Hydrodechlorination of Carbon Tetrachloride over Pt/MgO

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Hydrodechlorination of carbon tetrachloride (CCl₄) has been studied at various reaction temperatures, mole ratios (H2/CCl4), and WHSVs over 1% Pt/MgO. The main factors determining conversion of CCl₄ and deactivation of the catalyst were reaction temperature and H₂/CCl₄ mole ratio. The optimum reaction conditions for obtaining stable and high conversions of CCl₄ above 90% were the reaction temperature of 413 K, H₂/CCl₄ mole ratio of 9, and WHSV of 9000 liters/kg/h. The surface area of catalyst decreased due to phase change of MgO to MgCl₂ \cdot xH₂O during reaction. Relative to fresh catalyst, the amounts of carbon and chlorine increased and that of oxygen decreased in used catalyst, especially in deactivated catalyst. The catalyst used for the steady-state reaction did not chemisorb H₂ at room temperature, but chemisorbed nearly the same amounts of H₂ as those observed for the fresh catalyst at 373 K. From the XPS and XAFS measurements the active phase of Pt during hydrodechlorination appeared to be a surface Pt(II) species with Cl ligands, while the bulk remained as Pt metal. © 1996 Academic Press, Inc.

INTRODUCTION

Carbon tetrachloride (CTC) is a versatile chemical used as a reagent and a solvent in chemical industry and as a source of carbon dopant on semiconductors and for etching Ga–As microchips in the semiconductor industry (1, 2). Yet it was classified as a material of Group IV among ozone-depleting chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs) at the Fourth Copenhagen conference in 1992. Thus the use of CTC will be banned in developed countries from 1996. Therefore, development of an efficient method to dispose of it is in order.

Three methods have been used to dispose of CFCs including CTC: thermal combustion (3, 4), catalytic combustion (5), and catalytic hydrogenation (6, 7). Thermal combustion is an energy-consuming process because a combustion temperature above 1200 K is required and the process produces secondary pollutants such as dioxins. The catalytic combustion over Pt is also an energy-consuming process requiring a temperature between 700 and 800 K and

produces secondary pollutants such as CO, Cl₂, or COCl₂. Catalytic hydrogenation over noble metals is desirable because the reaction temperature is usually between 380 and 480 K and useful products like chloroform (CHCl₃) or dichloromethane (CH₂Cl₂) are produced. Hence, the hydrodechlorination of CTC has been actively studied, particularly in industrial laboratories since the 1990s. (8–13). In addition to these disposal methods, nonconventional radiolytic, electrochemical, or biological methods have also been proposed (14, 15).

In hydrogenation of CTC, Vance and Bauman (16) studied the reaction of atomic hydrogen and CTC $(H + CCl_4 \rightarrow CCl_3 + HCl)$ in 1938 and obtained a steric factor of 0.007 and activation energy of 3.45 kcal/mol in a gasphase reaction by the classical bimolecular reaction theory.

Weiss et al. (6, 17) studied the hydrogenation of CTC over Pt/η -Al₂O₃ and Ni ion-exchanged Y-type zeolite (NiY). The experimental results over Pt/η -Al₂O₃ showed selective hydrogenation of CTC to CHCl3 and CH4. The reactivity of the products, CHCl₃, CH₂Cl₂, and CH₃Cl, was below 10% of the reactivity of CTC. The authors proposed that the reaction of CTC with H₂ over the Pt/η -Al₂O₃ catalyst proceeded via two parallel routes, producing CHCl₃ and CH₄ at a constant mole ratio independent of process variables. Namely, the formation of CCl₃ · radical is the initiation step and hydrogen addition to adsorbed CCl₃ · accounts for CHCl3 and the concerted Cl abstraction, and hydrogen addition to CCl₃ · with no important desorption of intermediates accounts for CH₄. Over NiY, C₂ (C₂Cl₂H₄, C₂Cl₄H₂, and C₂Cl₆) and C₃ (C₃Cl₂H₆) products were produced by oligomerization of free radicals.

In our previous work (18), we studied the effects of various supports (γ -Al₂O₃, SiO₂, MgO, TiO₂, SiO₂-Al₂O₃, ZrO₂, NaY) in Pt-catalyzed hydrodechlorination of CTC For 1 wt% Pt loading accomplished by impregnation with a H₂PtCl₆ solution, MgO was found to be the most stable support against catalyst deactivation. In the present paper, the effects of various reaction conditions such as reaction temperature, space velocity and mole ratio of H₂/CTC have been studied in the hydrodechlorination of CTC over the 1% Pt/MgO catalyst. Various analytical methods (X-ray diffraction, X-ray photospectroscopy, H₂ chemisorption, X-ray absorption fine structure) were employed in order

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to identify the active phase of Pt during the reaction and to understand the cause of catalyst deactivation.

EXPERIMENTAL

Hexachloroplatinic acid (H₂PtCl₆ · *x*H₂O, Aldrich, purity >99.9%) was used as a precursor to the catalysts. MgO was prepared from the decomposition of Mg(OH)₂ (Aldrich, purity >95%) at 773 K in air. The resulting MgO (surface area, $170 \pm 5 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$; pore volume, $1.1 \pm 0.1 \text{ ml g}^{-1}$) was impregnated with a hexachloroplatinic acid solution. After drying for 24 h at 383 K, the sample was calcined in oxygen flow (>99.99%) for 2 h at increasing temperatures up to 573 K (heating rate, 5 K min⁻¹) and reduced in hydrogen flow (>99.99%) for 2 h at increasing temperatures up to 573 K (heating rate, 5 K min⁻¹). The platinum loading was 1.0 wt%, and the content of Pt in the catalysts was confirmed to be 1.0 ± 0.02 wt% by inductively coupled plasma–atomic emission spectroscopy.

The chemisorption of hydrogen was carried out in a conventional volumetric adsorption apparatus at room temperature (RT) in the pressure range of 10–70 kPa. The sample was first reduced *in situ* under hydrogen flow at 573 K for 2 h and then evacuated to 1×10^{-5} Pa at 673 K for 1 h. The sample was cooled to RT and the first H₂ chemisorption isotherm was taken. The sample was then evacuated to 1×10^{-5} Pa at RT, and the second isotherm was taken. The linear part of two isotherms was extrapolated to zero pressure. The amount of chemisorbed H₂ was the difference of two isotherms at zero pressure. The particle size d_p of Pt was estimated from the H₂ chemisorption data assuming spherical Pt particles (19).

The size of the metallic particles was also checked by transmission electron microscopy (TEM) using a JEOL 200CX microscope.

The N₂ BET surface area, S_g , was measured in a conventional volumetric adsorption apparatus (Micrometrics Accusorb 2100E) at liquid nitrogen temperature. X-ray diffraction (XRD) experiments were carried out with a Rigaku Dmax-B diffractometer with CuK α radiation. X-ray photospectroscopy (XPS) spectra was recorded using a PHI 5400 ECSA spectrometer employing MgK α source (h ν = 1253.6 eV). The binding energy of C_{1s} at 284.6 eV for contaminated carbon was used as the reference for the binding energy calibration.

X-ray absorption fine structure (XAFS) experiments were performed on the beam lines 7C and 10B at the Photon Factory in the National Laboratory for High Energy Physics, Tsukuba, Japan. The samples were pressed into thin self-supporting wafers of 8 mm diameter and mounted in a Pyrex *in situ* spectroscopic cell with Kapton windows where the sample would be treated under different gas flows and temperatures. Spectra of the Pt L_{III} edge were recorded at room temperature after reduction and reaction for the samples still under the atmosphere of treating gases in the cell. In addition to catalyst samples, XAFS data were also obtained for Pt foil, PtCl₂, PtCl₄, and PtO₂ samples as references. XAFS data were analyzed by the UWXAFS 2.0 package and FEFF6 code licensed from the University of Washington (20, 21).

The selective hydrogenation of CTC was carried out in a continuous isothermal flow reactor fitted with a glass frit on which 200 mg of catalyst was placed. The reaction temperature ranged from 393 to 453 K, and the molar ratio of the reactants (H_2/CTC), from 5 to 15. The weight hourly space velocity (WHSV, liters CTC/kg catalyst/h) was kept at 9000 liters/kg/h except when the effect of WHSV was tested. Liquid CTC was vaporized in a saturator by flowing hydrogen as a carrier gas. The temperature of the reactor was controlled by a PID temperature controller within ± 1 K and the temperature of the saturator was controlled by a circulating bath within ± 0.1 K. The effluent from reactor was analyzed by on-line gas chromatography (HP 5890 II) with a capillary column (AT-1, 30 m \times 0.3 mm i.d.) and a flame ionization detector. The conversion of CTC and selectivity to CHCl3 were defined as

$$= \frac{\text{moles CTC in} - \text{moles CTC out}}{\text{moles CTC in}} \times 100$$

Selectivity to CHCl₃ (%)

=

$$= \frac{\text{moles CHCl}_3 \text{ out}}{\text{moles CTC in - moles CTC out}} \times 100$$

RESULTS

Hydrodechlorination of CTC

Figure 1 shows the change in the conversion of CTC with time on stream at reaction temperatures in the range of 393-453 K at a constant WHSV of 9000 liters/kg/h and mole ratio (H₂/CTC) of 9. At 393 K, the conversion of CTC was only 20%, but the stable conversion of CTC was observed with respect to time on stream. Above 433 K, the initial conversion of CTC was high, but the conversion decreased rapidly with time on stream. The deactivation was more severe at 453 K than at 433 K. Furthermore, more C₂ or heavier products were produced at higher reaction temperatures. High and stable catalytic activity was obtained at 413 K. It is interesting to note that CTC conversions increased in the initial several hours before it reached steady states at 393 and 413 K.

The effects of the mole ratio of reactants (H_2/CTC) were investigated at 413 K and WHSV of 9000 liters/kg/h and the results are shown in Fig. 2. At H_2/CTC ratio of 5, the catalyst was rapidly deactivated. Above H_2/CTC ratio of



FIG. 1. Effects of reaction temperature on hydrodechlorination of CTC at atmospheric pressure, H₂/CTC mole ratio of 9, and WHSV of 9000 liters/kg/h. \blacksquare , 393 K; \bullet , 413 K; \bigstar , 433 K; \blacktriangledown , 453 K.

9, stability of the catalyst was achieved and the conversion of CTC was independent of the mole ratio. The effects of WHSV were tested by varying flow rate of reactants or the weight of the catalyst at 413 K and H_2/CTC ratio of 9. As shown in Fig. 3, CTC conversion decreased as WHSV increased. The selectivity to CHCl₃ showed a slight decrease with increasing WHSV. At 413 K, H_2/CTC ratio of 9, and WHSV of 9000, CTC conversion above 95% and CHCl₃ selectivity of ca. 70% were obtained.

Typical product distributions of CTC hydrodechlorination over 1% Pt/MgO are shown in Table 1. In all cases, CHCl₃ and CH₄ were the main products, and small amounts of CH₂Cl₂ and CH₃Cl were observed at steady state. C₂ and heavier oligomers were produced for the worst cases early in the reaction but disappeared almost completely at steady state under favorable conditions. Yet, a high reaction tem-



FIG. 2. Effects of H₂/CTC mole ratio on hydrodechlorination of CTC at 413 K and WHSV of 9000 liters/kg/h. \blacksquare , 5/l; \blacktriangle , 9/l; \blacktriangledown , 15/l.



FIG. 3. Effects of WHSV on hydrodechlorination of CTC at 413 K and H_2 /CTC mole ratio of 9.

perature (above 433 K) or a low H_2/CTC mole ratio showed high C_2 selectivity. In particular, 34% C_2 selectivity was measured at 453 K, H_2/CTC ratio of 9, and WHSV of 9000. As WHSV was increased, CHCl₃ selectivity decreased because of the increased CH₄ selectivity, but C_2 selectivity was independent of WHSV.

Catalyst Characterization

Some results of characterization are summarized in Table 2. The BET surface area, S_g , of 1% Pt/MgO was found to be 169 m² g⁻¹. This is the same area measured for MgO support alone. The catalyst used for the steady-state reaction at 413 K, H₂/CTC of 9, and WHSV of 9000 for 80 h (called *used catalyst* hereafter) showed an S_g of 48 m² g⁻¹. The catalyst used for the reaction at 453 K, H₂/CTC of 9, and WHSV of 9000 for 10 h showed severe catalyst deactivation and will be called *deactivated catalyst* hereafter. The deactivated catalyst showed an S_g value of 45 m² g⁻¹.

The hydrogen adsorption was carried out at RT. The percentage of Pt exposed to the surface and particle size of platinum were deduced from the amounts of H₂ chemisorbed. In the fresh 1% Pt/MgO, 50% Pt was exposed (0.5 H/Pt) and Pt particle size was calculated to be 1.8 nm from this value. The used catalyst showed no hydrogen uptake at RT, but showed nearly the same amount of hydrogen uptake as that of the fresh catalyst when hydrogen chemisorption was measured at 373 K. Deactivated catalyst did not show any H₂ chemisorption at both RT and 373 K.

The TEM images of the 1% Pt/MgO revealed a homogeneous distribution of platinum particles. The mean particle diameter d_m , was calculated by the equation $d_m = \sum n_i d_i / \sum n_i$, where n_i is the number of particles of diameter d_i . The platinum particle sizes determined by TEM were ca. 2.0 nm for fresh, used, and deactivated 1% Pt/MgO. The size and shape of Pt particles remained almost the same in all catalyst.

TABLE	1
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Typical Product Distribution of Hydrodechlorination of Carbon Tetrachlorid	e over 1% Pt/MgO ^a
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T(K) H ₂ /CTC	413 9	393 9	433 ^b 9	453^{b} 9	413 ^b 5	413 15	413 9	413 9
WHSV	9000	9000	9000	9000	9000	9000	4500	70,000
CTC conversion (%)	90	27	88	32	66	93.5	96	52
Products (mole%)								
CHCl ₃	71	64	60	35	64	75	73	64
CH_4	27.5	30	32	30	25	23.5	25	34
CH ₂ Cl ₂ , CHCl ₃	0.5	0.5	1	1	1	0.5	1	1
C_2	1	5.5	7	34	10	1	1	1
Specific rate (CTC mol/Pt mol/sec)	0.243	0.072	0.236	0.086	0.280	0.142	0.129	4.02

^a At steady state unless otherwise specified.

^b At time on stream of 4.5 h.

Table 2 also shows the results of the chemical analysis for the three catalysts. The amounts of carbon in both fresh and used catalysts were almost the same. Yet deactivated catalysts contained much more carbon. Chlorine analysis indicated that the catalysts had picked up chlorine during the reaction. However, there was no difference between used and deactivated catalysts in chlorine content.

Figure 4 compares the XRD pattern of the used (Fig. 4a) 1% Pt/MgO catalyst with those of the fresh catalyst (Fig. 4b) and MgCl₂·6H₂O (Fig. 4c). Because of the low contents and small particle size of platinum metal, the XRD peaks for platinum metal were not observed. MgO was the dominant phase in the fresh catalyst. On the other hand, used catalyst showed both MgCl₂·*x*H₂O and MgO phase, indicating that the transformation from MgO to MgCl₂·*x*H₂O had occurred during the reaction.

Figure 5 shows the XPS spectra of platinum $4f_{7/2}$ for fresh (Fig. 5a) and used (Fig. 5b) 1% Pt/MgO. Fresh catalyst reduced in H₂ flow at 573 K for 2 h showed a dominant peak at 71.2 eV and a small peak at 73.0 eV corresponding to Pt(0)

TABLE 2				
Characterization Results of 1% Pt/M	gO			

-	Fresh	Used	Deactivated
BET surface area $(m^2 g^{-1})$	169	48	45
Particle size $(nm)^a$			
From H_2 chemisorption at RT	1.8	2.0^{b}	_
From TEM	2.0	2.0	2.0
Chemical analysis (wt%)			
С	0.12	0.10	0.70
Cl	0.05	1.66	1.75

^{*a*} $d_p = 5 \times V_M / a_M \times 100/D$ (%), D (%) = 100 × chemisorbed H/total Pt atoms, where V_M is volume/Pt, a_M is area/Pt atom, and D (%) is the percentage of atoms exposed of the surface measured by the H₂ chemisorption, respectively.

^b H₂ chemisorption at 373 K.

and Pt(II), respectively. In used catalyst, Pt(II) at 73.2 eV was the dominant species with only a small concentration of Pt(0) at 71.2 eV. Thus, the Pt(0) species initially present on the surface of 1% Pt/MgO catalyst was oxidized to Pt(II) during the reaction.

Table 3 shows the atomic concentration of C, O, and Cl in fresh, used, and deactivated 1% Pt/MgO determined by XPS analysis. As XPS is a surface sensitive technique, the atomic concentration of C, O, and Cl is different from the results of the chemical analysis shown in Table 2. The atomic concentration of C and Cl increased remarkably after the reaction. In particular, C concentration of deactivated catalyst was much higher than used catalyst. This trend in XPS analysis is consistent with that observed by chemical analysis. The atomic concentration of O decreased probably because of a phase transition of support from MgO to MgCl₂ · xH₂O, as indicated by XRD.

In order to obtain further information on the state and structure of Pt in Pt/MgO catalyst, the technique of XAFS was employed. Figure 6 compares Pt $L_{\rm III}$ X-ray absorption near edge structure (XANES) of fresh (Fig. 6a), used



FIG. 4. XRD patterns of 1% Pt/MgO under steady state (a), in fresh state (b), and $MgCl_2 \cdot xH_2O$ (c).



FIG. 5. XPS spectra of 1% Pt/MgO in fresh state (a) and under steadystate reaction (b). Dotted lines are deconvolution of the experimental spectra (solid lines) assuming that Pt(0) and Pt(II) are the only Pt species present in the catalyst.

(Fig. 6b), and deactivated (Fig. 6c) catalysts with those of some reference compounds, Pt foil (Fig. 6d), PtCl₂ (Fig. 6e), PtCl₄ (Fig. 6f), and PtO₂ (Fig. 6g). General shape of XANES spectra was all similar. However, the edge position (the first inflection point on the rapidly rising portion of the absorption edge) and white line area (the intensity of the absorption peak) depended on the sample. The quantitative results are summarized in Table 4. In general, the edge position shifts to higher energy and the white line area increases as the oxidation number of the absorption is raised (22–26).

The edge positions of all catalyst samples were higher than those of Pt foil and PtCl₂, and lower than those of PtCl₄ and PtO₂. A similar trend was observed for white line areas as well. White line areas for catalyst samples were larger than those for Pt foil and PtCl₂, and smaller than those for PtCl₄ and PtO₂. Hence, the oxidation state of Pt

TABLE 3

Atomic Concentration (%) of C, Cl, and O in 1% Pt/MgO by XPS

	Fresh	Used	Deactivated
C^a	0	7.83	11.74
Cl^b	3.07	14.89	16.97
\mathbf{O}^{c}	42.85	30.97	28.97

^{*a*} From C_{1s} peak with a sensitivity factor of 0.296.

^b From Cl_{2p} peak with a sensitivity factor of 0.891.

^c From O_{1s} peak with a sensitivity factor of 0.711.



FIG. 6. XANES spectra of Pt L_{III} edge. (a) fresh Pt/MgO; (b) used Pt/MgO; (c) deactivated Pt/MgO; (d) Pt foil; (e) PtCl₂; (f) PtCl₄; and (g) PtO₂.

in catalyst samples is also believed to lie between those of the two groups of reference compounds.

Small oscillations above the absorption edge are isolated from the background absorption. This extended X-ray absorption fine structure (EXAFS) is weighted $k^3(k/A^{-1} =$ wave factor) and Fourier transformed to obtain a radial structure function (RSF). Major peaks in the RSF correspond to the important interatomic distances shifted from their true position by a phase shift. The RSF of reference compounds, Pt foil, PtCl₂, PtCl₄, and PtO₂ are shown in Figs. 7a–7d, respectively. The main peaks correspond to distances of Pt–Pt (0.267 nm in Fig. 7a), Pt–Cl (0.190 nm in Fig. 7b and 7c), and Pt–O (0.163 nm in Fig. 7d). Phase shifts for those atomic pairs could be calculated from the difference between these distances and the known true distance for these compounds.

Figure 8 shows the RSF of catalyst samples. In the fresh Pt/MgO, three peaks appeared at 0.199, 0.274, and 0.371 nm (all in the error range of ± 0.0005 nm) as shown in Fig. 8a. In comparison with the RSF of the reference compounds in Fig. 7, the peak at 0.199 nm can be assigned to Pt–Cl of PtCl_x

TABLE 4

The Edge Position and White Line Area of Pt LIII XANES

Sample	Edge position (eV)	White line area ^{<i>a</i>}
Fresh catalyst	11555.70	1.25138
Used catalyst	11554.83	1.14038
Deactivated catalyst	11555.50	1.24385
Pt foil	11554.39	1
PtCl ₂	11553.87	1.05073
PtCl ₄	11556.15	1.28908
PtO ₂	11556.81	2.0044

^{*a*} Relative white line area $(A_{\text{sample}}/A_{\text{Pt metal}})$.



FIG. 7. RSF of references. (a) Pt foil; (b) PtCl₂; (c) PtCl₄; and (d) PtO₂.

and the peak at 0.274 nm to Pt–Pt in bulk Pt metal. The peak at 0.371 nm is due to the Pt–Pt interaction between neighboring $PtCl_x$ complexes as has been observed for $PtCl_6^{-2}$ (27). Thus Pt remains only partially reduced even after calcination and reduction at 573 K, and retains Cl originated from the precursor $H_2PtCl_6 \cdot xH_2O$.

The RSF of Pt/MgO used for the steady-state reaction also showed three dominant peaks at 0.166, 0.212, and 0.281 nm as shown in Fig. 7b. The peak that appeared at 0.371 nm in fresh catalyst disappeared completely and the peak at 0.166 nm appear. The peak at 0.212 nm seemed related to the peak at 0.199 nm on fresh catalyst assigned to Pt–Cl, and the peak at 0.281 nm could be assigned to Pt–Cl, The peak at 0.166 nm appeared to be due to Pt–O similar to that distance in the PtO₂ reference. Hence, the Pt particle under the steady-state reaction seems to be composed of surface PtCl_x, bulk Pt metal, and some PtO_x. The RSF of

TABLE 5

Results of EXAFS Curve Fitting for the Pt–Pt Interaction in 1% Pt/MgO and Pt Foil

	Pt-Pt distance (nm)	Pt coordination number	Debye–Waller factor ^a
Fresh catalyst	0.274	4.4	0.001448
Used catalyst	0.281	4.3	0.001164
Deactivated catalyst	0.285	0.4	0.006465
Pt foil	0.278	12.0	0.004987

^{*a*} Relative to Pt foil, i.e., $\Delta \sigma^2$ (sample)- $\Delta \sigma^2$ (Pt foil).



FIG. 8. RSF of 1% Pt/MgO. (a) fresh catalyst; (b) used catalyst; and (c) deactivated catalyst.

the deactivated catalyst showed two main peaks at 0.166 and 0.218 nm which could be assigned to Pt–O and Pt– Cl, respectively. The peak at 0.273 nm expected for Pt–Pt was very small. In general, the intensity of all the peaks decreased from the fresh catalyst to used catalyst and then to deactivated catalyst. Table 5 summarizes the results of EXAFS curve fitting for the Pt–Pt interaction. The Pt–Pt distances increased for the used and deactivated catalysts probably due to the effect of Cl or O near Pt. The values of the coordination numbers and Debye–Waller factors are also given.

DISCUSSION

The following four reactions can take place during catalytic hydrodechlorination of CTC.

	ΔH° (kcal/mol) at 400 K	ΔG° (kcal/mol) at 400 K	
$CCl_4 + H_2 \rightarrow CHCl_3 + HCl$	-24.21	-27.74	[1]
$CCl_4 + 2H_2 \rightarrow CH_2Cl_2 + 2HCl$	-44.80	-50.87	[2]
$CCl_4 + 3H_2 \rightarrow CH_3Cl + 3HCl$	-64.30	-72.00	[3]
$CCl_4 + 4H_2 \rightarrow CH_4 + 4HCl$	-84.41	-92.71	[4]

The large negative values of ΔG° (28) indicated that CTC could convert completely to CHCl₃, CH₂Cl₂, CH₃Cl, or CH₄. Indeed, almost a complete CTC conversion was observed in the present study under appropriate reaction conditions. Reactions leading to the formation of CHCl₃ and CH₄ were dominant as also reported by Weiss *et al.* (6). Oligomers were observed particularly early in the reaction, yet their concentration was negligible at steady state if proper reaction conditions were chosen. Substantial amounts of C₂ products were observed over Ni ion-exchanged Y-type zeolite by Weiss *et al.* (17), probably due to the acidity of the zeolite.

The present work demonstrated that Pt/MgO could be an efficient catalyst for the selective hydrodechlorination of CCl₄ to CHCl₃. The most important parameter of the reaction was the stability of the catalyst against the loss of catalytic activity with time on stream. Reaction temperature and the ratio of H_2/CTC were the two critical reaction variables that controlled the catalyst stability. The very reason why we chose Pt/MgO was also its superior stability compared to other supported Pt catalysts (18). In any case, a stable CTC conversion above 95% and CHCl₃ selectivity of ca. 70% were achieved at 413 K, H₂/CTC ratio of 9, and WHSV of 9000. The major by-product was methane. As mentioned, Weiss *et al.* (6) proposed that $CHCl_3$ and CH_4 were produced via two parallel routes over the Pt/η -Al₂O₃ catalyst. This appears to be the case for Pt/MgO as well because the CHCl₃ selectivity depended only a little over a wide range of WHSV as shown in Fig. 3 and Table 1. If the hydrodechlorination was a consecutive reaction such as $CCl_4 \rightarrow CHCl_3 \rightarrow CH_4$, the selectivity to the intermediate CHCl₃ would have been increased with increasing WHSV. Instead, CHCl₃ selectivity decreased slightly with increasing WHSV. Furthermore, when CHCl₃ was supplied over Pt/MgO under the same conditions, its reactivity was only about 10% of CCl₄. Negligible desorption of intermediates containing one to two chlorine atoms (6) accounts for the low concentrations of these intermediate products.

The XRD in Fig. 4 indicates that MgO support is transformed to MgCl₂ during hydrodechlorination. This change in support structure, however, does not appear to be responsible for the catalyst deactivation. Despite the change in support, the particle size of Pt remained essentially the same as seen by TEM (Table 2). Hydrogen chemisorption becomes an activated process over the used catalyst probably because of the presence of Cl on Pt as discussed later. Yet, total amount of chemisorbed H₂ at 373 K over the used catalyst is essentially the same as that over the fresh catalyst at RT. Furthermore, the chlorine content in the deactivated catalyst was almost the same as that in the used catalyst for which no sign of deactivation was detected. Hence, the presence of chlorine is not the cause of the catalyst deactivation. It is believed that the Pt catalyst is deactivated due to coking in the hydrodechlorination of CTC as also proposed by

Wang *et al.* (29). Both the chemical analysis in Table 2 and the XPS analysis in Table 3 demonstrated that the content of carbon is the major difference between the used and the deactivated catalysts. Propensity to coking at high temperatures and low H_2/CTC ratios explains the effects of the reaction temperature and H_2/CTC ratio shown in Figs. 1 and 2. It was also found that the deactivated catalyst could be regenerated by oxygen treatment at 573 K for 3 h.

Explanation of Table 1 indicates that the deactivation of Pt/MgO in the hydrodechlorination of CTC goes hand in hand with enhanced production of C_2 products. Thus substantial amounts of C_2 products are formed at high reaction temperatures and low H₂/CTC ratios where rapid catalyst deactivation is observed. The boiling point of C_2 Cl₄ is 394 K and that of C_2 Cl₆ 459.8 K. Thus, it is highly plausible to assume that high boiling oligomers (C_2 and heavier) are the precursors to coke formed on Pt/MgO catalyst.

In order to investigate the active Pt phase, XPS and XAFS were employed. Since XPS is a surface-sensitive technique with a probing depth of ca. 2-4 nm and XAFS is a bulk technique, the combination of the two techniques is expected to provide more detailed structural information on Pt/MgO. XPS of the fresh catalyst (Fig. 5a) showed two binding states of Pt $4f_{7/2}$ at 71.2 and 73.0 eV. The former binding state was dominant and assigned to Pt(0) species and the latter was assigned to Pt(II) species. When the catalyst was used for the hydrodechlorination of CTC, most of the Pt(0) species turned into the Pt(II) species, now located at 73.2 eV. The Pt(II) species could be PtO or PtCl₂. It has been reported that the range of binding energy for PtO is 73.9–74.0 eV and that of PtCl₂ is 73.2–73.6 eV (30, 31). Therefore, it is concluded that the surface Pt species of the Pt/MgO catalyst working in the hydrodechlorination of CTC is a Pt(II) species with Cl ligands. As mentioned, the presence of Cl on the Pt surface may be responsible for the suppressed H₂ chemisorption at RT over the used catalyst.

Both edge position and white line area of Pt LIII XANES shown in Fig. 6 and Table 4 indicate that Pt in the used catalyst has a higher oxidation state than Pt in the fresh catalyst. Even the fresh catalyst showed a higher edge position and a larger white line area compared to those of Pt foil. RSF of the fresh catalyst indicated that this is partly due to the incomplete reduction of Pt because the Pt-Cl interaction was clearly seen in Fig. 8a. The other reason may be due to the small Pt particle size and its interaction with the support (32). For the used catalyst (Fig. 8b) and the deactivated catalyst (Fig. 8c), an additional Pt-O peak appeared. The source of oxygen may be MgO which transforms to $MgCl_2 \cdot xH_2O$ during the hydrodechlorination. Hence, while the surface of Pt in the used Pt/MgO catalyst is mostly the Pt(II)-Cl species, the bulk of the catalyst remained as Pt metal. This explains the fact that Pt particles in Pt/MgO maintain their size and shape as seen in TEM even after the reaction in

CONCLUSIONS

Pt/MgO is an effective catalyst in the selective hydrodechlorination of CTC to $CHCl_3$ with high activity and selectivity. The stable maintenance of the performance is achieved by the proper choice of the reaction conditions, in particular, the reaction temperature and H_2/CTC mole ratio. The reason for the catalyst deactivation is coking of the Pt surface. The active phase of Pt in the Pt/MgO catalyst is Pt metal particles with most of their surface converted to Pt(II)–Cl.

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