

Diesel soot combustion catalysts: a review of active phases.

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The most relevant information about the different active phases that have been studied for the catalytic combustion of soot has been reviewed and discussed in this article. Many catalysts have been reported to accelerate soot combustion, including formulations with noble metals, alkali and alkali earth metals, transition metals that can accomplish redox cycles (V, Mn, Co, Cu, Fe...) and internal transition metals. Platinum catalysts are among the most interesting for practical application, and one important feature of these catalysts is that sulfur resistant platinum formulations have been prepared. Some metal oxide-based catalysts seem also promising candidates for soot combustion in practical applications, including ceria-based formulations and mixed oxides with perovskite and spinel structures. Some of these metal oxide catalysts produce highly reactive active oxygen species that efficiently promote soot combustion. Thermal stability is one important requirement for a soot combustion catalyst, and this rules out the practical utilization of several potential catalysts like most alkali metal catalysts, molten salts and metal chlorides. Some noble metal catalysts are also unstable because they form volatile oxides (ruthenium, iridium and osmium).

Keywords: diesel soot; DPF; DOC; soot combustion catalyst; Pt catalyst; ceria; perovskite.

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Introduction

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33 Soot particles are emitted by Diesel engines together with NO_x, CO and unburned
34 hydrocarbons (HC) in gas streams with high O₂, CO₂ and H₂O concentrations and
35 temperatures typically below 500-550 °C. In these conditions, CO and HC oxidation can be
36 easily accomplished in a Diesel Oxidation Catalyst (DOC), but both NO_x and soot need
37 complex abatement strategies.

38 Diesel Particulate Filters (DPF) are used to remove soot particles from the exhaust
39 stream (Neeft et al., 1996; Van Setten et al., 2001; Maricq, 2007; Twigg, 2007). This type of
40 filters usually consist of wall-flow monoliths, that is, honeycomb-like structures with 50% of
41 the channels plugged at the gas entrance side and the remaining channels plugged at the exit.
42 The gas stream enters into the filter through the open channels, which is forced to pass
43 through the porous walls where soot particles get stuck. DPF filters must be regenerated by
44 soot combustion in order to avoid pressure drop in the exhaust, and there are several
45 commercially available technologies for this purpose (Fino & Specchia, 2008).

46 The PSA system consists of using metal-fuel additives to obtain soot particles with
47 catalytically active metals well embedded into the structure. A DPF is used to collect the
48 metal catalyst-containing soot particles and, once filter regeneration is required, extra fuel is
49 injected and its exothermic combustion starts the catalytic combustion of soot.

50 The Continuously Regenerating Trap (CRT) system (by Johnson Matthey) consists of
51 a DPF filter located downstream a Pt-containing DOC catalyst. CO and HC are oxidized in
52 the DOC, which also oxidizes NO to NO₂. NO₂ is much more oxidizing than NO and O₂ and
53 rapidly reacts with soot and starts its ignition.

54 Some other filter regeneration strategies are being investigated, such as modifications
55 of the CRT systems that incorporate active phases in the filter instead of or in addition to that
56 in the previous oxidation catalyst or the Toyota Motors DPNR (Diesel Particulate NO_x
57 Reduction) system for the simultaneous removal of NO_x and soot.

58 Intense research efforts are being done since the 1980s in order to design and improve
59 soot combustion catalysts, and the goal of the current review article is to compile and discuss
60 the most relevant information available about the different active phases that have been
61 studied for the catalytic combustion of soot.

62 Table 1 compiles a survey about different active phases that have been tested for the
63 catalytic combustion of soot. Comparison between soot catalytic combustion results obtained
64 at different laboratories is not an easy task because of the particular features of the soot
65 oxidation reactions:

66

67 (i) Real soot is a heterogeneous material, and therefore, it is not convenient for
68 catalysts screening. Important differences in the amount and type of ashes
69 (sometimes metals with potential catalytic activity), amount of adsorbed
70 hydrocarbons and degree of graphitization of the soot formed can be found.
71 Usually, a model commercial carbon black is preferred for laboratory studies,
72 and the behavior of a particular catalyst depends on the model carbon material
73 used to perform the tests. Model carbon blacks typically have very low or null
74 amounts of adsorbed hydrocarbons and metal compounds.

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76 (ii) The soot-catalyst contact strongly affects the catalytic combustion results, and
77 it is not always easy to make sure that the contact in experiments performed at
78 different laboratories is equal. It is generally accepted that “loose contact”
79 mixtures of soot and powder catalysts (soot and catalyst are mixed with a
80 spatula, for instance) are more convenient for laboratory experiments than
81 “tight contact” mixtures (soot and catalyst are mixed in a mortar, for instance),
82 because they are supposed to mimic the soot-catalyst contact in a real DPF
83 much better (Van Setten et al., 2000). However, some authors screen their
84 catalysts at laboratory in tight-contact with soot because differences in
85 catalytic activity are more evident.

86

87 (iii) Soot properties change with time during combustion (amount of oxygen, size
88 and shape of the particles, graphitic structure, surface area, etc.). For this
89 reason, the kinetic parameters of the catalyzed soot oxidation reactions
90 (reaction rates, activation energies, pre-exponential factors...) also change with
91 time, and they are only valid for very particular soot combustion conditions.
92 This handicap has motivated that, in most articles devoted to the study of soot
93 combustion catalysts, kinetic parameters are not reported.

94

95 In addition to these particular features of the soot combustion reactions, the reaction
96 rate also depends on general variables, such as, temperature for isothermal reactions and
97 heating rate for ramp experiments, nature and partial pressure of the gases in the stream, space
98 velocity/residence time of the gases in the solid bed, soot/catalyst ratio, etc. In order to restrict
99 the information spread on literature to results with a certain practical relevance, only data
100 obtained with catalysts tested in “loose contact” with soot and under both NO_x and O₂
101 containing gas mixtures have been considered in Table 1. However, in spite of these
102 precautions, it is not possible to achieve realistic conclusions about which catalyst is best and
103 which one is worst from data included in Table 1, and it is not the intention of this review
104 article to do it. The aim of the article is to compile the tremendous information available on
105 literature and to critically discuss this information identifying strong and weak points of each
106 type of catalyst.

107 According to the survey compiled in Table 1, many catalysts have been reported to
108 accelerate soot combustion, including formulations with noble metals (mainly Pt), alkali and
109 alkali earth metals, transition metals that can accomplish redox cycles (V, Mn, Co, Cu, Fe...)
110 and internal transition metals. In the coming sections of this article the most relevant
111 information reported about the behavior of the different type of soot combustion catalysts is
112 presented and discussed. The discussion is arranged in groups of catalysts according to their
113 composition or structure, that is, platinum catalysts, non-platinum noble metals and silver
114 catalysts, perovskites, spinels, ceria-based catalysts, metal chlorides, molten salts and alkali
115 metal catalysts.

117 **Table 1.** Compilation of soot combustion catalytic tests results. Only catalysts tested in “loose contact” with soot and under both NO_x and O₂
 118 containing gas mixtures have been considered; only results obtained with fresh catalysts are included.

119

Catalysts	ΔT	T_{\max}	Relevant experimental details	Reference
SiO ₂		661		
1%Pt/SiO ₂		312	500 ml/min; 10% O ₂ +7% H ₂ O + 1000 ppm NO + 100 ppm SO ₂ in N ₂ ; Flow reactor; 10 °C/min;	Oi-Uchisawa et a., 1998
1%Pt/Al ₂ O ₃		460	5 mg of soot + 500 mg catalyst; carbon black (Nippon Tokai carbon 7350F)	
1%Pt/ZrO ₂		408		
SiO ₂		687		
1%Pt/SiO ₂		562		Liu et al., 2001
V ₂ O ₅ /SiO ₂		555	500 ml/min; 1000 ppm NO +10% O ₂ + 7% H ₂ O in N ₂ ; Flow reactor; 10 °C/min; 5 mg of soot +	
V ₂ O ₅ -Pt/SiO ₂		518	500 mg catalyst; carbon black (Nippon Tokai carbon 7350F)	
MoO ₃ /SiO ₂		535		
MoO ₃ -Pt/SiO ₂		475		
γ -Al ₂ O ₃ (260 m ² /g)		~650		
1%Pt/ γ -Al ₂ O ₃ (210 m ² /g)		~550	100 ml/min; 2000 ppm NO _x + 5% O ₂ in He; Flow reactor; 15 °C/min; 66 mg (1:9 soot:catalyst);	
1%Pt/20%Ba/ γ -Al ₂ O ₃ (160 m ² /g)		~580	Printex U.	
2.5%Pt/4%K ₂ O/Al ₂ O ₃	150	375	200 ml/min; 600 ppm NO _x + 10% O ₂ in Ar; Flow reactor; 1 °C/min; 100 mg (1:4 soot:catalyst); 43000 h ⁻¹ ; Printex U.	Krishna & Makkee, 2006
Cs ₂ SO ₄ ·V ₂ O ₅ /foam filter		~475		Setiabudi et al., 2002
1%Pt/Al ₂ O ₃		~415	200 ml/min; 600 ppm NO _x + 10% O ₂ in Ar; Flow reactor; 0.6 °C/min Printex U.	
Ce _{0.8} Zr _{0.2} O ₂ (3DOM)	191	394		Wei et al., 2013
1%Pt/Ce _{0.8} Zr _{0.2} O ₂ (3DOM)	231	354	50 ml/min; 2000 ppm NO + 5% O ₂ in Ar; Flow reactor; 2 °C/min; 10 mg of soot + 100 mg	
8%Pt/Ce _{0.8} Zr _{0.2} O ₂ (3DOM)	259	326	catalyst; Printex U.	
CeO ₂ (64 m ² /g)	88	518		
Ce _{0.76} Zr _{0.24} O ₂ (67 m ² /g)	85	521		Atribak et al., 2009
Ce _{0.56} Zr _{0.44} O ₂ (31 m ² /g)	19	587	500 ml/min; 500 ppm NO _x + 5% O ₂ in N ₂ . Flow reactor; 10 °C/min; 100 mg (1:4 soot:catalyst);	
Ce _{0.36} Zr _{0.64} O ₂ (8 m ² /g)	10	596	30000 h ⁻¹ ; Printex U.	
Ce _{0.16} Zr _{0.84} O ₂ (47 m ² /g)	0	606		
ZrO ₂ (65 m ² /g)	24	582		
CeO ₂ (49 m ² /g)	129	465		
Ce _{0.8} Sm _{0.2} O ₂ (47 m ² /g)	128	466	50 ml/min; 2000 ppm NO _x + 5% O ₂ in He; Flow reactor; 1 °C/min.; 100 mg (1:10 soot:catalyst);	
Ce _{0.8} Zr _{0.2} O ₂ (48 m ² /g)	125	469	Printex U.	
Ce _{0.8} V _{0.2} O ₂ (15 m ² /g)	100	494		
Ce _{0.5} Zr _{0.5} O ₂ (132 m ² /g)		500	500 ml/min; 10%O ₂ + 1000 ppm NO + 7%H ₂ O in N ₂ . Flow reactor; 10 °C/min; 5 mg of soot + 100 mg catalyst; Printex U.	Zhu et al., 2007

Catalysts	ΔT	T_{\max}	Relevant experimental details	Reference
CeO ₂ (2 m ² /g)	54	474		
Ce _{0.9} La _{0.1} O _x (16 m ² /g)	68	460		
Ce _{0.9} Pr _{0.1} O _x (11 m ² /g)	109	419	200 ml/min; 600 ppm NO _x + 10% O ₂ in Ar; Flow reactor; 0.6 °C/min;	Krishna et al., 2007b
Ce _{0.9} Sm _{0.1} O _x (5 m ² /g)	35	493	100 mg (1:4 soot:catalyst); 70000 h ⁻¹ ; Printex U.	
Ce _{0.9} Y _{0.1} O _x (2 m ² /g)	24	504		
Pt/Al ₂ O ₃ (comercial)		~515		
CeO ₂ (37 m ² /g)		~550		
Mn _{0.25} Ce _{0.75} O _x (86 m ² /g)		~460	140 ml/min; 10% O ₂ + 1000 ppm NO + 3% H ₂ O in N ₂ ; TGA reactor; 10 °C/min; 5 mg of soot +	Tikhomirov et al., 2006
Mn _{0.50} Ce _{0.50} O _x (79 m ² /g)		~590	100 mg catalyst; Real soot.	
Mn _{0.75} Ce _{0.25} O _x (89 m ² /g)		~500		
Mn ₂ O ₃ (24 m ² /g)		~585		
CeO ₂ (62 m ² /g)		~465		
CuO-CeO ₂ (68 m ² /g)		~420	500 ml/min; 1000 ppm NO + 9.5% O ₂ in N ₂ ; Flow reactor; 20 °C/min; 5 mg of soot + 100 mg	Wu et al., 2007
CeO ₂ -ZrO ₂ (57 m ² /g)		~478	catalyst; Printex U.	
CuO-CeO ₂ -ZrO ₂ (51 m ² /g)		~448		
La ₂ CuO ₄		504		
Pr ₂ CuO ₄		507		
Nd ₂ CuO ₄		518	50 ml/min; 2000 ppm NO+ 5% O ₂ in He; Flow reactor; 2 °C/min; 108 mg (1:5 soot:catalyst)	Liu et al., 2008
Sm ₂ CuO ₄		518	Flow reactor; Printex U.	
Gd ₂ CuO ₄		520		
La _{1.3} Na _{0.7} CuO ₄		463		
ZnAl ₂ O ₄ (133 m ² /g)	35	630	500 ml/min; 500 ppm NO _x + 5% O ₂ in N ₂ ; Flow reactor; 10 °C/min; 100 mg (1:4 soot:catalyst);	
5% CuO/ZnAl ₂ O ₄ (111 m ² /g)	65	600	30000 h ⁻¹ ; carbon black (Vulcan XC72)	
Zn _{0.95} Cu _{0.05} Al ₂ O ₄ (148 m ² /g)	18	647		
K-Cu/SrTiO ₃ (9 m ² /g)	188	495		
Sr _{0.8} K _{0.2} TiO _x (5 m ² /g)	215	468	500 ml/min; 500 ppm NO _x + 5% O ₂ in N ₂ ; Flow reactor; 10 °C/min; 100 mg (1:4 soot:catalyst);	López-Suárez et al., 2009
K/SrTiO ₃ (7 m ² /g)	195	488	30000 h ⁻¹ ; carbon black (Vulcan XC72)	
Cu/SrTiO ₃ (11 m ² /g)	78	605		
LaCoO ₃ (9 m ² /g)	178	421		
La _{0.90} K _{0.10} CoO ₃ (11 m ² /g)	201	398	50 ml/min; 2000 ppm NO _x + 5% O ₂ in He; Flow reactor; 2 °C/min; 180 mg (1:5 soot:catalyst)	Wang et al., 2008
LaFeO ₃ (3DOM)	153	432	50 ml/min; 2000 ppm NO + 5% O ₂ in Ar; Flow reactor; 2 °C/min; Printex U.	Xu et al., 2010
LaCo _{0.5} Fe _{0.5} O ₃ (3DOM)	188	397		
LaMn _{0.95} Fe _{0.05} O ₃ (3 DOM)		392	50 ml/min; 2000 ppm NO + 5% O ₂ in Ar; Flow reactor; 2 °C/min; Printex U.	Zheng et al., 2012

120 ΔT : Difference between the un-catalyzed and catalyzed soot combustion temperatures (°C).

121 T_{\max} : Temperature of maximum soot combustion rate, maximum CO_x emission or temperature for 50% soot conversion (°C).

Platinum catalysts

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124 Pt is being currently used in soot removal commercial systems. The so-called CRT
125 (Continuously Regenerating Trap) system, which is already used on heavy duty diesel
126 vehicles such as trucks and buses, utilizes a platinum-containing DOC in front of a DPF filter
127 to control HC and CO emissions, and also to oxidize NO to NO₂ for low temperature
128 combustion of soot in the downstream filter when driving conditions are appropriate for this
129 to take place (Twigg, 2006, 2007).

130 The role of platinum on the combustion of soot with O₂ has been postulated to be the
131 spillover of activated oxygen (Neri et al., 1997) and, on NO_x/O₂ mixtures, the catalytic
132 oxidation of NO to NO₂ (Setiabudi et al., 2002). In presence of both NO₂ and O₂, it has been
133 also reported (Jeguirim et al., 2007) that besides the well-established catalytic oxidation of
134 NO into NO₂, Pt also has a catalytic effect on the cooperative carbon–NO₂–O₂ oxidation
135 reaction. An overall mechanism involving the formation of atomic oxygen over platinum sites
136 followed by its transfer to the carbon surface has been proposed. It has been suggested that
137 platinum catalysts increase the surface concentration of surface carbon oxygen complexes
138 which then react with NO₂ leading to an enhanced carbon consumption.

139 The effect of the support oxide and platinum precursor on the catalytic combustion of
140 soot oxidation was studied in a simulated exhaust gas with N₂, O₂, H₂O, NO and SO₂ (Oi-
141 Uchisawa et al., 1998). The platinum precursors compared were Pt(NH₃)₄(OH)₂,
142 H₂PtCl₆·6H₂O, Pt(NH₃)₄(NO₃)₂, and Pt(NH₃)₄Cl₂ and the supports tested were SiO₂, Al₂O₃,
143 and ZrO₂. Pt/SiO₂ prepared from Pt(NH₃)₄(OH)₂ showed the highest carbon oxidation
144 activity, and it was observed that platinum dispersion did not explain the catalytic trends. The
145 soot combustion activity was only related to the catalytic oxidation of NO to NO₂. In a later
146 study (Oi-Uchisawa et al., 2000), the effect of support materials for platinum catalysts on the
147 oxidation of carbon black was revisited, and several platinum-supported metal oxides were
148 evaluated (Ta₂O₅, Nb₂O₅, WO₃, SnO₂, SiO₂, TiO₂, Al₂O₃ and ZrO₂). Pt/Ta₂O₅ showed the
149 highest activity in a model diesel exhaust containing O₂, H₂O, NO and SO₂ in N₂. Platinum
150 catalysts supported on other non-basic metal oxides such as Nb₂O₅, WO₃, SnO₂ and SiO₂
151 showed similar high activities. The high activity for these catalysts was attributed to their
152 non-basicity and negligible affinity toward SO₃ (or H₂SO₄), which resulted in less poisoning
153 of the supported platinum. The MO_x supports used for platinum catalysts were further
154 improved by using MO_x-TiO₂ mixtures (Oi-Uchisawa et al., 2003), and highest activities

155 were obtained with Pt/(TiO₂+SiO₂) for molar ratios of TiO₂/(TiO₂+SiO₂) in the range 0.4 to
156 0.7. This improvement was attributed to the enhanced sulfur resistance.

157 Synergetic effect between platinum and some other active components has been
158 reported as well. A series of SiO₂-supported MoO₃, V₂O₅, and/or platinum catalysts were
159 investigated (Liu et al., 2001), concluding that catalysts with both platinum and metal oxides
160 were more active than the single-component catalysts. A synergistic reaction mechanism was
161 suggested to explain the effects of combining platinum with the oxides, where platinum
162 catalyzes the oxidation of NO with gas phase O₂ to NO₂, while MoO₃ and V₂O₅ catalyze the
163 oxidation of carbon with NO₂. Jelles et al. (1999a) also reported a synergetic effect between
164 platinum, used as post-combustion catalyst, and cerium introduced into the soot structure by
165 using a fuel additive. The high soot combustion rate was explained by a cycle of two catalytic
166 reactions, where platinum oxidizes NO to NO₂, which subsequently oxidizes soot using
167 cerium as a catalyst, forming NO which can participate in the reaction more than once.

168 Recently, three-Dimensionally Ordered Macroporous (3DOM) Ce_{0.8}Zr_{0.2}O₂-supported
169 platinum catalysts have been synthesized (Wei et al., 2013). It has been proposed that the
170 3DOM structure improves the contact efficiency between catalyst and soot, and the metal
171 (Pt)-support (Ce) synergistic effect increases the amount of active oxygen species delivered
172 to soot. 3DOM Pt/Ce_{0.8}Zr_{0.2}O₂ catalysts exhibited high catalytic activity and thermal stability
173 for soot combustion.

174 The synergistic effect between platinum and magnesium (Liu et al., 2012) has been
175 also reported to enhance the NO oxidation activity and NO_x storage capacity of Pt-Mg/Al₂O₃
176 catalyst. More NO₂ is produced in the temperature range of soot oxidation on Pt-Mg/Al₂O₃
177 than on a Mg-free Pt/Al₂O₃ catalyst with a similar Pt particle size, which efficiently promotes
178 the ignition of soot.

179 Soot combustion on NSR (NO_x Storage and Reduction) catalysts has recently
180 attracted attention (Castoldi et al., 2006; Krishna & Makkee, 2006; Kustov et al., 2009;
181 Matarrese et al., 2009; Pieta et al., 2010; Klein et al., 2012), in order to evaluate the potential
182 simultaneous removal of NO_x and soot (DPNR systems; Diesel Particulate NO_x Reduction)
183 and to check the effect of soot in NSR catalysts performance. NSR catalysts typically
184 combine platinum with a basic oxide/carbonate (alkali or alkali earth metal
185 oxides/carbonates) and operate in cycles of O₂-rich and O₂-lean atmospheres. NO_x are
186 chemisorbed on the basic compounds during the O₂-rich cycles and are reduced during the
187 lean periods attained by extra diesel injection.

188 The potential utilization of a typical Pt–Ba/Al₂O₃ NSR catalyst for the simultaneous
189 removal of soot and NO_x was investigated and compared with that of a Pt/Al₂O₃ sample
190 (Castoldi et al., 2006). It was found that the Pt–Ba/Al₂O₃ catalyst was able to simultaneously
191 remove both soot and NO_x while the Pt/Al₂O₃ catalyst effectively performed the soot
192 oxidation but was not able to remove gas phase NO_x to a significant extent. These authors
193 observed that the presence of soot did not significantly affect NO_x reduction on the Pt–
194 Ba/Al₂O₃ catalyst (Castoldi et al., 2006). On the contrary, Klein et al. (2012) also studied the
195 effect of soot on the performance of PtBa/Al₂O₃ NSR catalysts and reported that the presence
196 of soot in the catalytic bed leads to the decrease of the NO_x storage capacity (NSC) of the
197 catalysts. Participation of a direct reaction between carbon particles and NO_x storage sites to
198 form carbonate adsorbed species was proposed. However, the loss of NSC measured in the
199 presence of carbon varied as a function of the catalyst composition. It was shown that the
200 presence of platinum limited the influence of carbon–catalyst contact. The proximity between
201 the storage sites, platinum sites and their contact with carbon seems to be a key factor. During
202 the carbon oxidation process, catalysts aging caused by platinum sintering and Ba
203 agglomeration seems to occur. These structural modifications reduce the proximity between
204 the platinum and adsorption sites (Ba and/or Al), which results in a decrease in the NO_x
205 storage capacity (Klein et al., 2013).

206 Soot oxidation activity and deactivation of NSR catalysts containing Pt, K, and Ba
207 supported on Al₂O₃ were also studied (Krishna & Makkee, 2006). The NSR catalysts were
208 active to accelerate soot combustion, and the reactions that were mainly responsible of such
209 activity where soot oxidation with NO₂ followed by NO recycle to NO₂, and soot oxidation
210 with O₂ assisted by NO₂. Only a part of the stored NO_x that was decomposed at high
211 temperatures under lean conditions was found to be useful for soot oxidation. NO_x storage
212 capacity of these NSR catalysts decreased upon aging under soot oxidizing conditions. Pt/K–
213 Al₂O₃ catalyst was more active, but least stable compared with Pt/Ba–Al₂O₃ because the
214 active species responsible for synergism on Pt/K–Al₂O₃ are unstable and cannot be
215 regenerated (Krishna & Makkee, 2006). It has been also proposed (Matarrese et al., 2013) the
216 direct participation of the surface nitrates in soot oxidation on Pt/K–Al₂O₃ NSR catalysts,
217 without the requirement of the preliminary thermal decomposition of nitrates. Such a
218 mechanism was proposed to occur thanks to the mobility of the adsorbed NO_x species and is
219 not promoted by platinum. This surface reaction mechanism parallels the gas-phase soot
220 oxidation by NO₂ and O₂ evolved upon decomposition of the stored NO_x. Potassium-based

221 catalysts are more active than Ba-containing catalysts due to the higher mobility of the NO_x
222 species adsorbed on potassium with respect to barium.

223

224 **Non-platinum noble metals and silver catalysts**

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226 Non-platinum noble metals have not been studied very often as soot combustion
227 catalyst, and few articles have been reported regarding the study of silver catalysts.

228 Na-Y zeolite-supported iridium, palladium, platinum, and rhodium metals were
229 screened as carbon oxidation catalysts, and ruthenium was proposed to be the most active
230 noble metal (Villani et al., 2006). However, it is known that ruthenium (and also iridium and
231 Osmium) form volatile oxides, which rules out its practical utilization (Gandhi et al., 2003).

232 Au–V-based catalysts have been studied for soot combustion with special attention to
233 the reaction mechanism (Van Craenenbroeck et al., 2002). Gold particles do provide very
234 active sites able to ignite soot within the desired temperature range but retard the oxidation
235 process at high vanadium loadings because of the diminished contact. Gold particles were
236 proposed to promote the oxygen transfer from catalyst to soot, which increases the activity in
237 the combustion of soot particles. This positive effect could become negative because the same
238 oxygen donor property might be responsible for the formation of polyvanadate clusters
239 instead of V₂O₅ crystallites, diminishing the mobility of the catalyst.

240 The effect of 2% gold addition to LaBO₃ perovskite catalysts (B = Cr, Mn, Fe and Ni)
241 was also studied in the simultaneous CO and soot combustion (Russo et al., 2008). The
242 comparison of their activity with those of the corresponding gold-free pure perovskite
243 evidenced that the presence of gold had a good synergetic effect towards CO oxidation and a
244 negligible one towards carbon combustion.

245 Soot combustion over silver-supported catalysts was studied by using Al₂O₃, CeO₂
246 and ZrO₂ supports (Aneggi et al., 2009). Formation of Ag/Ag₂O mixtures was observed in all
247 supports and their relative abundance is strictly correlated to the nature of the support. Ceria
248 was shown to stabilize silver oxide while with ZrO₂ and Al₂O₃ metallic silver was
249 preferentially formed. For this reason, it was proposed that Ag/ZrO₂ and Ag/Al₂O₃ were
250 active catalysts while the bare ZrO₂ and Al₂O₃ supports were not. On the contrary, silver
251 addition to ceria had little benefit, because ceria itself is active in soot oxidation and silver
252 forms a low active oxide. However, it has been recently reported the preparation of very
253 active Ag/CeO₂ catalyst with a novel structure which consist of aggregates of ceria particles

254 around a central silver metal core (Kayama et al., 2010). It is proposed that such rice-ball
255 nanostructure produces extremely active oxygen.

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257

Perovskite catalysts

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259 ABO₃ perovskite-type oxides (with A = La+Sr, La+Li, La+K or La+Cs and B = Co,
260 Mn, Fe, Mn+Fe, Mn+Cu or Cu+V) catalyzed the simultaneous removal of NO_x and diesel
261 soot in the presence of oxygen, and were superior to transition metal simple oxides in the
262 selectivity for NO_x reduction (Teraoka et al., 1995). The catalytic activity of perovskite-type
263 oxides depended on both A-site and B-site cations, and incorporation of potassium at A sites
264 prominently promoted the oxidation of soot and the reduction of NO_x. La_{1-x}K_xMnO₃
265 perovskite catalysts were also tested for the simultaneous removal of NO_x and soot (Teraoka
266 et al., 2001). The solubility limit of potassium in these mixed oxides was determined to lie
267 between x=0.2 and x=0.25, and the activity and NO_x reduction selectivity for N₂ depended
268 significantly on the potassium content, being highest for compositions close to the solubility
269 limit. ABO₃ perovskites with A= La+K and B = Cu+V were also effective for the
270 simultaneous removal of soot and NO_x at 450–500 °C, but the stability at high temperature
271 (800 °C) was poor (Fino et al., 2003).

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273 LaCrO₃, LaFeO₃ and LaMnO₃ perovskite catalysts were compared, and the highest
274 activity for soot combustion of the chromite catalyst was related to its highest concentration
275 of suprafacial, weakly chemisorbed oxygen, which contributes actively to soot combustion by
276 spillover in the temperature range 300–500°C (Fino et al., 2003b). Lithium introduction on
277 chromium position of LaCrO₃ soot combustion perovskite catalysts has shown to improve the
278 activity due to the enhancement of the amount of weakly chemisorbed oxygen O⁻ species
279 (Fino et al., 2006b). The simultaneous introduction of potassium on lanthanum position and
280 copper on manganese position of the LaMnO₃ perovskite also enhanced the catalytic behavior
281 (Peng et al., 2007), and also the partial substitution of lanthanum by alkali metal cations
282 (Wang et al., 2008; Russo et al., 2008b) and cobalt by palladium (Yao 2009) on LaCoO₃.

282

283 Hirano et al., (2009) studied strontium-substituted LaFeO₃ perovskites for soot
284 combustion, and the activity of these perovskites was reported to be only slightly lower to that
285 of a Pt/Al₂O₃ reference catalyst. Teraoka et al., (1996) also reported that Co, Mn and Fe
286 perovskite-type and Cu-based K₂NiF₄-type oxides (all with La³⁺ partially substituted by alkali
or alkali metal cations) catalyze the simultaneous removal of NO_x and diesel soot particulate

287 and that these perovskite related oxides are superior to transition metal simple oxides and
288 Pt/Al₂O₃ with respect to the selectivity to NO_x reduction.

289 SrTiO₃ perovskites doped with alkaline compounds were studied by Białobok et al.,
290 (2007) for soot combustion, and the activity increased in the following order of alkali metals:
291 SrTiO₃ < Li/SrTiO₃ < Cs/SrTiO₃ < K/SrTiO₃. It was also concluded that substitution
292 produced catalysts with higher activity than catalysts with similar composition but prepared
293 by impregnation. However, the activity for soot combustion in NO_x/O₂ of potassium
294 impregnated and substituted SrTiO₃ perovskite catalysts was studied, concluding that fresh
295 catalysts are active but they are progressively deactivated due to the loss of potassium during
296 consecutive reaction cycles (López-Suárez et al., 2009).

297 The promoting effect of impregnated copper on the SrTiO₃ perovskite activity for the
298 catalytic combustion of soot has been also reported. The higher activity of Cu/SrTiO₃ in
299 comparison to Cu/Al₂O₃ was attributed to the improved redox properties of copper originated
300 by Cu-support interactions, which improve the catalytic oxidation of NO to NO₂. This seems
301 to be related to the presence of weakly bound oxygen on this sample, since copper species
302 present on the Cu/SrTiO₃ catalyst were reduced more easily than those in other inert supports
303 (López Suárez 2008).

304 Recently, several three dimensionally ordered macroporous (3DOM) solids are being
305 investigated as soot combustion catalyst, some of them based on perovskite structures. Xu et
306 al. (2010) have prepared LaCo_xFe_{1-x}O₃, Zhang et al. (2010b) prepared La_{0.9}K_{0.1}CoO₃ and
307 Zheng et. al. (2012) prepared LaMn_{1-x}Fe_xO₃.

308 Several perovskite catalysts have been coated on particulate filters and the
309 regeneration has been evaluated. The PrCrO₃ perovskite supported on CeO₂ was loaded on
310 catalytic wall-flow trap and pilot plant tests were carried out on a diesel engine bench (Fino &
311 Specchia 2004). The authors suggested that this formulation improved the performance of
312 Pt/Al₂O₃ catalysts.

313 The La_{0.8}Ce_{0.2}MnO₃ perovskite has been used for the microwave-assisted in-situ
314 regeneration of diesel soot filters (Zhang-Steenwinkel et al., 2005). This perovskite has
315 suitable dielectric properties, i.e., a high dielectric loss factor, and simultaneously acts as an
316 oxidation catalyst. The advantage of microwaves heating with regard to conventional thermal
317 heating is that it is a bulk heating technique, and therefore, it is fast and selective. A
318 monolithic soot filter coated with a La_{0.8}Ce_{0.2}MnO₃ perovskite was fully microwave –assisted
319 regenerated with almost 100% selectivity towards CO₂. In contrast, the same filter without

320 such a coating was only partially regenerated, and considerable amounts of CO were formed.
321 The $\text{La}_{0.8}\text{Ce}_{0.2}\text{MnO}_3$ coating showed excellent temperature shock resistance and thermo-
322 chemical stability and the authors proposed that, once a suitable microwave cavity is
323 designed, microwave assisted soot filter regeneration would be feasible.

324 However, formation of perovskite structures not always has a positive effect on the
325 soot combustion activity of mixed oxides, and few examples of catalyst deactivation due to
326 perovskite structure formation have been reported. The stability of Ba,K/CeO₂ catalysts,
327 which have been shown to be very active for soot combustion, was studied and, above 830°C,
328 catalyst deactivation due to BaCeO₃ perovskite structure formation was observed (Peralta et
329 al., 2006).

330 Spinel catalysts

331
332 Shangguan et al. (1996) studied the simultaneous removal of NO_x and diesel soot
333 particulate in the presence of excess oxygen with ternary AB₂O₄ spinel oxides. The catalytic
334 performance depended significantly on the metal cations used, and CuFe₂O₄ was the best
335 catalyst. The performance of this spinel catalyst was much better than that of the mechanical
336 mixtures of the metal oxides. This conclusion was also extended to Cu-Cr systems.

337 Nanostructured spinel-type oxide catalysts AB₂O₄ (where A = Co and Mn, and B = Cr
338 and Fe) have also demonstrated to be effective for the simultaneous removal of soot and NO_x
339 (Fino et al., 2006). The activity order for soot combustion was found to be $\text{CoCr}_2\text{O}_4 >$
340 $\text{MnCr}_2\text{O}_4 > \text{CoFe}_2\text{O}_4$, whereas the activity order for NO_x reduction was $\text{CoFe}_2\text{O}_4 > \text{CoCr}_2\text{O}_4$
341 $> \text{MnCr}_2\text{O}_4$. The best compromise between simultaneous abatement of soot and nitrogen
342 oxide was therefore shown by the CoCr₂O₄ catalyst, which could promote soot combustion
343 and appreciable NO_x reduction below 400 °C. The prevalent catalytic combustion activity of
344 the chromite catalysts could be explained by their higher concentration of suprafacial, weakly
345 chemisorbed oxygen, which contributes actively to soot combustion by spillover. A CoAl₂O₄
346 spinel catalyst has also shown an activity for soot combustion reaction similar to that of a
347 Pt/Al₂O₃ reference catalyst (Zawadzki et al., 2011). This high soot combustion activity of
348 CoAl₂O₄ was attributed to its high NO_x chemisorption capacity, what allowed fast NO
349 oxidation to NO₂.

350 BaAl₂O₄ spinel was also proved to be an effective to catalyze the reaction between
351 soot and NO_x under lean-burn condition, promoting the simultaneous NO_x reduction to N₂
352 and soot oxidation to CO₂ (Lin et al., 2009). The interaction of nitrates on BaAl₂O₄ with

353 oxygenated intermediates C(O) on the soot surface was found to be the key step of soot
354 oxidation by NO_x over BaAl₂O₄.

355 Spinel has also demonstrated to promote the activity of copper with regard to some
356 other supports, such as alumina (Zawadzki et al., 2009). Copper-containing ZnAl₂O₄ spinels,
357 with 5–12 nm size, were tested for soot combustion. An impregnated catalyst
358 (5%CuO/ZnAl₂O₄) was more active for soot combustion than the bare support (ZnAl₂O₄), a
359 substituted catalyst (Zn_{0.95}Cu_{0.05}Al₂O₄), and a 5%/CuO/γ-Al₂O₃ catalyst, and was similar to
360 that of copper supported on a SrTiO₃ perovskite. The activity of 5%CuO/ZnAl₂O₄ was
361 attributed to the easy copper reducibility.

362

363

Ceria catalysts

364

365 Cerium-based oxides are loaded on the Three Way Catalysts used in gasoline vehicles
366 as oxygen storage components that buffer changes in the oxidizing/reducing conditions in the
367 exhaust gas, promote the oxidation of CO and improve the dispersion of the supported noble
368 metals (Kaspar et al., 1999).

369 Ceria loaded on Diesel Particulate Filters (DPF) is also able to accelerate soot
370 combustion and cerium additives have been used to obtain cerium-containing soot in order to
371 promote the catalytic combustion (Lahaye 1996; Makkee et al., 2002; de Sousa Filho et al.,
372 2009).

373 The role of CeO₂ in the catalyzed combustion of soot has been studied (Setiabudi et
374 al., 2004). CeO₂ has the potential to accelerate the oxidation rate of soot due to its active
375 oxygen storage capacity. The formation of active oxygen was proposed to be initiated by NO₂
376 in the gas phase. A synergetic effect was observed as a result of surface nitrate
377 decomposition, which resulted in gas phase NO₂ and desorption of active oxygen. Stored
378 oxygen was postulated to exist in the form of surface peroxide or super oxide (Setiabudi et al.,
379 2004). Afterwards, ESR characterization confirmed the formation of superoxide ions (O₂⁻)
380 (Machida et al., 2008) and DRIFTS analysis confirmed the presence of both peroxide and
381 super oxide groups on ceria surface during the catalytic combustion of soot (Gross et al.,
382 2009; Gross et al., 2012). Active oxygen is likely to play a role on the acceleration of soot
383 oxidation and to contribute more than desorbed NO₂ or NO₂ from surface nitrate
384 decomposition. Isotopic experiments (Bueno-Lopez et al., 2005; Guillen Hurtado et al., 2013)
385 have demonstrated that ceria active oxygen is able to oxidize soot directly and also via NO

386 oxidation to NO_2 , which reacts with soot afterwards, and these two reactions prevail with
387 regard to the direct oxidation of soot and NO by gas phase O_2 . On the contrary, some other
388 oxides, such as ZrO_2 or TiO_2 , for instance, have a minor or null capacity to involve catalyst
389 oxygen on the soot combustion and their catalytic activities are much lower to that of ceria
390 (Atribak et al., 2007).

391 Lahaye et al., (1996) produced soot by pyrolysis and oxidative pyrolysis of
392 hydrocarbons doped with cerium organometallic compounds, and observed that the presence
393 of cerium-based compounds had no effect on the yield or the morphology of soot but that they
394 strongly decreased the ignition temperature of the soot. It has been also reported that cerium
395 additives do not deteriorate the DPF filters while some other additives promote chemical
396 degradation (Montanaro 1999). The chemical interactions between sodium (as sulphite), iron
397 and cerium (as oxides), coming from fuel additives, and a cordierite ceramic filter were
398 studied (Montanaro 1999), and it was concluded that cerium and iron oxides do not react
399 significantly with the filter, whereas sodium leads to a diffuse etching starting from low
400 working temperatures. Several different degradation mechanisms (solid state diffusion, liquid
401 phase diffusion and evaporation–condensation) were identified as a function of the
402 temperature.

403 Different ceria-containing soot combustion catalysts have been studied as active
404 phases to be loaded on DPF filters. Harrison et al., (2003) studied ceria-supported cobalt
405 catalysts for catalytic oxidation of diesel soot with either O_2/He or $\text{NO}/\text{O}_2/\text{He}$. Co_3O_4 was
406 identified on these catalysts, and their catalytic activity was correlated with the cobalt
407 reducibility. A redox-type mechanism assisted by oxygen spillover on the CeO_2 support was
408 proposed. In contrast, cobalt supported on alumina, silica, and tin(IV) oxide showed much
409 lower activity due to the presence of dispersed Co^{2+} ions on these materials. Some of these
410 authors also proposed that the Co,Ba,K/ CeO_2 system could be a potential candidate for the
411 simultaneous abatement of soot and NO_x in diesel exhausts (Milt 2003).

412 Ceria–zirconia-supported manganese oxides (Sanchez Escribano et al., 2008) and
413 $\text{MnO}_x\text{-CeO}_2$ mixed oxides (Tikhomirov et al., 2006) have been also studied for the low-
414 temperature oxidation of diesel soot. The ignition temperature of soot for the $\text{MnO}_x\text{-CeO}_2$
415 mixed oxides was significantly lower than those for the individual oxides. This enhanced
416 activity was attributed to the improved NO_2 production. However, adding SO_2 to the model
417 gas resulted in the catalyst deactivation, which is traced to the loss of the NO oxidation

418 activity. The sulfates could be decomposed by heating the catalyst under reducing as well as
419 oxidizing conditions. However, the initial activity of the catalyst could not be restored.

420 The promoting effect of ceria on the catalytic activity of some other phases has been
421 also studied. V-Ce and Cu-V-Ce were tested for the oxidation of soot (Cousin et al., 2007). V-
422 Ce oxides were active soot oxidation catalysts, and an increase in the vanadium content
423 enhanced their catalytic activity. This was correlated with the formation of a V_2O_5 phase.
424 However, this catalytic system (V-Ce) produced CO as soot combustion product, and adding
425 copper to the V-Ce oxide to form a ternary system (Cu-V-Ce) had a beneficial effect on the
426 CO_2 selectivity.

427 Cu-containing ceria/ceria-zirconia catalysts have been also successfully tested for soot
428 combustion after ageing at $800^\circ C$ in air (Liang et al., 2007). It was suggested that the good
429 catalytic properties of these materials may be related to the insertion of copper into the ceria
430 lattice and to the presence of well-dispersed CuO on ceria, which brings a strong synergistic
431 effect between copper and cerium species. In a later study (Liang et al., 2008), the same
432 authors prepared copper- and manganese-doped ceria catalyst, which were tested for soot
433 combustion. The results showed that Mn^{x+} cations entered into the ceria lattice to form solid
434 solutions, which increased the amount of oxygen vacancies and promoted surface oxygen
435 chemisorption. Cu_xO clusters were postulated to be dispersed on the surface of ceria particles,
436 and the interaction between copper and cerium greatly enhanced the rapid release of lattice
437 oxygen.

438 Soot-combustion ceria catalysts doping with suitable cations, such as La^{3+} (Bueno-
439 Lopez et al., 2005), Zr^{+4} (Aneggi et al., 2006; Zhu et al., 2007, Atribak et al., 2008, 2008b),
440 Hf^{4+} (Reddy et al., 2008) and $Pt^{3+/4+}$ (Krishna et al. 2007, 2007b, 2007c), improves the
441 features of this oxide.

442 $Ce_xZr_{1-x}O_2$ mixed oxides were studied for soot oxidation by NO_x/O_2 , and the catalytic
443 activity was correlated with their NO oxidation capacity (Atribak et al., 2009). The processes
444 occurring on the catalysts surface upon $NO + O_2$ adsorption were studied by in situ DRIFTS
445 and a double role was attributed to the zirconium dopant. On one hand, zirconium promotes
446 the oxidation of the adsorbed nitrogen species on the $Ce_xZr_{1-x}O_2$ surface (positive effect) but,
447 on the other hand, it enhances the adsorption strength of the nitrogen groups and hinders NO_2
448 release (negative effect).

449 La^{3+} -doping also improved CeO_2 catalytic activity for soot oxidation with O_2 , and an
450 optimum 5 wt. % La^{3+} -loading was obtained for catalysts calcined at $1000^\circ C$ (Bueno-Lopez

451 et al., 2005). This improvement was related to the increase in BET surface area and the
452 change in the catalyst redox properties of CeO₂ brought about by doping with La³⁺. La³⁺
453 decreased the onset temperature of Ce⁴⁺ to Ce³⁺ reduction by H₂ and increased the amount of
454 Ce⁴⁺ that can be reduced by H₂.

455 The effect of soot combustion ceria catalysts doping with either La³⁺ or Zr⁴⁺ has been
456 recently compared (Katta 2010). It has been reported that La³⁺ promotes the creation of
457 oxygen vacancies/defects on the ceria lattice more efficiently than Zr⁴⁺, and this argument
458 was used to explain the higher activity for soot combustion of La³⁺ doped ceria in comparison
459 to pure ceria and Zr⁴⁺-doped ceria. The catalytic activity for soot combustion of La³⁺ or Pr^{3+/4+}
460 doped cerias was also compared. Pr^{3+/4+}-doping was more effective (Krishna et al. 2007,
461 2007b, 2007c) because these cations contribute to the redox mechanisms involved in the
462 combustion of soot, together with the Ce^{3+/4+}, while La³⁺ only promotes cerium performance.

463 The size and structure of ceria catalysts also plays a role in soot combustion.
464 Ce_{0.8}M_{0.2}O₂ (M = Sm, Zr, V) nanoparticles have been recently prepared and tested for soot
465 combustion (Liu et al., 2011). The results showed that the catalysts structures depend on the
466 different doped ions. Ce_{0.8}Sm_{0.2}O₂ and Ce_{0.8}Zr_{0.2}O₂ preserved the face-centered cubic fluorite
467 structure of CeO₂ and the nanometer size while sintered CeVO₄ crystallites were formed upon
468 vanadium doping. Nanometer Ce_{0.8}Sm_{0.2}O₂ and Ce_{0.8}Zr_{0.2}O₂ exhibited higher catalytic activity
469 than conventional CeO₂ and CeVO₄ for soot combustion because their nanometer size favors a
470 good soot-catalyst contact. In addition, ceria doping with samarium or vanadium could
471 enhance SO₂ resistance. Ceria and ceria–zirconia catalysts have been also recently
472 characterized and tested for soot combustion, and planes {100} and {110} were proposed to
473 be more active than the {111} facets (Aneggi et al., 2012).

474 Three dimensionally ordered macroporous (3DOM) Ce_{1-x}Zr_xO₂ solid solutions have
475 been prepared and successfully tested for diesel soot combustion (Zhang et al., 2010). It was
476 argued that the microstructure with open, interconnected macropores of this novel catalyst
477 facilitates the contact with soot and results in much higher catalytic activity than counterpart
478 disordered macroporous catalysts.

479

480

Metal chlorides

481

482 Several metal chlorides were screened for the catalytic oxidation of model soot in
483 loose contact (Mul et al., 1996). HgCl₂, CaCl₂, BaCl₂, CoCl₂, and NiCl₂ showed little activity,

484 and hydrated BiCl_3 and FeCl_3 were converted in air into BiOCl and FeOCl , which had a
485 moderate soot oxidation activity. MoCl_5 was converted into the corresponding metal oxide
486 and also showed a moderate ‘loose contact’ activity. PbCl_2 , CuCl_2 and CuCl were very active
487 catalysts, and it was suggested the in situ formation of intimate contact between the soot and
488 the metal chloride via ‘wetting’ and/or gas phase transport. However, practical application of
489 metal chlorides for the removal of soot from diesel exhaust was not recommended, because
490 they suffer from instability or high vapor pressures.

491

492

Molten salts

493

494 In 1998, Jelles et al. (1998a, 1998b; Van Setten et al., 1999b) first reported the study
495 of molten salts as diesel soot oxidation catalysts. Eutectic salt mixtures of Cs_2O , V_2O_5 and
496 MoO_3 , with a low melting point, were reported to be highly active soot combustion catalysts.
497 It was shown that some of the molten salts had a high activity above their melting point of
498 about 350 °C. Activities up to five times higher than the activity of chemically related solid
499 oxide catalysts were obtained, and this activity was observed throughout the complete
500 conversion of soot. The high activity was explained by the better contact between soot and
501 catalyst achieved by wetting of the soot by the liquid catalyst (Jelles et al., 1999).

502 Setiabudi et al. (2002) reported that molten salts are more active soot oxidation
503 catalyst than platinum for O_2 combustion, while that platinum is more active in the presence
504 of NO_x because molten salts are less active than platinum to catalyze the oxidation of NO to
505 NO_2 .

506 Open-pore ceramic foams were used as support for molten-salt diesel soot oxidation
507 catalysts (eutectic mixtures of Cs_2O , V_2O_5 , MoO_3 , and Cs_2SO_4) and the stable soot
508 combustion rates obtained were in the same order of magnitude as measured for catalytic fuel
509 additives (Van Setten et al., 1999). A molten salt ($\text{Cs}_2\text{SO}_4 \cdot \text{V}_2\text{O}_5$) based catalytic foam had an
510 onset temperature for catalytic oxidation of 320 °C (Van Setten et al., 2001b). This was a
511 promising temperature for continuous filter-regeneration applications, but the authors
512 concluded that, unfortunately, the liquid state of the catalyst made it unfit for the very
513 effective wall-flow monolith filter. They concluded that this molten salt requires a foam filter
514 as support, and also that the onset temperature of the catalytic foam of 320°C was still too
515 high to justify a change from wall-flow monolith to foam, as ceramic foam is a less effective
516 filter than the wall-flow monolith.

517 In another study (Van Setten et al., 2003), it was reported that the stability of the
518 molten salt catalysts based on Cs_2O , MoO_3 , and Cs_2SO_4 , was too low for application as well.
519 Due to partial evaporation, emission of catalyst compounds into the environment was likely
520 and significant deactivation of the catalytic phase is unavoidable. These active phases were
521 also found to be soluble in water, which might be disastrous in the case of condensation
522 occurring in the exhaust pipe.

523

524

Alkali metal catalysts

525

526 Alkali metals have been studied in detail for the gasification of carbons with H_2O , CO_2
527 and O_2 (Gallagher & Harker, 1964; McKee, 1983; Moulijn et al., 1984) and the activity trend
528 found for these reactions ($\text{Cs} > \text{K} > \text{Na} > \text{Li}$) is usually similar to that reported for alkali metal
529 compounds-catalyzed diesel soot combustion (Neeft et al., 1996b).

530

Alkali metals have been mainly studied as promoters of some other soot combustion
531 catalyst phases, such as ceria (Aneggi et al., 2008), spinels (CuFe_2O_4 (Shangguan et al., 1998;
532 An et al., 2004), CoFe_2O_4 (An et al., 2004)), perovskites (LaCoO_3 (Hong et al., 1999; Wang
533 et al., 2008), LaFeO_3 (An et al., 2004), LaCrO_3 (Russo et al., 2005), LaMnO_3 (Hong & Lee,
534 2006), SrTiO_3 (Białobok et al., 2007; Ura et al., 2011)), $\text{FeO}_x\text{-VO}_y/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ (Neri et al., 2003),
535 VO_x/MO ($\text{MO}=\text{SiO}_2$, TiO_2 , ZrO_2 or Al_2O_3) (Hong & Lee, 2006; Liu et al., 2006) and
536 $\text{Pt}/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ (Krishna & Makkee, 2006) among others.

537

Different roles have been attributed to alkali promoters. Białobok et al., (2007)
538 compared two groups of SrTiO_3 based perovskites prepared by alkali cations substitution in
539 A-position (strontium) of the structure and by SrTiO_3 impregnation with the same amount of
540 alkali metals. They observed that substituted perovskites were more active due to the changes
541 in basicity, desorption of oxygen and surface structure. Russo et al. (2008b) also concluded
542 that the improved activity of LaCoO_3 upon alkali doping (mainly rubidium) is due to the
543 distortions entailed by the intrusion of the rather large rubidium ions at the lanthanum site in
544 the LaCoO_3 perovskite lattice.

545

The alkali metal loading is an important issue to be taken into account. Shangguan et
546 al. (1998) studied the promoting effect of potassium on the catalytic behavior of $\text{Cu}_{1-x}\text{K}_x\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_4$
547 spinels for the simultaneous removal of NO_x and diesel soot particulate and an
548 optimum potassium loading was found for $x = 0.05$, above which the Cu-Fe active sites
549 were covered and deactivated.

550 The combustion of soot catalyzed by alkali metals promoted $\text{FeO}_x\text{-VO}_y/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ was
551 proposed to occur through a redox mechanism, where the lattice oxygen of the active phase is
552 involved. Iron acts favoring the oxidation–reduction process of the active vanadium phase,
553 through the participation of the redox couple $\text{Fe(II)}\text{--}\text{Fe(III)}$, and the promoting role of
554 alkaline dopants was attributed to the formation of low melting phase on the catalyst. The
555 enhanced reduction of VO_x/MO ($\text{MO}=\text{SiO}_2, \text{TiO}_2, \text{ZrO}_2$ or Al_2O_3) catalysts has been also
556 argued to explain the promoting effect of alkali compounds (Hong & Lee, 2006; Liu et al.,
557 2006). Unfortunately, it was concluded that, in spite of the alkali doped-vanadium oxide
558 systems showed good activity, their practical application seems not possible due to the low
559 thermal stability (Neri et al., 2003). Kureti et al. (2003) also reported the deactivation of a
560 $\text{Fe}_{1.9}\text{K}_{0.1}\text{O}_3$ soot combustion catalyst, which was attributed to the agglomeration of the
561 potassium promoter.

562 Thermal stability is one of the main drawbacks of alkali metals-containing soot
563 combustion catalyst, not only for the mentioned vanadium formulations but for most alkali
564 metals-containing catalysts. $\text{Pt/K--Al}_2\text{O}_3$ was studied and it was found that platinum and
565 potassium show synergetic effect in soot combustion activity, but the active species
566 responsible for the synergism were found to be unstable and are not regenerated (Krishna &
567 Makkee, 2006). It has been reported the degradation of potassium catalysts due to the
568 sublimation of potassium compounds during the soot combustion process (An & McGinn
569 2006; López-Suárez et al., 2009; Mul et al., 1995). A Cu/K/Mo/Cl soot combustion catalyst
570 was studied by Mul et al. (1995), and a catalytic cycle, involving Cu_2OCl_2 , was proposed to
571 explain its high activity in loose contact with soot. However, the activity of this catalyst was
572 only maintained as long as Cu_2OCl_2 was formed by reaction of copper molybdates with KCl ,
573 which served as a chlorine supplier.

574 Aneggi et al., (2008) studied the catalytic oxidation of soot with alkali metals-
575 promoted ceria and a major drawback resulted to be the loss of metal and consequent
576 deactivation after catalysts aging, especially under water-containing atmosphere. In order to
577 solve this problem, it has been recently reported the preparation of soot combustion catalysts
578 consisting of alkali carbonates stabilized on aluminosilicates (Kimura et al., 2011). These
579 novel catalysts were prepared by ion exchange of alkali compounds on zeolites, which were
580 finally collapsed at high temperature, and it was reported that they overcome the drawback of
581 the high solubility of alkali compounds on water.

582 Several authors have observed that transition elements can moderate the loss of
583 potassium (An & McGinn 2006). The stability of potassium in soot combustion copper-
584 containing SrTiO₃ perovskite catalysts has been studied (López Suárez 2009), concluding that
585 the synthesis method used for potassium addition (impregnation or substitution into the
586 lattice) affects notably the catalysts stability, and that the substituted catalysts were more
587 stable due to the location of potassium inside the perovskite structure.

588 In spite of the attempts to prepare stable alkali metal-containing soot combustion
589 catalysts, the hydrothermal stability seems to be still a major problem to be solved for a
590 practical use of alkali metals on soot combustion catalysts formulations.

591

592

592 Conclusions

593

594 The most relevant information available about the different active phases that have
595 been studied for the catalytic combustion of soot has been reviewed and discussed in this
596 article. Many catalysts have been reported to accelerate soot combustion, including
597 formulations with noble metals, alkali and alkali earth metals, transition metals that can
598 accomplish redox cycles (V, Mn, Co, Cu, Fe...) and internal transition metals.

599 Platinum catalysts are among the most interesting for practical application. The main
600 role of platinum is to promote NO oxidation to NO₂, and one important feature of these
601 catalysts is that sulfur resistant platinum formulations have been prepared.

602 Some metal oxide-based catalysts seem also promising candidates for soot combustion
603 in practical applications, including ceria-based formulations and mixed oxides with
604 perovskite and spinel structure. In addition to catalyze the oxidation of NO to NO₂, some of
605 these metal oxide catalysts also produce highly reactive active oxygen species. In this case,
606 the catalyst must be loaded into the DPF filter and dual bed configurations (for instance, DOC
607 + DPF such as in the CRT system) are not suitable.

608 Thermal stability is one important requirement for a soot combustion catalyst, and this
609 rules out the practical utilization of several potential catalysts like most alkali metal catalysts,
610 molten salts and metal chlorides. Some noble metal catalysts are also unstable because they
611 form volatile oxides (ruthenium, iridium and osmium).

612

613

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