

Research  
Engines and Fuels—Article

## Evaluation of H<sub>2</sub> Influence on the Evolution Mechanism of NO<sub>x</sub> Storage and Reduction over Pt–Ba–Ce/γ-Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> Catalysts

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### ARTICLE INFO

#### Article history:

Received 17 April 2018

Revised 20 August 2018

Accepted 15 February 2019

Available online 19 April 2019

#### Keywords:

Pt–Ba–Ce/γ-Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> catalysts

Physicochemical properties

NO<sub>x</sub> storage and reduction

NO<sub>x</sub> emission

H<sub>2</sub> reductant

### ABSTRACT

In this investigation, Pt–Ba–Ce/γ-Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> catalysts were prepared by incipient wetness impregnation and experiments were performed to evaluate the influence of H<sub>2</sub> on the evolution mechanism of nitrogen oxides (NO<sub>x</sub>) storage and reduction (NSR). The physical and chemical properties of the Pt–Ba–Ce/γ-Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> catalysts were studied using a combination of characterization techniques, which showed that PtO<sub>x</sub>, CeO<sub>2</sub>, and BaCO<sub>3</sub>, whose peaks were observed in X-ray diffraction (XRD) spectra, dispersed well on the γ-Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, as shown by transmission electron microscope (TEM), and that the difference between Ce<sup>3+</sup> and Ce<sup>4+</sup>, as detected by X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS), facilitated the migration of active oxygen over the catalyst. In the process of a complete NSR experiment, the NO<sub>x</sub> storage capability was greatly enhanced in the temperature range of 250–350 °C, and reached a maximum value of 315.3 μmol·g<sub>cat</sub><sup>-1</sup> at 350 °C, which was ascribed to the increase in NO<sub>2</sub> yield. In a lean and rich cycling experiment, the results showed that NO<sub>x</sub> storage efficiency and conversion were increased when the time of H<sub>2</sub> exposure (i.e., 30, 45, and 60 s) was extended. The maximum NO<sub>x</sub> conversion of the catalyst reached 83.5% when the duration of the lean and rich phases was 240 and 60 s, respectively. The results revealed that increasing the content of H<sub>2</sub> by an appropriate amount was favorable to the NSR mechanism due to increased decomposition of nitrate or nitrite, and the refreshing of trapping sites for the next cycle of NSR.

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### 1. Introduction

Compared with conventional stoichiometric engines, lean-burn engines such as lean-burn gasoline or diesel engines provide higher fuel efficiency and produce lower carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) emissions. However, the nitrogen oxides (NO<sub>x</sub>, referring to nitric oxide (NO) and nitrogen dioxide (NO<sub>2</sub>)) emitted from lean-burn engines render traditional three-way catalysts (TWCs) ineffective due to the ample oxygen (O<sub>2</sub>) presence in the exhaust gas. Therefore, two promising de-NO<sub>x</sub> technologies for the abatement of NO<sub>x</sub> emissions—namely, selective catalytic reduction and NO<sub>x</sub> storage and reduction (NSR), which were initially proposed by Toyota researchers in the 1990s—have been employed to meet regulations [1,2]. NSR catalysts mainly consist of alkali or alkaline earth metals (e.g., BaO and CeO<sub>2</sub>) for NO<sub>x</sub> storage, and noble metals such as rhodium (Rh) and platinum (Pt) that are well dispersed on a support such as alumina (Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>), which possesses a high specific surface area. Many research papers are also reporting that other

additives such as cerium oxide (CeO<sub>2</sub>) effectively promote the stability and durability of catalysts. NSR technology periodically involves a regular long lean (oxidation) period and short rich (reduction) excursion. The NO existing in the exhaust gas is oxidized to NO<sub>2</sub> by the noble metals and is stored in the storage component in the form of nitrites or nitrates during the lean phase. In rich atmospheres, reductants such as hydrogen (H<sub>2</sub>), carbon monoxide (CO), propene (C<sub>3</sub>H<sub>6</sub>), and so forth are introduced into the exhaust gas, leading to the decomposition of the nitrites or nitrates into NO<sub>x</sub>, which is subsequently reduced to nitrogen (N<sub>2</sub>) on the noble metal sites [3].

With the aim of obtaining high NO<sub>x</sub> conversions, numerous studies have been conducted on the optimization of catalytic formulations and operation conditions [4–11]. Traditional NSR catalysts are in the form of Pt–Ba/γ-Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>; however, the utilization of CeO<sub>2</sub> in recent studies has revealed the excellent abilities of this catalyst. CeO<sub>2</sub> favors NO<sub>x</sub> storage efficiency (NSE) as a stored NO<sub>x</sub> species, facilitates steam reforming reactions and water–gas reactions, and it stabilizes on a high dispersion of noble metals [12]. CeO<sub>2</sub>-containing catalytic formulations have been proposed in which CeO<sub>2</sub> is used as a support because of its known capability

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in  $\text{NO}_x$  storage related to nitrate and nitrite species [13–15]. The action of  $\text{CeO}_2$  as a promoter has also been thoroughly investigated. Le Phuc et al. [16] prepared a series of Pt/Ba/Ce/ $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  catalysts with different cerium/barium (Ce/Ba) molar ratios and found that the presence of Ce increased the  $\text{NO}_x$  conversion rate to some extent. Recent papers have focused on NSR conditions, including the effects of reductant type, reductant amount, and different lean and rich durations [17,18]. In terms of reductant types, Masdrag and coworkers [19] investigated the effect of  $\text{H}_2$ , CO,  $\text{C}_3\text{H}_6$ , and  $\text{H}_2 + \text{CO} + \text{C}_3\text{H}_6$  on the  $\text{NO}_x$  conversion rate over Pt/10%BaO/ $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ . The results showed that  $\text{H}_2$  was a superior reductant in the testing temperature range of 200–400 °C, obtaining a maximum conversion rate of 78% at 400 °C; this finding was similar to observations reported by Abdulhamid and coworkers [20]. The influence of the lean and rich durations on NSR was also studied. AL-Harbi and Epling [18] examined different regeneration protocols in the temperature window from 200 to 500 °C over a model NSR catalyst. The results revealed an obvious improvement in catalyst performance in the wake of increasing regeneration times at 200, 300, and 400 °C. In addition, Ansari et al. [21–24] synthesized  $\text{CoTiO}_3/\text{CoFe}_2\text{O}_4$  nanostructures via a sol-gel auto-combustion technique and found evenly distributed spherical nanoparticles in X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns and energy dispersive spectroscopy (EDS) patterns when the molar ratio of cobalt/titanium (Co/Ti) was 1:1. Mahdiani et al. [23,24] prepared  $\text{PbFe}_{12}\text{O}_{19}$  nanostructures using sol-gel auto-combustion, and found the valine for the nanostructures to be 5123 Oe.

The objective of the present study was to optimize NSR capabilities in order to gain a higher  $\text{NO}_x$  conversion based on simulated gas tests, and to investigate the roles of temperature variances and the scale time of  $\text{H}_2$  on the evolution mechanism of NSR during a complete NSR process and a cycle-average NSR process over the Pt–Ba–Ce/ $\gamma$ - $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  (denoted herein as PBCA) catalyst, respectively. The catalyst was prepared by incipient wetness impregnation and was then characterized in terms of Pt dispersion, XRD, morphology and size of the catalyst, transmission electron microscope (TEM), surface chemical composition oxidation state, and X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) in order to study the physicochemical properties of the catalyst.

## 2. Experimental procedure

### 2.1. Catalyst preparation

A series of PBCA catalysts were prepared by incipient wetness impregnation. First,  $\gamma$ - $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  (Umicore) was impregnated in  $\text{Ce}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$  solution (AR, Sinopharm Chemical Reagent Co., Ltd., China) to give a Ce loading of 15 wt%.  $\text{Ba}(\text{O}_2\text{CCH}_3)_2$  (AR, Sinopharm Chemical Reagent Co., Ltd., China) as a precursor was subsequently incorporated into the sample using the same method, with a nominal Ba loading of 10 wt%. The sample was dried at 120 °C for 24 h and calcined at 550 °C in the air for 5 h.  $\text{H}_2\text{PtCl}_6 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$  (AR, Sinopharm Chemical Reagent Co., Ltd., China) was dissolved in deionized water and subjected to ultrasonic concussion for 30 min in order to obtain a homogeneous dispersion solution; it was then added to the abovementioned sample to gain Pt loadings of 0.285%, 0.577%, and 0.855%, respectively. After each impregnation, the sample was dried and calcined under the same conditions described above. Finally, the ball-milled sample was sieved using 40–60 mesh before the NSR experiment.

### 2.2. Catalyst characterization

XRD of the as-prepared sample was measured on a Bruker D8 Advance X-ray diffractometer with a nickel (Ni)-filtered copper

(Cu)  $\text{K}\alpha$  ( $\lambda = 0.154068$  nm) radiation source at 40 kV and 40 mA. Powder XRD patterns were recorded at 0.02° intervals in the range of 20°–80° with a scanning velocity of 7°·min<sup>-1</sup>. Jade software (Jade Software Co., Ltd., New Zealand) was used for data treatment; identification of the crystalline phase was performed using Joint Committee on Powder Diffraction Standards (JCPDS) cards. TEM was performed using a FEI Tecnai 12 electron microscope (Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc., USA) operating with a 120 kV accelerating voltage. Before being imaged, the powder sample was finely ground and dispersed ultrasonically in anhydrous ethanol at room temperature; a drop of the suspension was then dropped onto a lacey carbon-coated Cu grid of 200 mesh. XPS analysis was carried out on an ESCALAB™ 250Xi spectrometer from Thermo Fisher Scientific fitted with a micro-focused, monochromatic aluminum (Al)  $\text{K}\alpha$  source ( $h\nu = 1486.6$  eV), with a base pressure of about  $5 \times 10^{-14}$  MPa; the binding energies were referenced to the C 1s line at 284.6 eV from adventitious carbon.

### 2.3. Catalyst activities evaluation

The lab apparatus for the NSR experiments is shown in Fig. 1. The apparatus was composed of a reactor, gas paths, a gas paths control part, and a gas analyzer. The catalyst evaluation was carried out with 0.3 mL (0.40 g) of catalyst using a fixed-bed quartz micro-reactor with an inside diameter of 10 mm. The catalyst was placed inside a tubular electric resistance furnace, the temperature of which was controlled by a thermocouple dipped into the catalyst bed. The catalyst was plugged in and sandwiched between two silica wool layers to prevent the sample from moving away. The gas paths and the gas paths control part included gas cylinders, reducing valves, valve controllers, and mass-flow controllers. All gases were introduced by mass-flow controllers with a total flow rate of 280 mL·min<sup>-1</sup>, giving a space velocity of  $5.6 \times 10^4$  h<sup>-1</sup>. The outlet  $\text{NO}_x$  (NO and  $\text{NO}_2$ ) concentration was detected by a  $\text{NO}_x$  analyzer (Thermo Scientific™ Model 42i-HL, Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc., USA). In our study, prior to completing the NSR experiments, the catalyst sample temperature was increased (20 °C·min<sup>-1</sup>) to 450 °C in  $\text{N}_2$  and was then exposed to a regeneration gas mixture consisting of 1%  $\text{H}_2$  and a balance of  $\text{N}_2$  for 30 min. The catalyst was then cooled to the required measurement temperature in  $\text{N}_2$ , and the reaction temperature was varied from 250 to 400 °C. When cycling the NSR experiments performed at 350 °C, a fixed 240 s lean phase and varied rich phase (30, 45, and 60 s) were used. The  $\text{NO}_x$  conversion was based on the average of two cycles when a steady cycle-to-cycle performance was achieved. The gas composition and parameters used for completing and cycling the NSR experiments are summarized in Table 1.

The activity of the catalyst sample during the lean and rich periods was evaluated by the following formula. The  $\text{NO}_x$  storage capacity (NSC) was defined as follows:

$$\text{NSC} = \frac{\int_0^{t_L} (f_{\text{NO}_x,\text{in}} - f_{\text{NO}_x,\text{out}}) dt}{m_{\text{cat}}} \quad (1)$$

where  $f_{\text{NO}_x,\text{in}}$  is the  $\text{NO}_x$  molar flow (mol·min<sup>-1</sup>) at the inlet,  $f_{\text{NO}_x,\text{out}}$  is the  $\text{NO}_x$  molar flow at the outlet,  $t_L$  is the duration of the lean phase, and  $m_{\text{cat}}$  is the mass of the catalyst (g).

The cycle-average  $\text{NO}_x$  reduction conversion was based on two consecutive steady-state cycles, and the mean conversion was calculated according to the following formula:

$$\text{NO}_{x,\text{conversion}} = \frac{f_{\text{NO}_x,\text{in}} t_L - \int_0^t f_{\text{NO}_x,\text{out}} dt}{f_{\text{NO}_x,\text{in}} t_L} \quad (2)$$

where  $t$  is the total cycle length.

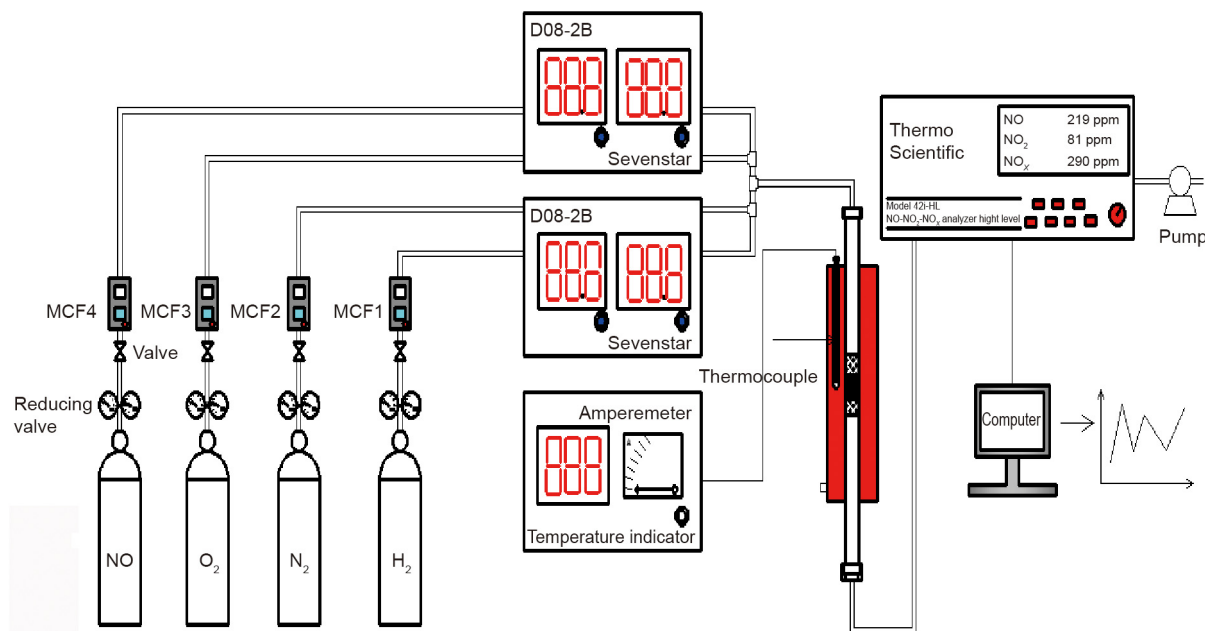


Fig. 1. Scheme of the lab apparatus for NSR experiments. MCF: mass flow meter.

**Table 1**  
Details of flow conditions used in the complete NSR experiments and cycling NSR experiments.

Experiment type	Phase	Flow conditions					Reaction temperature (°C)	Time
		Space velocity (h <sup>-1</sup> )	NO content (ppm)	O <sub>2</sub> content	H <sub>2</sub> content	N <sub>2</sub> content		
Complete NSR	Lean	$5.6 \times 10^4$	500	10%	0	10%	250, 300, 350, and 400	Till the spilled NO <sub>x</sub> concentration is equal to the inlet NO concentration
Cycling NSR	Rich	$5.6 \times 10^4$	0	0	1%	1%	350	Till outlet NO <sub>x</sub> concentration is equal to zero 240 s 30, 45, and 60 s
	Lean	$5.6 \times 10^4$	500	10%	0	10%		
	Rich	$5.6 \times 10^4$	0	0	1%	1%		

### 3. Results and discussion

#### 3.1. Characterization of the catalyst

Fig. 2 shows the X-ray diffractograms of the PBCA catalysts. XRD spectra were taken on a freshly calcined sample. The XRD analysis showed that the main phase in PBCA was  $\gamma$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> (JCPDS No.

48-0366), which exhibited a typical cubic fluorite structure. The presence of BaCO<sub>3</sub> (JCPDS No. 05-0378) in the International Center for Diffraction Data (ICDD) database was observed, and was consistent with the decomposition of Ba(O<sub>2</sub>CCH<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub> into crystalline BaCO<sub>3</sub> during catalyst calcination at 500 °C [25]. The peak of the BaCO<sub>3</sub> tended to decrease along with the increase of Pt content, and disappeared entirely when the Pt content was 0.855 wt%.

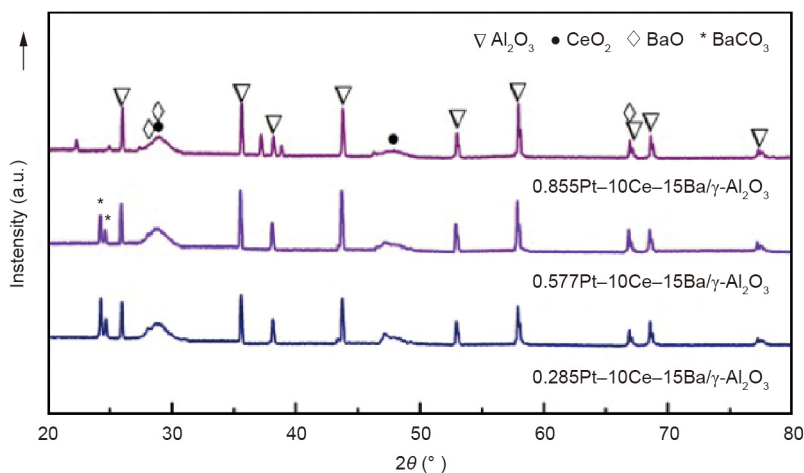


Fig. 2. XRD profiles of the PBCA samples.  $2\theta$ : scattering angle.

Neither Pt nor PtO<sub>x</sub> were found in the XRD profile, which indicates that Pt exists as an amorphous or poorly crystalline phase monolayer, or else greatly disperses on the surface of the storage component and  $\gamma$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> and thus cannot easily be observed through XRD. The peaks belong to BaO when  $2\theta$  is equal to 28.04°, 28.68°, and 66.80°, and CeO<sub>2</sub> (JCPDS No. 43-1002) peaks emerge at the degrees of 28.68° and 47.02°.

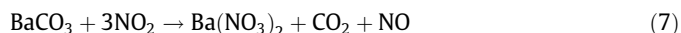
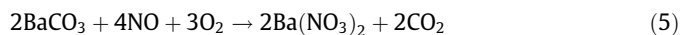
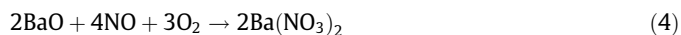
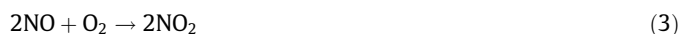
Fig. 3 shows the TEM pattern, which was used to examine the morphology and size of the 0.577Pt–10Ce–15Ba/ $\gamma$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> catalyst. The TEM image reveals that there are many nanoparticles with sizes varying in the range of 1–5 nm on the catalyst (as indicated by the red circles), which can be assigned to Pt or PtO<sub>x</sub> particles; this indicates that the Pt species is well dispersed, perhaps because of the strong interaction between Pt and CeO<sub>2</sub> [26]. The larger black particle in the image (indicated by the white circle) can be regarded as the aggregation of CeO<sub>2</sub> and BaCO<sub>3</sub>. The light grey zone on which the PtO<sub>x</sub>, CeO<sub>2</sub>, and BaCO<sub>3</sub> are deposited can be regarded as  $\gamma$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>.

XPS analysis was carried out to elucidate the surface chemical composition and oxidation state on the surface of the catalyst. The survey scan analysis was performed in a binding energy range between 0 and 1200 eV, and is presented in Fig. 4(a). The survey's spectrum shows that Ce, Ba, O, C, Pt, and Al are present on the 0.577Pt–10Ce–15Ba/ $\gamma$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> catalyst surface, and there are no obvious impurities present. The XPS spectrum of the chemical state of Ce is shown in Fig. 4(b). The complex Ce 3d level spectrum has spin-orbit doublets that are 3d<sub>5/2</sub> and 3d<sub>3/2</sub>. The peaks V and U correspond to Ce 3d<sub>5/2</sub> and Ce 3d<sub>3/2</sub>, respectively. In addition, the bands V (882.6 eV), V'' (889.2 eV), V''' (898.4 eV), U (901.1 eV), U'' (906.9 eV), and U''' (916.9 eV) refer to the presence of Ce<sup>4+</sup>, and V' (885.6 eV) and U' (903.6 eV) are related to Ce<sup>3+</sup>. These peaks clearly indicate that the Ce<sup>4+</sup> oxidation state is predominant, while the peaks for Ce<sup>3+</sup> are very weak. According to the spectrum areas, the ratio of Ce<sup>3+</sup>/Ce<sup>4+</sup> is 0.06. The binding energy of the Ba 3d<sub>5/2</sub> core-level is 780.1 eV, suggesting that Ba is carbonated; this is consistent with the observation of the C 1s component near 280.9 eV, which is the fingerprint of carbonate structures. The narrow spectrum of O 1s, which is fitted into two peaks, is depicted in Fig. 4(c). The peak located at 529.1 eV (hereafter denoted as O<sub>α</sub>) corresponds to the surface lattice oxygen species (O<sup>2-</sup>) [27], of which a small contribution could be due to PtO<sub>x</sub> species [28]. Moreover, the second peak at 531.2 eV (hereafter denoted as O<sub>β</sub>) corresponds to the chemisorbed oxygen [29]. It has been reported that surface chemisorbed oxygen is the most active oxygen, playing an important role

in the NO-to-NO<sub>2</sub> oxidation reaction [30,31]. For Pt, only the Pt 4d<sub>5/2</sub> spectrum is recorded due to the peak of Pt 4f, which is overlapped by the Al 2p peak (74.1 eV) [32,33]. As can be seen in Fig. 4(d), a major peak at a lower binding energy (314.5 eV) is associated with metallic Pt (Pt<sup>0</sup>), and a minor one at higher position (316.8 eV) signifies the presence of oxidized Pt (PtO or PtO<sub>2</sub>).

### 3.2. Complete NO<sub>x</sub> storage and reduction

In order to obtain a good understanding of the NSR process, a complete NSR experiment was conducted. The reaction was not switched to the rich phase until the spilled NO<sub>x</sub> concentration was equal to the inlet NO concentration, and the next cycle was initiated only when the outlet NO<sub>x</sub> concentration in the rich phase decreased to zero. The experiment was carried out at 250, 300, 350, and 400 °C using a continuously flowing mixture of 500 ppm NO, 10% O<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub> (in balance) in the lean phase, and 1% H<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub> (in balance) in the rich phase. The outlet NO<sub>x</sub> (NO + NO<sub>2</sub>) concentration value was obtained via a NO<sub>x</sub> analyzer. Fig. 5 shows the evolution of NO<sub>x</sub> (NO + NO<sub>2</sub>) at the reactor during the complete NSR period at different temperatures. The results of the complete NSR experiments are summarized in Table 2. As shown in Fig. 5(a), when the experiment began ( $t = 0$  min)—that is, when the gas mixtures were switched to lean compositions—the NO<sub>x</sub>-containing mixture showed a delay of about 3 min, and the concentration then increased to the asymptotic values corresponding to the inlet concentration of 500 ppm NO. Of the NO<sub>x</sub>, NO occurred initially, while NO<sub>2</sub> was also observed due to the oxidation of NO by O<sub>2</sub> on Pt or oxidized Pt sites via Reaction (3). As previously reported in the literature [34,35], NO<sub>x</sub> molecules were absorbed at different Ba absorption sites; the most active component among these was BaO, although this mainly existed as BaCO<sub>3</sub> under real working conditions [36]. The overall reactions are given below, as Reactions (3) to (7):



Given the information in Fig. 5 and Table 2, it can be seen that the time required for complete NO<sub>x</sub> storage was 41 min, the NSC was 119.8  $\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{g}_{\text{cat}}^{-1}$ , and the corresponding NSE was 18.7% at 250 °C. When the gas compositions were switched to the rich condition, it is worth noting that NO was quickly reduced to zero by H<sub>2</sub>, while NO<sub>2</sub> showed a huge pulse to 650 ppm before quickly decreasing to zero (as clearly shown in the zoomed-in zone in Fig. 5(a)). The NO<sub>x</sub> desorption peak area was mainly composed of NO<sub>2</sub>, which indicates that NO<sub>2</sub> was more easily stored than NO. When H<sub>2</sub> was introduced, the surface adsorbing NO<sub>x</sub> was quickly reduced and the exothermic reaction with NO<sub>x</sub> caused the catalyst temperature to rise, accelerating the decomposition of the nitrate or nitrite. NO<sub>x</sub>-removal efficiency is not only related to NSC in the lean phase, but is also concerned with the reduction of trapped NO<sub>x</sub> during the rich phase; therefore, the released NO<sub>x</sub> in the rich phase led to a decrease in the NO<sub>x</sub> conversion (13.5%) compared with the NSE. When the temperature increased from 250 to 400 °C, the NO<sub>x</sub> evolution curves were similar to those at 250 °C. However, the NSC was greatly enhanced in the range of 250–350 °C, despite a slight decrease at 400 °C, and attained the maximum value of 315.3  $\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{g}_{\text{cat}}^{-1}$  at 350 °C, which is ascribed to the increase in NO<sub>2</sub> yield. Furthermore, the amount of NO<sub>2</sub> increased

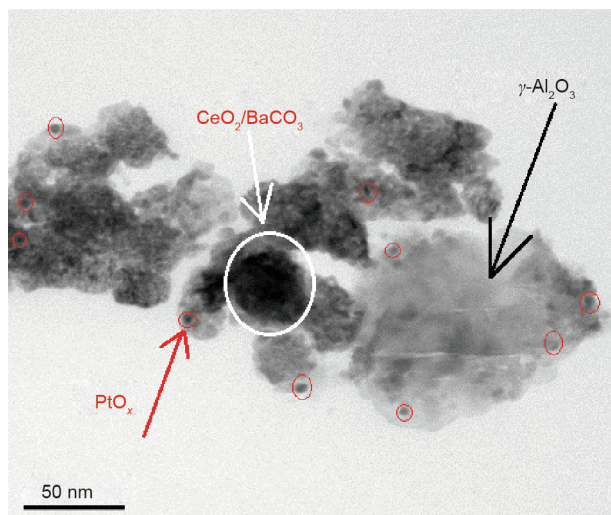


Fig. 3. TEM image of 0.577Pt–10Ce–15Ba/ $\gamma$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> catalyst.

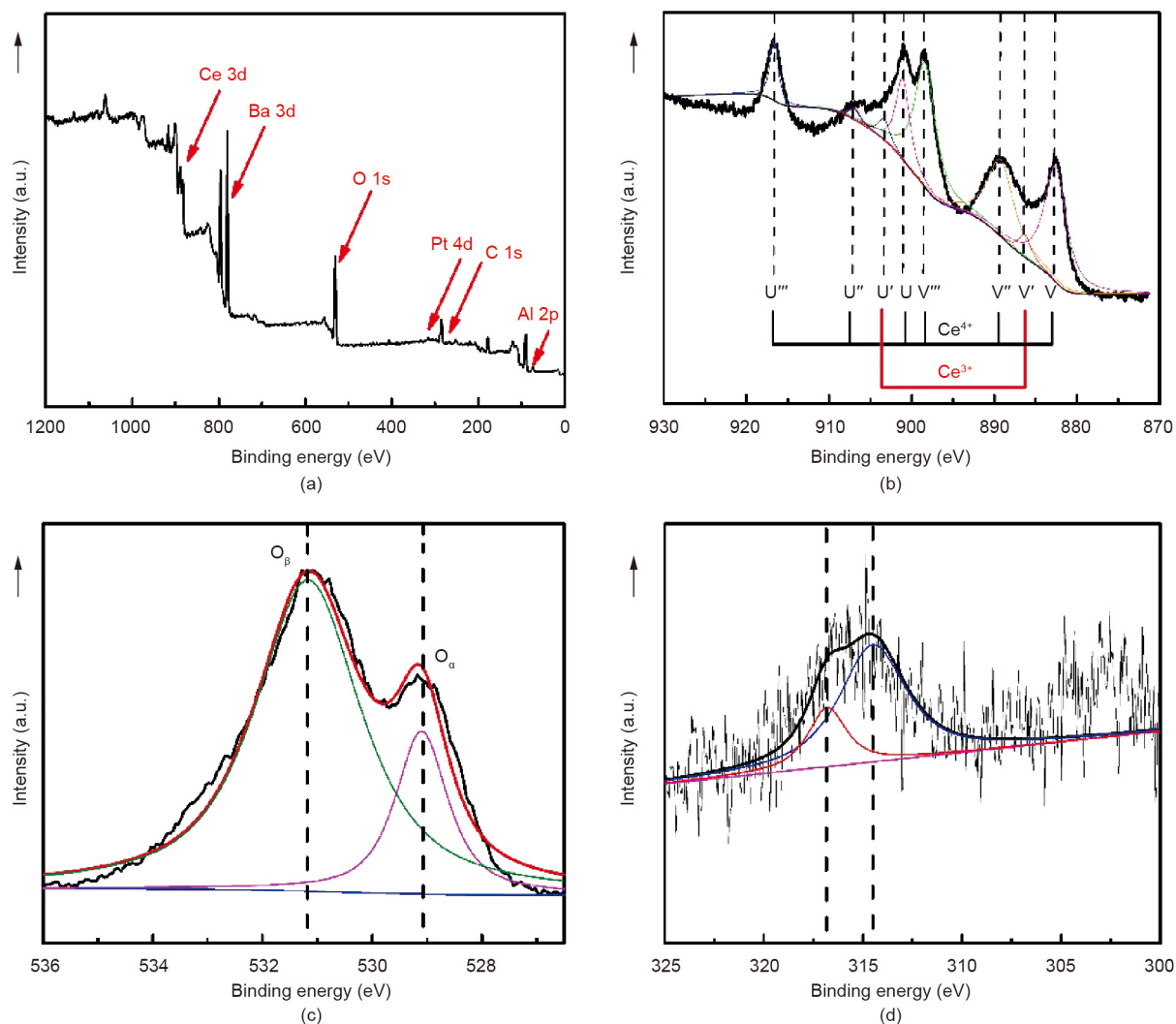


Fig. 4. XPS patterns of 0.577Pt-10Ba-15Ce/ $\gamma$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> catalyst: (a) Survey; (b) Ce 3d; (c) O 1s; (d) Pt 4d.

with temperature, and the NO<sub>2</sub>/NO<sub>x</sub> ratio increased from 0.09 to 0.59 in the temperature range of 250–400 °C. The NSC increase in the temperature range of 250–350 °C can be mainly attributed to the increased NO<sub>2</sub>/NO<sub>x</sub> ratio, with NO<sub>2</sub> being more favorably trapped on BaO sites as nitrates or nitrites than NO. At 400 °C, the NSC reached a value close to that observed at 350 °C, but the NO<sub>2</sub>/NO<sub>x</sub> was much higher (Table 2). These results indicate that higher temperatures accelerate the thermal decomposition of nitrates or nitrites in the NO<sub>x</sub> storage process, and that the former predominates at higher temperatures, leading to decreased NSC. The catalyst reached its maximum NSC at 350 °C, much higher than that of 250 and 300 °C. However, the NO<sub>x</sub> conversion for the whole testing temperature varied in a narrow range from 13.5% to 21.3%, as shown in Table 2.

Fig. 6 depicts the NSE as a function of the storage time at different temperatures. It is clear that the NSE decreases with storage time for all measured temperatures during the initial 5 min, the NSE for all temperatures is greater than 90%, and the maximum is 94.7% at 350 °C, indicating that almost all of the introduced NO during the initial lean phase is trapped by the catalyst. As the storage time reaches 40 min, the NSE drops to 22.5%, 28.5%, 42.9%, and 43.7% for 250, 300, 350, and 400 °C, respectively, which is due to the fact that the NO<sub>x</sub> trapping sites are gradually reduced and eventually saturated. In actual application, a higher NSE is required to reduce more NO<sub>x</sub> in order to meet the strict emission

regulations. Using our proposed strategy to gain a better NO<sub>x</sub> conversion, we optimized the experiment conditions by shortening the storage time to 4 min accompanied by a 30, 45, and 60 s rich-phase duration.

### 3.3. Cycling NO<sub>x</sub> storage and reduction

As described above, the maximum NSC was obtained at 350 °C. To further study the real-world applications, a series of lean–rich cycling experiments was carried out at 350 °C by varying the rich-phase durations (30, 45, and 60 s) while maintaining the lean phase at 240 s. Fig. 7 depicts the evolution of NO<sub>x</sub> in the outlet feed of the catalyst's initial 6–8 lean–rich cycles. The catalytic system reached a steady cycle-to-cycle performance after about five cycles. A summary of the results is provided in Table 3. As can be seen from the enlarged view of the steady cycles, NO<sub>x</sub> was effectively trapped with very low emissions during the lean condition, and the NO<sub>x</sub> emissions were stabilized at 116, 102, and 81 ppm for 240-lean/30-rich, 240-lean/45-rich, and 240-lean/60-rich conditions, respectively. The NO<sub>x</sub> outlet concentrations were much lower than the NO feed concentration (500 ppm), indicating that NO<sub>x</sub> can be effectively stored over the catalyst; the amounts of trapped NO<sub>x</sub> were 112.6, 117.2, and 118.4  $\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{g}_{\text{cat}}^{-1}$  for the 30, 45, and 60 s regeneration times, corresponding to an NSE of 90.0%, 93.4%, and 94.7%, respectively. Furthermore, for each

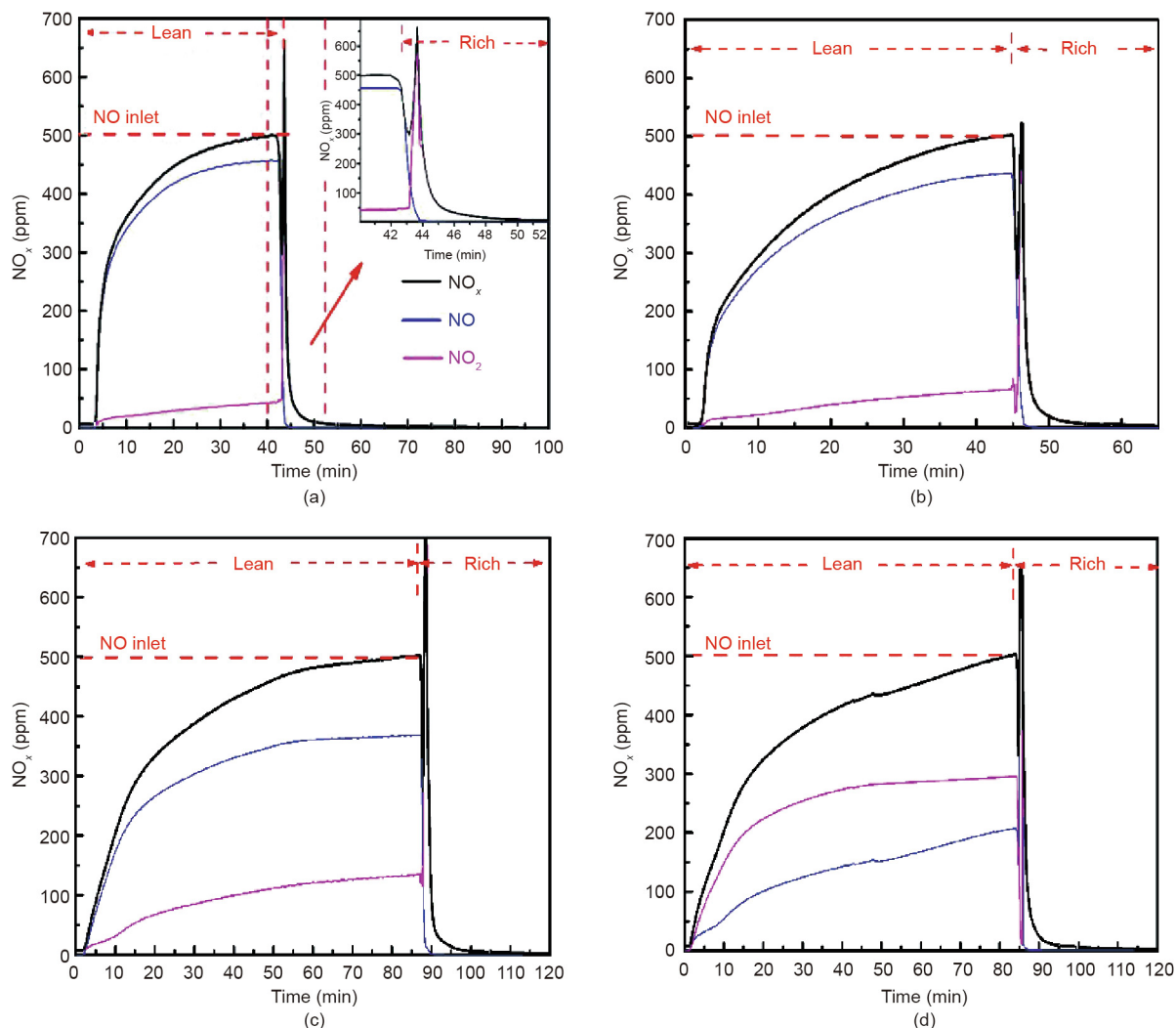


Fig. 5. Evolution of NO<sub>x</sub> (NO + NO<sub>2</sub>) at the reactor exit during the complete NSR period at different temperatures: (a) 250 °C; (b) 300 °C; (c) 350 °C; (d) 400 °C.

Table 2  
Complete NSR measured at different temperatures.

Temperature (°C)	NO <sub>2</sub> /NO <sub>x</sub>	NSC (μmol·g <sub>cat</sub> <sup>-1</sup> )	NSE (%)	NO <sub>x</sub> conversion rate (%)
250	0.09	119.8	18.7	13.5
300	0.13	186.3	22.5	19.5
350	0.27	315.3	24.1	21.3
400	0.59	295.1	25.4	20.6

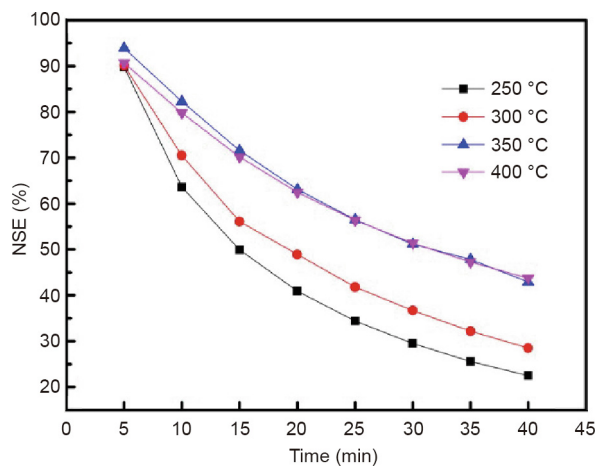
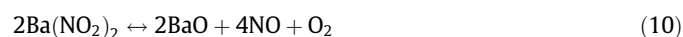
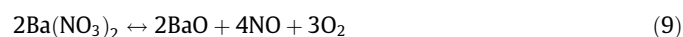
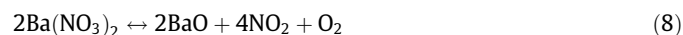


Fig. 6. NSE as a function of storage time at different temperatures.

experiment, NO<sub>2</sub> was observed during the lean phase of the cycling, revealing that NSE was not limited by the kinetics of NO oxidation. When the feed gases were switched to a rich condition, a sharp NO<sub>x</sub> spike occurred, which can be determined indicating that the decomposition rate of the nitrates or nitrites (Reactions (8)–(10) [37,38]) was higher than the NO<sub>x</sub> reduction rate (Reactions (11) and (12)), and that the NO<sub>x</sub> conversion rate was limited by the reduction step.



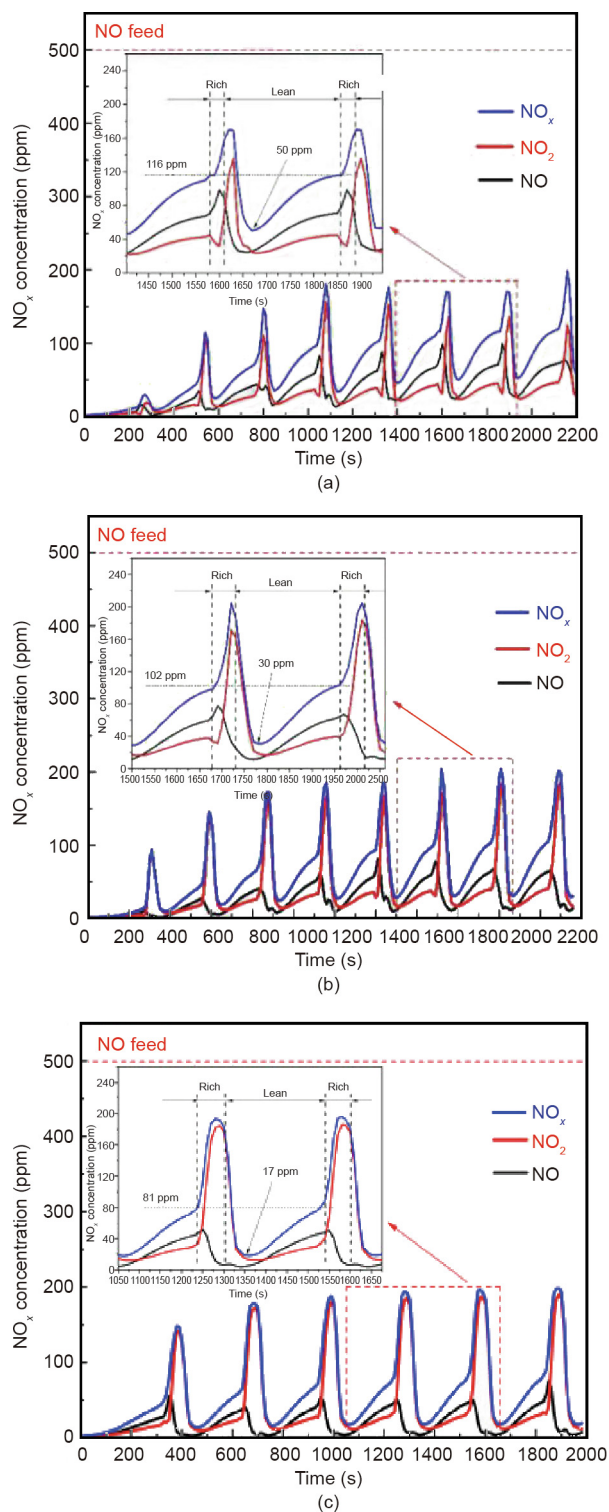


Fig. 7.  $\text{NO}_x$  concentration profiles during lean-rich cycling at 350 °C with a fixed 240 s lean phase and varied rich phase: (a) 30 s, (b) 45 s, and (c) 60 s.

Table 3  
Cycling NSR measured at different rich phase time.

Lean, rich phase time	Trapped $\text{NO}_x$ ( $\mu\text{mol} \cdot \text{g}_{\text{cat}}^{-1}$ )	NSE (%)	$\text{NO}_x$ conversion rate (%)
240 s, 30 s	112.6	90.0	76.3
240 s, 45 s	117.2	93.4	80.4
240 s, 60 s	118.4	94.7	83.9

In addition, the amount of desorbed  $\text{NO}_x$  was significantly augmented, especially as unreduced  $\text{NO}_2$  during the rich period steadily increased as the regeneration time extended. This finding was attributed to the amount of released  $\text{NO}_x$  that was a function of the  $\text{NO}_x$  trapped during the previous lean phase. As illustrated in Table 3, the amount of trapped  $\text{NO}_x$  increased when the regeneration time was prolonged. The  $\text{NO}_x$  rapidly decreased to a low level after that, but the degree of this reduction differed; for a 30 s rich-phase duration, the lowest  $\text{NO}_x$  was 50 ppm, but when the rich period was progressively lengthened to 45 s and then 60 s, the  $\text{NO}_x$  was reduced to a minimum of 30 and 17 ppm, respectively. This finding can be ascribed to the acquired  $\text{H}_2$  amount increasing when the regeneration time was extended, which would lead to the  $\text{NO}_x$  stored in the catalyst previously being desorbed and restored more thoroughly, and which would provide more oxygen vacancies. Hence, the initial  $\text{NO}_x$  adsorption concentration in the next cycle decreased and superior catalytic performance was exhibited. However, the fuel consumption would be increased as the regeneration time extended under the practical conditions. It could be concluded that when the duration of the lean and rich phases was 240 and 60 s, respectively, the NSE and  $\text{NO}_x$  conversion rate reached the highest level. This finding reveals that prolonging the regeneration time appropriately is favorable due to the increased decomposition of nitrates or nitrites and the refreshing of trapping sites for the next cycle.

#### 4. Conclusions

In this study, a PBCA catalyst prepared by incipient wetness impregnation was characterized by XRD, TEM, and XPS technologies in order to study its physical and chemical properties. Both complete and cycling NSR experiments were adopted to research the effect of  $\text{H}_2$  on the evolution mechanism of NSR over the NSR catalyst. The results showed that each component of the catalyst was well-crystallized. The TEM image showed that the activity component—and especially  $\text{PtO}_x$ , which had a particle size in the 1–5 nm range—was equally dispersed on the  $\gamma\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ . In addition, Ce existing with a  $\text{Ce}^{3+}/\text{Ce}^{4+}$  ratio of 0.06 facilitated the migration of active oxygen over the catalyst. In the complete NSR experiment, the NSC increase that occurred in the temperature range of 250–350 °C was mainly attributed to the increased  $\text{NO}_2/\text{NO}_x$  ratio due to  $\text{NO}_2$  being more favorably trapped on BaO sites as nitrates or nitrites than NO. When the gas compositions were switched to the rich condition, NO was quickly reduced to zero by  $\text{H}_2$ , while  $\text{NO}_2$  showed a huge pulse before decreasing to zero. In cycling NSR experiments at 350 °C, the results demonstrated that the  $\text{NO}_x$  conversion rate increased substantially in comparison with the complete NSR experiment. Furthermore, the NSE and conversion rate increased gradually when the regeneration time was extended (30, 45, and 60 s) due to the increased decomposition of nitrates or nitrites and the refreshment of trapping sites for the next cycle. The maximum  $\text{NO}_x$  conversion of the catalyst reached 83.5% when the duration of the lean and rich phases was 240 and 60 s, respectively, indicating that prolonging the regeneration time appropriately had a favorable result.

#### Acknowledgements

The authors wish to acknowledge financial support of this research by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (51676090), the Natural Science Foundation of Jiangsu Province (BK20150513), and the Six Talent Peaks Project in Jiangsu Province. The authors acknowledge the contribution of Professor Guanjun Qiao for technical support.

## Compliance with ethics guidelines

Pan Wang, Jing Yi, Chuan Sun, Peng Luo, and Lili Lei declare that they have no conflict of interest or financial conflicts to disclose.

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