

Defining Reactivity of Solid Sorbents: What Is the Most Appropriate Metric?

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A series of solid sorbent materials, including alumina (Al₂O₃), magnesia (MgO), titania (TiO₂), silica (SiO₂), and carbon, of widely varying physical properties, have been studied as sorbents for two toxic substances: sulfur dioxide gas (SO₂) and chemical warfare surrogate 2-chloroethyl ethyl sulfide (2-CEES, ClCH₂CH₂SCH₂CH₃). Sorbent surface areas, average pore sizes, pore volumes, surface hydroxyl groups, and nitrogen adsorption–desorption isotherms were measured. Surface areas varied from 18 m²/g to over 1000 m²/g, pore volumes from 0.04 to 1.2 cm³/g, and pore diameters from 1.7 to 4.9 nm. Breakthrough studies of SO₂ and 2-CEES sorption yielded information about the effectiveness of each sorbent. Carbon samples worked well for 2-CEES but not SO₂, while silica samples were poor for both. The best MgO and TiO₂ samples were good for both SO₂ and 2-CEES, and overall, the highest surface area (459 m²/g) TiO₂ sample was the superior sorbent. The important features for an effective sorbent under the conditions employed are high surface area and high pore volume, possessing isolated surface –OH groups, mesoporous nature, and a polar surface (Lewis base and Lewis acid sites).

1. Introduction

Over the past decade, considerable effort has been dedicated to the design and fabrication of nanostructured porous solid materials with functional properties.¹ The composition and exact architecture of the porous structure of solids such as carbons, metal oxides, zeolites, and so forth strongly influence their adsorptive ability for liquids and gases. Despite enormous strides in the synthesis of various classes of nanostructured materials, our understanding of the mechanisms regarding their nucleation and growth and in particular the structural metrics that guide their adsorptive performance is still developing. Understanding the internal porous structure as well as the external surface structure and the relationship of these properties to the performance of the material is a scientifically and technologically important problem, as this will allow the more efficient design of these materials and increase the range of their application. In addition, detailed studies specifically geared toward delineating the comparative performance of compositionally similar but structurally different porous solids are clearly needed to quickly identify key characteristics that one could use in the

identification and downselection of promising formulations for a desired end use.

The ability to synthesize new formulations, controlling composition as well as porous structure, is extremely important in materials science. The design of adsorbents with desirable properties will only result from continued improvements in comprehension of structure–function relationships and the utilization of this knowledge in synthesis and application. Generally, development of new sorbents has typically relied on methods that involve empirical studies related to performance testing of formulations of interest. Currently, there is growing interest in using a more systematic scientific approach for sorbent design because achieving the ability to tailor sorbents of choice does have an enormous economic impact.² There is no doubt that a clear knowledge of structure–performance correlations will permit development of novel procedures and new formulations based on rational modification of reactants and reaction conditions.

The goal of the current work was to enhance our understanding of structure–performance correlations in various classes of porous sorbents. We chose to examine a series of metal oxides (polar structures) that encompassed low surface area to high surface area with microporous and mesoporous architectures of a random nature (not ordered in pore structure, for example not like MCM-41^{2d,e} or SBA-15^{2f,g} type materials). Also, we chose to compare a series of carbon based samples, which usually possess comparatively nonpolar surfaces, although several contained additives that would provide some polar surface sites.

The structural characterization study was based on nitrogen adsorption measurements and FT-IR characterization of five magnesium oxides, four titanium dioxides, four aluminum

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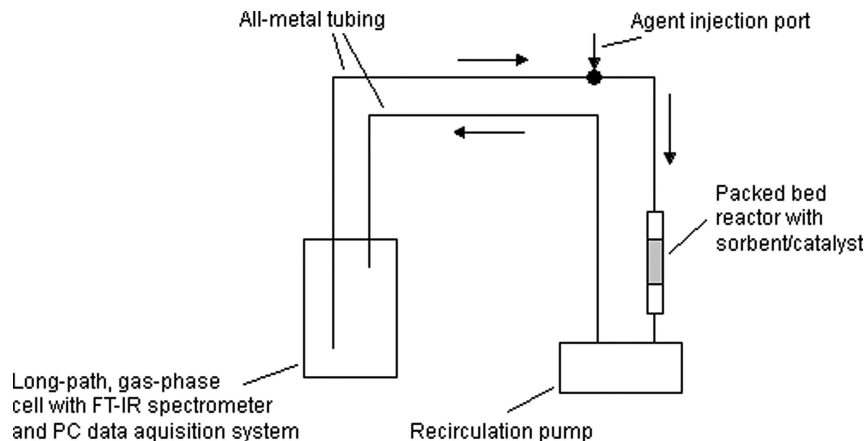


Figure 1. Schematic diagram of the testing apparatus.

oxides, three silicas, and six carbon samples. The adsorptive performance of all these sorbents was then evaluated using SO_2 (polar and highly toxic industrial chemical) and 2-chloroethyl ethyl sulfide (2-CEES, Mustard agent simulant, hydrophobic) as the adsorbates. Finally, the correlation between the structural data and the adsorptive performance data was assessed for all sorbents to see if indeed there are any generally useful trends that can be identified and applied for new sorbent design.

2. Experimental Procedure

2.1. Chemicals and Sorbents. Five different classes of sorbents were tested against 2-chloroethyl ethyl sulfide and sulfur dioxide. 2-CEES (98% purity) and SO_2 (99.9+% purity) were obtained from Aldrich. Five formulations of MgO (MgO1-5), four each of TiO_2 ($\text{TiO}_2\text{1-4}$) and Al_2O_3 ($\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3\text{1-4}$), three formulations of silica ($\text{SiO}_2\text{1-3}$), and six carbon formulations (Carbon1-6) were used in this study. MgO1 , **2**, and **4** are commercially available samples from NanoScale Corporation and MgO3 and MgO5 were purchased from an external commercial supplier. $\text{TiO}_2\text{1-3}$ are developmental samples from NanoScale and $\text{TiO}_2\text{4}$ was purchased from an external commercial supplier and was used as received. $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3\text{1-3}$ are each available from NanoScale, and $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3\text{4}$ is a commercially available sorbent used by the military. All three silica samples ($\text{SiO}_2\text{1-3}$) and the six carbon samples (Carbon1-6) were commercially purchased samples from various suppliers and were used as received.

2.2. Solid Characterizations. **2.2.1. Textural Properties of Metal Oxides and Carbon Sorbents.** Nitrogen adsorption-desorption isotherms for all the metal oxide and carbon samples were recorded at 77 K on a NOVA-1200 Instrument from Quantachrome Corpora-



Figure 2. Long-path gas-phase IR cell, the main component of the testing apparatus.

tion. The specific surface areas of the sorbents were determined according to the Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) method.³ The pore size distributions were derived from the desorption branches of corresponding isotherms based on the Barrett-Joyner-Halenda (BJH) method.⁴ In addition, pore volumes and pore diameters of all samples were calculated from the BJH desorption isotherms data recorded on the NOVA-1200 Quantachrome Instrument.

2.2.2. DRIFTS-IR. DRIFT (diffuse reflectance infrared Fourier transform) spectra were recorded on a Nicolet NEXUS 870 infrared spectrometer with a liquid nitrogen cooled MCT detector. The background was collected with KBr (IR grade) purchased from Fluka. All samples except carbons were examined by DRIFT as neat materials. All carbon samples were diluted with anhydrous KBr (sample:KBr = 5:95, w/w) and were ground before analysis. All spectra were recorded at a nominal resolution of 4 cm^{-1} .

2.3. Measurement of Solid Reactivity. The chemical reactivity of each sorbent was tested using a closed loop flow through test (Figure 1). The experimental setup included a Nicolet 6700 FT-IR (from Thermo Electron Corporation) equipped with a long path cell (model 16-V manufactured by Infrared Analysis, Inc.), a KNF laboratory pump, and a 1 cm diameter glass tube with a coarse glass frit attached inside near the center. Each piece of equipment was connected with metal tubing and the appropriate fittings in a loop (Figure 2).

The internal volume of the cell vessel is 2.5 L. The nitrogen mixed with 2-CEES vapor or SO_2 contained in the internal volume of the cell was continuously circulated through a packed bed reactor filled with test material by a diaphragm pump, both presented in Figure 3.

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Figure 3. Packed bed reactor containing sorbent mounted on top of the recirculating pump.

In a representative procedure, the system was purged with nitrogen before testing, granules of the selected sorbent (-35 to $+60$ mesh) were placed in the glass tube on top of the frit, and the desired reagent was injected through a T-adaptor in the tubing. The pump enabled the continuous flow of the reagent and process nitrogen through the sorbent bed into the FT-IR for analysis and back through the system at a rate of 5.5 LPM. For all flow through tests, 0.1 g of sorbent was used, and agent concentrations in the system were based on a total system volume of 2.5 L. Testing was completed using an 18.9 and 9.35 (w/w) sorbent to agent ratio for SO_2 and 2-CEES, respectively. FT-IR scans were taken every minute for a period of 20 min, and specified bands were integrated ($1400\text{--}1300\text{ cm}^{-1}$ for SO_2 ; $3100\text{--}2800\text{ cm}^{-1}$ for 2-CEES). The band areas were converted to the system concentration by application of a calibration equation to obtain an agent concentration profile.

3. Results

3.1. Nitrogen Adsorption Description. The N_2 adsorption-desorption isotherms at 77 K for all oxide (MgO , TiO_2 , Al_2O_3 , and SiO_2) and carbon sorbents are presented in Figure 4a–e, and their corresponding textural parameters, namely, BET surface areas, pore volumes, and pore diameters, are listed in Table 1.

3.2. DRIFTS FT-IR. Next, a broad series of FT-IR studies by the DRIFTS technique was carried out. Spectra for the 22 sorbents were recorded, followed by spectra for each sorbent after being used in SO_2 and 2-CEES adsorption experiments, or 66 spectra in all, and with numerous duplicates to check for reproducibility.

Using MgO as an example, Figures 5–7 show pure MgO (all samples) and then used samples exposed to 2-CEES and SO_2 . These samples (Figure 5) showed absorption bands spanning the $3760\text{--}3000\text{ cm}^{-1}$, due to O–H stretching modes of different types, namely, isolated and hydrogen bonded hydroxyl groups; the band at 1640 cm^{-1} was assigned to the molecular water bending mode. For all MgO samples, the band at $1500\text{--}1300\text{ cm}^{-1}$ was attributed to carbonate species. In the case of MgO1 weak bands at around $2900\text{--}2700\text{ cm}^{-1}$ and strong absorption around $1200\text{--}1000\text{ cm}^{-1}$ were assigned to C–H and C–O stretching, respec-

tively. All samples have strong bands below 1000 cm^{-1} , and it is known that oxide samples exhibit strong phonon modes below 1000 cm^{-1} .

After adsorption of SO_2 (Figure 6), a strong peak appeared at 1020 cm^{-1} due to S=O stretching. Changes were seen in the intensity of the hydroxyl bands as well with all samples.

After adsorption of 2-CEES (Figure 7), several new weak peaks appeared in the region between 3000 and 2860 cm^{-1} for MgO1 , **2**, **4**, and **5**. These peaks were related to C–H stretching. On the basis of the spectra of neat MgO , MgO/2-CEES , and neat 2-CEES (not shown here), 2-CEES or fragments of 2-CEES were adsorbed on the surface of the MgO samples, except for MgO3 (a sample that showed little capacity for adsorption; see later discussion). Two other interesting observations are that the isolated OH groups of MgO (except MgO3) disappeared after use, and the residual alkoxy groups on MgO1 were lessened in intensity.

As seen in Figure 8, TiO_2 samples showed a very broad absorption in the $3700\text{--}2600\text{ cm}^{-1}$, due to the superposition of the O–H stretching mode of interacting hydroxyl groups (those that are involved in hydrogen bonds) and the symmetric and asymmetric O–H stretching modes of molecular water coordinated to Ti^{4+} cations. The band at 3674 cm^{-1} was assigned to O–H stretching of different types of isolated hydroxyl groups; the band at 1626 cm^{-1} was assigned to the molecular water bending mode. For $\text{TiO}_2\text{2}$, the bands at around $1400\text{--}1300\text{ cm}^{-1}$ were attributed to carbonate species. All samples have strong bands at $970\text{--}930\text{ cm}^{-1}$ (phonon modes).

Comparing the spectra of TiO_2 before (Figure 8) and after adsorption of 2-CEES (Figure 9), new bands appeared at 2978 and 2930 cm^{-1} , due to C–H stretch. For $\text{TiO}_2\text{1}$, new bands were observed at 1456 , 1265 , and 1060 cm^{-1} . For $\text{TiO}_2\text{2}$, **3**, and **4**, another new band appeared at 1560 cm^{-1} . Bands at 1456 and 1560 cm^{-1} were assigned to CH_3 rock. And the bands at 1265 cm^{-1} were assigned to SC- H_2 scissor. After adsorption of SO_2 , a small new band appeared at 1126 cm^{-1} , possibly due to S=O stretch (Figure 10). Isolated –OH stretch disappeared after use.

As seen in Figure 11, Al_2O_3 samples showed a very broad absorption in the $3600\text{--}2600\text{ cm}^{-1}$, due to the superposition of the O–H stretching mode of interacting hydroxyl groups (those that are involved in hydrogen bonds) and the symmetric and asymmetric O–H stretching modes of molecular water coordinated to Al^{3+} cations. The band at 3665 cm^{-1} was assigned to O–H stretching of different types of isolated hydroxyl groups; the band at 1640 cm^{-1} was assigned to the molecular water bending mode. The weak band around $1400\text{--}1300\text{ cm}^{-1}$ in $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3\text{3}$ and **4** was attributed to carbonate species. All samples have strong bands below 1000 cm^{-1} .

Comparing the spectra of Al_2O_3 before and after adsorption of SO_2 , no obvious difference was observed, which might be due to the overlap of bands due to carbonate species ($1400\text{--}1300\text{ cm}^{-1}$) and phonon modes and S=O stretching (asymmetric at 1350 cm^{-1} , symmetric at 1020 cm^{-1}). After adsorption of 2-CEES, new bands appeared in the region of $3000\text{--}2800\text{ cm}^{-1}$, due to C–H stretching. Molecular or fragmented 2-CEES were adsorbed on the surface of Al_2O_3 .

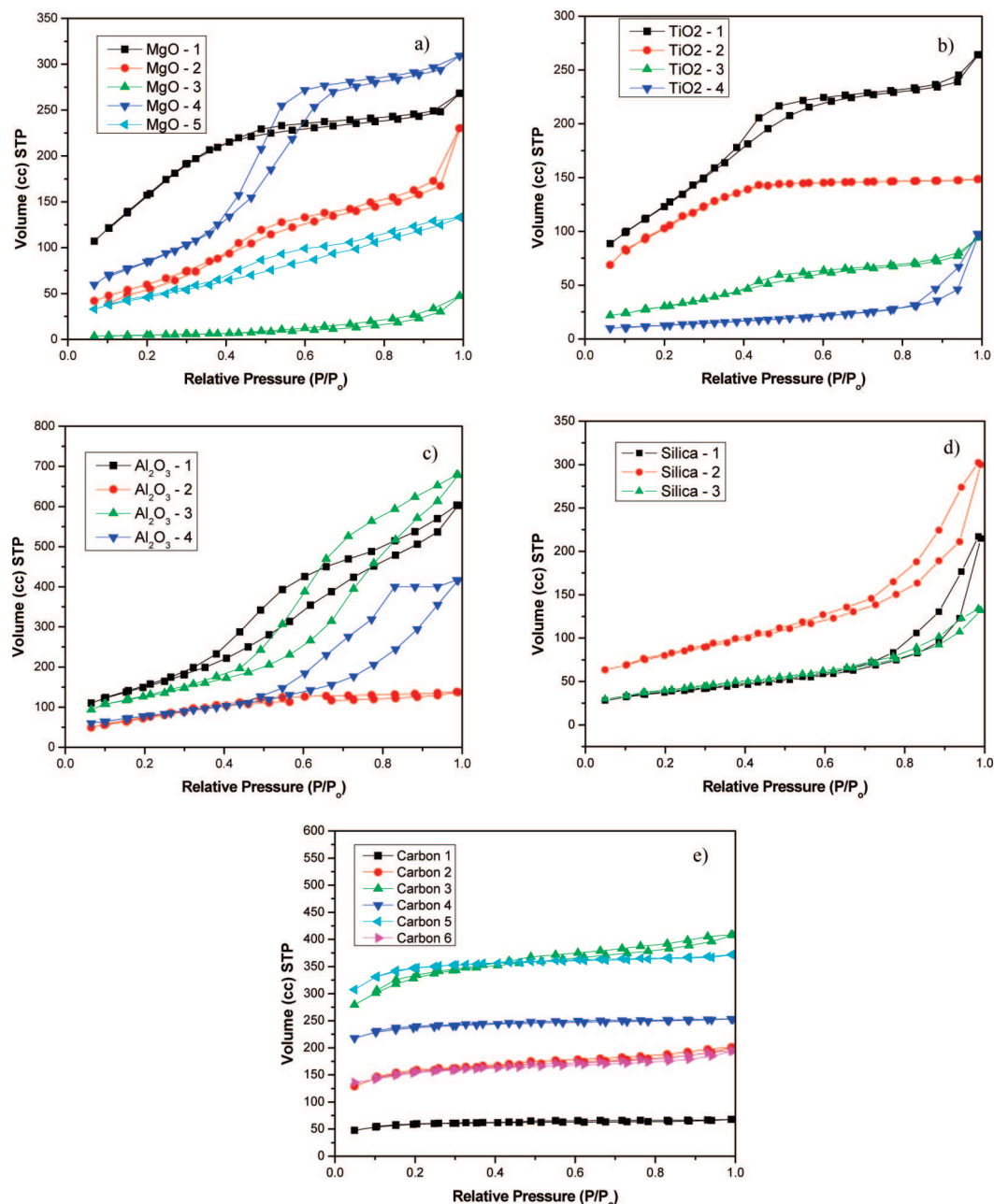


Figure 4. N_2 adsorption–desorption isotherms for as-received sorbents: (a) MgO, (b) TiO_2 , (c) Al_2O_3 , (d) SiO_2 , and (e) carbon. See Experimental Procedure for sources of samples.

The FT-IR studies of SiO_2 and carbon were less helpful. Intense, broad absorption bands for water were observed, as well as several unidentified bands. Upon use for SO_2 or 2-CEES adsorption, no real changes could be ascertained for these samples.

3.3. SO_2 and 2-CEES Sorption. MgO1 and 4 performed well against both 2-CEES and SO_2 as shown in Figures 12 and 13. The agent concentration reduction happened very quickly for both samples within the first 2 min of testing. MgO3 was ineffective against both 2-CEES and SO_2 and MgO2 and 5 had moderate effectiveness against each agent.

For TiO_2 formulations, TiO_2 1 had the best performance reducing the overall SO_2 concentration to less than 0.1 mL/L and the 2-CEES concentrations to 0.1 μ L/L. The next best

performing formulations were TiO_2 2 and 3, respectively. TiO_2 4 had poor performance against both SO_2 and 2-CEES (Figures 14 and 15).

Al_2O_3 1 was the best performing Al_2O_3 formulation against both agents but the performance was not as good as the best TiO_2 and MgO formulations. The concentration of SO_2 was reduced to less than 0.15 mL/L slowly over the length of the test by Al_2O_3 1. The performance against 2-CEES was poor for all alumina formulations (Figures 16 and 17).

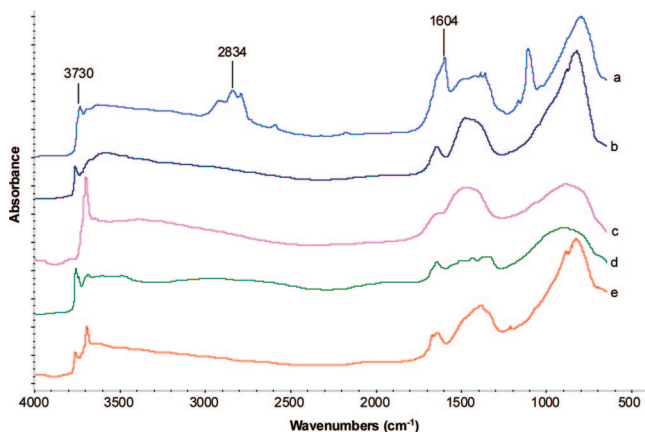
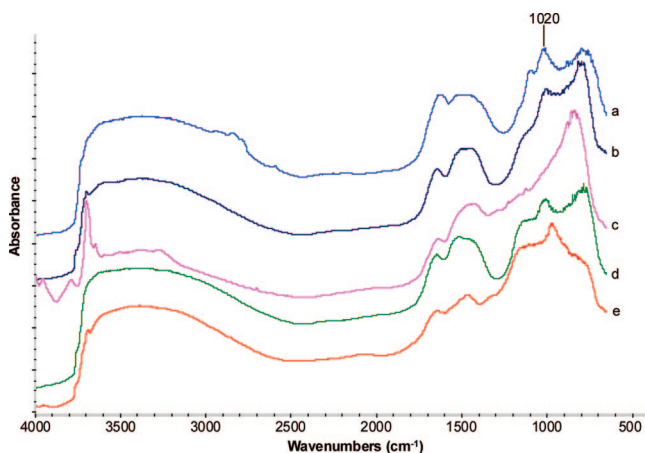
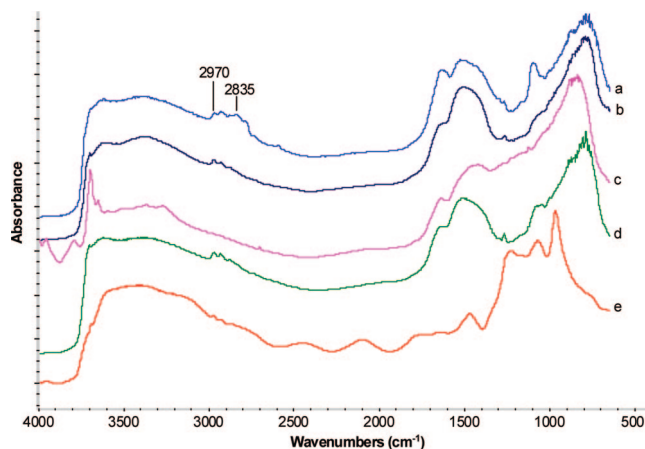
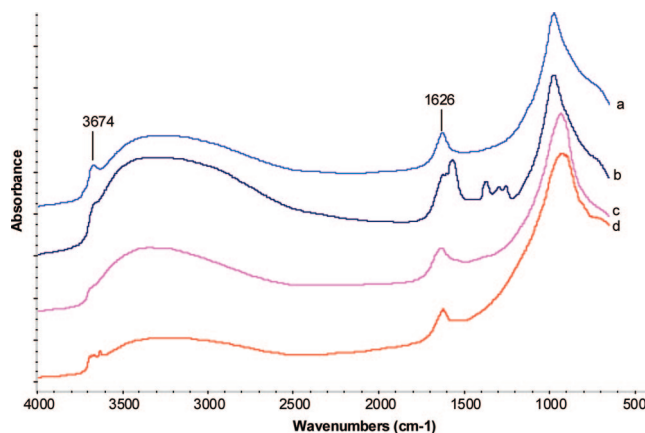
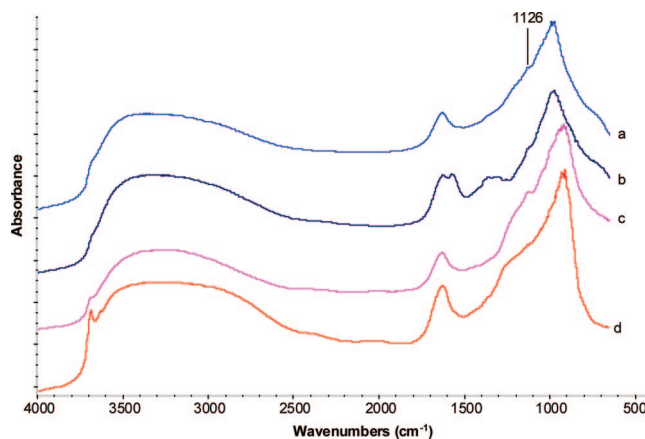
The silica samples performed poorly against SO_2 with no agent reduction over time (Figures 18 and 19). Silica2 had the best performance against 2-CEES with a reduction to 0.75 μ L/L.

Carbon2 performed moderately well against SO_2 with a reduction in concentration to 0.15 mL/L. Carbon3, 4, and 6

Table 1. Textural Parameters of MgO, TiO₂, Al₂O₃, SiO₂, and Carbon Sorbents

sorbent	BET surface area (m ² /g)	pore volume (cm ³ /g)	pore diameter (nm)
MgO1	593	0.42	2.0
MgO2	227	0.40	3.3
MgO3	18	0.08	3.7
MgO4	326	0.56	3.7
MgO5	341	0.09	3.7
TiO ₂ 1	459	0.42	3.3
TiO ₂ 2	380	0.21	2.0
TiO ₂ 3	113	0.16	3.3
TiO ₂ 4	45	0.15	2.6
Al ₂ O ₃ 1	557	1.0	3.3
Al ₂ O ₃ 2	276	0.22	2.6
Al ₂ O ₃ 3	453	1.2	4.9
Al ₂ O ₃ 4	275	0.68	4.9
SiO ₂ 1	129	0.32	1.7
SiO ₂ 2	276	0.44	1.7
SiO ₂ 3	138	0.20	1.7
Carbon1	192	0.04	1.7
Carbon2	509	0.14	1.7
Carbon3	1080	0.27	1.7
Carbon4	759	0.07	1.7
Carbon5	1100	0.12	1.7
Carbon6	497	0.13	1.7

also had moderate performance against SO₂. All carbon formulations performed well against 2-CEES with nearly 100% reduction in concentration (Figures 20 and 21).

**Figure 5.** IR Spectra of Different MgO: (a) MgO1, (b) MgO2, (c) MgO3, (d) MgO4, and (e) MgO5.**Figure 6.** IR Spectra of MgO after SO₂ adsorption: (a) MgO1, (b) MgO2, (c) MgO3, (d) MgO4, and (e) MgO5.**Figure 7.** IR Spectra of MgO after 2-CEES adsorption: (a) MgO1, (b) MgO2, (c) MgO3, (d) MgO4, and (e) MgO5.**Figure 8.** IR Spectra of Different TiO₂: (a) TiO₂1, (b) TiO₂2, (c) TiO₂3, and (d) TiO₂4.**Figure 9.** IR Spectra of TiO₂ after 2-CEES adsorption: (a) TiO₂1, (b) TiO₂2, (c) TiO₂3, and (d) TiO₂4.

4. Discussion

4.1. MgO. Five different magnesium oxide samples were evaluated. These materials varied widely in physical characteristics as well as in adsorption performance against the target agents. One MgO material (MgO3) performed poorly against both agents with no adsorption of 2-CEES and negligible adsorption of SO₂. It had the lowest specific surface area (18 m²/g) and an extremely low pore volume (0.08 cm³/g). The best performers remove 80% or more of

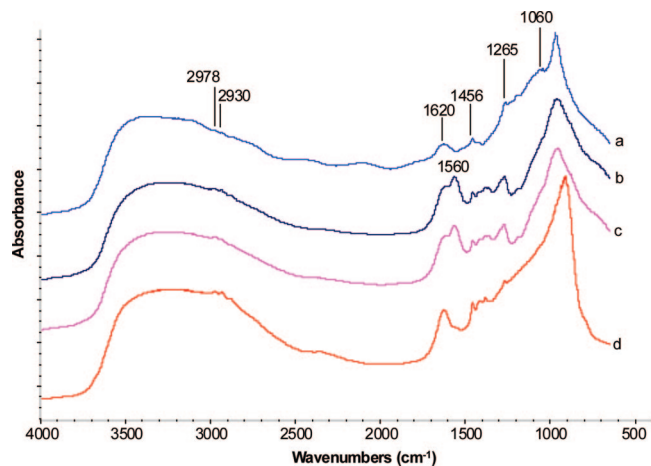


Figure 10. IR Spectra of TiO_2 after SO_2 adsorption: (a) TiO_2 1, (b) TiO_2 2, (c) TiO_2 3, and (d) TiO_2 4.

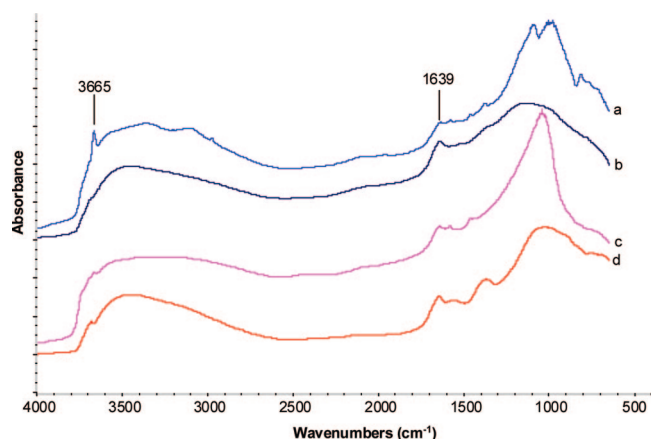


Figure 11. IR Spectra of Different Al_2O_3 : (a) Al_2O_3 1, (b) Al_2O_3 2, (c) Al_2O_3 3, and (d) Al_2O_3 4.

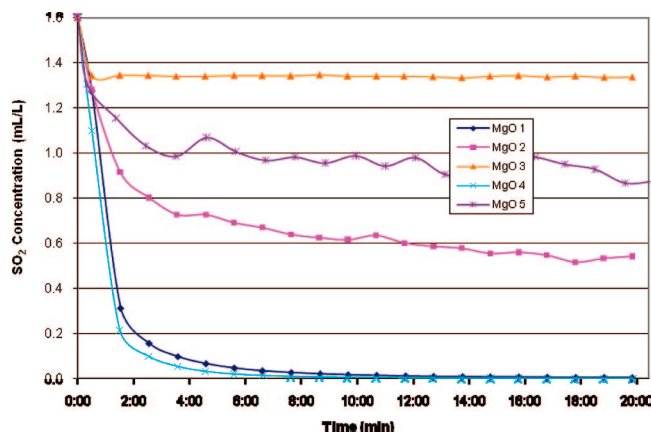


Figure 12. Flow testing results for MgO formulations against SO_2 . The flow tests were carried out in duplicate with observed variation in $<3\%$ range.

the test agent (MgO 1 and 4) and had some characteristics in common such as high specific surface area and large pore volumes ($593 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$, $0.42 \text{ cm}^3/\text{g}$ and $326 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$, $0.56 \text{ cm}^3/\text{g}$, respectively). MgO 2 and 5 performed better than the worst removing 30–75% of the challenge agent, but not nearly as well as the best. They also had relatively high surface areas, and MgO 2 had a pore volume comparable to the best performers but had no trace organics detectable by IR. This

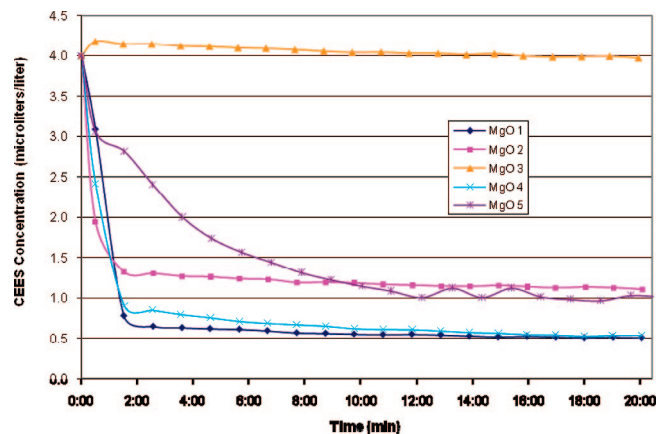


Figure 13. Flow testing results for MgO formulations against 2-CEES. The flow tests were carried out in duplicate with observed variation in $<3\%$ range.

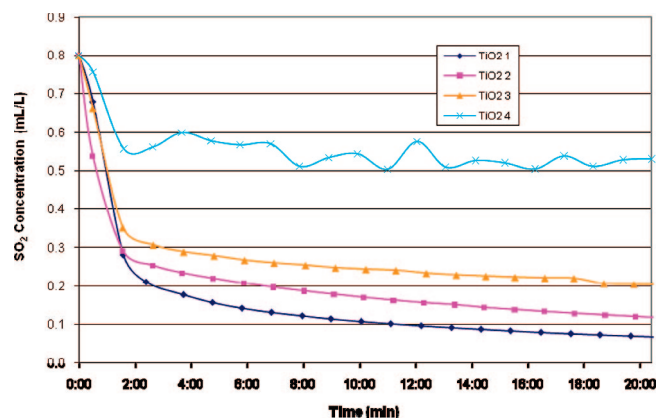


Figure 14. Flow testing results for TiO_2 formulations against SO_2 . The flow tests were carried out in duplicate with observed variation in $<3\%$ range.

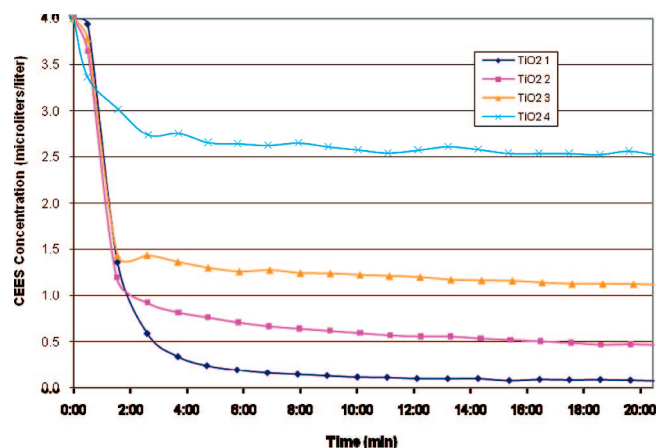


Figure 15. Flow testing results for TiO_2 formulations against 2-CEES. The flow tests were carried out in duplicate with observed variation in $<3\%$ range.

combination of high surface area and large pore volume and coupled with low levels of surface impurities provides the best adsorption performance for MgO against the agents used in this study.

4.2. TiO_2 . Four different titanium dioxide materials were tested in this study. The specific surface area of the materials ranged over an order of magnitude from 45 to about $450 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$. The pore volumes were all about $0.2 \text{ cm}^3/\text{g}$ except for

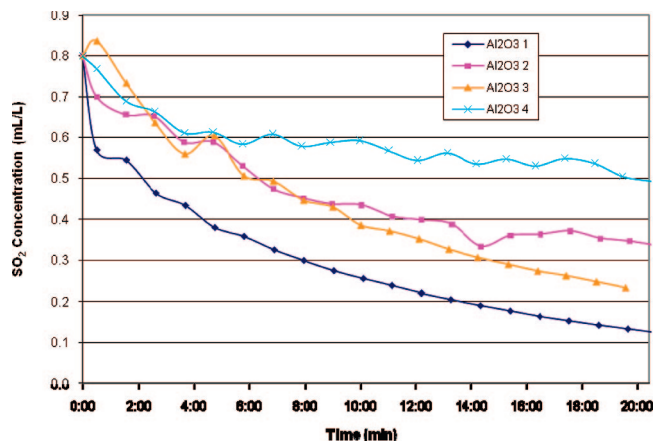


Figure 16. Flow testing results for Al_2O_3 formulations against SO_2 . The flow tests were carried out in duplicate with observed variation in <3% range.

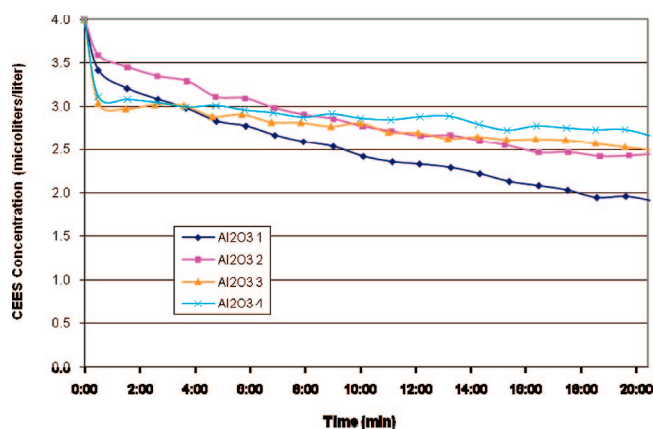


Figure 17. Flow testing results for Al_2O_3 formulations against 2-CEES. The flow tests were carried out in duplicate with observed variation in <3% range.

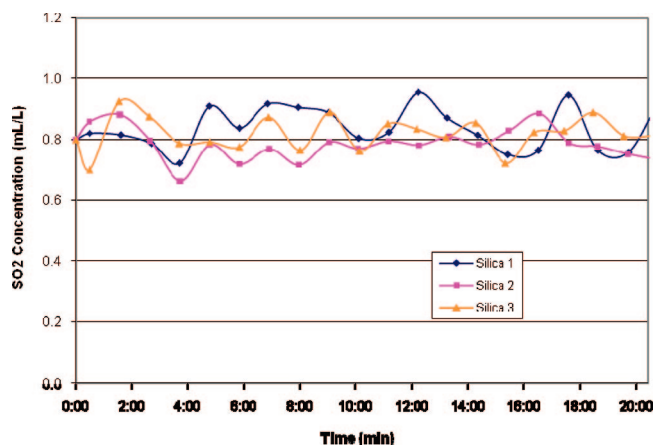


Figure 18. Flow testing results for silica formulations against SO_2 . The flow tests were carried out in duplicate with observed variation in <3% range.

$\text{TiO}_2\text{1}$ which had the highest surface area at about $450 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$ and twice the pore volume at $0.42 \text{ cm}^3/\text{g}$. $\text{TiO}_2\text{4}$, which had the lowest specific surface area at $45 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$ and a pore volume of $0.15 \text{ cm}^3/\text{g}$, performed poorly against both agents used. The rest of the titanium dioxide materials performed significantly better with $\text{TiO}_2\text{1}$ performing the best. The performance of these materials against the target agents correlated generally with the specific surface area. The

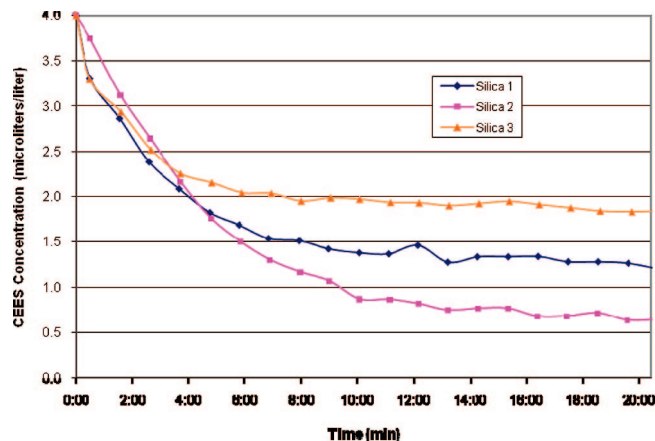


Figure 19. Flow testing results for silica formulations against 2-CEES. The flow tests were carried out in duplicate with observed variation in <3% range.

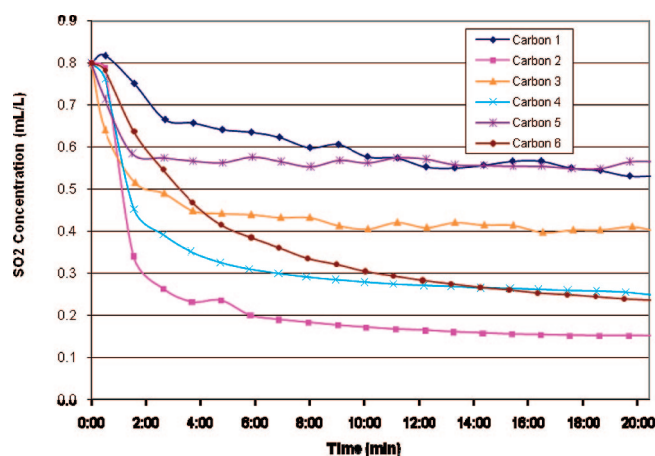


Figure 20. Flow testing results for carbon formulations against SO_2 . The flow tests were carried out in duplicate with observed variation in <3% range.

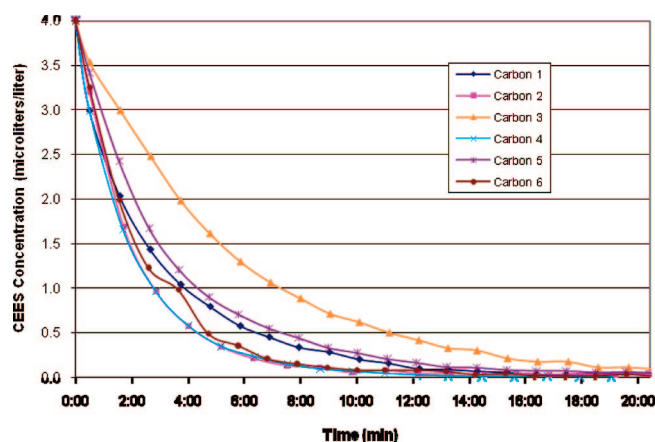


Figure 21. Flow testing results for carbon formulations against 2-CEES. The flow tests were carried out in duplicate with observed variation in <3% range.

combination of high surface area and large pore volume provided the best performance.

4.3. Al_2O_3 . Four alumina materials were evaluated. The specific surface areas of these materials ranged from $275 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$ to $560 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$ and pore volumes from 0.2 to $1.2 \text{ cm}^3/\text{g}$. The material with the highest specific surface area ($\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3\text{1}$) performed the best against the test agents. However, large

surface areas and pore volumes did not necessarily correlate to sorption performance. $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3\mathbf{2}$ and $\mathbf{3}$ performed equally well against both the polar and the nonpolar agents despite the differences in textural properties. $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3\mathbf{2}$ and $\mathbf{3}$ had specific surface areas and pore volumes of 275 and 453 m^2/g and 0.2 and 1.2 cm^3/g , respectively. $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3\mathbf{3}$ also had increased surface entities in the form of free hydroxyls.

4.4. SiO_2 and Carbon. Three commercially purchased silicas were tested. None of the samples tested adsorbed any SO_2 . Performance against 2-CEES was better and distinguished the three silica materials from each other, although there was no correlation to specific surface area or pore volume. Similar to silica, all of the carbons performed well against the nonpolar agent and poorly against the SO_2 . Performance did not correlate to the textural properties.

4.5. Conclusions. On the basis of the physical and chemical characteristics versus performance data acquired during the course of this research, there is no single characteristic that defines adsorptive performance against the agents used. Chemical properties of the substrate seem to play a primarily important role. The amount and type of minor surface moieties also seems to be significant in some cases. It appears that the textural properties are important to a point but play a secondary role to the chemistry. As long as the sorbent provides the proper pore structure and pore volume to meet minimum requirements, the chemical properties define the adsorptive capacity and kinetics of solid sorbents.

Naturally, this variation in textural parameters resulted from the different types and methods of processing final materials. Furthermore, the results of the N_2 adsorption-desorption isotherms shown in Figure 4a–e and Table 1 indicated that almost all MgO , TiO_2 , and Al_2O_3 samples have mesoporous structures, whereas all SiO_2 and Carbon samples have microporous structures. Moreover, the nature of the observed isotherms and appearance of hysteresis loops reflect the extent of pore uniformity and pore connectivity.¹ For example, sample $\text{MgO}\mathbf{4}$ possesses a type IV isotherm with a characteristic H1 hysteresis loop ($P/P_0 = 0.4\text{--}0.7$), clearly indicating its relatively cylindrical pore size uniformity and facile pore connectivity compared to other MgO samples. Similar behavior was observed with the sample $\text{TiO}_2\mathbf{1}$ at the relative pressure range ($P/P_0 = 0.4\text{--}0.7$) due to the capillary condensation and evaporation in the mesopores. On the other hand, sorbents $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3\mathbf{1}$, $\mathbf{3}$ and $\mathbf{4}$ and $\text{SiO}_2\mathbf{1}$ and $\mathbf{2}$ possess type IV isotherms with a H3 hysteresis loop, representing materials comprised of aggregates (loose assemblages) of

platelike particles forming slitlike pores. However, Carbon $\mathbf{1-6}$, $\text{MgO}\mathbf{3}$ and $\mathbf{5}$, $\text{TiO}_2\mathbf{2}$, $\mathbf{3}$, and $\mathbf{4}$, $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3\mathbf{2}$, and $\text{SiO}_2\mathbf{3}$ sorbents display type I isotherm monolayer adsorption without any hysteresis loops. Therefore, on the basis of the N_2 adsorption-desorption studies, all aforementioned sorbents possess a wide range of the BET surface areas, pore volumes, pore diameters, and pore shapes which could affect their sorption properties.

The SO_2 and 2-CEES data show that carbon sorbents worked well for relatively nonvolatile and nonpolar 2-CEES but poorly for volatile, polar SO_2 , while silica was poor for both. The MgO and TiO_2 were superior to Al_2O_3 for SO_2 and 2-CEES, where MgO was best for SO_2 and TiO_2 was best for 2-CEES. (An added important benefit is the fact that “destructive adsorption” occurs on the oxides,⁵ and therefore, more detoxification of the challenge agents occurs on the oxide surfaces than on carbon.)

The best TiO_2 samples were better than carbon and better than MgO or Al_2O_3 for SO_2 and for 2-CEES. These data indicate that high surface area TiO_2 was the most effective pure material as a sorbent under the conditions employed. The key to the behavior of the best TiO_2 sample ($\text{TiO}_2\mathbf{1}$) can be explained by the following observations: (1) high surface area; (2) high pore volume; (3) possession of isolated surface-OH groups that are consumed upon use; (4) mesoporous nature with good pore connectivity; and (5) polar surface (Lewis base and Lewis acid sites).

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