



## Determination of active site densities and mechanisms for soot combustion with O<sub>2</sub> on Fe-doped CeO<sub>2</sub> mixed oxides

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### ABSTRACT

Fe-doped CeO<sub>2</sub> mixed oxides were studied for soot combustion with O<sub>2</sub> under tight contact conditions. They show increased activity compared to that of pure CeO<sub>2</sub> and Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. The optimum Fe content according to soot ignition temperatures is Fe/(Ce + Fe) = 10 at.%. However, on the basis of turnover frequencies, the samples with a Fe/(Ce + Fe) ratio between 5 and 20 at.% show similar activity. Characterization of the catalysts and a kinetic study show that the reaction proceeds via a redox mechanism. The active sites were determined to be composed of Fe–O–Ce species, and the active oxygen was quantified using isothermal anaerobic titrations with soot as a probe molecule. The redox property for the Fe–O–Ce species is much stronger than for the Ce–O–Ce species. The methodology for quantifying active redox sites can be extended to soot combustion on all similar oxide systems.

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### 1. Introduction

Ce oxides attract special attention for use in diesel soot combustion because of their oxygen storage capacity (OSC) [1,2]. The introduction of Fe into CeO<sub>2</sub> can improve the kinetic performance of soot combustion [3]. Additionally, RHODIA developed the last generation of fuel-borne catalysts (FBC) based on pure Fe colloidal particles with a high intrinsic oxidation property [4]. Reichert et al. [5] studied the reaction mechanism of soot combustion on Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. Among the CeO<sub>2</sub>–Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> mixed oxides, Aneggi et al. [6] found that Ce<sub>0.95</sub>Fe<sub>0.05</sub>O<sub>2</sub> was the most active, while Yan et al. [7] reported that Ce<sub>0.8</sub>Fe<sub>0.2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> had the lowest ignition temperature and had a high thermal stability. Interestingly, CeO<sub>2</sub>–Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> mixed oxides were also studied for CO (possible intermediate of soot combustion) oxidation. Bao et al. [8] and Singh and Hegde [9] respectively stated that Ce<sub>0.9</sub>Fe<sub>0.1</sub>O<sub>2</sub> and Ce<sub>0.85</sub>Fe<sub>0.15</sub>O<sub>2</sub> showed the best catalytic activity. Their work revealed that the CeO<sub>2</sub>–Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> mixed oxides are very promising in catalyzing soot combustion, but no intrinsic activities based on turnover frequency (TOF) are given. Therefore, some results concerning the evaluation of the catalytic performance and the elucidation of the reaction mechanism seem to be inconsistent [6–9]. This is because the derived characteristic temperatures from the temperature-programmed oxidation (TPO) profiles,  $T_n$  (the temperature at which  $n\%$  of the soot converts) and/or  $T_{\max}$  (the temperature at which the maximum CO<sub>x</sub> concentrations

are observed), are not the reaction rate and cannot reveal much about the activity let alone the reaction mechanism. Recently, Gross et al. [2] observed the kinetic evidence related to the reaction mechanism for the K/CeO<sub>2</sub> catalyst, which suggests that kinetic experiments should not be omitted in the study of soot catalytic combustion [10].

TOF is defined as the ratio of the reaction rate to the active site density of the catalysts [11]. To calculate TOF values, the rate in the kinetic regime (internal and external mass and heat transfer are all excluded) must first be determined. The active sites should then be identified and accurately quantified, which is sometimes difficult for heterogeneous catalysis. Several cases of determination of the active sites and the TOF have been proposed in the literature. For supported metal catalysts, the metal sites are known to be active and the number can be obtained by H<sub>2</sub> [12] or CO [13] chemisorption. The acid sites [14] and base sites [15] on the catalyst are usually determined by NH<sub>3</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> chemisorption, respectively. However, different strategies have been used for supported and bulk oxide catalysts. O<sub>2</sub> chemisorption after H<sub>2</sub> prereluction is a common approach, which involves reducing the catalyst surface with H<sub>2</sub> and then reoxidizing to determine the number of redox sites by the amount of O<sub>2</sub> adsorbed. This is not a very accurate method because (1) the actual reactant is not used as the probe molecule; (2) bulk reduction of the oxide can take place; (3) the reduction stoichiometry of the oxide is usually not known; and (4) both the prereluction step and the chemisorption step are highly sensitive to temperature. To solve these problems, a strategy for quantifying the number of active

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sites by the chemisorption of the actual reactant has been reported [16]. However, this method is not suitable for solid–solid reactions such as soot combustion on oxide catalysts. In our latest work [17], we proposed that CO<sub>2</sub> chemisorption can be used to determine the density of active sites for soot combustion on potassium-supported Mg–Al mixed oxides. Recently, isothermal anaerobic titration at the reaction temperature with the actual reactant as the probe molecule has been shown to be an accurate technique for quantifying active redox site densities in metal oxide catalysts, in which all conditions are similar to those of actual reactions except for the presence of oxygen in the gas phase [18]. Because redox product formation is used for quantification, only active redox sites are counted. Polster et al. [19] successfully quantified the Cu–O–Ce redox sites for highly selective CO oxidation in H<sub>2</sub>-rich atmospheres on Cu/CeO<sub>2</sub> catalysts using CO as the probe molecule. Inspired by these works, we quantified the active oxygen site densities and also the TOF for soot combustion on Fe-doped CeO<sub>2</sub> with variable Fe content. This is important for an accurate comparison of activity and for the elucidation of the reaction mechanism. This methodology for quantifying active redox site densities might be extended to soot combustion on all similar oxides that react through a redox process that includes lattice oxygen.

## 2. Experimental

### 2.1. Sample preparation

A series of Ce–Fe mixed oxides with 1, 5, 10, and 20 at.% Fe metal (Ce balance) were prepared by a coprecipitation method. Hereafter, they are denoted as *x*%Fe/*y*%CeO<sub>2</sub>, in which *x* (=100Fe/(Fe + Ce)) and *y* (=100Ce/(Fe + Ce)) are the atom percentages of Fe and Ce, respectively. A stoichiometric solution (100 ml) of Ce(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>3</sub>·6H<sub>2</sub>O and Fe(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>3</sub>·9H<sub>2</sub>O was dropped into 150 ml of NH<sub>3</sub>·H<sub>2</sub>O solution (25%) under vigorous agitation, and the resultant precipitate was aged in air for a certain time at room temperature and pressure. The resultant precipitates were dried at 100 °C overnight and calcined at 650 °C for 6 h in static air. For comparison, pure Ce and Fe oxides were also prepared using a similar procedure, and these were determined to be CeO<sub>2</sub> and Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, respectively.

### 2.2. Characterization

X-ray powder diffraction (XRD) patterns were recorded on a Rigaku D/max-rc diffractometer employing Cu K $\alpha$  radiation ( $\lambda = 1.5418 \text{ \AA}$ ) operating at 60 kV and 40 mA. The details of the quantitative analysis are given in the Supplementary Information.

Field-emission scanning electron microscopy (FESEM) was conducted on a JEOL SU70. Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) with energy dispersive spectroscopy (EDS) was conducted on a JEOL JEM-2010 at an accelerating voltage of 200 kV.

The Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) surface area and pore structure were measured by N<sub>2</sub> adsorption/desorption using a Micromeritics 2020 M instrument. Before N<sub>2</sub> physisorption, the sample was outgassed at 300 °C for 5 h.

X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) data were obtained on an AXIS-Ultra instrument from Kratos Analytical using monochromatic Al K $\alpha$  radiation (225 W, 15 mA, 15 kV) and low-energy electron flooding for charge compensation. To compensate for surface charge effects, the binding energies were calibrated using the C1s hydrocarbon peak at 284.80 eV.

Electron paramagnetic resonance (EPR) spectra at the X-band frequency ( $\approx 9.7 \text{ GHz}$ ) were recorded at room temperature with a

Bruker EMX-8 spectrometer. The *g* factor was calculated by the equation  $h\nu = g\beta H$ , where *h* is Planck's constant, *H* is the applied magnetic field (measured with a teslameter), and  $\beta$  is Bohr's magneton.

Raman spectra were obtained in a backscattering configuration on a Renishaw 1000 confocal laser Raman spectrometer with a 25-mW Ar<sup>+</sup> laser (514.5 nm) and a 20 $\times$  long-focus lens. The time of acquisition was 60 s.

Temperature-programmed reduction with H<sub>2</sub> (H<sub>2</sub>-TPR) experiments were performed in a quartz reactor with a thermal conductivity detector (TCD) to monitor the H<sub>2</sub> consumed. A 50-mg sample (10-mg for Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>) was pretreated *in situ* at 500 °C for 1 h in a flow of O<sub>2</sub> and cooled to room temperature in the presence of O<sub>2</sub>. TPR was conducted at 10 °C/min up to 700 °C in a 30-ml/min flow of 5 vol.% H<sub>2</sub> in N<sub>2</sub>. After the first cycle, the sample was cooled to room temperature in the H<sub>2</sub>/N<sub>2</sub> mixture. The sample was then reoxidized at 500 °C for 1 h in O<sub>2</sub> and cooled to room temperature in O<sub>2</sub>, and then a second TPR run was conducted. Similar consecutive TPR runs were carried out over several cycles. To quantify the total amount of H<sub>2</sub> consumed during these experiments, CuO was used as a calibration reference.

### 2.3. Reactions

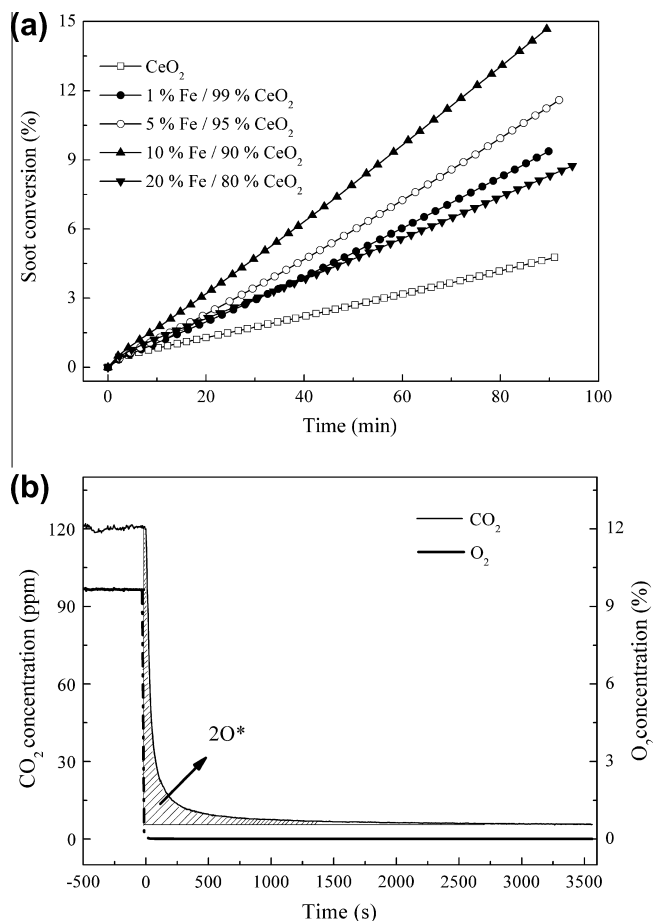
#### 2.3.1. TPO reactions

The TPO reactions were conducted in a fixed-bed micro reactor consisting of a quartz tube (6 mm i.d.). Printex-U from Degussa was used as the model soot. The mixture of soot and catalyst in a weight ratio of 1:9 under tight contact was obtained by grinding the soot with the catalyst in an agate mortar for 30 min and pressing for 10 min at 20 MPa, and then crushing and sieving to 20–60 mesh [20]. For pure soot combustion (noncatalytic), the catalyst was replaced with silica. The tight contact between the soot and the catalyst was confirmed by FESEM (Fig. S1 in the Supplementary Information). Typically, a mixture of 100 mg, diluted with silica to favor heat transfer, is pretreated at 200 °C for 30 min in high-purity He (30 ml/min), and then heated from room temperature to 700 °C at a heating rate of 5 °C/min in a flow of 10 vol.% O<sub>2</sub> + He at a flow rate of 100 ml/min. The outlet concentrations in the product gas were measured online by an SP-6890 gas chromatograph (GC) (Shandong Lunan Ruihong Chemical Instrument Corporation, China) fitted with a methanator. A flame ionization detector (FID) was employed to determine CO and CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations after these gases were separated over a Porapak Q column and converted into methane over a Ni catalyst at 360 °C.

The ignition temperature for soot combustion is evaluated by the value of *T*<sub>10</sub>, which is defined as the temperature at which 10% of the soot is converted [21]. The selectivity to CO<sub>2</sub> formation is defined as the CO<sub>2</sub> outlet concentration as a percentage of the sum of the CO<sub>2</sub> and CO outlet concentrations.

#### 2.3.2. Isothermal reactions

Isothermal reactions for soot combustion at 280 °C were conducted, at which a stable and low conversion of soot (<15%) was achieved in an approximate kinetic regime. The selection of 280 °C is made because (1) at 280 °C, the soot conversion is low and (2) at 280 °C, the soot conversion is nearly constant over time (see Fig. 1a). However, lower conversions at lower temperatures were not used in order to obtain accurate enough analyses. Above 280 °C, the soot conversion increases significantly. In this case, the reaction cannot be thought to be in a stable state. Furthermore, a series of experiments were performed to exclude internal and external diffusion and heat transfer. For the pellets of the mixture of catalyst and soot prepared described in Section 2.3.1, we found that there were no intraparticle mass transport limitations when



**Fig. 1.** (a) Soot conversion at 280 °C as a function of time over  $x\%Fe/y\%CeO_2$  and  $CeO_2$ ; (b)  $CO_2$  concentrations at 280 °C as a function of time over 10%Fe/90% $CeO_2$  before and after  $O_2$  is removed from the reactant feed.

the diameter was below 48  $\mu m$ . For a total flow rate of about 150 ml/min, no external mass transport limitations were detected. When the conversion of soot is lower than 15%, the temperature increase of the diluted catalyst bed is not found. Thus, the reaction rate for soot combustion can be obtained from the slope of the lines, as shown in Fig. 1a. During isothermal anaerobic titrations, soot is regarded as the probe molecule. As shown in Fig. 1b,  $O_2$  is instantaneously removed from the reactant stream and is replaced with a flow of He. The transient decay in concentrations from the steady state was monitored using a quadruple mass spectrometer (MS, OmniStar 200, Balzers) with a  $m/z$  of 44 for  $CO_2$  and 32 for  $O_2$ . The distance between MS and the reactor is as small as possible (about 1 m). Before experiments, MS was carefully calibrated by standard gas. The number of active redox sites available to soot under these reaction conditions can be quantified by integrating the diminishing rate of  $CO_2$  formation over time (the shaded area),

$$O^* \text{ amount (mol/g)} : \frac{2FAP_0 \times 10^{-6}}{RTm} \quad (1)$$

$$O^* \text{ density (nm}^{-2}\text{)} : \frac{2 \times 6.02FAP_0 \times 10^{-1}}{RTmS}, \quad (2)$$

where  $A$  is the shaded area (s),  $F$  is the volumetric flow rate (L/s),  $m$  is the mass of the catalyst (g),  $P_0$  is the atmospheric pressure (Pa),  $R$  is the gas constant,  $T$  is room temperature (K), and  $S$  is the specific surface area ( $m^2/g$ ).

### 3. Results

#### 3.1. Characterization

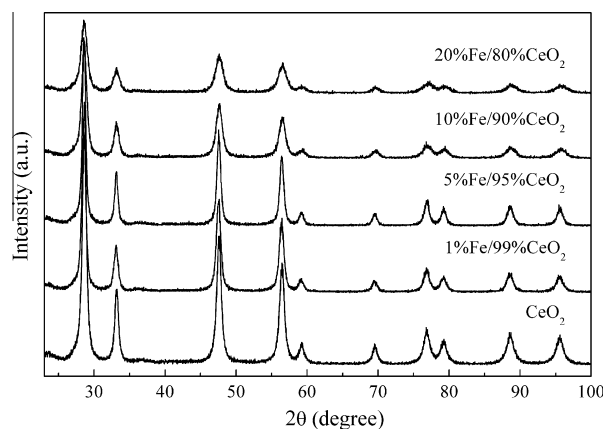
##### 3.1.1. XRD and TEM

Our detailed XRD results show that the  $\alpha$ - $Fe_2O_3$  phase with a hexagonal haematite structure is detected only when  $y \geq 30$  (Fig. S2 in the Supplementary Information), in agreement with Ref. [22]. Fig. 2 shows the step scan XRD patterns of the  $CeO_2$  and  $x\%Fe/y\%CeO_2$  samples after calcination at 650 °C for 6 h. All samples give identical reflections and match what is expected for pure  $CeO_2$  with a cubic fluorite structure ( $Fm\bar{3}m$ , JCPDS 34-0394), suggesting a high level of Fe incorporation within  $CeO_2$ . The unit cell parameter ( $a$ ) was thus calculated and is shown in Table 1 with standard deviations. Instead of a decrease in  $a$  due to the substitution of the smaller  $Fe^{3+}$  ions (the ionic radius of  $Fe^{3+}$  in a six-coordination structure and high spin level is 0.64 Å) for the larger  $Ce^{4+}$  ions (the ionic radius of  $Ce^{4+}$  in a eight-coordination structure is 0.97 Å), we observed a slight increase in  $a$  for the 1%Fe/99% $CeO_2$  and 5%Fe/95% $CeO_2$  samples compared with pure  $CeO_2$ . However, a monotonic decrease is observed from 1%Fe/99% $CeO_2$  to 20%Fe/80% $CeO_2$ .

TEM was also conducted for 10%Fe/90% $CeO_2$  (Fig. S3 in the Supplementary Information). The clear lattice fringes give evidence of well-crystallized samples. The average atomic ratio between Fe and Ce analyzed by EDS was almost the same as in the starting materials. This suggests the incorporation of Fe ions into the  $CeO_2$  structure, which is consistent with XRD results.

##### 3.1.2. Surface areas

The BET surface areas of the  $CeO_2$ ,  $x\%Fe/y\%CeO_2$ , and  $Fe_2O_3$  samples are also listed in Table 1. Pure  $Fe_2O_3$  (18  $m^2/g$ ) has a lower surface area than  $CeO_2$ . However, after doping with Fe, the surface areas of the  $x\%Fe/y\%CeO_2$  samples increase compared to that of pure  $CeO_2$ . The largest surface area was obtained for 5%Fe/95% $CeO_2$  [8].

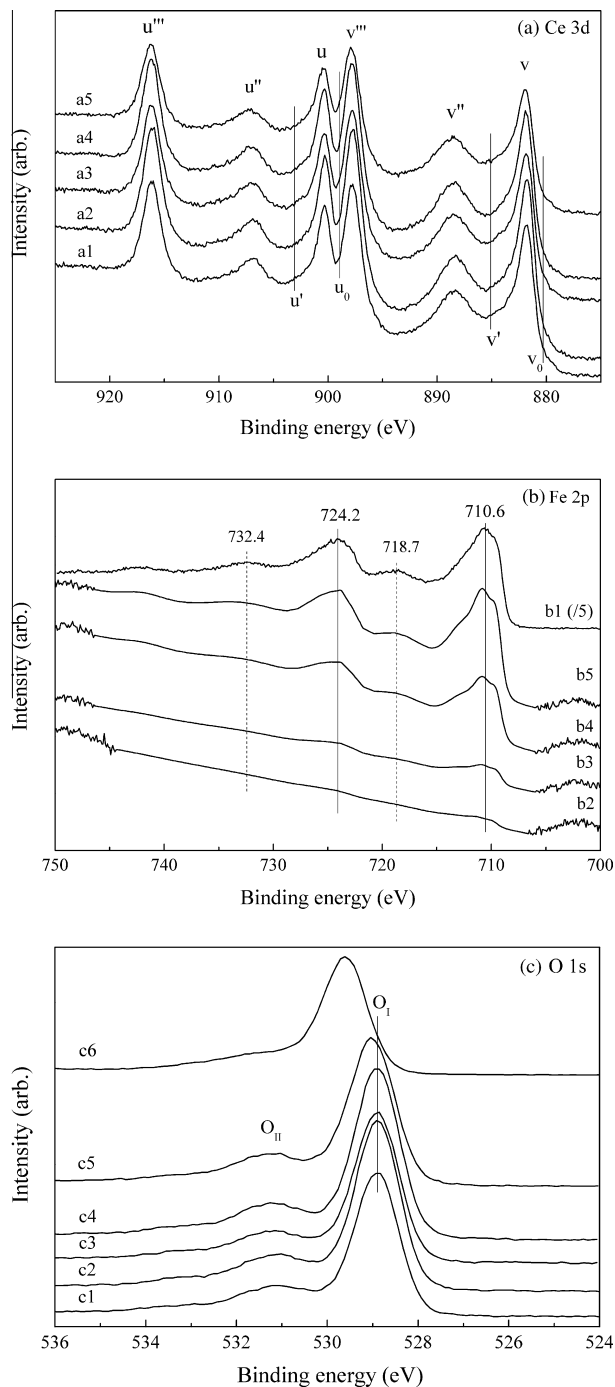


**Fig. 2.** Step scan XRD patterns of the  $CeO_2$  and  $x\%Fe/y\%CeO_2$  samples.

**Table 1**

Textural properties of the  $CeO_2$ ,  $x\%Fe/y\%CeO_2$ , and  $Fe_2O_3$  samples.

Sample	Unit cell parameter, $a$ (Å)	Crystallite size (nm)	BET surface area ( $m^2/g$ )
$CeO_2$	$5.4023 \pm 0.0015$	14.5	50.6
1%Fe/99% $CeO_2$	$5.4087 \pm 0.0009$	14.0	62.6
5%Fe/95% $CeO_2$	$5.4046 \pm 0.0003$	18.5	64.3
10%Fe/90% $CeO_2$	$5.3974 \pm 0.0010$	11.7	55.6
20%Fe/80% $CeO_2$	$5.3966 \pm 0.0007$	7.8	53.4
$Fe_2O_3$	–	–	18.0



**Fig. 3.** XPS spectra of Ce3d (a), Fe2p (b), and O1s (c) for CeO<sub>2</sub>, x%Fe/y%CeO<sub>2</sub>, and Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. (a1, c1) CeO<sub>2</sub>; (b1, c6) Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>; (a2, b2, and c2) 1%Fe/99%CeO<sub>2</sub>; (a3, b3, and c3) 5%Fe/10%CeO<sub>2</sub>; (a4, b4, and c4) 10%Fe/90%CeO<sub>2</sub>; (a5, b5, and c5) 20%Fe/80%CeO<sub>2</sub>.

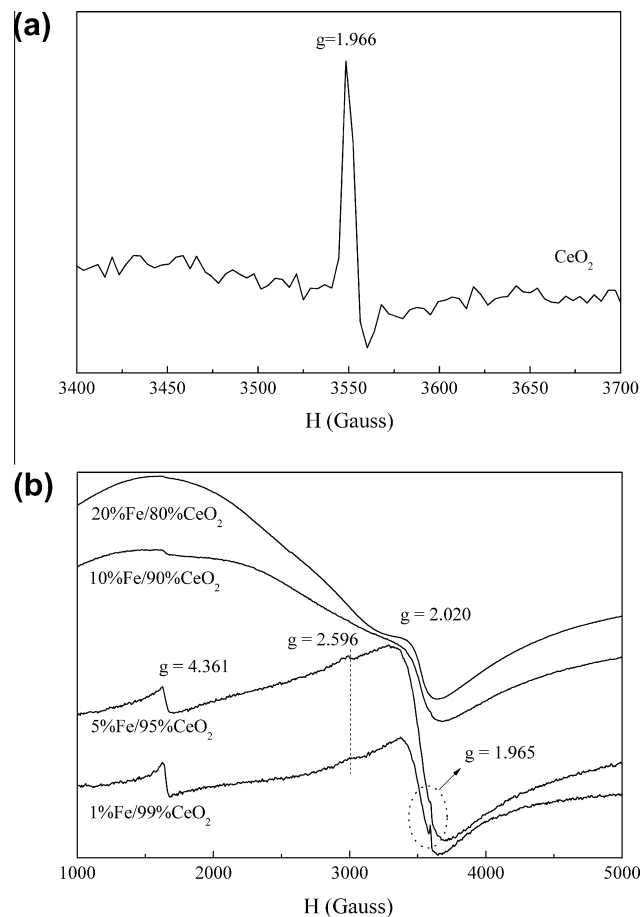
### 3.1.3. XPS

Fig. 3 shows the Ce3d (a), Fe2p (b), and O1s (c) spectra of CeO<sub>2</sub>, x%Fe/y%CeO<sub>2</sub>, and Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. In the Ce3d spectra, the peaks labeled *u* and *v* refer to the 3d<sub>3/2</sub> and 3d<sub>5/2</sub> spin-orbit components, respectively. The dominant peaks denoted by *v*, *v''*, *v'''*, *u*, *u''*, and *u'''* are characteristic peaks of Ce<sup>4+</sup> ions, whereas those marked by *v*<sub>0</sub>, *v'*, *u*<sub>0</sub>, and *u'* are of Ce<sup>3+</sup> ions, which can only be slightly distinguished. This suggests that the Ce seems to be mostly in a +4 oxidation state [23]. The Fe2p spectra show characteristic Fe2p<sub>3/2</sub> and Fe2p<sub>1/2</sub> peaks at binding energies of 710.6 and 724.2 eV, respectively [24]. Two weak satellite peaks at 718.7 and 732.4 eV were also dis-

**Table 2**

The atomic ratios of Fe/Ce and O/(Ce + Fe) by XPS surface compositional analysis.

Sample	Fe/Ce	O/(Ce + Fe)	Stoichiometric Fe/Ce
1%Fe/99%CeO <sub>2</sub>	0.015	1.969	0.010
5%Fe/95%CeO <sub>2</sub>	0.058	1.739	0.053
10%Fe/90%CeO <sub>2</sub>	0.156	1.926	0.111
20%Fe/80%CeO <sub>2</sub>	0.350	1.871	0.250



**Fig. 4.** EPR spectra of CeO<sub>2</sub> (a) and x%Fe/y%CeO<sub>2</sub> (b) at room temperature.

tinguished. This indicates that Fe is in a +3 oxidation state. The surface atomic ratios of Fe/Ce for x%Fe/y%CeO<sub>2</sub> are summarized in Table 2. Each value was higher than that of the bulk (stoichiometry). Although solid solutions were formed for the x%Fe/y%CeO<sub>2</sub> samples, an enrichment of Fe on the surface was detected.

In the O1s spectra (Fig. 3c), a significant peak was observed for Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, which can be assigned to lattice oxygen. However, a main peak (O<sub>I</sub>) and a shoulder (O<sub>II</sub>) were detected for CeO<sub>2</sub> and x%Fe/y%CeO<sub>2</sub>. Generally, the former corresponds to bulk oxygen, while the later represents various surface oxygen species. It is observed that the O<sub>I</sub> peak shifts to higher energy for 20%Fe/80%CeO<sub>2</sub>, possibly due to the presence of FeO<sub>x</sub> aggregates on the surface. As given in Table 2, the surface atomic ratios of O/(Ce + Fe) for x%Fe/y%CeO<sub>2</sub> were lower than those of the stoichiometry (2.0), suggesting the existence of O vacancies on these sample surfaces.

### 3.1.4. EPR

Fig. 4 shows the EPR spectra of CeO<sub>2</sub> (a) and x%Fe/y%CeO<sub>2</sub> (b) at room temperature. The characteristic signal of Ce<sup>3+</sup> was observed at *g* = 1.966 for CeO<sub>2</sub> (Fig. 4a) [25]. Similarly to that reported in

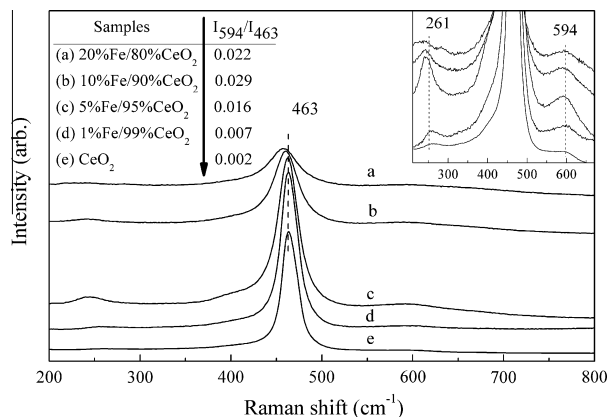


Fig. 5. Raman spectra of the  $x\%Fe/y\%CeO_2$  samples.

[26], the oxygen vacancy signals for  $O_2^-$  and  $O^-$  cannot be distinguished at room temperature because of their low relaxation spin times [27]. For  $x\%Fe/y\%CeO_2$ , each spectrum is a superposition of the signals from  $Ce^{3+}$  and  $Fe^{3+}$  ions. As shown in Fig. 4b, the two EPR signals centered at  $g = 2.020$  and  $g = 4.361$  are associated with the  $Fe^{3+}-O_6$  unit having a distorted rhombic symmetry [28]. Furthermore, a new weak signal at  $g = 2.596$  appeared for 1%Fe/99%CeO<sub>2</sub> and 5%Fe/95%CeO<sub>2</sub>, which can be attributed to the formation of the Fe–O–Ce bond [28–30]. It is observed that the incorporation of low-valence ions, such as  $Sr^{2+}$  ( $La^{3+}$  or  $Y^{3+}$ ), into the Ce–Zr–O mixed oxides would result in the presence of a new type of paramagnetic centers in EPR spectra due to the formation of Ce–O–Sr (La or Y) bonds [29 and references therein]. The strong interaction between Fe and Ce ions with a partial transfer of unpaired electron density from  $Ce^{3+}$  to  $Fe^{3+}$  (Fe is more electronegative than Ce) induces the  $g$ -value variation [30]. The broad resonance linewidth of the  $g = 2.020$  signal for 10%Fe/90%CeO<sub>2</sub> and 20%Fe/80%CeO<sub>2</sub> indicates the formation of Fe–O clusters on the surface and the strong magnetic dipole interactions among these fine clusters, which also shields the signals of  $Ce^{3+}$  and Fe–O–Ce, as observed for 1%Fe/99%CeO<sub>2</sub> and 5%Fe/95%CeO<sub>2</sub>. In addition, the disappearance of the  $g = 4.361$  signal for 20%Fe/80%CeO<sub>2</sub> suggests the complete formation of  $FeO_x$  aggregates [31].

### 3.1.5. Raman

Fig. 5 shows the Raman spectra of the  $x\%Fe/y\%CeO_2$  and CeO<sub>2</sub> samples. The intense band observed at  $\sim 463\text{ cm}^{-1}$  can be assigned to the symmetric breathing mode of the O atoms around each  $Ce^{4+}$  because that is the only allowed Raman mode with  $F_{2g}$  symmetry in metal oxides with a fluoride structure [32], and this coincides with our XPS results. The peak shifts toward a lower frequency and becomes progressively broader and asymmetric with an increase in the doping content, which can be explained by lattice distortions due to the incorporation of Fe into CeO<sub>2</sub> [33]. Two weak second-order peaks appear at  $261\text{ cm}^{-1}$  and  $594\text{ cm}^{-1}$ , which are characteristic of a transverse acoustic mode and oxygen vacancies in the ceria lattice, respectively, as clearly seen in the inset [34]. The Raman spectrum for Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> exhibits four bands at 222, 288, 407, and  $605\text{ cm}^{-1}$ , respectively, which are not observed at all in Fig. 5. One reason for this is that the Raman bands in Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> are much weaker than those in CeO<sub>2</sub> due to the strong absorbance of haematite at the wavenumber region of the Raman spectrum. The other is related to the formation of Ce–Fe solid solutions [8].

Importantly, as shown by the  $I_{594}/I_{463}$  values, the oxygen vacancy concentration reaches a maximum for 10%Fe/90%CeO<sub>2</sub>. This phenomenon has been explained in the literature [8].  $Fe^{3+}$  prefers to occupy the substituted  $Ce^{4+}$  sites in the ceria structure (1%Fe/

99%CeO<sub>2</sub> and 5%Fe/95%CeO<sub>2</sub>), and thus the oxygen vacancy concentrations increase as the amount of doped  $Fe^{3+}$  increases, but when the amount of doped  $Fe^{3+}$  exceeds a critical value (10%Fe/90%CeO<sub>2</sub>),  $Fe^{3+}$  gradually becomes interstitial within the ceria structure, which would decrease the oxygen vacancy concentrations (20%Fe/80%CeO<sub>2</sub>).

The presence of oxygen vacancies and the corresponding  $Ce^{3+}$  can be used to explain the change in cell parameters of the  $x\%Fe/y\%CeO_2$  samples, which is observed in the XRD results. Because of the smaller  $Ce^{4+}$  ion ( $0.97\text{ \AA}$ ) compared with the  $Ce^{3+}$  ion ( $1.23\text{ \AA}$ ), the slight unit cell expansion for the 1%Fe/99%CeO<sub>2</sub> and 5%Fe/95%CeO<sub>2</sub> samples can be attributed to the partial reduction of  $Ce^{4+}$  to  $Ce^{3+}$  [35]. Nevertheless, with an increase in the amount of  $Fe^{3+}$  ( $0.64\text{ \AA}$ ), a gradual shrinkage of the unit cell is expected. The combination of these two factors results in a smaller cell parameter for 10%Fe/90%CeO<sub>2</sub> compared with CeO<sub>2</sub> irrespective of its having the highest concentration of oxygen vacancies. A further decrease in  $a$  is certain for 20%Fe/80%CeO<sub>2</sub> because of the decrease in oxygen vacancy concentration and a simultaneous increase in the amount of Fe.

### 3.1.6. H<sub>2</sub>-TPR

Fig. 6 shows the H<sub>2</sub>-TPR profiles of the Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, CeO<sub>2</sub>, and  $x\%Fe/y\%CeO_2$  samples during the fourth cycle (the first cycle for Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>). The cyclic TPR profile characteristics were almost reproducible after the first cycle (Fig. S4 in the Supplementary Information), indicating that the redox reaction is reversible. Therefore, as an example, the fourth TPR spectra are discussed below. Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> shows

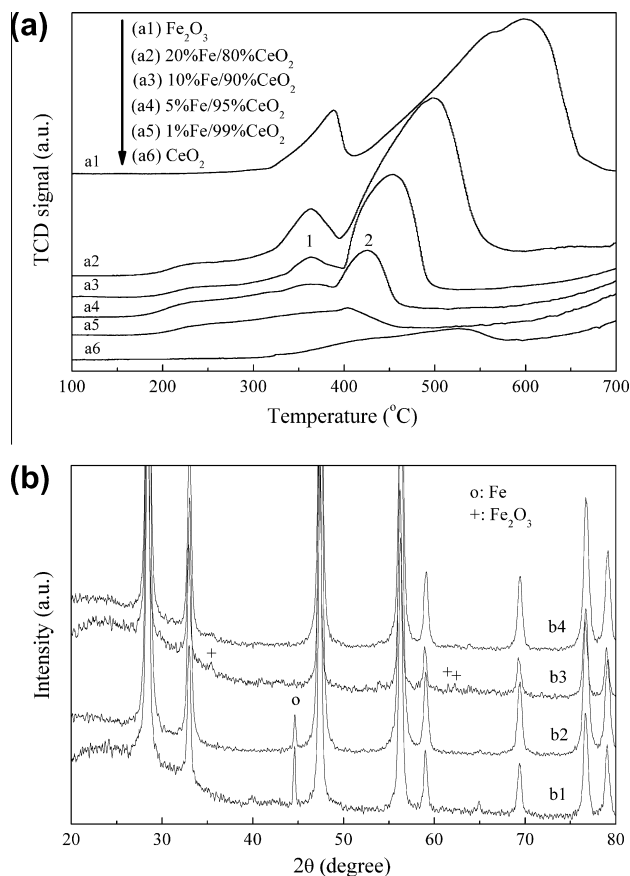


Fig. 6. (a) H<sub>2</sub>-TPR profiles of the  $x\%Fe/y\%CeO_2$  samples during the fourth cycle (the first cycle for Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>); (b) XRD patterns of 20%Fe/80%CeO<sub>2</sub> after four cycles of H<sub>2</sub>-TPR (b1); 10%Fe/90%CeO<sub>2</sub> after four cycles of H<sub>2</sub>-TPR (b2); 20%Fe/80%CeO<sub>2</sub> after four cycles of H<sub>2</sub>-TPR and reoxidation by O<sub>2</sub> (b3); 10%Fe/90%CeO<sub>2</sub> after four cycles of H<sub>2</sub>-TPR and reoxidation by O<sub>2</sub> (b4).

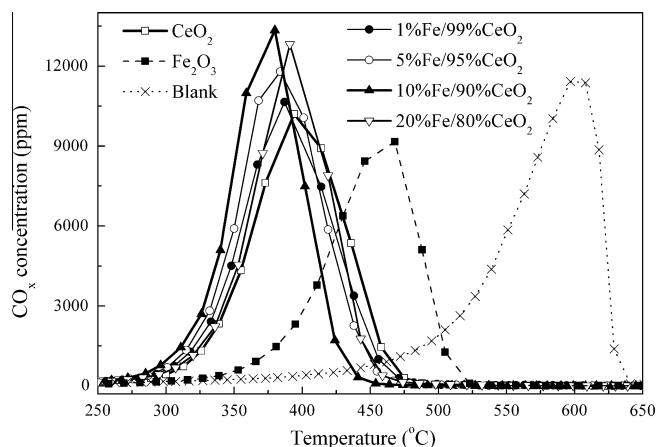


Fig. 7. TPO patterns of  $\text{CO}_x$  for soot combustion with  $\text{O}_2$  over the  $x\%\text{Fe}/y\%\text{CeO}_2$ ,  $\text{CeO}_2$ , and  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  samples under a tight contact condition between soot and catalyst.

a sharp peak at 385 °C and a strong peak at 590 °C, corresponding to the reduction of haematite to magnetite ( $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$ ) and of magnetite to  $\text{Fe}^0$  (Fig. 6b), respectively [36].  $\text{CeO}_2$  shows a characteristic profile for ceria reduction with a broad peak from about 325 °C [37]. 1%Fe/99% $\text{CeO}_2$  shows behavior similar to that of  $\text{CeO}_2$ ; however, the reduction temperature is considerably lower than that of  $\text{CeO}_2$ , suggesting that the incorporation of Fe increases the mobility of the surface lattice oxygen. In contrast, the 5%Fe/95% $\text{CeO}_2$ , 10%Fe/90% $\text{CeO}_2$ , and 20%Fe/80% $\text{CeO}_2$  samples show two peaks, which means that the reducibility of these three samples is comparable. However, the intensities of Peak 1 and Peak 2 increase as the amount of Fe increases, suggesting that they are related to the reduction of the Fe species. Furthermore, Peak 2 only appears after the first TPR cycle (Fig. S4 in the Supplementary Information) and shifts to higher temperatures with an increase in the amount of Fe, revealing that Fe segregates to the surface from the bulk after the first redox reaction. At higher levels of Fe doping, the segregation is more serious. As shown in Fig. 6b,  $\text{Fe}^0$  was observed for 20%Fe/80% $\text{CeO}_2$  and 10%Fe/90% $\text{CeO}_2$  after the fourth cycle of  $\text{H}_2$ -TPR. This means that the reduction process is accompanied by metal particle agglomeration. After four cycles of  $\text{H}_2$ -TPR and reoxidation by  $\text{O}_2$ , XRD patterns for 20%Fe/80% $\text{CeO}_2$  and 10%Fe/90% $\text{CeO}_2$  were obtained and are also shown in Fig. 6b. 20%Fe/80% $\text{CeO}_2$  consists of a bulk  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  phase. A quantitative analysis (see the Supplementary Information) shows that approximately 15 at.% Fe ( $x = 15$ ) is segregated as bulk  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  to the surface of 20%Fe/80% $\text{CeO}_2$  and, therefore, only 5 at.% Fe ( $x = 5$ ) is redispersed over/within the  $\text{CeO}_2$  crystallites. Actually, the bulklike  $\text{FeO}_x$  aggregates for the fresh 20%Fe/80% $\text{CeO}_2$  sample were already distinguished by the presence of a weak Peak 2 in the first TPR spectra (Supplementary Information), in agreement with the XPS and EPR analysis. However, 10%Fe/90% $\text{CeO}_2$  does not show a bulk  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  phase, suggesting that all the  $\text{Fe}^0$  is reoxidized into  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  and redispersed over the  $\text{CeO}_2$  crystallites as extremely small Fe–O clusters in proximity to Ce or directly incorporated within the  $\text{CeO}_2$  lattice to form solid solutions. This is also the case for 1%Fe/99% $\text{CeO}_2$  and 5%Fe/95% $\text{CeO}_2$ . Consequently, the TPR process is reproducible after the first cycle for all  $x\%\text{Fe}/y\%\text{CeO}_2$  samples. Because the reduction temperatures (Peak 1) are much lower than those of pure  $\text{CeO}_2$  and  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ , the presence of a strong interaction between Fe and Ce is expected, which may be attributed to the reduction of surface Fe–O–Ce species (neither bulk  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  nor bulk  $\text{CeO}_2$ ). This is called synergism due to the high dispersion of Fe ions over the  $\text{CeO}_2$  surface or the

Table 3

Ignition temperature and selectivity to  $\text{CO}_2$  for soot combustion under tight contact conditions.

Sample	$T_{10}$ (°C)	Selectivity to $\text{CO}_2$ (%)
Blank (noncatalytic)	475	51
$\text{CeO}_2$	343	96
1%Fe/99% $\text{CeO}_2$	335	100
5%Fe/95% $\text{CeO}_2$	334	100
10%Fe/90% $\text{CeO}_2$	328	100
20%Fe/80% $\text{CeO}_2$	340	100
$\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$	385	99

formation of the Ce–Fe solid solution [38]. From the discussions above, the emergence of Peak 2 after the first TPR can easily be attributed to the reduction of the segregated  $\text{FeO}_x$  species.

### 3.2. Reactions

#### 3.2.1. TPO reactions

Fig. 7 shows the TPO patterns of soot combustion on the  $x\%\text{Fe}/y\%\text{CeO}_2$ ,  $\text{CeO}_2$ , and  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  samples.  $T_{10}$  and  $\text{CO}_2$  selectivity for all the samples are summarized in Table 3. The carbon mass balance is between 90 and 100%.  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  decreases  $T_{10}$  from 475 °C for noncatalytic combustion to 385 °C; however, its ignition temperature is much higher than that of  $\text{CeO}_2$ . The  $x\%\text{Fe}/y\%\text{CeO}_2$  samples show lower ignition temperatures than pure  $\text{CeO}_2$  and  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ . The lowest  $T_{10}$  was found for 10%Fe/90% $\text{CeO}_2$ .  $T_{10}$  decreases according to the sequence  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3 \gg \text{CeO}_2 > 20\%\text{Fe}/80\%\text{CeO}_2 > 1\%\text{Fe}/99\%\text{CeO}_2 > 5\%\text{Fe}/95\%\text{CeO}_2 > 10\%\text{Fe}/90\%\text{CeO}_2$ . Regarding the selectivity toward  $\text{CO}_2$  formation, the noncatalytic combustion is only 51%, while all the samples studied had far higher values. Although  $\text{CeO}_2$  shows 95%  $\text{CO}_2$  selectivity, the  $x\%\text{Fe}/y\%\text{CeO}_2$  samples yield nearly 100%  $\text{CO}_2$ .

#### 3.2.2. Isothermal reactions

Table 4 summarizes the quantified values of the specific reaction rate per BET surface area, the density of active oxygen ( $\text{O}^*$ ), and the TOF for soot combustion with  $\text{O}_2$  at 280 °C on the  $x\%\text{Fe}/y\%\text{CeO}_2$  and  $\text{CeO}_2$  samples. According to the reaction rates, the activity sequence is the same as that for the decrease of  $T_{10}$  in the TPO reactions. However, if we consider the effects of surface areas, that is, the specific rate per BET surface area (defined as apparent activity), the sequence 10%Fe/90% $\text{CeO}_2 > 5\%\text{Fe}/95\%\text{CeO}_2 \approx 20\%\text{Fe}/80\%\text{CeO}_2 > 1\%\text{Fe}/99\%\text{CeO}_2 > \text{CeO}_2$  is observed. 20%Fe/80% $\text{CeO}_2$  is more active than 1%Fe/99% $\text{CeO}_2$ . On the other hand, if we consider the rate per  $\text{O}^*$  site, namely TOF (intrinsic activity), the sequence 10%Fe/90% $\text{CeO}_2 \approx 5\%\text{Fe}/95\%\text{CeO}_2 \approx 20\%\text{Fe}/80\%\text{CeO}_2 > 1\%\text{Fe}/99\%\text{CeO}_2 > \text{CeO}_2$  is observed. The similar TOF values imply that the active sites have the same activity, and larger TOF values indicate that the sites are more active.

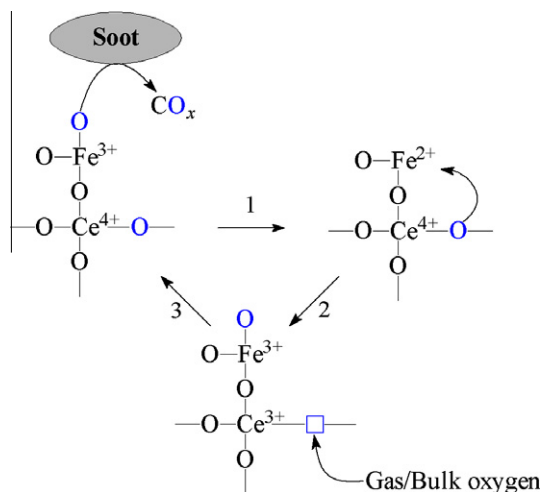
In order to check the validity of the method, another 10%Fe/90% $\text{CeO}_2$  sample was prepared using the same procedure. Isothermal reactions were performed in tight contact between soot and catalyst with the mass ratios of 1:9, 1:6, and 1:12. The  $\text{O}^*$  density was 0.68, 0.70, and 0.67, respectively, which are close to 0.62 (Table 4). This suggests that the proposed method is reproducible and authentic. Furthermore, a limited change in the ratios between soot and catalyst has little effects on the results.

## 4. Discussion

Although the fresh  $x\%\text{Fe}/y\%\text{CeO}_2$  samples formed  $\text{CeO}_2$  solid solutions, the characterization results show that Fe is highly segregated to the surface of  $x\%\text{Fe}/y\%\text{CeO}_2$  after the redox reactions. This suggests that Fe plays an important role in soot combustion. However, the bulk  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  (Fe–O–Fe) on the catalyst surface is evidently

**Table 4**  
Reaction rate, active oxygen ( $O^*$ ) density, and TOF of the  $O^*$  site for soot combustion with  $O_2$  at 280 °C over the  $CeO_2$  and  $x\%Fe/y\%CeO_2$  samples under tight contact conditions.

Sample	Rate ( $mol\ s^{-1}\ g^{-1} \times 10^{-7}$ )	Specific rate ( $mol\ s^{-1}\ m^{-2} \times 10^{-9}$ )	$O^*$ amount ( $mol\ g^{-1} \times 10^{-5}$ )	$O^*$ density ( $O^*\ nm^{-2}$ )	TOF ( $s^{-1} \times 10^{-3}$ )
$CeO_2$	0.71	1.40	2.55	0.30	2.78
1%Fe/99% $CeO_2$	1.41	2.25	4.13	0.40	3.41
5%Fe/95% $CeO_2$	1.66	2.58	4.36	0.41	3.81
10%Fe/90% $CeO_2$	2.20	3.96	5.72	0.62	3.85
20%Fe/80% $CeO_2$	1.35	2.52	3.45	0.39	3.90



**Fig. 8.** Mechanism of soot combustion with  $O_2$  over the  $x\%Fe/y\%CeO_2$  catalysts.

not the active phase in the temperature range of soot combustion, as shown by TPO results.  $Fe_2O_3$  has been shown to have a “push-pull” redox mechanism for soot combustion at higher temperatures [5]. Only the surface or subsurface layers of the iron oxide participate in the oxygen transfer. Reoxidation by neighboring oxygen leads to a cascade of formation and refilling of surface oxygen vacancies. Therefore,  $Fe_2O_3$  is not as reactive as  $CeO_2$ .

As shown in Fig. 1b, irrespective of the fact that no oxygen was fed to the reactor, and a relatively high feed flow rate (150 ml/min), and low mass of catalyst (45 mg) and low reaction temperature (280 °C) were used, the  $CO_2$  signal decreased slowly. The physisorbed oxygen, chemisorbed oxygen, and bulk oxygen are involved in the anaerobic soot combustion reaction [39]. This is reasonable considering the OSC of  $CeO_2$ . Raman results prove the existence of oxygen vacancies. The mobility of oxygen ions via oxygen vacancies occurs readily, which suggests that the redox cycles between  $Ce^{4+}$  and  $Ce^{3+}$  can promote the reactivity of  $Fe_2O_3$ , as shown by the fact that the TPR peaks for  $x\%Fe/y\%CeO_2$  are lower than those of  $Fe_2O_3$ .

As indicated above, the  $x\%Fe/y\%CeO_2$  and  $CeO_2$  samples show that the temperature of  $H_2$  reduction (Peak 1) has the sequence 10%Fe/90% $CeO_2 \approx$  5%Fe/95% $CeO_2 \approx$  20%Fe/80% $CeO_2 <$  1%Fe/99% $CeO_2 <$   $CeO_2$ , which is correlated to that of the TOF values. This suggests that soot oxidation proceeds through a redox mechanism. As discussed above, two kinds of active sites, Fe–O–Ce (Fe–O species in proximity to Ce on the surface or within the  $CeO_2$  lattice) and Ce–O–Ce, are involved in soot combustion. Evidently, the former are responsible for the activity of 10%Fe/90% $CeO_2$ , 5%Fe/95% $CeO_2$ , and 20%Fe/80% $CeO_2$ , and the latter for  $CeO_2$ . Both sites might be contained within 1%Fe/99% $CeO_2$ , considering that the amount of Fe doping is too low to form enough Fe–O–Ce species. Because the TOF value for Fe–O–Ce is much higher than that for Ce–O–Ce, the enhanced reactivity of  $CeO_2$  should be attributed to the redox cycle between  $Fe^{3+}$  and  $Fe^{2+}$ .

According to the above-mentioned bifunctional promoted effects between Fe and Ce, the reactive mechanism of the Fe–O–Ce species is schematically described in Fig. 8 using a redox cycle. First, the surface oxide anion bound to  $Fe^{3+}$  reacts with soot at the soot/catalyst interface to give out  $CO_x$  with the production of oxygen vacancies, and reduced-state  $Fe^{2+}$  is obtained (Path 1). The  $Ce^{4+}$  cation at the neighboring site of the reduced  $Fe^{2+}$  site can supply additional oxygen atoms from the catalyst lattice through the reduction of  $Ce^{4+}$  to  $Ce^{3+}$ , while  $Fe^{2+}$  is simultaneously oxidized to  $Fe^{3+}$  (Path 2). Another surface-active oxygen species is thus formed, on which the next combustion reaction takes place.  $Ce^{3+}$  (with oxygen vacancies) may be reoxidized directly by gas phase oxygen or by oxygen diffusion through the bulk of the catalyst (Path 3).

The assignment of active sites above can be used to explain the different soot combustion behavior among varieties of  $x\%Fe/y\%CeO_2$ . The maximum apparent activity for 10%Fe/90% $CeO_2$  is due solely to its having the highest  $O^*$  density, corresponding to the maximum oxygen vacancy concentrations, which originates from the high Fe content. However, to explain why the apparent activity for 20%Fe/80% $CeO_2$  does not increase with an increase in Fe content compared to 10%Fe/90% $CeO_2$ , it needs to be considered that only about 5 at.% Fe is redispersed over/within the  $CeO_2$  to form Fe–O–Ce species for 20%Fe/80% $CeO_2$ . This results in the same  $O^*$  density as for 5%Fe/95% $CeO_2$ , and thus the apparent activity for 20%Fe/80% $CeO_2$  is nearly equal to that of 5%Fe/95% $CeO_2$ . Aneggi et al. [6] pointed out that the segregation of Fe on the surface as bulk  $Fe_2O_3$  is the main cause of degradation of activity for the Fe-doped  $CeO_2$ . We confirm this result from the viewpoint of active sites. Furthermore, we find a similar  $O^*$  density among 1%Fe/99% $CeO_2$ , 5%Fe/95% $CeO_2$ , and 20%Fe/80% $CeO_2$ , as listed in Table 3, but the TOF value of 1%Fe/99% $CeO_2$  is less than that of 5%Fe/95% $CeO_2$  (20%Fe/80% $CeO_2$ ). The reason for this is that both the Fe–O–Ce and Ce–O–Ce sites are active in 1%Fe/99% $CeO_2$ . Therefore, the apparent activity for 1%Fe/99% $CeO_2$  is lower than that of 5%Fe/95% $CeO_2$  (20%Fe/80% $CeO_2$ ) but higher than that of  $CeO_2$ .

We would also like to point out that  $Fe_2O_3$  [40] and  $CeO_2$ – $Fe_2O_3$  mixed oxides [8] are very effective catalysts for CO oxidation. Normally, trivalent metal dopants improve the selectivity of  $CeO_2$  toward  $CO_2$  formation [41]. Therefore, it is easy to comprehend the especially high  $CO_2$  selectivity in this work.

## 5. Conclusions

From the results of XRD, XPS,  $N_2$  adsorption/desorption, Raman, EPR,  $H_2$ -TPR, FT-IR, measurements of active sites, and TOF, the following conclusions are made.

Fe-doped  $CeO_2$  for soot catalytic combustion (oxidation) with  $O_2$  yields activity higher than that of pure  $CeO_2$  and  $Fe_2O_3$ . The optimum Fe content is  $Fe/(Ce + Fe) = 10$  at.% according to soot ignition temperatures. However, on the basis of turnover frequencies, the samples with a  $Fe/(Ce + Fe)$  ratio within 5–20 at.% show similar activity.

The reaction proceeds through a redox cycle between  $Ce^{4+}/Fe^{3+}$  and  $Ce^{3+}/Fe^{2+}$ . The active sites are composed of the Fe–O–Ce

species, which can be accurately quantified by isothermal anaerobic titration with soot as a probe molecule.

The methodology for quantifying the active redox site densities and turnover frequencies is crucial for the comparison of activity for catalysts of different compositions and produced by different synthesis methods. Determination of the reaction mechanism is thus highly reliable, and this method can be extended to soot combustion on all similar oxides that react through a redox process that includes lattice oxygen.

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### Appendix A. Supplementary material

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at doi:10.1016/j.jcat.2010.08.017.

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