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Alkali-Metal Poisoning Effect of Total CO and Propane Oxidation over Co_3O_4 Nanocatalysts

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Abstract

Cobalt oxide (Co_3O_4), a low-cost transitional metal oxide, has been widely studied for catalytic total oxidation of CO and hydrocarbons. However, much less attention has been paid to the poisoning effect due to alkali metals in such oxidation catalysts despite the ease of access to such poisons in both mobile and stationary combustion sources. In this study, the alkali metals such as Na, K and Li were readily deposited onto a Co_3O_4 catalyst to study their poisoning effect on CO and propane oxidation. 1% doping onto Co_3O_4 was found to increase the light-off temperature by 50 °C in CO oxidation and over 160 °C in propane oxidation. It is also noted that alkali metals exhibited a ‘locking-effect’ on oxygen of Co_3O_4 , leading to poor oxygen mobility of alkali metal doped catalysts. During the reaction, alkali metals can significantly promote the adsorption of CO_2 to form robust surface carbonate species even at high temperature, another

reason for the poisoning effect of alkali metals on Co_3O_4 nanocatalysts for catalytic oxidation.

Key words

Cobalt Oxide, Alkali Metals, Poisoning Effect, Catalytic Oxidation

1. Introduction

Over the past few decades, thermal catalytic oxidation with high efficiency at low operating temperature has been considered as an effective technique for elimination various combustion induced pollutants such as CO, hydrocarbons (HCs), and carbonaceous soot particles [1-3]. The research and development of high-activity catalysts plays a key role for the broad application of oxidation catalysts. Supported noble metal catalysts have been widely implemented for a broad array of oxidative reactions, as applied in many practical exhaust aftertreatment devices such as three-way catalyst (TWC) and diesel oxidation catalyst (DOC) for oxidation of CO and hydrocarbons. However, such industrial applications of these catalysts are limited due to their disadvantages such as high price, low thermal stability, sintering and poisoning tendency[4-6]. On the other hand, low-cost transition metal oxides have been proved to be active in CO and hydrocarbons oxidations at low temperature, therefore holding promises in practical applications [2, 7, 8].

Co_3O_4 , a typical transition metal oxide with a spinel crystal structure, has been extensively reported as effective catalysts for CO/NO/HCs oxidations, soot combustion, selective catalytic reduction of NO_x , N_2O decomposition, water splitting etc. [9-16]. For example, Xie et al.

reported the Co_3O_4 nanorods can catalyze CO oxidation at temperatures as low as -77°C and remain stable in a moist stream of normal feed gases [17]. Moreover, Co_3O_4 is also highly active for hydrocarbon combustion under condition of low temperature and low hydrocarbon concentrations [10, 18, 19]. Unlike noble metal catalysts, Co_3O_4 based catalyst can keep high activity for hydrocarbon oxidation even with CO as a co-feed gas [20]. But challenges remain such as the poisoning effect of sulfur-containing species, thermal stability, and water inhibition. Many attentions have been paid on improving its performance by novel nanostructuring, transition metal doping, low-cost supports, and low-usage of noble metals [10, 12, 18, 20-26], but few studies have been devoted to the poisoning effect of alkali metals on Co_3O_4 catalyst. In fact, alkali metals widely exist in the exhaust of coal-fired plants and municipal solid waste incineration plants, a major concern for selective catalytic reduction (SCR) catalysts due to their reactivity with active sites [27]. In addition, alkali metals can be found in vehicle exhaust as originated from fuel/oil additives and urea solutions for SCR operation [27, 28]. Usually existed as a common compound in various exhausts, alkali metal might be a great concern for an aftertreatment system that adopts low-cost transition metal oxides such as Co_3O_4 as a catalyst. Moreover, nanostructured Co_3O_4 based catalysts have been made using conventional alkali metal salts such as NaOH and Na_2CO_3 as precipitants [24, 26, 29], while the potential contamination effect due to alkali metals has been ignored to a great extent.

In general, the catalysts could be deactivated by poisons such as sulfur, heavy metals, alkali metals, fly ashes in the emitted gas through chemical deactivation or pore blocking. Like SCR process, deposition of alkali and alkaline earth metal salts in fly ashes can significantly

deactivate the typical V_2O_5 based catalysts like $V_2O_5-WO_3/TiO_2$ [30], V_2O_5/CeO_2 [31] and V_2O_5/TiO_2 [32], which has become one of the main problems for practical applications. Several alkali poisoning mechanisms have been proposed so far. First, Na^+ ions are suggested to combine strongly with dispersed vanadia species and neutralize the Brønsted acid sites which will decrease surface acidity and further suppress NH_3 adsorption. Secondly, alkali metals can also reduce the catalyst reducibility that prohibits NH_3 activation and NO oxidation by forming bonding of alkali to active vanadia or ceria. Thirdly, the formation of inactive nitrate species will be promoted by creation of new basic sites. On the contrary, alkali metals sometime can have promoting effect in specific catalytic reaction systems. For example, Na^+ ions have been proved to improve the dispersion of noble metal (e.g., Pt and Pd) on metal oxide support by forming atomically dispersed $Na-Pt-O(OH)_x$ species, which can effectively activate H_2O and catalyze the facile reaction between surface OH^- and formate species to total oxidation products, further enhance the catalytic activities in formaldehyde oxidation[33]. Another important reaction is catalytic combustion of soot, where the alkali metal itself can involve the oxidative process through formation of carbon-oxygen complexes (C-O-M, with M alkali metals) as the active sites and further enhance the activity of soot oxidation [34, 35]. For non-precious metal oxides, very few studies have been focused on the effect of alkali metal on their activities in CO and hydrocarbon oxidation despite the fact that alkali metals are popular components in different gas emissions. Hutchings et al.[36] found the ageing of copper manganese oxide catalysts could lead to a significant decrease in the concentration of surface sodium and further improve its activity in CO oxidation. Nevertheless, the effect of alkali metals on catalytic reactions over different

catalysts could be totally different. Herein, this study systematically investigates for the first time the poisoning effect of Co_3O_4 catalyst in CO and hydrocarbon (C_3H_8) oxidation by alkali metals including Na, K and Li. These alkali metals have displayed significant poisoning effects for both CO and propane oxidations. XRD, SEM and TEM studies show that alkali metal doping does not affect the crystal structure and morphology of Co_3O_4 catalyst. O_2 -TPD results confirm the ‘locking-effect’ of alkali metals where the mobility of oxygen species is significantly inhibited with alkali metals doping especially at low temperature. Moreover, in-situ DRIFTS studies show alkali metals can significantly promote the adsorption of CO_2 to form robust surface carbonate species even at high temperature ($>380\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$), which might be another reason for the poisoning effect of alkali metals on Co_3O_4 nanocatalysts for catalytic oxidation.

2 Materials and Methods

2.1 Materials preparation

Synthesis of Co_3O_4 nanoparticles. An oxalate-precipitation method was applied to prepare the cobalt oxalate precursor in an alcoholic solution, which was further dried and annealed under atmosphere to get the Co_3O_4 nanoparticles catalyst. Typically, 100 ml solution A containing 20 mmol $\text{Co}(\text{NO}_3)_2$ and another 100 ml solution B containing 24 mmol oxalic acid were mixed at room temperature and the precipitation reaction occurred in a few seconds. After strongly stirring for 30 min, the mixture was directly dried at $80\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ for 48h. Finally, the precipitate was treated at $500\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ for 2 hr with a ramp rate of $5\text{ }^\circ\text{C min}^{-1}$ in a muffle furnace to get fresh Co_3O_4 nanoparticles which were further used for deposition of alkali metals.

Deposition of alkali metals on Co₃O₄. Traditional impregnation method was adopted for depositing alkali metals on the as-prepared Co₃O₄ nanocatalyst. In a typical process, the fresh Co₃O₄ powder was immersed into a solution with certain amount of NaNO₃, then the mixture was ultrasonically treated for 30 minutes and further dried at 80 °C, finally annealed at 450 °C for 2 hr with a ramp rate of 5 °C min⁻¹ in a muffle furnace. The weight-based loading ratios of Na were about 0%, 1%, 2%, 5%, and the related samples were denoted as Co₃O₄, 1% Na-Co₃O₄, 2% Na-Co₃O₄ and 5% Na-Co₃O₄, respectively. Moreover, other two alkali metals (K and Li, with KNO₃ and LiNO₃ respectively) deposition were also prepared by same process with 1% loading ratio, and the final materials were named as 1% K-Co₃O₄ and 1% Li-Co₃O₄, respectively.

2.2 Materials characterization

The X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns of the as-prepared catalysts were achieved by an X-ray diffractometer (D2 PHASER, BRUKER Corp.) with a 2θ scan rate of 10°•min⁻¹. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM, Teneo LVSEM, FEI) and transmission electron microscopy (TEM, Talos S/TEM, FEI; 200 kV acceleration voltage) were applied to get the morphology and microstructure of the as-prepared catalysts. A surface analyzer (ASAP 2020, Micromeritics Corp.) was used to do the N₂ adsorption-desorption testing and the surface area was obtained according to the Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) method. For each measurement, a degassing process was carried out at 150 °C for 6 hours. Oxygen temperature programmed desorption (O₂-TPD) were carried out in a U-shaped quartz reactor under a gas flow of pure Ar (25mL min⁻¹) on a Chemisorption system (ChemiSorb 2720, Micromeritics Cor.). Before doing the O₂-TPD analysis, 30 mg sample was loaded and pretreated under oxygen atmosphere at 250 °C for 1 hr

and cooled down to 50 °C then purged with pure argon gas for a few hours. In every run, the temperature was ramped to 800 °C from 50 °C at a rate of 10 °C min⁻¹. NH₃-TPD procedure is similar to O₂-TPD analysis while the adsorption gas was changed to NH₃ and a mass spectrometer (Hiden HPR-20) was used for detecting NH₃ concentration with signal of m/z=17. The CO₂-TPD procedure is similar to O₂-TPD analysis while the adsorption gas was changed to 20% O₂ in Ar and a mass spectrometer (Hiden HPR-20) was used for monitoring CO₂ concentration with signal of m/z=44. CO temperature programmed reduction (CO-TPR) were carried out in a quartz tube reactor under a gas flow of 5% CO balanced with Ar, and the concentration of both CO and CO₂ were detected by Micor-GC (Agilent 490). In each run, the temperature was ramped to 750 °C from 50 °C at a rate of 5 °C•min⁻¹. The infrared tests were carried out on a Fourier Transform Infrared Spectrophotometer (Nicolet iS-50 FTIR Spectrometer, Thermo Scientific). The tested powders were 1-2mg prepared catalyst sample mixed with 100 mg KBr which was filled in the sample cell on the spectrophotometer and further pressed appropriately. The infrared spectrum was recorded in the region 600-4000 cm⁻¹ with 64 scans at resolution of 4 cm⁻¹.

In situ diffuse reflectance infrared spectroscopy (DRIFTS) study was also performed on the same spectrometer equipped with an MCT detector cooled by liquid nitrogen. Typically, the sample powder (25 mg) was mixed with 100 mg KBr treated in situ at 250 °C in 10% O₂/N₂ with a flow rate of 50 mL min⁻¹ to eliminate surface contaminants. After the system was cooled to 30 °C, a background spectrum was collected for spectra correction. Then, 2500 ppm CO (or 2500 ppm C₃H₈), 10% O₂ in N₂ with a flow rate of 50 mL min⁻¹ was introduced to the in-situ chamber

while the temperature of chamber is ramping to 300 °C (or 400 °C with a rate of 2 °C min⁻¹ when doing propane oxidation). The related spectra were collected at different temperature, accumulating 32 scans at a resolution of 2 cm⁻¹ and displayed in Kubelka-Munk units.

2.3 Catalytic performance test

Two classic probe oxidation reactions including CO and propane oxidation were adopted to investigate the poisoning effect of alkali metals on cobalt oxide catalyst. A home-made plug flow reactor was used to test the oxidation reactions of CO and propane by the prepared catalysts, with the inlet and outlet gaseous species detected by a gas chromatography system (Agilent Micro-GC 490) equipped with three columns (two molecular sieve columns and one Plot-Q column) and three thermal conductivity detectors (TCD). The reactant gas was 2500 ppm CO (or 2500 ppm C₃H₈), 10% O₂ and 89.75% N₂ with a total flow rate of 100 ml min⁻¹. 50 mg catalyst powder mixed with 200 mg quartz sands (40-80 mesh) was placed into the center of quartz tube (1/4 in. diameter) and pressed from both sides with quartz wool. A thermocouple wire was inserted into the reactor for measuring the catalyst bed temperature. With this condition, the catalyst weight-hourly space velocity could be controlled at 120,000 mL g⁻¹ h⁻¹. In order to investigate the effect of H₂O/CO₂/SO₂ on the catalysts in C₃H₈ combustion, the final concentration of H₂O, CO₂ and SO₂ were controlled at 3%, 8% and 10 ppm, respectively, for the test, while keeping other condition constant. Moreover, two other hydrocarbons (C₃H₆ and CH₄) were also applied in the test, with their concentrations maintained at 2500 ppm.

3. Results and discussion

3.1 Poisoning effect on catalytic oxidations

Figure 1 displays the CO and propane oxidation activities of pure Co_3O_4 and alkali metal doped Co_3O_4 catalysts tested from a ramping process from 50 to 420 °C (2 °C min^{-1}) under a WHSV of $120,000\text{ mL g}^{-1}\text{ h}^{-1}$. The T10, T50 and T90 values (the reaction temperature corresponding to the CO or C_3H_8 conversion of 10%, 50% and 90%, respectively) were used to compare the activities as-prepared catalysts, and the results are listed in Table 1. As shown in Figure 1a, over the pure Co_3O_4 nanocatalysts, the values of T10, T50 and T90 are 63, 90, 107 °C, respectively, while they are 110, 110, 160°C over 1% Na doped Co_3O_4 , respectively. As we can see, the doped Na has significant poisoning effect on CO oxidation of Co_3O_4 . With increasing the doping amount from 1% to 5%, the T90 was obviously delayed from 160 °C to 259 °C, which is 148 °C higher than the undoped Co_3O_4 . Therefore, the extent of deactivation is highly depended on the doped concentration of the poisoning metals which means more Na doping will have more poisoning effect on the CO oxidation activity of Co_3O_4 . Compared to CO oxidation, the poisoning effect of Na on propane oxidation is more evident as revealed in Figure 1b. The values of T10, T50 and T90 for propane oxidation on undoped Co_3O_4 are 207, 225, 241 °C, respectively, while the conversion is only 32% at 400 °C over 1% Na doped Co_3O_4 . Similarly, the poisoning effect becomes more serious with developing amount of Na doping. Moreover, the poisoning effect of different alkali metals on oxidation activities of Co_3O_4 was also investigated as shown in Figure 1c and d. n. For both CO and propane oxidation, the light-off temperature shifts to higher level in the order of $\text{Li} < \text{K} < \text{Na}$ with same loading ratio of 1%. With these findings, it clearly indicates that the Co_3O_4 catalyst can be seriously poisoned by alkali metals during the CO and

hydrocarbon combustions, so the practical oxidation applications of Co_3O_4 nanocatalyst should avoid the exhaust condition with alkali metals.



Figure 1. Comparison of oxidation activities of pure Co_3O_4 and alkali metal doped Co_3O_4 catalysts. (a) and (b) CO and propane oxidation over Na doped Co_3O_4 with different doping ratios. (c) and (d) CO and propane oxidation over pure, 1% Na, 1% K and 1% Li doped Co_3O_4 . Reaction conditions: catalyst 50 mg, $[\text{CO}]=2500$ ppm or $[\text{C}_3\text{H}_8]=2500$ ppm, $[\text{O}_2]=10\%$, flow rate = 100 ml min^{-1} , $\text{WHSV} = 120,000 \text{ mL g}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$.

Table 1. Catalytic activities (temperature of 10% (T10), 50% (T50) and 90% (T90) conversion), crystal size (calculated by XRD patterns) and BET surface area of pure Co_3O_4 and alkali metal doped Co_3O_4 catalysts.

Catalyst	Catalytic CO oxidation	Catalytic propane oxidation	Crystal size	BET surface
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	T10	T50	T90	T10	T50	T90	(nm)	area (m ² g ⁻¹)
	(°C)	(°C)	(°C)	(°C)	(°C)	(°C)		
Co ₃ O ₄	63	90	107	207	225	241	35.3	14.2
1%Na-Co ₃ O ₄	110	110	160	336	>400	>400	35.3	14.8
2%Na-Co ₃ O ₄	127	128	189	367	>400	>400	35.2	13.7
5%Na-Co ₃ O ₄	200	230	259	>400	>400	>400	35.3	15.1
1%K-Co ₃ O ₄	82	121	140	325	>400	>400	35.2	13.8
1%Li-Co ₃ O ₄	82	102	118	254	302	325	35.2	14.5

In order to investigate the effect of different alkali metal source on the activity of Co₃O₄, several Na based salts like NaCl, NaCH₃COO and Na₃C₆H₅O₇ were selected for Na loading, and the results are shown in Figure 2. It can be seen all Na doped samples with different Na source can poison the activities in both CO and propane oxidation, where the poisoning effect of NaCl-derived catalyst is the weakest one. Considering the properties of Na salts, NaCl is difficult to decompose within the treating temperature we used in this study so that the doping effect will not be fully achieved. In addition, some other components like H₂O/CO₂/SO₂ which could be usually found in realistic combustion gas conditions may have potential poisoning effects on the related catalytic reactions. In this case, 3.0% water or 8% CO₂ or 10 ppm SO₂ was introduced in the propane oxidation reaction, and the results are shown in Figure 3. For the pure Co₃O₄ catalyst, H₂O and CO₂ have slight effect on the light-off activity of propane oxidation and the complete

converted temperature delay is below 20 °C, while SO₂ has a seriously negative effect on the propane oxidation and the total oxidation temperature is 150 °C higher than that of pure one. Over the Na doped Co₃O₄ catalyst, all introduced components show negative effect on the propane oxidation activity, which are more serious than the undoped Co₃O₄. It is a remarkable fact that the effect of CO₂ on the activity of Na doped Co₃O₄ catalyst is even worse than SO₂, indicating the doped Na on the catalyst has certain connection with the gaseous CO₂ or surface carbonate species. It will be a great challenge for pure Co₃O₄ when applying in the combustion exhaust with both alkali metals and high concentration of CO₂. The possible mechanism will be discussed in the later DRIFT studies. Moreover, similar poisoning effect was also observed when the catalysts were applied in catalytic combustion of other hydrocarbons such as C₃H₆ and CH₄. As displayed in FigureFigures 4a and b, the light-off curves for both C₃H₆ and CH₄ have been pushed to higher temperature when Co₃O₄ was doped with 1% Na, indicating this poisoning effect due to alkali metal is a common for Co₃O₄ in oxidation reactions. Furthermore, the effect of alkaline metal on catalyst stability study was also studied, and revealed in Figure 4c. For pure Co₃O₄, the conversion of CO can keep at 100% under 2 testing temperatures (175 and 165 °C). But for 1%Na-Co₃O₄, the conversion of CO at 175 °C decreased dramatically during the first 3 hours and then kept stable. However, decreasing temperature to 165 °C, the conversion also decreased dramatically during the first 3 hours but then kept reducing throughout the reaction time. Clearly, something changed when the catalyst was exposed to single CO, such as the accumulation of carbonate species (as explained in DRIFT study), which will further deactivate the catalyst for CO oxidation.

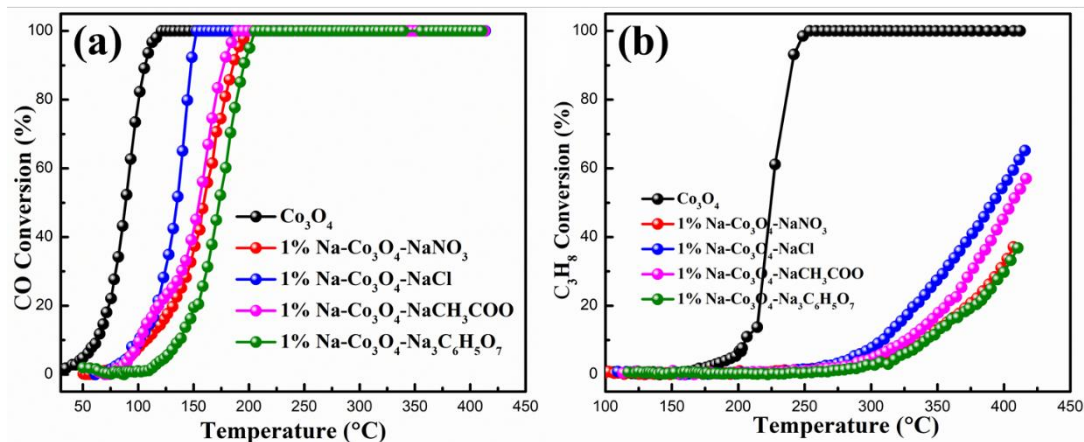


Figure 2. Comparison of oxidation activities of pure Co_3O_4 and 1%Na doped Co_3O_4 catalysts with using different Na source (NaNO_3 , NaCl , NaCH_3COO , $\text{Na}_3\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{O}_7$). (a) and (b) CO and propane oxidation. Reaction conditions: catalyst 50 mg, $[\text{CO}]=2500$ ppm or $[\text{C}_3\text{H}_8]=2500$ ppm, $[\text{O}_2]=10\%$, flow rate = 100 ml min^{-1} , $\text{WHSV} = 120,000 \text{ mL g}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$.

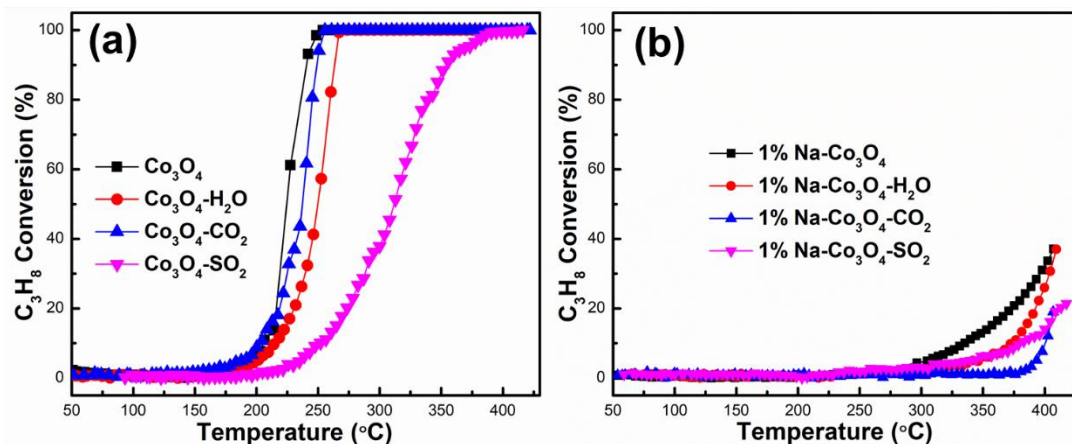


Figure 3. Comparison of propane oxidation activities of (a) pure Co_3O_4 and (b) 1%Na doped Co_3O_4 catalysts with/without introducing different components. Reaction conditions: catalyst 50 mg, $[\text{CO}]=2500$ ppm or $[\text{C}_3\text{H}_8]=2500$ ppm, $[\text{O}_2]=10\%$, 3% H_2O or 8% CO_2 or 10 ppm SO_2 flow

rate = 100 ml min⁻¹, WHSV = 120,000 mL g⁻¹ h⁻¹.

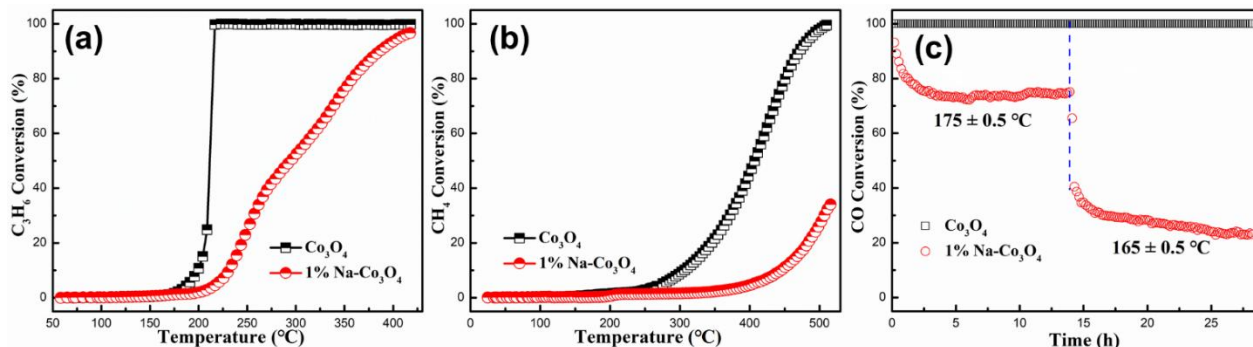


Figure 4. (a) and (b) Comparison of propylene and methane oxidation activities over pure Co₃O₄ and 1%Na doped Co₃O₄ catalysts. (c) Stability of CO oxidation at 175 and 165 °C over pure Co₃O₄ and 1%Na doped Co₃O₄ catalysts. Reaction conditions: catalyst 50 mg, [C₃H₆]=2500 ppm or [CH₄]=2500 ppm or [CO]=2500 ppm, [O₂]=10%, flow rate = 100 ml min⁻¹, WHSV = 120,000 mL g⁻¹ h⁻¹.

3.2 XRD patterns

Figure 5 displays the wide-angle XRD patterns the pure Co₃O₄ and alkali metal doped Co₃O₄ samples. From pure Co₃O₄, there are only several diffraction peaks at $2\theta = 31.2, 36.8, 44.8, 59.2$ and 65.1° can be clearly observed, which can be ascribed to the {220}, {311}, {400}, {511} and {440} planes of Co₃O₄ (JCPDS 78-1969). With Na doping, the obtained catalysts keep same crystalline Co₃O₄ with typical spinel type structure and no any other peaks has been observed even with higher Na doping like 5% Na-Co₃O₄. We assume that sodium species are well dispersed on the cobalt oxide surface, which are consistent with other reports [37, 38]. For different alkali metals doping, the crystal files are absolutely same, and all catalysts have similar

crystal size of about 35.2 nm achieved by Scherrer Equation calculation and also have similar BET surface area as listed in Table 1, further confirming that the doping alkali metals have no effect on the crystal character of original Co_3O_4 .

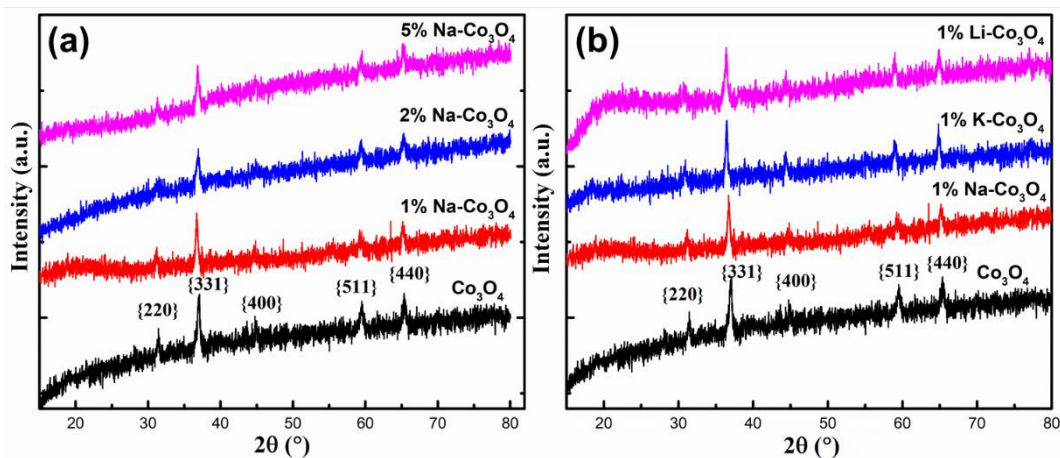


Figure 5. XRD patterns of pure Co_3O_4 and alkali metal doped Co_3O_4 catalysts.

3.3 FTIR spectra

Figure 6 shows the FTIR spectra of pure Co_3O_4 and alkali metal doped Co_3O_4 catalysts. Over all FTIR spectra of catalysts, the peaks at around 663 and 567 cm^{-1} are ascribed to the Co-O vibrations of the Co_3O_4 [39, 40], further confirming the alkali metals doping haven't changed the crystal structure of Co_3O_4 . With low doping amount of Na and K (1%), no difference was observed on the FTIR spectra, which suggested that the low doping amount of Na or K has been well dispersed on the matrix of Co_3O_4 . When the doping amount of Na increased to 5%, some additional peaks at 831 and 1383 cm^{-1} can be clearly observed compared to the spectra of pure Co_3O_4 , which can be assigned to the stretching vibration of CO_3^{2-} species [41, 42]. The observance of CO_3^{2-} on higher content of Na doping indicates that the doping Na amount is

limited, and the additional Na will turn into some other compounds like Na_2CO_3 by adsorbing the CO_2 from air during the treated procedure. Meanwhile, some different absorption bands 865, 1381, 1435 cm^{-1} can be assigned to the CO_3^{2-} vibration of the Li_2CO_3 [41] or undecomposed nitrate groups[43], and the intensive band at 3435 cm^{-1} belongs to the O-H stretching mode of adsorbed water. All the aforementioned XRD and FTIR results unambiguously reveal that after modification with alkali metals the structure of Co_3O_4 retains with both Na and K dispersed on the Co_3O_4 without any additional Na/K compounds.

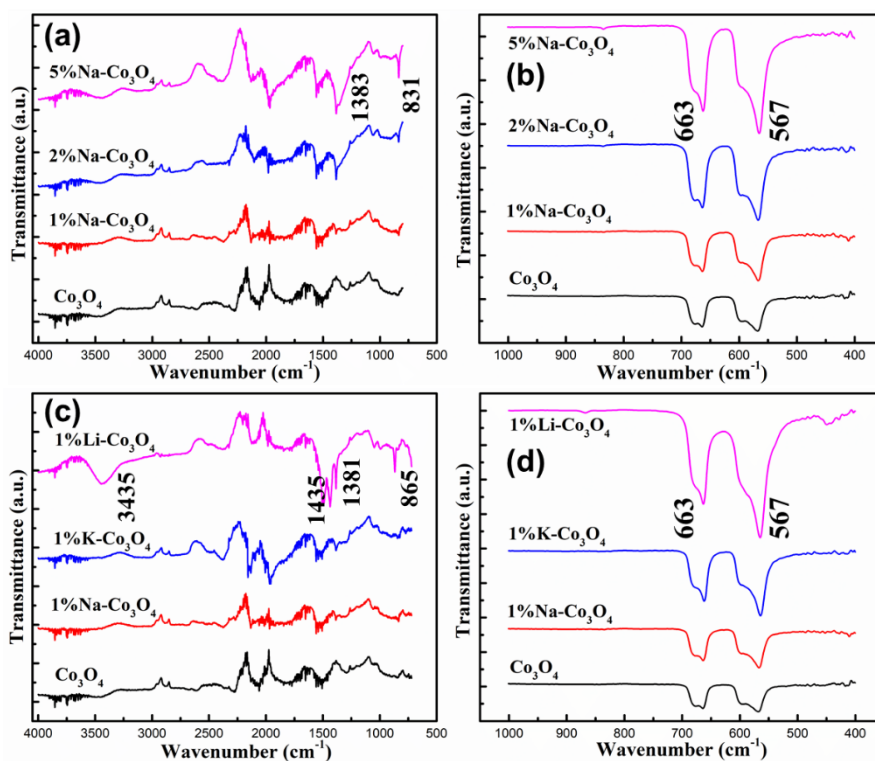


Figure 6. FTIR spectra of pure Co_3O_4 and alkali metal doped Co_3O_4 catalysts.

3.4 Morphologies and microstructures

The morphologies of as-prepared catalysts have been revealed by the SEM images in Figures

7a-f. It can be seen that the pure Co_3O_4 is an aggregate which keeps very well after doping with alkali metals. In TEM images of Figures 8a-d, the aggregate assembled with irregular polyhedron nanoparticles can be clearly observed, and the average size is about 30-40 nm, in agreement with the value calculated by XRD patterns. For both pure Co_3O_4 and 1% Na doped samples, a lattice spacing of 0.29 nm can be observed on the randomly selected nanoparticles (Figures 8b and d) that is ascribed to the {220} planes of spinel Co_3O_4 crystals. Furthermore, little change was observed on the morphology and crystal structure of Co_3O_4 after doping with alkali metals. Moreover, the HAADF-STEM imaging and elemental mapping (Figures 8e-h) confirm the elemental composition distribution of the alkali doped catalysts. The results also demonstrate that Na is homogeneously distributed throughout the whole nanocrystals, suggesting the successful integration of the alkali metal and Co_3O_4 components.

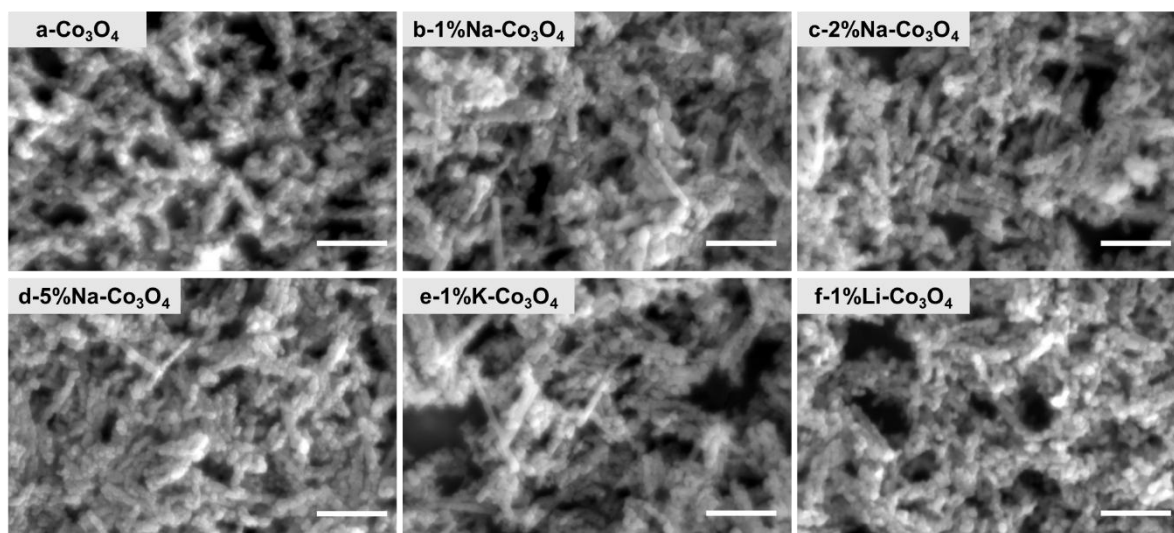


Figure 7. SEM images of (a) pure Co_3O_4 and (b-f) alkali metal doped Co_3O_4 catalysts (Scale bars: 500 nm).

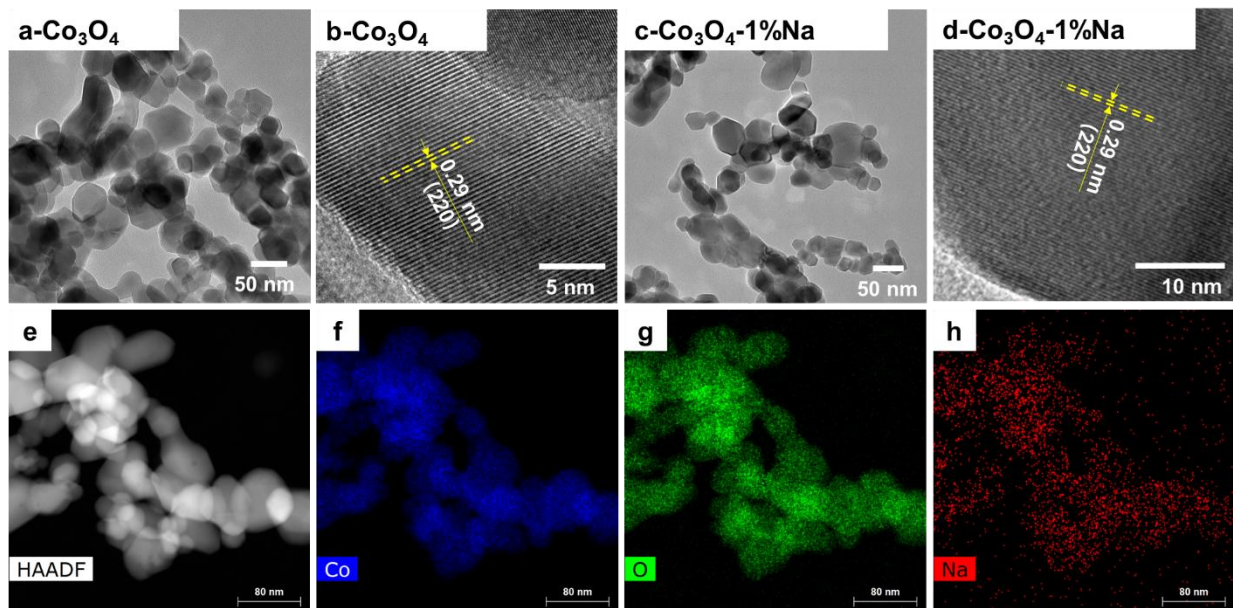


Figure 8. TEM images of (a and b) pure Co_3O_4 and (c and d) 1% Na doped Co_3O_4 catalysts; (e) HAADF-STEM image and (f-h) elemental mapping of 1% Na doped Co_3O_4 catalysts.

3.5 O_2 -TPD, NH_3 -TPD, CO_2 -TPD, CO-TPR and XPS

Oxygen mobility on metal oxide catalysts plays an important role in oxygen-involved catalytic reactions [26, 44-46]. The O_2 -TPD technique is a good method to investigate the oxygen mobility of different oxygen species on the catalysts and the results are shown in Figure 9. Generally, the oxygen species on Co_3O_4 can be classified as surface adsorbed oxygen species, surface lattice oxygen and bulk lattice oxygen. Considering the thermodynamics of Co_3O_4 , the decomposition of Co_3O_4 to form CoO only takes place above $900\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ [47], which can be assigned to the desorption of bulk lattice oxygen. Meanwhile, the desorption of surface adsorbed oxygen species and surface lattice oxygen can proceed at lower temperature which are expected to be the

active species during the catalytic oxidation species [9, 21, 22, 26, 45, 46, 48] due to their nature of easy regeneration in oxidized atmosphere. For O₂-TPD of pure Co₃O₄ displayed in Figure 9a, one peak below 250 °C and another peak around 250-450 °C can be assigned to the desorption of surface adsorbed oxygen species and surface lattice oxygen species, respectively [49, 50]. With 1% Na doping, the desorption peak below 200 °C almost disappears and two other broad peaks can be observed at higher temperature, demonstrating that the oxygen mobility has been significantly affected and the utilization of surface oxygen species becomes difficult. Furthermore, the desorption peaks move to higher temperature when increasing the doping amount of sodium, further confirming the “locking-effect” of sodium on surface active oxygen species of Co₃O₄ catalyst. By doping with different alkali metals such as K and Li, similar trend can be found from the O₂-TPD profiles and the “locking-effect” of Li is the smallest among them with the same doping amount. Basically, there are two kinds of Co ions in pure Co₃O₄ crystal structure, tetrahedrally coordinated Co²⁺ and octahedrally coordinated Co³⁺. For catalytic oxidation applications, octahedrally coordinated Co³⁺ is more active than tetrahedrally coordinated Co²⁺ which has been confirmed by other reports[10, 17, 24, 49, 51]. When the alkali metal ions are inserted into the lattice of Co₃O₄, the difference in ionic radii between the alkali metal ions (Li⁺=0.076 nm, Na⁺=0.102 nm, K⁺=0.138 nm) and the cobalt ions (Co²⁺= 0.078 nm, and Co³⁺=0.064 nm), brings about the lattice deformation of Co₃O₄, which will slightly cause the dislocations and imperfections in the spinel crystal structure. But these dislocations and imperfections haven't been observed directly in XRD spectra with peaks shift, which were similar to *other reports*[52-54]. In case of K doped Co₃O₄, Shang et al.[53] thought that the

residual K species was most likely located at the surface and/or in the subsurface layers of Co_3O_4 , although it has been proven that parts of K could enter the crystal lattice of Co_3O_4 in K- Co_3O_4 binary catalysts[54]. Herein, there might be two reasons for no peak shift in XRD for the lattice dislocations: one is the lower loading ratio of alkali metals we used, and the degree of lattice dislocation made by alkali metals doping is too small to be observed in XRD spectra; another reason is the alkali metals might concentrate on the surface and subsurface of Co_3O_4 and the main spinel phase of Co_3O_4 was not affected significantly. However, it looks like that these kind of lattice dislocations and imperfections significantly reduce the mobility of surface oxygen due to the existing alkali metal enhance the Co-O bond in doped Co_3O_4 . Moreover, due to the similar size of Li^+ (0.076 nm), Co^{2+} (0.078 nm) and Co^{3+} (0.064 nm), the doped Li^+ will have much less effect on the original structure of Co_3O_4 , which is in good agreement with the catalytic activity and O_2 -TPD results shown before.

Regarding to the surface acid and basic properties, NH_3 -TPD and CO_2 -TPD analysis were carried out on pure Co_3O_4 and typical 5%Na poisoned Co_3O_4 samples while the results are shown in Figure 10. Characteristically, two desorption peaks were observed at 100-200 and 300-500 °C over the pure Co_3O_4 , which can be ascribed to the weak and strong adsorption of ammonia on the catalyst, separately. It is true that more acid sites will be more beneficial in catalytic reactions like VOCs oxidation[55, 56] and NH_3 -SCR[57]. With adding Na into the Co_3O_4 catalyst, the temperature peak of NH_3 -TPD was shifted to higher temperature with smaller peak area, indicating the acid sites especially at lower temperature have been prohibited

significantly, which will further affect the catalytic activities. For CO₂-TPD, the desorption peaks at ca. 80-150 °C, 150-350 °C, and >550 °C are ascribed to CO₂ adsorbed at weak, medium and strong catalyst basic sites, respectively[53, 58]. With Na doping, the amounts of medium basic sites were significantly increased, indicating that the deposited Na onto Co₃O₄ could vary the surface basicity and electronic properties. It is worth noting that a large amount of CO₂ was desorbed above 500 °C, suggesting CO₂ can adsorb on the surface of Na-doped Co₃O₄ at lower temperature and further generate highly stable carbonate species. This was also confirmed by *in situ* FTIR results and could be an important reason for the poisoning effect.

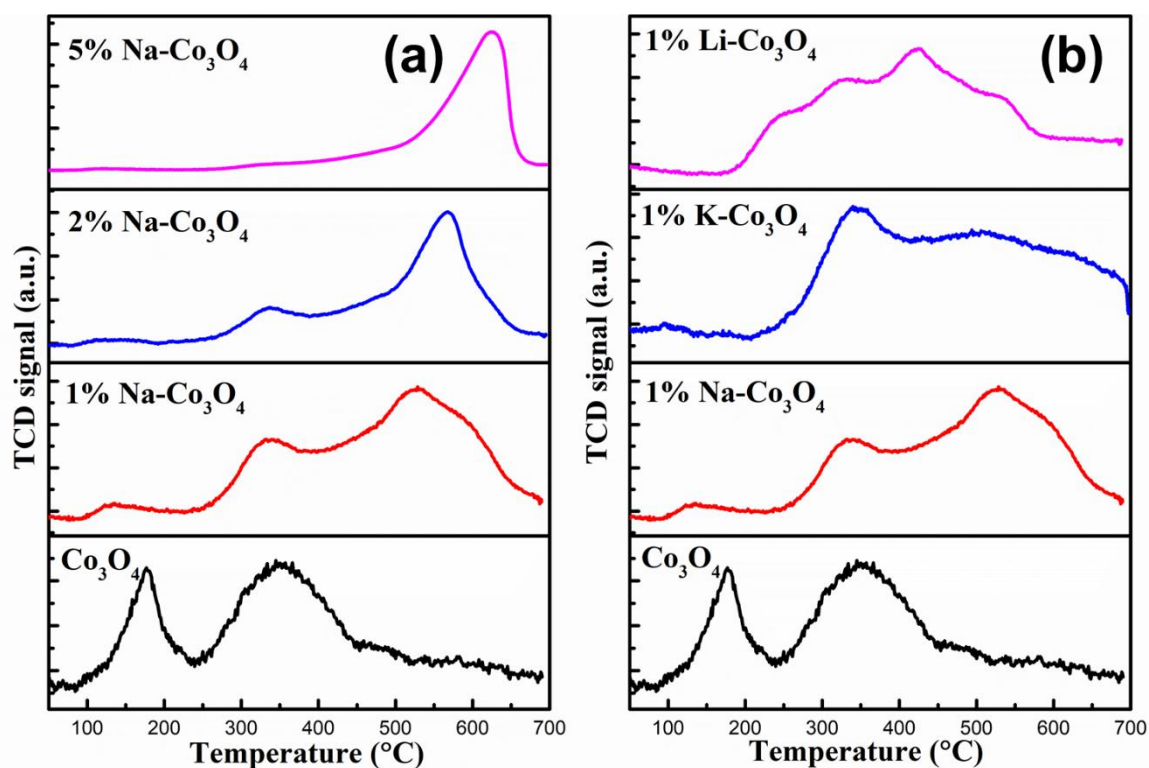


Figure 9. O₂-TPD profiles of pure Co₃O₄ and alkali metal doped Co₃O₄ catalysts.

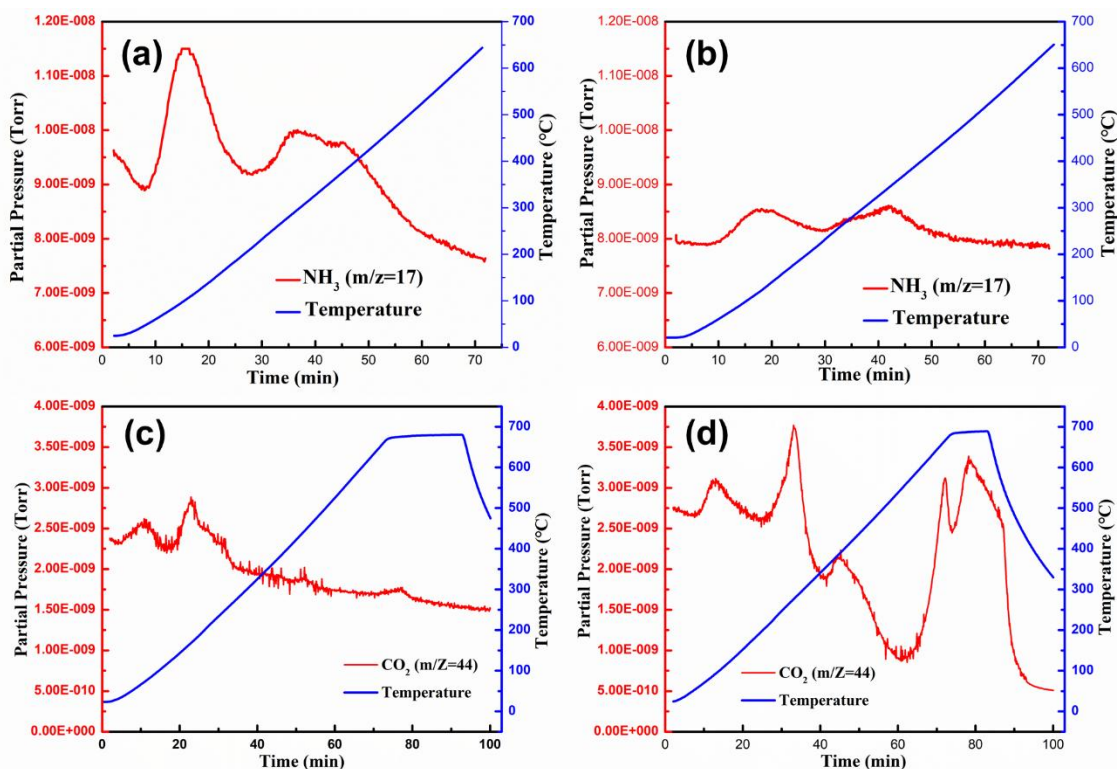


Figure 10. (a) and (b) NH_3 -TPD , (c) and (d) CO_2 -TPD profiles of pure Co_3O_4 and 5% - Co_3O_4 catalysts.

Figure 11 shows the CO-TPR results of pure Co_3O_4 and alkali metal doped Co_3O_4 catalysts with detecting the concentration of CO and CO_2 simultaneously. For all profiles, the consumption of CO and formation of CO_2 matches perfectly, indicating all consumed CO molecules were converted to CO_2 with the oxygen species of catalyst. Over the pure Co_3O_4 , a small peak centered at 280 °C and a strong peak with shoulder at 313 °C can be assigned to the reduction of Co^{3+} to Co^{2+} and Co^{2+} to Co^0 , respectively[59, 60]. With alkali metals doping, both reduction peaks were shifted to higher temperature and the area of reduction peak at lower temperature became smaller, indicating the alkali metal has a clearly negative effect on the reducibility of Co_3O_4 . The activity of surface oxygen species is regarding as playing a vital role in the catalytic

reactions. Therefore, the shift of reduction peak to higher temperature means the less active oxygen species on the alkali metal doped samples. Moreover, an additional reduction peak at around 600 °C can be seen on all alkali metal doped samples, which was not observed on the pure Co_3O_4 sample, further indicating a certain amount of oxygen species has been locked (or stabilized) by the doped alkali metals.

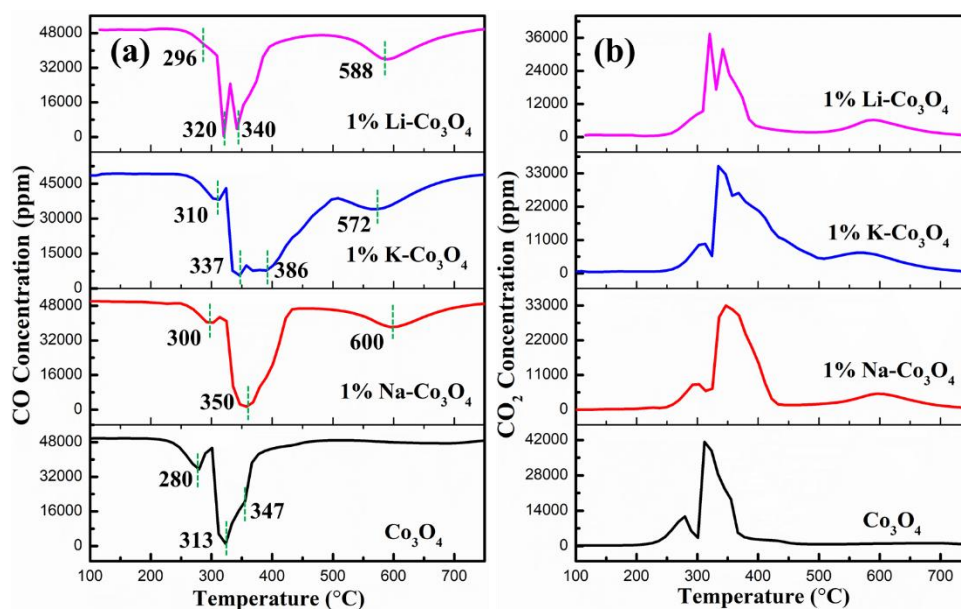


Figure 11. CO-TPR profiles of pure Co_3O_4 and alkali metal doped Co_3O_4 catalysts (a) CO consumption signal and (b) CO_2 formation signal.

Figure 12a shows the full XPS spectrum of the pure and alkali metals doped Co_3O_4 which confirms the presence of Co, O and alkali metal in related samples. From Figure 12b, it can be seen that there is no obvious N1s signal over all samples, indicating the nitrate precursors used in the synthesis decomposed completely and converted into other compounds. With a deconvoluting method (XPSPEAK 4.1), high-resolution Co 2p_{3/2} and O1s spectral regions of pure and alkali metal doped samples could be fitted with a few components as shown in Figures

12c and d, respectively. For example, the Co 2p_{3/2} peak can be deconvoluted into two parts: lower binding energy at 779.0 ± 0.2 eV and higher binding energy at 780.8 ± 0.2 eV, which can be assigned to the surface Co³⁺ and Co²⁺ species, respectively [10, 12, 18, 61]. The results showed that the Co²⁺/Co³⁺ ratio of pure Co₃O₄ is 1.48, while the values decreased significantly to 0.76, 0.83, 1.13 for 1%Na, 1%K, 1%Li doped Co₃O₄, respectively. Therefore, the reduction of active Co²⁺ would be an important reason for the poisoning effect of alkali metals. Using similar deconvoluting method, three or four components can be used to fit asymmetrical O1s peak: lattice oxygen (O_α: O²⁻) at about 528.7 or 530.5 eV; chemisorbed oxygen species (O_β: O₂⁻, O⁻ and O₂²⁻) at 532.5 eV; and adsorbed molecular water or hydroxyl group at 534.4 eV (O_γ), as displayed in Figure 12c. It is well known that the chemisorbed oxygen species on the oxide catalysts has better activities in oxidation reactions. As a result, the ratio of O_β is about 18.9%, while the ratios were 11.1, 15.0 and 18.8% after doping with Na, K, and Li, respectively. The significant decrease of O_β over Na and K doped samples further confirmed the oxygen activities are restricted by the doping of alkali metals. For the case of Li doped sample, the higher content of O_β might be due to the residual Li₂CO₃ and LiOH formed during the decomposition process.

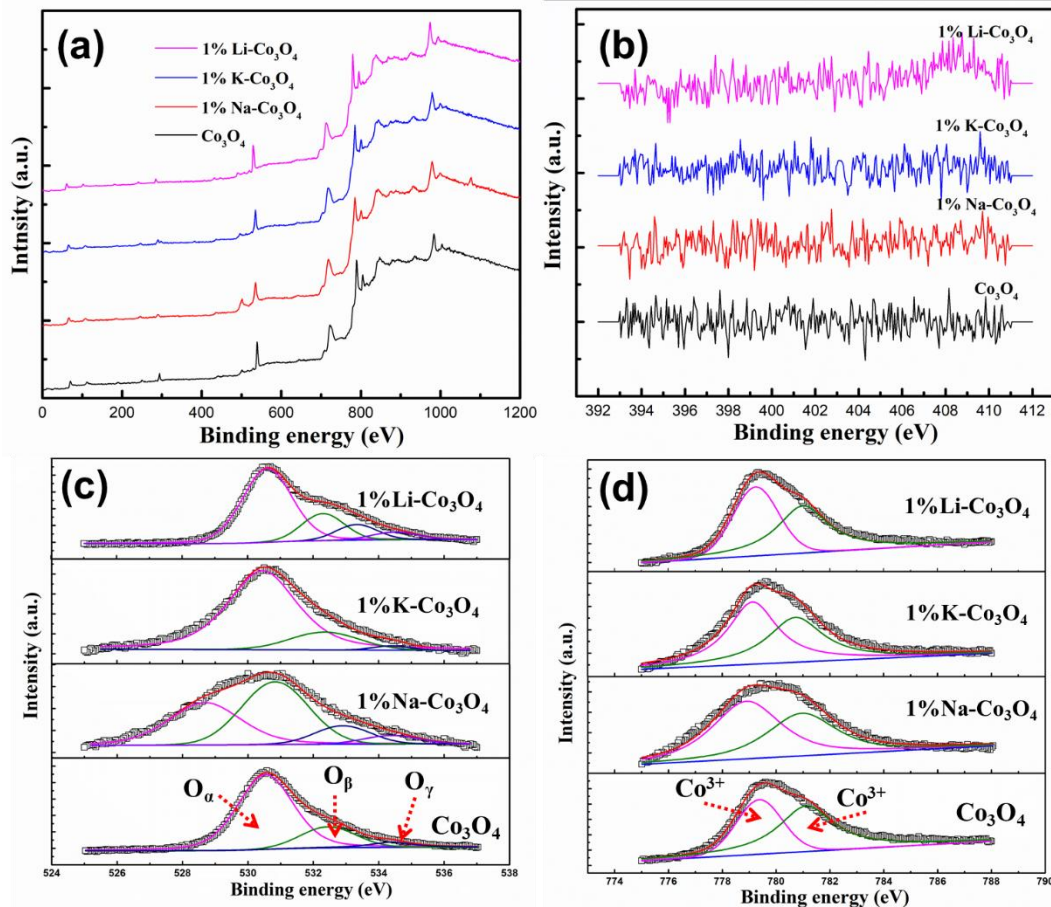


Figure 12. XPS spectra of Co_3O_4 -original and Co_3O_4 -AC catalysts: (a) Full spectrum; (b) N1s; (c) O 1s; (d) Co 2p_{3/2}.

3.6 *In situ* DRIFT study of CO and C_3H_8 oxidations

An *in situ* DRIFTS study was employed during CO and propane oxidation to further investigate the reactions over the pure Co_3O_4 and 5% Na doped Co_3O_4 catalyst surfaces and to understand the possible poisoning mechanism. The DRIFT spectra of the samples Co_3O_4 and 5% Na doped Co_3O_4 are displayed in Figure 13, as recorded during the exposure to $\text{CO}+\text{O}_2$ with ramping temperature. Over the pure Co_3O_4 catalyst, the bands centering around 1282, 1375 and 1560 cm^{-1} after the sample was heated above 50 °C in $\text{CO}+\text{O}_2$ atmosphere can be assigned to bidentate

carbonate species [10, 19, 23, 49, 62], indicating the occurring of CO oxidation. With looking into the gas-phase bands of CO at around 2116 and 2175 cm^{-1} , we can know that the CO is fully converted at above 130 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ which is in good agreement with the light-off curve achieved before. On the other hand, the bands of bidentate carbonate species firstly became stronger with developed CO conversion along the increasing temperature while disappeared later at above 230 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ with complete CO conversion. At low temperature from 30-70 $^{\circ}\text{C}$, a typical peak at 2056 cm^{-1} can be observed clearly over both pure Co_3O_4 and 5% Na doped Co_3O_4 catalysts, which is attributed to interaction between carbon monoxide and metal sites like $\text{CO-Co}^{\text{n+}}$ [23, 62]. With increasing temperature, this peak vanished at the same time the bands of carbonate species come out, indicating the formation of CO_2 adsorbed on catalyst surface will have a negative effect on the interaction between carbon monoxide and metal sites. Interestingly, the bands of $\text{CO-Co}^{\text{n+}}$ over 5% Na doped Co_3O_4 catalyst shows much higher intensity than that of pure sample, indicating Na doping significantly promote the CO adsorption strength. Some research has revealed that strong adsorption of CO would cause higher reaction barrier and strong adsorption of CO_2 could greatly enhance accumulation of surface carbonate species[63-66], then leading to poor activity in CO oxidation. For 5% Na doped Co_3O_4 sample, the bands related to bidentate carbonate species at 1335, 1471, 1537, 1578 cm^{-1} show up above 50 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ after introducing $\text{CO}+\text{O}_2$ atmosphere, which are differed from the observation on pure Co_3O_4 sample. These bands become stronger with increasing temperature, demonstrating the accumulation of carbonate species on catalyst surface. It is noteworthy that the carbonate species remain on the catalyst surface even at 310 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ while the CO is fully converted into CO_2 from the light-off curve. This is a significant

difference in the feature of carbonate species on the pure and Na-doped Co_3O_4 catalysts, and the carbonate species can be formed on both catalysts at lower temperature while only Na-doped Co_3O_4 can keep these carbonate species stable at higher temperature. Therefore, it is inferred that the doped Na is able to stabilize carbonate species even at high temperature that might be a reason for lower CO activities of Na doped Co_3O_4 catalysts.

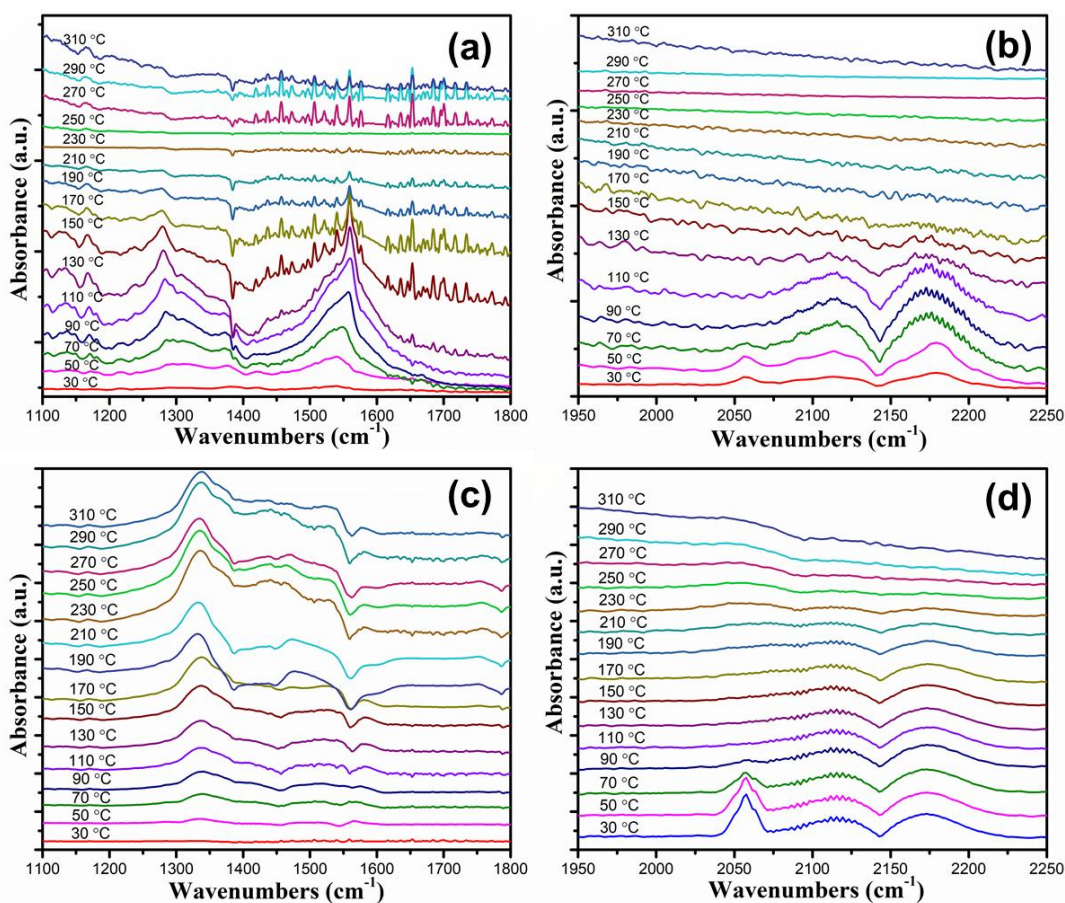


Figure 13. In situ DRIFT spectra recorded for comparison during CO oxidation profiles over pure Co_3O_4 (a and b) and 5%Na doped Co_3O_4 catalysts (c and d).

Figure 14 shows the DRIFTS spectra during propane oxidation with ramping process as the testing program, and each spectrum was collected at the specified temperature (30, 50, 80, 110,

140, 170, 200, 230, 260, 290, 320, 350, 380, 410 °C). Typically, the features from 2840~3050 cm^{-1} can be assigned to asymmetric CH_3 stretching and asymmetric CH_2 stretching from gaseous propane[67, 68]. Over the pure Co_3O_4 as shown in Figure 12b, the peaks from 2840~3050 cm^{-1} began to reduce after 230 °C, indicating the oxidation of propane which is in good agreement with the light-off curve displayed before. However, no clear peaks around 1100-1700 cm^{-1} about carbonate species were observed even the propane has already been converted to CO_2 at higher temperature, which tells that the formed CO_2 can immediately desorb on the surface with little further adsorption. In terms of the 5% Na doped Co_3O_4 catalyst, the peak bands about gaseous hydrocarbon still kept very strong even at 410 °C, further confirming the poor activity of propane oxidation. It is evident that some carbonate species with bands around 1367 cm^{-1} [10, 23] appear at ~50 °C and accumulation of this kind of species proceeds with the increasing temperature. At the end of propane oxidation over this 5% Na doped Co_3O_4 catalyst, the bands about surface adsorbed carbonate species has the highest intensity although the conversion of propane is still low. With these results, we can deduce that the doped Na has a significantly positive effect on both forming and stabilizing carbonate species on the catalyst surface. Moreover, the carbonate species locked by Na on the surface keep very stable even at temperature as high as 410 °C, which might explain the still poor light-off activity even with the further increased reaction temperature.

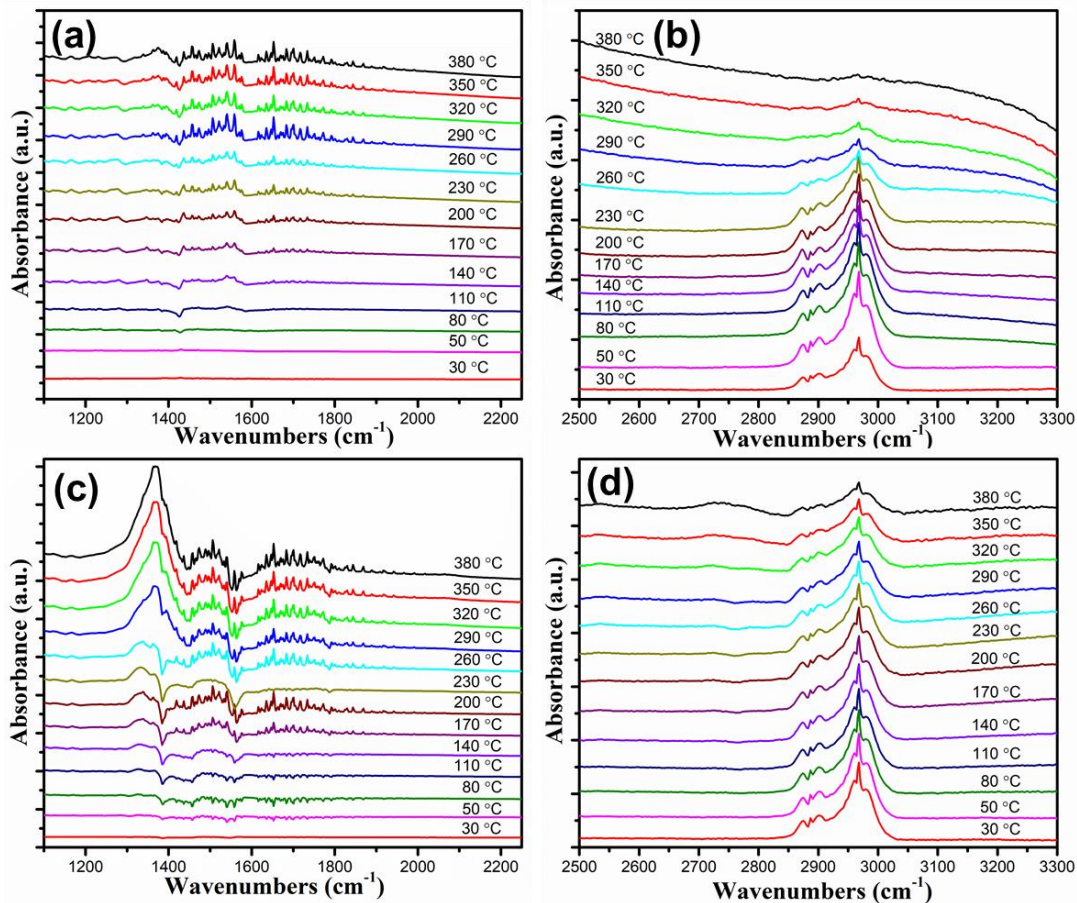


Figure 14. In situ DRIFT spectra recorded for comparison during propane oxidation profiles over pure Co_3O_4 (a and b) and 5% Na doped Co_3O_4 catalysts (c and d).

3.7 Poisoning mechanism

For the past few years, many researches proposed the CO oxidation reaction on transitional metal oxides followed the Mars-van-Krevelen mechanism [19, 22-24, 29, 64, 69] as shown in Figure 15a. Specifically, CO firstly adsorbed on the cationic metal sites (mostly Co^{3+}); the adsorbed CO reacts with an oxygen atom linked to the active cationic metal sites; CO_2 is formed and desorbs, then oxygen vacancies are generated; oxygen vacancies are filled with gas-phase O_2 to regenerate active oxygen species. As a typical metal oxide, Co_3O_4 can adsorb CO on the surface

even at low temperature as confirmed by the strong adsorption peak at 2056 cm^{-1} in previous DRIFT study. With Na doping, this strong Co-CO interaction becomes stronger, indicating the doped Na can significantly promote the CO adsorption strength on cationic metal sites. However, this interaction would be replaced with CO_2 adsorption when the CO_2 is formed by CO oxidation, which can be observed by the DRIFT study. Therefore, the stronger adsorption of CO also means the stronger adsorption of CO_2 [63, 64]. It is noted that the stronger adsorption of CO_2 could greatly enhance accumulation of surface carbonate species, then inhibit the CO oxidation. Previous DRIFT study has revealed that the surface carbonate species can be desorbed with increasing temperature on pure Co_3O_4 surface, while this process will be hard to proceed over the Na doped sample even above $380\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, while the desorption of highly stable carbonate was observed at temperatures above $500\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ based on the CO_2 -TPD results. Moreover, oxygen mobility is also crucial for catalytic oxidation reaction on metal oxides catalysts. Compared to the pure Co_3O_4 , doping alkali metal has negative effect on the oxygen mobility of catalyst. From O_2 -TPD results, it can be seen that the oxygen desorption shifts to higher temperature obviously with increasing doping amount of Na. The similar results are also observed on other alkali metals dopants such as K and Li.

Based on these results, we can conclude that the poisoning effects of alkali metal doping on Co_3O_4 catalysts in oxidation reactions include: firstly, Na doping would greatly affect the oxygen mobility of Co_3O_4 such as locking oxygen from desorption at low temperature, which makes the catalyst inactive especially at low temperature; Na doping can enhance both CO and CO_2 adsorption on Co_3O_4 surface while the deactivation due to accumulation of surface carbonate

species would become severe even at high temperature (a schematic model is shown in Figure 15b), which will lead to high reaction barrier and poor activity. The similar deactivation mechanism by accumulation of surface carbonate species can be also applied in propane oxidation, which is also demonstrated by the DRIFT study intruded earlier. Besides, this mechanism also explains the reason why high concentration of CO_2 has slight effect on the activity of pure Co_3O_4 catalyst while it has seriously negative effect on the Na-doped Co_3O_4 catalyst even worse than SO_2 .

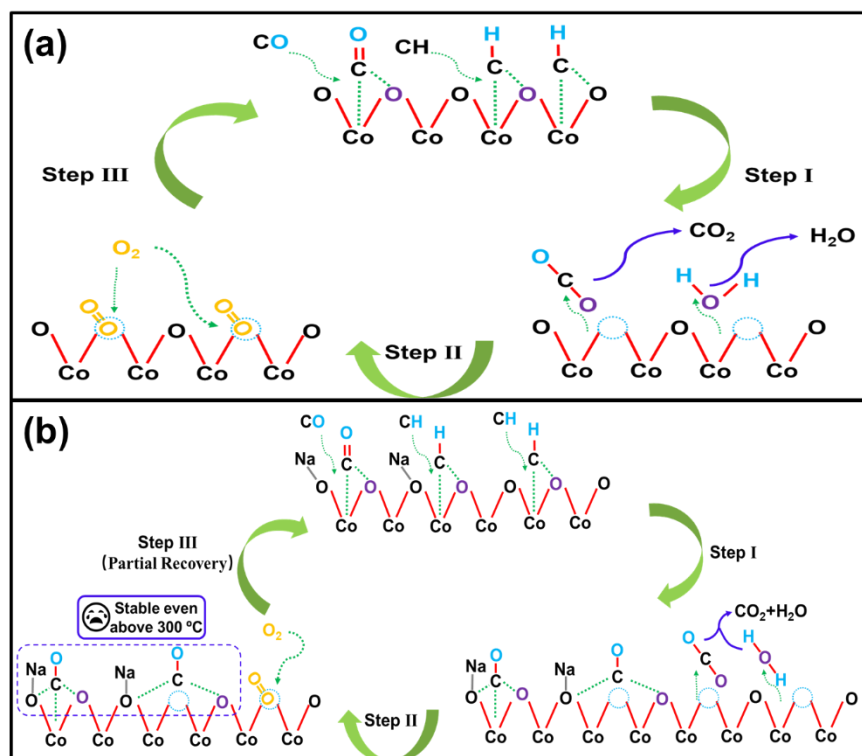


Figure 15. Schematic models for CO/HC oxidation over (a) pure Co_3O_4 and (b) Na doped Co_3O_4 catalysts.

4. Conclusions

Based on this study, one can conclude that deposition of alkali metals can poison the Co_3O_4 catalyst for catalytic oxidation reactions such as CO and propane oxidation, and the Na ions exhibit greater poisoning effect than both Li and K ions. In detail, 1% doping onto Co_3O_4 could increase the light-off temperature by 50 °C in CO oxidation and over 160 °C in propane oxidation, respectively. O_2 -TPD results show that alkali metals make a great contribution on the poor oxygen mobility of alkali metal doped catalysts, directly leading the poor oxidation activities. From in-situ DRIFT study, alkali metals can also significantly promote the adsorption of CO_2 to form robust surface carbonate species even at high temperature, another reason for the poisoning effect of alkali metals on Co_3O_4 nanocatalysts for catalytic oxidation, which also explains the worse poisoning effect of high concentration of CO_2 on propane oxidation activity over the Na doped Co_3O_4 catalyst. Our findings about poisoning effect of alkali metals on this highly important oxidation catalyst will give a clear guide for future application of these potential oxidation catalysts.

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Microscopy and Materials Analysis (CAMMA).

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