<span id="page-0-0"></span>

# Selective Catalytic Reduction of  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  with Ammonia over Soot

M. Mehring, M. Elsener, and O. Kröcher\*

Paul Scherrer Institute, 5232 Villigen PSI, Switzerla[nd](#page-10-0)

ABSTRACT: The selective catalytic reduction (SCR) of nitrogen oxides  $(NO_x)$  in the presence of NH<sub>3</sub> was investigated on Printex U and three diesel soot samples in the temperature range between 200 and 350 °C. In the presence of  $NO + NO<sub>2</sub>$ , a stoichiometry similar to that of the fast SCR reaction was observed, whereas in the absence of NO, the stoichiometry shifted to values typical of the  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  SCR reaction. In the presence of only NO, no  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  reduction was observed. Carbon oxidation and SCR reaction minimally influenced each other. On the basis of these experimental results, a mechanism for  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  reduction over diesel soot was



developed. The first step in the reaction is the disproportionation of  $NO<sub>2</sub>$ , which is followed by the formation of ammonium nitrates and nitrites. The nitrites decompose directly into  $N_2$  and  $H_2O$ , whereas the nitrates have to be reduced to nitrites either by NO or in its absence by NH<sub>3</sub>, which also leads to the formation of N<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O. The observed byproducts indicated that the acidity and the amount of surface functional groups for NH<sub>3</sub> are important preconditions for the occurrence of the SCR reaction over soot.

KEYWORDS: selective catalytic reduction,  $NO_x$  reduction, soot oxidation, diesel soot, fast SCR, NO<sub>2</sub> SCR

# 1. INTRODUCTION

Today's research in the field of exhaust gas after-treatment is mainly driven by the tightening of the legal emission limits for soot particulates and nitrogen oxides in the exhaust gas of diesel engines. Soot particulate emissions have been successfully reduced by the application of diesel particulate filters  $(DPF)$ ,<sup>1,2</sup> where the soot is accumulated and oxidized to  $CO_2$  with  $O_2$  [or](#page-10-0)  $O_2$ −NO<sub>2</sub> mixtures as oxidants.<sup>3</sup>

One of the most efficient technologies for the reduction of  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  emissions in lean exhaus[t](#page-10-0) gases is the selective catalytic reduction (SCR) with NH<sub>3</sub><sup>4–6</sup> over catalysts based on V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>/ WO<sub>3</sub> $-TiO<sub>2</sub>$  or Cu- and Fe-zeolites.<sup>7−9</sup> In this process, urea, which is used as a harmless [NH](#page-10-0)<sub>3</sub> precursor, is dosed to the hot exhaust gas, where it decomposes [in](#page-10-0) [a](#page-11-0) two-step reaction to ammonia with isocyanic acid as an intermediate:

$$
H_2N-C(O)-NH_2 \to HNCO + NH_3 \tag{1}
$$

$$
HNCO + H_2O \rightarrow CO_2 + NH_3 \tag{2}
$$

Three SCR overall reaction equations describe the stoichiometries observed under different conditions and with different catalysts: $4,10$ 

standard SCR

$$
4NH_3 + 4NO + O_2 \xrightarrow{Cat} 4N_2 + 6H_2O
$$
 (3)

fast SCR

$$
4NH_3 + 2NO + 2NO_2 \xrightarrow{Cat} 4N_2 + 6H_2O \tag{4}
$$

 $NO<sub>2</sub>$  SCR

$$
4NH_3 + 3NO_2 \xrightarrow{Cat} 7/2N_2 + 6H_2O
$$
 (5)

Thus far, it has been possible to achieve the legal emission limits through the application of either a SCR system or a DPF system with the appropriate adaptation of the combustion conditions. However, the implementation of more restrictive limits in the future necessitates the application of both a particulate filter and an SCR system in the same vehicle. Although such a combination satisfies the desired emission limits, this combination results in a disadvantageous weight and cost increase. Therefore, ideas for the combination of both functions in one after-treatment device are encouraged. According to this concept, a DPF and SCR catalyst could be placed within the same housing, or the filter structures could be coated with SCR-active materials. This arrangement would consequently lead to the parallel presence of  $NO<sub>x</sub>$ , reducing agent, and diesel soot in one reaction compartment, where they may react with each other. This combination comprises known reactions, which have not been relevant until now because the reactants have not previously been in contact in emission systems, and likely also new reactions that have not been previously considered. Studies of the chemistry in combined DPF-SCR systems are required for a proper design and before such systems can be introduced into the market.

Received: March 20, 2012 Revised: May 29, 2012 Published: June 1, 2012

**ACS** Publications

In fact, similar reaction systems have been described in the literature. In the 1980s, researchers found that NO in the exhaust gases of industrial processes could be reduced over highly activated carbons in the presence of  $NH_3$ .<sup>11-14</sup> The oxidation of NO to  $\rm NO_2$  was recognized as a prerequisite step for the occurrence of the SCR reaction.<sup>15−17</sup> Alt[hough](#page-11-0) NO oxidation appears to proceed relatively efficiently over activated carbons at low temperatures, which is d[iscern](#page-11-0)ible from their higher SCR activity in this temperature region compared to typical metal-oxide-based catalysts, the general SCR activity of carbon is still relatively low. Therefore, the applied space velocities were most often less than 2000  $h^{-1}$ .<sup>15,18</sup><sup>-20</sup> .

These previous results have raised the question of whether soot might also act as a catalyst for  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  reduc[tion in c](#page-11-0)ombined DPF−SCR systems even though space velocities are more than ten times higher in mobile applications. Therefore, a laboratory study was performed to investigate the influence of typical diesel exhaust gas components, that is,  $NO<sub>2</sub>$ ,  $NO<sub>2</sub>$ ,  $NH<sub>3</sub>$ , and  $H_2SO_4$ , on the SCR activity of diesel and model soot.<sup>21</sup> Furthermore, the relationship between soot oxidation and SCR process on soot, which occur in parallel, was examined.

# 2. EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

2.1. Samples and Their Characterization. Four different powdered soot samples were used in our study: commercially available Printex U from Evonik (Germany), a soot of a diesel engine that satisfies Euro V emission limits, a soot of a diesel engine that satisfies Euro 0 limits, and a soot mixture obtained from several diesel engine test benches (labeled as mixed soot).

The largest number of experiments was performed with Printex U because it was available in sufficient amounts, and it is a well-characterized model substance for diesel soot.22<sup>−</sup><sup>24</sup> The diesel soot samples were available only in small amounts, and the number of experiments was therefore limited[;](#page-11-0) t[he](#page-11-0) conducted experiments were mainly used to confirm the transferability of the Printex U results to real systems.

The composition of the four soot samples was analyzed on a TG-FTIR system (thermogravimetric analyzer TGA/DSC1 from Mettler-Toledo combined with an Antaris IGS Fouriertransform infrared spectrometer from ThermoScientific) that was specially equipped for the characterization of soot samples.<sup>25</sup> This system allowed the quantification of the elemental and organic carbon (EC and OC) contents plus the amount[s o](#page-11-0)f oxygen, hydrogen, organic nitrogen, organic sulfur and sulfuric acid (detected as  $SO_2$ ), and water as well as the ash content.25,26 In addition, the Brunauer−Emmett−Teller (BET) surface areas of the samples were measured using nitrogen physiso[rption](#page-11-0) on a Quantachrom Autosorb 1-c instrument, and the ash was characterized using ICP-OES measurements on a Varian VISTA PRO AX instrument.

2.2. Activity Measurements. The SCR activity of soot was primarily investigated in a heated tubular quartz reactor with a length of 650 mm and an inner diameter of 49 mm. The flowchart of the experimental setup is shown Figure 1.

After the feed gases entered the reactor, they were temperature-controlled in the preheating zone (first heating zone), which was filled with ceramic beads for effective heat transfer. After passing through the frit, the gases entered the reaction zone (second heating zone), where the sample holder was placed. The last heating zone (third heating zone) controlled the reactor outlet downstream of the sample, where approximately 10−15% of the product gas flow was continuously extracted for gas analysis.



Figure 1. Flowchart of the experimental setup. The dotted lines represent the communication connections of the FTIR spectrometer and the MFCs with the PC.

The soot samples were brought into the reactor coated on cuboid cordierite monoliths  $(L \times H \times W = 22$  mm  $\times 26.5$  mm ×26.5 mm) with a cell density of 400 cpsi. They were loaded with approximately 60 mg of soot by dip-coating of the monoliths with dispersions of the soot samples in isopropyl alcohol. The solvent was removed with an air blower for 2 min, and the samples were subsequently dried at 85 °C in a cabinet dryer for 4 h. The blank and loaded dry monoliths were weighed to allow an estimation of the load. The gas hourly space velocity (GHSV), calculated from the quotient of the total gas flow and the volume of the cordierite monoliths, was 35,000 h<sup>−</sup><sup>1</sup> unless otherwise noted. To investigate the influence of sulfuric acid  $(H_2SO_4)$  on the soot activity, some of the sootloaded monoliths were impregnated with 5 mg of  $H_2SO_4$  in a second step.

The reactive gases were provided by a gas mixing unit that consisted of six mass flow controllers (Brooks 5850S). The total flow was 550 L/min at STP depending on the desired space velocity. The base feed gas consisted of 10% oxygen and 5% water with nitrogen as the balance. Water was generated by controlled hydrogen oxidation over a Pt catalyst.  $NO<sub>2</sub>$ ,  $NH<sub>3</sub>$ , and NO were added to the base feed gas in varying concentrations.

The gas flows were analyzed quantitatively using a Nicolet Nexus FTIR spectrometer with a gas-measuring cell with a path length of 2 m and a liquid-nitrogen-cooled mercury cadmium telluride MCT detector. The spectrometer was calibrated for  $CO<sub>2</sub>$ , CO, NO, NO<sub>2</sub>, NH<sub>3</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>O, HCN, HNCO, HNO<sub>3</sub>, HONO,  $SO_2$ , and  $H_2SO_4$ . All tubes downstream of the gas mixing unit as well as the FTIR cell were heated to 180 °C to avoid condensation. Each spectrum was the average of 8 scans at a resolution of 0.5  $cm^{-1}$ . HNO<sub>3</sub> and, to a greater extent, HONO showed cross-sensitivities to  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  in the FTIR spectra, which could not be removed by the QuantPad calibration software. Therefore, the results for  $HNO<sub>3</sub>$  had to be analyzed carefully, and in the case of HONO, spectral analysis was only possible in the absence of  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  because the HONO signal showed an additional baseline shift.

The measurements were performed isothermally with soot samples treated for 25 min with 10%  $O_2$  + 5%  $H_2O$  + 250 ppm  $NO<sub>2</sub> + 250$  ppm  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  in the feed gas for activation. After the activation, the  $NH_3$ , NO, and  $NO_2$  concentrations were varied consecutively in concentration series (series 1−3) according to

<span id="page-2-0"></span>Table 1 while each feed mixture was maintained for 5 min. NO without  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  was not taken into consideration in the series

Table 1. Variation of the  $NO<sub>2</sub>$ , NO, and NH<sub>3</sub> Concentrations for the Isothermal Investigation of the SCR Effect on Soot<sup>a</sup>

	series	$NO2$ [ppm]	$NH3$ [ppm]	$NO$ [ppm]	
$NH3$ variation		250	100, 250, 500	$\Omega$	
NO variation		250	250	100, 250, 500	
NO <sub>2</sub> variation	3	100, 250, 500	250		
"Between each series, the sample was flushed with 10% $O_2$ + 5% H <sub>2</sub> O					

with nitrogen as a balance for 10 min.

experiments because no SCR activity was observed in the absence of  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  during preliminary experiments. One sootcoated monolith was used for each investigated temperature.

Series 1−3 were repeated three to five times. When the carbon consumption on the monoliths exceeded 50−60%, the measurements were terminated to exclude influences from the limitation of the amount of available soot. The samples were subsequently heated to 700 °C with 10%  $O_2$  in the feed gas to estimate the total carbon amount. For comparison of the different experiments, the series that showed the maximum  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  reduction values were used. Loss of soot by the gas flow could be excluded as the average soot recovery in the FTIR analysis was 100%  $(\pm 5%)$  which is within the measurement error of the experiments.

For the investigation of the SCR reaction with 250 ppm NO and 250 ppm  $NH_3$  without  $NO_2$  in the presence of 5%  $H_2O$ and  $10\%$  O<sub>2</sub>, we performed a temperature-programmed reaction experiment between 200 and 450 °C at 3000 h<sup>-1</sup>. . To reach this GHSV, the total flow was reduced to 275 L/h at STP, and a cylindrical monolith ( $L = 56$  mm;  $\varnothing = 45$  mm) was used.

In addition to the activity measurements in the tubular reactor, DRIFTS (diffuse reflectance infrared Fourier-transform spectroscopy) measurements on Printex U were also performed to investigate the functional groups formed by the adsorption of  $NO_2$  and  $NH_3$  in the presence of  $H_2O$  and  $O_2$ . The measurements were performed using a Thermo Scientific Nexus 600 FTIR spectrometer and a Thermo Scientific DRIFTS cell. The cell was heatable and was equipped with ZnSe windows. For the background collection, the feed gas always contained 10%  $O_2$  + 5%  $H_2O$  in nitrogen. Then, 1000 ppm  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  and 1000 ppm  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  were added to the feed gas for 20 min. The system was subsequently purged for 20 min with 10%  $O_2$  + 5%  $H_2O$  in nitrogen to allow a final spectrum that contained only absorption bands of the chemisorbed species to be collected.

**2.3. Data Analysis.** 2.3.1. NO<sub>x</sub> Reduction. The NO<sub>x</sub> reduction describes the activity of the soot samples to reduce  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  in the feed gas during the SCR reaction. We used the amount of reduced NO<sub>x</sub> either as a relative quantity in [%]:

$$
NO_x reduction \,\left[\% \right] = \frac{NO_{x,in} - NO_{x,out}}{NO_{x,in}} \cdot 100\tag{6}
$$

or as an absolute quantity in [ppm]:

$$
NOx reduction [ppm] = NOx,in - NOx,out
$$
 (7)

where  $NO_{x,in}$  represents the  $NO_x$  inlet concentration in the feed gas in [ppm] and  $NO_{x,out}$  represents the measured  $NO_{x}$  outlet concentration in [ppm].

2.3.2. Stoichiometric Ratio. During the SCR reaction,  $NH<sub>3</sub>$ and  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  react with each other. On the basis of the converted amounts of  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  and  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  estimated from their concentration differences in the feed gas inlet and outlet, an experimental stoichiometric ratio A of the SCR reaction was defined as follows:

$$
A = \frac{NH_{3,in} - NH_{3,out}}{NO_{x,in} - NO_{x,out}}
$$
(8)

where  $NH_{3,in}$  represents the NH<sub>3</sub> inlet concentration in the feed gas in [ppm] and  $NH_{3,out}$  is the sum of the measured NH<sub>3</sub>, HCN, and HNCO outlet concentrations, as HCN and HNCO were formed almost exclusively from the reaction of  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  with surface species of the soot sample.

2.3.3. Carbon Oxidation Rate. The carbon oxidation rate (C-oxidation rate) was used to quantify the amount of carbon that is released from a soot sample by decomposition of the surface functional groups formed at time t. The C-oxidation rate is defined as the ratio of the carbon amount in the gas phase at time  $t$   $(c_{\text{gas},t})$  in  $[\mu \text{g}]$  calculated from the CO, CO<sub>2</sub>, HNCO, and HCN concentration in the gas phase detected in the FTIR spectrum at time  $t$ , and the amount of carbon at time  $t\left(\mathbf{\mathit{c}}_{\mathrm{solid},t}\right)$  in  $\left[\mathrm{mg}\right]$  remaining in the solid phase correlated to the period of time needed for the collection of a FTIR spectrum  $t_{\text{collect}}$  in [s]:

C-oxidation rate 
$$
\left[\frac{\mu g}{mg \cdot s}\right] = \frac{c_{gas,t}}{c_{solid,t}} \cdot \frac{1}{t_{collect}}
$$
 (9)

The parameter  $c_{solid, t}$  was calculated from the total amount of carbon at the beginning of the measurements  $c_{\text{solid},0}$  minus the sum of carbon desorbed up to time t. This method of calculating the C-oxidation rate is similar to a normalization of the data, which allows the comparison of the results of different reactive gases and samples of different sizes.

# 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

**3.1. Sample Characterization.** Figure 2 shows the results of the composition analysis of the four soot samples. The diagram depicts the sum hydrogen, sulfate, water, nitrogen, oxygen, OC, and EC calculated back from measured gas phase concentrations plus the ash content compared to the initial weight. The relative error of this comparison was  $\pm$ 4.5% of the



Figure 2. Results of the composition analysis of Printex U, Euro V soot, Euro 0 soot, and the mixed soot based on TG-FTIR measurements. The range from 0 to 60% consisted of EC.

<span id="page-3-0"></span>initial weight for the components measured in the gas phase and  $\pm 0.6$ % of the initial weight for the ash content. Printex U exhibited the largest EC content and the smallest oxygen, hydrogen and water contents among the samples. The EC content of the samples decreased in the following order: Euro  $V >$  Euro 0 > mixed soot sample. The Euro 0 sample exhibited the largest ash and OC contents. In contrast to Printex U, the three diesel soot samples contained a fraction of nitrogen, which was evolved mainly as  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  in the case of the mixed soot and as NO from the Euro V and Euro 0 samples. The water contents of the samples were relatively low, except for the mixed soot. Printex U and the mixed soot sample contained a fraction of  $H_2SO_4$ .

The ash analysis of the diesel soot samples by ICP-OES showed that their ash consisted of a large number of metallic and nonmetallic ions. Printex U did not contain metals at concentrations above the detection limits of the ICP-OES analysis. Table 2 summarizes the metals with the highest concentrations in the ash of the Euro V, Euro 0, and mixed soot samples.

Table 2. Amounts of the Most Important Metals Detected in the Euro 0, Euro V, and Mixed Soot Samples

	Euro $0$ [wt %]	mixed soot $[wt %]$	Euro V [wt $%$ ]
Ca	1.52	0.42	0.92
Fe	0.96	0.68	0.99
K	0.02	0.02	0.02
Mg	0.05	0.08	0.04
Na	0.34	0.26	0.03
Zn	0.46	0.24	0.08

The measured BET surface areas of the samples did not differ significantly and were small compared with those of activated carbons. The BET surface areas of Printex U, Euro V, Euro 0, and the mixed soot samples were 103, 110, 132, and 145 m<sup>2</sup>/g, respectively.

3.2. SCR Activity of Printex U in the Presence of NO and NH<sub>3</sub>. NO has been reported in the literature to be reduced to nitrogen in the presence of  $O_2$ ,  $H_2O$  and  $NH_3$  at space velocities of approximately 2000 h<sup>-1</sup>, and the oxidation of NO to  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  by oxygen has been reported to be the key step in this process.15−<sup>17</sup> However, in a preliminary TPR experiment with Printex U under the same reaction conditions reported in the literatu[re,](#page-11-0) [we](#page-11-0) did not observe any SCR activity. In Figure 3, the  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  reduction, the NH<sub>3</sub> conversion  $U<sub>NH3</sub>$ , the NO, NO<sub>2</sub>, NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations, and the sum of the nitrogen components in the presence of NO are plotted between 200 and 450 °C at a GHSV of 3000  $h^{-1}$ . .

The NH<sub>3</sub> concentration remained constant up to 280  $^{\circ}$ C. At higher temperatures, it decreased together with the sum of the nitrogen components, whereas the NO concentration slightly increased, which led to a negative  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  reduction. However, the NH<sub>3</sub> conversion increased faster than the NO concentration.  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  was not observed during the course of the measurement. From these results, Printex U is concluded not to be active for NO oxidation and  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  reduction under these conditions; it is, however, able to selectively oxidize  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  to nitrogen,<sup>27</sup> as confirmed by a blank experiment with a feed gas that contained only 10%  $O_2$  + 5%  $H_2O$  + 250 ppm NH<sub>3</sub> with nitrogen [as](#page-11-0) the balance. Furthermore, a comparison of the nitrogen balance of the blank experiment with the experiment in the presence of soot and soot oxidation experiments in the presence of NO



Figure 3.  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  reduction,  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  conversion, and the concentrations of NO, NO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, and NH<sub>3</sub> on Printex U at a space velocity of 3000 h<sup>-1</sup> during a TPR investigation with 250 ppm  $NO + 250$  ppm  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  from 200 to 450 °C. The sum of the nitrogen-containing components is also shown.

showed that NO did not undergo any other reactions with the soot surface in combination with  $H_2O$  and/or  $O_2$ .

3.3. SCR Activity of Printex U in the Presence of  $NO<sub>2</sub>$ , NO, and NH<sub>3</sub>. Although no SCR activity was observed in the TPR experiment with NO and  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  in the feed gas, a further preliminary experiment showed that in the presence of  $NO<sub>2</sub>$ , Printex U was SCR-active. Therefore,  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  was always added in the main experiments for the investigation of the  $NO<sub>x</sub>$ reduction over soot.

Figure 4 shows the  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  reduction in [ppm] over Printex U at temperatures between 200 and 350 °C for different



Figure 4. Dependence of the  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  reduction over Printex U on the  $NO<sub>2</sub>$ , NO and NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations between 200 and 350 °C calculated according to 7. black filled squares, 250 ppm  $NO<sub>2</sub> + 250$  ppm  $NH<sub>3</sub>$ ; green filled circles, 250 ppm  $NO<sub>2</sub> + 500$  ppm  $NH<sub>3</sub>$ ; blue filled triangles, 500 ppm  $NO<sub>2</sub> + 250$  ppm  $NH<sub>3</sub>$ ; red filled diamonds, 250 ppm  $NO_2 + 250$  $NO_2 + 250$  $NO_2 + 250$  ppm  $NH_3 + 250$  ppm NO.

concentrations of  $NO<sub>2</sub>$ , NO, and  $NH<sub>3</sub>$ , as detailed in Table 1. The  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  reduction was plotted in absolute values according to 7 since plotting the relative  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  reduction in [%] according [to](#page-2-0) 6 would not directly show the significant increase of the  $NO<sub>x</sub>$ [re](#page-2-0)duction in the presence of NO. A comparison of 6 and 7 [d](#page-2-0)iscloses that the trends illustrated in Figure 4 would be inverted w[he](#page-2-0)n plotting relative  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  reduction rates d[ue](#page-2-0) to the different  $NO_x$  inlet concentrations; however, the absolute values actually increased. Higher temperatures were not considered in the figures because the rate of carbon oxidation and the rate of  $NH_3$  oxidation to  $N_2$  became too large for

reproducible  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  reduction rates to be measured. However, at temperatures below 200  $\mathrm{^{\circ}C}$ , the NO<sub>x</sub> reduction activity was too small to be analyzed reliably.

In the presence of 250 ppm  $NO<sub>2</sub> + 250$  ppm  $NH<sub>3</sub>$ , 12 ppm  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  were reduced at 200 °C, which increased to the maximum  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  reduction of 66 ppm at 300 °C corresponding to a relative  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  reduction of 25%. At temperatures above 300 °C, the NO<sub>x</sub> reduction was slightly reduced because of the occurrence of NH<sub>2</sub> oxidation.

When the  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  concentration was increased to 500 ppm the maximum  $\mathrm{NO}_x$  reduction was 16 ppm at 200  $^\circ\mathrm{C}$  and increased to 93 ppm at 300 °C. Similar to the experiment with 250 ppm NH<sub>3</sub>, the decline of NO<sub>x</sub> reduction above 300  $\degree$ C was again because of  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  loss by oxidation.

The increase in the  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  concentration to 500 ppm at 250 ppm  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  led to a further increase in  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  reduction above 250  $\rm{^{\circ}C}$ , with a maximum of 100 ppm  $\rm{NO_x}$  reduction at 300  $\rm{^{\circ}C}$ . The flattening of the curve was again a result of the occurrence of  $NH_3$  oxidation, which shows the limitation of the NO<sub>x</sub> reduction efficiency based on the amount of  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  available under these conditions.

Although we showed that  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  could not reduce NO over Printex U, a significant increase in the  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  reduction was observed when NO was added to a feed gas that contained  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  and  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  over the whole temperature range (for 250 ppm  $NO<sub>2</sub> + 250$  ppm  $NH<sub>3</sub> + 250$  ppm NO, shown in Figure 4). At 200 °C a  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  reduction of 60 ppm was reached, which was increased up to 140 ppm at 350 °C. However, the addit[io](#page-3-0)n of NO to the feed gas did not obviate the decrease in the  $NO<sub>x</sub>$ reduction at temperatures above 300  $^{\circ}$ C because of the NH<sub>3</sub> limitation.

The calculation of the reaction stoichiometries is a very simple method to determine the ongoing reactions in a reaction system. In our case, the reaction stoichiometries were calculated via the stoichiometric ratio A according to 8, and the results were compared to the stoichiometric ratios of the known SCR reactions 3−5. The trends obtained for differ[en](#page-2-0)t concentrations of  $NO<sub>2</sub>$ , NO, and  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  are plotted as a function of temperature in Figur[e](#page-0-0) [5.](#page-0-0) For 250 ppm  $NO<sub>2</sub> + 250$  ppm  $NH<sub>3</sub>$ , the stoichiometric ratios of 1.35−1.40 were found at 250−300 °C, whereas the ratio was between 1.28 and 1.33 when the  $NH<sub>3</sub>$ feed gas concentration was increased to 500 ppm. At 200 °C, the ratio decreased for  $250$  ppm  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  and also for  $500$  ppm  $NH<sub>3</sub>$ . However, at this low temperature, the measurement error was higher because of the small conversion rates. At temperatures above 300  $^{\circ}$ C, the stoichiometric ratios increased because the unselective  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  oxidation became more pronounced in this temperature range. The increase in the NO2 concentration from 250 ppm to 500 ppm led to stoichiometric ratios of 1.28−1.33 at 200−300 °C. At 350  $\rm{^{\circ}C}$ , the ratio increased as a consequence of unselective NH<sub>3</sub> oxidation for all concentrations. The calculated values correspond to the  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  SCR reaction 5, which features a theoretical stoichiometric ratio of 1.33. As such, the  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  SCR reaction 5 best describes the overall r[ea](#page-0-0)ction under these conditions.

Comp[ar](#page-0-0)ed to the experiment with 0 ppm NO, the experiment that involved the addition of 100 ppm NO to the feed gas resulted in a significant decrease in the stoichiometric ratio to less than 1.33 at 250 and 300 °C. Furthermore, an increase in the NO concentration to 500 ppm resulted in a further decrease of the stoichiometric ratios to approximately 1. From this observation, we concluded that the reaction on the



Figure 5. Dependence of the measured stoichiometric ratios over Printex U of the  $NO<sub>2</sub>$ , NO and  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  concentrations between 200 and 350 °C. Black open squares, 250 ppm  $NO<sub>2</sub> + 250$  ppm  $NH<sub>3</sub>$ ; green open circles, 250 ppm  $NO<sub>2</sub> + 500$  ppm  $NH<sub>3</sub>$ ; blue open triangles, 500 ppm  $NO<sub>2</sub> + 250$  ppm  $NH<sub>3</sub>$ ; orange plus signs, 250 ppm  $NO<sub>2</sub> + 250$ ppm  $NH_3$  + 100 ppm NO; red open diamonds, 250 ppm  $NO_2$  + 250 ppm  $NH_3$  + 250 ppm NO. The dotted lines parallel to the x-axis highlight the stoichiometries of the *fast SCR* and  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  SCR reaction calculated from the overall SCR reactions 3 and 4. In comparison to Figure 4 the experiment with 100 ppm NO was added to show the shift fr[o](#page-0-0)m the  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  SCR reaction regime to the *f[as](#page-0-0)t SCR* regime with increasi[n](#page-3-0)g NO concentration.

soot surface was shifted from the  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  SCR reaction in the absence of NO to the fast SCR reaction by the addition of NO, according to reaction 4. In the experiment with an NO dosage of 100 ppm, the stoichiometric ratios most likely indicate the occurrence of the *f[ast](#page-0-0)* SCR in parallel with the  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  SCR reaction. An increase in the NO concentration shifted the reaction regime more and more to the fast SCR reaction and resulted almost exclusively in the fast SCR reaction for 250 ppm  $NO<sub>2</sub> + 250$  ppm NO.

3.4. C-Oxidation Rates of Printex U in the Presence of  $NO<sub>2</sub>$ , NO, and NH<sub>3</sub>. In the presence of NO<sub>x</sub>, NH<sub>3</sub>, and O<sub>2</sub> on soot, not only the SCR reaction occurs, but also the oxidation of soot to  $CO$  and  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  has to be considered. It was, therefore, important to investigate the influence of different SCR conditions on the parallel-occurring soot oxidation.

In general, soot oxidation can be described in three steps, which are independent of the oxidant. First, an oxidant molecule adsorbs on the soot surface. In the second step, the oxidant transfers an oxygen atom to the surface, forming an oxygen−carbon complex. In the last step this complex decomposes under formation of  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  or CO.

Under SCR conditions  $O_2$  and  $NO_2$  are potential species for soot oxidation, while  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  exhibits a higher reactivity for soot oxidation at low temperatures. In the literature three mechanisms for soot oxidation in the presence of both  $O_2$ and  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  are proposed, which are strongly dependent on soot structure and origin: Messerer et al. proposed a parallel noninterfering mechanism of  $O_2$  and  $NO_2$  with active sites on the soot surface leading to the formation of oxygen surface functional groups.<sup>28</sup> These surface functional groups decompose directly or after further oxidation by one of the oxidant molecules into C[O a](#page-11-0)nd CO<sub>2</sub>. On the other hand, Setibudi et al. and Jaquot et al. presented a co-operative mechanism, where  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  reacts with active carbon sites forming oxygen containingsurface functional groups under evolution of NO. These functional groups react with  $O_2$  or  $NO_2$  evolving  $CO_2$ , CO and in the case of  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  also NO.<sup>24,29</sup> The active carbon sites were

<span id="page-5-0"></span>assumed to be unreactive for  $O_2$  before the first  $NO_2$  attack, but after their oxidation with  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  they are active for an  $O<sub>2</sub>$  attack. A second co-operative mechanism was proposed by Jeguirim et al. However, these authors assumed that  $O_2$  adsorbs first on the soot surface and forms carbon−oxygen complexes, which are attacked faster by  $NO_2$  than  $O_2$  evolving NO, CO and  $CO_2$ .<sup>30</sup>

In Figure 6, the overall C-oxidation rates at different  $NH<sub>3</sub>$ , NO<sub>2</sub>, and NO concentrations at 250 °C are plotted along wi[th](#page-11-0) the  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  consumption in ppm.



Figure 6. Dependence of the C-oxidation rates and the  $NO<sub>2</sub>$ consumption of Printex U during the SCR activity measurements on the NH<sub>3</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, and NO concentrations at 250 °C. Concentrations in the base feed gas: green open and filled circles, 250 ppm  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  + variable  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  concentrations; blue open and filled triangles, 250 ppm  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  + variable  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  concentrations; red open and filled squares, 250 ppm  $NO<sub>2</sub> + 250$  ppm  $NH<sub>3</sub> +$  variable NO concentrations. Dotted lines and open symbols refer to the C-oxidation rate; solid lines and closed symbols refer to the  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  consumption.

The comparison of the C-oxidation rates for different  $NH<sub>3</sub>$ concentrations showed that the rates at 0 ppm and 100 ppm NH3 were slightly lower than those at 250 ppm and 500 ppm  $NH<sub>3</sub>$ , which was also the case at 200 °C (results not shown) most probably because of an increased formation of byproducts. The  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  concentration decreased with increasing  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  concentration from 0 to 500 ppm  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  because of its consumption in the SCR reaction. At temperatures above 300 °C (results not shown), the inverse situation was observed for the C-oxidation rates: In the absence of  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  they were highest and decreased with increasing  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  concentration since  $NO<sub>2</sub>$ was consumed more rapidly at higher temperatures by the SCR reaction and was no longer available for soot oxidation. This was also confirmed by the  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  consumption, which increased although the C-oxidation rate decreased.

Variation in the NO concentration showed that, without NO, the C-oxidation rate slightly exceeded the values obtained in the experiments with NO in the feed gas, while the  $NO<sub>2</sub>$ consumption increased significantly with the amount of NO. For 100 ppm NO, the C-oxidation rates were still slightly higher than those for 250 ppm and 500 ppm NO because the increased  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  consumption by SCR in the presence of NO led to smaller amounts of  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  being available for soot oxidation. This trend was also observed at 200 and 300 °C; however, at temperatures above 300 °C, the C-oxidation rates in the absence of NO were less than those observed when NO was included in the reactive gas. This result was most likely because in the presence of NO, a smaller amount of the carbon sample was consumed by oxidation with  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  between 250 and 300 °C, which then resulted in the higher C-oxidation rates observed at 350 °C.

The C-oxidation rates for different  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  feed gas concentrations showed that an increase in the  $NO<sub>2</sub>$ concentration led to an expected increase in the C-oxidation rate. In addition, also the absolute  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  consumption increased because of an increased consumption by C-oxidation and SCR reaction (see also Figure 4). With increasing temperature, the C-oxidation rates increased; however, their relative positions were maintained.

The obtained C-oxidati[on](#page-3-0) rates with different  $NH<sub>3</sub>$ , NO and  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  concentrations showed that the influence of the SCR conditions on soot oxidation was relatively weak. This result suggested that nitrogen species involved in the SCR process did not affect the decomposition of the surface functional groups responsible for the soot oxidation, irrespective of whether they are chemisorbed or physisorbed.

3.5. Byproducts Generated in the Presence of  $NO<sub>2</sub>$ , NO, and  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  over Printex U. In all experiments, HCN,  $HNCO$ ,  $N<sub>2</sub>O$ ,  $HNO<sub>3</sub>$ , and  $HONO$  concentrations were also recorded because they are potential reaction intermediates in the SCR reaction and soot oxidation or potential products of unselective side reactions. It seemed that these species were the only byproducts in detectable amounts, since other IR-active byproducts were not found in the spectra. This was supported by the fact that the amount of nitrogen added to the feed gas as  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  and  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  was the same as the sum of nitrogen from  $NO<sub>x</sub>$ ,  $NH<sub>3</sub>$ , HCN, HNCO, N<sub>2</sub>O, HNO<sub>3</sub>, and HONO downstream of the reactor plus the amount of  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  and  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  removed by SCR. In Figure 7 and Figure 8, the concentrations of HCN, HNCO,



Figure 7. Dependence of the byproducts of the SCR reaction on Printex U on the NH<sub>3</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, and NO concentrations at 200 °C.

 $N_2O$ , and  $HNO_3$  are shown for the SCR measurements with different  $NO<sub>2</sub> NH<sub>3</sub>$ , and NO concentrations at 200 and 350 °C, respectively. HONO was not included in the graphs because it showed a distinct cross-sensitivity with  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  in the FTIR analysis and a background shift over the duration of the experiment. However, at the beginning of the measurements after the addition of 250 ppm  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  but before the NH<sub>3</sub> dosage, up to 5 ppm HONO was evolved. Therefore, HONO is reasonably assumed to have also formed in the presence of  $NH<sub>3</sub>$ , although we could not measure it. The  $HNO<sub>3</sub>$ concentrations have to be interpreted carefully because they were also slightly cross-sensitive with NH<sub>3</sub>.

 $NH<sub>3</sub>$  Variation (Figure 7 and Figure 8 - Left Segments). When 250 ppm  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  were dosed to the base feed gas in the absence of  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  $NH<sub>3</sub>$ , small amounts of HCN and HNCO were found in the absence of  $NH_3$ , whereas  $N_2O$  and  $HNO_3$  barely

<span id="page-6-0"></span>

Figure 8. Dependence of byproducts of the SCR reaction on Printex U on the variable NH<sub>3</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, and NO concentrations at 350 °C.

exceeded their detection limits at 200 °C (Figure 7 – left segment). By adding 100 ppm NH<sub>3</sub>, the side-product formation slightly increased, which could be enforced by incre[as](#page-5-0)ing the NH3 concentration to 250 ppm and even more for 500 ppm. HCN, HNCO, and  $N_2O$  exhibited a significant increase in concentration with increasing temperature, as evident from a comparison of the results for the different  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  concentrations at 200 °C (Figure 7 – left segment) and 350 °C (Figure 8 – left segment). The large amounts of HCN and HNCO observed under t[he](#page-5-0)se conditions also explain the slightly increased C-oxidation rates observed when 250 and 500 ppm  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  were dosed (see section 4.4).

HNO<sub>3</sub> showed a different behavior compared to the other components. At 200  $^{\circ}$ C, the concentration of  $HNO<sub>3</sub>$  increased with increasing  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  concentration; however, with increasing temperature, the concentration of  $HNO<sub>3</sub>$  in the outlet gas flow decreased and reached its detection limit at 350 °C, independent of the  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  concentration. This might be construed as a reduced  $HNO<sub>3</sub>$  formation on the soot surface at higher temperatures, but it is more likely that the reaction rate of  $HNO<sub>3</sub>$  was larger than the rate of desorption leading to a reduced concentration in the outlet gas flow.

NO Variation (Figure 7 and Figure 8 - Middle Segments). In the middle of Figure 7 and Figure 8 the amounts of emitted byproducts for different [am](#page-5-0)ounts of NO at constant  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  and  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  concentrations (b[ot](#page-5-0)h 250 ppm) are shown. At 200 °C, small amounts of  $HNO<sub>3</sub>$  were emitted, and these amounts were not influenced by the NO variation or by temperature up to 300 °C (results not shown). However, at 350 °C, no  $HNO<sub>3</sub>$ was detected because the rate of desorption was again smaller than the rate of reaction (Figure 8) as already described for the  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  variation in the previous section. N<sub>2</sub>O showed an increase with increasing temperature but was rather independent of the NO concentration especially at 350 °C. The HCN and HNCO concentrations increased with increasing temperature; interestingly, however, HCN and, to a greater extent, HNCO decreased with increasing NO concentration.

 $NO<sub>2</sub>$  Variation (Figure 7 and Figure 8 - Right Segments). On the right sides of Figure 7 and Figure 8, the results of the HCN, HNC[O](#page-5-0), and  $N_2O$  measurements at different  $NO_2$ concentrations but constant  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  concentration (250 ppm) are presented. Similar to the variation of  $NH<sub>3</sub>$ , increasing temperature and  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  concentration resulted in greater amounts of HCN, HNCO, and  $N_2O$ . HNO<sub>3</sub>, however, again

exceeded its detection limit only at 200 °C because of the higher rate of reaction in comparison to the rate of desorption. With 500 ppm  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  and 250 ppm  $NH<sub>3</sub>$ , concentrations as high as 10 ppm HCN, 14 ppm HNCO, and 10 ppm  $N_2O$  were observed at 350 °C. These values were the highest observed concentrations throughout the experimental series.

Formation Mechanisms of Byproducts. In the following, the formation pathways of the HCN, HNCO,  $N_2O$ , HNO<sub>3</sub>, and HONO will be presented. They are mostly based on reactions known in organic chemistry and are able to explain the ongoing reactions under SCR conditions.

HCN was most probably formed from the decomposition of surface nitriles, which resulted from a reaction between  $NH<sub>3</sub>$ and carboxylic surface functional groups as shown in Figure 9.



Figure 9. Formation of surface nitriles from the reaction between  $NH<sub>3</sub>$ and carboxylic surface species. The  $\alpha$ -carbon atom might be either saturated by hydrogen, alkyl species, or hetero atomic groups (e.g., hydroxylic group).

In the first step,  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  reacted with a carboxylic group, forming a surface amide, which decomposed in a second step similar to the back reaction of liquid-phase nitrile hydrolysis into the surface nitrile: $31$ 

These nitrile groups were indicated by  $C=N$  vibrations that were observe[d in](#page-11-0) the region between 1700 and 1500  $cm^{-1}$  in the DRIFTS measurements during this study; they were also confirmed by Zawadzki et  $al^{27}$  Additionally, we also found absorption bands of acidic groups during the DRIFTS measurements in the 1700-1[50](#page-11-0)0  $cm^{-1}$  (C=O) region and at 1310−1100 cm<sup>−</sup><sup>1</sup> (C−O), as was also previously reported.<sup>22,32</sup> The assumption of a reaction between  $NH<sub>3</sub>$ and carboxylic surface species was supported by two facts: First, th[e gas](#page-11-0) phase concentrations of HCN and also HNCO decreased when the NO concentration was increased (Figure 7 and Figure 8 − middle). This was due to an acceleration of the SCR reaction by NO, which led to a limitation of the amount [of](#page-5-0)  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  available for side reactions. (A decrease of HCN and HNCO because of a redox reaction with NO leading to  $N_2$  and CO or  $CO<sub>2</sub>$ , respectively, could be excluded after an analysis of the oxidation numbers of the involved species.) And second, the amounts of emitted HCN and HNCO increased with increasing  $NO_2$  and  $NH_3$  concentration. In the case of  $NO_2$ variation, this was most probably due to the pronounced capability of  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  to form acidic functional groups on the soot surface.<sup>22</sup> In the case of  $NH<sub>3</sub>$ , however, the increasing amounts of HCN and HNCO were not due to the formation of these acidic f[un](#page-11-0)ctional groups, but to an increase of the amount of NH<sub>3</sub> available for the reaction with previously formed acidic functional groups.

For the decomposition of the surface nitriles under evolution of HCN, two reactions are plausible: The first possibility is the decomposition of the nitrile into an alkene and HCN, similar to

<span id="page-7-0"></span>the back reaction of hydrocyanation.<sup>33,34</sup> The second possibility, in the case of surface hydroxyl nitrile species, is the decomposition into HCN and a ca[rbony](#page-11-0)l species, $35$  as shown in Figure 10.



Figure 10. Decomposition of surface nitriles formed as shown in Figure 9 into HCN and a surface-bound alkene or a surface carbonyl species. R stands for an alkyl species.

We [a](#page-6-0)ssumed that HNCO was formed by the decomposition of surface isocyanates, which were observed in the DRIFTS spectra. We observed a peak with a maximum at  $2208 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ , , which was attributed to isocyanate species.<sup>27,36</sup> These surface isocyanates most likely also originate from surface amides similar to the surface nitriles in Figure 9. Ho[weve](#page-11-0)r, in this case a rearrangement of the surface amides is responsible for the formation of the surface isocyanates. [Th](#page-6-0)is rearrangement on the soot surface might proceed via intermediates similar to those of the Hofmann rearrangement of isolated molecules in the liquid phase,<sup>31,35</sup> as schematically depicted in Figure 11. Because



Figure 11. HNCO formation from the decomposition of surface amides.

hypobromite, which is used as base for the classical Hofmann rearrangement, is missing over soot, we suggest that OH· radicals formed during soot oxidation assume the role of the base for acylnitrene formation. Because the acylnitrene has only an electron sextet, it stabilizes itself through rearrangement to an isocyanate, which was assumed to decompose under the formation of HNCO and an alkene in the last step.

N<sub>2</sub>O resulted from a comproportionation reaction during  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  reduction, which can be formally described by eq 10 or from the oxidation of  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  (eq 11).<sup>5</sup> Therefore, it was expected to increase with the  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  and  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  concentration as well as with temperature. This expected r[e](#page-10-0)sult was confirmed by the

trends presented in Figure 7 and Figure 8. In section 4, it will be shown that eq 10 is the summary of several reaction steps, which are [d](#page-5-0)irectly involved in the  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  reduction; however, here we use the overall equation to sim[pli](#page-6-0)fy matters.

$$
2NH_3 + 2NO_2 \to N_2O + N_2 + 3H_2O \tag{10}
$$

$$
3NH_3 + 4NO_2 \to 3.5N_2O + 4.5H_2O \tag{11}
$$

 $HNO<sub>3</sub>$  and  $HONO$  are known to be formed in the presence of water even at room temperature (RT) on the soot surface by a disproportionation of NO<sub>2</sub> (eq 12).<sup>37–39</sup> The detection of  $HNO<sub>3</sub>$  and HONO during the experiments without  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  in the feed gas suggests that this reaction [al](#page-11-0)s[o](#page-11-0) occurs under the reaction conditions used in our study:

$$
2NO2 + H2O \rightarrow HONO + HNO3
$$
 (12)

Furthermore, HONO could be generated via hydrogen abstraction from the soot surface by  $NO<sub>2</sub>$ , as has been shown in ref.<sup>40</sup> and is known to occur during the partial oxidation of light organic molecules in the gas phase.<sup>41</sup>

[3.6](#page-11-0). SCR Activity of Diesel Soot. After the SCR activity of the synthetic soot Printex U [wa](#page-11-0)s investigated, selected experiments were performed with the real diesel soot (Euro V, Euro 0, and mixed soot) samples to probe the dependence of their  $NO_x$  reduction ability at 250 and 300 °C on the NO,  $NO_2$ , and NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations. At 300  $^{\circ}$ C (Figure 12), the mixed



Figure 12. Dependence of the  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  reduction and  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  conversion over Euro 0 soot, Euro V soot, and the mixed soot sample on the NO concentration at 300 °C compared to Printex U. Concentrations in the basic feed gas: 250 ppm  $NO<sub>2</sub> + 250$  ppm  $NH<sub>3</sub> +$  variable NO concentrations. Blue filled and open diamonds, Printex U; black filled and open triangles, mixed soot; red filled and open squares, Euro V; green filled and open circles, Euro 0. Solid lines and closed symbols:  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  reduction; dotted lines and open symbols:  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  conversion.

soot sample showed a  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  reduction of approximately 14% in the presence of 250 ppm  $NO<sub>2</sub> + 250$  ppm  $NH<sub>3</sub>$ , which is 55% of the  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  reduction obtained for Printex U. With a rate of approximately 5%, the Euro 0 and Euro V soots were only slightly active for  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  reduction at 0 ppm NO. The addition of 100 ppm NO enhanced the rates for all samples.

Similar to the experiments with Printex U, stoichiometric ratios of approximately 1 were measured in the presence of NO, which indicated the fast SCR reaction. In the absence of NO, the stoichiometric ratios increased to 1.4 for all samples, which indicated the  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  SCR reaction. Higher amounts of NO led to a decrease in the  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  reduction for the mixed soot sample and for Printex U, which may appear to indicate a

decreased SCR activity. However, the  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  conversion plotted on the secondary y-axis in Figure 12 increased, which showed that the decrease in the  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  reduction was not due to a loss of activity. In fact, this result was d[ue](#page-7-0) to the limited amount of available  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  and the fact that NO could not be reduced by  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  in the *standard SCR* reaction in the absence of  $NO<sub>2</sub>$ (Figure 3). Apparently, the rates of Euro 0 and Euro V remained constant at approximately 5% in the range of the experime[n](#page-3-0)tal error, even after the addition of 250 ppm and 500 ppm NO. However, because of the low overall conversion, small changes in the  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  reduction rates in the presence of excess NO might not be resolved.

As expected, at 250  $^{\circ}$ C, NO<sub>x</sub> reduction decreased for all of the samples, which led to a rate of approximately 9% for the mixed soot, which is almost two-thirds the rate of Printex U. The rate of less than 3% for the Euro 0 and Euro V soots indicated that they were minimally active for  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  reduction under these conditions. Again, the addition of 100 ppm NO enhanced the rates for all of the samples. Higher amounts of NO led to decreased  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  reduction for the mixed soot sample because excess NO could not be removed, as previously discussed for the experiments conducted at 300 °C.

The trends observed for the variation of the  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  and  $NH<sub>3</sub>$ concentrations at 250 and 300 °C for the real diesel soot samples were similar to those obtained for Printex U; with increasing  $\mathrm{NH}_3$  concentration, the  $\mathrm{NO}_x$  reduction also increased, whereas the  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  reduction decreased with increasing  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  concentration because of the constant  $NH<sub>3</sub>$ concentration. In addition, the order of the soot samples observed for the NO variation was similar, independent of the  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  and  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  concentration; Printex U was the most active, followed by the mixed soot sample, whereas the Euro V and Euro 0 showed the lowest activity in the series.

In Figure 13, the byproducts generated during the SCR measurements at 250 and 300  $^{\circ}$ C with 250 ppm NO<sub>2</sub> and 250



Figure 13. Dependence of the byproducts of the SCR reaction on Printex U, Euro 0 soot, Euro V soot, and the mixed soot sample on the NH<sub>3</sub> at 250 and 300 °C at a GHSV of 35,000  $h^{-1}$ . Concentrations in the basic feed gas: 250 ppm  $NO<sub>2</sub> + 250$  ppm  $NH<sub>3</sub>$ .

ppm NH3 for the three diesel soot samples are shown compared to Printex U. The data clearly demonstrate that with increasing activity of the soot samples, greater amounts of  $N_2O$ , HCN, and HNCO were evolved, whereas less active samples evolved more  $HNO<sub>3</sub>$ . The observed relative trends between the four soot samples were the same for other concentrations of  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  and  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  as well as in the presence of NO.

The C-oxidation rates of the mixed soot sample were barely influenced by changes in the  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  and NO concentrations. The C-oxidation rates of the Euro V and Euro 0 samples, which were lower than the rates of the mixed soot sample independent of the gas composition, were also not influenced by variation of the  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  concentration. In contrast, the variation of NO led to a small decrease in C-oxidation because more NO2 was consumed in the SCR process. An increase in the  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  concentration led to the expected corresponding increase in the C-oxidation rates for the diesel soot samples. However, the measured C-oxidation rates of the diesel soot samples were significantly lower than those obtained for Printex U at 250  $^{\circ}$ C, and this difference was even more pronounced at 300 °C.

In the following section, the reasons that could explain the differences between the four soot samples will be discussed. In the literature, different activated carbon materials with different activities for  $NO_x$  removal have been described;<sup>11,12,18,20,42–48</sup> however, the reasons for their activity could not be definitively clarified. At a minimum, the occurrence of [acidic surf](#page-11-0)a[ce](#page-11-0) functional groups for  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  adsorption was identified as an important property of an SCR-active carbon material.20,49−<sup>52</sup> The authors reported that measures that increased the number of acidic groups also resulted in an increase in the SCR [activ](#page-11-0)i[ty.](#page-11-0) From investigations of the soot oxidation in the presence of  $NO<sub>2</sub>$ <sup>22</sup> we concluded that  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  promotes the formation of surface carboxylic acids and lactones differently on the four soot sam[ples](#page-11-0) used for this study. Therefore, Printex U most likely exhibited the highest activity in the series toward the formation of acidic surface functional groups on the carbon surface, which led to an increased  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  adsorption. This assumption was also supported by the higher amounts of evolved HCN and HNCO (Figure 13) and the increased C-oxidation rates found for Printex U and, to a lesser extent, for mixed soot because acidic surface functional groups decompose at lower temperatures compared to more basic groups.<sup>22</sup>

In addition to the influence of the surface functional groups, alkali metals found in the ashes o[f t](#page-11-0)he diesel soot samples might also contribute to the lower SCR activity compared to that of Printex U (Table 2). These metals are strongly basic, and Ahmed et al. have reported that they inhibit the SCR activity of activated carbons f[or](#page-3-0)  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  removal.<sup>53</sup> However, this hypothesis was not investigated in more detail in the present work.

As already reported by other a[uth](#page-11-0)ors,  $50,53$  the BET surface area did not appear to influence the SCR activity because Printex U showed the highest activity [desp](#page-11-0)ite exhibiting the lowest surface area.

3.7. SCR Effect over Diesel Soot in the Presence of  $H_2SO_4$ . The higher  $NO_x$  reduction activity of the mixed soot sample compared to those of the Euro V and Euro 0 soots was explained by an increased ability of the mixed soot to form acidic surface functional groups. However, the presence of H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> (2.3 wt % – Figure 2), which was observed during the compositional analysis of the mixed soot sample as  $SO_2$ , might also contribute to the hig[he](#page-2-0)r activity. In the literature, the activity of carbon materials for  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  reduction were reported to be increased by impregnation with  $H_2SO_4$  followed by calcination.<sup>18</sup> Again, this enhancement was explained by the increase in the number of acidic surface groups due to the oxidative n[atu](#page-11-0)re of  $H_2SO_4$ . In the mixed soot sample, a similar mechanism is conceivable because the  $H_2SO_4$  might have oxidized the surface during heating to the reaction temperature;

<span id="page-9-0"></span>however, a direct influence of  $H_2SO_4$  on the  $NO_x$  reduction also appeared to be possible. To investigate this hypothesis, isothermal  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  reduction experiments were performed at 200 and 250 °C with Printex U-coated monoliths impregnated with  $H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>$ . The NO<sub>2</sub>, NO, and NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations were varied according to Table 1. The results of the  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  variation are shown in Figure 14. Independent of the  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  concentration and



Figure 14. NO<sub>x</sub> reduction over Printex U impregnated with 5 mg of sulfuric acid at 200 °C (red filled and open circles,) and 250 °C (green filled and open squares) as a function of the  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  concentration. The results for Printex U without impregnation are included for comparison. Concentrations in the basic feed gas:  $250$  ppm  $NO<sub>2</sub>$ and variable  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  concentrations. Dotted line and open symbols: without  $H_2SO_4$ ; solid lines and filled symbols: with  $H_2SO_4$ .

independent of the temperature, the  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  reduction was significantly increased in the presence of  $H_2SO_4$ . Similar results were also observed for the experiments in which NO and  $NO<sub>2</sub>$ were varied. The concentrations of the measured byproducts were similar to those determined in the experiments conducted without  $H_2SO_4$ .

The results supported the hypothesis of a direct influence of  $H_2SO_4$  on the  $NO_x$  reduction activity, which was most likely not due to the formation of more acidic surface functional groups.

## 4. MECHANISM

Before the mechanism of  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  reduction, which was developed based on the experimental data, is described, the most important results and conclusions should be summarized: First, we observed minimal coupling of the C-oxidation rates and the SCR reaction. Therefore, we concluded that the  $NO<sub>x</sub>$ involved in the SCR reaction on soot did not form strong bonds with the soot (e.g., surface nitrates and nitrites) and had a more physisorbed nature. This result also indicates that the HNCO and HCN found in the gas phase and the C−N and C−O bonds of surface species observed in the DRIFTS measurements did not take part in the SCR process and were only involved in the soot oxidation. The adsorption of NH<sub>3</sub>, however, is most likely supported by the presence of acidic surface functional groups because of the acid−base interactions. $^{20,45,48,49,54,55^{\circ}}$ The resulting ammonium ions  $\rm (NH_4^+)$  act as counterions for the acidic surface functional groups; howev[er, the ammon](#page-11-0)ium ions did not seem to influence the decarboxylation of these groups during soot oxidation. Second, stoichiometries were measured, which imply that the  $NO<sub>2</sub> SCR$ (5) reaction is dominant in the absence of NO and that the fast SCR reaction 4 is dominant in the presence of NO. The standard SCR reaction 3 was excluded because of the SCR inactivity of soot in the absence of  $NO<sub>2</sub>$ . Third, HONO and  $HNO<sub>3</sub>$  were formed as byproducts, which was taken as confirmation of the heterogeneous disproportionation of  $NO<sub>2</sub>$ on the soot surface.

The heterogeneous disproportionation of two  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  molecules into HONO and  $HNO<sub>3</sub>$  (eq 12) is likely the initial step of the  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  reduction over soot. This step has not only been discussed in relation to the  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  SCR (eq 5) and fast SCR (eq 4) reactions on [in](#page-7-0)organic catalysts in the presence of  $H_2O^{56}$  but has also been observed on other surfaces [\(e](#page-0-0).g., soot and  $SiO<sub>2</sub>$ [p](#page-0-0)articles) at RT during investigations related to atmos[ph](#page-11-0)eric chemistry.38,39,57 This disproportionation reaction was confirmed in this study by the evolution of HONO and  $HNO<sub>3</sub>$ during th[e measu](#page-11-0)rements:

$$
2NO2 + H2O \rightarrow HONO + HNO3
$$
 (12)

This disproportionation was likely also the step that was promoted by  $H_2SO_4$  that led to the higher  $NO_x$  reduction evident in Figure 14. We assumed that this promotion by  $H_2SO_4$  was due to the protonation of  $N_2O_4$ , which facilitated the attack of water. The presence of  $H_2SO_4$  might also explain the higher  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  reduction ability of the mixed soot sample compared to the Euro 0 and Euro V samples because the composition analysis of the mixed soot showed that it contained up to 2.3%  $H_2SO_4$ .

HONO and  $HNO<sub>3</sub>$  are assumed to remain physisorbed on the surface, where they form ammonium nitrate  $(NH_4NO_3)$ and ammonium nitrite (NH<sub>4</sub>NO<sub>2</sub>) in the presence of NH<sub>3</sub>:<sup>56</sup>

$$
2NH3 + HONO + HNO3 \rightarrow NH4NO2 + NH4NO3
$$
\n(13)

The  $NH<sub>4</sub>NO<sub>2</sub>$  and  $NH<sub>4</sub>NO<sub>3</sub>$  in 13 should be considered as isolated molecules or ionic species at the soot surface and not bulk material. It is important to note that the occurring chemistry is described formally and could also be described using an ionic formulation.

After the formation of the nitrite, it decomposes immediately into nitrogen and water and thereby forms the first nitrogen molecule<sup>6</sup> because  $NH<sub>4</sub>NO<sub>2</sub>$  is unstable at temperatures above 60 °C:  $58$ 

$$
NH4NO2 \rightarrow N2 + H2O
$$
 (14)

The remaining  $NH_4NO_3$  decomposes again into  $HNO_3$  and  $NH_3: ^{59}$ 

$$
NH4NO3 \rightarrow HNO3 + NH3
$$
 (15)

In the fast SCR mechanism, which occurred in the presence of NO, as confirmed by the stoichiometric ratios found in this study, the  $HNO<sub>3</sub>$  is reduced by NO in a subsequent step:<sup>60</sup>

$$
HNO3 + NO \rightarrow NO2 + HONO
$$
 (16)

The formed HONO again reacts with  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  to form  $NH<sub>4</sub>NO<sub>2</sub>$ according to eq 13, which then decomposes to nitrogen and water, eq 14. The summation of reactions 12 and 13−15 leads to the overall equation for the fast SCR reaction, eq 4.

The stoichiometry of the  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  SCR mechanism was observed during the measurements conducted without NO in [t](#page-0-0)he feed gas. In this mechanism, the reactions are similar to the fast SCR mechanism up to eq 15, but eq 16 does not occur because NO is missing as the reducing agent. According to the observed stoichiometric ratio,  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  serves as the reducing agent for  $NH<sub>4</sub>NO<sub>3</sub>$  in the case of the  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  SCR reaction:<sup>59</sup>

<span id="page-10-0"></span>
$$
3NH_4NO_3 + 2NH_3 \to 4N_2 + 9H_2O \tag{17}
$$

The summation of reactions 12, 13−15 and 17 leads to the known overall  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  SCR reaction 5.

The consump[tion](#page-9-0) of  $HNO<sub>3</sub>$  a[ccording to](#page-9-0) reactions 16 and 17 during the SCR process on s[oo](#page-0-0)t was supported by the comparison of the diesel soot samples and Printe[x U](#page-9-0). [The](#page-9-0) diesel soot samples with a lower SCR activity evolved greater amounts of  $HNO<sub>3</sub>$  because it was not consumed in the further SCR process. Therefore, a mechanism that excludes  $NH_4NO_3$ , such as that proposed by Richter et al. and Jüntgen et al., ntgen et al.,<sup>14,15</sup> can probably be excluded for the soot samples used in the present study. Furthermore, the observed  $HNO<sub>3</sub>$  emission[s led](#page-11-0) to the conclusion that the disproportionation step 12 does not limit the SCR reaction and that the presence of adsorption sites for  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  is likely the limiting factor. The SCR che[mist](#page-9-0)ry on the soot surface is summarized schematically in Figure 15.



Figure 15. Suggested mechanism for the selective catalytic reduction of  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  on diesel soot. The dark points symbolize acidic carbon surface species supporting  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  adsorption.

For the sake of completeness, the byproducts produced during the SCR investigations, in addition to HONO and HNO3, will be discussed, although, they were previously discussed in section 4.5.  $N_2O$  was formed according to reaction 18 from the decomposition of  $NH<sub>4</sub>NO<sub>3</sub>$  at temperatures above 200  $\mathrm{^{\circ}C,^{59}}$  which is one part of reaction 10, while the second part of reaction 10 is the formation and decomposition of  $NH<sub>4</sub>NO<sub>2</sub>$  leading to nitrogen and water.

$$
NH4NO3 \rightarrow N2O + 2H2O
$$
 (18)

Another pathway for the formation of  $N_2O$  is the oxidation of NH<sub>3</sub> with NO<sub>2</sub> according to reaction 10.<sup>56</sup> Although HCN and HNCO were formed from the reaction of carboxylic functional groups with  $NH<sub>3</sub>$ , as indica[ted](#page-7-0) [b](#page-11-0)y the DRIFTS investigations, both species did not contribute to the  $NO<sub>x</sub>$ reduction.

# 5. CONCLUSIONS

The investigations of the reduction of  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  by the SCR reaction with NH<sub>3</sub> showed that model and diesel soot samples were able to remove  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  in model exhaust gases up to 25% at 35,000  $h^{-1}$ . The disproportionation of  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  is the initial step of the SCR process on soot. Therefore, the presence of  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  in the feed gas was a prerequisite because the oxidation of NO was kinetically inhibited because of the high space velocities.

However, when both NO and  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  were present in the feed gas, the SCR activity was higher than that measured in the absence of NO because the fast SCR reaction proceeded. In the absence of NO in the feed gas, the  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  SCR reaction pathway

was followed. The presence of alkali metals might inhibit the SCR activity.

One may argue that soot cannot be regarded as catalyst in our study because it is consumed during the reaction. However, the consumption of the soot catalyst is due to the oxidation of soot by oxygen and  $NO<sub>2</sub>$ , which was shown by us to be independent of the SCR reaction. Therefore, the oxidation of soot can be discussed separately from the SCR reaction. Considering the effect of soot on the SCR reaction itself, we did not observe any SCR activity in a blank experiment with uncoated cordierites but in the presence of soot a SCR effect was observed, that is, soot has to be regarded as catalyst for this specific reaction. Since the *fast* and the  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  SCR reaction do not require a redox-active component, the catalytic function of soot is to provide adsorption sites for ammonia as well as  $NO<sub>x</sub>$ species.

We believe that the observed SCR effect on diesel soot can be exploited to improve future diesel exhaust aftertreatment systems, where both DPF and SCR systems have to be used in series to reach the desired emission limits. Current research activities are aimed at the combination of both aftertreatment systems into a single device, for example, in the form of an SCR-coated DPF, to reduce size and weight. Such a combined system requires urea dosage upstream of the SCR-DPF device. Because  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  is usually produced from NO in a diesel oxidation catalyst to facilitate regeneration of the DPF and to promote the SCR reaction, the relevance of the present study becomes apparent. The observed SCR activity of diesel soot might allow a reduction of the amount of SCR catalyst on such a SCRcoated DPF. However, further investigations are necessary to determine whether the SCR activity of soot is as high in the presence of an SCR catalyst as in the absence of a catalyst.

# ■ AUTHOR INFORMATION

#### Corresponding Author

\*E-mail: oliver.kroecher@psi.ch.

#### Funding

We tha[nk the Swiss Nationa](mailto:oliver.kroecher@psi.ch)l Fund for financial support (Project # 200021\_125257).

## Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

# ■ ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank Dr. D. Rothe (MAN) for providing the diesel soot samples.

#### ■ REFERENCES

- (1) Neeft, J. P. A.; Makkee, M.; Moulijn, J. A. Fuel Process. Technol. 1996, 47 (1), 1−69.
- (2) Twigg, M. V. Appl. Catal., B 2007, 70 (1−4), 2−15.
- (3) Stanmore, B. R.; Brilhac, J. F.; Gilot, P. Carbon 2001, 39 (15), 2247−2268.
- (4) Koebel, M.; Elsener, M.; Kleemann, M. Catal. Today 2000, 59 (3−4), 335−345.
- (5) Krö cher, O.; Devadas, M.; Elsener, M.; Wokaun, A.; Soger, N.; Pfeifer, M.; Demel, Y.; Mussmann, L. Appl. Catal., B 2006, 66 (3−4), 208−216.
- (6) Yeom, Y. H.; Henao, J.; Li, M. J.; Sachtler, W. M. H.; Weitz, E. J. Catal. 2005, 231 (1), 181−193.
- (7) Colombo, M.; Nova, I.; Tronconi, E. Catal. Today 2010, 151 (3− 4), 223−230.
- (8) Grossale, A.; Nova, I.; Tronconi, E. Catal. Today 2008, 136 (1− 2), 18−27.
- <span id="page-11-0"></span>(9) Lietti, L.; Nova, I.; Ramis, G.; Dall'Acqua, L.; Busca, G.; Giamello, E.; Forzatti, P.; Bregani, F. J. Catal. 1999, 187 (2), 419−435.
- (10) Koebel, M.; Elsener, M.; Madia, G. SAE Technical Paper Series. 2001, SAE 2001-01-3625.
- (11) Jü ntgen, H.; Knoblauch, K.; Richter, E.; Schmidt, H.-J.; Folz, M. 1980, DE 2911712.
- (12) Jü ntgen, H.; Richter, E.; Knoblauch, K.; Hoang-Phu, T. Chem. Eng. Sci. 1988, 43 (3), 419−428.
- (13) Knoblauch, K.; Richter, E.; Jüntgen, H. Fuel 1981, 60 (9), 832− 838.
- (14) Richter, E.; Knoblauch, K.; Jüntgen, H. Gas Sep. Purif. 1987, 1 (1), 35−43.
- (15) Jü ntgen, H. Erd. Koh. Erdg. Petr. V. 1986, 39 (12), 546−551.
- (16) Muniz, J.; Marban, G.; Fuertes, A. B. Appl. Catal., B 1999, 23  $(1)$ , 25−35.
- (17) Shirahama, N.; Mochida, I.; Korai, Y.; Choi, K. H.; Enjoji, T.; Shimohara, T.; Yasutake, A. Appl. Catal., B 2005, 57 (4), 237−245.
- (18) Izquierdo, M. T.; Rubio, B.; de Yuso, A. M.; Ballestero, D. Fuel Process. Technol. 2011, 92 (7), 1362−1367.
- (19) Jü ntgen, H.; Richter, E.; Kuhl, H. Fuel 1988, 67 (6), 775−780. (20) Ku, B. J.; Lee, J. K.; Park, D.; Rhee, H.-K. Ind. Eng. Chem. Res. 1994, 33 (11), 2868−2874.
- (21) Mehring, M. Ph.D. Thesis No. 19993, ETH Zü rich, Switzerland, 2011.
- (22) Muckenhuber, H.; Grothe, H. Carbon 2007, 45 (2), 321−329. (23) Neeft, J. P. A.; Nijhuis, T. X.; Smakman, E.; Makkee, M.;
- Moulijn, J. A. Fuel 1997, 76 (12), 1129−1136. (24) Setiabudi, A.; Makkee, M.; Moulijn, J. A. Appl. Catal., B 2004, 50
- (3), 185−194. (25) Mehring, M.; Elsener, M.; Kröcher, O. J. Therm. Anal. Calorim. 2011, 105 (2), 545−552.
- (26) Mehring, M.; Elsener, M.; Kröcher, O. MTZ 2011, 72 (9), 690− 696.
- (27) Zawadzki, J.; Wisniewski, M. Carbon 2003, 41 (12), 2257−2267.
- (28) Messerer, A.; Niessner, R.; Poschl, U. Carbon 2006, 44 (2), 307−324.
- (29) Jacquot, F.; Logie, V.; Brilhac, J. F.; Gilot, P. Carbon 2002, 40 (3), 335−343.
- (30) Jeguirim, M.; Tschamber, V.; Brilhac, J. F.; Ehrburger, P. J. Anal. Appl. Pyrol. 2004, 72 (1), 171−181.
- (31) Vollhardt, K.; Schore, N. Organische Chemie; Wiley VCH: Weinheim, Germany, 2000; Vol. 3.
- (32) Dandekar, A.; Baker, R. T. K.; Vannice, M. A. Carbon 1998, 36 (12), 1821−1831.
- (33) Keim, W.; Behr, A.; Lü hr, H. O.; Weisser, J. J. Catal. 1982, 78 (1), 209−216.
- (34) Puentes, E.; Noels, A. F.; Warin, R.; Hubert, A. J.; Teyssie, P.; ́ Waddan, D. Y. J. Mol. Catal. 1985, 31 (2), 183−190.
- (35) Brü ckner, R. Reaktionsmechanismen; Springer: Heidelberg, Germany, 2003; Vol. 2.
- (36) Matyshak, V. A.; Krylov, O. V. Today 1995, 25 (1), 1−87.
- (37) Akimoto, H.; Bandow, H.; Sakamaki, F.; Inoue, G.; Hoshino, M.; Okuda, M. Environ. Sci. Technol. 1980, 14 (2), 172−179.
- (38) Kleffmann, J.; Becker, K. H.; Wiesen, P. Atmos. Environ. 1998, 32 (16), 2721−2729.
- (39) Sakamaki, F.; Shiro, H.; Akimoto, H. Int. J. Chem. Kin. 1980, 15, 1013−1029.
- (40) Stadler, D.; Rossi, M. J. Phys. Chem. Chem. Phys. 2000, 2 (23), 5420−5429.
- (41) Otsuka, K.; Takahashi, R.; Amakawa, K.; Yamanaka, I. Catal. Today 1998, 45 (1−4), 23−28.
- (42) Aarna, I.; Suuberg, E. M. Fuel 1997, 76 (6), 475−491.
- (43) Izquierdo, M. T.; Rubio, B.; Mayoral, C.; Andrés, J. M. Fuel 2003, 82 (2), 147−151.
- (44) Kuhl, H.; Baumann, H.; Juntgen, H.; Ehrburger, P.; Dentzer, J.; Lahaye, J. Fuel 1989, 68 (1), 129−130.
- (45) Martin-Martinez, J. M.; Singoredjo, L.; Mittelmeijer-Hazeleger, M.; Kapteijn, F.; Moulijn, J. A. Carbon 1994, 32 (5), 897−904.
- (46) Mochida, I.; Kishino, M.; Kawano, S.; Sakanishi, K.; Korai, Y.; Yasutake, A.; Yoshikawa, M. Fuel 1998, 77 (15), 1741−1746.
- (47) Richter, E.; Kleinschmidt, R.; Pilarczyk, E.; Knoblauch, K.; Jontgen, H. Thermochim. Acta 1985, 85, 315−318.
- (48) Singoredjo, L.; Kapteijn, F.; Moulijn, J. A.; Martin-Martinez, J.- M.; Boehm, H.-P. Carbon 1993, 31 (1), 213−222.
- (49) Ahmed, S. N.; Baldwin, R.; Derbyshire, F.; McEnaney, B.; Stencel, J. Fuel 1993, 72 (3), 287−292.
- (50) Izquierdo, M. T.; Rubio, B.; Mayoral, C.; Andrés, J. M. Appl. Catal., B 2001, 33 (4), 315−324.
- (51) Komatsubara, Y.; Ida, S.; Fujitsu, H.; Mochida, I. Fuel 1984, 63 (12), 1738−1742.
- (52) Mochida, I.; Kawano, S. Ind. Eng. Chem. Res. 1991, 30 (10), 2322−2327.
- (53) Ahmed, S. N.; Stencel, J. M.; Derbyshire, F. J.; Baldwin, R. M. Fuel Process. Technol. 1993, 34 (2), 123−136.
- (54) Lee, J. K.; Park, T. J.; Park, D.; Park, S. Ind. Eng. Chem. Res. 1993, 32 (9), 1882−1887.
- (55) Szymanski, G. S.; Grzybek, T.; Papp, H. Catal. Today 2004, 90  $(1-2)$ , 51–59.
- (56) Devadas, M.; Krö cher, O.; Elsener, M.; Wokaun, A.; Soger, N.; Pfeifer, M.; Demel, Y.; Mussmann, L. Appl. Catal., B 2006, 67 (3−4), 187−196.
- (57) Grassian, V. H. J. Phys. Chem. A 2002, 106 (6), 860−877.
- (58) Laue, W.; Thiemann, M.; Scheibler, E.; Wiegand, K. W. Nitrates and Nitrites. In Ullmann's Encyclopedia of Industrial Chemistry, Wiley-VCH: Weinheim, Germany, 2012; pp 149−176.
- (59) Grossale, A.; Nova, I.; Tronconi, E. Catal. Lett. 2009, 130 (3), 525−531.
- (60) Nova, I.; Ciardelli, C.; Tronconi, E.; Chatterjee, D.; Bandl-Konrad, B. Catal. Today 2006, 114 (1), 3−12.