyst (Fig. 16) is Step 3 in Fig. 15, but for the PC-WI catalyst the last step (Step 4 in Fig. 15) is the rds.

The reasons for the high activity of PC-Cl catalyst for CO oxidation are as follows. Firstly, the adsorbed CO on Pd⁺ species of PC-Cl is more easily oxidized to CO₂ compared with that on Pd²⁺ species of PC-WI (Step 2 in Fig. 15), so that Pd⁺ species is more active sites than Pd²⁺ species for CO oxidation. Secondly, the Cu²⁺ species on PC-Cl catalyst has the lower-temperature reducibility (Fig. 9), resulting in the very easy reduction of Cu²⁺ (Step 3 in Fig. 15). Thirdly, the presence of moisture can make an acceleration of Cu⁺ re-oxidation by oxygen, and the rate-determining step for CO oxidation over PC-Cl catalyst is the re-oxidation of Pd⁰ by Cu²⁺ species as proposed

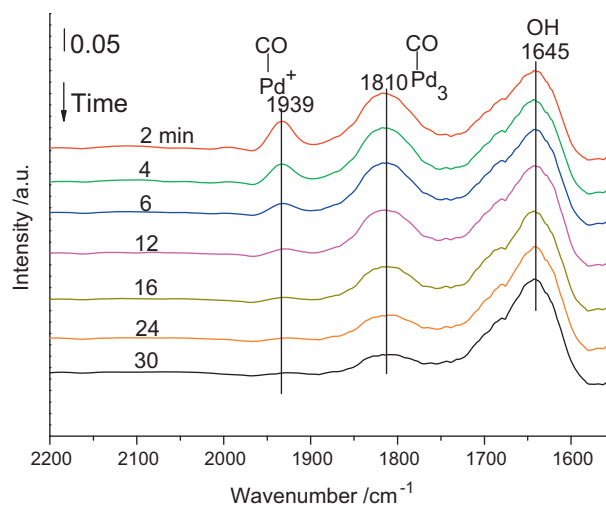


Fig. 14. *In situ* DRIFTS spectra over PC-Cl in the feed of CO + O₂ + H₂O with the time of removing CO at 25 °C.

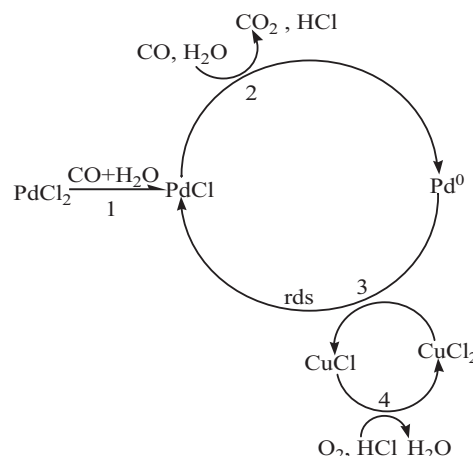


Fig. 15. Proposed catalytic CO reaction pathways over PC-Cl.

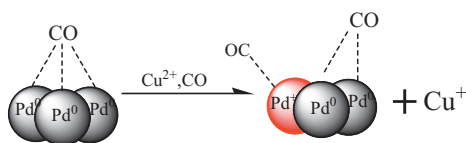


Fig. 16. Proposed the rate-determining step of CO oxidation over PC-Cl.

in Fig. 16 instead of the re-oxidation of Cu^+ by oxygen (Step 4 in Fig. 15), which is the main reason for the higher catalytic activity of PC-Cl catalyst for low temperature CO oxidation.

4. Conclusions

Using a coordination-impregnation method, the $\text{Pd-Cu-Cl}_x/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ (PC-Cl) catalysts were prepared and exhibited excellent catalytic activities for CO oxidation compared with the $\text{Pd-Cu-Cl}_x/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ (PC-WI) catalyst prepared by wet impregnation. In the process of preparing the PC-Cl catalysts, different solvents affect obviously their catalytic performance and isopropanol is the most suitable solvent among water, ethanol, acetone and isopropanol.

Over the PC-Cl catalyst the CO oxidation can be enhanced remarkably with an increase in moisture concentration because the presence of moisture can prompt the rate of Cu^+ re-oxidation, but it is weakly dependent on the CO and O_2 concentrations. Compared with the PC-WI catalyst, the PC-Cl catalyst prepared by using isopropanol solvent has higher dispersion and lower-temperature reducibility of copper phase, and possesses higher active Pd^+ species and much more Cu^{2+} active species on its surface.

In the CO low-temperature oxidation catalyzed by the PC-Cl catalyst, the Cu^+ re-oxidation by oxygen can be accelerated by moisture in feed gas and the rate-determining step is the re-oxidation of Pd^0 to Pd^+ by Cu^{2+} over the PC-Cl catalyst instead of the re-oxidation of Cu^+ to Cu^{2+} by O_2 over PC-WI catalyst, which are the main reasons that the PC-Cl catalyst behaves the excellent catalytic activity for low-temperature oxidation of CO.

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