E Catalysis

Positive Effects of K⁺ lons on Three-Dimensional Mesoporous Ag/ $Co₃O₄$ Catalyst for HCHO Oxidation

Bingyang Bai[†] and Junhua Li*^{,†,‡}

[†]State Key Joint Laboratory of Envir[onm](#page-8-0)ent Simulation and Pollution Control, School of Environment, Tsinghua University, Beijing 100084, China

‡ State Environmental Protection Key Laboratory of Sources and Control of Air Pollution Complex, Beijing 100084, China

ABSTRACT: Three-dimensional (3D) ordered mesoporous Ag/ Co_3O_4 and K $-Ag/Co_3O_4$ catalysts were successfully prepared on the basis of $3D-Co₃O₄$. All catalysts possess 3D mesoporous structures, which are not affected due to Ag and K addition. Ag nanoparticles, uniformly dispersed and supported on the polycrystalline wall of K− $Ag/Co₃O₄$, provide sufficient active sites for HCHO oxidation reaction. 1.7% K-Ag/Co₃O₄ has turnover frequencies (TOFs) of 0.22 s⁻¹ at 60 °C and 2.62 s⁻¹ at 100 °C, and its HCHO conversion at room temperature is 55% (HCHO 100 ppm and GHSV 30000 h⁻¹). The addition of K⁺ ions obviously promotes the catalytic performance for HCHO oxidation due to surface OH[−] species provided by K^+ ions and more abundant Ag(111) active faces, Co^{3+} cations and surface lattice oxygen (O^{2-}) species generated by

stronger interaction between Ag and Co and anion lattice defects. Ag(111) faces, Co^{3+} ions, and O^{2-} are active species. Combined with TOFs, at low temperature (<80 °C), the HCHO catalytic activity on K−Ag/Co₃O₄ catalyst largely depends on the surface OH[−] species at the perimeter of the Ag(111) facets; at relatively high temperature (>80 °C), the surface OH[−] species are consumed and replaced quickly, and their supplement relies on the migration of O^{2-} species from 3D-Co₃O₄ support. The pathway of reaction for HCHO oxidation on the K−Ag/Co₃O₄ follows the HCHO → CHOO[−] + OH[−] → CO₂ + H₂O route. KEYWORDS: three-dimensional mesoporous, $Co₃O₄$, HCHO oxidation, silver, potassium ions

1. INTRODUCTION

Formaldehyde (HCHO) emitted from widely used building and decorative materials, oil paints, textiles, and hospitals, has photochemical activity in the atmosphere.¹ It is one of the most dominant air pollutants in an indoor environment.² Long-term exposure to indoor air containing even a f[e](#page-8-0)w parts per milion of HCHO may lead to serious and hazardous effect[s](#page-8-0) on human health. Thus, great efforts have been made to reduce the indoor emission of HCHO for satisfying stringent environmental regulations.^{3,4} Conversional absorbing materials have beenused to eliminate HCHO emission, but the efficiency of removal has not been e[xce](#page-8-0)llent because of the limited capacities.⁴ Catalytic oxidation is a better method to remove HCHO, but the key is the choice of catalytic materials. Currently, th[e](#page-8-0) catalytic materials used in catalytic oxidation of HCHO are mainly oxide-supported noble metal (Pt, Pd, Au an Ag) catalysts, such as Pt/MnO_x–CeO₂,³ Pt/TiO₂,^{4–7} Pt/MnO₂,⁸ Pt/Fe₂O₃,⁹ Pt/ SiO_{2} , 10 Pd/TiO₂,¹¹ Pd/Beta,¹² Pd–Mn/Al₂O₃,¹³ Au/ $CeO₂$ $CeO₂$ $CeO₂$, 14–16 Au/Fe₂O₃, ¹⁷ Au[/Zr](#page-8-0)O₂, ¹⁸ Au[/C](#page-8-0)o₃O₄–CeO₂, ¹⁹ $Au/\overline{CeO}_2 - \overline{Co}_3O_4$ $Au/\overline{CeO}_2 - \overline{Co}_3O_4$ $Au/\overline{CeO}_2 - \overline{Co}_3O_4$ ^{2[0](#page-8-0)} Ag/SBA-15,^{[21](#page-8-0)} Ag/HMO,²² A[g/S](#page-8-0)iO₂,²³ Ag/C[eO](#page-8-0)₂,^{[24](#page-8-0)} Ag/MnO_x-[Ce](#page-8-0)O₂,²⁵ etc. I[n](#page-8-0) addition, several me[tal](#page-8-0) oxide catalysts for [the](#page-8-0) oxidation o[f H](#page-8-0)CHO, suc[h as](#page-8-0) $K_{x}MnO_{2}^{26}$ $K_{x}MnO_{2}^{26}$ $K_{x}MnO_{2}^{26}$ Co/Zr_{22}^{27} [a](#page-8-0)nd mesoporous $Co-Mn_{28}^{28}$ [C](#page-8-0)r₂O₃²⁹ and 3D- $Co₃O₄³⁰$ etc., have been reported. Compared with me[tal](#page-8-0) oxide [ca](#page-9-0)talysts, oxide-supported nobl[e](#page-9-0) metal [cat](#page-9-0)alysts can

provide sufficient noble metal active sites for the oxidation of HCHO, and they have better HCHO catalytic activity at low temperature, probably attributed to the interaction of the metal with the support. However, these catalysts would not possess excellent catalytic activities of HCHO at much lower temperature if precious metal were not added.

In recent years, more attention has been paid to mesoporous metal oxides because of their special pore structure, large surface area, controllable pore diameter, and pore volume.^{30–35} Interaction of a noble metal and support in oxide-supported noble metal catalysts has been proven to have an extr[emely](#page-9-0) beneficial effect on catalytic activity.^{36–38} An et al.³⁹prepared three-dimensional (3D) $Pt/Co₃O₄$ catalyst, which is better than other oxide-supported Pt catalysts o[n cata](#page-9-0)lytic perf[orm](#page-9-0)ance of CO oxidation, such as 3D Pt/NiO, Pt/MnO_2 , Pt/CeO_2 , and so on, because the interaction of Pt with Co is stronger and the interface of Pt and $Co₃O₄$ is the active surface phase. Ma et al.⁴⁰ reported 3D Au/ $Co₃O₄$ had much higher catalytic activity for ethylene oxidation due to the insertion of Au into crystalli[ne](#page-9-0) walls of $Co₃O₄$. The insertion probably leads to a stronger interaction of Au and Co and increases quantities of $Co³⁺$

Received: May 15, 2014 Revised: June 25, 2014

cations exposed on the (110) crystal planes and surface active oxygen species, which are favorable for the oxidation reaction. Liu et al.⁴¹ also reported 3D Au/Co₃O₄ has excellent oxidation performance for carbon monoxide, benzene, toluene, and oxylene b[eca](#page-9-0)use of a higher surface area, more oxygen adspecies, and stronger interaction between Au and Co.

At present, the development of effective catalysts for complete oxidation of low concentrations of HCHO at lower temperatures, even room temperature is still a challenge to be solved. Although the catalysts loading Pt nanoparticles have better HCHO catalytic activity,⁴⁻⁷ the precursors of Pt nanoparticles are much more expensive than those of Ag nanoparticles. For instance, the [pric](#page-8-0)e of Pt per gram for $H_2PtCl_6·6H_2O$ is about 20 times more than that of Ag per gram for $AgNO₃$ on the Sigma-Aldrich website. Our previous literature has reported that 3D ordered mesoporous $Co₃O₄$ has more advantages (special mesoporous structure, larger surface area, and more active phase) to eliminate HCHO and can become a promising support because of complete HCHO conversion at $130 °C.^{30}3D-Co₃O₄$ loading Ag nanoparticles for the catalytic performance of HCHO oxidation has not been reported. In additio[n,](#page-9-0) the literature has reported that alkali metal ions can promote the catalytic performance. For example, Nie et al.⁴² reported that the addition Na⁺ ions into $Pt/TiO₂$ can promote the catalytic activity of HCHO oxidation. Avgouro[pou](#page-9-0)los et al.⁴³ prepared K-promoted Pt/Al_2O_3 catalyst, which enhanced the oxidation activity of ethanol at low temperature and is [bet](#page-9-0)ter than Na-promoted Pt/Al_2O_3 . Hence, we would like to choose alkali metal K^+ ions as an accessory ingredient to improve HCHO oxidation activity of $Ag/Co₃O₄$ catalyst and analyze the effect of K^+ ions for Ag/Co₃O₄ catalyst.

In this work, 3D mesoporous $Ag/Co₃O₄$ catalyst was prepared by an excessive impregnation method on the basis of 3D-Co₃O₄. The K⁺ ions as accessory an ingredient were added to $Ag/Co₃O₄$ to prepare the K–Ag/Co₃O₄ catalyst. The interaction of the noble metal and support, oxygen species and lattice defects have been proven to have extremely favorable effects on catalytic performance.^{9–12} With the addition of K⁺ ions, we anticipate that K-Ag/Co₃O₄ promotes a stronger interaction of Ag and Co, more l[att](#page-8-0)ice defects, and abundant surface active oxygen species, which can enhance the catalytic activity of HCHO. The samples are characterized by XRD, BET, TEM, H₂-TPR, CO-TPD, XPS, Raman, and in situ DRIFTS, and their catalytic activity of HCHO was evaluated.

2. EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

2.1. Catalyst Preparation. Synthesis of KIT-6 mesoporous silica and preparation of mesoporous $3D-Co₃O₄$ refer to the previous literature.³⁰

Preparation of mesoporous Ag/Co₃O₄ and K-Ag/Co₃O₄: 0.16 g of AgNO₃ [wa](#page-9-0)s dissolved in 15 mL of ammonia–water (28 wt %) to form a silver−ammonia solution. Subsequently, 1.5 g of 3D-Co₃O₄ was added to the solution, and then 22.7 mL of H_2O_2 (30 wt %) was dropwise added with rapid stirring. The mixtures were stirred for 1 h, and centrifugal separation was used to remove the liquid phases. The samples were dried at 110 °C and calcined at 450 °C for 4 h. The Ag content was 8.2 wt % and detected by ICP-OES. The sample was marked as $Ag/Co₃O₄$. The preparation of different K–Ag/Co₃O₄ samples is similar to Ag/Co₃O₄. The difference was the silver–ammonia solution, which was added to K_2CO_3 (0.53 and 1.1 g). The Ag contents $(6.1 \text{ and } 6.4 \text{ wt } \%)$ and K contents $(0.9 \text{ and } 1.7 \text{ wt } \%)$

were detected by ICP-OES, and the samples were marked as 0.9% K–Ag/Co₃O₄ and 1.7% K–Ag/Co₃O₄.

2.2. Catalyst Characterization. The structural parameter, pore size distribution and N_2 adsorption isotherms of the samples were tested at liquid nitrogen temperature using an Autocorb-1MP apparatus. The samples were pretreated at 300 $\rm ^{\circ}C$ for 4 h before testing. The N₂ adsorption–desorption isotherm used the Barrett−Joyner−Halenda (BJH) method. The SEM image was taken on S-5500 instrument. The samples were prepared by ultrasonic dispersion in deionized water for 8 min and were placed on a copper grid using a capillary. XRD patterns were tested on a TTR3 type X-ray diffractometer using a Cu K α ray radiation source. The scanning speed was 0.05 $^{\circ}$ / min, tube voltage was 40 kV, and tube current was 40 mA. The 2θ of the low-angle XRD was from 0.6 to 5°, and the 2θ of the wide-angle was from 10 to 80°. TEM images were taken on a JEM-2011 instrument at a voltage of 200 kV.

The samples were prepared by ultrasonic dispersion in ethanol for 8 min and were placed on a copper grid using a capillary. The XPS patterns were measured on a PHI-5300/ ESCA electronic energy spectrum at 300 W using Mg Ka X-rays as the excitation source. The data were processed by the XPS-PEAK software, and surface element contents were calculated through XPS peak areas. The inding energies (BE) of the elements were calibrated relative to the carbon impurity with a C 1s at 284.8 eV.²⁴ Laser Raman spectra were measured on a Renishaw Laser Raman spectrometer. Ar^{+} (514.5 nm) and He– Cd lasers (325 n[m\)](#page-8-0) were used as the excitation source. The H_2 -TPR were tested on a Chemisorb 2720 TPX apparatus; 0.05 g of samples (40–60 mesh) was pretreated in the N_2 flow at 300 °C for 1 h in a quartz reactor prior. The samples were cooled and reduced by a flow (50 mL/min) of a 10% $H₂/90%$ Ar mixture using a temperature range of 30−900 °C with a heating rate of 10 K/min.

The H_2 consumptions of the reduction band were calibrated by a standard CuO (99.998%) powder. The characteristic number $K = S_0/FC_0$ (where S_0 is the amount of reducible species in the sample; F and C_0 are the flow and concentration of the hydrogen feed to the reactor) should be kept between 51 and 56 s, and the parameter $P = \beta S_0 / F C_0$ (where β is the heating rate), between 8.5 and 9.3 K.^{44,45} The CO-TPD was also tested on the above instrument. Portions (0.05 g) of samples were treated at room tempera[ture](#page-9-0) with 50 mL/min of N_2 (5% of CO) for 1 h. The temperature was programmed to increase to 450 °C at a rate of 10 °C/min after the samples adsorbed enough CO. The in situ diffuse reflectance FTIR spectroscopy (DRIFTS) patterns were tested on a Nicolet 6700 FTIR device and scanned from 4000 to 800 cm[−]¹ with 32 scans at a resolution of 4 $\rm cm^{-1}$. Samples (0.05 g) were tested at 120 °C under the following conditions: 500 ppm of HCHO concentration, 150 mL/min of total flow, 20 vol % O_2 , N_2 as balance gas.

2.3. Evaluation of Catalytic Activity. The catalytic oxidation of HCHO was tested in a fixed bed quartz tube reactor (Φ10 mm) with 0.2 g catalyst (40−60 mesh). HCHO gas was generated and injected using a N_2 bubbler in a lowtemperature thermostatic bath at 0 °C that passed through two containers filled with formalin (an aqueous solution of 37% HCHO). The total flow rate was 100 mL/min and included 100 ppm of HCHO and 20% (vol) of O_2 balanced by N_2 . The space velocity (GHSV) was 30 000 h⁻¹. The products of the reaction were detected online by an Agilent 7890A gas chromatograph with TCD and MSD connecting to Porapak-

Figure 1. HCHO Conversion (A), TOFs (B), and Arrhenius plots (C) of HCHO oxidation on the samples.

Table 1. Chemical and Physical Parameter and Oxidation Activity at Room Temperature of the Different Catalysts

	content ^a (wt %)			surface area (m^2/g)					
sample	Ag	K	dispersion ^b $(\%)$, $D_{\rm Ag}$	particle size, $d_{\rm co}$ (nm)	$A_{\rm BET}$	$A_{\rm BH}$	pore volume, V_n $\left(\text{cm}^3/\text{g}\right)$	pore diameter, $D_{\rm p}$ (nm)	oxidation activity ^a conversion $(\%)$
$3D-Co_3O_4$					87.8	103.2	0.210	4.3	Ω
Ag/Co ₃ O ₄	8.2		29.7	3.8	59.8	35.1	0.193	1.9	2
$0.9\% K-Ag/$ Co ₃ O ₄	6.1	0.9	13.3	8.5	67.9	41.6	0.203	1.9	16
$1.7\% K-Ag/$ Co ₃ O ₄	6.4	1.7	8.1	13.9	64.3	38.5	0.196	1.9	55

 a Ag and K contents obtained by ICP-OES. b Ag dispersion calculated by CO chemical adsorptions. ^cAverage Ag particle size estimated by Ag dispersion. ^d HCHO conversion at room temperature (28 °C).

Q and HP-INNOWAX columns, respectively. No carbon products other than $CO₂$ were detected. The HCHO conversion was calculated from a carbon balance (i.e., 1 mol of HCHO forms 1 mol of $CO₂$). For kinetics measurement, the HCHO conversion is kept below 15%. Kinetics data were tested under the condition of HCHO 400 ppm and GHSV 30 000 h⁻¹ for 3D-Co₃O₄, HCHO 1200 ppm and GHSV 165 000 h⁻¹ for Ag/Co₃O₄ and 0.9% K−Ag/Co₃O₄, and HCHO 2000 ppm and GHSV 165 000 h⁻¹ for 1.7% K-Ag/Co₃O₄. The total flows all contain 20% (vol) of O_2 and N_2 as the equilibrium gas. The HCHO conversion was calculated from the $CO₂$ content as follows:

$$
HCHO conversion (\%) = \frac{[CO_2]_{out}}{[HCHO]_{in}} \times 100\%
$$

 $[CO₂]_{out}$ and $[HCHO]_{in}$ in the formula are the $CO₂$ concentration in the products and the HCHO concentration of the flow gas, respectively.

Turnover frequency (TOF) is defined as the number of HCHO molecules converted per surface Ag $(2-1)$ or $Co³⁺$ $(2-$ 2) per second.

turnover rate =
$$
\frac{C_{\text{HCHO}} X_{\text{HCHO}} V_{\text{gas}} M_{\text{Ag}}}{m_{\text{cat}} w_{\text{Ag}D_{\text{Ag}}}} [s^{-1}]
$$
 (2-1)

$$
\text{turnover rate} = \frac{C_{\text{HCHO}} X_{\text{HCHO}} V_{\text{gas}}}{n_{\text{Co}^{3+}}} [s^{-1}]
$$
\n(2-2)

where m_{cat} is the mass of catalyst in the reactor bed; V_{gas} , the total molar flow rate; X_{HCHO} , the conversion of HCHO based on CO_2 formation; C_{HCHO} , the concentration of HCHO in gas mixture; M_{Ag} , the atomic weight of Ag; w_{Ag} , the mass fraction of silver tested by ICP-OES; D_{Ag} , the dispersion of silver estimated by CO chemical adsorption; and n_{Co}^{3+} , the mole number of $Co³⁺$ ions per gram of $Co₃O₄$ catalyst calculated by H_2 -TPR.

Figure 2. (A) Wide-angle and (B) low-angle XRD patterns of (a) 3D-Co₃O₄, (b) Ag/Co₃O₄, (c) 0.9% K−Ag/Co₃O₄, and (d) 1.7% K−Ag/Co₃O₄.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1. Performance Test of HCHO Catalytic Oxidation. Figure 1 shows the catalytic performance of HCHO on various catalysts. From Figure 1A, with the increase in the temperatures, [t](#page-2-0)he complete conversion of $3D-Co₃O₄$ catalyst is dislayed at 110 °C. $Ag/Co₃O₄$ catalyst has better lowtemperature conversion than $3D-Co₃O₄$ catalyst because the addition of Ag can provide sufficient active sites for the HCHO oxidation reaction. Complete conversion of $Ag/Co₃O₄$ catalyst is exhibited at 100 °C. The existence of K^+ ions obviously promotes the catalytic activity of HCHO oxidation. Complete conversion of 0.9% K–Ag/Co₃O₄ is obtained at 80 °C. With the increase in the K⁺ ion content, 1.7% K−Ag/Co₃O₄ catalyst shows the best catalytic performance. Its complete conversion is displayed at 70 °C. HCHO conversions of the samples at room temperature are shown in Table 1. The 1.7% K−Ag/ $Co₃O₄$ has a better catalytic activity for HCHO oxidation (i.e., 55% of conversion at room temperature[\).](#page-2-0) Figure 1B displays the TOFs of Ag/Co₃O₄, 0.9% K−Ag/Co₃O₄ and 1.7% K−Ag/ $Co₃O₄$, respec[t](#page-2-0)ively, are 0.011, 0.092, and 0.22 s⁻¹ at 60 °C and are 0.15, 1.85, and 2.62 s⁻¹ at 100 °C. 3D-Co₃O₄ has a TOF of only 0.0015 s⁻¹ at 100 °C due to only Co^{3+} ions as the active phase, which is calculated by the H₂ consumption of $Co^{3+} \rightarrow$ $Co²⁺$. The TOF of 1.7% K–Ag/Co₃O₄ is the largest of all the samples because of the increase in the K content. For comparison, the previously reported Ag−HMO nanorods for HCHO oxidation had a TOF of 0.006 s $^{-1}$ at 60 $^{\circ}$ C, and the Ag/ CeO₂ nanosphere had a TOF of 0.005 s⁻¹ at 110 °C.^{22,24} The values are much lower than the 3D mesoporous $Ag/Co₃O₄$ and $K-Ag/Co₃O₄$ catalyst. Figure 1C shows the Arrheniu[s plot](#page-8-0)s for the rates of HCHO oxidation over the samples. The apparent activation energy of the reac[tio](#page-2-0)n is 59.7 kJ/mol on the 3D- $Co₃O₄$, 50.1 kJ/mol on the Ag/ $Co₃O₄$, 37.5 kJ/mol on the 0.9% K-Ag/Co₃O₄, and 28.5 kJ/mol on the 1.7% K-Ag/ $Co₃O₄$. The 1.7% K-Ag/Co₃O₄ has the lowest apparent activation energy, which indicates that HCHO molecules are easily adsorbed and activated on the sample. Therefore, the addition of K^+ ions obviously promotes the catalytic performance for HCHO oxidation.

3.2. Structure Analysis. From the wide-angle XRD patterns in Figure 2A, one can see that the catalysts have diffraction peaks at 19°, 31.3°, 36.9°, 38.2°, 44.5°, 55.6°, 59.4° and 65.3 $^{\circ}$ (2 θ), corresponding to the (111), (220), (311), (222), (400), (422), (511), and (440) planes.^{30,40} It indicates that the samples possess the crystalline cobaltosic oxide with spinel type structure. For the K–Ag/Co₃O₄ sample, the (111), (200), and (220) facets of the Ag crystalline phases (PDF no. 65-2871), corresponding to 38.1°, 44.3°, and 64.4° (2 θ), were observed. From Table 1, the Ag content of $Ag/Co₃O₄$ is 8.2 wt %, larger than that of K–Ag/Co₃O₄ (~6 wt %). The Ag/Co₃O₄ sample with larger Ag [c](#page-2-0)ontent does not possess the Ag phase, whereas the K−Ag/Co₃O₄ sample with a lower Ag content has the Ag phase, and the half-width of the Ag diffraction peak for K–Ag/Co₃O₄ narrows with the increase in the K⁺ ions. The results indicate that the addition of K^+ ions increases the crystallite size of the Ag and decreases the Ag dispersion (Table 1). Figure 2B shows that the $3D-Co₃O₄$ catalyst has the 211, 220, and 332 diffraction peaks that correspond to 1°, 1.14°, and [1](#page-2-0).85° (2θ) .³⁰ The 211 peak intensity decrease, and the 220 peak disappears with the addition of Ag and K, which is due to the porou[s](#page-9-0) regularity to be diminished. The low-angle diffraction peaks indicate that all samples are mesoporous materials with a 3D porous structure characteristic.³⁵

The N_2 physical adsorption and pore size distribution patterns of the catalysts are displayed in Figure 3. [Al](#page-9-0)l samples have type IV isotherms, 46 which indicates that the 3D mesoporous structure is not affected by Ag or K. The decrease in the hysteresis rings for Ag/Co_3O_4 Ag/Co_3O_4 and $K-Ag/Co_3O_4$ may be related to the decrease in the specific surface areas (Table 1). The pore size distributions of Ag/Co₃O₄ and K−Ag/Co₃O₄

Figure 3. N_2 adsorption–desorption isotherm and pore size distributions of the catalysts.

shift to a small pore diameter field (inset, Figure 3). The maximum distribution of pore diameters for all of them is 1.9 nm. The physical parameters of the catalysts are s[ho](#page-3-0)wn in Table 1. The surface areas, pore volumes, and pore sizes of oxide-supported Ag catalysts decrease with the addition of Ag. The s[urf](#page-2-0)ace areas, pore volumes, and pore sizes are larger for the K–Ag/Co₃O₄ than for the Ag/Co₃O₄ because of the lower supported Ag content of the K $-Ag/Co_3O_4$.

Figure 4 clearly exhibits 3D ordered mesoporous structures of all samples. The addition of Ag does not affect the

Figure 4. SEM images of (a) 3D-Co₃O₄, (b) Ag/Co₃O₄, (c) 0.9% K– Ag/Co_3O_4 , and (d) 1.7% K–Ag/Co₃O₄.

mesoporous structure of Ag/Co₃O₄ and K−Ag/Co₃O₄. The samples have uniform polycrystalline particles, and their particle sizes are ∼50 nm. The particles are like the balls composed of polycrystalline pore walls and ordered pore channels. Each pore hole connects to two unlimited pore channels with different directions. It results from the KIT-6 template with a 3D symmetrical structure (ia3d).^{33,35}

TEM images of 3D-Co₃O₄, Ag/Co₃O₄, and 1.7% K-Ag/ $Co₃O₄$ are displayed in [Figur](#page-9-0)e 5. All catalysts possess mesoporous characteristics and polycrystalline walls. 3D- $Co₃O₄$ possesses a better 3D mesoporous structure (Figure 5a) and surface lattice spacings of 0.286 and 0.467 nm for the (220) and (111) crystal planes, respectively (Figure 5b). The addition of Ag causes black spots (Figure 5c,e), which are Ag nanoparticles to be uniformly distributed on the surface of the walls. Figure 5d shows that the $Ag/Co₃O₄$ sample possesses (220) and (111) faces of 3D-Co₃O₄ and Ag(111) faces with a lattice spacing of 0.236 nm, respectively. Figure 5f shows that 1.7% K−Ag/Co₃O₄ exposes more Ag(111) crystal faces and no lattice fringes of $3D-Co₃O₄$ present on the surface of walls. Moreover, Figure 5c,e shows that the particle size of the Ag nanoparticles is larger for 1.7% K-Ag/Co₃O₄ (about 3-22 nm) than for Ag/Co₃O₄ (about 1–10 nm). The results indicate that the addition of K^+ ions increases the particle size of the Ag nanoparticles and promotes the exposure of Ag(111) planes. For TEM, only a limited number of Ag nanoparticles can be examined. From Table 1, the average particle sizes of Ag/ Co₃O₄, 0.9% K-Ag/Co₃O₄, and 1.7% K-Ag/Co₃O₄, calculated by CO chemisorptions, [gr](#page-2-0)adually increase with the increase in the K content, which is in agreement with the XRD results.

3.3. Chemical Characterization. XPS patterns of the samples are displayed in Figure 6. The spectrum of Co 2p

Figure 5. TEM images of (a, b) 3D-Co₃O₄, (c, d) Ag/Co₃O₄, and (e, f) 1.7% K-Ag/Co₃O₄.

showed spin−orbit splitting into 2p1/2 and 2p3/2 components from Figure 6A. Both components contain the same qualitative information. Therefore, the higher intensity Co 2p3/2 bands were chose[n](#page-5-0) to fit the curve. The Co 2p3/2 has two components at BE = 779.5 and 780.7 eV, which indicate Co³⁺ and Co²⁺ cation species, respectively.^{47,48} Table 2 shows that the Co^{3+}/Co^{2+} ratios (2.7 and 2.9) of K-Ag/Co₃O₄ are more than that (2.3) of Ag/Co₃O₄ and that [\(2.0](#page-9-0)) of 3[D-C](#page-5-0)o₃O₄, which indicates that the addition of Ag and K increases $Co³⁺$ ions and decreases Co^{2+} ions. For the 3D-Co₃O₄ sample, the molar ratio of Co (35.1) and O (64.9) is ~1/2, but not 3/4. This is due to the larger surface area and special pore structure of $3D-Co₃O₄$, which causes the increase in the surface oxygen species.³⁰ In addition, from Table 2, the Ag/Co ratios of the samples decrease with the increase in the K content due to the increas[e in](#page-9-0) the Ag particle sizes. Fig[ur](#page-5-0)e 6B shows that O 1s has signals displayed in BE at 529.8 and 531.0 eV. The former is surface lattice oxygen (O_{latt}) species, whereas the latter is surface adsorption oxygen (O_{ads}) .^{11,30} From Table 2, the $O_{ads}/$ O_{latt} ratios of Ag/Co₃O₄ (0.6) and 0.9% K-Ag/Co₃O₄ (1.1) are lower than that of 3D-Co₃O_{[4](#page-8-0)} [\(1.](#page-9-0)3); the O^{2−}[/C](#page-5-0)o ratio of $Ag/Co₃O₄$ (1.42) and 0.9% K-Ag/Co₃O₄ (0.98) are larger than that of 3D-Co₃O₄ (0.81). The results indicate that Ag/ $Co₃O₄$ and 0.9% K–Ag/Co₃O₄ have more abundant O^{2−} species because of the presence of Ag in the top layer. With the increase in the K^+ ion content, the O_{ads}/O_{latt} ratio increases, and the O^{2-}/Co ratio decreases for 1.7% K–Ag/Co₃O₄. It is

Figure 6. XPS patterns of (a) $3D-Co_3O_4$, (b) Ag/Co_3O_4 , (c) 0.9% K−Ag/Co₃O₄, and (d) 1.7% K−Ag/Co₃O₄.

Table 2. Surface Chemical Compositions and Element Molar Ratios of Different Catalysts

			surface element contents (at. %)		surface element molar ratios			
samples	K	Ag	Co	O	Q^{2-}/Co	Ag/Co	Co^{3+}/Co^{2+}	O_{ads}/O_{latt}
$3D-Co_3O_4$			35.1	64.9	0.81		2.0	1.3
Ag/Co ₃ O ₄		7.7	27.8	64.5	1.42	0.28	2.3	0.6
0.9% K-Ag/ Co_3O_4	6.4	4.0	29.4	60.2	0.98	0.14	2.7	1.1
1.7% K-Ag/ Co_3O_4	9.3	3.6	29.2	57.9	0.83	0.12	2.9	1.4

attributed to the existence of surface hydroxyl (OH[−]) groups as O_{ads} species. In addition, the BE of O_{latt} for the Ag/ Co_3O_4 sample is shifted to 529.4 eV, likely because of a greater quantity of surface lattice oxygens. From Figure 6C, Ag 3d has a signal at BE = 368.7 eV, which indicates that Ag^0 exists in the $\widetilde{\text{Ag}}/\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ and K-Ag/Co₃O₄ samples.^{22,49} It is further confirmed by TEM results. Figure 6D shows that K 2p has two components at $BE = 292.8$ and 295.6 [e](#page-8-0)[V,](#page-9-0) which confirms the existence of K^+ ions. From XPS results, it is concluded that K−Ag/Co₃O₄ possesses the Ag metallic state, abundant O^{2-} species, and a certain quantity of O_{ads} species provide by K^+ ions.

The Raman spectra of the samples are shown in Figure 7. The $3D-Co₃O₄$ catalyst has five peaks at 195, 478, 518, 615, and 684 cm⁻¹, which correspond to the $F_{2g}^{(1)}$, $E_{gr}^{(2)}$, $F_{2g}^{(2)}$, $F_{2g}^{(3)}$ and A_{1g} [sy](#page-3-0)mmetries of Co₃O₄, respectively.⁵⁰ With the addition of Ag, the Raman peak at 684 cm[−]¹ shifts to lower frequencies (675 cm[−]¹), and the peak intensities de[cre](#page-9-0)ase. Compared with a Raman peak at 684 cm⁻¹ for 3D-Co₃O₄, the peak at 666 cm⁻¹ for 1.7% K−Ag/Co₃O₄ has a red shift (18 cm⁻¹). The red shift indicates that the K-Ag/Co₃O₄ catalyst causes the lattice

Figure 7. Raman spectra of (a) $3D-Co_3O_4$, (b) Ag/Co_3O_4 , (c) 0.9% K–Ag/Co₃O₄, and (d) 1.7% K–Ag/Co₃O₄.

distortion or residual stress of the spinel structure.^{51,52} K−Ag/ $Co₃O₄$ has the maximum structural defects because of not only the loading of Ag nanoparticles but also the additio[n of](#page-9-0) K^+ ions. The existence of lattice defects is beneficial for the formation of oxygen vacancies, which can activate, adsorb oxygen gas, and provide the lattice sites of oxygen migration.

 H_2 -TPR patterns of the catalysts are shown in Figure 8. From the chart, 3D-Co₃O₄ has peak 1 at 300 $^{\circ}$ C, which belongs to the

Figure 8. H₂-TPR patterns of (a) 3D-Co₃O₄, (b) Ag/Co₃O₄, (c) 0.9% $K-Ag/Co₃O₄$, and (d) 1.7% $K-Ag/Co₃O₄$.

reduction of Co^{3+} to Co^{2+} , and peak 2 at 362 and 419 °C, which belong to the reduction of Co^{2+} to $Co^{0.30}$ Peaks 1 and 2 . correspond to H_2 consumptions of 2.6 and 11.1 mmol/g, respectively, indicating that the Co^{3+}/Co^{2+} p[ro](#page-9-0)portion in the sample is 0.23 (Table 3). Ag/Co₃O₄ and K-Ag/Co₃O₄ catalysts have three peaks at ∼200, 300, and 342 °C, which are assigned to H₂ spillover, $Co^{3+} \rightarrow Co^{2+}$, and $Co^{2+} \rightarrow Co^{0}$, , respectively. After addition of Ag, reduction peaks at ∼300 and 340 °C show a trend to form one reduction peak attributed to the activation of surface O^{2-} species. The addition of K⁺ ions enhances the reducibility and two reduction peaks at ∼180 and 290 °C for the K $-Ag/Co₃O₄$ shift to lower temperatures, indicating the occurrence of a stronger metal−support interaction that results from H_2 spillover.²⁴ The H_2 spillover phenomenon exhibits an ability to adsorb, activate, and migrate hydrogen. Activated hydrogen on the A[g](#page-8-0) surface can easily migrate to the surface of the $Co₃O₄$ support and participate in the reduction reaction. From Table 3, peak 1 at 176 °C for 1.7% K–Ag/Co₃O₄ corresponds to a lower (2.2 mmol/g) H₂ consumption, indicating that the 1.7% K-Ag/Co₃O₄ sample possesses fewer effects of the H_2 spillover, probably because the activation of the oxygen species connecting $Co³⁺$ ions provides some electrons for the Ag particles. In addition, the $Co³⁺/Co²⁺$

proportions in the K-Ag/Co₃O₄, calculated by the H₂ consumption ratios of peaks 2 and 3, increase with the increase in the K content. This indicates that $K-Ag/Co₃O₄$ has greater quantities of $Co³⁺$ cations, which is consistent with the XPS result. Therefore, for the K-Ag/Co₃O₄ sample, the existence of Ag enhances surface O^{2-} species, whereas the addition of K⁺ ions increases $Co³⁺$ cations and low-temperature reducibility, resulting from the interaction between the Ag and the Co_3O_4 support. Sufficient Co^{3+} cations imply that oxygen species in the K−Ag/Co₃O₄ are easier to activate and migrate and can improve the catalytic performance of the HCHO oxidation.

Figure 9 shows that CO-TPD patterns of the samples, which was tested at <450 °C (calcination temperature). From the

Figure 9. CO-TPD patterns of the catalysts.

chart, all samples have desorption peaks between 50 and 200 °C that belong to the CO desorption of 3D-Co₃O₄. Ag/Co₃O₄ and K $-Ag/Co₃O₄$ samples have a broad desorption peak at 376 °C that belongs to the CO desorption of Ag nanoparticles. Peak intensity at 376 °C for K−Ag/Co₃O₄ decreases, indicating that the K addition reduces Ag dispersion (Table 1). The K− $Ag/Co₃O₄$ has a larger desorption peak between 200 and 300 $^{\circ}$ C, indicating that the addition of K⁺ ions pr[ov](#page-2-0)ides more abundant surface OH[−] groups. The peak intensity is larger because a number of OH[−] groups can react with CO to produce CO_2 and H₂. Surface OH⁻ species could be chemisorbed on the surface of $3D-Co₃O₄$ as a result of the existence of lone electron pairs. These electrons would transfer from the O of the OH groups to Co and O of $Co₃O₄$. This case is similar to Na-promoted catalysts. $6,42$

Figure 10 shows the in situ DRIFTS spectra for surface species on the catalysts. From the c[h](#page-8-0)[art](#page-9-0), the bands appearing at 1360, 159[0, 2](#page-7-0)840, and 2950 cm[−]¹ are assigned to the symmetric stretch (ν_s) of COO, the asymmetric stretch (ν_{as}) of COO, the asymmetric stretch (ν_{as}) of CH, and the symmetric stretch (ν_{s})

Table 3. Reduction Temperatures and H_2 Consumptions of the Catalysts

Figure 10. In situ DRIFTS spectra of the catalysts.

of the CH of formate, respectively. The bands observed at 2340 and 2310 cm⁻¹ are ascribed to the CO₂ stretch in the gas phase.^{19,40} The peaks at 1440, 2710, and 2810 cm⁻¹ probably belong to the CH bending vibration, the asymmetric CH stretc[h](#page-8-0) $(\nu_{\rm ss})$ and the symmetric CH stretch $(\nu_{\rm s})$ of dioxymethylene. HCHO easily forms dioxymethylene in the presence of oxygen. The bands appearing at 1120 cm⁻¹ should be due to the ν CO stretch of dioxymethylene.²³ The peaks at 2023 cm^{-1} are due to the adsorption of carbon monoxide.⁶ Broad peaks between 3000 and 3500 cm[−]¹ can [be](#page-8-0) attributed to the isolated and combined OH[−] species.

According to the DRIFTS results, the formate adsorbed species and OH[−] species on the surface of 3D-Co₃O₄ are more abundant than on the surface of Ag/Co₃O₄ and K−Ag/Co₃O₄, and the surface of $3D-Co₃O₄$ contains CO adsorbed species. It indicates that a great number of HCHO molecules are adsorbed on the surface of $3D-Co₃O₄$ and form formate species. Then the formate species break up into CO and OH[−] species. The addition of Ag increases the ν CO stretch of dioxymethylene and $CO₂$ adsorbed species (2310 and 2340 cm[−]¹); reduces formate species, which can demostrate that HCHO molecules are more easily adsorbed on the catalysts because of the existence of Ag nanoparticles and are converted into much more dioxymethylene species on the surface of Ag/ $Co₃O₄$. Fewer dioxymethylene species further form formate species, which are decomposed into CO and OH[−] species. Then the CO species are oxidized by active oxygen species (O^*) to form CO_2 . Compared with the Ag/ Co_3O_4 , much less OH[−] and dioxymethylene species exist on the surface of the K−

 $Ag/Co₃O₄$ catalyst in the reaction process. It can infer that most dioxymethylene species are converted to formate species, which can directly react with surface OH[−] species to produce $CO₂$ and H₂O. Consumed OH[−] species could be supplemented by O^{2-} species, which are generated through the interaction of Ag and Co.

 $3D-Co₃O₄$ catalyst as a support has a special pore structure and larger surface area, which are conducive to the diffusion of reactants and products and the exposure of the active phase.³⁰ Usually, sufficient Ag active sites and O^{2-} species exist in the oxide-supported Ag catalysts, which can enhance the cataly[tic](#page-9-0) performance at low temperature.^{22,23,47} The Ag/Co₃O₄ and K− Ag/Co₃O₄ samples possess more abundant O^{2-} species from XPS and H_2 -TPR results, which [are f](#page-8-0)[avo](#page-9-0)rable for the adsorption and activation of HCHO molecules. From XRD and TEM results, the K-Ag/Co₃O₄ with less Ag content obviously has larger Ag particles and exposes more Ag(111) crystal facets because of the K^+ addition, both of which are related to the interaction of Ag with Co. H_2 -TPR results confirm that a stronger metal−support interaction improves the low-temperature reducibility of K $-Ag/Co₃O₄$, implying that oxygen species of the K $-Ag/Co₃O₄$ are more easily desorbed and react with hydrogen because of K^+ ions. Raman results confirm that the K $-Ag/Co₃O₄$ has the maximum structural defects, which are beneficial to formation of oxygen vacancies. In the $K-Ag/Co₃O₄$ catalyst, the formation of oxygen vacancies is related to a large quantity of $Co³⁺$ cations. Xie et al.⁵³ reported that CO molecules can be easily oxidized by the more active $Co³⁺$ cations on the (110) faces of a $Co₃O₄$ nanor[od,](#page-9-0) which is the active species of the oxidation reaction. More $Co³⁺$ cations species can increase oxygen vacancy densities, which result from anion structural defects. The oxygen vacancies directly participate in the adsorption, activation, and migration of oxygen (see Figure 11). CO-TPD results demonstrate the existence of surface OH[−] and the adsorption ability of K−Ag/ Co_3O_4 . Thus, the addition of K⁺ ions into Ag/Co₃O₄ promotes interaction of Ag with Co, strengthens lattice defects, and leads to the exposure of Ag(111) faces and an increase in $Co³⁺$ cations.

In actual fact, the Ag(111) crystal facets, $Co³⁺$ ions, and surface lattice oxygen of K−Ag/Co₃O₄ are all involved in the process of the oxidation reaction. The $Ag(111)$ planes are active faces of HCHO oxidation and could activate the O^{2-} species of 3D-Co₃O₄. The O^{2−} species could also improve the reaction ability of the $Ag(111)$ surface; enhance the breakage of $H₂$, $O₂$, and NO bonds; and strengthen the bonding ability of H, O, N, and C atoms to the $Ag(111)$ surface.⁵⁴ In the process of the reaction, the active O^{2-} species around Ag are directly depleted and replenished by $Co₃O₄$ suppo[rt](#page-9-0) as a reservoir

Figure 11. Reaction pathway of the K $-Ag/Co₃O₄$ catalyst.

providing oxygen.⁵⁵ The activation and migration of oxygen species on the oxygen vacancies are dependent on the redox cycles of Co^{3+}/Co^{2+} and Ag^{+}/Ag^{0} after the O^{2-} species are consumed (see Figure 11, the yellow line box).53,56 The redox cycle is possibly the same as the redox cycles of Mn^{4+}/Mn^{3+} and Ce^{4+}/Ce^{3+} . The [in](#page-7-0)crease in Co^{3+} ions [is m](#page-9-0)uch more favorable for the formation of oxygen vacancies, 53 which can enhance the redox cycles of $\text{Co}^{3+}/\text{Co}^{2+}$ and Ag^+/Ag^0 .

In addition, owing to the addition of K^+ ion[s, t](#page-9-0)he K-Ag/ $Co₃O₄$ catalyst exhibits surface adsorbed oxygen species, which are identified as surface OH[−] species from the CO-TPD results. Surface OH[−] species play a critical role on the reaction path of HCHO oxidation. The CO-TPD results demonstrate that the surface OH[−] species can easily adsorb CO species at low temperatures. A surface OH[−] can immediately react with formate species on the surface of K $-Ag/Co₃O₄$ to form a molecule of $CO₂$ and $H₂O$, which is similar to the reaction path of the Na−Pt/TiO₂ catalyst.⁶ The difference is that the O^{2−} species at the perimeter of Ag in the K-Ag/Co₃O₄ catalyst participate in the oxidation reaction of HCHO because of the stronger interaction of Ag with Co and anion lattice defects. Compared with Ag/Co_3O_4 , the TOFs of K-Ag/Co₃O₄, especially 1.7% K-Ag/Co₃O₄, are much higher. We believe that at low temperature (<80 $^{\circ}$ C), the HCHO catalytic activity on the K $-Ag/Co₃O₄$ catalyst depends to a large extent on the surface OH[−] species at the perimeter of Ag(111) facets; at relatively high temperature (>80 °C), the surface OH[−] species are consumed and replaced quickly, and their supplement relies on the migration of O^{2-} species from the 3D-Co₃O₄ support. Figure 11 clearly exhibits the reaction process. Thus, the pathway of reaction for HCHO oxidation on the K-Ag/Co₃O₄ follows [the](#page-7-0) HCHO \rightarrow CHOO[−] + OH[−] \rightarrow CO₂ + H₂O route. For Ag/Co₃O₄, the reaction path follows the HCHO \rightarrow CHOO[−] → CO + O^{*} → CO₂ route. The O^{2−} species play an important role in the oxidation reaction, and these active O* species often cause the complex migration though oxygen vacancies to occur.⁵⁷⁻⁵⁹ On the basis of the TOFs of Ag/ Co_3O_4 , the catalytic activity is dependent on the O^{2−} species around Ag nanopa[rti](#page-9-0)c[les](#page-9-0) at low temperature $(\leq 90\degree C)$ and relies on the O^{2-} species at the perimeter of the Ag that migrate from the 3D-Co₃O₄ support at relatively high temperature (>90 $\rm{^{\circ}C}$).

4. CONCLUSION

In summary, 3D mesoporous Ag/Co₃O₄ and K−Ag/Co₃O₄ catalysts were prepared on the basis of $3D-Co₃O₄$. Ag nanoparticles are uniformly distributed on the polycrystalline pore walls. The addition of Ag nanoparticles and K^+ ions does not affect the mesoporous structure and only decreases the surface areas, pore diameters, and pore volumes. Compared with Ag/Co₃O₄, the TOF of K−Ag/Co₃O₄ is much higher, which is attributed to more abundant surface OH[−] species provided by K⁺ ions, Ag(111) active faces, Co^{3+} ions, and O^{2-} species that result from interaction of the Ag with Co and anion lattice defects. Ag(111) faces are active planes; surface OH[−] and O^{2-} are active species. At low temperature (<80 °C), the HCHO catalytic activity on the K $-Ag/Co₃O₄$ catalyst depends to a large extent on the surface OH[−] species around the Ag(111) facets: at relatively high temperature (>80 $^{\circ}$ C), the surface OH[−] species are consumed and replaced quickly, and their supplement relies on the migration of O^{2-} species from the $3D-Co₃O₄$ support. This conclusion can help one to understand the reason for the K-promoted catalytic activity.

■ AUTHOR INFORMATION

Corresponding Author

*Phone: +86 10 62771093. Fax: +86 10 62771093. E-mail: lijunhua@tsinghua.edu.cn.

Notes

[The authors declare no co](mailto:lijunhua@tsinghua.edu.cn)mpeting financial interest.

■ ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This study was supported by the State Environmental Protection Key Laboratory of Sources and Control of Air Pollution Complex. This work was also supported by the National Natural Science Fund of China (Grants Nos. 21325731, 21221004) and the National High Science & Technology Project of China (Grant No. 2013AA065304).

■ REFERENCES

- (1) Salthammer, T.; Mentese, S.; Marutzky, R. Chem. Rev. 2010, 110 (4), 2536−2572.
- (2) Quiroz Torres, J.; Royer, S.; Bellat, J. P.; Giraudon, J. M.; Lamonier, J. F. ChemSusChem 2013, 6 (4), 578−592.
- (3) Tang, X.; Chen, J.; Huang, X.; Xu, Y.; Shen, W. Appl. Catal., B 2008, 81 (1−2), 115−121.
- (4) Kim, S. S.; Park, K. H.; Hong, S. C. Appl. Catal., A 2011, 398 (1− 2), 96−103.
- (5) Huang, H.; Leung, D. Y. C. J. Catal. 2011, 280 (1), 60−67.
- (6) Zhang, C.; Liu, F.; Zhai, Y.; Ariga, H.; Yi, N.; Liu, Y.; Asakura, K.;
- Flytzani-Stephanopoulos, M.; He, H. Angew. Chem., Int. Ed. 2012, 51 (38), 9628−32.
- (7) Zhang, C.; He, H.; Tanaka, K. Appl. Catal., B 2006, 65 (1−2), 37−43.
- (8) Yu, X.; He, J.; Wang, D.; Hu, Y.; Tian, H.; He, Z. J. Phys. Chem. C 2011, 116 (1), 851−860.
- (9) An, N.; Yu, Q.; Liu, G.; Li, S.; Jia, M.; Zhang, W. J. Hazard. Mater. 2011, 186 (2−3), 1392−1397.
- (10) An, N.; Zhang, W.; Yuan, X.; Pan, B.; Liu, G.; Jia, M.; Yan, W.; Zhang, W. Chem. Eng. J. 2013, 215−216 (0), 1−6.
- (11) Huang, H.; Leung, D. Y. C. ACS Catal. 2011, 1 (4), 348−354. (12) Park, S. J.; Bae, I.; Nam, I. S.; Cho, B. K.; Jung, S. M.; Lee, J. H.
- Chem. Eng. J. 2012, 195−196 (0), 392−402.
- (13) O'Shea, V. A. d. l. P.; Á lvarez-Galvan, M. C.; Fierro, J. L. G.; ́ Arias, P. L. Appl. Catal., B 2005, 57 (3), 191−199.
- (14) Shen, Y.; Yang, X.; Wang, Y.; Zhang, Y.; Zhu, H.; Gao, L.; Jia, M. Appl. Catal., B 2008, 79 (2), 142−148.
- (15) Li, H. F.; Zhang, N.; Chen, P.; Luo, M. F.; Lu, J. Q. Appl. Catal., B 2011, 110 (0), 279−285.
- (16) Liu, B. C.; Li, C. Y.; Zhang, Y. F.; Liu, Y.; Hu, W. T.; Wang, Q.; Han, L.; Zhang, J. Appl. Catal., B 2012, 111, 467−475.
- (17) Li, C.; Shen, Y.; Jia, M.; Sheng, S.; Adebajo, M. O.; Zhu, H. Catal. Commun. 2008, 9 (3), 355−361.
- (18) Zhang, Y.; Shen, Y.; Yang, X.; Sheng, S.; Wang, T.; Adebajo, M. F.; Zhu, H. J. Mol. Catal. A: Chem. 2010, 316 (1−2), 100−105.
- (19) Ma, C.; Wang, D.; Xue, W.; Dou, B.; Wang, H.; Hao, Z. Environ. Sci. Technol. 2011, 45 (8), 3628−3634.
- (20) Liu, B. C.; Liu, Y.; Li, C. Y.; Hu, W. T.; Jing, P.; Wang, Q.; Zhang, J. Appl. Catal., B 2012, 127, 47−58.
- (21) Qu, Z. P.; Shen, S. J.; Chen, D.; Wang, Y. J. Mol. Catal. A: Chem. 2012, 356, 171−177.
- (22) Huang, Z.; Gu, X.; Cao, Q.; Hu, P.; Hao, J.; Li, J.; Tang, X. Angew. Chem., Int. Ed. 2012, 51 (17), 4198−4203.
- (23) Mao, C. F.; Vannice, M. A. J. Catal. 1995, 154 (2), 230−244.
- (24) Ma, L.; Wang, D.; Li, J.; Bai, B.; Fu, L.; Li, Y. Appl. Catal., B 2014, 148−149 (0), 36−43.
- (25) Tang, X.; Chen, J.; Li, Y.; Li, Y.; Xu, Y.; Shen, W. Chem. Eng. J. 2006, 118 (1−2), 119−125.
- (26) Chen, H.; He, J.; Zhang, C.; He, H. J. Phys. Chem. C 2007, 111 (49), 18033−18038.
- (27) Bai, L.; Wyrwalski, F.; Lamonier, J. F.; Khodakov, A. Y.; Monflier, E.; Ponchel, A. Appl. Catal., B 2013, 138−139 (0), 381−390.
- (28) Wang, Y.; Zhu, A.; Chen, B.; Crocker, M.; Shi, C. Catal. Commun. 2013, 36 (0), 52−57.
- (29) Xia, Y.; Dai, H.; Zhang, L.; Deng, J.; He, H.; Au, C. T. A. Appl. Catal., B 2010, 100 (1−2), 229−237.
- (30) Bai, B.; Arandiyan, H.; Li, J. Appl. Catal., B 2013, 142−143 (0), 677−683.
- (31) Lee, B.; Lu, D.; Kondo, J. N.; Domen, K. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 2002, 124 (38), 11256−11257.
- (32) Ren, Y.; Ma, Z.; Bruce, P. G. Chem. Soc. Rev. 2012, 41 (14), 4909−4927.
- (33) Jiao, F.; Hill, A. H.; Harrison, A.; Berko, A.; Chadwick, A. V.; Bruce, P. G. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 2008, 130 (15), 5262−5266.
- (34) Jiao, K.; Zhang, B.; Yue, B.; Ren, Y.; Liu, S.; Yan, S.; Dickinson, C.; Zhou, W.; He, H. Chem. Commun. 2005, 0 (45), 5618−5620.
- (35) Tü ysü z, H.; Lehmann, C. W.; Bongard, H.; Tesche, B.; Schmidt, R.; Schüth, F. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 2008, 130 (34), 11510−11517.
- (36) Xiao, J.; Frauenheim, T. J. Phys. Chem. C 2012, 117 (4), 1804− 1808.
- (37) Zhang, X.; Wang, H.; Xu, B. Q. J. Phys. Chem. B 2005, 109 (19), 9678−9683.
- (38) Liu, L.; Gu, X.; Cao, Y.; Yao, X.; Zhang, L.; Tang, C.; Gao, F.; Dong, L. ACS Catal. 2013, 3 (12), 2768−2775.
- (39) An, K.; Alayoglu, S.; Musselwhite, N.; Plamthottam, S.; Melaet, G.; Lindeman, A. E.; Somorjai, G. A. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 2013, 135 (44), 16689−16696.
- (40) Ma, C. Y.; Mu, Z.; Li, J. J.; Jin, Y. G.; Cheng, J.; Lu, G. Q.; Hao, Z. P.; Qiao, S. Z. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 2010, 132 (8), 2608−2613.
- (41) Liu, Y.; Dai, H.; Deng, J.; Xie, S.; Yang, H.; Tan, W.; Han, W.; Jiang, Y.; Guo, G. J. Catal. 2014, 309 (0), 408−418.
- (42) Nie, L.; Yu, J.; Li, X.; Cheng, B.; Liu, G.; Jaroniec, M. Environ. Sci. Technol. 2013, 47 (6), 2777−2783.
- (43) Avgouropoulos, G.; Oikonomopoulos, E.; Kanistras, D.; Ioannides, T. Appl. Catal., B 2006, 65 (1−2), 62−69.
- (44) Malet, P.; Caballero, A. J. Chem. Soc., Faraday Trans. 1988, 84 (7), 2369−2375.
- (45) Monti, M. A. D.; Baiker, A. J. Catal. 1983, 83, 323−335.
- (46) Rumplecker, A.; Kleitz, F.; Salabas, E. L.; Schüth, F. Chem. Mater. 2007, 19 (3), 485−496.
- (47) Zhu, Z.; Lu, G.; Zhang, Z.; Guo, Y.; Guo, Y.; Wang, Y. ACS Catal. 2013, 3 (6), 1154−1164.
- (48) Biesinger, M. C.; Payne, B. P.; Grosvenor, A. P.; Lau, L. W. M.; Gerson, A. R.; Smart, R. S. C. Appl. Surf. Sci. 2011, 257 (7), 2717− 2730.
- (49) Zhang, G.; Zheng, L.; Zhang, M.; Guo, S.; Liu, Z. H.; Yang, Z.; Wang, Z. Energy Fuels 2011, 26, 618−623.
- (50) Liu, Q.; Wang, L. C.; Chen, M.; Cao, Y.; He, H.-Y.; Fan, K. N. J. Catal. 2009, 263 (1), 104-113.
- (51) Lou, Y.; Wang, L.; Zhao, Z.; Zhang, Y.; Zhang, Z.; Lu, G.; Guo, Y.; Guo, Y. Appl. Catal., B 2014, 146 (0), 43-49.
- (52) Lopes, I.; El Hassan, N.; Guerba, H.; Wallez, G.; Davidson, A. Chem. Mater. 2006, 18 (25), 5826−5828.
- (53) Xie, X. W.; Li, Y.; Liu, Z. Q.; Haruta, M.; Shen, W. J. Nature 2009, 458 (7239), 746−749.
- (54) Xu, Y.; Greeley, J.; Mavrikakis, M. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 2005, 127, 12823−12827.
- (55) Xu, R.; Wang, X.; Wang, D.; Zhou, K.; Li, Y. J. Catal. 2006, 237 (2), 426−430.
- (56) Xia, G. G.; Yin, Y. G.; Willis, W. S.; Wang, J. Y.; Suib, S. L. J. Catal. 1999, 185, 91−105.
- (57) Wittstock, A.; Zielasek, V.; Biener, J.; Friend, C. M.; Baumer, M. ̈ Science 2010, 327, 319−322.
- (58) Over, H.; Seitsonen, A. P. Science 2002, 297, 2003−2005.
- (59) Lei, Y.; Mehmood, F.; Lee, S.; Greeley, J.; Lee, B.; Seifert, S.; Winans, R. E.; Elam, J. W.; Meyer, R. J.; Redfern, P. C.; Teschner, D.; Schlögl, R.; Pellin, M. J.; Curtiss, L. A.; Vajda, S. Science 2010, 328, 224−228.