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Osaka University
Studies on deNOx Processes for Automotive Vehicles using Ammonia as a Reductant

2009
Makoto Saito

Division of Applied Chemistry
Graduate School of Engineering
Osaka University
Studies on deNOx Processes for Automotive Vehicles using Ammonia as a Reductant

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Preface

The work of this thesis has been carried out under the guidance of Professor Ken-ichi Machida at the Center for Advanced Science and Innovation, (Division of Applied Chemistry, Graduate School of Engineering, concurrently served), Osaka University, Japan, during 2006-2009.

The purpose of the work in this thesis is to develop the novel deNOx systems for automobile vehicles assisted by on-board synthesized ammonia from nitrogen and hydrogen or in situ produced ammonia related components from NOx with hydrogen as a reductant.

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March 2009
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Carbon dioxide (CO₂) is the dominant component of greenhouse effect gases as considered as a reason for ascension of global temperature bringing down climate changes and serious hazards [1]. The tolerant temperature rise against pre-industrial levels appears to be at most 2 °C. In order to achieve the 2 °C target, the concentration of such greenhouse gases should be suppressed below 400 ppm of CO₂ equivalent. For this suppression, the developed countries have to cut their emissions by as much as 80% by the middle of 21st century, and the Kyoto Protocol has been adapted for the first step [2].

Japanese goal of the commitment for the Kyoto Protocol is to suppress the greenhouse gas emission below 1.19 billions tons by 2012, but the domestic emission in 2006 has been still 1.34 billions tons. Although the emission from industry category have been already reduced 4.6% against the baseline of 1990’s value, the consumer and transportation categories have been discharging, 30% and 16.7% more greenhouse gases than the baseline, respectively [3].

Diesel vehicles have about 25% better well to wheel efficiency than gasoline ones because of their good thermal efficiency and low environmental load for the purification of diesel oils. Japanese government estimates that 1-3 millions tons of CO₂ emission can be decreased in 2015 by replacing gasoline passenger cars to diesel ones. Thus, spread of highly efficient diesel vehicles should be an approach for reducing CO₂ emission, in other words, building low-carbon economics.

Diesel engines achieve high fuel mileage by combusting at lean-burn conditions, however, the excess oxygen concentration in exhaust gases prevents the purification of NOx to N₂ using the conventional Pt-Rh based three-way catalysts. So that, the detoxification for diesel exhaust gases is performed by following three steps: the oxidation of excess hydrocarbons and carbon monoxide, trapping of particulate matters (PM) consisting of soot and soluble organic fractions, and the reduction of NOx. Selective catalytic reduction (SCR) of NOx using various reducing agents such as hydrocarbons, carbon monoxide, and ammonia (or urea as an
ammonia source) have been widely examined for diesel exhaust gases and some of them have been already practiced. For example, Nissan Diesel Motor Co., Ltd. has employed the urea-SCR system for the deNOx of heavy-duty commercial vehicles and Toyota Motor Corporation has launched the NSR (NOx Storage Reduction catalysts) system. For the former system ammonia is produced by the hydrolysis of urea and served to reduce NOx over zeolite-based catalysts via the NH$_3$-SCR reaction [4-6], and the latter one can remove NOx on the basis of the following two steps; the storage of NOx in the form of nitrate or nitrite on alkali earth components and then the reduction of stored NOx with a rich spike containing excess fuels as reductants [7-10]. Although these two methods have enabled to comply with the strict control of diesel emission, they have some respective demerits. The urea-SCR system needs regularly refill of urea water, but their infrastructure is not enough for the demand with passenger cars at the present time. The NSR system deteriorates the mileage since it uses some portion of fuel as a reductant for NOx.

In this study, the author has focused attention on hydrogen as a suitable candidate for NOx reduction of vehicles, particularly, passenger cars. Hydrogen is easily prepared by an on-board WGS (water gas shift) reformer from carbon monoxide in the exhaust gas. Hydrogen itself is not only a useful reductant but also a raw substance of ammonia which is suitable reduction agent for NOx. This thesis deals with the NOx reduction system involving ammonia synthesis and H$_2$-SCR reaction via the formation of ammonia (ammonium) intermediates.

In Chapter 1, novel ammonia syntheses at low reaction temperature were performed using hydrogen permeable membrane reactors. It is well known ammonia can effectively reduce NOx over vanadium oxide based catalyst [11] or zeolite catalyst [4] with low N$_2$O emission. Since ammonia itself is a poisonous gas, ammonia needs to be prepared on moving vehicles to perform the NH$_3$-SCR for NOx. Ammonia synthesis from nitrogen and hydrogen gases is generally carried out on the high reaction pressure ranging 150-300 atm [12], while the on-board ammonia synthesizer should be operated below 10 atm due to the domestic high pressure gas control law. Ruthenium-based catalysts have been reported as suitable candidate
for ammonia synthesis at low pressure below 10 atm [13,14]. These Ru catalysts have strong affinity to the adsorbed hydrogen which prevents ammonia formation under the high hydrogen partial pressure, so-called "hydrogen poisoning". The hydrogen permeable membrane can serve atomic hydrogen which has high reactivity toward nitrogen molecules adsorbed on ruthenium active sites to form ammonia, due to the suppression of hydrogen poisoning for Ru catalysts. In Chapters 2 and 3, the H₂-SCR of NOx over platinum loaded catalysts was studied. In particular, Chapter 2 focused trivalent cations doped tin pyrophosphates, novel proton conductors [15], as a candidate for supporting material. Platinum catalysts loaded on them have possessed excellent deNOx property under a condition of 5 vol.% of oxygen concentration [16]. The outlet gases from these catalysts were proved to contain some portion of ammonia by our additional tests. Further studies were carried out with focusing ammonium reaction intermediate species. In Chapter 3, the other supporting materials were explored from the viewpoint of their solid acidity, and sulfation treatments for metal oxides were performed to possess high solid acidity. The formation mechanism of acid sites and reaction intermediate species were studied using in situ diffusion reflection infrared Fourier transform spectra (DRIFTs). Various metal oxides (basic, neutral, and acidic ones) were sulfated to estimate the correlation between their acidity-basicity and accelerative effect for deNOx properties.
Chapter 1

Ammonia Synthesis under a Mild Condition
Using Hydrogen Permeable Membrane Reactors

1.1. Introduction

Traditional ammonia synthesis have been carried out using doubly promoted Fe₃O₄-Al₂O₃-K₂O catalysts at high reaction pressure and temperature ranging 150-300 atm and 400-600 °C, respectively [12] to dissociate stable triple bond of nitrogen molecule (bond dissociation energy at 298 K; ΔH₂₉₈ = 945 kJ·mol⁻¹ [17]). The milder reactions, especially in pressure, are favored to perform the on-board ammonia synthesis for the regulation about high pressure gases. In the last few decades, the Ru-based second generation ammonia synthesis catalysts have been examined to produce ammonia at the lower reaction pressure than 10 atm [13,14]. The catalytic activity for these ruthenium catalysts strongly depend on their supporting materials, in other words, the metal-support interaction is an important factor for ammonia synthesis characteristics. Hence many support materials and promoter have been studied for ruthenium catalysts [13,14,18], and the basic oxides or rare earth oxides, especially cerium oxide, have been found to be able to possess high catalytic properties for ammonia synthesis [14]. However, such Ru-based catalysts essentially have a strong hydrogen poisoning problem for ammonia synthesis because of considerably high affinity between ruthenium metal and adsorbed hydrogen [18b].

On the other hand, we have reported that the atomic hydrogen released from Ag-Pd hydrogen permeable membrane has high reactivity to suppress the hydrogen poisoning and accelerate the ammonia synthesis over the loaded ruthenium catalysts even under atmospheric pressure [19]. The activation energy of Ru/Al₂O₃ catalysts for ammonia synthesis were reduced from 66.8 kJ·mol⁻¹ on the conventional flow-type reactor to 33.1 kJ·mol⁻¹ on the Ru/Al₂O₃
catalyst on Ag-Pd membrane reactor,

In this chapter, two types of hydrogen permeable membrane reactors supplying hydrogen in gaseous form or from water electrolysis were examined. Both reactors can supply highly reactive atomic hydrogen through a Pd based alloy membrane. The former one provides the atomic hydrogen by differential partial pressure of hydrogen between two separated chambers and the latter one gives it by electrolysis of water. The ammonia production characteristics were studied by concerning about improvement of ruthenium catalysts, suppression of hydrogen poisoning, and in situ hydrogen production.

1.2. Experimental details

1.2.1. Gaseous hydrogen-type membrane reactor

Preparation and catalytic reactions of ruthenium loaded catalysts

The ruthenium catalysts loaded on MgO or MgO-CeO$_2$ nanocomposite supporting materials were prepared in the following procedure. Firstly, the corresponding metal hydroxide gels were obtained from 0.1 M of their acetate salt aqueous solutions by precipitation method with 3 M ammonia solution. The resultant gels were gathered by a centrifugation and washed with distilled water until no ammonia was detected, and then finally washed with tetrahydrofuran for additional three times. Five percent of ruthenium was loaded by an impregnation method using a transparent orange-colored Ru$_3$(CO)$_{12}$ THF solution and moist gels for 12 h in the dark with stirring. The orange solution turned to colorless one after 12 h during the impregnation, which suggests whole of the ruthenium component was completely adsorbed onto hydrogels. Excess solvents were removed with a rotary evaporator, and then the resultant powders were heated at 450 °C for 2 h under a vacuum condition to obtained Ru loaded catalysts. Other Ru catalysts varying the ruthenium source or impregnating method were prepared as comparative examples.

Ammonia synthesis reactions were performed on 0.2 g of each catalyst using a
conventional fixed-bed reactor (inner diameter is about 7 mm) in a temperature range from 300 to 400 °C. A stream of reaction gas (N₂:H₂ = 1:3, both purity are > 99.999%) was fed with a flow rate of 60 mL·min⁻¹ and the outlet gas was introduced into a dilute sulfuric acid to absorb the formed ammonia. The formation rate was calculated with the change of the pH value of the absorber using the following equation:

\[
\frac{r}{t \cdot m} = \frac{(10^{\text{pH}_{\text{in}}}-10^{\text{pH}_{\text{out}}})V}{t \cdot m} \quad \text{(Eq. 1-1)}
\]

where, \( r \) is the formation rate, \( t \) is the reaction time, \( V \) represents the volume of sulfuric acid, and \( m \) is the weight of catalyst.

Fabrication and catalytic test of the membrane reactor

Catalyst precursor powders, a ruthenium impregnated MgO-CeO₂ composite gel, Ru(CO)₉/[Mg(OH)ₓ-Ce(OH)₃] (\( x = 3-4 \)) was dispersed in ethanol and spread on a Ag-Pd alloy membrane (Pd: 75 at.%, reaction area: 9 cm²) and dried overnight (specific catalyst loading amount was about 3 mg·cm⁻²). It was subsequently heated at 450 °C in a hydrogen stream to obtain the ruthenium catalyst loaded membrane and fabricate the membrane reactor illustrated in Fig. 1-1.

Ammonia synthesis reactions were performed by flowing nitrogen gas to the catalyst-loaded side of membrane and various composition of nitrogen-hydrogen mixture to the opposite (metal-exposed side) in a flow rate of 40 mL·min⁻¹ to control a hydrogen permeation rate. The permeation rate for hydrogen was determined using a gas chromatograph (GC-8A, Shimadzu) equipped with a molecular sieve 5A filled column. The optimum composition of nitrogen-hydrogen mixed gas was fed to the both sides to evaluate the catalytic performance for ammonia synthesis as a conventional flow-type reactor. Ammonia formation rate was determined using the absorbing method described above.
Characterization of catalysts

The hydrogen chemisorption measurements were performed by using a thermal conductivity detector (TCD) attached to the gas chromatograph according to the conventional pulse technique [20]. To reduce Ru metal particles and eliminate adsorbed species completely, all samples were pretreated in hydrogen flow at 450 °C for 2 h, and then degassed in an Ar flow at 450 °C for 2 h before starting the above pulse experiments. The metal dispersion and size of ruthenium metal particles were calculated from results of hydrogen chemisorption experiments as dissociated molecular hydrogen adsorbing on spherical metal particle (\( H_{\text{ads}}/\text{Ru} = 1 \) ) [21]. The hydrogen consumption profiles were also observed by temperature-programmed reduction (TPR) experiments to estimate the reduction behavior of catalysts using a TCD. The \( H_2 \)-TPR measurements were carried out with a heating rate of 5
C-min\(^{-1}\) under a hydrogen stream on the catalysts pre-oxidized at 550 °C for 2 h in air. The specific surface area values were measured using Brunauer-Emmett-Teller's (BET) method (Flow Sorb 2300II, Micrometrics). The microstructures of the catalysts were observed using a transmission electron microscope (JEM-2010F, JEOL) equipped with energy dispersive X-ray (EDX) unit (resolution \(\approx\) 1.1 nm). The valence state for cerium was analyzed by using an X-ray photoelectron spectrometer (XPS) (AXIS-165, Shimadzu).

1.2.2. Water electrolysis-type reactor

Fabrication and catalytic reaction of a membrane reactor

Preparation of ruthenium metal catalyst on the outer side of hydrogen permeable membrane tubes were prepared by an electrodeposition method using one-sided shielding Ag-Pd alloy tubes as a cathode, a platinum wire as an anode, and a 0.1 M RuCl\(_3\)-ZnCl\(_2\) aqueous solution as an electrolyte. The deposited zinc components were removed with a dilute hydrochloric acid, then the resultant Ru-electrodeposited tubes were washed with aqueous ammonia and distilled water to remove chlorine residues. The resultant Ru/Ag-Pd tube (reaction area: ca. 7 cm\(^2\), outer diameter: 5 mm, thickness: 100 μm) was dipped in a dilute aluminum sec-butoxide solution and dried for 12 h in the air to coat with a thin porous alumina layer.

The schematic illustration of water electrolysis-type hydrogen permeable membrane reactors using above mentioned Ru/Ag-Pd tube is shown in Fig. 1-2. 6 M of dense sodium hydroxide aqueous solution as an electrolyte and a platinum as a counter electrode were put in inner side of the Ru/Ag-Pd reaction tube as a working electrode and 20 mA of constant electric current was charged to produce hydrogen. Ammonia synthesis was carried out by flowing 50 mL·min\(^{-1}\) to the outer side of the reaction tube at 100 °C. The ammonia formation rate was determined by the same method described above.
1.3. Results and discussion

1.3.1. Ruthenium-loaded catalysts

Figure 1-3 shows ammonia formation rate values over ruthenium catalysts loaded on magnesia support with different precursors at 300-400 °C. Ammonia was hardly synthesized over the Ru/MgO catalyst prepared from ruthenium chloride due to poisoning of residual chlorine [14]. Other two ruthenium catalysts derived from ruthenium carbonyl complex as ruthenium source produced ammonia at atmospheric pressure, and especially the moist-gel impregnated catalyst generated about twice amount of ammonia compared with the catalyst prepared from the calcined MgO support. The specific BET surface area of the catalyst prepared from moist-gels was 190 m²·g⁻¹.
and that prepared from the calcined powder was 116 m²g⁻¹. This difference should be responsible for the enhancement of catalytic performance for ammonia synthesis. A nitrogen adsorption isotherm of Ru/MgO catalyst prepared from moist-gel impregnating was classified as type IV of IUPAC category, suggesting the existence of mesopore. The pore radius calculated by Dollimore-Heal equation [22] using adsorption isotherm ranges from 1.9 nm (Fig. 1-4) and the total mesopore volume was 0.65 mLg⁻¹. This mesopore is responsible for the high surface area. The formation of such mesoporous structure owes to the simultaneous decarbonylation of ruthenium carbonyl complex during the dehydration of magnesium hydroxide. Nucleophilic attack of hydroxyl group of magnesium hydroxide gel toward carbonyl group of ruthenium carbonyl has been reported by D'Orenelas et al [23]. It suggests that both hydroxide gels and carbonyl complex forms the well dispersed network structure illustrated in Fig. 1-5. Mass analysis for the discharged gas was carried out during heating treatment of catalyst precursor.

![Figure 1-4. A pore radius distribution calculated by D-H method on the desorption isotherm of Ru/MgO catalyst prepared by moist-gel impregnation method.](image)

![Figure 1-5. Plausible mechanism for the formation of microstructure of Ru/MgO catalyst.](image)

Temperature programmed reaction profiles recorded for m/z = 2 (H₂), 18 (H₂O), 28 (CO), and 44 (CO₂) are shown in Fig. 1-6. Various gases including H₂O and CO were generated by the dehydration reaction of magnesium hydroxide and the decomposition of ruthenium carbonyl complex, respectively, and a part of CO and H₂O produced H₂ and CO₂ via a water-gas shift.
reaction (CO + H₂O → CO₂ + H₂) catalyzed by ruthenium metal over 150 °C. These gases prevent MgO particles from crystal growth during the calcination, and as a result the mesoporous structure with high surface area was formed.

Ammonia formation rate over ruthenium catalysts on various compositions of MgO-CeO₂ composite (Mg:Ce = 100:0, 75:25, 50:50, 25:75, and 0:100) are shown in Fig. 1-7 and Table 1-1. The reaction rate and turn over frequency (TOF) value increased by hybridizing MgO and CeO₂ support materials and the optimum ratio was found to be 50:50. The reaction rate of the optimum composition of Ru/(MgO-CeO₂) catalyst reached to a thermodynamic equilibrium state, namely, the ammonia formation rate above 375 °C was theoretically suppressed.

Table 1-1. BET surface area, ruthenium particle size, and turn-over frequencies of Ru/(MgO-CeO₂) catalysts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MgO:CeO₂ (molar ratio)</th>
<th>BET surface area [m²·g⁻¹]</th>
<th>TOF at 325 °C [s⁻¹]</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0:100 (CeO₂)</td>
<td>121.8</td>
<td>3.4 × 10⁻³</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25:75</td>
<td>157.6</td>
<td>6.3 × 10⁻³</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50:50</td>
<td>144.8</td>
<td>8.0 × 10⁻³</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>75:25</td>
<td>142.3</td>
<td>4.9 × 10⁻³</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100:0 (MgO)</td>
<td>200.3</td>
<td>1.8 × 10⁻³</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
XRD patterns of various compositions of Ru/(MgO-CeO$_2$) catalysts are shown in Fig. 1-8. The peak intensity attributed to MgO in the XRD patterns weakened with increase of CeO$_2$ content and finally such peaks were disappeared at the CeO$_2$ content more than 50 mol%. Both of them are known to form no solid solutions [24] and the MgO peaks appeared after heating in air at 600 °C. These results suggest that the MgO component is in amorphous or fine particle state which suppresses crystal growth of CeO$_2$ during heat treatment.

The H$_2$-TPR profiles shown in Fig. 1-9 represent the reduction behavior of the surface ceria component. The reduction temperatures of respective CeO$_2$ and Ru/CeO$_2$ samples were 520 and 400 °C. While, the reduction on Ru/(MgO-CeO$_2$) apparently took place at low temperature (280 °C). Precious metals such as Pt and Rh have reported to enhance the reduction property of ceria component by so called SMSI (strong metal-support interaction) effect [25]. As shown in the TEM micrograph (Fig. 1-10), ruthenium metal particles were well dispersed and closely interacted with the support material, resulting in acceleration of the ceria reduction. Partially reduced ceria, CeO$_{2.5}$, is known to be an

---

**Figure 1-8.** XRD profiles of Ru/(MgO-CeO$_2$) (CeO$_2$: 0, 25, 50, 75, and 100 mol%) catalysts as prepared. Dashed line indicates an oxidized Ru/(MgO-CeO$_2$) catalyst (CeO$_2$: 50 mol%) at 600 °C in air.

**Figure 1-9.** Hydrogen TPR profiles of (a) sole CeO$_2$ [25], Ru/CeO$_2$, and (c) Ru/(MgO-CeO$_2$) (CeO$_2$: 50 mol%).

**Figure 1-10.** A TEM image of Ru/(MgO-CeO$_2$) catalyst, magnification was $1.5 \times 10^6$. 
n-type semiconductor [26] and mobile electrons in CeO$_2$ can be donated to Ru metal particles, leading to promotion the cleavage of N≡N triple bond as following scheme [27]:

$$\text{Ce}^{3+} + \text{Ru} \rightarrow \text{Ce}^{4+} + \text{Ru}(e') \quad \text{(Eq. 1-2)}.$$  

Compositing of magnesia and ceria in nanometer scale increased its surface area and electrodonation ability of the partially reduced ceria. The ammonia synthesis was accelerated by the above two effects.

1.3.2. Gaseous hydrogen-type membrane reactor

Figure 1-11 shows the dependence of the ammonia formation rate with the gaseous hydrogen type hydrogen permeation rate on the membrane reactor at atmospheric pressure in the temperature range of 300-400 °C. The results on the conventional flow-type reactor (using molecular hydrogen) are also shown by dashed lines as references. The ammonia formation rate on the membrane reactor increased with the hydrogen permeation rate below the optimum value at each temperature. The optimal values were 10 mL-min$^{-1}$ at 300 and 350 °C and 20 mL-min$^{-1}$ at 400 °C. On the other hand, the ammonia formation rate decreased by supplying the excess amount of hydrogen. The excess hydrogen negatively affect to the ammonia formation (so-called hydrogen poisoning) [19], once partial pressure for hydrogen becomes greater than their threshold value. The ammonia formation rate on the membrane reactor at 400 °C was 1.6 mmol-g$^{-1}$h$^{-1}$, which was higher than the result on the flow-type reactor (1.3 mmol-g$^{-1}$h$^{-1}$). The reaction order for partial pressure of hydrogen ($P_{H_2}$) on the membrane reactor was 0.71, which was higher than that of the conventional flow-type one (0.59). These
results are responsible for the highly reactive atomic hydrogen supplied through the Ag-Pd membrane, which spilled over to the ruthenium metal particle to react with the dissociated nitrogen atoms.

The ammonia formation was accelerated considerably when increasing the reaction pressure to 0.6 MPa. Figure 1-11 shows variation of the ammonia formation rate obtained with various amounts of hydrogen fed to the membrane reactor at 400 °C. The maximum ammonia formation rate (ca. 7.5 mmol·g⁻¹·h⁻¹) was observed with a hydrogen permeation rate of 12.5 mL·min⁻¹, which was about twice higher than that of the flow-type reactor (ca. 4.5 mmol·g⁻¹·h⁻¹) under the same N₂-H₂ composition. A stronger acceleration for ammonia synthesis was attained by supplying atomic hydrogen compared to hydrogen that supplied by a conventional way under high reaction gas pressure. This result supports that effective ammonia production is realized on the present membrane reactor. For a conventional flow-type reactor, hydrogen and nitrogen gases tend to adsorb and dissociate simultaneously at the active site of the catalyst. Consequently, these reactions proceed competitively, and the catalysts are poisoned by hydrogen having high affinity. On the other hand, atomic hydrogen was supplied through the Ag-Pd membrane and reacted with dissociated atomic nitrogen on the ruthenium catalyst attached to such a hydrogen-permeable membrane. Consequently, the Ru metal dissociates nitrogen molecules and the resultant atomic nitrogen reacts quickly with the supplied hydrogen atoms to form ammonia. Therefore, hydrogen poisoning can be avoided in the membrane reactor by changing the hydrogen supply manner.

1.3.3. Water electrolysis-type reactor

Figure 1-12 shows the total ammonia

![Figure 1-12. Total ammonia production amount with reaction time over the ruthenium metal catalysts coated with alumina layer (filled circle) and uncoated (filled square) on the electrolysis type membrane reactor.](image)
formation amount over the ruthenium catalyst on the water-electrolysis type membrane reactor at 100 °C. Both catalysts could produce ammonia even at the considerably low reaction temperature of 100 °C. Only a few studies have succeeded ammonia synthesis at this temperature. The hydrogen conversion to ammonia on this reactor was about 0.1 %. The barium oxide doped ruthenium catalyst on activate carbon (BaO-Ru/A.C.) have been reported to attain the best catalytic performance for ammonia synthesis [18i] and its conversion is about 0.01% at 315 °C. Compared with such catalysts, these electrodeposited metal catalysts directly contact with hydrogen permeable membrane, so that the atomic hydrogen supplied from the membrane can easily spill over to ruthenium active site to produce ammonia. On the uncoated catalyst, however, ammonia formation ceased irreversibly within about 1-2 hours, while alumina coated catalyst linearly synthesized ammonia for at least 8 hours.

The SEM observation (see Fig. 1-13) revealed that the surface morphology of uncoated catalyst drastically changed through the ammonia synthesis. The porous structure observed before the reaction was disappeared after the reaction and they aggregated to large particles because of exothermic reaction for ammonia formation. On the contrary, the alumina coated catalyst kept the microporous structure and no deactivation in catalytic performance was observed. The coated alumina layers should suppress the aggregation of ruthenium metal particles.

It is well known that catalytic activity of ruthenium based catalysts is considerably enhanced by addition of promoters having

![Figure 1-13. Surface morphology change of ruthenium catalysts on Ag-Pd tube before (left) and after (right) ammonia synthesis reaction with (a) alumina coating and (b) no alumina coating.](image-url)
electron donation ability such as alkali earth [13]. The ruthenium catalyst of this reactor closely attached to the Ag-Pd tube as an anode, thus a negative charge may promote the catalytic property like an electrochemical promotion [28].

1.4. Conclusion

Ammonia formation activity of ruthenium catalysts was enhanced by supplying the atomic hydrogen from Ag-Pd hydrogen permeable membrane reactor because of the suppression of hydrogen poisoning of ruthenium catalyst and high reactivity of atomic hydrogen. The gaseous type membrane reactor achieved about 1.5-2 times of ammonia formation activity as much as the conventional flow type reaction at high-pressure condition (0.6 MPa) due to the above mentioned effect. The water electrolysis type membrane reactor produced ammonia even at low temperature about 100 °C. The electrodeposited ruthenium metal catalysts on the membrane should be activated by electron donation from the Ag-Pd anode, and their deactivation caused by sintering with ammonia formation heat was effectively suppressed by coating with a thin alumina layer.
Chapter 2

Hydrogen SCR Reaction over Platinum Catalysts
Loaded on Trivalent Cations Doped-Tin Pyrophosphates

2.1. Introduction

The selective catalytic reduction of nitrogen oxides (NOx: NO and NO₂) using hydrogen as a reductant (H₂-SCR) is a potent candidate for removing method of NOx from diesel exhaust gases containing excess oxygen (ca. 10 vol.%). The SCR reaction with hydrogen progresses even at lower operation temperature of about 70 °C, while other reducing agents such as hydrocarbons [29,30], carbon monoxide [31], and ammonia (or urea as an ammonia source) [32-34] reduce NOx at above 150 °C, and the direct decomposition of NOx (2NO → N₂ + O₂; 2NO₂ → N₂ + 2O₂) requires at least 500 °C [35,36]. The low operation temperature of H₂-SCR is preferred to the deNOx for passenger diesel vehicles, because of low temperature of exhaust gas (< 150 °C) in the city driving mode. Furthermore, hydrogen is a harmless and clean reductant compared with above mentioned reducing agents. Although the H₂-SCR can remove NOx in high conversion, much nitrous oxide (N₂O), which is one of the greenhouse effect gases having about 300 times baleful influence as much as carbon dioxide, tends to be formed as a byproduct.

Recently some studies on H₂-SCR reactions have found that ammonium intermediate species are formed over some platinum loaded catalysts and deNOx reaction progresses via NH₃-SCR scheme using them [37,38]. In addition, an excellent deNOx performance at 5 vol.% of oxygen concentration has been reported over the platinum catalyst loaded on a novel proton conductor, trivalent cation doped tin pyrophosphates (Sn,M)P₂O₇ (M = In, Al, etc.) [16]. They have proposed that H₂ molecular dissociated to protons and electrons, forming a local anodic site, and NOx reacted with protons and electrons at a local cathodic site to form N₂ and
H$_2$O. As a result, an electrochemical local cell was formed at platinum islands on proton conductive powders (Fig. 2-1). Our retesting have confirmed, however, that above good catalytic performance for deNOx sharply disappeared by increasing oxygen concentration up to 10 vol.\% as seen in real diesel exhaust gases, and the adsorption of ammonium species were observed by an in situ DRIFT (Diffuse Reflectance Infrared Fourier Transform) spectroscopy. This adsorbed ammonium species seems to incorporate deNOx reaction.

In this chapter, the reaction intermediate species and their origin were studied over Pt/(Sn,M)P$_2$O$_5$ (M = In, Fe, Sc) catalysts using an in situ DRIFT spectroscopy measurement in order to probe the reaction mechanism on them. NH$_3$-TPD (temperature programming desorption) studies were also conducted to discuss the factors for deNOx catalytic activity from the viewpoint of their solid acidity.

2.2. Experimental details

Preparation and catalytic reaction of platinum catalysts

Tin pyrophosphate powders substituted by trivalent ions, (Sn$_{0.5}$M$_{0.5}$)P$_2$O$_5$ (M = Fe, In, or Sc), were prepared by a conventional solid state reaction. Reagent grade (NH$_4$)$_2$HPO$_4$, SnO$_2$
and 10 mol% of $M_2O_3$ ($M = $ Fe, In, or Sc) were well ground and calcined twice in an alumina crucible at 327 °C and 650 °C for 2.5 h in air. Then, 1 wt% of platinum was loaded to them by an incipient wetness impregnation method using a $Pt(NO_2)_2(NH_3)_2$ solution, followed by drying at 120 °C overnight and heating at 600 °C for 2 h in air. A platinum catalyst supported on an undoped tin pyrophosphate powder ($Pt/SnP_2O_5$) was also prepared in the same procedure as a comparison.

Catalytic test reactions were performed on 0.1 g of each $Pt/Sn_{0.9}M_{0.1}P_2O_5$ ($M = $ Fe, In, or Sc) catalysts using a conventional fixed-bed quartz tube reactor (inner diameter; ca. 7 mm) at the temperature range from 70 to 250 °C. A stream of reaction gas (0.1 vol.% NO, 0.4 vol.% $H_2$, 10 vol.% $O_2$ and balance of $N_2$) was fed with a flow rate of 50 mL·min⁻¹. The composition for the outlet gas was analyzed using an online FT-IR spectrometer (Perkin-Elmer SPECTRUM 2000 with an MCT detector) with two KBr windows equipped gas cell (optical length; 10 cm). Concentrations of NO, $N_2$O, and NO₂ were determined using peak areas of their absorbance peaking at 1911, 2212, and 1586 cm⁻¹, respectively. The $N_2$ yield based on NOx reduction was determined by subtracting concentration of NO, $N_2$O, NO₂, and $NH_3$ in outlet gas from the inlet NO concentration. The NOx (NO and NO₂) conversion and $N_2$ + $NH_3$ selectivity were determined as follows:

\[
\text{NOx conversion (\%)} = \frac{([NO]_{\text{inlet}} - [NO]_{\text{outlet}})}{[NO]_{\text{inlet}}} \times 100 \quad (\text{Eq. 2-1})
\]

\[
\text{$N_2$ + $NH_3$ selectivity (\%)} = \frac{(2 \times [N_2]_{\text{yield}} + [NH_3]_{\text{yield}})}{(2 \times [N_2]_{\text{yield}} + [NH_3]_{\text{yield}} + 2 \times [N_2O]_{\text{outlet}})} \times 100 \quad (\text{Eq. 2-2}).
\]

\textit{In situ DRIFT spectroscopy}

The \textit{in situ} DRIFT spectra were recorded using a FT-IR apparatus with a diffusion reflection cell equipped a ZnSe window. The spectra were collected by accumulating 50 scans at a resolution of 4 cm⁻¹ in the range from 4000 to 800 cm⁻¹. Reference spectra in $N_2$ flow for each catalyst were recorded at corresponding temperatures and then subtracted from each.
spectrum under the reaction gas flow.

Characterization of Catalysts

Amounts of Pt loading and their particle size were checked by an ICP-AES analyzer (SPS4000, SII) and transmission electron microscope (JEM-2010F, JEOL), respectively. The X-ray diffraction measurements for the catalysts were carried out by using an X-ray diffractometer (RINT-2200, Rigaku) with Cu-Kα radiation. Ammonia temperature programmed desorption (NH₃-TPD) profiles over each catalysts (0.2 g) were recorded using a quadrupole mass-spectrometer (Prisma Plus QMG220M, Pfeiffer Vacuum). Each catalyst was charged in a quartz tube and pretreated in an oxygen stream (50 mL·min⁻¹) at 500 °C for 1 h and cooled to 100 °C in nitrogen atmosphere. Then ammonia adsorption was carried out by exposing 0.1 MPa of ammonia for 1 h. The TPD experiments were performed in a He stream (30 mL·min⁻¹) from 100 to 700 °C with heating ramp of 10 °C·min⁻¹.

2.3. Results and discussion

Characterization of catalysts

TEM micrograph of platinum catalyst powder (Pt/Sn₀.₅Fe₀.₁P₂O₇) is shown in Fig. 2-2. The Pt particle with about 1-5 nm diameter were well dispersed on the support grain about 20-50 nm in diameter. All the other trivalent cation doped samples showed same morphology.

XRD analyses revealed every samples crystallized in cubic SnP₂O₇ phase (PDF #29-1352) and their cell parameters have a good

![Figure 2-2. A TEM image of Pt/(Sn₀.₅Fe₀.₁)P₂O₇ catalyst.](image)

![Figure 2-3. Relationship for between ionic radius [39] and cell parameter values for (Sn₀.₅M₀.₁)P₂O₇ (M = In, Fe, or Sc).](image)
correlation with the ionic radii of doped cations (Fig. 2-3), suggesting the formation of solid solutions. The composition of tin phosphates agreed with the desired ratio (M:(Sn+M) = 1:10, (Sn+M):P = 1:1.98 ± 0.02) and no contamination such as Al was detected. The platinum loading was determined 1.01 ± 0.01 wt.%.

*Catalytic Activity for H₂-SCR*

The NOx conversion, N₂ selectivity and NO₂ ratio in the residual NOx over a series of catalysts are shown in Fig. 2-4. The undoped Pt/SnP₂O₇ catalyst exhibited high NOx reducing property reaching about 80 % at low temperature below 100 °C, however, their N₂ selectivity did not exceed 40 % and much N₂O as a by-product was generated. On the other hands, each trivalent cation doped sample Pt/(Sn₀.₉M₀.₁)P₂O₇ (M = In, Fe, or Sc) showed high NOx conversion at the higher reaction temperature above 100 °C with high N₂ + NH₃ selectivity. Especially, Fe³⁺ or Sc³⁺ doped ones achieved about 90% of NOx conversion. The order for catalytic performance at 140 °C (Sc-doped > Fe-doped > In-doped > undoped) was summarized in Table 2-1 with their specific BET surface area values. There was no relationship between the catalytic performance and surface area. The residual NOx mainly consisted with NO at the optimum temperature range for the case of the trivalent cation doped catalysts, while almost constant NO ratio about 30-40 % was observed on the undoped catalyst (Pt/SnP₂O₇). These differences such as suitable reaction temperature and residual NOx compositions suggest that the deNOx mechanism on the platinum supported tin pyrophosphate catalysts changes by substituting trivalent cations for Sn⁴⁺ site.
Figure 2-4. Temperature dependences of NOx conversion (filled square), N₂ + NH₃ selectivity (filled circle), and NO₂ ratio in the residual NOx (open square) on a series of Pt/(SnₓMₙₓ)P₂O₇ catalysts (M = In, Fe, or Sc). Weight of catalysts; 0.1g, gas flow rate; 50 mL·min⁻¹, gas composition; 0.1 vol.% NO, 0.4 vol.% H₂, 10 vol.% O₂, and balance of N₂.

Table 2-1. NOx removal rate and conversion to N₂(+ NH₃) on a series of (Sn,M)P₂O₇ catalysts at 140 °C and their specific BET surface area

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Doped cation</th>
<th>deNOx rate (conv. to N₂+ NH₃) / %</th>
<th>Specific BET surface area/ m²·g⁻¹</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>undoped</td>
<td>30.3 (24.5)</td>
<td>4.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In</td>
<td>67.2 (47.8)</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fe</td>
<td>90.2 (56.4)</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sc</td>
<td>94.4 (76.4)</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Reaction mechanism for deNO\textsubscript{x} reaction

Figure 2-5 shows the \textit{in situ} DRIFT spectra for a series of Pt catalysts at 140 °C. Three broad bands (2900, 3100, and 3250 cm\textsuperscript{-1}), two sharp bands (1358, 1440 cm\textsuperscript{-1}), and a weak band (1620 cm\textsuperscript{-1}) were observed. The broad bands at around 2900-3250 cm\textsuperscript{-1} are attributed to symmetric and asymmetric N-H stretch vibration of ammonium species on the Brønsted acid sites. The two bands at 1440, and 1620 cm\textsuperscript{-1} are assigned to adsorbed ammonium species on Brønsted acid sites, and Lewis acid sites, respectively [38]. The peak heights over a series of catalysts are summarized in Table 2-2, together with the NOx conversion values. The order for amount of the adsorbed ammonium species well agrees with that for the catalytic performance at 140 °C. It implies that the adsorbed ammonium species are responsible for the good deNO\textsubscript{x} activity, especially for the high N\textsubscript{2} selectivity.

![Graph showing DRIFT spectra for Pt catalysts with different dopants](image)

\textbf{Figure 2-5.} \textit{In situ} DRIFT spectra of adsorbed species on Pt/(Sn,M)\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{3} catalysts doped with M = Sc (a), Fe (b), In (c), and undoped (d) in the reaction gas flow at 140 °C, pretreatment was done in oxygen atmosphere at 400 °C for 1h.
Table 2-2. NOx removal rate and conversion to N₂(+ NH₃) on a series of (Sn,M)P₂O₇ catalysts, peak height of absorbance for adsorbed ammonium species, and ammonia adsorb amount over a series of catalysts at 140 °C

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Doped cation</th>
<th>deNOx rate (conv. to N₂+ NH₃) / %</th>
<th>Peak height 1440 cm⁻¹</th>
<th>Peak height 3220 cm⁻¹</th>
<th>Adsorbed ammonia / µmol·g⁻¹</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>undoped</td>
<td>30.3 (24.5)</td>
<td>0.027</td>
<td>0.020</td>
<td>8.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In</td>
<td>67.2 (47.8)</td>
<td>0.046</td>
<td>0.035</td>
<td>10.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fe</td>
<td>90.2 (56.4)</td>
<td>0.087</td>
<td>0.058</td>
<td>14.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sc</td>
<td>94.4 (76.4)</td>
<td>0.370</td>
<td>0.210</td>
<td>19.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Their ammonia formation abilities were characterized by varying concentration of the coexisting oxygen (see Fig. 2-6). The highest ammonia formation property was obtained on the Fe-doped sample. It generated gaseous ammonia even at 10 vol.% of oxygen coexistence. Oxygen coexistence limit for the ammonia formation was 7 vol.% for In-doped catalyst and 3 vol.% for Sc-doped one. Evolution of ammonia gas on the undoped sample was detected only in the oxygen absence condition. It was found that the substituted catalysts have high ammonia formation ability compared with the usual catalysts such as Pt/ZrO₂ which can generate gaseous ammonia in oxygen coexistence less than 5 vol.% [40]. Although the order for the ammonia formation ability (Fe-doped > In-doped > Sc-doped > undoped) does not agree with the deNOx property, the order for the ammonia product amount in the absence of oxygen is inverse order of the catalytic activity. These results may indicate that the Sc-doped sample immediately adsorb the in situ produced ammonia to serve as a reductant for deNOx reaction, resulting in apparent decrease of ammonia evolution.
In fact, NH$_3$-TPD measurements support that Sc-doped sample has the most and strongest Bronsted acid sites. Figure 2-7 shows the gas flow rate dependences for NOx conversion and reductive product selectivity on Fe-doped catalyst (Pt/Sn$_{0.9}$Fe$_{0.1}$P$_2$O$_5$) at 140 °C. The NOx conversion decreased at higher gas flow rate because of short contact time between the catalyst and reaction gas, while selectivity for ammonia increased and nitrous oxide (N$_2$O) selectivity kept being a constant value. These result suggest that the H$_2$-SCR proceed in two reaction steps: reduction with hydrogen gives nitrogen, ammonia, and some byproduct of nitrous oxide (NOx + H$_2$ → N$_2$ + NH$_3$ + N$_2$O + H$_2$O), and further NOx reduction using in situ evolved is occurred to form nitrogen (NOx + NH$_3$ → N$_2$ + H$_2$O). Tronconi et al. have proposed the reaction mechanism of NH$_3$-SCR in the oxygen coexistence as shown in Fig. 2-8 [41]. According to this mechanism, nitrogen monoxide is once oxidized to NO$_2$, and then resultant NO$_2$ is reduced ammonia. Trace amount of NO existence in the unreduced NOx observed on the substituted catalysts bears out that ammonia intermediate species are once generated by reacting NOx with hydrogen and then the resultant ammonia reduces NO$_2$.

\[
\begin{align*}
2\text{NO} + \text{O}_2 &\rightarrow 2\text{NO}_2 \\
\text{N}_2\text{O}_4 + \text{H}_2\text{O} &\rightarrow \text{HNO}_3 \\
\text{HONO} &\rightarrow \text{NO} + \text{NO}_2 \\
\text{NH}_4\text{NO}_2 &\rightarrow \text{N}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O}
\end{align*}
\]

**Figure 2-7.** Reaction gas flow rate dependences of NOx conversion (open quarry) and selectivity for reductive products, N$_2$ (filled square), N$_2$O (filled circle), and NH$_3$ (filled triangle), on Pt/(Sn$_{0.9}$Fe$_{0.1}$)P$_2$O$_5$ catalyst at 140 °C.

**Figure 2-8.** The reaction mechanism for NH$_3$-SCR of NOx in the presence of oxygen (ref. [41]).
The Brønsted acid sites seem to generate by hydration of oxygen vacancies and/or hydrolysis of pyrophosphate group \((P,O_5)\). The oxygen vacancies \((V_o)\) formed by substituting trivalent cations for \(Sn^{4+}\) sites are hydrated with coexisting water vapor as following reaction [42]:

\[
H_2O(g) + V_o \rightarrow 2H_2O + O_o^-
\]  

(Eq. 2-3)

where \(V_o, H_2,\) and \(O_o^-\) denote an oxygen vacancy, an incorporated proton, and a lattice oxide ion, respectively. Negative and positive peaks derived from respective \(\nu(P-O-P)\) at 959 cm\(^{-1}\) and \(\nu(P-O-H)\) at 1047 cm\(^{-1}\) were observed in the DRIFT spectra (see Fig. 2-4) on a series of Pt/(Sn,M)\(P_2O_7\) catalysts [43]. This spectrum suggests that a pyrophosphate unit was hydrolyzed by water generated during the reaction and two protonated orthophosphate units were formed as represented by

\[
\begin{align*}
&\quad \text{P}_2\text{O}_5 \text{ group} \\
&\quad (\text{P-O-P, 959 cm}^{-1}) \\
&\quad \rightarrow \\
&\quad \text{Hydrate PO}_4 \text{ group} \\
&\quad (\text{P-O-H, 1047 cm}^{-1})
\end{align*}
\]  

(Eq. 2-4).

The adsorbed NO\(x\) can be protonated by these Brønsted acid site and reduced by the dissociate hydrogen over the platinum. Further studies in needed to elucidate the detail mechanism for ammonia evolution.

2.4. Conclusion

The platinum catalysts loaded on trivalent cations doped tin pyrophosphates, \((Sn,M)P_2O_7\) (\(M = In, Fe,\) or \(Sc\)) powders, showed an excellent deNO\(x\) property with high \(N_2\) selectivity even at excess oxygen coexistence (ca. 10 vol.%). Especially, the Sc-doped catalyst achieved more than 90% NO\(x\) conversion with 80% \(N_2\) selectivity. This catalytic property should owe to in situ ammonia formation. The platinum catalysts loaded on the above support materials effectively reduced NO\(x\) to ammonia by hydrogen. The in situ formed ammonia are immediately adsorbed on the acid sites and served as an additional reductant for NO\(x\)
reduction in the N₂O-free pathway. Such Brønsted acid sites should be evolved by two mechanisms: the hydration of oxygen vacancies and the hydrolysis of pyrophosphate group (P₂O₇).
3.1. Introduction

In the last chapter, the hydrogen SCR involving an *in situ* ammonia intermediate formation and following NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR allowed us to obtain the high NOx conversion with low N₂O emission over a platinum catalyst supported on partially substituted tin pyrophosphates. Ammonia formation and good deNOx activity are ascribable to the Brønsted acid sites of supporting materials. Surface modifications for metal oxides with acidic molecular groups such as SO₄, WO₃, and MoO₃ can create strong solid acid sites. Among them, the sulfated metal oxides are noteworthy as the catalysts or supported materials with their strong acidity. For example, the sulfated zirconia (H<sub>s</sub> < -16.04) catalyzes the isomerization of *n*-butane to *i*-butane even at room temperature [44]. In addition, they have good tolerance to the SOx (sulfur oxides) impurity contained in the real exhaust gases [30].

In this chapter, H₂-SCR characteristics for NOx over platinum catalyst supported on the sulfated metal oxides powders were studied from the viewpoints of their surface acidity and reaction intermediate. Furthermore, the reaction intermediates were characterized by *in situ* DRIFTS measurements to understand the reaction mechanism.

3.2. Experimental details

*Preparation and characterization of platinum catalysts*

Sulfated metal oxide powders (denoted as s-MOₓ; M = Zr, Ce, Al, Ti, Si, and Sn) were prepared from the corresponding commercially available metal oxide powders and reagent grade ammonium sulfate. The chemicals were weighed with an atomic ratio of M:S = 3:1 and
well mixed in an agate mortar. After drying at 120 °C for 24 h, the mixtures were calcined at 600-800 °C for 3 h in air. Some sulfated samples were also prepared by impregnating the corresponding amorphous metal hydroxides in dilute sulfuric acid solution or sulfuryl chloride, and then they were heated at proper temperature for 3 h according to the previous reported method [45]. Then 1wt% of platinum were loaded by successive impregnation using a Pt(NO₃)₂(NH₃)₂ solution. The resultant powders were dried at 120 °C overnight and calcined at 600 °C for 2 h in air. Conventional platinum catalysts supported on pure metal oxides, without sulfating treatment, were also prepared by the same procedure as references.

Catalytic properties for H₂-SCR of NOx reduction and reaction intermediates were characterized by a similar manner as described in chapter 2. In addition, thermal analyses, thermogravimetric analysis and differential thermal analysis, were performed using TGA-50 and DTA-50 (Shimadzu). IR spectra were recorded on a Fourier transform infrared spectrometer (FT/IR-430, Jasco) by a KBr method using unsulfated metal oxides as background samples.

3.3. Results and discussion

3.3.1. Pt/s-ZrO₂ catalysts

From the FT-IR spectrum, the peak assigned to υ(S-O-S) was observed at 1388 cm⁻¹ as shown in Fig. 3-1. Also three peaks observed at 1224, 1144, and 1056 cm⁻¹ are responsible for υ(S-O). These results indicate that surface of the zirconia was covered by sulfate groups [46]. No peaks derived from a law material (ammonium sulfate) were detected. The specific BET areas of sulfated- and untreated-zirconia powders were

![Figure 3-1. An IR spectrum of the sulfated zirconia calcined at 700 °C, KBr method (ZrO₂ powder was as background), scanning time; 50 times, resolution; 4 cm⁻¹.](image-url)
almost same value about 80-90 m²·g⁻¹.

The NO\textsubscript{x} conversion and N\textsubscript{2} selectivity of Pt/s-ZrO\textsubscript{2}(x) (x represents the heating temperature for sulfating treatment) and Pt/ZrO\textsubscript{2} are shown in Fig. 3-2. The Pt/s-ZrO\textsubscript{2}(700) exhibited the highest NO\textsubscript{x} conversion (80%) with 66% N\textsubscript{2} selectivity at 100 °C. This catalytic activity was maintained almost constantly at least for 8 h, and no gaseous ammonia was also detected in the present catalysis system. The higher conversion and selectivity compared to the previously reported values on Pt/ZrO\textsubscript{2} (NO\textsubscript{x} conversion: 72%, N\textsubscript{2} selectivity: 57% at 110 °C [47]) were attained even at lower temperature (100 °C). Although the NO\textsubscript{x} conversion decreased over 140 °C, the N\textsubscript{2} selectivity was enhanced up to almost 100% with increasing reaction temperature. In the case of Pt/s-ZrO\textsubscript{2}, the resultant NO\textsubscript{x} consisted of mainly NO at lower temperature (< 140 °C), while the NO:NO\textsubscript{2} ratio in residual NO\textsubscript{x} were almost constant value on Pt/ZrO\textsubscript{2} catalyst over the whole temperature range. It implies that NO\textsubscript{x} are also mainly reduced via NH\textsubscript{3}-SCR scheme, which similar to the reduction mechanism described in chapter 2.

Pt/s-ZrO\textsubscript{2}(800) catalyst provided somewhat low N\textsubscript{2} selectivity compared with that of Pt/s-ZrO\textsubscript{2}(700), and non-modified Pt/ZrO\textsubscript{2} showed poor NO\textsubscript{x} reducing characteristics at 100 °C and N\textsubscript{2} selectivity hardly exceeded 60% even at its suitable temperature region. The
peaks of NH₃-TPD were observed at 165 °C on Pt/ZrO₂, 190 and 500 °C on Pt/s-ZrO₂(700), and 185 and 475 °C on Pt/s-ZrO₂(800). The lower temperature peaks at 160-180 °C correspond to desorption from zirconia surface and those at 475-500 °C were ascribable to the elimination from sulfate groups [48]. The thermoanlyses indicates that ammonium sulfate decomposes at about 410 °C and the fixation of sulfate group on the oxide surface is completed about at 600 °C with the vaporization of extra sulfates as shown in Fig. 3-4. Two DTA peaks at 316 and 410 °C are attributed to the stepwise decomposition ammonium sulfate. The dull decrease of weight observed above 600 °C is attributed to the volatilization of the fixed sulfate groups, where fixed sulfate group desorbed from the surface in order of increasing bond strength. These results suggest that catalytic performance is enhanced by the acid sites of support materials. Un-functionalized zirconia has no strong acid site and resultant Pt/ZrO₂ showed less catalytic activity for H₂-SCR of NOx than Pt/s-ZrO₂ catalysts. In addition, some portion of fixed sulfate group were vaporized during high temperature heating for sulfating treatment and their acid sites were decreased and weakened, resulting in derogation of the deNOx catalytic activity, as seen in Pt/s-ZrO₂(800) catalyst.

The ammonium species (3225, 3047, 2840, and 1430 cm⁻¹), cis-HNO₂ (1685 cm⁻¹) and NO₂⁻ (1260 cm⁻¹) groups [49] were detected by in situ DRIFTS measurements on the Pt/s-ZrO₂(700) catalyst after feeding reaction gas (NO + O₂ + H₂) as shown in Fig. 3-5a. A negative peak at around 1388 cm⁻¹, which attributed to ν(S-O-S), was also observed. It means that the bridged S-O-S chemical bond has disappeared by feeding the reaction gas. This change was not seen in the presence of nitrogen monoxide and oxygen as reaction gas components (Fig. 3-5b and 3-5c). On the other hand, signal intensity of ν(S-O-S) was lowered in the
presence of hydrogen (Fig. 3-5d) and water vapor (Fig. 3-5e). In particular, \( \nu(S-O-S) \) signal continuously decreased in the presence of reaction gas (Fig. 3-5a) or water vapor (Fig. 3-5e) and only the initial decline were recorded in the case of a hydrogen stream (Fig. 3-5d). From these results, water should be responsible to promote hydrolysis of S-O-S chemical bond, leading the formation of acid site in the following reaction:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{(Eq. 3-1).}
\end{align*}
\]

![Diagram showing chemical reaction](image)

**Figure 3-5.** In situ DRIFT spectra of Pt/s-ZrO\(_2\)(700) at 100 °C in flow N\(_2\)-based gases: (a) reaction gas (NO + O\(_2\) + H\(_2\)), (b) 0.1 vol.% NO, (c) 0.1 vol.% NO and 10 vol.% O\(_2\), (d) 0.4 vol.% H\(_2\), (e) water vapor (about 3 kPa), (f) N\(_2\) after reoxidation at 400 °C and (g) spectra of Pt-ZrO\(_2\) under the same reaction gas as (a). Peaks at around 2400 cm\(^{-1}\) are attributed to CO\(_2\) impurity.
S-O-S or S-O-Zr chemical bonds are transformed to S-OH, in which such Brønsted acid site is known as a superacid. The negative $\nu$(S-O-S) peak was disappeared by re-oxidizing at 400 °C (Fig. 3-5f). Thus, these results revealed that the acid site formation should be reversible and the fixed sulfate groups hardly vaporize. Nanba et al. have proposed that protons on surface hydroxyl (Zr-OH) groups on Pt/ZrO$_2$ are responsible for the formation of ammonia intermediates which lead to high NOx reduction activity [50]. The superacid (S-OH) species can donate protons to adsorbed NOx species more strongly than Zr-OH group, resulting in the stable fixation of ammonium species even at 100 °C. Such NOx reduction involving ammonium species may proceed through the same pathway on the non-functionalized Pt/ZrO$_2$ [51]. On the other hand, the adsorbed intermediates on conventional Pt/ZrO$_2$ were nitrate groups (NO$_x^-$) which are usually observed in H$_2$-SCR and no ammonium species was detected (Fig. 3-5g).

3.3.2. Pt/s-CeO$_2$ catalysts

The XRD pattern of the sulfated ceria (s-CeO$_2$) powder was almost same to the starting ceria powder and they were assigned as fluorite CeO$_2$ (PDF #34-0394) and any impurity peak such as cerium sulfate was not observed. The s-CeO$_2$ powders showed three obvious IR bands at 3420, 1630 and 1150 cm$^{-1}$, and absorption bands derived from ammonium sulfate (3149, 1402, and 1115 cm$^{-1}$) were not observed in the IR spectra shown in Fig. 3-6. Therefore raw sulfate source should completely decompose on the ceria surface and the sulfate groups were stably fixed onto the surface of ceria.

![Figure 3-6. An IR spectrum of the sulfated ceria caicined at 700 °C, KBr method (CeO$_2$ powder was as background), scanning time; 50 times, resolution; 4 cm$^{-1}$](image)
Figure 3-7 shows the catalytic performance of Pt/CeO₂ and Pt/s-CeO₂ at a temperature range from 70 to 250 °C. The Pt/CeO₂ catalyst without sulfation treatment showed poor activity through the whole temperatures. Platinum supported catalysts on the basic oxides have been reported to give inferior deNOₓ catalytic property compared to those on the acidic oxides [52]. The solid basicity of ceria is responsible to this low catalytic performance. While Pt/s-CeO₂ catalyst showed 87% of NOₓ conversion with 65% of N₂ selectivity at 100 °C (conversion to N₂ was 57%), which are superior to the result over platinum catalysts on pure oxides (e.g., Pt/ZrO₂: NOₓ conversion, 72%; N₂ selectivity, 57% at 110 °C [47]). NOₓ conversion value, however, was sharply decreased at above 175 °C. It is due to the undesirable oxidation of hydrogen by the coexisting oxygen. The respective BET surface area of Pt/CeO₂ and Pt/s-CeO₂ catalysts are 139 and 29 m²·g⁻¹. Despite almost same thermal history, Pt/s-CeO₂ catalyst has significantly low surface area compared with Pt/CeO₂ catalyst. Ammonium sulfate, raw material for sulfate group, seems to be responsible for this decrease. It has melted during the heating for the sulfation treatment at 600 °C, and the molten one acted as not only a sulfating agent but also a flux to promote particle aggregation of ceria particle causing the notable decrease of BET surface area. So that platinum particle loaded on the sulfated-ceria must be enlarged than that on the unsulfated-one. Although we have already reported platinum particle size affects their catalytic property for NOx reduction, Pt/CeO₂ catalyst prepared from another ceria powder having the almost same surface area value (32 m²·g⁻¹) with the above discussed sulfated-ceria (29 m²·g⁻¹) showed a inferior catalytic performance peaking at 175 °C. It suggests that features of supporting material, such as solid acidity, are major factor rather than the Pt particle size for the present catalysts.
In situ DRIFT spectra of platinum catalysts loaded on sulfated- and pure-ceria are shown in Fig. 3-8. Three broad bands assigned to adsorbed ammonia (or ammonium ions) around 2700-3300 cm\(^{-1}\) were only observed in the absence of oxygen on Pt/CeO\(_2\) catalyst. On the other hand, ammonium adsorbate could be observed on Pt/s-CeO\(_2\) catalyst even under the oxygen coexistence condition. These results provide an idea that the surface of sulfated ceria has low affinity against oxygen to enhance the ammonia formation by reacting with H\(_2\) and NO\(_x\). Figure 3-9 shows the O\(_2\)-TPD profiles obtained on Pt/s-CeO\(_2\) and Pt/CeO\(_2\) catalysts. Desorption of oxygen from Pt/s-CeO\(_2\) and Pt/CeO\(_2\) catalysts started at 100 and 310 °C, respectively. This result is good accordance with the above idea for decreasing oxygen affinity on Pt/s-CeO\(_2\). As a result, the surface of sulfated catalysts made oxygen poor condition which was preferable to the formation of ammonium intermediate.

3.3.3. Pt/s-MO\(_x\) catalysts (M = Al, Ti, Si, and Sn)

The other metal oxides such as Al\(_2\)O\(_3\), TiO\(_2\), and SnO\(_2\) were also sulfated and used as supporting materials for platinum catalysts. All the catalysts were confirmed to be successfully sulfated by checking their infrared spectra. In the case of Al\(_2\)O\(_3\) (Fig. 3-10), the sulfation treatment enhanced the catalytic activity for H\(_2\)-SCR of NO\(_x\). In particular, it enabled to
reduce about 90% of NOx with 60% N₂ selectivity at 100 °C, which was better activity than that observed on the un-sulfated Pt/Al₂O₃. Although NOx conversion values at above 140 °C were almost same to the un-sulfated one, the N₂ selectivity was improved by the sulfating treatment. On the other hands, platinum catalysts loaded on sulfated-TiO₂, -SiO₂, and -SnO₂ showed almost same catalytic properties compared to with untreated catalysts (Fig. 3-11, 12). The behaviour such as low N₂ selectivity and optimal reduction temperature around 100 °C suggest that NOx are reduced via only conventional H₂-SCR scheme. In fact, their DRIFT spectra revealed that ammonia intermediate has not incorporated over these catalysts.

![Figure 3-10](image-url)  
**Figure 3-10.** Temperature dependences of NOx conversion and N₂ selectivity on platinum catalysts loaded on Al₂O₃ and s-Al₂O₃ powders. Reaction condition is described above.

![Figure 3-11](image-url)  
**Figure 3-11.** Temperature dependences of NOx conversion and N₂ selectivity on platinum catalysts loaded on TiO₂ (open square) and s-TiO₂ powders prepared by solid-phase sintering (filled circle) or impregnation with sulfuric acid and following calcination (filled triangle). Reaction condition is described above.

![Figure 3-12](image-url)  
**Figure 3-12.** Temperature dependences of NOx conversion and N₂ selectivity on platinum catalysts loaded on SiO₂ (open square) and s-SiO₂ powders prepared by solid-phase sintering (filled circle) or impregnation with sulfuryl chloride and following calcination (filled triangle). Reaction condition is described above.

The electronegativity values of these metal oxides are summarized in Fig. 3-13 using a
following equation:

\[ \chi_{\text{oxide}} = \sqrt{x_{\text{M}} \chi_{\text{O}}} \]

(Eq. 3-2)

where \( \chi_{\text{oxide}} \), \( \chi_{\text{M}} \), and \( \chi_{\text{O}} \) represent electronegativity of gross metal oxide, constructing metal element, and oxygen, respectively. \( \text{ZrO}_2, \text{CeO}_2, \) and \( \text{Al}_2\text{O}_3 \) which have lower electronegativity values are known as basic or neutral oxides, while \( \text{TiO}_2, \text{SiO}_2, \) and \( \text{SnO}_2 \) with high electronegativity values are acidic oxides. The acidity-basicity of mother metal oxides may contribute the enhancement in catalytic properties by sulfation treatments. Metal cations of acidic oxides strongly withdraw electron and weaken the polarization between M-O bonds decreasing positive charge of neighboring sulfur atom. As a result of weak polarization, the acidity for fixed sulfate group may be decreased.

![Electronegativity values of various metal oxides](image)

**Figure 3-13.** Electronegativity values of various metal oxides.

3.4. Conclusion

The sulfation treatment on metal oxide support materials such as \( \text{ZrO}_2, \text{CeO}_2, \) and \( \text{Al}_2\text{O}_3 \) remarkably enhances catalytic properties for deNOx on platinum impregnated catalysts. Because of their low affinity against oxygen adsorption, the catalyst surface is kept as partially oxygen poor condition even in the presence of excess oxygen (10 vol.%). Ammonia intermediate species readily generated by reacting NOx with hydrogen under these oxygen poor conditions, and worked as a reductant for the following \( \text{NH}_3\)\text{-SCR} reaction with low \( \text{N}_2\text{O} \) yielding. The *in situ* evolved ammonia species were immediately adsorbed onto strong Brønsted acid sites generated by hydrolysis of the bridged -S-O-S- groups on the surface. The high \( \text{N}_2 \) selectivity is achieved through the reaction between ammonium species and adsorbed...
NO$_3^-$ groups through the NH$_3$-SCR route. On the other hand, the sulfation treatments for acidic metal oxides could not improve their catalytic activity for NOx reduction. This result implies that an interaction between mother metal oxides and sulfate groups is responsible to the catalytic property.
In this thesis, the present author focused two reactions: direct ammonia synthesis by using ruthenium catalysts over Ag-Pd membrane reactors (Chapter 1) from hydrogen and nitrogen to use as a reductant for NH$_3$-SCR reaction of NOx, and H$_2$-SCR of NOx involving ammonia formation as an intermediate species on the platinum catalysts supported on metal oxides having solid acidity (Chapters 2 and 3).

In Chapter 1, on the Ag-Pd hydrogen permeable membrane reactor, ammonia formation properties of ruthenium catalysts are considerably enhanced by supplying the highly reactive atomic hydrogen. Hydrogen poisoning for ruthenium catalysts are effectively suppressed by supplying hydrogen through the hydrogen penetrative membrane. The gaseous type membrane reactor gives about 1.5-2 times of ammonia formation activity as much as the conventional flow type reaction even at high-pressure condition (0.6 MPa) due to the above suppression effect for hydrogen poisoning. The water electrolysis type membrane reactor produces ammonia even at low temperature about 100 °C. The electrodeposited ruthenium metal catalysts have porous structure formed by template effect of co-deposited zinc component and they are activated by electron donation from the Ag-Pd anode. Although their catalytic activity immediately decreases by sintering with ammonia formation heat, it is effectively improved by coating with a thin alumina layer worked as a buffer one.

In Chapter 2, Pt/(Sn,M)P$_2$O$_7$ (M = In, Fe, or Sc) catalysts provide excellent deNOx properties with high N$_2$ selectivity even at 10 vol.% of oxygen concentration. Especially, the Sc-doped catalyst achieves more than 90% NOx conversion with 80% N$_2$ selectivity. The reduction of NOx over these catalysts proceeds in two steps: the H$_2$-SCR generating N$_2$, NH$_3$, H$_2$O, and N$_2$O as a by-product, and the subsequent NH$_3$-SCR utilizing above evolved ammonia intermediate with little N$_2$O emission. Reactivity and formation ability of the ammonia intermediates are depend on their Brønsted acid sites evolved by two mechanisms. One is the hydration of oxygen vacancies and another is the hydrolysis of pyrophosphate group (P$_2$O$_7$).
Such acid sites adsorb the ammonia intermediate to be used for the following NH$_3$-SCR of NOx with high N$_2$ yield.

In Chapter 3, Brønsted acid sites are produced by a sulfation treatment for various metal oxides. DeNOx catalytic activity of platinum catalysts loaded on ZrO$_2$, CeO$_2$, and Al$_2$O$_3$ support materials remarkably enhanced by the sulfating their surface. The reason of these improvements owes to their low affinity against oxygen adsorption. As a result, partially oxygen-poor atmosphere which favored to ammonia formation is formed on the surface of catalysts. Ammonia intermediate species readily generates by reacting NOx with hydrogen under these oxygen poor conditions, and acts as a reductant for the following NH$_3$-SCR reaction with low N$_2$O evolution. Since the sulfation treatment can not enhance catalytic performance in the case of acidic oxide supports. This solid acidity seems to prevent sulfating groups from expression of Brønsted acidity.
References and Notes


153, A1604.


430.


List of Publications

Publications

1. Synergistic Effect of MgO and CeO₂ as a Support for Ruthenium Catalysts in Ammonia Synthesis
   Makoto Saito, Masahiro Itoh, Jun Iwamoto, Cheng-Yu Li, Ken-ichi Machida,

2. Effective Suppression of Hydrogen Poisoning from a Ru-based Catalyst in a Ag-Pd Membrane Reactor
   Makoto Saito, Masahiro Itoh, Jun Iwamoto, Ken-ichi Machida,

3. Low Temperature Hydrogen Selective Catalytic Reduction of NOx on Pt/sulfated-ZrO₂ Catalysts under Excess Oxygen Conditions
   Makoto Saito, Masahiro Itoh, Jun Iwamoto, Ken-ichi Machida,

4. Hydrogen Selective Catalytic Reduction of NOx Assisted by In situ Ammonia Formation over Pt Catalyst Supported on Fe-doped Tin Phosphate
   Makoto Saito, Masahiro Itoh, Jun Iwamoto, Ken-ichi Machida,

5. Hydrogen SCR of NOx over Metal Oxide Supported Pt Catalysts via In situ Ammonium Intermediate Formation and Subsequent Pseudo Ammonia SCR Reaction
   Makoto Saito, Masahiro Itoh, Jun Iwamoto, Ken-ichi Machida,
   in preparation.
6. Hydrogen SCR for NOx under Oxygen-rich Conditions over Platinum Catalysts Loaded on Sulfated-ceria Supports with Low Affinity for Oxygen Adsorption
   Makoto Saito, Koji Motoki, Masahiro Itoh, Jun Iwamoto, Ken-ichi Machida,
   *Catalysis Communications*, in contribution.

7. Selective NOx Reduction with Hydrogen under Oxygen-rich Conditions over Platinum Catalysts Loaded on Sulfated-MOx powders: Relationship between Electronegativity of Metal Oxides and Promotion Effect of Sulfating Treatment for Catalytic Performance
   Makoto Saito, Koji Motoki, Masahiro Itoh, Jun Iwamoto, Ken-ichi Machida,
   in preparation.

8. Hydrogen SCR Characteristics for NOx over Pt catalysts supported on Metal Phosphates
   Makoto Saito, Masahiko Takehara, Masahiro Itoh, Jun Iwamoto, Ken-ichi Machida,
   in preparation.
Supplementary Publications

1. High Dependence for Reaction Pressure on Ru/(MgO-CeO$_2$)/Ag-Pd Ammonia Synthesis Membrane Reactor
   Masahiro Itoh, Makoto Saito, Cheng-Yu Li, Jun Iwamoto, Ken-ichi Machida,

2. Ammonia Synthesis on Magnesia Supported Ruthenium Catalysts with Mesoporous Structure
   Jun Iwamoto, Masahiro Itoh, Yoshio Kajita, Makoto Saito, Ken-ichi Machida,

3. Ammonia Synthesis Using Atomic Hydrogen Supplied from Silver-Palladium Alloy Membrane
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4. Influence of Supported-metal Characteristics on deNOx Catalytic Activity over Pt/CeO$_2$
   Masahiro Itoh, Makoto Saito, Masahiko Takehara, Koji Motoki, Jun Iwamoto,
   Ken-ichi Machida,
   *Journal of Molecular Catalysis A*, to be published.

5. Formation of NaNbO$_3$-based conductive crystal lines on glass surface by Yb fiber laser irradiation
   Maolin Pang, Ryota Suzuki, Makoto Saito, Ken-ichi Machida, Hiromasa Hanzawa,
   Yoshihiro Nojiri, Shigeo Tanase,
6. Fabrication and crystal line patterning of Li$_{1.3}$Al$_{0.3}$Ti$_{1.7}$(PO$_4$)$_3$ ion conductive glass by Ni atom heat processing method

Maolin Pang, Ryota Suzuki, Makoto Saito, Ken-ichi Machida, Hiromasa Hanzawa,
Yoshihiro Nojiri, Shigeo Tanase,


7. Crystal Line Patterning and Enhanced Ion Conductivity of Li(Ge,Ti)$_2$(PO$_4$)$_3$, Glasses by Yb Fiber Laser Irradiation

Maolin Pang, Ryota Suzuki, Makoto Saito, Ken-ichi Machida, Hiromasa Hanzawa,
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