

Preparation of silica- and carbon-supported cobalt by electrostatic adsorption of Co(III) hexaamines

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Abstract

Application of the simple, rational catalyst synthesis method of strong electrostatic adsorption was applied to hexaamine cobalt(III) chloride (CoHA) complexes over silica and carbon, which potentially affects the preparation of Fisher–Tropsch and other catalysts. Uptake versus pH was studied, and resulting materials were characterized by powder XRD, EXAFS, XANES, and STEM at each stage of the preparation procedure. Large differences occurred when CoHA was contacted at high pH over silica and carbon surfaces with similar points of zero charge. The Co ammine–silica interaction could be described by a purely electrostatic interaction, was very strong, and prevented reduction up to the high temperatures at which significant Co sintering occurred. However, sufficient interaction existed so that the normally lower-temperature stable hexagonal close-packing phase was retained by the metal crystallites on silica. Over carbon, CoHA underwent a reductive deamination on contact with the carbon to form large crystals of Co₃O₄. While this precursor phase reduces at much lower temperature than the silica-supported Co amines, the large initial size of the Co₃O₄ phase also prevented the formation of small Co particles. Our findings demonstrate that high Co metal dispersion on carbon might be achieved with synthesis parameters (i.e., other Co complexes, carbons, or impregnation conditions) that yield a highly dispersed Co precursor.

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1. Introduction

In an effort to help “turn the art of catalyst preparation into science,” we have developed the method of strong electrostatic adsorption (SEA) as a simple, rational approach to synthesizing highly dispersed metals on oxide and carbon supports [1,2]. The SEA method is based on an electrostatic mechanism in which the functional groups (typically hydroxyl) on the support surface can be protonated and deprotonated and thus positively or negatively charged as a function of pH (relative to the point of zero charge [PZC]). At the pH of strongest interaction, oppositely charged metal coordination complexes adsorb in a well-dispersed monolayers; in many cases, the high dispersion of the

precursor phase can be retained as the precursor is reduced to metal [1–3].

To date, the electrostatic mechanism has been demonstrated mainly for noble metal complexes, including anionic Pt chlorides (and related hydrolysis complexes) over alumina [4,5], cationic Pt tetraamines over silica [3,6], and both over carbon [7]. Recently, electrostatic adsorption was suggested as the reason for Pt and Cu overexchange in low Al zeolites [8].

In the current work, the extension of SEA is made to an important base metal, cobalt. Supported Co catalysts have potentially high activity and selectivity for a number of reactions, including water–gas shift (WGS) [9–11], steam reforming of ethanol [12], Fischer–Tropsch [13,14] and methylamine [15] synthesis, and cyclocarbonylation of acetylenes [16]. Cobalt catalysts have also found application due to their sulfur resistance [17,18]. Mixed cobalt-oxide catalysts have also been widely used for the WGS reaction [17,19,20].

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A commonly available cobalt complex is cobalt(III) hexaammine ($[(\text{NH}_3)_6\text{Co}]^{3+}$ or CoHA). This should be strongly adsorbed at high pH over low-PZC materials, such as silica or oxidized carbon. Silica is commonly used as a support material for Co because of its high surface area [21] and also is often used as a (oxide) support for comparison with carbon. Recently, carbon was cited as a good candidate for FT synthesis, because lower Co–support interactions relative to silica lead to lower reduction temperature and better Co dispersion [22]. Well-dispersed cobalt oxide on carbon is also a potential intermediate in the fabrication of Pt–Co bimetallic fuel cell electrocatalysts [23].

Table 1 details some of the important literature reports on Co/C and Co/SiO₂ preparations. The majority of the researchers have used Co(NO₃)₂ as cobalt precursor, and with this complex and the common preparation of dry impregnation, and at high Co loadings the resulting particle sizes are often relatively large. Cobalt crystallite size appears to be a strong function of metal loading, independent of preparation method [24,31]. The “ammonia method” [24] yields smaller particle sizes relative to other preparations through a proposed chemical interaction involving phyllosilicate phases formed from intermediate Co(II) aquo-ammine ($[\text{Co}(\text{H}_2\text{O})_{6-n}(\text{NH}_3)_n]^{2+}$) complexes.

In a systematic series of preparations over carbon nanofibers [31], the smallest particle sizes were achieved at the lowest loadings, irrespective of whether dry impregnation or ion adsorption was used. Reasonably high dispersion (7.8 nm particles) of Co on carbon at high Co loading was achieved with homogeneous deposition–precipitation with ammonia evaporation [22]. Perhaps the best success at high Co dispersion with narrow particle size distribution has been found for a sol–gel preparation with silica [24]. The current effort is directed at high Co dispersions with a simple, single-step impregnation process.

Toward this end, Co(III) ammine uptake and the dispersion of the reduced Co phase were compared over a silica and an

oxidized carbon of approximately the same PZC. At each step of the preparation, the Co species are characterized by XRD, EXAFS, XANES, and STEM. A dramatic difference in the interaction of CoHA with the respective surfaces was revealed; whereas CoHA uptake on silica appears to be completely electrostatic and the Co amines strongly interact with the silica surface, the adsorption appears to have a reactive component over the carbon. CoHA contacted with the high-surface area graphite reacted spontaneously to yield Co₃O₄ at room temperature and pressure.

2. Experimental

In preliminary studies, cobalt(III) hexaammine (CoHA) was seen to be much more soluble than Co(II) hexaammine over the wide range of pH used in this study, and so was chosen as the Co precursor. It, metallic Co, CoO, and Co₃O₄ were obtained from Aldrich. High-surface area carbon (TIMREX HSAG 300, 291 m²/g) was obtained from TIMCAL Graphite and Carbon. Silica Vn-3s was obtained from Degussa. The N₂ BET surface area and pore volume were 175 m²/g and 1.0 cc/g, respectively, and were not affected by any of the catalyst preparation steps. The PZC was 4.0 for both silica and graphite.

The equilibrium adsorption uptake of CoHA onto silica and carbon was determined as a function of pH from solutions of constant metal concentration. Adsorption experiments were conducted with an excess of liquid to prevent large shifts in the solution pH due to the oxide buffering effect [25]. The surface loading indicates the amount of support surface per liter of impregnation solution. For example, 0.1 g of 250 m²/g silica in 50 ml of solution yields a surface loading of 500 m²/L, or about a 500-fold excess of the pore volume. The 50-ml polypropylene bottles containing 200 ppm CoHA solutions and support were shaken for 1 h, after which 3–4 ml of filtered solution was analyzed for Co by ICP. The cobalt uptake was determined as the difference in Co concentrations in the precontacted and post-

Table 1
Literature survey of preparation methods for Co/C and Co/SiO₂ catalysts

Reference	Precursor	Wt%	Particle size (nm)	Method	Pretreatment	Remarks
Amorphous SiO ₂						
[24]	Co(NO ₃) ₂	3–46	3.8–16	Ammonia	650 °C reduction	
[21]	Co(NO ₃) ₂	15	1.9–7.9	Dry impregnation	500 °C calcination, 450 °C reduction	
[46]	Co(NO ₃) ₂	25	20–35	Sol–gel	Calcination	
[47]	Co(NO ₃) ₂	20	3–5	Sol–gel	550 °C calcination, 500 °C reduction	
[47]	Co(NO ₃) ₂	20	26	Dry impregnation	550 °C calcination, 500 °C reduction	
[42]	Co(NO ₃) ₂	2–20	12–38	Dry impregnation	450 °C calcination, 400 °C reduction	hcp + fcc, fcc is predominant
[45]	Co	2.3 × 10 ¹⁷ Co/cm ²	5	Ion implantation		hcp-to-fcc occurred at 800 °C
[22]	Co(CO ₃)	15	13	HDP w/NH ₃ evaporation	500 °C reduction	fcc, hcp, CoO
Carbon						
[22]	Co(CO ₃)	15	7.9	HDP w/NH ₃ evaporation	350 °C reduction	fcc, CoO
[48]	Co(NO ₃) ₂	9.5	12	Dry impregnation	350 °C reduction, RT O ₂ passivation	fcc, CoO
[49]	Co(NO ₃) ₂	3	–	Evaporative deposition		
[40]	Co(NO ₃) ₂	11	27	HDP w/urea	120 °C drying, 350 °C reduction	
[40]	Co(CO ₃)	9.0	12.8	HDP w/NH ₃	–	
[40]	Co(NO ₃) ₂	9.9–22	9.8–16	Water, dry impregnation	–	
[40]	Co(NO ₃) ₂	1.1–7.5	4.5–5.9	EtOH, dry impregnation	–	
[40]	Co(CH ₃ COO) ₂	1.0–4.2	2.6–4.1	Water, dry impregnation	–	
[40]	Co(CO ₃)	0.8	3.0	Ion ads., w/NH ₃	–	

contacted solutions. The pH was adjusted with 0.1 M HNO₃ and 0.1 M NaOH.

After the amount of CoHA adsorbed at each pH was determined, larger (2 g) samples of catalysts were prepared at the pH of maximum uptake, which corresponds to optimal condition for strong electrostatic adsorption. The filtered solids were air-dried overnight and calcined at various temperatures in a muffle. Reduction was performed in a fixed-bed tubular reactor at 320 °C with 100% flowing H₂, or with 4% H₂ (balance He) at Argonne in the in situ XAFS cell. Representative samples reduced with 100 and 4% H₂ showed no difference.

XRD analyses were performed using a Siemens D5000 diffractometer with CuK α radiation ($\lambda = 1.5406 \text{ \AA}$) operated at 30 kV and 40 mA, operating in Bragg–Brentano geometry. A “locked coupled” scan mode in the 20°–70° 2 θ range, step size of 0.01°, and 2.5 s exposure in each point were used.

TEM of the catalysts were obtained by adding isopropanol and sonicating this slurry for 5 min. Then the samples were placed onto a carbon-coated copper grid. STEM and EDX experiments were done using a JEOL electron microscope (JEM-2010F FasTEMm FEI) operated at 200 kV and extracting voltage of 4500 V. The copper grid (200 mesh, CuPK/100) was supplied by SPI Supplies. Approximately 200 particles were considered for size distribution calculation.

EXAFS measurements were performed at the Advanced Photon Source (APS) at Argonne National Laboratory (Argonne, IL) on the undulator beamline of the Materials Research Collaborative Access Team (MRCAT). Details of the EXAFS data collection and analysis have been given previously [26], the only difference here being that the data were collected purely in transmission. Most of the powdered solid samples were pressed into thin disks. The data fitting was done with the software WinXAS 97, version 1.0. Pure [Co(NH₃)₆]Cl₃, Co foil, CoO, and Co₃O₄ were used as XANES standards. CoHA and Co foil were used as Co–N ($N_{\text{Co-N}} = 6$, $R = 1.97 \text{ \AA}$) and Co–Co ($N_{\text{Co-Co}} = 12$, $R = 2.55 \text{ \AA}$) EXAFS references, respectively. The results were generally accurate to $\pm 10\%$ in coordination number. The first shell fits were done in R -space of the k^2 -weighted data from 2.7 to 12.2 \AA^{-1} .

3. Results

Results from the metal adsorption experiments include both pH shifts and metal uptake. First, pH shifts for both carbon and SiO₂ are given in Fig. 1A and are compared to the shifts seen with no metal in solution. The PZC of pure silica and carbon are both about 4.0 (seen as the plateaus in the plot [6,27]). After 1 h of adsorption, the pH plateau is relatively unchanged for silica, whereas for carbon, the plateau has increased to about 9, close to the PZC of pure Co₃O₄. The uptake of CoHA on SiO₂ and carbon is shown in Fig. 1B. The maximum CoHA uptake was found to be 1.6 $\mu\text{mol}/\text{m}^2$ on SiO₂ and 3.5 $\mu\text{mol}/\text{m}^2$ on carbon at pH 13. These values amount to nearly 1.7 wt% Co/SiO₂ (25% yield) and 6 wt% of Co/C (93% yield). Measurements beyond pH 13 were not done, because it was presumed that uptake beyond pH 13 will be decreased as ionic strength increases dramatically [6]. Thus, the optimum pH for adsorption is taken as approximately 11.5. The pH and CoHA uptake were unchanged from 1 to 24 h for SiO₂ and changed only slightly for carbon. (Co/C is discussed in more detail elsewhere [28].)

Larger quantities of Co/SiO₂ and Co/C (3.5 $\mu\text{mol}/\text{m}^2$ or 6.0 wt% Co on carbon, 1.6 $\mu\text{mol}/\text{m}^2$ or 1.7 wt% on SiO₂) were prepared for further characterization by powder XRD, XAS, and STEM. Powder XRD results of dried, calcined, and reduced (pure) CoHA, Co/C, and Co/SiO₂ are given in Fig. 2.

Reduction of pure CoHA in flowing hydrogen at 300 °C leads to partial reduction of Co³⁺ to Co²⁺ with formation of CoCl₂·2H₂O (Fig. 2IB), which is in accordance with Khalil and Moussa's observation [29] (PDF no. 25-0242; major peaks at $2\theta = 20.8^\circ, 31.42^\circ, 33.1^\circ, 37.9^\circ, 42.3^\circ, 46.6^\circ, \text{ and } 58.1^\circ$). The source of chloride for CoCl₂·2H₂O formation is from counterions on CoHA. An increase of reduction temperature to 650 °C results in the formation of two metallic phases (Fig. 2ID), with sharper, more intense peaks at $2\theta = 44.21^\circ$ and 51.2° corresponding to a relatively sintered fcc phase and broader, lower-intensity peaks at $2\theta = 41.7^\circ, 44.8^\circ, 47.6^\circ, \text{ and } 62.7^\circ$, representative of smaller hcp particles. Calcination 450 °C partially reduces CoHA to the stable spinel oxide, Co₃O₄ (Fig. 2IC)

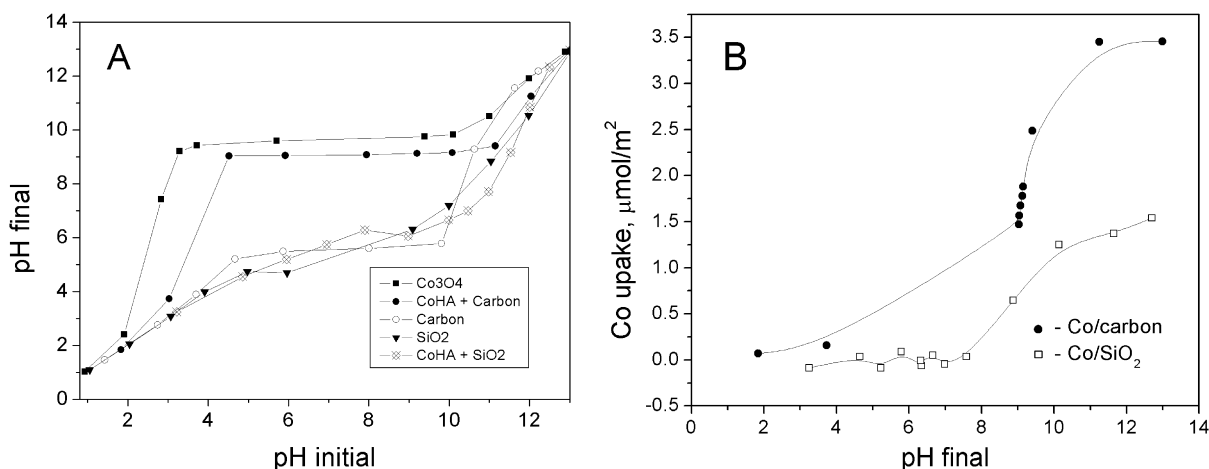


Fig. 1. Co adsorption measurements (200 ppm Co, 1000 m^2/L), (A) solution pH shifts with CoHA + SiO₂, and CoHA + carbon; control experiments for carbon, SiO₂, and Co₃O₄ systems have also been given; (B) CoHA uptake on SiO₂ and carbon versus pH.

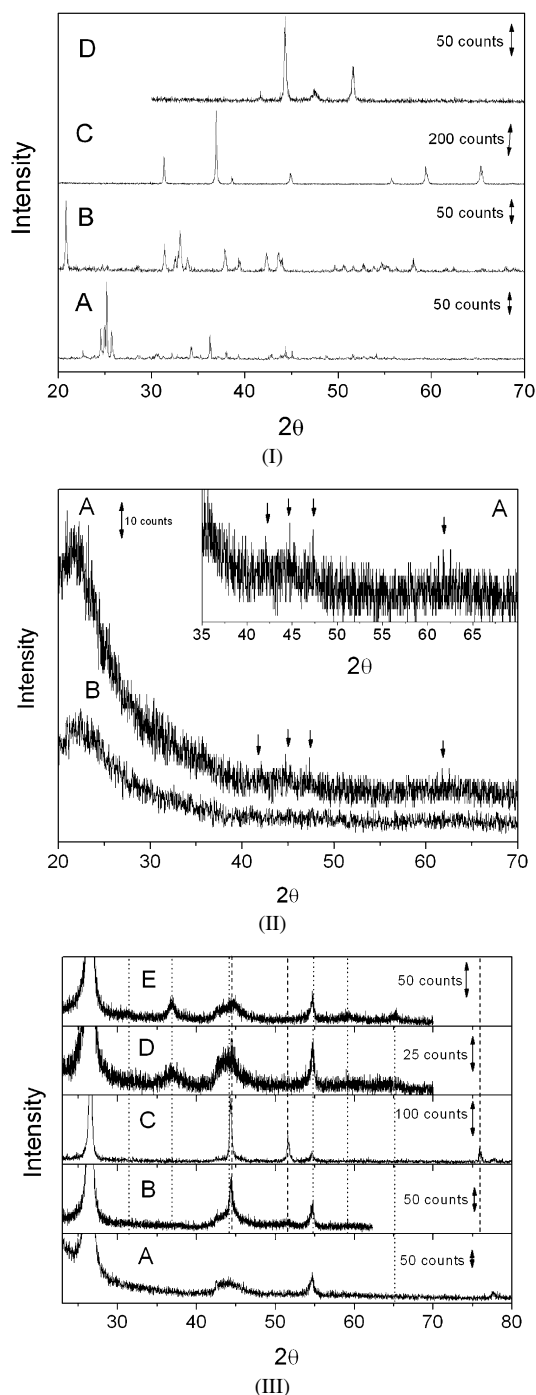


Fig. 2. Powder X-ray diffraction patterns of I—(A) pure CoHA, (B) CoHA reduced at 300 °C, (C) CoHA calcined at 450 °C, and (D) pure CoHA reduced in 100% H₂ at 650 °C; II—(A) CoHA/SiO₂ reduced at 650 °C and (B) CoHA/SiO₂ calcined at 450 °C (inset: enlarged portion of A); III—(A) carbon support, (B) CoHA/C reduced at 500 °C, (C) CoHA/C reduced at 650 °C, (D) CoHA/C dried at room temperature, and (E) CoHA/C calcined at 450 °C.

(PDF no. 74-1657; major peaks at $2\theta = 31.3^\circ, 36.9^\circ, 38.6^\circ, 44.9^\circ, 55.7^\circ, 59.4^\circ, \text{ and } 65.3^\circ$).

The color of CoHA/SiO₂ dried at room temperature was light orange, but changed to dark sky blue when calcined at 100 °C and light sky blue when calcined at higher temperature. That color was preserved even after calcination at 800 °C. No XRD peaks were observed after calcination of CoHA/SiO₂ up

to 800 °C; a typical spectrum of the catalyst calcined at 450 °C is shown in Fig. 2IIB. Both calcined and dried materials were stable to reduction in flowing hydrogen up to 600 °C, but one that reduced at 650 °C showed low-intensity, broad peaks of metallic hcp Co (Fig. 2IIA) at $2\theta = 41.7^\circ, 44.8^\circ, 47.6^\circ, \text{ and } 62.7^\circ$ (PDF no. 05-0727), which are indicated by arrows.

Powder XRD spectra for CoHA/carbon dried at room temperature and calcined at 450 °C are shown in Fig. 2III. The pure carbon pattern is shown in Fig. 2IIIA; diffraction peaks are at $2\theta = 26.6^\circ, 44.7^\circ, 43.7^\circ, 44.7^\circ, \text{ and } 54.7^\circ$ (PDF no. 26-1076). Peaks at $2\theta = 31.3^\circ, 36.9^\circ, 38.6^\circ, 44.9^\circ, 55.7^\circ, 59.4^\circ, \text{ and } 65.3^\circ$ (dotted lines) for the sample impregnated and dried at room temperature (Fig. 2IIID) indicate that Co₃O₄ forms immediately on contact of CoHA with the graphite surface. After calcination at 450 °C, the peaks sharpen, indicating sintering of Co₃O₄ (Fig. 2IIIE). Fig. 2IIIB and C gives the diffraction pattern of Co/C reduced at 500 and 650 °C, respectively, it is obvious from diffraction pattern that peaks due to Co₃O₄ have vanished and peaks due to Co fcc metal at $2\theta = 44.21^\circ, 51.2^\circ, \text{ and } 75.85^\circ$ (PDF no. 15-0806; dashed lines) have appeared. The peak at 44.2° superimposes that of C at the about the same position.

Generally, pure cobalt undergoes the hcp-to-fcc phase transition around 400 °C [30], but it is interesting to note that cobalt Co/SiO₂ has hcp crystals even after the reduction at 650 °C. One reason may be due to formation of cobalt metal directly from the ammine precursor. In the case of Co/C, the formation of cobalt metal is from cobalt(II, III) oxide and yields the fcc phase of cobalt.

To better characterize the Co species during preparation, EXAFS measurements were obtained after various pretreatments. Fig. 3 shows the k^2 -weighted magnitude of the Fourier transform of the reference compounds [CoHA, Co(II) oxide (CoO), Co(II, III) oxide (Co₃O₄), and Co foil]. The first shell fits are given in Table 2. CoHA (Fig. 3Ia) has 6 Co–N bonds at 1.97 Å (peak at about 1.5 Å in the uncorrected FT). Reduction of CoHA at 320 °C, gives a peak at higher R , which, from the phase and bond distance, is consistent with 4 Co–Cl bonds at 2.41 Å (Fig. 3Ib) and is in agreement with powder XRD results for the CoCl₂ phase. The magnitude of the Fourier transform for pure CoO (Fig. 3IIa) has a peak at about 1.5 Å due to 6 Co–O at 2.14 Å and a higher shell peak (2.5 Å) due to scattering from Co atoms (i.e., binding Co–O–Co atoms). CoO is partially reduced by H₂ at 320 °C (Fig. 3IIb) to Co metal with a $N_{\text{Co–Co}} = 6.1$ at a distance of 2.55 Å. A fit of the XANES spectra indicates that about 50% of the Co is metallic with 50% unreduced CoO. Because only a portion of the Co is reduced, the true coordination number is given by the fit value divided by the fraction of metallic Co (e.g., $6.1/0.5 = 12.2$), indicating formation of large metallic Co particles. Perhaps slow transport of hydrogen in the large-grained of CoO was the reason for its incomplete reduction. The Fourier transform for Co₃O₄ also has peaks for Co–O and higher shells for scattering from bridging Co–O–Co. In Co₃O₄, half of the Co–O bonds were tetrahedrally coordinated (at 1.92 Å) and half were octahedrally coordinated (1.94 Å). The Co–O first shell fits of 5 Co–O at 1.94 Å is in good agreement with the XRD structure.

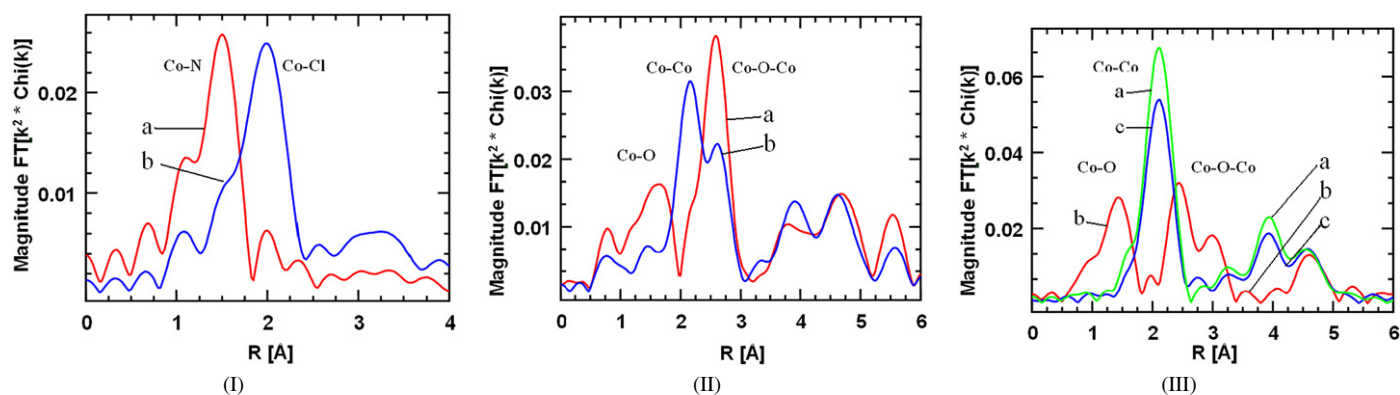


Fig. 3. EXAFS analysis of reduction of different cobalt species: (I) (a) pure CoHA, (b) CoHA reduced at 320 °C; (II) (a) pure CoO, (b) CoO reduced at 320 °C; and (III) (a) Co foil, (b) pure Co₃O₄, (c) Co₃O₄ reduced at 320 °C.

Table 2

Co EXAFS fits for reference compounds (k^2 : $\Delta k = 2.75-12.2^{-1} \text{ \AA}$)

Compound	Treatment	Backscatterer	CN	R (Å)	DWF ($\times 10^3$)	E_0 (eV)
Co(NH ₃) ₆ Cl ₃ (CoHA)	None-mixed with SiO ₂	Co–N	6.0	1.97	0.7	0.3
CoHA reduced	H ₂ at 320 °C	Co–Cl	4.0	2.41	6.0	–1.0
CoO	None-mixed with SiO ₂	Co–O	6.0	2.14	4.3	–0.5
CoO reduced	H ₂ at 320 °C	Co–O	2.0	2.14	–0.3	1.4
		Co–Co	6.1	2.55	0.5	4.5
Co ₃ O ₄	None-mixed with SiO ₂	Co–O	5.0	1.94	–3.0	–4.1
Co ₃ O ₄ reduced	H ₂ at 320 °C	Co–Co	10.1	2.51	0.5	–0.6
Pre-reduced (reduced, RT oxidized, and re-reduced)						
Co ₃ O ₄ reduced 400 °C	4% H ₂ at 300 °C	Co–Co	4.6	2.50	0.5	7.7
Co ₃ O ₄ reduced 400 °C	100% H ₂ at 300 °C	Co–Co	4.6	2.51	0.5	8.4

At 320 °C, Co₃O₄ is fully reduced to metallic Co (Fig. 3IIIc), with a $N_{\text{Co-Co}} = 10.1$ at 2.51 Å. The coordination number is consistent with moderately sized metallic particles of 50–100 Å [31].

The k^2 -weighted magnitude of the Fourier transform spectra of CoHA adsorbed and calcined on SiO₂ are compared in Fig. 4. The first shell fits are given in Table 3. Adsorption of CoHA onto silica and dried at room temperature was identical to that of pure CoHA, that is, $N_{\text{Co-N}} = 6$ at 1.95 Å. After calcination at 100 °C, the number of Co–N bonds decreased to 4 with no change in the bond distance. Calcination at temperatures up to 450 °C (Fig. 4d) indicate no further change in the state of Co. The change in the coordination number from 6 to 4 and the change in the edge position from 7.721 to 7.715 eV (Fig. 5) are consistent with reduction of Co³⁺ to Co²⁺, that is, adsorbed Co(II) tetraammine.

Unlike CoHA adsorbed on silica, CoHA undergoes structural transformation on adsorption onto graphite (Fig. 6). The first shell fits are given in Table 4, and the fit of the Co–O peak ($N_{\text{Co-N}} = 4.7$ at 1.93 Å) and the position of the Co–O–Co peak suggest that Co₃O₄ is formed at room temperature. The size of the Co–O–Co peaks (from about 2.0 to 3.2 Å) of CoHA/C dried at room temperature or 100 °C suggests smaller Co₃O₄ particles, which sinter on calcination at 200 °C. The EXAFS confirms the XRD (Fig. 2) that Co(III) hexaammine transforms to Co₃O₄ on adsorption onto graphite and that sintering occurs on high-temperature calcination.

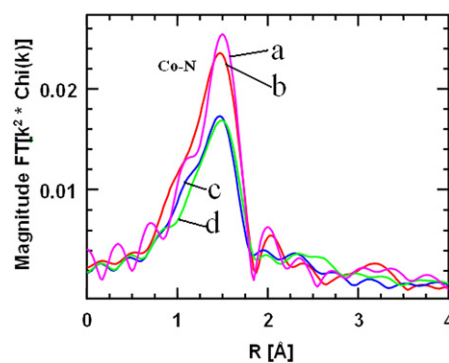


Fig. 4. EXAFS analysis of effect of adsorption/calcination on CoHA/SiO₂: (a) pure CoHA ($N_{\text{Co-N}} = 6.0$), (b) CoHA/SiO₂ dried at room temperature ($N_{\text{Co-N}} = 6.0$), (c) CoHA/SiO₂ dried at 100 °C ($N_{\text{Co-N}} = 4.2$), and (d) CoHA/SiO₂ calcined at 450 °C ($N_{\text{Co-N}} = 4.2$).

The reduction of CoHA on silica and graphite supports is shown in Fig. 7. Reduction of CoHA on silica by H₂ at 320 °C and calcination of CoHA on silica at 450 °C lead to a decrease in the number of Co–N bonds to 4 (Table 3). Similar results obtained for the sample calcined at 450 °C followed by reduction at 320 °C; in other words, the calcined sample's chemical state did not change further due to reduction at 320 °C.

In addition, there was a shift in the edge energy consistent with a reduction of Co³⁺ to Co²⁺ (Fig. 5 a and c). CoHA on silica is easily reduced to cobalt(II) tetraammine by heating in air or H₂ above 100 °C; however, the ammine ligands are not eas-

Table 3
Co EXAFS fits for $\text{Co}(\text{NH}_3)_6^{3+}$ on silica (k^2 : $\Delta k = 2.75\text{--}12.2^{-1} \text{ \AA}$)

Catalyst	Treatment	Backscatter	CN	R (\AA)	DWF ($\times 10^3$)	E_0 (eV)
CoHA–SiO ₂	Dried RT	Co–N	6.0	1.95	0.7	–2.1
CoHA–SiO ₂ reduced ¹	H ₂ at 320 °C	Co–N	4.2	1.98	0.7	0.3
CoHA–SiO ₂ 100 °C cal ¹	Dried 100 °C	Co–N	4.2	1.96	0.7	–2.1
CoHA–SiO ₂ 300 °C cal ¹	Calcined 300 °C	Co–N	4.4	1.97	0.7	–1.6
CoHA–SiO ₂ 450 °C cal ¹	Calcined 450 °C	Co–N	4.2	1.98	0.7	–0.6
CoHA–SiO ₂ 450 °C cal ¹	Calcined 450 °C C, H ₂ at 320 °C	Co–N	4.3	1.98	0.7	0.2

¹ Edge position consistent with Co^{2+} .

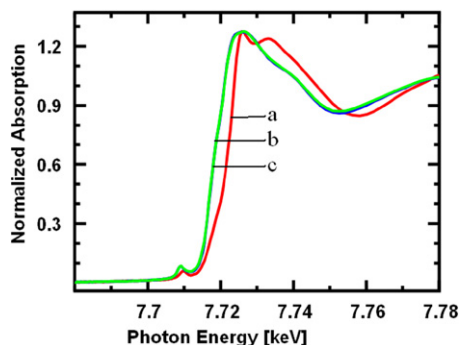


Fig. 5. Co K-edge XANES for $\text{Co}(\text{NH}_3)_6^{3+}$ on silica (7.68–7.78 keV): (a) CoHA dried at RT, (b) CoHA calcined at 500 °C, and (c) CoHA reduced at 320 °C.

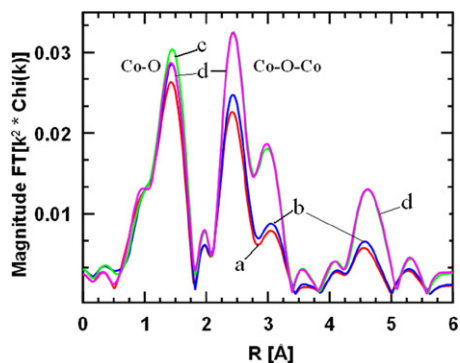


Fig. 6. EXAFS analysis of effect of adsorption/calcination on CoHA/C: (a) room temperature dried ($N_{\text{Co-N}} = 4.7$ and $R = 1.93 \text{ \AA}$), (b) 100 °C calcined ($N_{\text{Co-N}} = 4.8$ and $R = 1.93 \text{ \AA}$), (c) 200 °C calcined ($N_{\text{Co-N}} = 5.2$ and $R = 1.92 \text{ \AA}$), and (d) pure Co_3O_4 ($N_{\text{Co-N}} = 5$ and $R = 1.94 \text{ \AA}$).

ily oxidized or Co^{2+} reduced in the silica-adsorbed cobalt(II) tetraammine.

Whereas CoHA on silica was resistant to reduction to metallic Co, reduction of CoHA on graphite (i.e., supported Co_3O_4 nanoparticles) was partially reduced to metallic Co at 320 °C in H_2 (Table 4; Fig. 7d). In addition, the fit of the Co–O indicated a change in the CoO bond distance to 2.13 Å, characteristic of CoO rather than Co_3O_4 ($R = 1.94 \text{ \AA}$). Furthermore, the higher shell peaks were similar to those of CoO. The XANES spectra were fit with a linear combination of CoO and Co foil. The fraction of metallic Co on CoHA/C dried at room temperature was 0.5, and the fraction of metallic Co decreased to 0.3 for CoHA/C calcined at 200 °C. For both samples, Co_3O_4 reduced to CoO before reduction to metallic Co, and the larger (CoO) particles were more difficult to reduce.

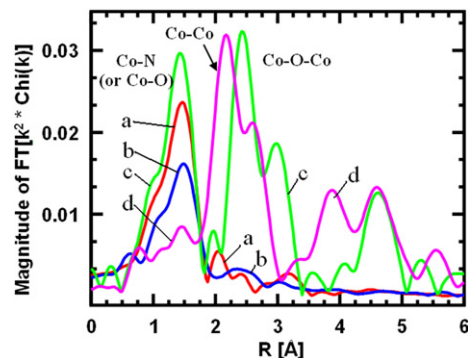


Fig. 7. Effect of reduction at 320 °C on $\text{Co}(\text{NH}_3)_6^{3+}$ on silica and carbon supports: (a) CoHA on silica dried at 100 °C ($N_{\text{Co-N}} = 4.2$, $R = 1.98 \text{ \AA}$), (b) CoHA on silica calcined at 450 °C ($N_{\text{Co-N}} = 4.3$, $R = 1.98 \text{ \AA}$), (c) CoHA on carbon dried at 25 °C ($N_{\text{Co-O}} = 2.2$, $R = 2.13 \text{ \AA}$; $N_{\text{Co-Co}} = 6.6$, $R = 2.51 \text{ \AA}$; $N_{\text{Co-Co(O)Co}} = 5.8$, $R = 3.02 \text{ \AA}$), and (d) CoHA on carbon calcined at 200 °C ($N_{\text{Co-O}} = 2.7$, $R = 2.12 \text{ \AA}$; $N_{\text{Co-Co}} = 4.8$, $R = 2.51 \text{ \AA}$; $N_{\text{Co-Co(O)Co}} = 8.8$, $R = 3.02 \text{ \AA}$ —typical of CoO).

Bright-field transmission electron micrographs for CoHA/SiO₂ calcined at 450 °C are shown in Fig. 8a. There are no apparent particles, implying that the CoHA is molecularly adsorbed. Those of CoHA/silica reduced at 650 °C in H_2 , for which XRD (Fig. 2) indicated small, metallic particles, is shown in Fig. 8b. The average particle size was $6.0 \pm 1.1 \text{ nm}$. CoHA/C calcined at 200 °C and reduced at 320 °C are shown in Figs. 8c and 8d, respectively. The spheroid particles of Co_3O_4 (about 16 nm) in the former image converted to inhomogeneously dispersed Co nanoparticles with smaller size (about 12 nm) on reduction at 320 °C.

4. Discussion

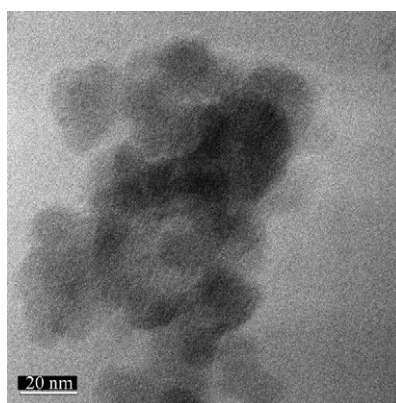
The dramatic difference in the behavior of unsupported cobalt(III) hexaammine, and CoHA adsorbed onto silica and carbon is summarized in Fig. 9. Over silica, Co amines appear to be very stable. Whereas the X-ray absorption methods used here cannot differentiate between O- and N-containing ligands, the XANES and EXAFS data in Figs. 4–7 and Tables 2 and 3 are most easily interpreted as a change in the number of ammine ligands from 6 to 4, whereas Co(III) is reduced to Co(II). This transformation occurs readily (with drying at 100 °C), but then the tetraammine complex appears to be robust through calcination temperatures exceeding 500 °C and reduction temperatures up to 600 °C. The interaction with the silica surface enhances the stability of the Co amines relative to pure. The strong ad-

Table 4
Co EXAFS fits for $\text{Co}(\text{NH}_3)_6^{3+}$ on graphite (k^2 : $\Delta k = 2.75\text{--}12.2^{-1} \text{ \AA}$)

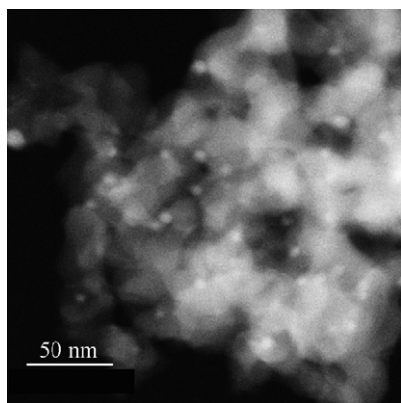
Catalyst	Treatment	Backscatterer	CN	R (\AA)	DWF ($\times 10^3$)	E_0 (eV)
CoHA-C	Dried <i>RT</i>	Co-O	4.7	1.93	-3.2	-4.4
CoHA-C reduced (CoO + Co) ¹	Dried <i>RT</i>	Co-O	2.2	2.13	1.0	0.1
	H_2 at 320 °C	Co-Co	6.6	2.51	1.0	-1.0
		Co-O-Co	5.8	3.02	1.0	-0.5
CoHA-C 100 °C cal	Calcined 100 °C	Co-O	4.8	1.93	-3.2	-4.5
CoHA-C 200 °C cal	Calcined 200 °C	Co-O	5.2	1.94	-3.2	-3.5
CoHA-C 200 °C cal	Calcined 200 °C	Co-O	4.8	1.94	-3.2	-4.3
CoHA-C 200 °C cal reduced (CoO + Co) ²	Calcined 200 °C	Co-O	2.7	2.12	1.0	-0.3
	Reduced 320 °C	Co-Co	4.8	2.51	1.0	-0.7
		Co-O-Co	8.8	3.02	1.0	0.4

¹ XANES fit: 0.5 Co^{2+} and 0.5 Co^0 .

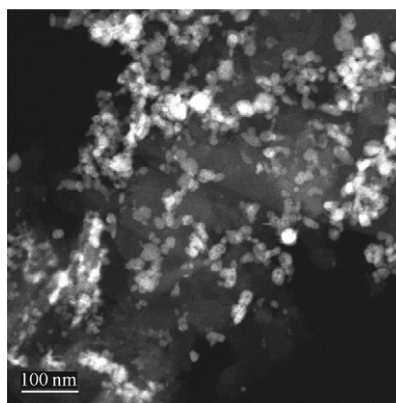
² XANES fit: 0.7 Co^{2+} and 0.3 Co^0 .



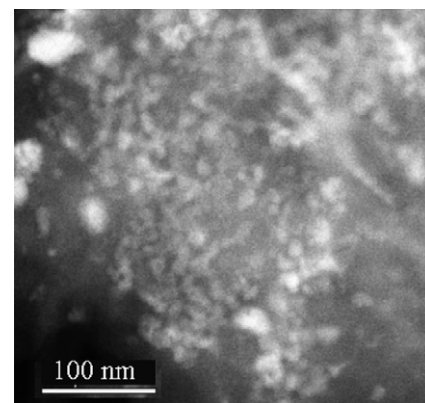
(a)



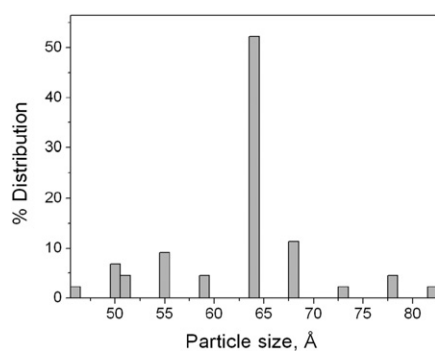
(b)



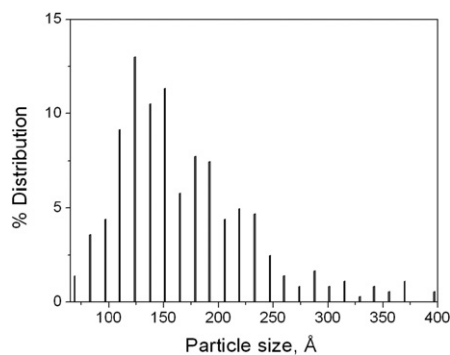
(c)



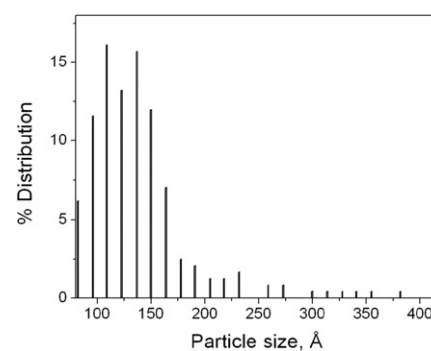
(d)



(B)



(C)



(D)

Fig. 8. STEM images of (a) 450 °C calcined 1.8 wt% CoHA/SiO₂, (b) 650 °C reduced 1.8 wt% CoHA/C, (c) 200 °C calcined 5.15 wt% CoHA/C, and (d) 320 °C reduced 5.15 wt% CoHA/C; (B), (C), and (D) are particle size distribution of (b), (c), and (d), respectively.

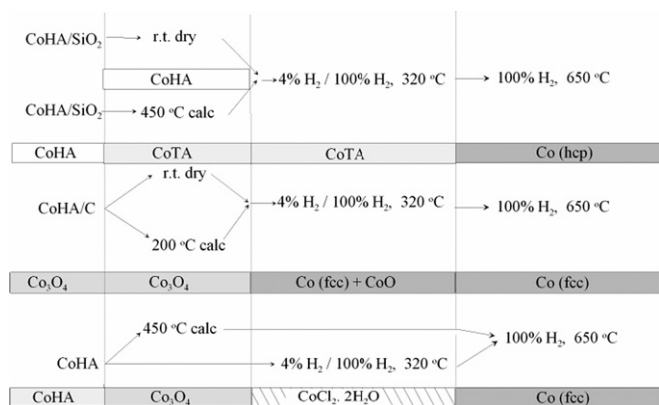


Fig. 9. Schematic of CoHA adsorption on SiO₂ and carbon, calcination and reduction processes. Rectangular box shows chemical state of CoHA in different stages of redox treatments.

sorption of metal ammines complexes on silica gel has been observed for a long time [32–34].

Base metals are known to form phyllosilicate complexes under some preparation conditions [24,35]. The EXAFS spectra of the solution species and the dried precursor (Fig. 4) are essentially the same, and in later stages of pretreatment there are no indications of Co–Co–Si structures in EXAFS data (Figs. 4, 5, and 7) as the Co(III) precursor is reduced to Co(II) and loses 2 ligands. Electron microscopy did not reveal clay-like structures as was recently observed for low-pH preparations of Co/SiO₂ [24]. It may be that the triple-valent Co complex, coordinated with 6 ammine ligands, is more stable to reaction in the aqueous phase than the Co(II) aquoammine intermediates formed in the ammonia method [24]. The formation of phyllosilicates in the Cu/SiO₂ system, which uses a six-coordinate aquoammine complex ([Cu(NH₃)₄(H₂O)₂]²⁺) occurred most readily at the pH (9) corresponding to the maximum of the Cu aquo-hydroxo species ([Cu(OH)₂(H₂O)₄]⁰), whereas its formation is minimized at higher pH in excess ammonia, where the ammine ligands are stable [35].

Finally, the adsorption density of the Co(III) complex seen in Fig. 1 (1.5 μmol/m²) is indicative of an adsorbing complex that retains one hydration sheath [1–4]. The retention of hydration sheaths and the adsorption of Pt ammines as outer-sphere complexes over quartz was directly demonstrated in a recent X-ray reflectivity study [36]. The evidence suggests that no phyllosilicates form under the conditions used here. It would appear that the adsorption of Co(III) hexaammine complexes over silica under the conditions of this study (i.e., high pH with stable ammine complexes, 1 h of contact) can be adequately described by a purely physical, electrostatic mechanism.

On the other hand, the interaction of CoHA with the graphite surface most definitely has a reactive component. The concurrence of the pH plateaus in Fig. 1A for pure Co₃O₄ and CoHA adsorbed onto silica at 1 h of contact time suggests that the Co ammine has reacted completely to the oxide by this time. Powder XRD of the dried, 1-h contacted sample (Fig. 3IIIc) confirms the formation of cobalt(II, III) oxide from CoHA. Calcination of the dried sample only sinters the Co₃O₄ phase (Fig. 3IIIc). The formation of Co₃O₄ was recently re-

ported over carbon nanofibers with a cobalt carbonate precursor deposited via deposition–precipitation at high pH [22]. In that study, Co²⁺ ammines were observed as intermediate Co species.

The reduction of the Co³⁺ complex to Co^{2+/3+} oxide can be considered a reductive deammination [22] on the carbon surface. Whereas the silica and the carbon substrates used here have the same PZC, the added functionality of semiquinone and pyridine-*N*-oxide groups [37] or the pi bonds in the aromatic rings must give rise to the oxidation–reduction reaction wherein the metal complex is reduced and the carbon surface is oxidized. Carbon has been shown to reduce Pt⁴⁺ (chloride and oxychloride) complexes to Pt²⁺ at acidic conditions [38,39].

The cobalt oxide formed during CoHA adsorption with carbon is more easily reduced than either the silica-supported ammine precursor or the pure CoHA. Whereas the pure CoHA reduced at 320 °C converts to CoCl₂·2H₂O, the Co₃O₄ on C converts to CoO and Co metal (Fig. 3) and, at 500 °C, entirely to fcc metal (Fig. 2).

A cited disadvantage of supporting cobalt on silica is that the strong Co precursor–silica interaction leads to a high reduction temperature, at which significant Co sintering occurs [22]. Indeed, we see 6-nm cobalt particles over silica (Fig. 8d, with corresponding Co loading of 1.7 wt%) when the well-dispersed Co ammine precursor (Fig. 8a) is reduced at 650 °C (interestingly, 6–8 nm has been reported to be the optimal Co particle size for Fisher–Tropsch synthesis over Co/CNF [40]). In contrast, Pt ammine precursors strongly adsorbed at pH 10 reduce at 200 °C and form 1-nm particles with 100% dispersion [3]. The reactive interaction of the Co(II) complexes in the ammine method [24] does lead to higher Co dispersions, with particles as small as 3.8 nm at 3 wt% on SiO₂ support. A disadvantage of this method, however, is its complexity; the impregnating solutions must be purged of oxygen to prevent oxidation of the Co, and the preparation must be kept under an inert sweep gas [24]. Higher dispersion of the electrostatically dispersed Co ammine precursor might be achieved with a harsher chemical reduction at lower temperature.

The use of carbon as support for cobalt has been motivated by its potentially weaker interaction with the cobalt complexes, which would allow a lower reduction temperature and minimize sintering [22]. Whereas the reactive deammination of the CoHA complex over carbon may be considered a strong interaction, the product of that interaction is relatively large Co₃O₄ particles, which have less interaction with the carbon surface. Even though these particles become smaller as they are reduced to metal (Fig. 8), as has also been shown for a titania-supported Co₃O₄ precursor phase [41], they are relatively large (average size, about 12 nm). The loading of 3.5 μmol/m² (Fig. 1B) at 291 m²/g, corresponds to a loading of 6.0 wt%. Reduced cobalt particles of 8 nm at 15 wt% Co have been synthesized over carbon nanofibers using HDP [22]. The key to obtaining small carbon supported particles is to find synthesis materials and conditions at which well-dispersed Co oxide or other readily reducible precursor forms; this search is currently ongoing.

There are conflicting reports of the behavior of metallic Co in Co/SiO₂ catalysts in the literature. Sun et al. [42] observed

the fcc phase as the predominant phase in Co/SiO₂ catalyst reduced at 400 °C, while Mishra et al. [43] synthesized nanocomposites of Co/SiO₂ in which Co is in hcp crystal phase, in accordance with pure Co metal phase transition. Another interesting report is that of Lu et al. [44] on Co/SiO₂ core-shell nanoparticles, which found that at a SiO₂ concentration of about 3 mol%, both the hcp and fcc phase exist when reduced at 500 °C, but at a SiO₂ concentration of about 20 mol%, the fcc Co phase and hcp CoO phase exist when reduced at 500 °C for 8 h. When the same material was heated for 16 h, a small amount of hcp Co phase along with fcc Co phase and no CoO phase were seen. These contradictions of different Co phases may be resolved by recent findings of Mattei et al. [45], who studied the size dependence of the hcp-to-fcc transition temperature in Co nanoclusters obtained by ion implantation in silica. They observed a phase-transition temperature of 800 °C for Co/SiO₂ with 5-nm Co particles and concluded that (i) the phase-transition temperature in Co nanoclusters is size-dependent (i.e., increases with decreasing the cluster size) and (ii) the interaction between the matrix and the Co clusters can play a role both in determining the most stable crystalline phase and in controlling the degree of overheating required to achieve hcp-to-fcc transition. They also concluded that kinetic factors can influence the transition.

In the present work, we postulate that the formation of fcc Co phase in Co/C and the hcp Co phase in Co/SiO₂ follows from a combination of size and support effects. Over silica, the CoHA precursor is well dispersed from the strong electrostatic interactions occurring during adsorption. This high initial state of dispersion is maintained to a significant degree through the reduction step; the 6-nm particles are small enough so as to retain their hcp arrangement. But because the CoTA complex is so stable, the reduction is at relatively high temperature, and some sintering does occur relative to the reduction of other metal amines. The 16-nm Co₃O₄ precursor particles formed over carbon are not small enough to retain the hcp structure and so form fcc.

5. Conclusion

Large differences in adsorptive behavior occur when Co(III) hexaamines are contacted at high pH over silica and carbon surfaces with similar PZCs. The Co ammine-silica interaction can be described by a purely electrostatic interaction, is very strong, and prevents reduction until such high temperatures that significant Co sintering occurs. Sufficient interaction exists that the normally lower-temperature stable hcp phase is retained by the metal crystallites. Higher dispersion over silica might be achieved if the well-dispersed ammine precursor is reduced by a lower-temperature chemical reduction. Over carbon, CoHA undergoes a reduction deamination to form large crystals of Co₃O₄. Whereas this precursor phase reduces at much lower temperature than the silica-supported Co amines, the large initial size of the Co₃O₄ phase prevents the formation of small Co particles. High Co metal dispersion on carbon might be achieved with synthesis parameters (other Co complexes, carbons, or adsorption conditions) that yield a highly dispersed Co precursor.

Acknowledgment

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