

Doctoral Thesis

**Catalysis involving surface hydroxy group
and the catalyst design for its utilization**

Feb. 2021

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Chapter 1 General Introduction

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1.1. Catalytic reaction involving H⁺ migration

The migration of H atoms over metal oxide surfaces plays a key role in various reactions, including hydrogenation of hydrocarbon, ^[1-3] CO₂ reduction, ^[4-6] and NH₃ synthesis. ^[7] Utilization of the migration is not limited to catalytic reactions. It is also a central subject for hydrogen storage, ^[8, 9] sensors, and fuel cells. ^[10, 11]

Conventionally, the migration is induced by the concentration gradient (*i.e.* hydrogen spillover). The H atoms migrate from hydrogen-rich surfaces such as active metals to adjacent hydrogen-poor surfaces such as metal oxides. ^[12, 13] Khoobiar *et al.* first reported observations of hydrogen spillover in 1964. ^[14] They found that WO₃ was reduced by H₂ into H_xWO₃ at low temperature (323 K) only when WO₃ is physically contacted with Pt/ γ -Al₂O₃. This observation suggests hydrogen spillover from Pt particles onto WO₃. After this publication, many researchers devoted much attention to studying hydrogen spillover. A comprehensive review of research on the subject of hydrogen spillover was written by Prins in 2012. ^[13] He introduced some points of criticism of the hydrogen spillover onto irreducible metal oxides such as Al₂O₃ and SiO₂. Reducible metal oxides enable fast hydrogen spillover by a coupled proton-electron transfer mechanism, as shown in Fig. 1.1. ^[15-21] This mechanism is not allowed over irreducible metal oxides. This controversy derives from the lack of in-depth knowledge for migration mechanism and proof of the catalysis involving migrating H atoms. After the report by Prins, investigation using well-fabricated samples, *operando* spectroscopy and Density Functional Theory (DFT) have been researched enthusiastically. ^[17, 20-25]

Moreover, our group has investigated the active facilitation of H⁺ migration using an electric field. ^[26-29] Such surface H⁺ conduction is called surface protonics. Surface protonics over metal oxides is an important factor in activating the decoupling of strong bonds such as C-H bond in CH₄ and N \equiv N bond in N₂ at the low-temperature region. This finding brought the migration of H⁺ over metal oxide surfaces in the spotlight as a fundamentally important research theme in the field of low-temperature catalytic reactions. In this thesis, we specifically examined a detailed understanding of the catalysis related to surface protonics and tuning of the catalytic performance based on electrochemical analysis and DFT calculations. This chapter presents a summary of the catalytic reactions related to H⁺ conduction with and without facilitation by the electric field. Subsequently, sophisticated analysis techniques for the conduction are introduced. Finally, the aims of this thesis are presented.

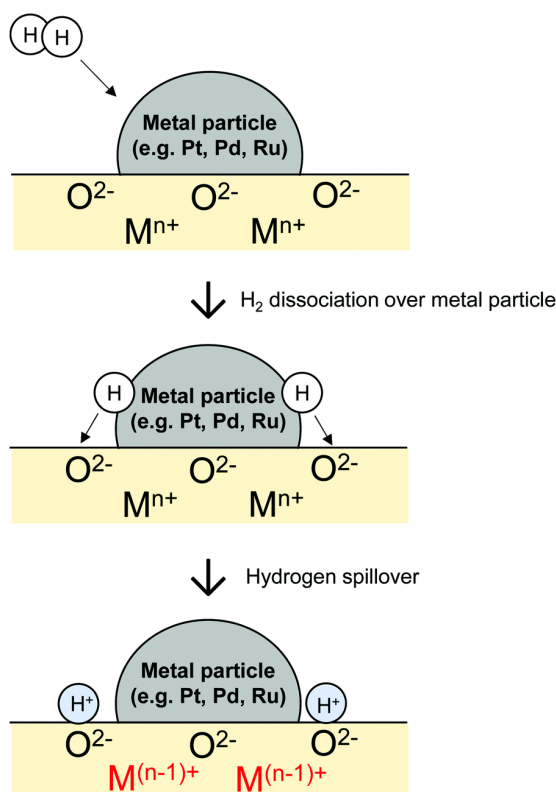


Figure 1.1. Schematic image of hydrogen spillover by coupled-proton electron transfer mechanism. Copyright 2020 RSC publishing.

1.2. Recent studies of catalytic reactions related to hydrogen spillover

Hydrogen spillover has been applied to various catalytic reactions. Its advantages are attributed mainly to two processes. One process is the supply of H atoms to sites that cannot dissociate H_2 . Sections 1.2.1–1.2.3 introduce such benefits. The other process is the elimination of H atoms from sites inhibited by excessive amounts of H atoms, as presented in section 1.2.4.

1.2.1. Enhancement of atomic efficiency

Noble metal nanoparticles are well known to be active in various catalytic reactions. However, high atomic efficiency is necessary because of their scarcity on Earth. Recently, many researchers have particularly examined production of smaller supported noble metal particles into a single-atom level for enhancing atomic efficiency. Well-fabricated reviews of single-atom catalysts (SAC) were reported by the Liu group.^[30, 31] Those catalysts exhibited high activities for several reactions such as CO oxidation,^[32] water–gas shift reaction,^[33] and O_2 or CO_2 electroreduction.^[34, 35] In contrast, those catalysts cannot function for ketone/aldehyde reduction, which is an important reaction in chemical engineering. The low reaction rates of H_2 dissociation over single

atoms cause this difficulty. H_2 heterogeneously dissociates over single-atom catalysts. The barrier of heterolysis is much higher than that of homolysis over metal nanoparticles. Yan *et al.* reported the H_2 reaction order as around 1.2 for 1,3-butadiene hydrogenation over Pd single-atom catalysts, suggesting H_2 dissociation as the rate-determining step. [36]

Kuai *et al.* overcame this difficulty using hydrogen spillover. [1] They loaded Pd single atoms (Pd_1) and Pd nanoparticles (Pd_{NPs}) together over mesoporous TiO_2 (Pd_{1+NPs}/TiO_2) using a spray-assisted method developed by the same group. [37, 38] They compared the performances of Pd_{1+NPs}/TiO_2 , Pd_1/TiO_2 and Pd_{NPs}/TiO_2 for 4-methylacetophenone (MAP) hydrogenation. Consequently, Pd_{1+NPs}/TiO_2 exhibited the highest atomic efficiency of Pd among all catalysts. The schematic image for this reaction is presented in Fig. 1.2. In terms of the activity per exposed Pd atom (turn over frequency, TOF), Pd_{1+NPs}/TiO_2 and Pd_{NPs}/TiO_2 exhibited similar values (4361 h^{-1} for Pd_{1+NPs}/TiO_2 and 4565 h^{-1} for Pd_{NPs}/TiO_2), even though Pd_1/TiO_2 exhibited much lower TOF (645 h^{-1}). Those data revealed a synergetic role of Pd_1 and Pd_{NPs} . Pd_{NPs} functions as an active site for H_2 dissociation into H atoms. The obtained H atoms migrate over TiO_2 surface and react with ketone/aldehydes at Pd_1 . Therefore, Pd_1 can catalyze hydrogenation of ketone/aldehyde by virtue of the supply of H atoms from Pd_{NPs} . As described above, hydrogen spillover can extend the utility of SACs. Reportedly, specific electronic states of single atoms caused high reactivity [4, 32] although the TOF over Pd_1 and Pd_{NPs} did not change so much in this report. Therefore, this report from Kuai *et al.* can expand the utilities of SACs not only for enhancing atom efficiency but also for the utilization of its novel reactivity at single-atom sites.

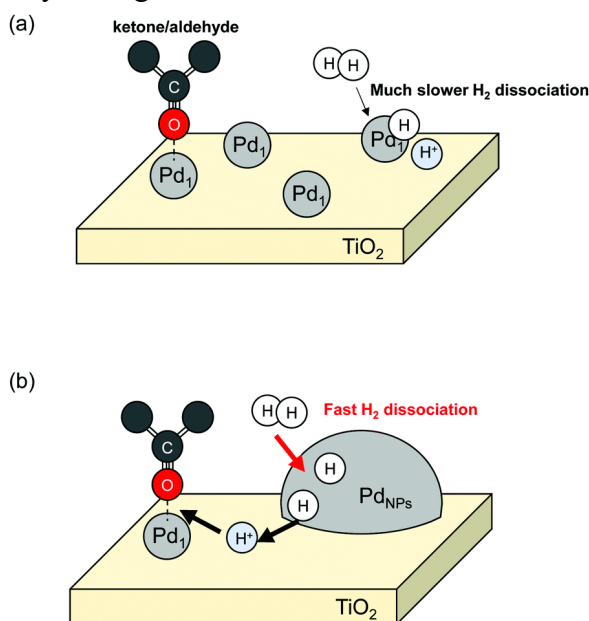


Figure 1.2. Schematic image of the ketone/aldehyde hydrogenation over two types of catalysts. (a) Pd_1/TiO_2 and (b) Pd_{1+NPs}/TiO_2 . Copyright 2020 RSC publishing.

1.2.2. Selective hydrogenation

Hydrogen spillover engenders the formation of two separated reaction sites over one catalyst surface (*i.e.* dual site catalysts or tandem catalysts). Usage of this separation is studied for selective hydrogenation of hydrocarbons.

Campisi *et al.* reported that Pd/NiO can convert furfural into tetrahydrofurfuryl alcohol (72%) selectively, although furfuryl alcohol (68%) was formed over Pd/TiO₂.^[2] Furfural is a promising platform molecule for various products in biorefineries. Highly selective conversion using tailored catalysts is demanded. Without loading of Pd, no marked difference of activities was observed between NiO and TiO₂. TiO₂ showed no observable activity without Pd loading. NiO also exhibited trivial activity without Pd. In contrast, those two catalysts exhibited completely different performance when Pd was loaded. First, Pd-loaded NiO exhibited high activity. However, the loading amount did not influence activities. Actually, 0.1wt%Pd/NiO exhibited almost identical activity as 1wt%Pd/NiO. In contrast, Pd loading amount had great influence on the activities when TiO₂ was used as a support; 0.1wt%Pd/TiO₂ exhibited much smaller conversion than 1wt%Pd/TiO₂. Those results showed the surface of NiO functions as an active site when H atoms were supplied from Pd particles. Reportedly, the selectivity of furfural hydrogenation was governed strongly by the adsorption structures of the reactant at reaction sites.^[39, 40] Therefore, Campisi *et al.* investigated the adsorption structures of furfural over Pd, NiO, and TiO₂ using DFT calculations. A noteworthy difference in adsorption structures over reaction sites was confirmed. Although the roles of the respective adsorption structures were not considered in-depth, they indicated that the parallel adsorption of furan ring and alcohol group over NiO (Fig. 1.3) as crucially important for the selective formation of tetrahydrofurfuryl alcohol. In this manner, hydrogen spillover enables the use of metal oxide surfaces as active sites for various reactions.

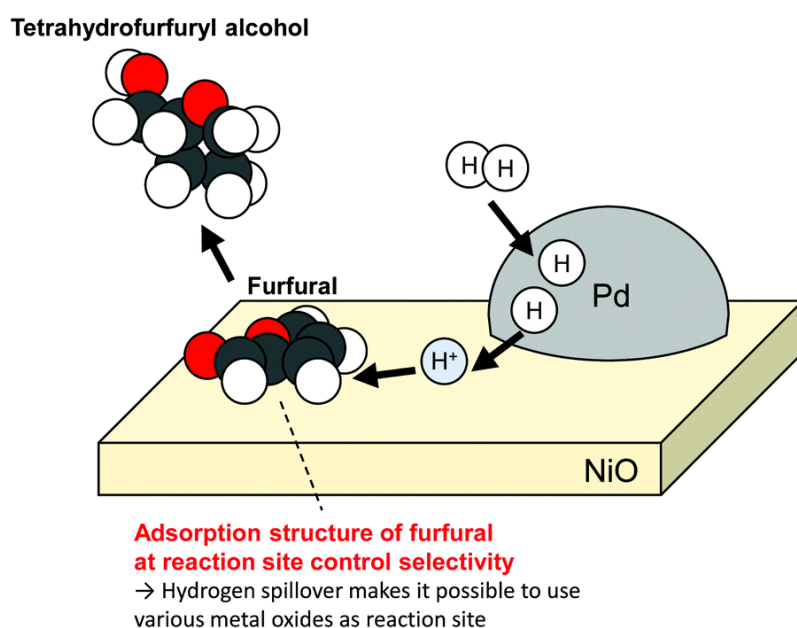


Figure 1.3. Schematic image of furfural hydrogenation over NiO using hydrogen spillover. Copyright 2020 RSC publishing.

Preparation of well-fabricated catalysts that have completely separated two active sites have been researched for selective hydrogenation. Xue *et al.* prepared a Ru/TiO₂ catalyst encapsulated by a porous TiO₂ ((Ru/TiO₂)@*p*-TiO₂) for this purpose. This catalyst exhibited selective hydrogenation of benzene to cyclohexene (benzene conversion, 98.1%; cyclohexene selectivity, 76.6%).^[3] The partial hydrogenation of benzene is important in the formation of cyclohexene, which is a fundamental intermediate for various fine chemicals because of its reactive C=C bond. Ru-based catalysts are known as famous candidates. However, its selectivity is limited because Ru favors subsequent hydrogenation into cyclohexane.^[41, 42] Xue *et al.* attempted to suppress deep hydrogenation by covering the Ru surface with porous TiO₂. Figure 1.4 portrays a schematic image of selective hydrogenation of benzene using (Ru/TiO₂)@*p*-TiO₂. They conducted H₂-TPD and CO-TPD to evaluate the diffusion of reactants through pores in the mesoporous TiO₂ shell. Results show that only H₂ can reach interior Ru particles. Other reactants are unable to access Ru because of inhibition by the TiO₂ shell. During hydrogenation, H atoms are formed over interior Ru and are supplied to TiO₂ surface. The H atoms migrate toward the external surface of TiO₂ shell. Then, the H atoms at the external surface react with hydrocarbons. The hydrogenation proceeds selectively over TiO₂ shell because of much weaker adsorption of cyclohexene and high barriers of cyclohexene hydrogenation over the TiO₂ surface.

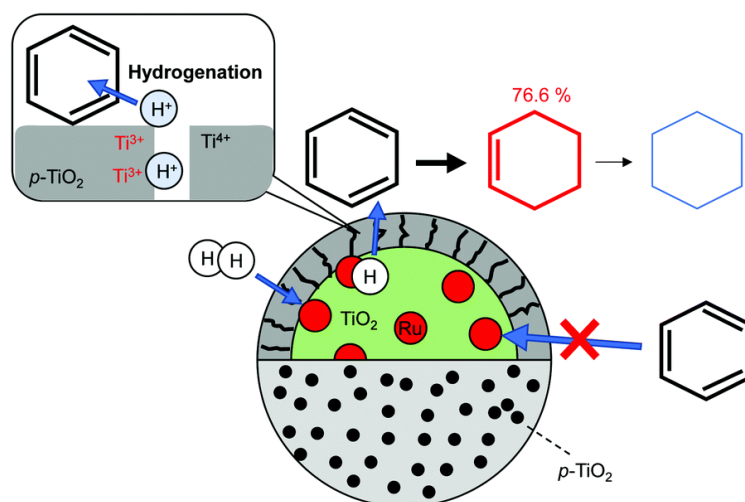


Figure 1.4. Schematic image of selective hydrogenation of benzene to cyclohexene over Ru/TiO₂ catalyst encapsulated by a porous TiO₂ (Ru/TiO₂)@*p*-TiO₂. Copyright 2020 RSC publishing.

1.2.3. Change of reaction mechanism by heterocation doping because of enhanced hydrogen migration

Heterocation doping into metal oxides is expected to have a strong influence on hydrogen spillover. Franken *et al.* reported that Mn doping into CoAl₂O₄ affected the hydrogen spillover, resulting in high CO₂ methanation activity.^[5] CO₂ is well known as a main component of greenhouse gases. Investigation of CO₂ capture and storage (CCS) or capture and utilization (CCU) is a central research theme. The extremely complex CO₂ reduction mechanism is

controversial. In this section, their details will not be shown. Well summarized reviews have explained them. [43, 44] Franken *et al.* investigated the utilization of $\text{CoMn}_x\text{Al}_{2-x}\text{O}_4$ for this reaction. This catalyst was pre-reduced for the formation of Co nanoparticles that work as active sites. They revealed that Mn doping enhanced the CO_2 adsorption ability of CoAl_2O_4 . Additionally, long-range hydrogen spillover was facilitated by enhancement of redox ability by Mn doping. The activation energy of CO_2 reduction was reduced by those Mn doping effects (108 kJ/mol for CoAl_2O_4 , and 69 kJ/mol for $\text{CoMn}_{0.5}\text{Al}_{1.5}\text{O}_4$). Furthermore, *Operando* Diffuse reflectance infrared Fourier transform spectroscopy (DRIFTS) measurements revealed a change of reaction sites and mechanisms by virtue of the Mn incorporation, as shown in Fig. 1.5.

Without Mn doping, Co surfaces worked solely as CO_2 reduction sites, with CO formed as a by-product. In contrast, with Mn doping, CO_2 was converted also over metal oxides *via* formate species using H atoms supplied from Co nanoparticles. The CO formation was suppressed because of the change of reaction sites by Mn doping. This finding concealed that heterocation doping can expand the possibilities of metal oxide usage for catalysis involving hydrogen spillover.

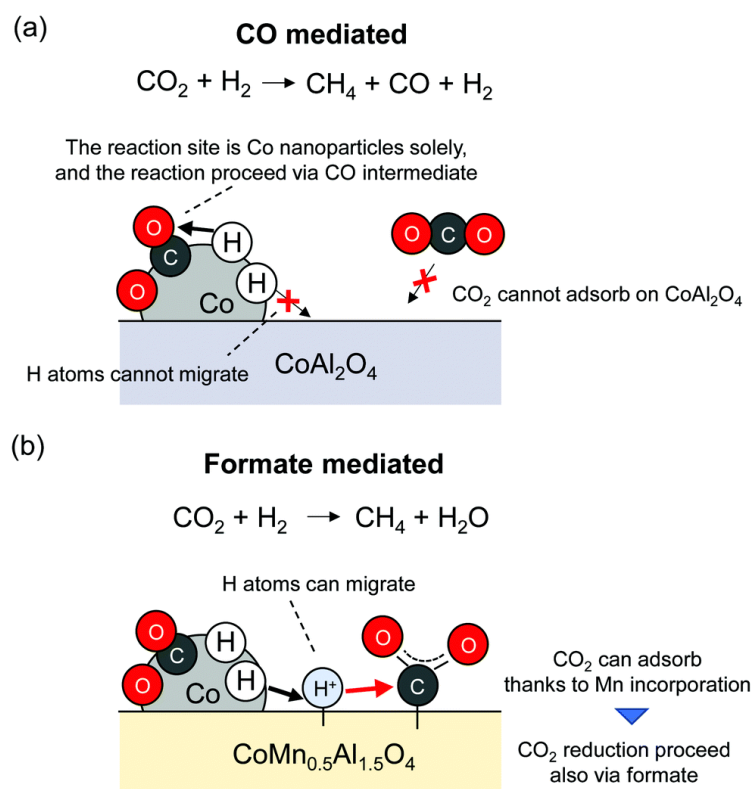


Figure 1.5. Schematic image of CO_2 methanation mechanism (a) over CoAl_2O_4 without hydrogen spillover, and (b) over $\text{CoMn}_{0.5}\text{Al}_{1.5}\text{O}_4$ with hydrogen spillover. Copyright 2020 RSC Publishing.

1.2.4. Suppression of hydrogen poisoning

Wu *et al.* investigated the influences of hydrogen spillover on NH_3 synthesis. [7] Many researchers have been keen on NH_3 synthesis in anticipation of its use as a hydrogen carrier. Ozaki and Aika *et al.* found out that Ru-based catalysts exhibited much higher intrinsic activities than doubly promoted iron catalyst ($\text{Fe-Al}_2\text{O}_3\text{-K}_2\text{O}$), which is used widely in conventional plants. [45, 46] Various Ru-based catalysts, which exhibited markedly high activities, have been developed after their reports. [47–50] Reportedly, N_2 direct dissociation is the rate-determining step over a Ru surface. [51] Furthermore, Ru surfaces are prone to be poisoned by H atoms under high H_2 pressure. Then, H_2 reaction orders for NH_3 synthesis are usually negative over Ru-based catalysts. [52, 53] Therefore, the suppression of H_2 poisoning over Ru surface is fundamentally important. Wu *et al.* reported that the H atoms over Ru surface can be removed using polar MgO (111) instead of MgO (110) or (100). [7] Actually, Ru/MgO (111) exhibited a much higher rate of NH_3 synthesis than with either Ru/MgO (110) or Ru/MgO (100). Regarding reaction orders, the N_2 reaction orders were almost identical among all catalysts (Ru/MgO (111): 0.9, Ru/MgO (110) : 0.9, Ru/MgO (100) : 0.8). In contrast, the H_2 reaction order changed considerably, and Ru/MgO (111) showed a positive value (Ru/MgO(111): 0.6, Ru/MgO (110): -0.2, Ru/MgO (100): -0.5). Consequently, results suggest that the suppression of hydrogen poisoning led to a high NH_3 synthesis rate over Ru/MgO(111). In line with several characterizations (^1H NMR, *in-situ* FT-IR measurement, and DFT calculations), it was revealed that polar MgO (111) strongly binds H atoms. Therefore, they indicated that stability of H atoms over supports result in the suppression of hydrogen poisoning over a Ru surface, as shown in Fig. 1.6. This report presents no discussion of the net migration of H atoms and their desorption after migration. To reduce H atom coverage over Ru, the points described above must be considered carefully. Therefore, prudent consideration must be made of hydrogen migration effects on H atom coverage over metal particles using sophisticated techniques.

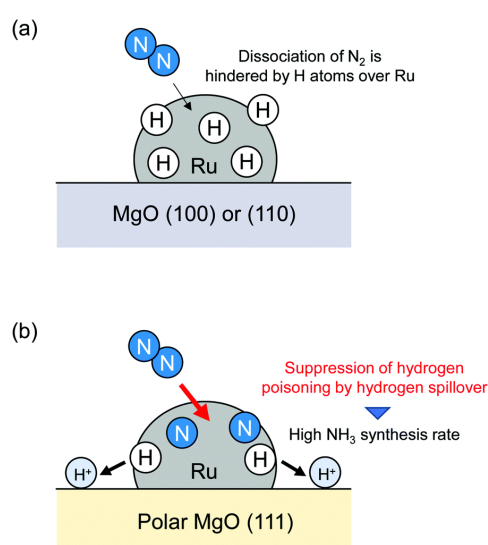


Figure 1.6. Schematic image of hydrogen poisoning suppression over Ru by hydrogen spillover. Copyright 2020 RSC Publishing.

1.3. Catalytic reaction involving active H⁺ migration: surface protonics in the electric field

We have been successful in enhancing catalytic activities using an electric field. [26–29] Hereinafter, “the catalytic reactions in the electric field” stands for the catalytic reactions invoked by the application of direct current into semiconductor, and the above operation is referred as “applying the electric field” or “~ in the electric field”. We used two electrodes attached to catalyst granules for applying direct current. A schematic image of the reactor is shown in Fig. 1.7. In this method, current density plays an important role in the enhancement of the catalytic activities. [54] The Faradaic efficiency in this process exceeds 1.0 which is the limit of conventional electrolytic synthesis. [55] Hence, the phenomena occurring during the catalytic reactions in the electric field are totally different from those in conventional electrochemical reactions. We have confirmed that the increase in catalyst bed temperatures due to Joule heating would not be an intrinsic effect of the application of the electric field using Near infrared (NIR) camera and extended x-ray absorption fine structure (EXAFS) measurements. Those methods cannot detect the existence of heating at local sites such as a few percent of the active sites. However, the catalysts, which do not exhibit catalytic activities even when heated to high temperatures, showed high performances in the electric field. [56] Hence, we considered that the catalytic reactions in the electric field cannot be explained by existing disciplines. Therefore, we have applied this method to various catalytic reactions and revealed the peculiar reaction mechanisms. In this section, the main works related to surface protonics are summarized.

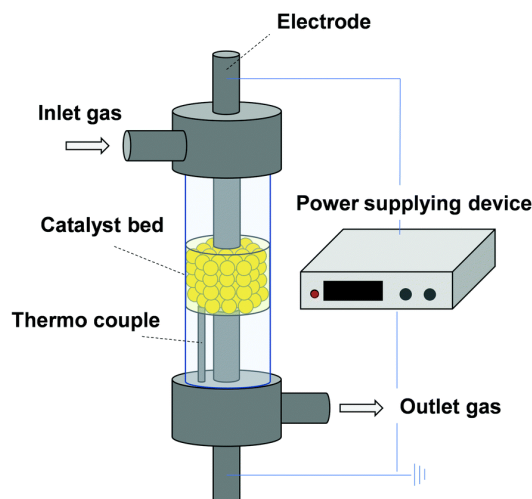


Figure 1.7. Illustration of the apparatus for catalytic reactions in the electric field. Copyright 2020 RSC Publishing.

1.3.1. Steam reforming of CH₄

We have applied the approach described above to steam reforming of various compounds (*e.g.* CH₄, [57–61] dimethyl ether, [62] toluene, [63] ethanol [64]). As a result, we obtained much higher

activities in a low-temperature region by virtue of assistance with an electric field. Furthermore, we have reported details of benefits of electric fields using CH₄ steam reforming as a case reaction. Steam reforming of CH₄ is a common process for H₂ production. The obtained H₂ is used for several reactions including oil refining and NH₃ synthesis. First, we conducted *operando*-DRIFTS measurements using 1wt%Pd/CeO₂ as a sample. Figure 1.8 shows the spectra obtained with and without the electric field. As a result, a peak was observed specifically at 855 cm⁻¹ in the electric field. This peak can be assigned to the rocking vibration of H₂O adsorbed over CeO₂,^[65] suggesting that the electric field facilitated surface protonics *via* the Grotthuss mechanism.^[10, 11, 66] This surface protonics played an important role in enhancing the conversion of CH₄ at low temperatures.

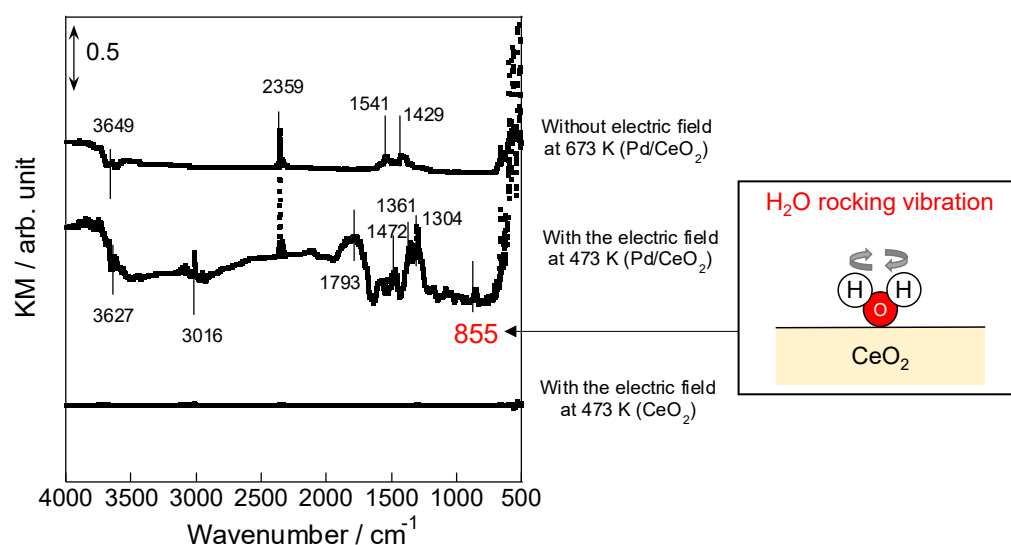


Figure 1.8. *Operando*-DRIFTS measurement with and without the electric field. (Catalyst, 1.0wt%Pd/CeO₂ or CeO₂; Flow, CH₄ : H₂O : Ar = 1 : 2 : 62 SCCM; Current, 0 or 5 mA.)^[63]

Correlation between metal particle sizes and TOFs (TOF-s and TOF-p) has been regarded as elucidating the reaction sites (Fig. 1.9). Hereinafter, TOF-s means the reaction rate normalized by the amount of the exposed metal atoms. TOF-p represents the rate normalized by the amount of metal atoms at the nanoparticle perimeter. Commonly, CH₄ reacts over metal surfaces during steam reforming.^[67] Therefore, TOF-s shows almost constant values irrespective of particle sizes without the electric field (Fig. 1.9 (a)). In contrast, TOF-p represents constant values with application of the electric field (Fig. 1.9 (b)). This specific trend elucidated that the reaction of the rate-determining step proceeded at the Pd particle perimeter.

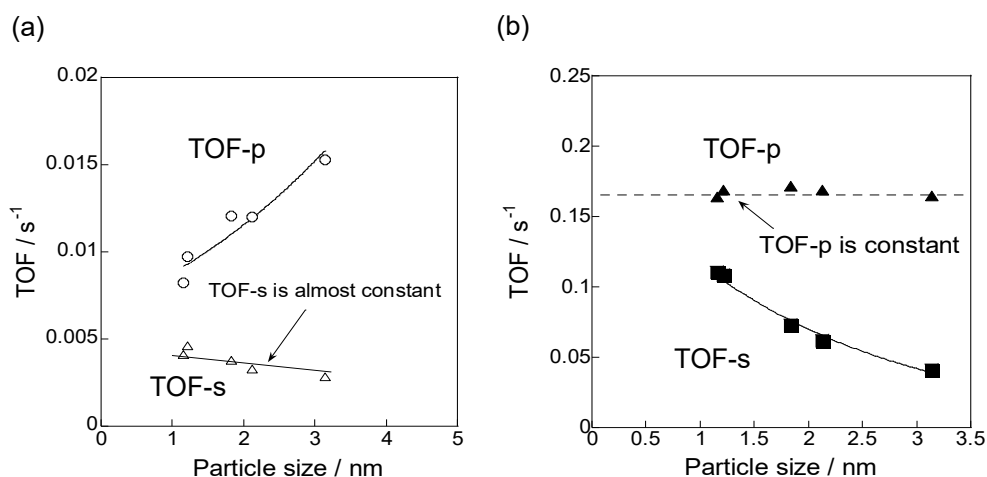


Figure 1.9. Correlation between TOFs and Pd particle sizes (a) with the electric field at 473 K and (b) without the electric field at 673 K. (Catalyst, 1.0wt%Pd/CeO₂; Flow, CH₄ : H₂O : Ar = 1 : 2 : 62 SCCM; Current, 0 or 5 mA.)^[63]

For further consideration, isotope effects on CH₄ steam reforming in the electric field were investigated using D₂O and CD₄.^[58] Conventionally, a primary kinetic isotope effect is observed in this reaction. It shows that the rate-determining step is the cleavage of C–H bond in CH₄.^[68] In contrast, an inverse kinetic isotope effect was confirmed in the electric field. This novel trend can be explained with the novel reaction mechanism through C–H–H transition state. The H⁺ supplied from supports collide with CH₄ over metal particles and assisted cleavage of C–H bonds in the electric field. Three atom (C–H–H) states have a stronger bond than C–H at the initial state.^[69–71] This is expected to be the reason why the activation energy decreased with heavier deuterium, as shown in Fig. 1.10. In this manner, the reaction mechanism involving surface protonics in the electric field has been elucidated.

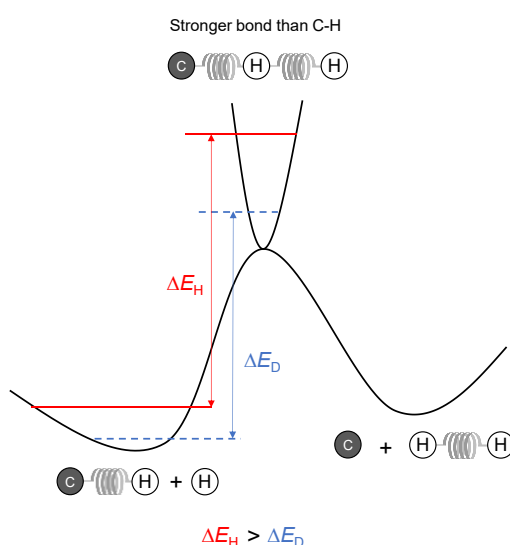
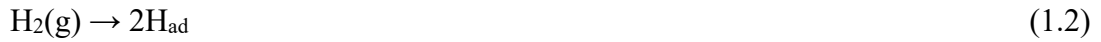


Figure 1.10. Schematic image of inverse kinetic isotope effects on C–H dissociation *via* C–H–H.^[61]

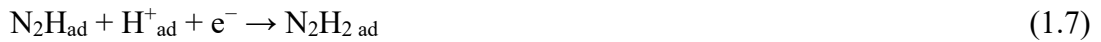
1.3.2. NH₃ synthesis

Similar facilitation of the reaction by surface protonics was revealed for NH₃ synthesis, even without the supply of H₂O. [54-56, 72]

Commonly, NH₃ synthesis proceeds through a “dissociative mechanism”, by which N₂ directly dissociates. [51]



In contrast, we assumed that NH₃ synthesis in the electric field should proceed *via* the “associative mechanism”, where N₂ reacts with H⁺ over supports before dissociation. Such a mechanism has been reported for NH₃ synthesis using homogeneous catalysts. [73]



In the equations above, “g” denotes a gaseous species; “ad” denotes adsorbed species. The N₂ and N₂H adsorb onto active metals, whereas H⁺ adsorbs over lattice oxygen of supports (O_{lat}). This novel reaction through the “associative mechanism” was elucidated based on the governing factors of NH₃ synthesis rate in the electric field from the perspective of supports and active metals.

First, the role of supports in NH₃ synthesis in the electric field was investigated using DFT calculations and experiments. [72] SrZrO₃ (SZO) was chosen as the host metal oxide. The cations were partially replaced by heterocations (A-site (Sr), Ba, Ca; B-site (Zr), Al, Y). Ru was chosen as the supported metal. We placed a finite Ru rod on the SZO surface as a loading metal, as shown in Fig. 1.11(a). The Ru facets of the rod were set as (1011) and (0001) facets, which were observed using TEM. [55] Correlation between the N₂H formation energy at the Ru periphery and the NH₃ synthesis rate in the electric field was considered using the model supports described above and an active metal, as shown in Fig. 1.11(b). Consequently, the NH₃ synthesis rate was found to increase as N₂H formation became more favorable. The analysis of electron density and adsorption energy of the intermediates revealed that the NH₃ synthesis rate in the electric field depends on the electron-donating and proton-donating capacities of the support.

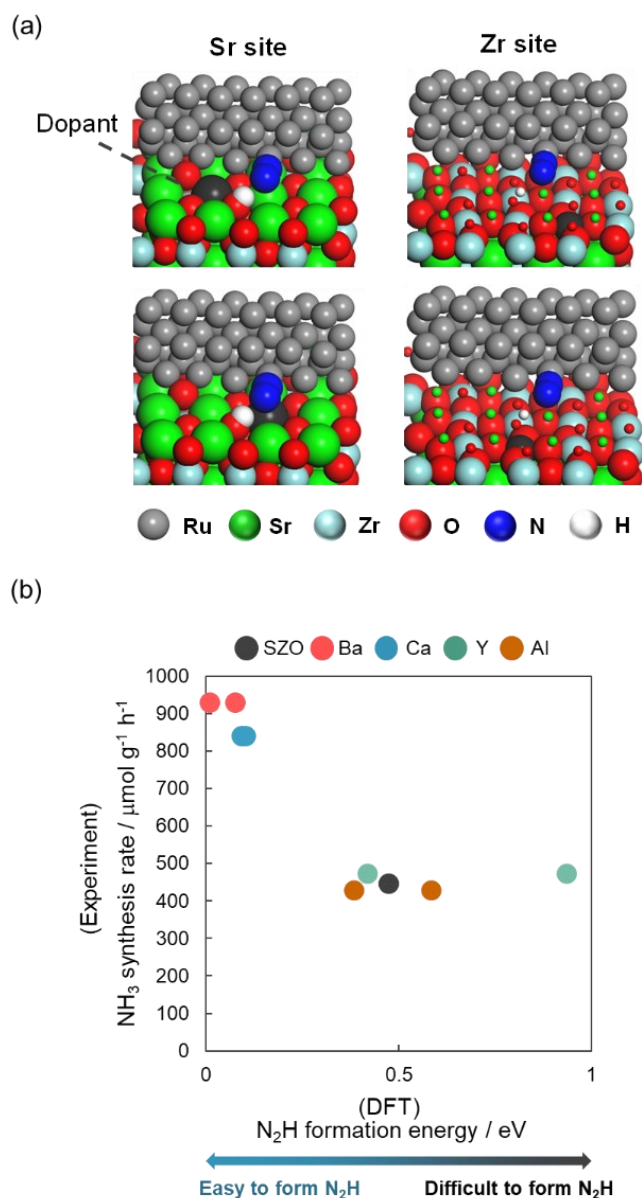


Figure 1. 11. (a) Ru-rod loaded SZO model with dopants used for DFT calculations, and (b) correlation between the DFT-calculated N_2H formation energy and NH_3 synthesis rate in the electric field. Copyright 2020 RSC publishing.

Second, we studied the effects of active metals on the NH_3 synthesis rate in the electric field using CeO_2 as a support.^[56] Figure 1.12 shows DFT calculation models and correlation between the TOFs and DFT calculated energies of N_2 dissociation or N_2H formation. Regarding results achieved without the electric field (Fig. 1.12(a)), the volcano-shaped relation was confirmed, corresponding to conventional reports.^[74] It is noteworthy that Fe and Ni exhibit higher performance than Ru in the electric field. Therefore, the relation between TOF-p in the electric field and *pseudo*- $\Delta E(N_2H$ formation) was regarded as presented in Fig. 1.12(b). Consequently, the linear relation was confirmed, indicating that NH_3 synthesis in the electric field proceeds *via* N_2H intermediate.

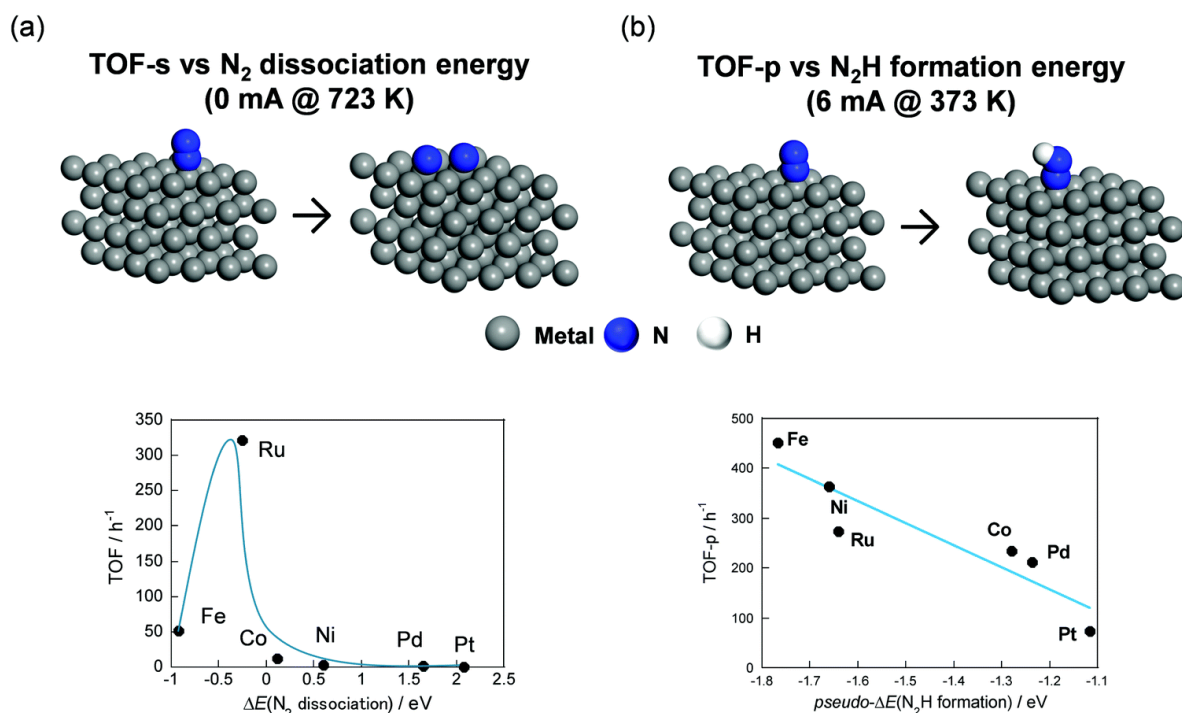


Figure 1.12. Schematic images of DFT-calculated metal surface models and the correlation between (a) TOF-s without the electric and DFT-calculated N₂ dissociation energy, (b) TOF-p with the electric field, and DFT-calculated N₂H formation energy. Copyright 2020 RSC publishing.

1.3.3. Dehydrogenation of methylcyclohexane

Reports have also described that MCH dehydrogenation in an electric field is facilitated by surface proton conduction (Fig. 1.13).^[75, 76]

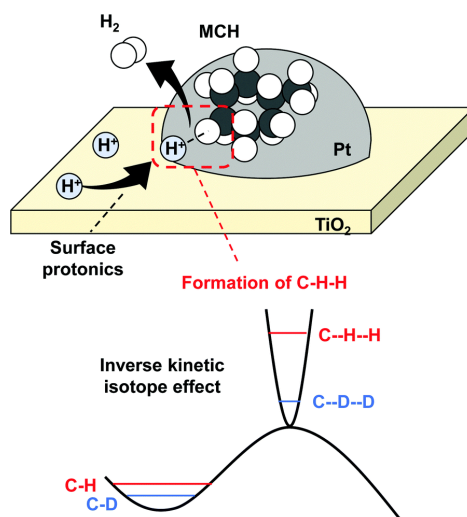


Figure 1.13. Schematic image of MCH dehydrogenation assisted by surface protonics in the electric field, and the energy diagram related to inverse kinetic isotope effect. Copyright 2020 RSC publishing.

The H₂ reaction order is usually negative, as for dehydrogenation. [77] However, the reaction order in the electric field was positive. Therefore, we inferred that MCH dehydrogenation is also activated by surface protonics. Actually, H⁺ is expected to be supplied from H₂ derived from MCH. Similarly to CH₄ steam reforming, an inverse kinetic isotope effect was observed when MCH (C₇H₁₄) was replaced by MCH_D (C₇D₁₄).

1.4. Sophisticated techniques for detecting hydrogen migration

In this section, recent state-of-the-art works for the evaluation of hydrogen spillover and surface protonics are introduced.

1.4.1. *In-situ* FT-IR measurement

It has been revealed that metal nanoparticles (Au, Cu, Pt, Ru, Rh) supported by reducible metal oxides (*e.g.* ZnO [78, 79] and TiO₂ [18, 19, 21]) show broad-band IR background absorbance around 1000–4000 cm⁻¹ after H₂ supply. Those signals were assigned to the electronic characters of metal oxides instead of vibrations of atoms. Panayotov *et al.* explained this electronic character using the reaction of H₂ with Rh-loaded or Au-loaded TiO₂ as examples. [19, 21] First, gaseous H₂ dissociates over loading metals. Subsequently, H atoms spill over onto the support (TiO₂ in this case). At that time, H atoms turn to H⁺ and donate an electron to the shallow trap (ST) state, signifying n-doping by hydrogen spillover on semiconductor supports. Some doped electrons are excited thermally or by IR radiation. Fermi level difference between TiO₂ and H atoms induces such n-doping. In this manner, hydrogen spillover can be detected sensitively using IR spectroscopic method. Additionally, they reported that an in-depth understanding of the hydrogen spillover procedure is obtainable by simultaneous detection of broad-band IR background absorbance and adsorbed CO (carbonyl species), as shown in Fig. 1.14. [21]

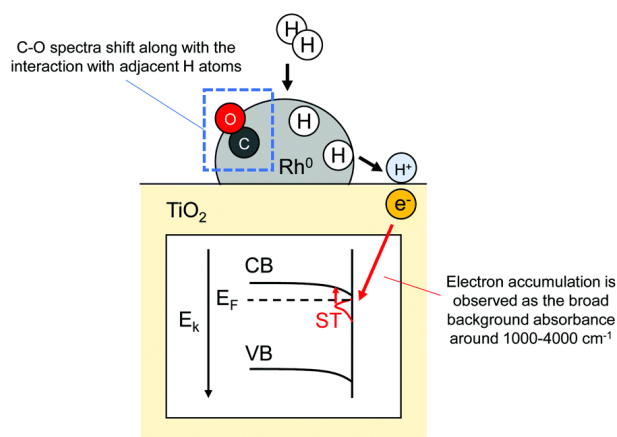


Figure 1.14. Schematic image of *in-situ* FT-IR measurement for detecting hydrogen spillover from Rh⁰ to TiO₂ with CO probe. Copyright 2020 RSC publishing.

First, they prepared Rh/TiO₂ partially covered with CO. Then, H₂ was supplied there. As a result, the peaks assigned to carbonyl species shifted in accordance with dissociative adsorption of H atoms over Rh⁰ surface. Therefore, it was revealed that CO can function as a probe for co-adsorbed H atoms.^[30] They also evaluated the time dependence of the n-doping amount in TiO₂. The time-resolved data showed kinetic branches of two types. One is rapid electron accumulation during the initial 10 min of H₂ exposure. The other is a slow accumulation thereafter. At the first stage, H atoms can quickly spill over onto TiO₂, followed by an immediate electron accumulation. As the hydrogen spillover proceeds, the conduction band (CB) of TiO₂ at the edge of Rh⁰ bends down and gets closer to the Fermi level, signifying the decrease in the difference of Fermi level between TiO₂ and H atoms. This bending hinders n-doping further. In summary, Panayotov *et al.* revealed that FT-IR measurements provide detailed mechanistic insight into hydrogen spillover.

1.4.2. X-ray adsorption spectromicroscopy with clearly separated iron oxide and Pt pairs

Karim *et al.* compared irreducible and reducible metal oxides using well-fabricated samples formed and confirmed using electron beam lithography^[80] and STM measurement.^[17] They prepared pairs of Pt nanoparticle and iron oxide over TiO₂ (reducible) and Al₂O₃ (irreducible) support. Distances between Pt particles and iron oxides were controlled precisely. Then they used *in-situ* X-ray absorption spectromicroscopy (XAS) to observe the reduction of iron oxides by H atoms migrated from Pt particles.^[80] This examination clearly provided information about the length of hydrogen migration over each support, as shown in Fig. 1.15. In terms of Al₂O₃, 15 nm was the limitation of hydrogen migration. They confirmed the adsorption of H atoms over Al₂O₃ by detecting three-coordinated surface Al adsorption sites.^[81, 82] Therefore, H atoms can migrate over Al₂O₃, although the migration length was limited. Regarding TiO₂, all iron oxides were reduced, indicating total difference from irreducible oxides. Their investigation quantitatively illustrated the difference of H atoms migration over irreducible oxides and reducible oxides.

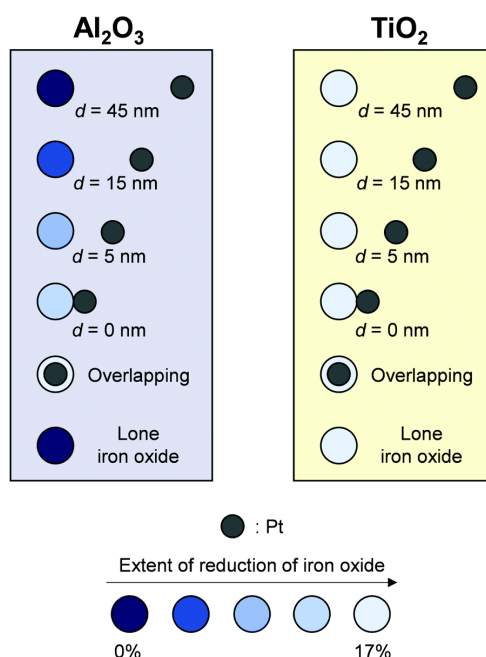


Figure 1.15. Schematic image of spillover on Al_2O_3 (irreducible) and TiO_2 (reducible) traced using Pt-iron oxide pairs. Copyright 2020 RSC publishing.

1.4.3. Surface-enhanced Raman spectroscopy using Au/ TiO_2 /Pt sandwich sample

Wei *et al.* examined hydrogen spillover and catalysis involving migration using well-arranged Au/ TiO_2 /Pt sandwich nanostructures and surface-enhanced Raman spectroscopy (SERS).^[22] Actually, SERS is a sensitive analysis of vibration derived from adsorbed molecules over rough metal surfaces, which is enabled by Raman signals enhanced by a strong electromagnetic field.^[83–85] Therefore, this method is a strong tool for *in-situ* tracking of catalytic reactions.^[86, 87] The well-designed sample (Au/ TiO_2 /Pt) has spatially divided active sites, as shown in Fig. 1.16: Pt is a hydrogen activation site; TiO_2 is a hydrogen migration site; and Au is a hydrogenation site. They used large Au particles. Therefore, H_2 dissociation over Au is negligible.^[88] They used the Langmuir–Blodgett (LB) method to prepare a single layer of TiO_2 nanoparticles (10 nm). The TiO_2 layer height was adjusted by changing the number of deposition layers over Pt film. At the final step, a monolayer of Au particles (55 nm) with a probe of hydrogenation (para-nitrothiophenol, pNTP) was loaded. Using this sample, hydrogenation of pNTP was performed. The reaction was traced using SERS. First, efficient conversion of pNTP was confirmed over Au/10 nm- TiO_2 /Pt, meaning that H atoms can be supplied from Pt to Au *via* the TiO_2 surface. Increasing the TiO_2 layer thickness increased the activation energy of hydrogenation. The reaction proceeded only slightly with a 50 nm TiO_2 layer. Furthermore, the selectivity was affected by the TiO_2 thickness. They suggested that the change of H atom coverage over Au along with TiO_2 thickness caused different selectivity. They revealed clearly that the *in-situ* SERS with well-designed samples can quantitatively evaluate the role of hydrogen spillover in reactivity and selectivity of hydrogenation.

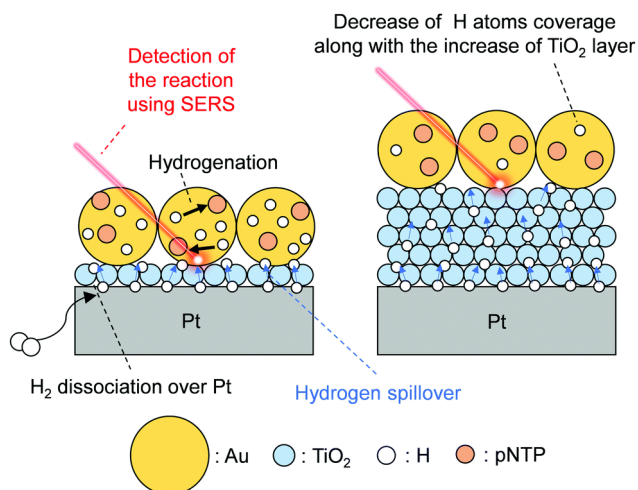


Figure 1.16. Schematic image of catalytic reaction related to hydrogen spillover detected over Au/TiO₂/Pt sandwich sample using SERS. Copyright 2020 RSC publishing.

1.4.4. Encapsulated sample and DFT calculation

As described in section 1.1, hydrogen spillover on irreducible oxides such as SiO₂, Al₂O₃, and zeolites has persisted as a controversial issue.^[13] Recently, direct evidence for the hydrogen spillover on surfaces of zeolites was obtained using encapsulated samples.^[23, 24] Experimental works for encapsulated samples were well-summarized by Choi *et al.*^[89] Furthermore, the concept of the sample design is the same as that in an earlier study described in part 1.2.2. Therefore, only DFT calculations for the hydrogen spillover mechanism are introduced herein. Im *et al.* and Shin *et al.* reported that defect generation and annihilation occur during long-range hydrogen spillover on aluminosilicate.^[23, 25] Sufficient Brønsted acid sites are necessary for this migration. Figure 1.17 presents a schematic image of the hydrogen spillover mechanism. Al at the left end in Fig. 1.15 describes the external aluminosilicate surface, which has three covalent bonds. Without defect, one H atom at Brønsted acid sites moves to the adjacent site (Fig. 1.17 (a)). The activation energy was calculated as 0.98 eV. Placing the Pd₆ cluster lowered the activation energy of this initial step to 0.52 eV, suggesting the important role of the supported metal particles. [AlO₄H₂]⁺ and [AlO₄]⁻ were produced simultaneously after the first migration. The formation of these defect pairs led to the subsequent migration at both sites (Fig. 1.17 (b)). Actually, [AlO₄]⁻ accepts a H radical (H·), thereby forming [AlO₄]⁻ H·. The obtained [AlO₄]⁻ H· has a three-centered bond (O–H–O) and can be regarded as a local distortion of the original Brønsted acid sites ([AlO₄]⁻ H⁺) induced by the spatially localized unpaired electron (*i.e.* polaron). This electron at [AlO₄]⁻ easily diffuses into the neighboring Brønsted acid sites. Thereby, another O–H–O bond is formed (*i.e.* polaron conduction) as shown in Fig. 1.17(c). After long-range migration, H⁺ recombines with the electron at the external support surface. The H⁺ can hydrogenate the adsorbed species if there is a molecule such as benzene (Fig. 1.17 (d)).

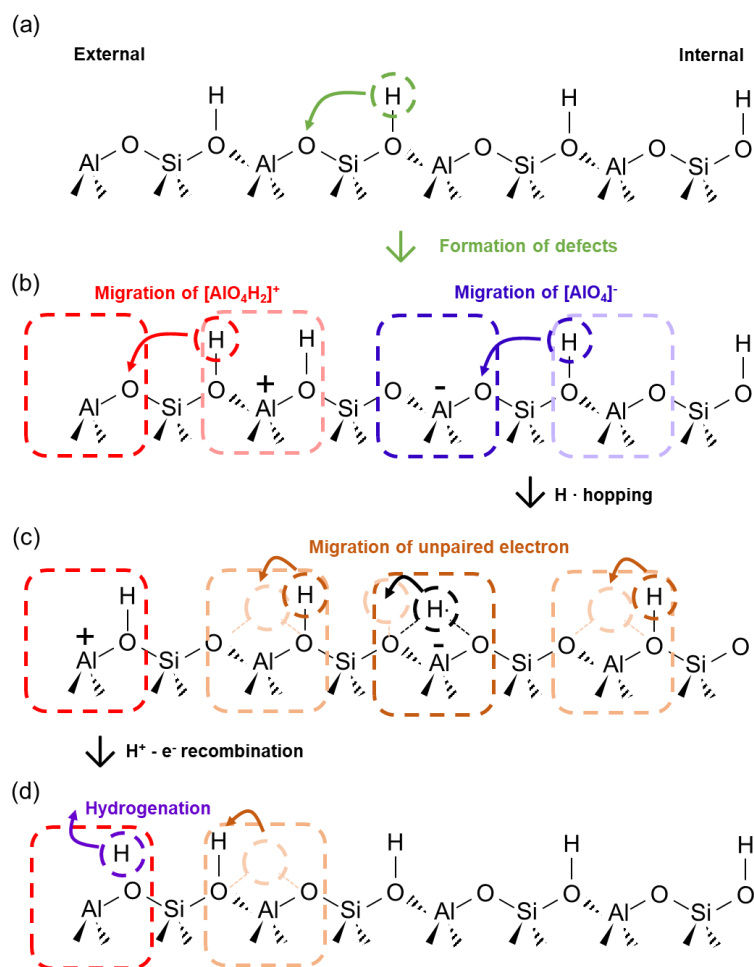


Figure 1.17. Schematic images of long-range H atoms migration mechanism over aluminosilicate. (a) Formation of $[AlO_4H_2]^+$ and $[AlO_4]^-$. (b) H atoms migration at $[AlO_4H_2]^+$ and $[AlO_4]^-$. (c) Migration of unpaired electron. (d) Hydrogenation using supplied H^+ at the external aluminosilicate surface. Copyright 2020 RSC publishing.

1.4.5. Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy using porous pellets

Recently, surface protonics mediated by adsorbed H_2O onto metal oxides (*e.g.* Y-stabilized ZrO_2 ^[10, 11] and CeO_2 ^[63]) has been evaluated successfully using porous pellets. They used metal oxide pellets with low relative density (approx. 70%, ^[10] 60%, ^[63] 50% ^[11]). Under a H_2O atmosphere, adsorbed H_2O layers are formed onto the pores of samples with low density. Then, the H^+ transportation *via* those adsorbed species can be detected using electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS). A schematic image is shown in Fig. 1.18.

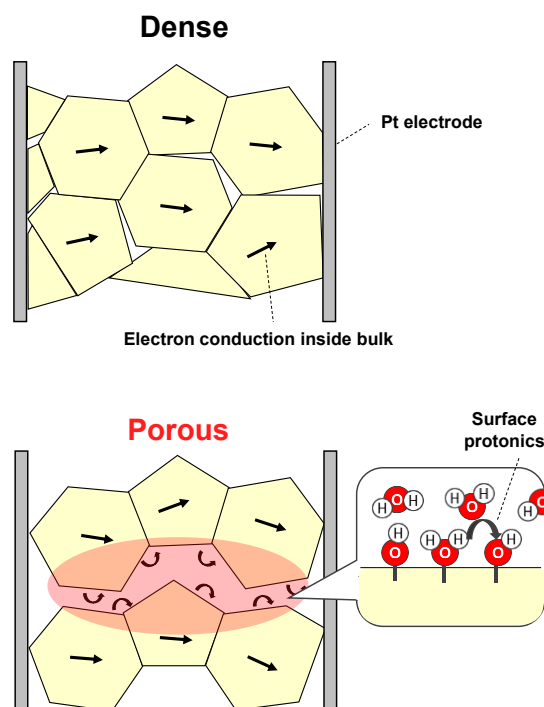


Figure 1.18. Schematic images of EIS measurements using dense and porous samples under H₂O atmosphere. Copyright 2020 RSC publishing.

Because of conduction mediated by adsorbed species, the surface conductivity under adequate relative humidity exhibited peculiar temperature dependence. Conductivity increased along with the decrement in temperature. The H₂O layer thickness increased under the lower temperature region, leading to surface conductivity enhancement. The H⁺ transport mechanism under H₂O atmosphere has been revealed by combining EIS measurements with porous pellets and *ab initio* molecular dynamics simulation.^[90] The mechanism changed along with the H₂O layer thickness. H⁺ is transported *via* the Grotthuss mechanism when the H₂O layer is thin (*i.e.* ice-like water). In contrast, the mechanism shifted to the vehicle mechanism with a thick layer of H₂O (*i.e.* liquid-like water). In this mechanism, H⁺ does not move to adjacent oxygen, but moves as H₃O⁺.

As explained in parts 1.3.2 and 1.3.3, we have demonstrated that surface protonics under H₂ atmosphere without the supply of H₂O (dry condition) is also crucially important for the catalysis in the electric field. Therefore, the development of observation techniques for surface protonics under H₂ atmosphere is necessary. Consequently, using porous (R.D. = 60%) and dense (R.D. = 90%) pellets, EIS measurements were performed under N₂ or N₂ + H₂ atmosphere.^[91] Figure 1.19 shows the temperature dependence of electrochemical conductivity over each sample and in each atmosphere. Results show that the pellets of two types exhibited completely different responses to the change of atmospheres. Regarding the porous sample, the apparent activation energy of the electrochemical conductivity decreased drastically as the atmosphere shifted from N₂ to N₂ + H₂. However, with a dense sample, no marked change was observed even with supply of H₂. This difference might derive from the adsorption of H⁺ species over exposed surfaces of the porous pellet. This H⁺ is expected to be formed by the dissociative adsorption of H₂. Furthermore, D₂

isotope effects were regarded as elucidating the main conductive carrier under H₂ atmosphere, and the conduction mechanism. Consequently, the porous sample exhibited a primary isotope effect at all measured temperatures, indicating H⁺ conduction *via* the Grotthuss mechanism. This primary isotope effect is explainable by a semi-classical theory.^[92–97] The difference of zero-point energies between O–H⁺ and O–D⁺ is greater than that at a transition state. The weakening of the O–H⁺ (D⁺) is attributable to the difference described above. No isotope effect is expected to be detected because there is no dissociation of O–H⁺ (D⁺) bond if the conduction proceeds *via* a vehicle mechanism. Therefore, the D₂ isotope effects on the conductivity revealed the surface protonics *via* the Grotthuss mechanism on a porous pellet under a H₂ atmosphere.

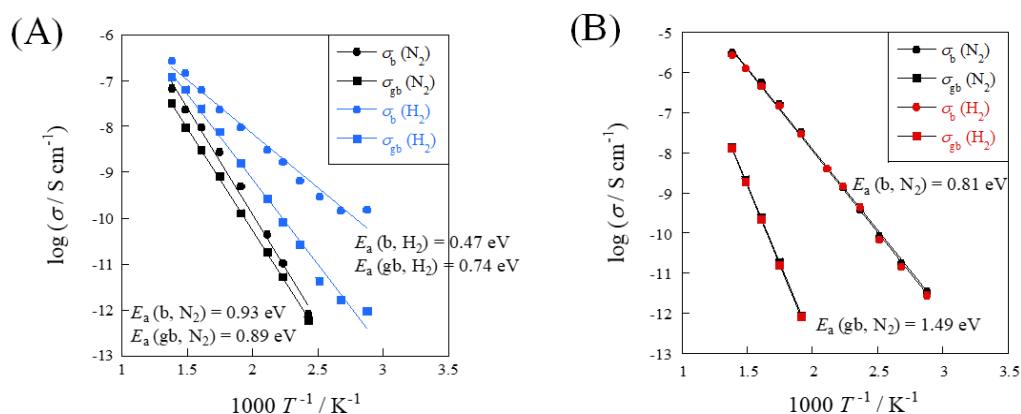


Figure 1.19. Temperature dependences of electrochemical conductivity (σ) under N₂ and N₂+H₂ atmosphere: (A) porous pellet of SrZrO₃ (R.D. = 60%), and (B) dense pellet of SrZrO₃ (R.D. = 90%). Copyright 2020 RSC publishing.

1.5. Aims of the thesis

As introduced through this chapter, hydroxy (OH) groups over metal oxides surface play a crucially important role in catalysis. Therefore, we can facilitate the development of catalysis by obtaining in-depth knowledge of the interaction between OH and metal oxide surfaces. In this context, the aims of the thesis are the following.

1. To obtain knowledge for controlling factors of interaction between OH and metal oxides
2. To elucidate the role of OH stability in catalytic reactions

Chapters 2 and 3 show the controlling factors of H₂O and H₂ adsorption over CeO₂-based materials. DFT calculations revealed that electron-deficient O_{lat} and lattice flexibility play an important role in strong adsorption. Furthermore, the DFT-obtained results were confirmed experimentally using XRD, Raman, *in-situ* DRIFTS, and XPS. Chapter 4 explained the role of OH stability in catalysis. NH₃ synthesis in the electric field is affected strongly by OH coverage.

Moreover, heterocation doping controlled the stability of the OH group and altered the temperature dependence. Finally, the catalytic science for OH groups is summarized in chapter 5.

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Chapter 2 H₂O–CeO₂ Interaction Control by Heterocation Doping

The content in this chapter is partly reproduced from K. Murakami, S. Ogo, A. Ishikawa, Y. Takeno, T. Higo, H. Tsuneki, H. Nakai, and Y. Sekine, Heteroatom doping effects on interaction of H₂O and CeO₂ (111) surfaces studied using density functional theory: Key roles of ionic radius and dispersion, *J. Chem. Phys.*, 2020, **152**, 014707. Copyright AIP Publishing.

2.1. Introduction

Cerium oxide (ceria, CeO₂) has been used for various catalytic reactions including exhaust gas purification,^[1, 2] steam reforming,^[3, 4] water–gas shift reaction,^[5–7] and NH₃ synthesis.^[8, 9] Additionally, surface H⁺ conduction *via* H₂O adsorbed onto CeO₂ surfaces has attracted much attention for novel low-temperature catalytic reactions, as described in chapter 1.^[10, 11] These studies require knowledge of H₂O–CeO₂ interaction. Therefore, many researchers have investigated H₂O adsorption over CeO₂ at an atomic scale.^[12–17]

Heterocation doping is widely known to be effective for tuning the CeO₂ performance. Particularly, the influences of heterocation doping on oxygen storage capacity (OSC) and oxygen ion conductivity have been studied extensively. Reportedly, high performance can be achieved by adding Zr, Ti, Sn, alkali earth metals, transition metals, and lanthanides.^[18–27] Modification of CeO₂ by heterocation doping also plays an important role in reactions and conduction *via* adsorbed H₂O.^[28] Therefore, some demand exists to elucidate heterocation-doping effects on the interaction between H₂O and CeO₂-based materials.

In this context, we specifically examined heterocation-doping effects on H₂O interaction onto CeO₂-based compounds in this chapter. DFT calculations revealed that the ionic radius of heterocations plays a key role in controlling the interaction between H₂O and CeO₂-based materials. Furthermore, *in-situ* DRIFTS measurements elucidated the heterocation-doping effects on the vibrational frequency of OH over CeO₂-based materials.

2.2. Experimental

2.2.1. Computational details

We performed all calculations using the Vienna *ab initio* simulation package (VASP 5.4.4.)^[29–32] Configurations of valence electrons used for all calculations are presented in Table A.2.1. Projector-augmented wave (PAW) method including Perdew–Burke–Ernzerhof (PBE) was used for the expression of core–valence effects.^[33] Electron Kohn–Sham orbital sets with kinetic energy lower than 400 eV were used. For all calculations, spin polarization was considered. Regarding *k*-space, 0.04 Å⁻¹ in Monkhorst–Pack reciprocal space was adopted for bulk structures; also, (1 × 1

$\times 1$) mesh was adopted for all surface models. ^[34] Gaussian smearing was used for all considerations. The van der Waals force was considered using the DFT-D3 method described by Grimme. ^[35] Regarding on-site Coulomb repulsion of Ce $4f$ orbitals, DFT + U method was used. The U value was set as 5.0 eV. ^[14, 36–42] The H₂O molecular adsorption energy was calculated as -0.51 eV under these calculation conditions. This obtained value coincided with previously reported energies (e.g. -0.58 eV, ^[12] -0.52 eV, ^[13] -0.66 to -0.65 eV, ^[14] -0.49 eV, ^[15] and -0.45 to -0.76 eV ^[16]). This agreement suggests that the chosen U value was appropriate to describe the H₂O–CeO₂ interaction. The most stable H₂O adsorption structure in this calculation is portrayed in Fig. 2.1. Geometry optimization was performed using two adsorption forms reported as the most stable conformation. One has a single hydrogen bond between the H₂O and the lattice oxygen (O_{lat}). The other has two hydrogen bonds. Our calculations showed that the former is more stable.

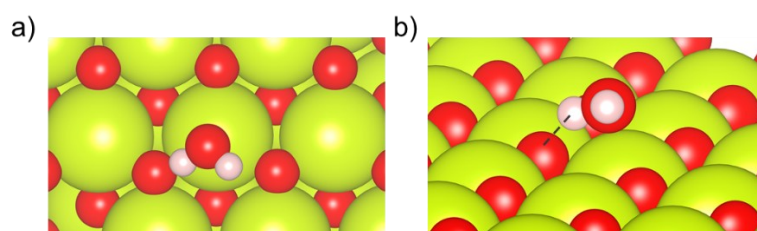


Figure 2.1. DFT-optimized structure of H₂O adsorbed over CeO₂ (111): (a) top view, and (b) bird's eye view. A broken line represents the hydrogen bond. Yellow ball means Ce, red stands for O, and pink denotes H. Copyright 2020 AIP Publishing.

The CeO₂ (111) surface was expressed as a repeated (4×4) supercell with O–Ce–O tri-layers separated by a 20 Å vacuum gap in the z -direction, as shown in Fig. 2.2. Lattice constants were obtained from the DFT optimized bulk structures. Dopants were added by replacing two Ce at the uppermost surface. The bottom O–Ce–O layer was fixed. Other atoms were relaxed during geometry optimizations.

Molecules (H₂, O₂, and H₂O) were placed in a $10 \times 10 \times 10$ Å cubic box. BCC-Fe bulk structures were calculated at the Γ point.

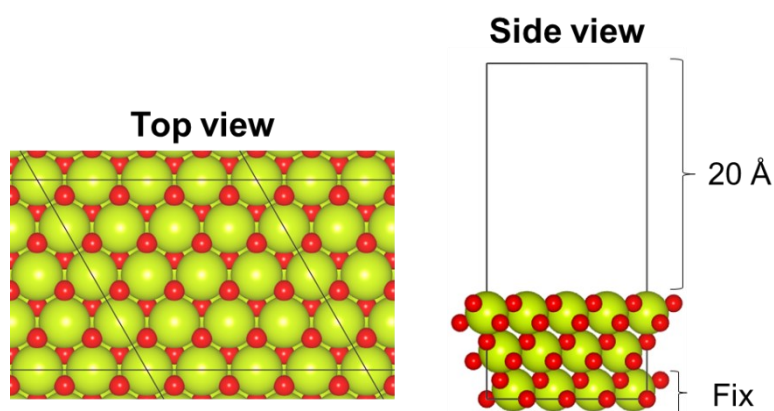


Figure 2.2. DFT-optimized structure of CeO₂ (111): (a) top view, and (b) side view. Yellow ball means Ce, and red stands for O. Copyright 2020 AIP Publishing.

2.2.2. Sample preparation

$Ce_{1-x}M_xO_{2-\delta}$ (M: Zr, Al, Y, and Sr, x : 0, 0.1, 0.2 and 0.3) were synthesized using a complex polymerization method. First, citric acid monohydrate and ethylene glycol were dissolved with stoichiometric precursors listed in Table A.2.2. The solution was stirred at 343 K overnight. After evaporation of solvents, the obtained powder was calcined at 773 K for 5 h. Then they were sieved into particles of 355–500 μm for *in-situ* DRIFTS measurements.

2.2.3. Characterization

The crystalline structures of CeO_2 -based compounds were evaluated by XRD measurements using X-ray diffraction (XRD, MiniFlex600; Rigaku Corp.) with $Cu-K\alpha$ radiation sources.

Raman spectroscopy (NRS-4500; Jasco Corp.) was performed under ambient conditions with no pre-treatment. Raman signals were recorded in green laser (532 nm) excitation. The Raman shift has accuracy of 4 cm^{-1} .

2.2.4. *In-situ* DRIFTS measurement

In-situ DRIFTS measurements (FT-IR 6200; Jasco Corp.) obtained using a ZnSe window and a MCT detector were taken to evaluate adsorbed hydroxy (OH) groups over CeO_2 -based compounds. The measurement scheme is shown in Fig. A.2.1. First, the sample was pre-treated at 473 K with Ar (60 SCCM) for 1 h. Later, background data were measured. Finally, the IR signals were collected under Ar (59.7 SCCM) and H_2O (0.3 SCCM) at 473 K.

2.3. Results and discussion

2.3.1. Construction of heterocation-doped CeO_2 (111)

This part describes examination of the most stable structure of pristine and heterocation-doped CeO_2 (111) surfaces using DFT calculations. First, the heterocation arrangements were optimized. The options for heterocation distribution are shown in Fig. A.2.2. We present the most stable structures obtained for all heterocations in Fig. 2.3. As might be readily apparent, the heterocation-doped CeO_2 surface became most stable when two heterocations adjoin each other for Ca, Al, Ga, Sc, Y, and Ti systems. In contrast, two heterocations have a separated configuration for Sr, Ba, La, and Zr doping. This trend suggests that heterocations with smaller ionic radii and lower valences are arranged preferentially side by side to alleviate the lattice strain. For several heterocations (Ba, Ga, Sc), the heterocation arrangements were investigated with oxygen vacancies (O_{vac}).

Consequently, a similar trend was confirmed (Table A.2.3). It is particularly interesting that Al doping induced the formation of the peroxide ion (O_2^{2-}) between two Al. The peroxide ion formation was also reported for La doping over a CeO_2 (100) or (110) surface. ^[43] One can reasonably infer that the formation of peroxide is feasible over unstable surfaces.

The Ce ion in CeO_2 exists as a quadrivalent cation when there is no O_{vac} or dopant. Consequently, the charge compensation by replacing lattice O^{2-} from the surface with divalent and trivalent heterocations must be considered. The calculated O_{vac} formation energies ($E(O_{vac})$) are presented in Table 2.1. $E(O_{vac})$ was defined as shown below.

$$E(O_{vac}) = \frac{\{E(\text{slab with } n O_{vac}) - E(\text{slab without } O_{vac}) - n/2 E(\text{molecular } O_2)\}}{n} \quad (2.1)$$

$E(\text{slab with } n O_{vac})$ and $E(\text{slab without } O_{vac})$ denote the energy of the surface with and without O_{vac} . The “ n ” presents the amount of O_{vac} . $E(\text{molecular } O_2)$ shows the energy of gaseous O_2 . In this consideration, we performed calculations for all possible sites of O_{vac} on the surface and sub-surface. In addition, the most stable configuration obtained was used for subsequent calculations. All $E(O_{vac})$ for the charge compensation showed negative values except for Al, meaning that O_{vac} should be formed with lower valent heterocations without oxidants such as O_2 or H_2O . Regarding Al, the formation of peroxide ion compensated the charge difference.

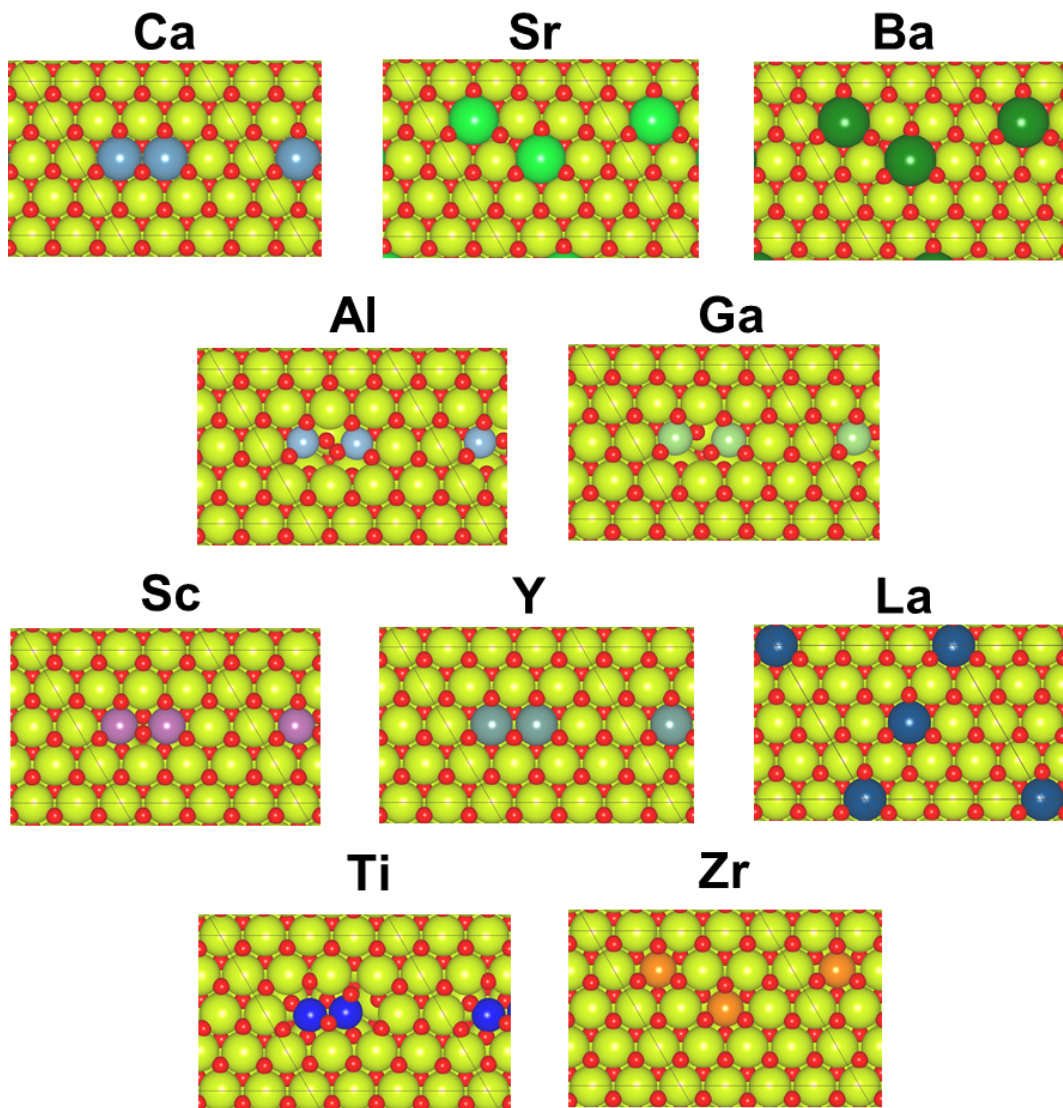


Figure 2.3. DFT-optimized structures of $\text{Ce}_x\text{M}_{1-x}\text{O}_{2-\delta}$ (111). Yellow ball means Ce, red stands for O, and other colors show heterocations. Copyright 2020 AIP Publishing.

Table 2.1. Oxygen vacancy (O_{vac}) formation energy ($E(O_{\text{vac}})$) over $\text{Ce}_{1-x}\text{M}_x\text{O}_{2-\delta}$ (111). Copyright 2020 AIP Publishing.

Dopant	Amount of O_{vac} (n)	$E(O_{\text{vac}})$ (eV)
Without dopant	1	2.98
Ca	1	-0.80
	2	-1.41
	3	0.83
Sr	1	-0.66
	2	-1.23
	3	1.25
Ba	1	-0.71
	2	-0.61
	3	2.49
Al	1	0.59
Ga	1	-0.63
	2	0.08
Sc	1	-0.95
	2	0.76
Y	1	-0.72
	2	2.36
La	1	-0.67
	2	2.59
Ti	1	0.42
Zr	1	1.92

Reportedly, O_{vac} is backfilled easily by H_2O under H_2O atmosphere. [44–46] Therefore, we calculated the dissociative adsorption energy of H_2O with and without backfilling of O_{vac} ($E(\text{H}_2\text{O}$ adsorption with backfilling) and $E(\text{H}_2\text{O}$ adsorption without backfilling)). The energies were expressed as presented below.

$$E(\text{H}_2\text{O} \text{ adsorption with/without backfilling}) = E(\text{slab with/without backfilling}) - E(\text{slab with the charge compensating } O_{\text{vac}}) - E(\text{molecular } \text{H}_2) \quad (2.2)$$

$E(\text{slab with the charge compensating } O_{\text{vac}})$ denotes the energy of the slab with O_{vac} for the charge compensation. $E(\text{slab with backfilling})$ represents the energy of the slab with backfilled O_{vac} . $E(\text{molecular } \text{H}_2\text{O})$ shows the energy of gaseous H_2O . The calculated $\Delta E(\text{with/without backfilling})$ is presented in Table 2.2. As a result, backfilling was found to be more feasible. The surfaces obtained with hydroxy are shown in Fig. 2.4.

Table 2.2. Comparison between H₂O dissociative adsorption energies with and without backfilling of O_{vac}. Copyright 2020 AIP Publishing.

Dopant	$E(\text{backfilling})$ (eV)	$E(\text{without backfilling})$ (eV)
Ca	-1.94	-0.42
Sr	-2.00	-0.43
Ba	-1.86	-0.44
Ga	-1.95	-0.79
Sc	-1.33	-0.58
Y	-1.95	-0.53
La	-1.82	-0.44

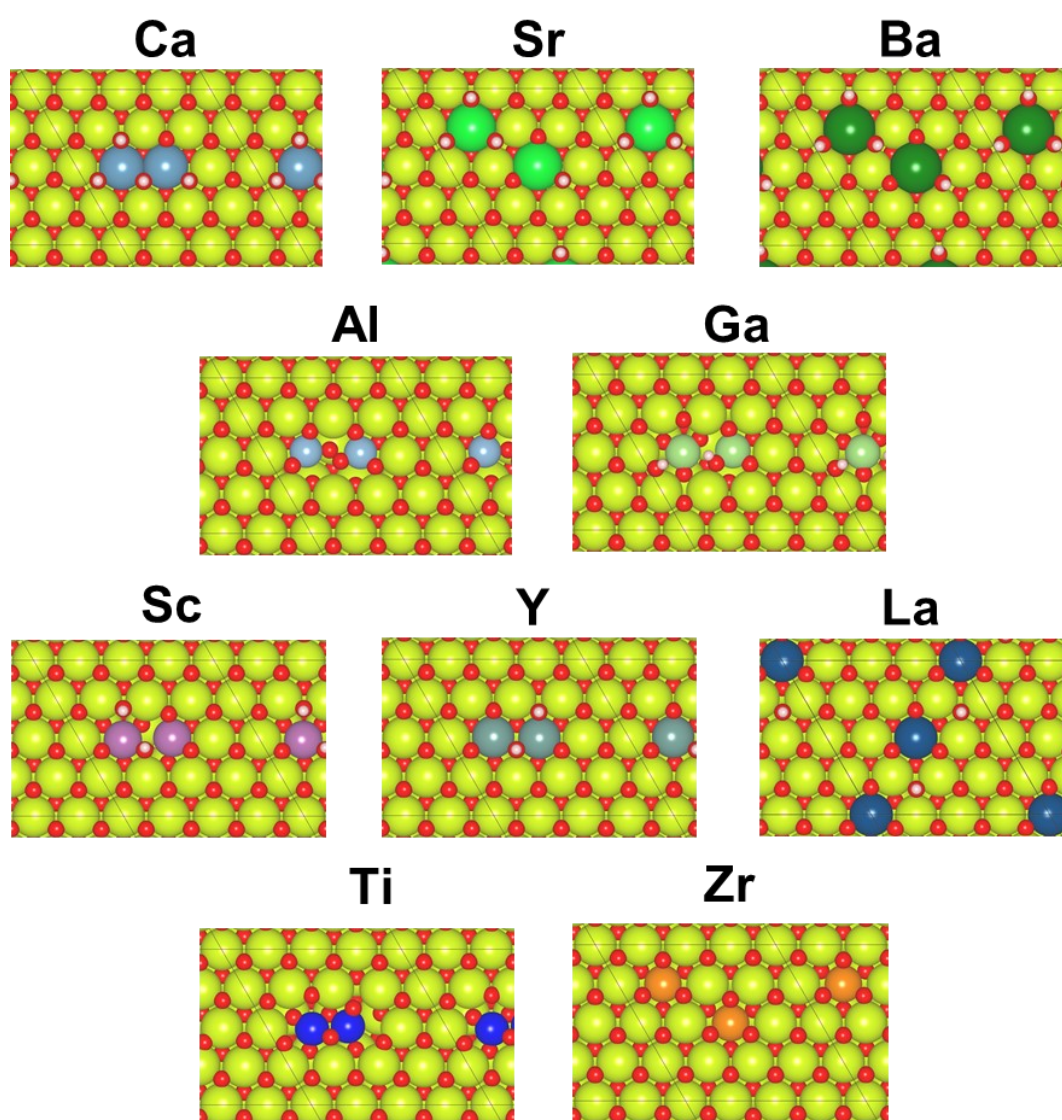


Figure 2.4. DFT-optimized structures of Ce_xM_{1-x}O_{2- δ} (111) taking into account the backfilling of O_{vac} by H₂O. Yellow ball means Ce, red stands for O, and other colors show heterocations. Copyright 2020 AIP Publishing.

2.3.2. Experimental confirmation of DFT-calculated surfaces

Differences in the dispersion of each heterocation were examined experimentally. First, we took XRD measurements for $\text{Ce}_{1-x}\text{M}_x\text{O}_{2-\delta}$ (M: Zr, Al, Y, and Sr, x : 0, 0.1, 0.2 and 0.3). The obtained signals are presented in Figs. A.2.3 – A.2.7. The obtained spectra were nearly identical among almost all samples, although slight peak shifts were observed. Only spectra of $\text{Ce}_{0.7}\text{Sr}_{0.3}\text{O}_{2-\delta}$ showed the existence of impurities (SrCO_3). Furthermore, mean atomic volumes were calculated using the obtained peaks assigned to (111) of $\text{Ce}_{1-x}\text{M}_x\text{O}_{2-\delta}$. Figure 2.5 presents the correlation between the dopant amount (x) and mean atomic volumes. Results show linear correlation, indicating that heterocations were doped successfully into the CeO_2 matrix (*i.e.* Zen's law ^[47]). It is noteworthy that Zr-doped CeO_2 exhibited a smaller mean atomic volume than that of Al-doped CeO_2 . This result suggests that doped Al would form smaller clusters, as suggested from the DFT-optimized surface (Figs. 2.3 and 2.4).

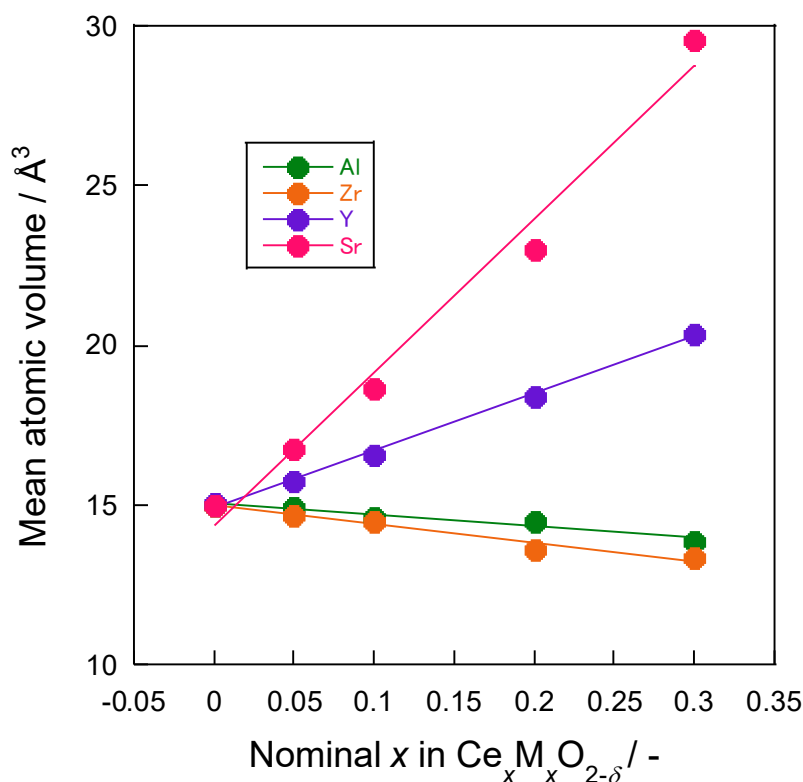


Figure 2.5. Correlation between dopants amount (x) in $\text{Ce}_x\text{M}_x\text{O}_{2-\delta}$ and mean atomic volume. The legends present dopants (M).

Second, we performed Raman spectroscopy using CeO_2 and $\text{Ce}_{0.9}\text{Al}_{0.1}\text{O}_{2-\delta}$ (Fig. 2.6). The peaks at 458 cm^{-1} were assignable to the F_{2g} symmetric Ce–O–Ce stretching vibration. ^[48, 49] The band at 827 cm^{-1} was detected only when Al was doped into CeO_2 . This band can be assigned to $\mu\text{-}\eta_1$: η_1 peroxide. ^[48–50] The frequency of peroxide over DFT-calculated Al-doped surface was also calculated as 833 cm^{-1} , supporting the assignment of 827 cm^{-1} band to peroxide. Moreover,

the peroxide ion was observed only when the Al was set side by side, indicating validity of the DFT-obtained stable arrangements of heterocations.

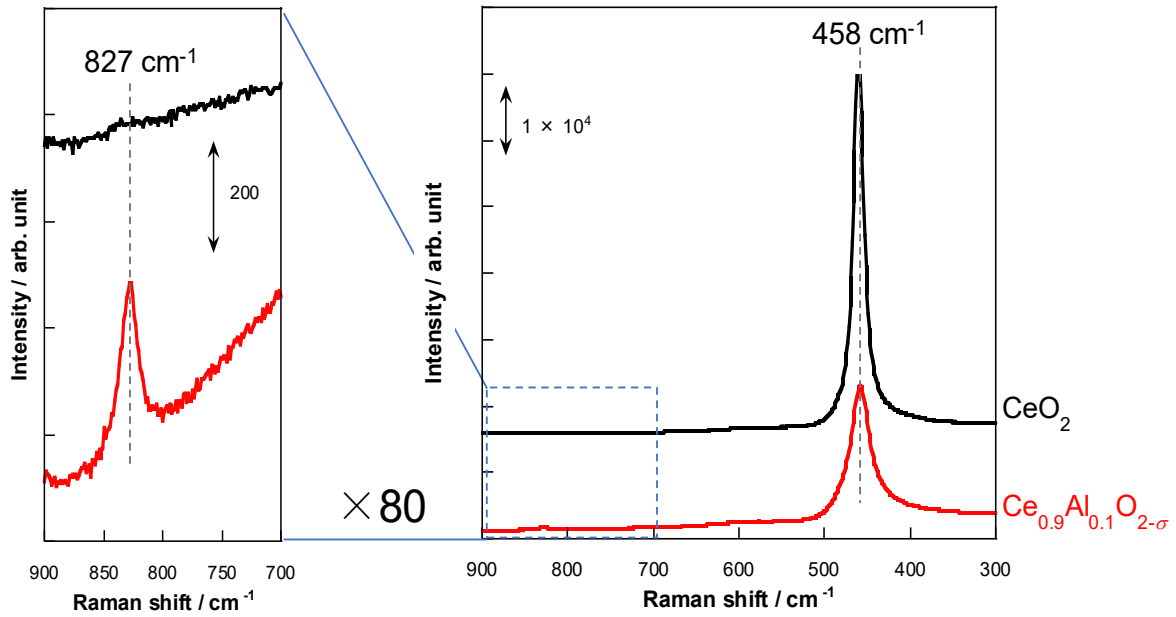


Figure 2.6. Raman spectra of CeO_2 and $\text{Ce}_{0.9}\text{Al}_{0.1}\text{O}_{2-\delta}$. Copyright 2020 AIP Publishing.

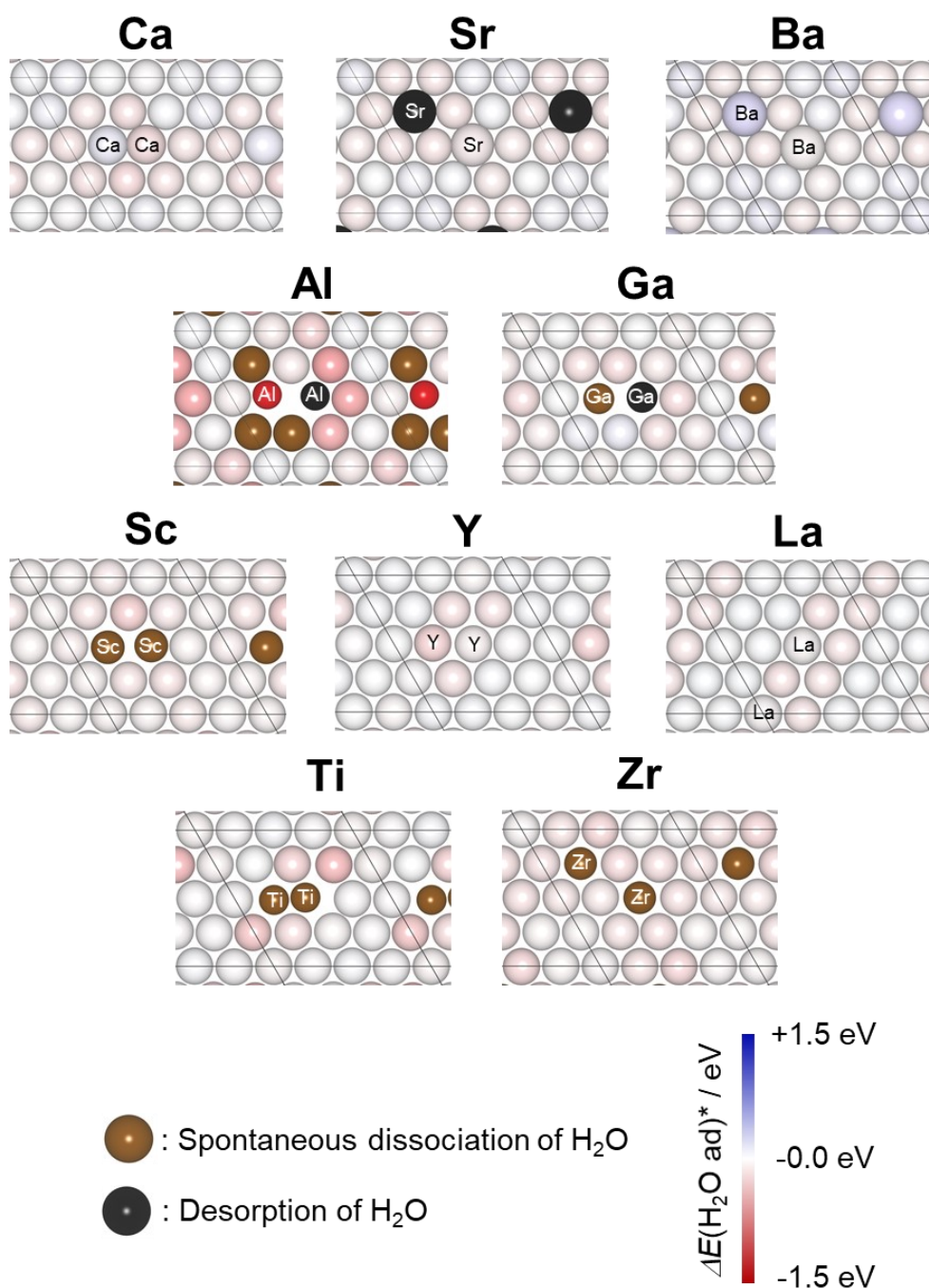
2.3.3. Heterocation-doping effects on H_2O – CeO_2 interaction (111)

The DFT-obtained surface models were confirmed as explained earlier. We analyzed the interaction between H_2O and CeO_2 -based composite surfaces using the models presented in Fig. 2.4. First, heterocation-doping effects on the molecular adsorption of H_2O were evaluated. Figure 2.7 describes changes of H_2O molecular adsorption energy ($\Delta E(\text{H}_2\text{O ad})$) concomitantly with heterocation doping. The $\Delta E(\text{H}_2\text{O ad})$ was calculated as shown below.

$$E(\text{H}_2\text{O ad}) = E(\text{slab with H}_2\text{O}) - E(\text{slab without H}_2\text{O}) - E(\text{molecular H}_2\text{O}) \quad (2.3)$$

$E(\text{slab with H}_2\text{O})$ and $E(\text{slab without H}_2\text{O})$ present the energy of CeO_2 -based surfaces with and without H_2O adsorption. In Fig. 2.7, only outermost cations are depicted. The names of the heterocations are presented inside the circles. The other circles without notation stand for Ce cations. The surface cations are colored based on the difference of H_2O adsorption energy ($\Delta E(\text{H}_2\text{O ad})$). The energy over pristine CeO_2 was used as a reference value. Red sites present stronger H_2O adsorption. The blue sites mean the opposite (weak adsorption of H_2O). Red sites tend to be observed around smaller heterocation-doped surfaces. Furthermore, brown balls show sites at which H_2O voluntarily dissociates during the geometry optimization, meaning the H_2O would dissociate without a reaction barrier. Such spontaneous dissociation of H_2O was detected around Ce sites next to Al and onto heterocations with small ionic radii (Ga, Sc, Zr, and Ti). Over black ball sites, H_2O desorbed. Such sites were observed on Sr-, Ga-, and Al-doped surfaces. Regarding Sr, repulsion by a surface OH group formed by backfilling of O_{vac} with H_2O led to H_2O desorption.

Regarding Ga and Al, the heterocations sank into the CeO₂ matrix because of the small ionic radius; H₂O was unable to reach the sites. Summarizing the trend revealed from Fig. 2.7, one can infer that doping by heterocations with small ionic radius facilitates the H₂O molecular adsorption.



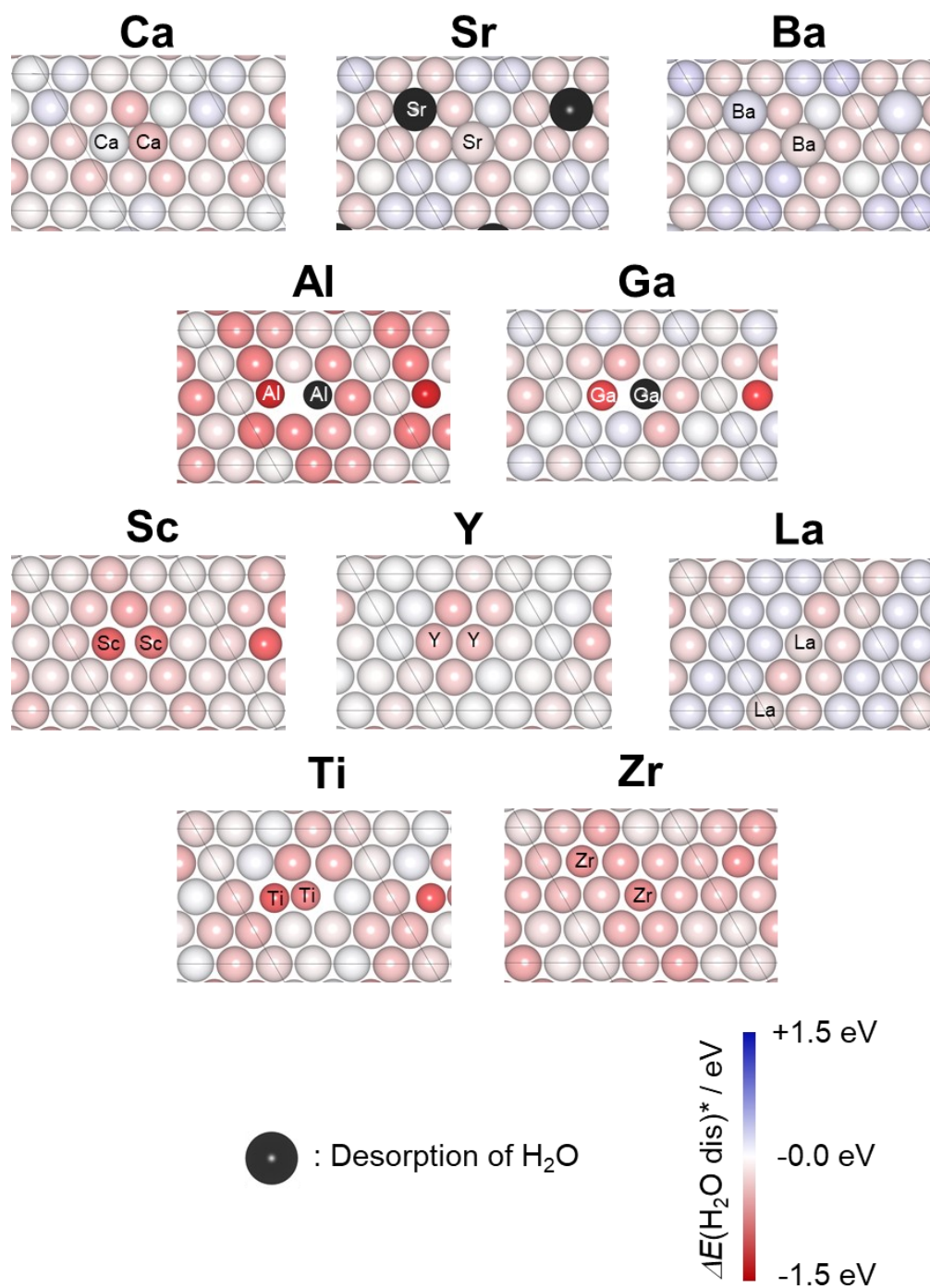
* $E(\text{H}_2\text{O ad}) = -0.50 \text{ eV}$ over pure CeO₂ was used as reference

Figure 2.7. Energy map of the H₂O molecular adsorption. The balls are colored along with the difference in the $E(\text{H}_2\text{O ad})$ over pristine CeO₂ (111). Red balls represent the stronger adsorption of H₂O. Blue balls show the opposite site. Brown and black balls meant that the H₂O spontaneously dissociate and desorb over those sites, respectively. Copyright 2020 AIP Publishing.

Secondly, we investigated the heterocation-doping effects on H₂O dissociative adsorption. The dissociation of H₂O is an important step for various catalytic reactions.^[51] The formed OH plays a key role in surface protonics under H₂O atmosphere.^[52] In Fig. 2.8, the change of H₂O dissociative adsorption energy ($\Delta E(\text{H}_2\text{O dis})$) along with heterocation doping was depicted in the same manner as shown in Fig. 2.7. When H₂O dissociated over surfaces, OH adsorbed onto cation sites, and H atom adsorbed onto the outermost O_{lat} sites. The value of $E(\text{H}_2\text{O dis})$ is calculated as shown below.

$$E(\text{H}_2\text{O dis}) = E(\text{slab with dissociative adsorbed H}_2\text{O}) - E(\text{slab without H}_2\text{O}) - E(\text{molecular H}_2\text{O}) \quad (2.4)$$

Here, $E(\text{slab with dissociative adsorbed H}_2\text{O})$ presents the energy of the slab with H and OH derived from H₂O. Figure 2.7 and Fig. 2.8 used the common color scale to compare the role of heterocations on $E(\text{H}_2\text{O ad})$ and $E(\text{H}_2\text{O dis})$ clearly. The color map shown in Fig. 2.8 showed a more vivid color contrast than Fig. 2.7 showed, signifying that heterocation doping has stronger influences on H₂O dissociative adsorption than on H₂O molecular adsorption. Consequently, it can be inferred that heterocation doping can manipulate the interaction between H atoms and outermost O_{lat}. Details of this inference are evaluated in the next chapter. Returning to Fig. 2.8, the heterocation-doping effects are remarkable next to heterocations, as might be apparent in surfaces with small dopants (Al, Ga, Sc, and Ti). However, the effects were local. In contrast, Zr doping globally facilitates the H₂O dissociative adsorption because the Zr prefers to be mutually separated on the CeO₂ (111) surface.



* $E(\text{H}_2\text{O dis}) = -0.45 \text{ eV}$ over pure CeO_2 was used as reference

Figure 2.8. Energy map of the H₂O dissociative adsorption. The balls are colored along with the difference in the $E(\text{H}_2\text{O dis})$ over pristine CeO_2 (111). Red balls represent the stronger adsorption of H₂O. Blue balls show the opposite site. Brown and black balls meant that the H₂O spontaneous desorb over those sites. Copyright 2020 AIP Publishing.

To clarify the correlation between H₂O dissociative adsorption and ionic radius of heterocations, we show $E(\text{H}_2\text{O dis})$ with an ionic radius, as shown in Fig. 2.9. In the figure, $E(\text{H}_2\text{O dis})$ are grouped as follows: (i) "dopant" – the H₂O dissociative adsorption over heterocations; (ii)

“nnce (nearest neighbor Ce)” – the H₂O dissociative adsorption at Ce next to heterocations; and (iii) “nnnce (next nearest neighbor Ce)” – the Ce atoms which are next nearest neighbors to heterocations. Points in Fig. 2.9 represent the average values at the respective sites ((i)–(iii)). Regarding the general trend, the promotion effect of heterocations with small ionic radii on H₂O dissociative adsorption is apparent. This trend is useful as an extremely useful milestone when we try to tune the catalysis related to surface protonics under a H₂O atmosphere. Furthermore, this study showed that facilitation by heterocations with smaller ionic radii are localized in nature. The enhancement of dispersion of heterocations also plays a key role.

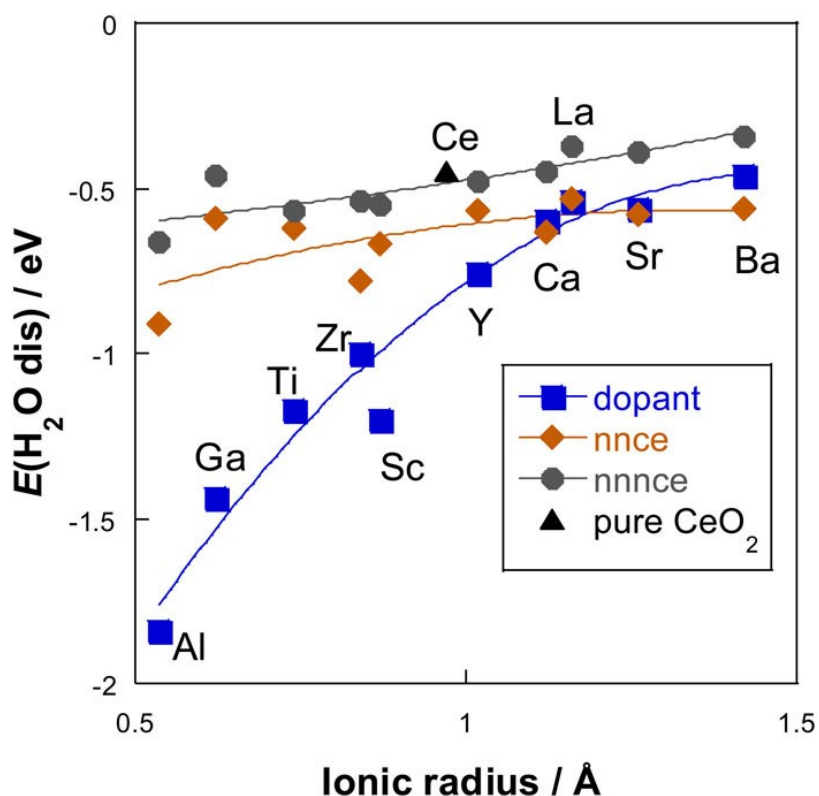


Figure 2.9. Correlation between the ion radius of heterocations and average of $E(\text{H}_2\text{O dis})$ at each site. The legends stand for the H₂O adsorption site. The “dopant” shows dopant sites, “nnce” means Ce next to dopants, and “nnnce” represents the next nearest neighbor Ce. Copyright 2020 AIP Publishing.

2.3.4. Observation of hydroxy groups over CeO₂-based materials

In-situ DRIFTS measurements were taken to investigate heterocation-doping effects on OH groups experimentally over CeO₂-based materials suggested by DFT calculations. Commonly, the peaks observed when H₂O is supplied include the effects of multilayer adsorption of H₂O. However, we considered heterocation-doping effects on the adsorption of a single H₂O using DFT calculations. We evaluated the OH groups that directly adsorb over cations with the following approach. First, CeO₂-based materials were pretreated under mild conditions (473 K for 1 h under Ar). After pre-treatment, small amounts of OH groups remain over surfaces of CeO₂-based

materials. When H₂O is supplied to such pre-treated surfaces, OH-residuals interacted with supplied H₂O. Because of this interaction, the frequencies assigned to the OH species are red-shifted. Negative peaks are observed. [53]

Figure 2.10 presents spectra over CeO₂ from 1 to 30 min after H₂O supply. Negative peaks were observed at around 3720 cm⁻¹ and 3650 cm⁻¹. Those peaks were assignable to terminal (“*t*-OH”, one bond between OH and surface cations) and multi-coordinated (“*m*-OH”, two or more bonds between OH and surface cations) OH groups over CeO₂ surfaces. [54,55] The peaks at around 3670 cm⁻¹ were attributable to the red-shift of peaks assigned to *t*-OH. The broad bands at lower than 3600 cm⁻¹ are derived from H-bonded H₂O. Those band intensities increased over time, indicating the increment of H₂O adsorbed over CeO₂. Bands at around 3800–4000 cm⁻¹ did not change to any marked degree, which suggests that the H₂O supply mainly caused not a blue-shift but a red-shift of OH-derived peaks.

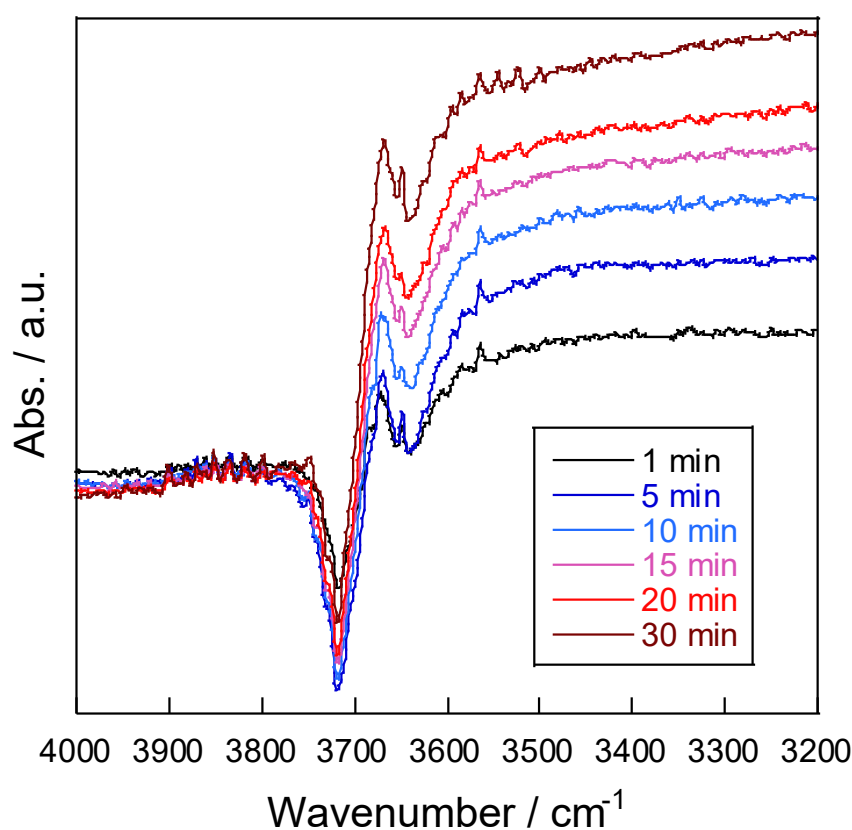


Figure 2.10. Time-course analysis of *in-situ* DRIFTS spectra for CeO₂ under Ar (59.7 SCCM) and H₂O (0.3 SCCM) at 473 K.

Heterocation-doping effects on the H₂O adsorption were considered using peaks assigned to *t*-OH. Figure 2.11 presents the obtained spectra over Ce_{0.9}M_{0.1}O_{2-δ} (M: Sr, Al, and Zr). Results show that Al doping and Zr doping led to a marked blue-shift of *t*-OH peaks. As described earlier, DFT calculations suggest that those two dopants (Al and Zr) had a much more positive influence on H₂O adsorption. The correlation between the experimentally obtained *t*-OH wavenumber and the average of DFT-calculated H₂O dissociative adsorption energies was considered (Fig. 2.12).

Results indicate strong correlation between those two values. In this manner, the validity of DFT-obtained heterocation-doping effects on H₂O adsorption was elucidated using *in-situ* DRIFTS measurements.

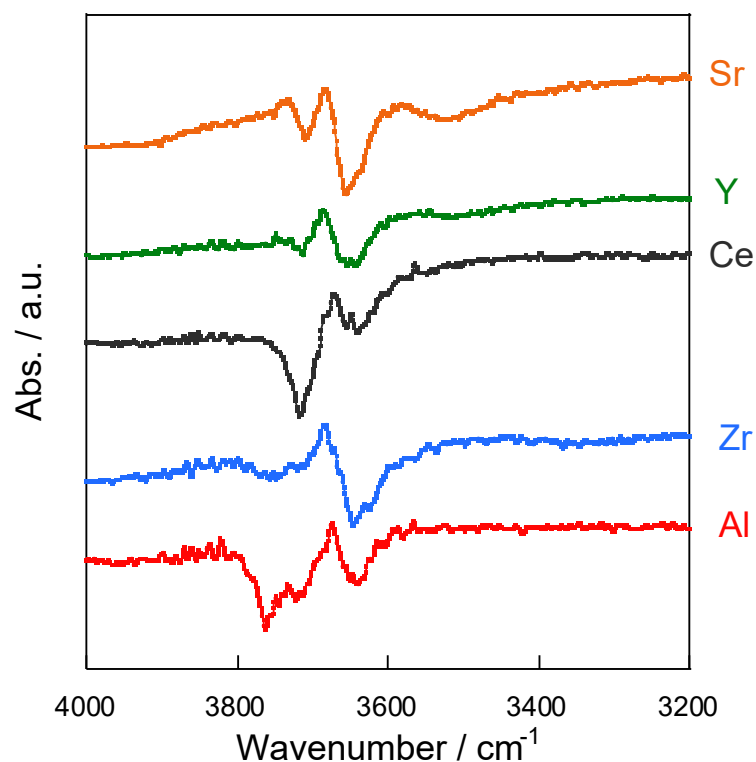


Figure 2.11. Heterocation-doping effects on *in-situ* DRIFTS spectra under Ar (59.7 SCCM) and H₂O (0.3 SCCM) at 473 K.

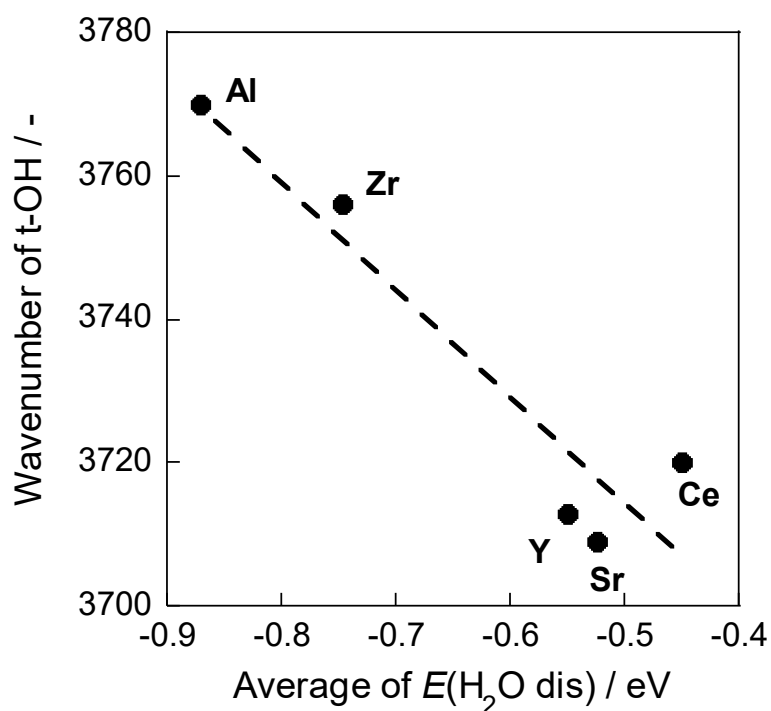


Figure 2.12. Correlation between wavenumber and average of DFT-calculated $E(\text{H}_2\text{O dis})$.

2.4. Chapter conclusion

Effects of heterocation doping on interaction between H₂O and CeO₂ have been revealed using DFT calculations. Moreover, the DFT-obtained results were confirmed experimentally using XRD, Raman, and *in-situ* DRIFTS measurements. Consequently, valence and ionic radius were found to be key factors for heterocation distribution and heterocation-doping effects on H₂O adsorption. Heterocations with lower valence and smaller ionic radii tend to adjoin mutually. That led to localization of the heterocation-doping effects. Regarding H₂O adsorption, heterocations with small cations facilitated the adsorption. In addition, much greater facilitation effects were observed for dissociative adsorption than for molecular adsorption, which means that heterocation doping has much greater influence on adsorption over O_{lat} than that over cations. An evident reason why small heterocation-doped surfaces are feasible is examined in the next chapter along with other factors manipulating the adsorption energies.

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Appendix of Chapter 2

A.2.1. Effects of O_{vac} formation and backfilling of O_{vac} by H_2O on electronic state of O 1s

Doping of lower valent heterocations into metal oxides is known to cause the formation of localized electron holes on the O_{lat} .^[1-3] O_{vac} and OH^- formed by backfilling of O_{vac} compensate this charge deviation. The O 2*p* PEDOS of $\text{CeO}_2(111)$ and heterocations (Ba or Sc)-doped $\text{CeO}_2(111)$ surfaces were considered to elucidate this phenomenon (Figures A.2.8 – A.2.10). For both heterocations, spin-up unoccupied states were confirmed above Fermi level when charge compensation by O_{vac} or backfilling was not considered. Those polarization represent the O^- polaron formation by doping with lower valent heterocations. Such unoccupied states were not observed for the calculation models with O_{vac} and OH termination. It indicates that the charge difference was compensated by O_{vac} formation and OH termination.

A.2.2. Calculation models with dopants in subsurface

Th models that have heterocations at subsurface were calculated for several cations (Ba, Al, Sc and Zr). Figure A.2.11 describes the considered arrangement of dopants. Geometry optimization was conducted in the similar manner as shown in the main text. Al doping did not lead to the formation of peroxide for this heterocation arrangement. Figure A.2.12 represents the obtained surfaces and energy maps for H_2O molecular adsorption and dissociative adsorption. The energy map was drawn in the same way as Figures 2.7 and 2.8 The heterocation-doping effects for this arrangement is similar to that shown in Figures 2.7 and 2.8. Firstly, heterocation-doping has stronger influences on H_2O dissociative adsorption than H_2O molecular adsorption. Additionally, doping of cations with smaller ionic radius (Al and Sc) facilitates the H_2O adsorption.

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Figures and Tables

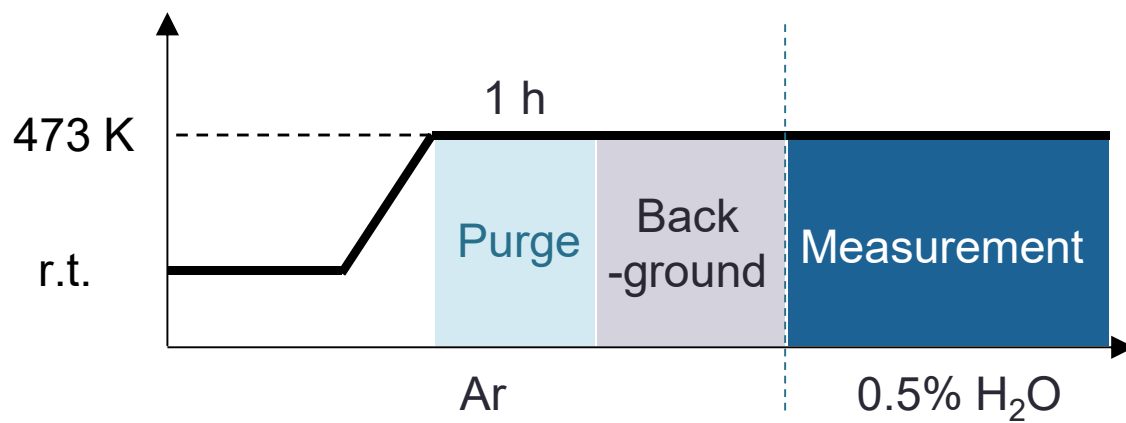
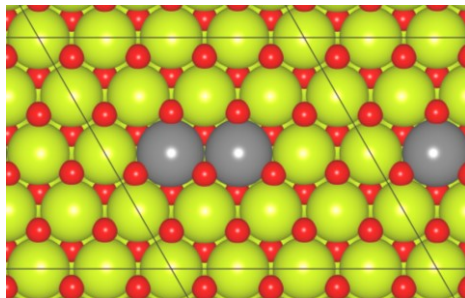
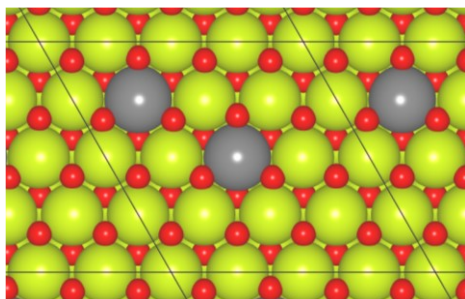


Figure A.2.1. Flow of *in-situ* DRIFTS measurement.

Surf1



Surf2



Surf3

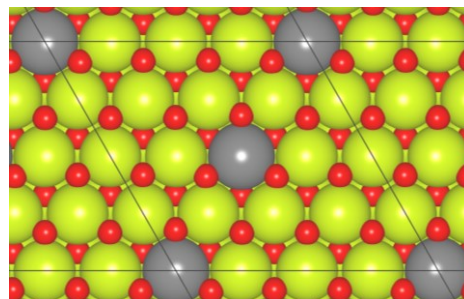


Figure A.2.2. Heterocation distributions considered in DFT calculations. Yellow ball means Ce, red stands for O, and gray shows heterocation. Copyright 2020 AIP Publishing.

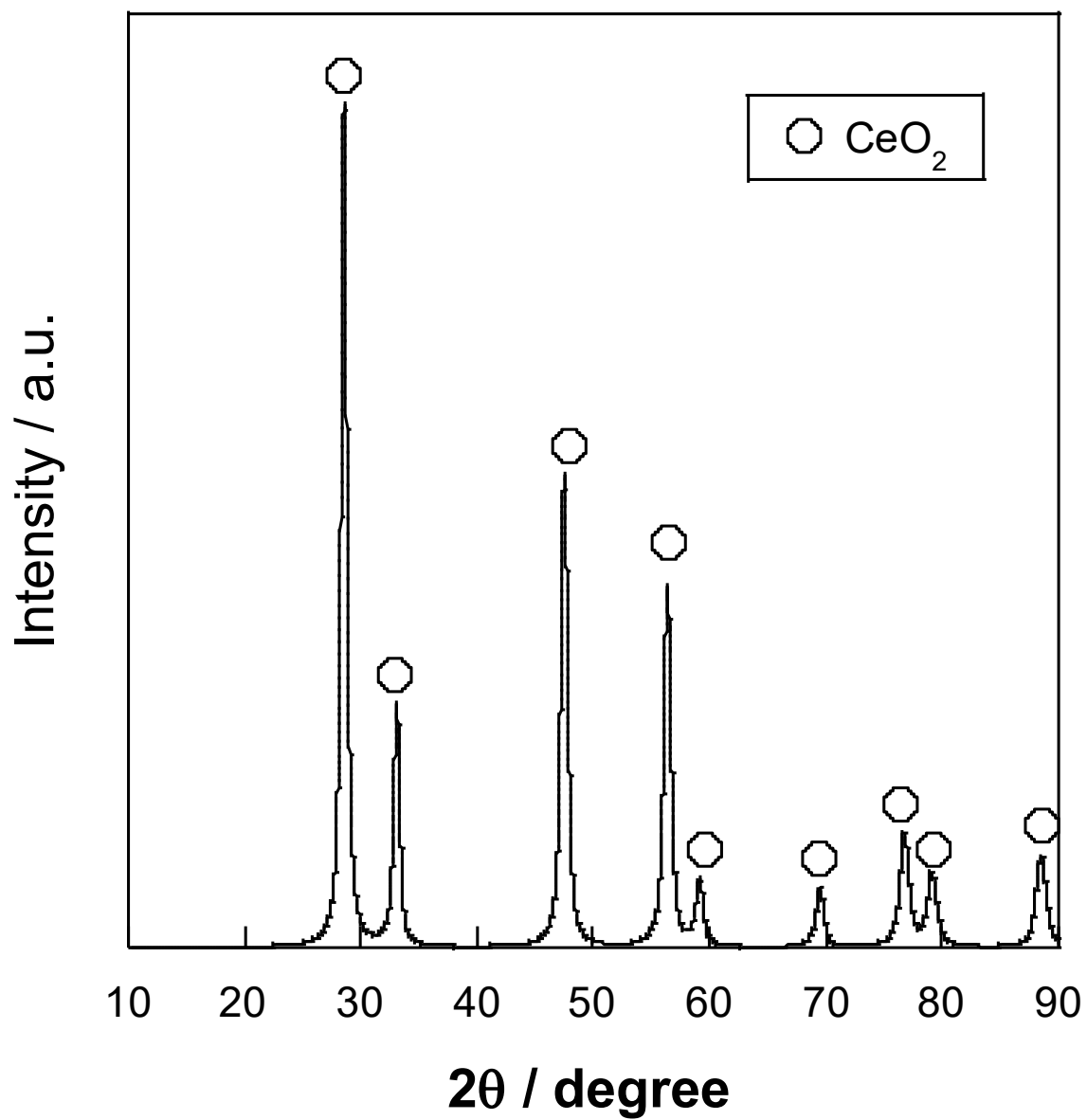


Figure A.2.3. XRD spectrum of CeO₂.

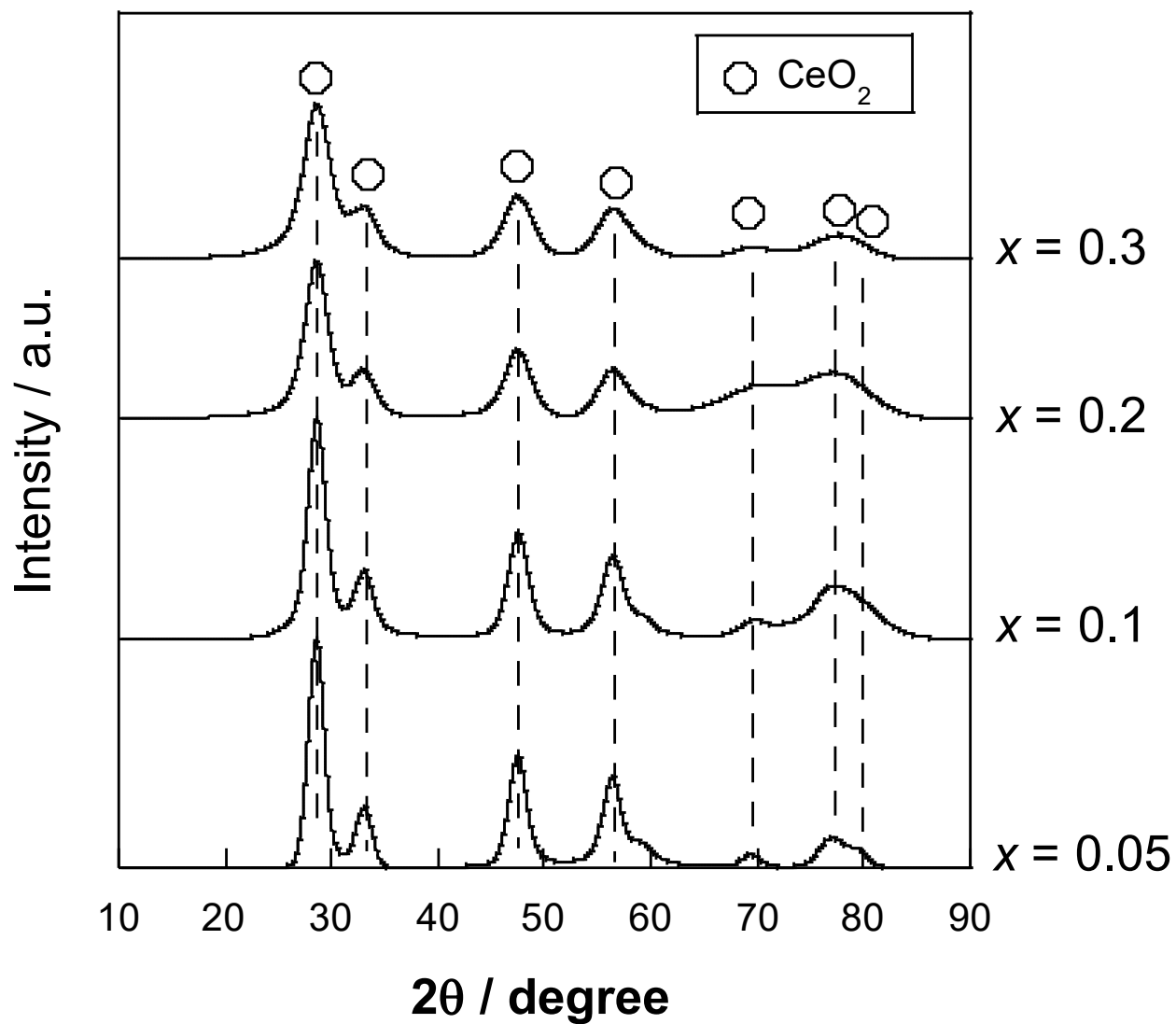


Figure A.2.4. XRD spectra of $\text{Ce}_{1-x}\text{Al}_x\text{O}_{2-\delta}$ ($x = 0.05, 0.1, 0.2, 0.3$).

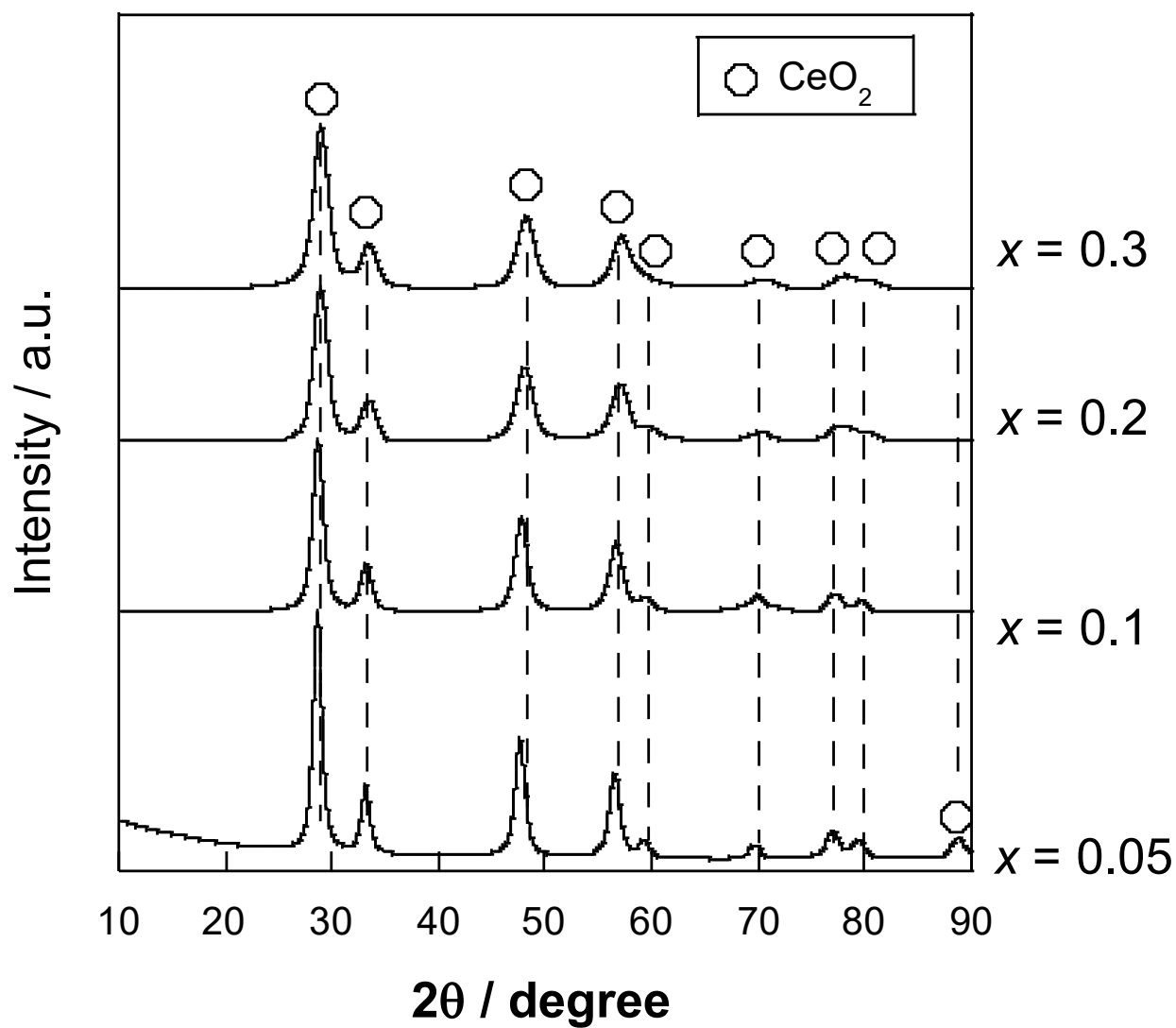


Figure A.2.5. XRD spectra of $\text{Ce}_{1-x}\text{Zr}_x\text{O}_{2-\delta}$ ($x = 0.05, 0.1, 0.2, 0.3$).

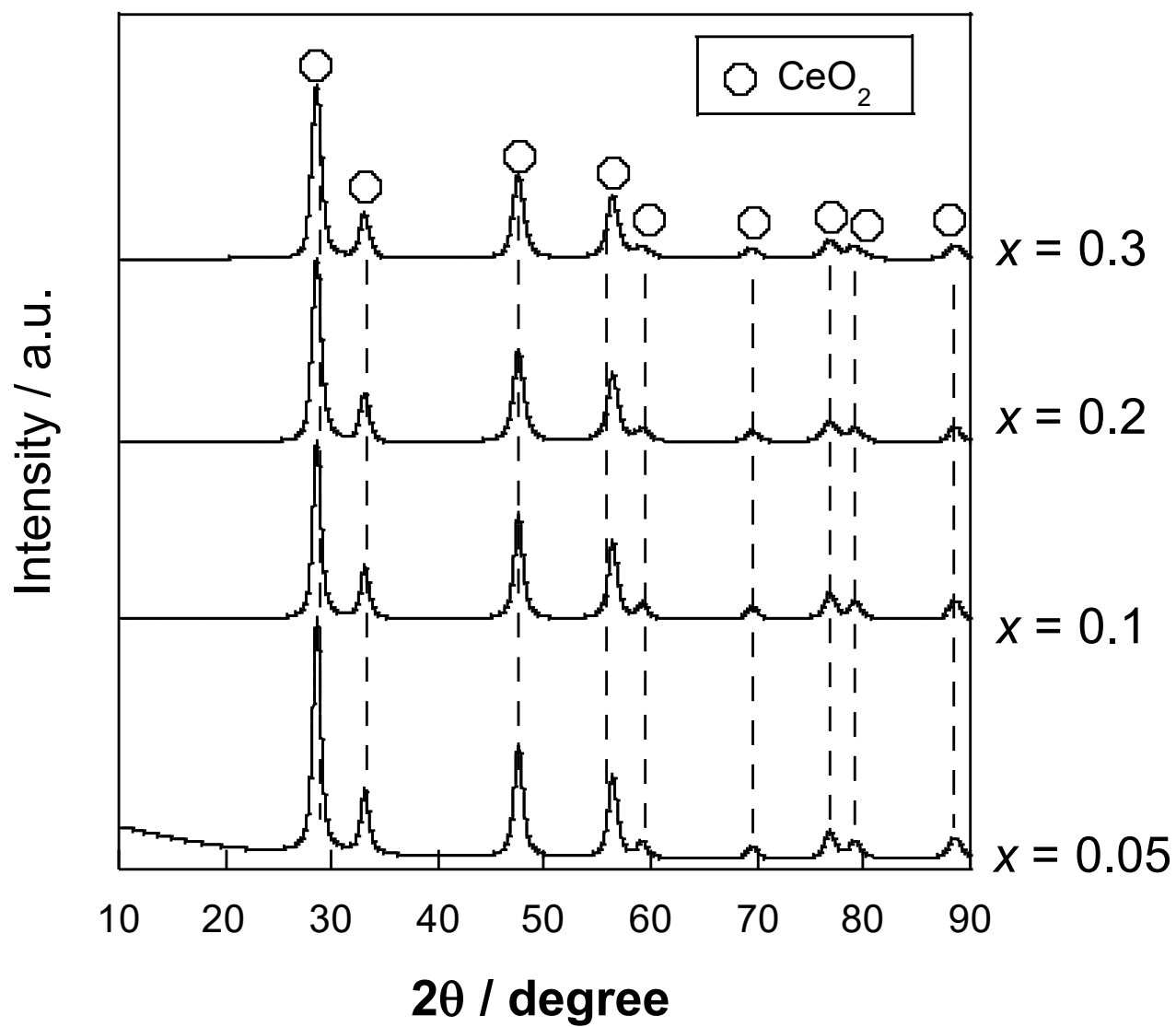


Figure A.2.6. XRD spectra of $\text{Ce}_{1-x}\text{Y}_x\text{O}_{2-\delta}$ ($x = 0.05, 0.1, 0.2, 0.3$).

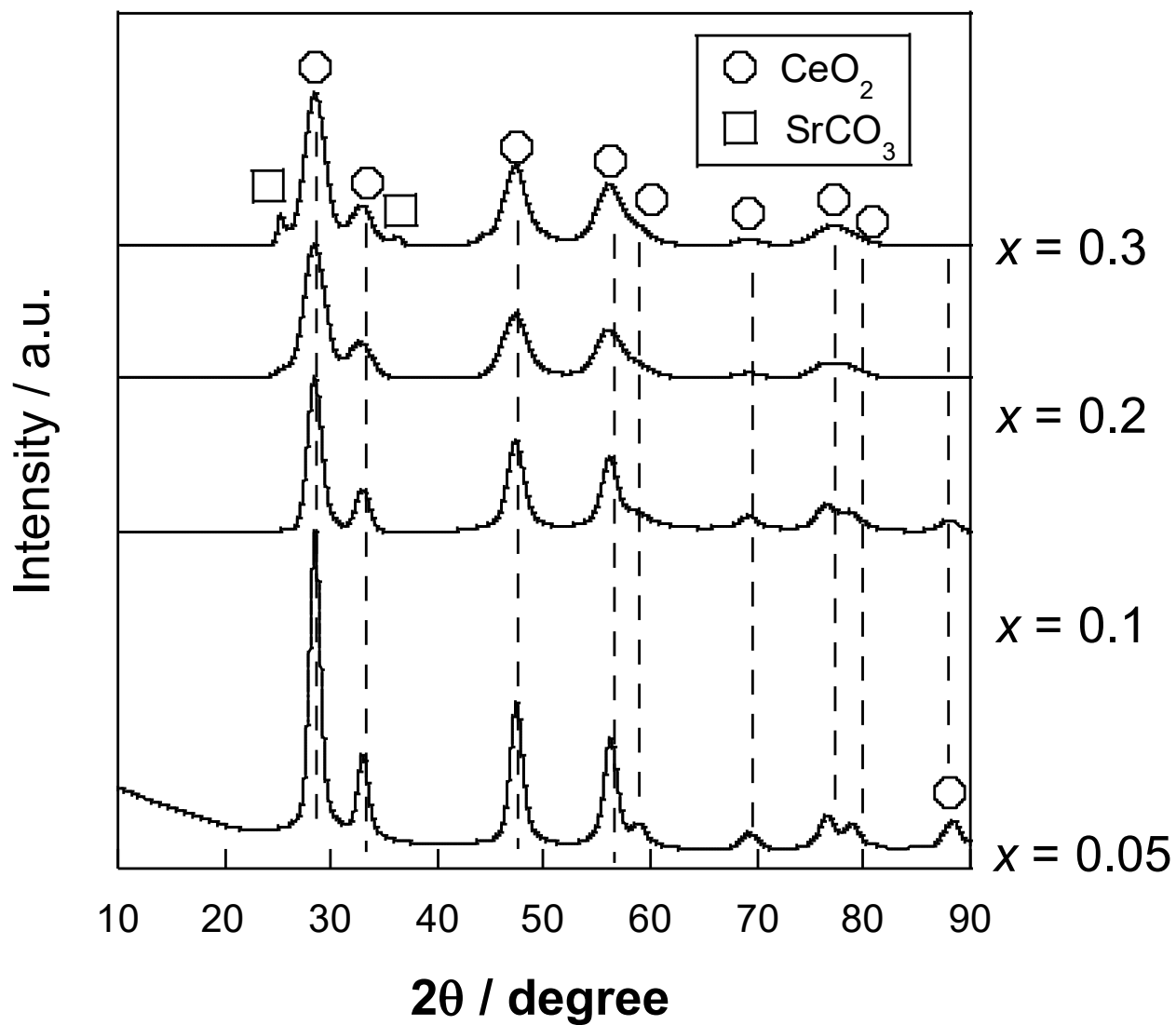


Figure A.2.7. XRD spectra of $\text{Ce}_{1-x}\text{Sr}_x\text{O}_{2-\delta}$ ($x = 0.05, 0.1, 0.2, 0.3$).

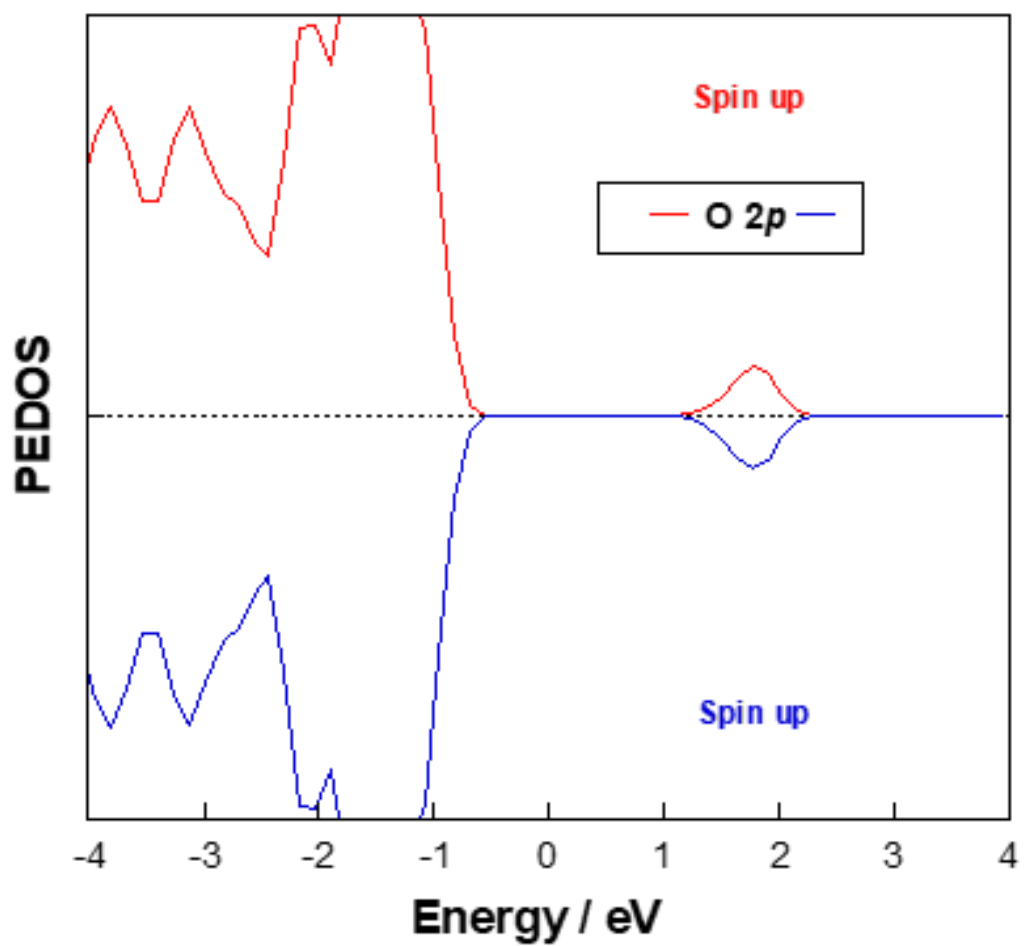


Figure A.2.8. PDOS of O 2p for CeO₂ (111) surface. Copyright 2020 AIP Publishing.

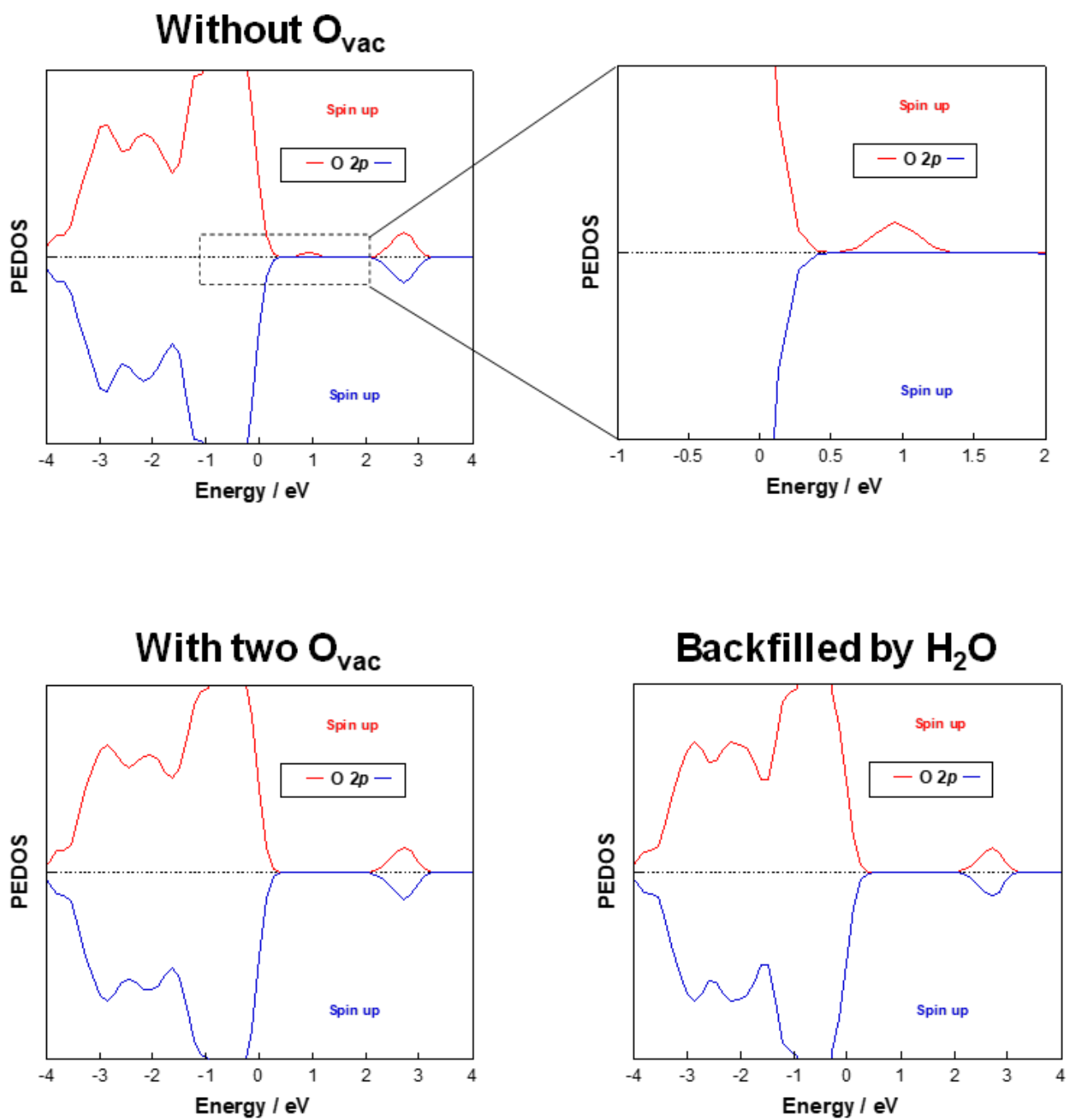


Figure A.2.9. PDOS of O 2p for Ba doped CeO₂ (111) surface. Copyright 2020 AIP Publishing.

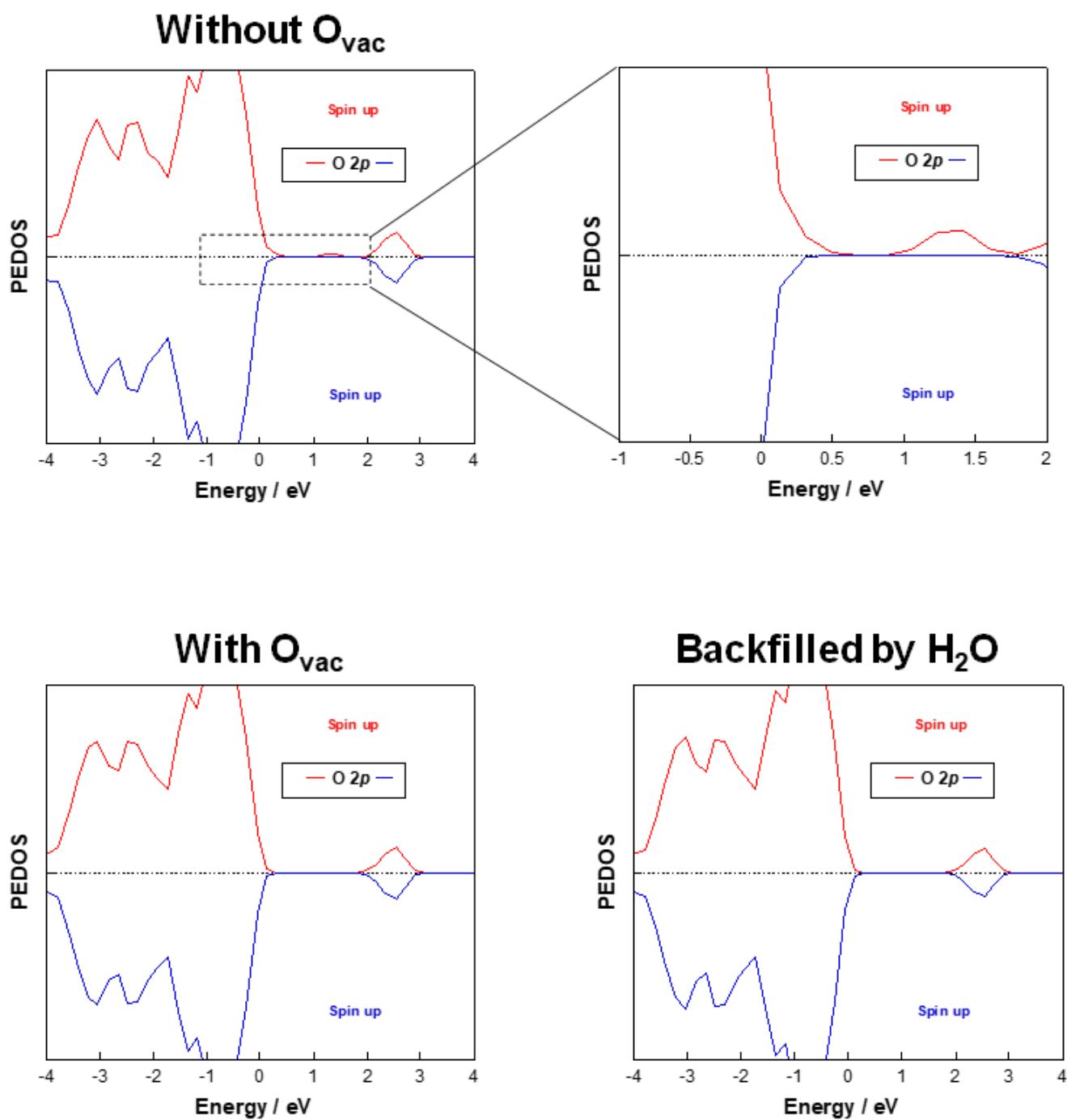
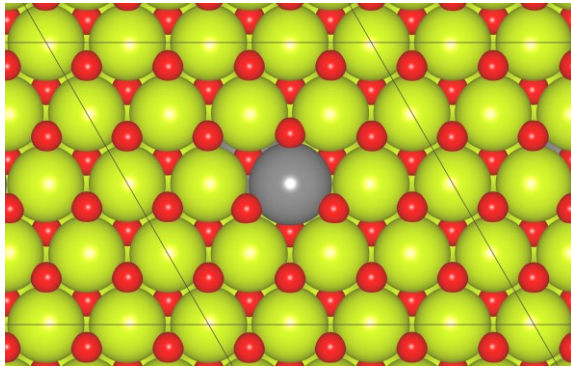


Figure A.2.10. PDOS of O 2p for Sc-doped CeO₂ (111) surface. Copyright 2020 AIP Publishing.

a)



b)

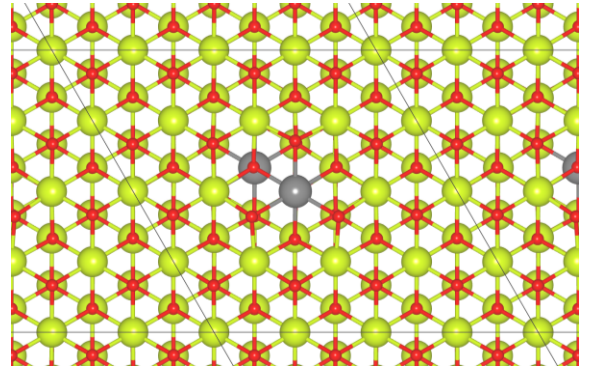
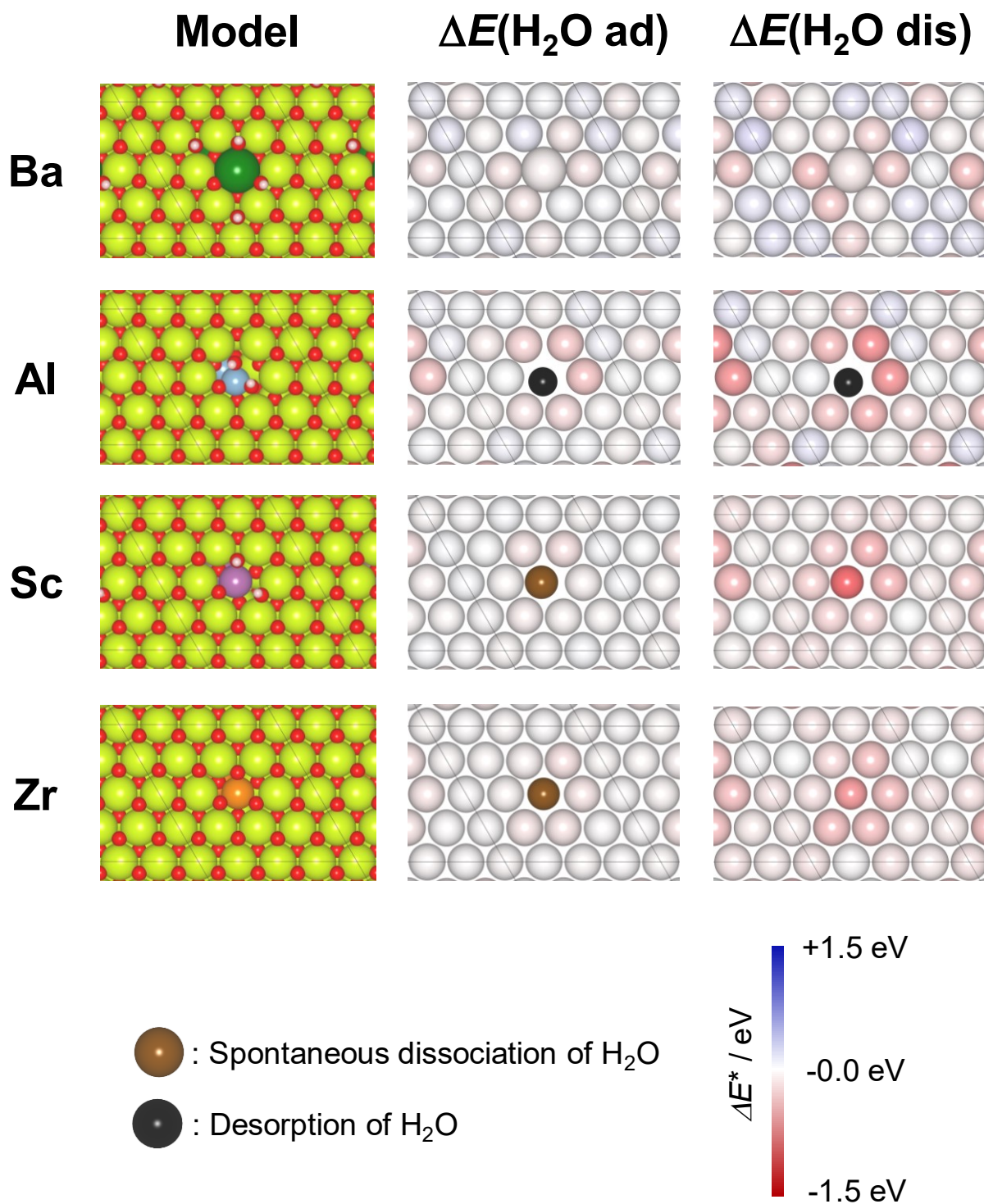


Figure A.2.11. The calculation model that contains at both surface and subsurface.: a) top view, b) top view described using small balls. Yellow ball means Ce, red stands for O, and gray shows heterocation. Copyright 2020 AIP Publishing.



* $E(\text{H}_2\text{O ad}) = -0.50 \text{ eV}$ or $E(\text{H}_2\text{O dis}) = -0.45 \text{ eV}$
over pure CeO₂ (111) was used as reference

Figure A.2.12. Energy map of the H₂O molecular and dissociative adsorption over calculation models shown in Figure A.2.11. The balls are colored along with the difference in the $E(\text{H}_2\text{O dis})$ over pristine CeO₂ (111). Red balls represent the stronger adsorption of H₂O. Blue balls show the opposite site. Brown and black balls meant that the H₂O spontaneous desorb over those sites. Copyright 2020 AIP Publishing.

Table A.2.1. The valence configuration used for DFT calculations.

Atom /-	Valence configuration /-
Al	$3s^23p^1$
Ba	$6s^2$
Ca	$4s^2$
Ce	$4f^15s^25p^65d^16s^2$
Ga	$3d^{10}4s^24p^1$
H	$1s^1$
La	$5s^25p^65d^16s^2$
O	$1s^22s^22p^5$
Sc	$3d^14s^2$
Sr	$5s^2$
Ti	$3d^24s^2$
Y	$4d^15s^2$
Zr	$4s^24p^64d^25s^2$

Table A.2.2. Precursors used for preparation of $Ce_{1-x}M_xO_{2-\delta}$.

Cation	Precursor
/ -	/ -
Sr	$Sr(NO_3)_2$
Al	$Al(NO_3)_3 \cdot 9H_2O$
Y	$Y(NO_3)_3 \cdot 6H_2O$
Zr	$ZrO(NO_3)_2 \cdot 2H_2O$
Ce	$Ce(NO_3)_3 \cdot 6H_2O$

Table A.2.3. The energy differences from the most stable heterocation arrangements with several amounts of $O_{\text{vac}}(n)$. The options of arrangements are shown in Figure A.2.2. The most stable configurations are shown in Figure 2.3. Copyright 2020 AIP Publishing.

Dopant / -	Amount of $O_{\text{vac}}(n)$ / -	Dopant arrangement / -	Energy difference from the most stable arrangement / eV
Ba	0	Surf1	0.40
		Surf2	0.00
		Surf3	0.29
	1	Surf1	0.44
		Surf2	0.00
		Surf3	0.25
	2	Surf1	0.47
		Surf2	0.00
		Surf3	0.09
Ga	0	Surf1	0.00
		Surf2	0.99
		Surf3	1.11
	1	Surf1	0.00
		Surf2	0.66
		Surf3	0.75
Sc	0	Surf1	0.00
		Surf2	0.62
		Surf3	0.67
	1	Surf1	0.00
		Surf2	0.52
		Surf3	0.63

Chapter 3 H atom–CeO₂ Interaction Control by Heterocation Doping

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3.1. Introduction

H atom adsorption and migration under H₂O and H₂ atmosphere is fundamentally important in the field of catalysis, as described in Chapter 1.^[1] Therefore, clear guidelines for controlling the amount and reactivity of H⁺ are necessary to facilitate the development of catalytic reactions related to hydroxy groups (OH).

Doping of heterocations into the metal oxides is a promising means of tuning catalyst performance. Reportedly, it can modify various features such as the redox properties^[2–10] and subtraction of H atom adsorption related to the cleavage of H–H, C–H, and O–H bond.^[11–13] Therefore, in-depth knowledge of heterocation-doping effects is critically important.

In Chapter 2, heterocation-doping effects on interaction between OH and CeO₂ have been considered under a H₂O atmosphere. Results suggest the importance of the ionic radii of heterocation. Herein, we specifically examined heterocation-doping effects on H atom interaction onto CeO₂-based compounds under H₂ atmosphere. Furthermore, we investigated the role of ionic radius and other factors which can be expected to control the interaction. To separate the conceivable heterocation-doping effects (*e.g.* electron transfer induced by heterocations, lattice strain induced by heterocations, lattice strain induced by adsorption) clearly, we applied DFT calculations with multiple flows.

3.2. Experimental

3.2.1. Computational details

We performed all DFT calculations for divalent (Ca, Sr, Ba), trivalent (Al, Ga, Sc, Y, La), and quadrivalent (Hf, Zr, Ti) heterocation-doped CeO₂ in the same conditions as those presented in chapter 2. All calculations were performed using software (VASP 5.4.4).^[14–17] Configurations of the valence electrons used for all calculations are presented in Table A.3.1. The PAW method including PBE was applied to expression of the core–valence effect.^[18] The cutoff energy was set as 400 eV. Spin polarization was considered. Regarding the *k*-space, 0.04 Å⁻¹ in Monkhorst–Pack

reciprocal space was used for bulk structures. Also, $(1 \times 1 \times 1)$ mesh was adopted for surface models.^[19] Gaussian smearing was used. The effects of van der Waals force were applied using the DFT-D3 method of Grimme.^[20] On-site Coulomb repulsion of Ce $4f$ orbitals was expressed using DFT + U method. The U value was set as 5.0 eV.^[13, 21–27]

A CeO₂ (111) surface was constructed as a repeated (4×4) supercell with O-Ce-O tri-layers. Each slab was separated by a 20 Å vacuum gap in the z -direction. Dopants were added by replacing two Ce at the uppermost surface. Unless otherwise noted, only the bottom O-Ce-O layer was fixed. H atoms were arranged on the top of the uttermost O_{lat}. Then the geometries were optimized. The calculated most-stable H atom arrangements are presented in Fig. A.3.1. Details of calculation flows are explained in section 3.3.1.

3.2.2. Sample preparation

We synthesized CeO₂ and Ce_{0.9}M_{0.1}O_{2- δ} (M: Zr, Al, Y, and Sr) using a complex polymerization method in the same manner as that described in Chapter 2. First, citric acid monohydrate and ethylene glycol were dissolved with stoichiometric precursors listed in Table A.2.2. The solution was stirred at 343 K overnight. After evaporation of solvents, the obtained powder was calcined at 773 K for 5 h.

3.2.3. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS)

We took XPS measurements (Versa Probe II; Ulvac-Phi Inc.) with Al K α used as an X-ray source. The spectrum was calibrated using C1s peaks assigned to C–H or C–C (284.8 eV). CeO₂ and Ce_{0.9}M_{0.1}O_{2- δ} (M: Zr, Al, Y, and Sr) were pre-reduced at 773 K for 1 h under N₂: H₂ = 1: 3 (total flow 240 SCCM). After reduction, the sample was transferred to the measurement system without being exposed to the atmosphere. The obtained peaks were fitted using Proctor–Sherwood–Shirley method.^[28, 29]

3.3. Results and discussion

3.3.1. Construction of heterocation-doped CeO₂ (111)

We examined the effects of heterocation doping in CeO₂ on the adsorption of H atoms. We used DFT calculation schemes of three types for a clear understanding of the governing factors which control the adsorption energies (Fig. 3.1). First, surfaces of two types (“Fix surface” and “Relax surface”) were constructed. “Relax surface” was constructed in the same way as that shown in part 2.3.1. In this chapter, H atom adsorption under H₂ atmosphere was considered. Therefore, surfaces without backfilling of O_{vac} by H₂O were used for subsequent calculations. The O_{vac} formation energies calculated using equation (2.1) are presented in Table A.3.2. Figure 3.2 portrays

the obtained “Relax surface”. The “Fix surface” was prepared using heterocations and O_{vac} positions of “Relax surface” as follows. First, using the optimized pristine CeO_2 (111), two of the outermost Ce were replaced by heterocations. Oxygen was removed for charge compensation (as for Al, peroxide ion was set). Later, only heterocation positions were optimized, whereas all other atoms were fixed. The optimized “Fix surface” is depicted in Fig. A.3.2. Next, adsorptions of three types were considered using the two surfaces described above (“Fix surface” and “Relax surface”). Those are denoted as “Fix 1 adsorption”, “Fix 2 adsorption”, and “Relax adsorption”. Regarding “Fix 1 adsorption”, H atom was arranged over “Fix surface.” Then, only adsorbed species were relaxed. Regarding “Fix 2 adsorption” and “Relax adsorption,” adsorbates were arranged over “Relax surface.” Then, only the positions of adsorbed species were optimized for “Fix 2 adsorption”. The surface (two O-Ce-O layers) was also relaxed for “Relax adsorption.” Comparing the adsorption energies of “Fix 1 adsorption” and “Fix 2 adsorption”, the charge difference between “Fix surface” and “Relax surface” induced by lattice strain by heterocations can be considered. Additionally, the difference of adsorption energies between “Fix 2 adsorption” and “Relax adsorption” results from the reconstruction of surfaces according to adsorbed species. The comparison sheds light on effects of lattice strain during adsorption.

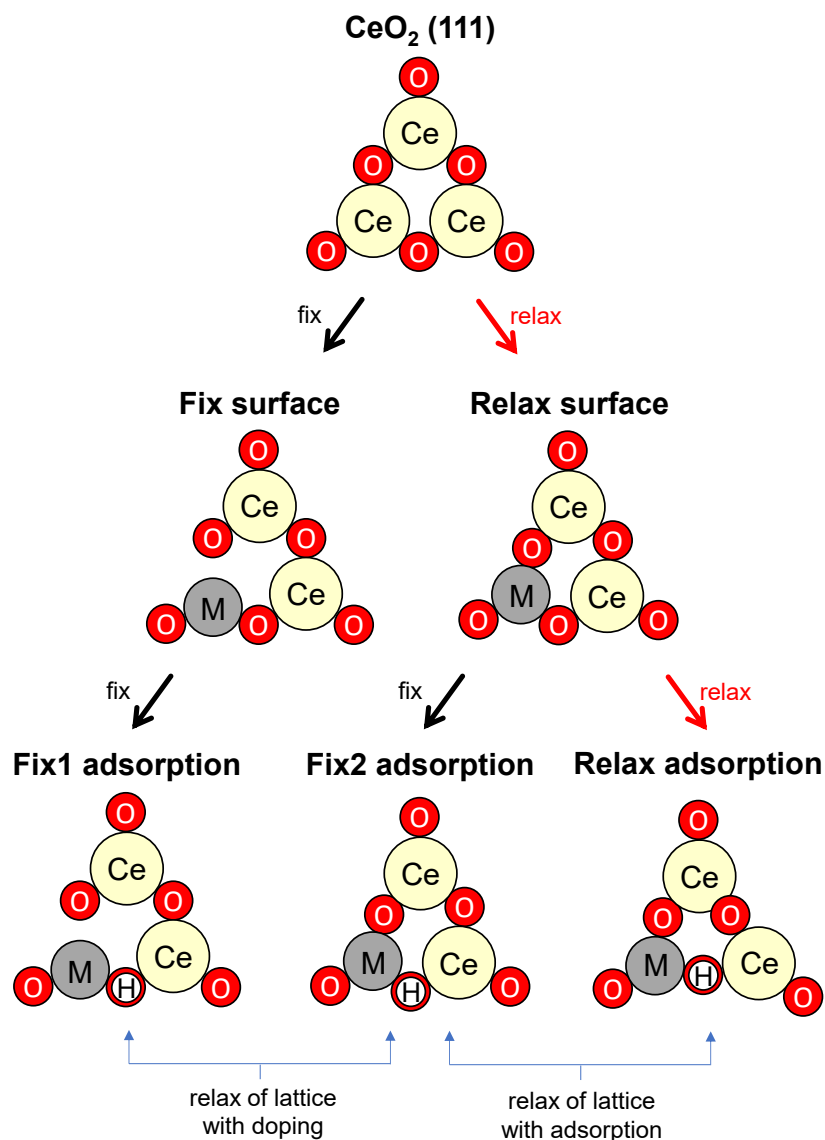


Figure 3.1. Flows of the DFT calculations. The notations "fix" and "relax" near the arrows indicate whether the atomic positions of the surface were relaxed during geometry optimization. In "Fix surface", only the position of heterocations were optimized. In "Relax surface", the Ce-O matrix was also optimized. "Fix surface" was applied to the calculation of "Fix1 adsorption". Then, only the position of H atom was optimized. "Relax surface" was applied to the calculation of "Fix2 adsorption" and "Relax adsorption". As for "Fix2 adsorption", only the position of H atom was optimized. The Ce-O matrix was also optimized for "Relax adsorption". Copyright 2021 RSC publishing.

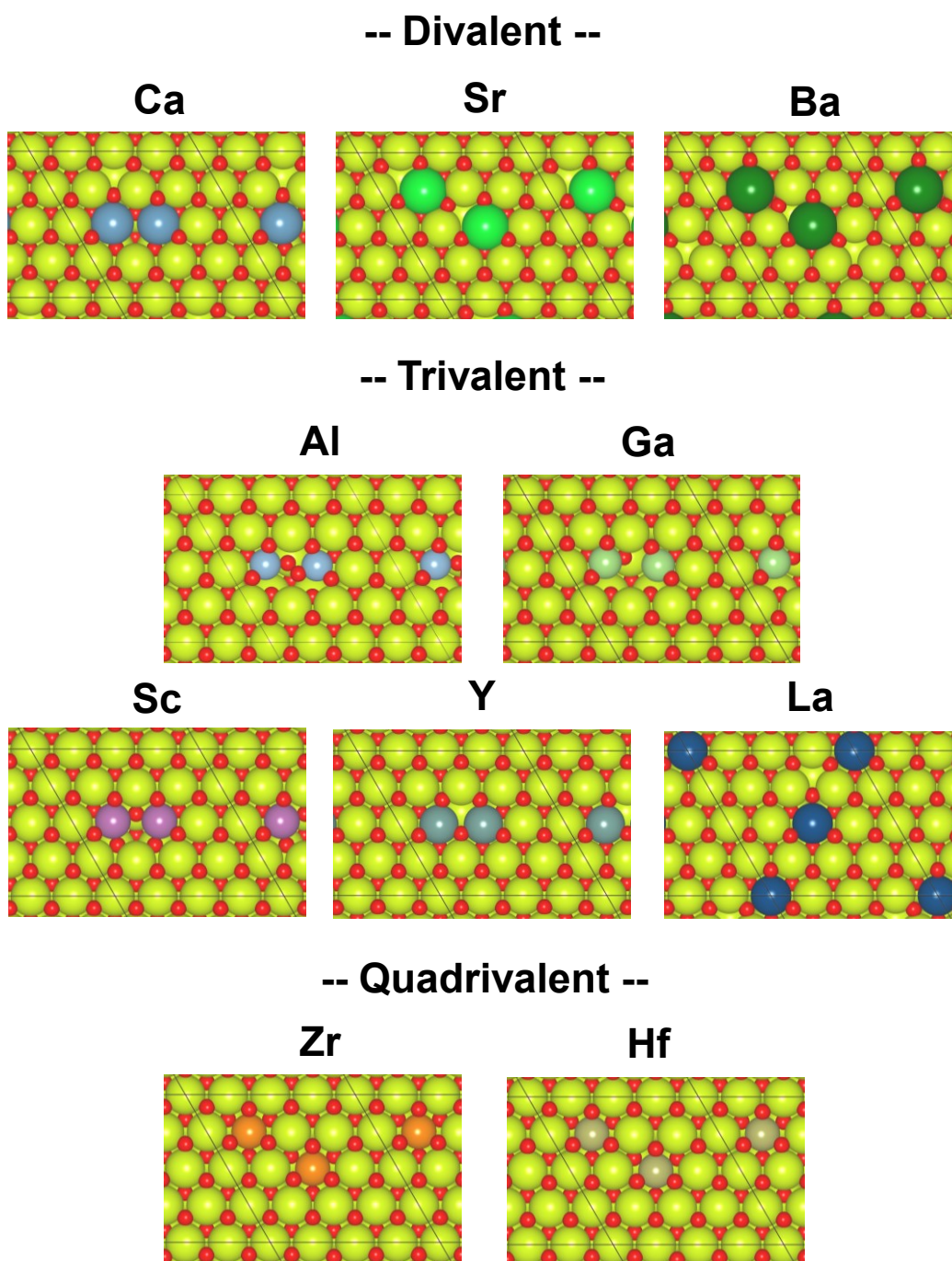


Figure 3.2. DFT-optimized CeO_2 (111) surfaces doped with heterocations considering O_{vac} formation for charge compensation. Yellow ball means Ce, red stands for O, and other colors show dopants. Copyright 2021 RSC publishing.

3.3.2. Heterocation-doping effects on H atoms adsorption over CeO₂ (111)

Reportedly, H atoms prefer to adsorb at surface oxygen. They exist as H⁺ over the CeO₂ surface. [30] The H atom adsorptions at all outermost lattice oxygens (O_{lat}) were evaluated for surfaces with dopants. Hereinafter, H atoms adsorbed over O_{lat} are denoted as O_{lat}-H⁺. Figure 3.3 presents box plots for H atom adsorption energies calculated through schemes shown in Fig. 3.1. Here, $E(H_{ad})$ stands for adsorption energies for “Relax adsorption”. $E(H_{ad_fix1})$ and $E(H_{ad_fix2})$ respectively represent adsorption energies related to “Fix 1 adsorption” and “Fix 2 adsorption”. All adsorption energies ($E(X_{ad})$) were defined as

$$\frac{E(X_{ad}) - E(H_2)}{2} = \frac{E(\text{slab with adsorbed species}) - E(\text{slab without adsorbed species})}{2} \quad (3.1)$$

where $E(\text{slab with adsorbed species})$ and $E(\text{slab without adsorbed species})$ respectively show energies of surfaces with and without adsorbed species. $E(H_2)$ shows the energies of gaseous H₂. The boxes were colored based on the dopant valences. The black plots signify the average values. In addition, the boxes are arranged based on the ionic radius. Regarding “Fix 1 adsorption” shown in Fig. 3.3 (a), O_{lat}-H⁺ was bound strongly by a surface with divalent heterocations. The second was trivalent. The third was quadrivalent heterocations. Reportedly, doping of heterocations with lower valences results in the formation of Lewis acid sites. [31, 32] The formation of Lewis acid sites was induced by the decrease in the electron donation from cations to O_{lat} when the original cations were replaced by less-valent cations. Because of the reasons described above, O_{lat}-H⁺ was bound strongly over a surface doped with lower valent heterocations related to “Fix 1 adsorption”. Evidently, this trend changed along with relaxation of two types. First is the lattice strain caused by heterocation doping corresponding to the “Fix 2 adsorption.” Second is the lattice strain induced by adsorption corresponding to “Relax adsorption.” The addition of heterocations with smaller ionic radii positively affected both “Fix 2 adsorption” and “Relax adsorption”. Regarding lattice distortion by heterocation doping, the Ce–O bond length is crucially important. Reportedly the electronic state of Ce cations in CeO₂ including O_{vac} depends on the Ce–O bond length. [33] Therefore, it can be inferred that the Ce–O expansion led to the formation of O_{lat} that is devoid of electrons. Conversely, the shrinkage of Ce–O bond induces the formation of electron-rich O_{lat}. The surface oxygen is assumed to be pushed away to the adjacent Ce by heterocation doping with larger cations. That pushing leads to shrinkage of the Ce–O bond as shown in Fig. A.3.3. This shrinkage allows the lattice distortions to overwrite the Lewis acidity induced by heterocations with lower valences. The smaller the ionic radius of the heterocation, the greater the degree to which the influence of Ce–O bond shrinkage diminishes. The changes in the O_{lat} charge because of the heterocation doping and lattice distortion are shown in Figs. A.3.4 – A.3.9. Even with introduction of smaller heterocations, some adsorption sites were found to be more unfavorable for adsorption than sites on pristine CeO₂ without lattice relaxation during adsorption, as shown in Fig. 3.3(b). It

is true because the lattice distortion by heterocation doping is complex. On surfaces doped with smaller heterocations, almost all sites bound the $O_{\text{lat}}\text{-H}^+$ more strongly than on the CeO_2 surface, regarding “Relax adsorption”. In contrast, doping with larger heterocations hindered the adsorption. This difference between “Fix 2 adsorption” and “Relax adsorption” sheds light on the positive effects of lattice flexibility facilitated by doping of heterocations with small ionic radii. Smaller cation addition makes a room for various relaxation patterns. Lattice distortion, which is necessary for adsorption, became energetically feasible by doping of heterocations with a small ionic radius. In addition, Y-doped and Ca-doped CeO_2 (111) bound $O_{\text{lat}}\text{-H}^+$ more strongly than CeO_2 , even though both ionic radii of dopants are larger than Ce. That strong binding indicates that the ionic radius is not the sole factor governing the adsorption energy. As elucidated in the consideration of “Fix 1 adsorption”, valences of dopants also play an important role in $O_{\text{lat}}\text{-H}^+$ adsorption.

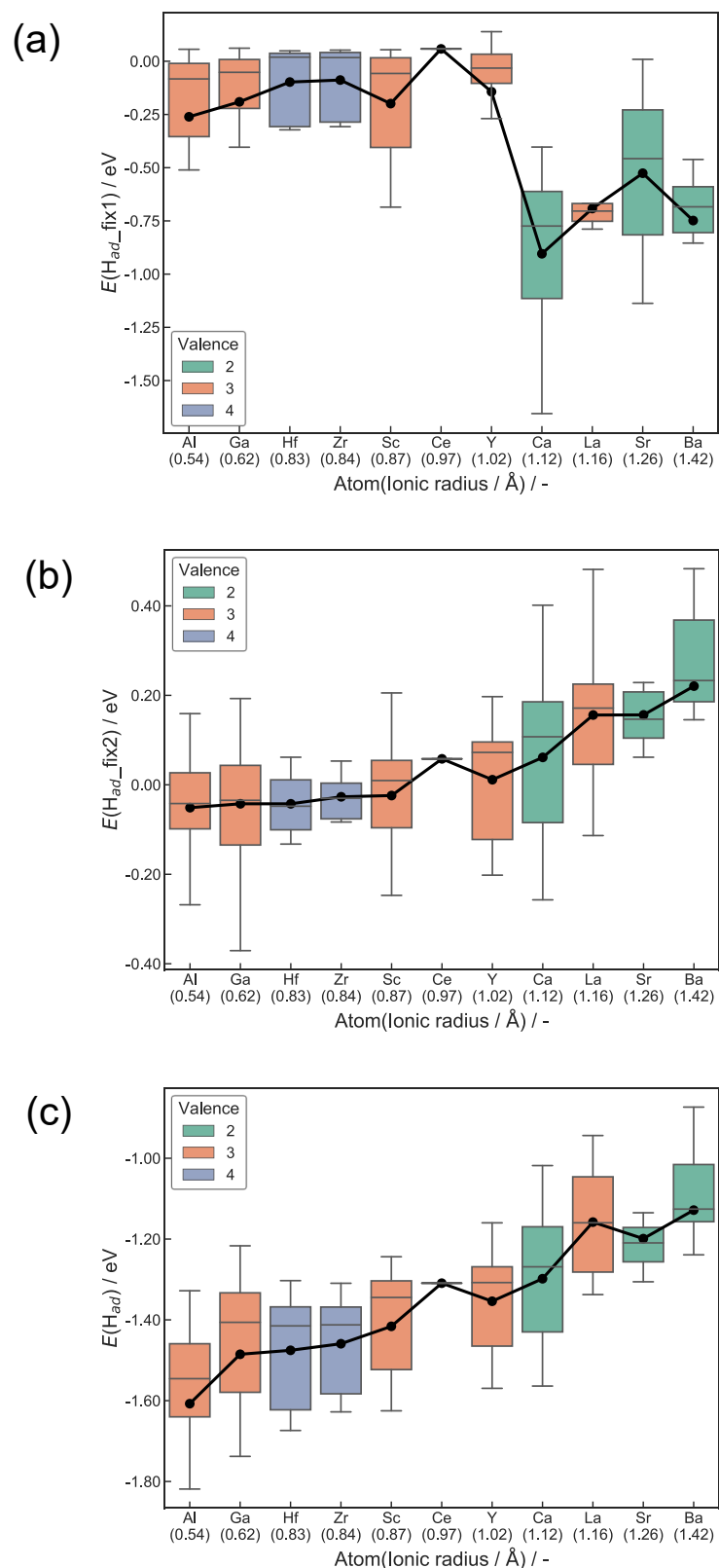


Figure 3.3. Box plots for the energies of H atom adsorption: (a) “Fix1 adsorption”, (b) “Fix2 adsorption”, and (c) “Relax adsorption”. Whisker length is limited to be 1.5 times of interquartile range. Black plots mean average values. Copyright 2021 RSC publishing.

3.3.3. Evaluation of OH amount using XPS

Heterocation-doping effects on $O_{\text{lat}}\text{-H}^+$ adsorption over CeO_2 -based materials were confirmed using XPS measurements. Figures 3.4 and 3.5 present the $O1s$ and $C1s$ spectra of pre-reduced CeO_2 and $\text{Ce}_{0.9}\text{M}_{0.1}\text{O}_{2-\delta}$ (M: Sr, Al, Y, and Zr). The differentiated spectrum showed that the $O1s$ and $C1s$ spectra can be decomposed into two and three peaks. The peaks at around 528 and 530 eV in $O1s$ spectrum are assignable respectively to O_{lat} and O-H or C-O or O-C=O .^[34-36] In addition, the peaks at around 285, 286, and 289 eV in $C1s$ spectrum are derived respectively from C-C or C-H , C-O , and O-C=O .^[34, 37] The OH ratio based on O_{lat} was calculated using the following equation.

$$\text{OH ratio} = \frac{(\text{Area of OH+C-O+O-C=O in } O1s \text{ spectra}) - \text{RSF}_{O1s}/\text{RSF}_{C1s}(\text{Area of C-O+O-C=O in } C1s \text{ spectra})}{(\text{Area of } O_{\text{lat}} \text{ in } O1s \text{ spectra})} \quad (3.2)$$

The relative sensitivity factor RSF_x ($x = O1s, C1s$) was confirmed by Ulvac-Phi Inc. for each measurement device. The calculated OH ratio describes the amount of $O_{\text{lat}}\text{-H}^+$ over CeO_2 -based materials after reduction under H_2 . A higher OH ratio represents strong binding of $O_{\text{lat}}\text{-H}^+$. Figure 3.6 represents the relation between the OH ratio obtained from XPS measurements and averages of DFT-obtained $E(\text{H}_{\text{ad}})$. Results confirmed clear correlation between DFT calculated values and experimental values. This strong correlation demonstrated the validity of the trend in the adsorption energy of hydrogen atoms suggested by DFT calculations.

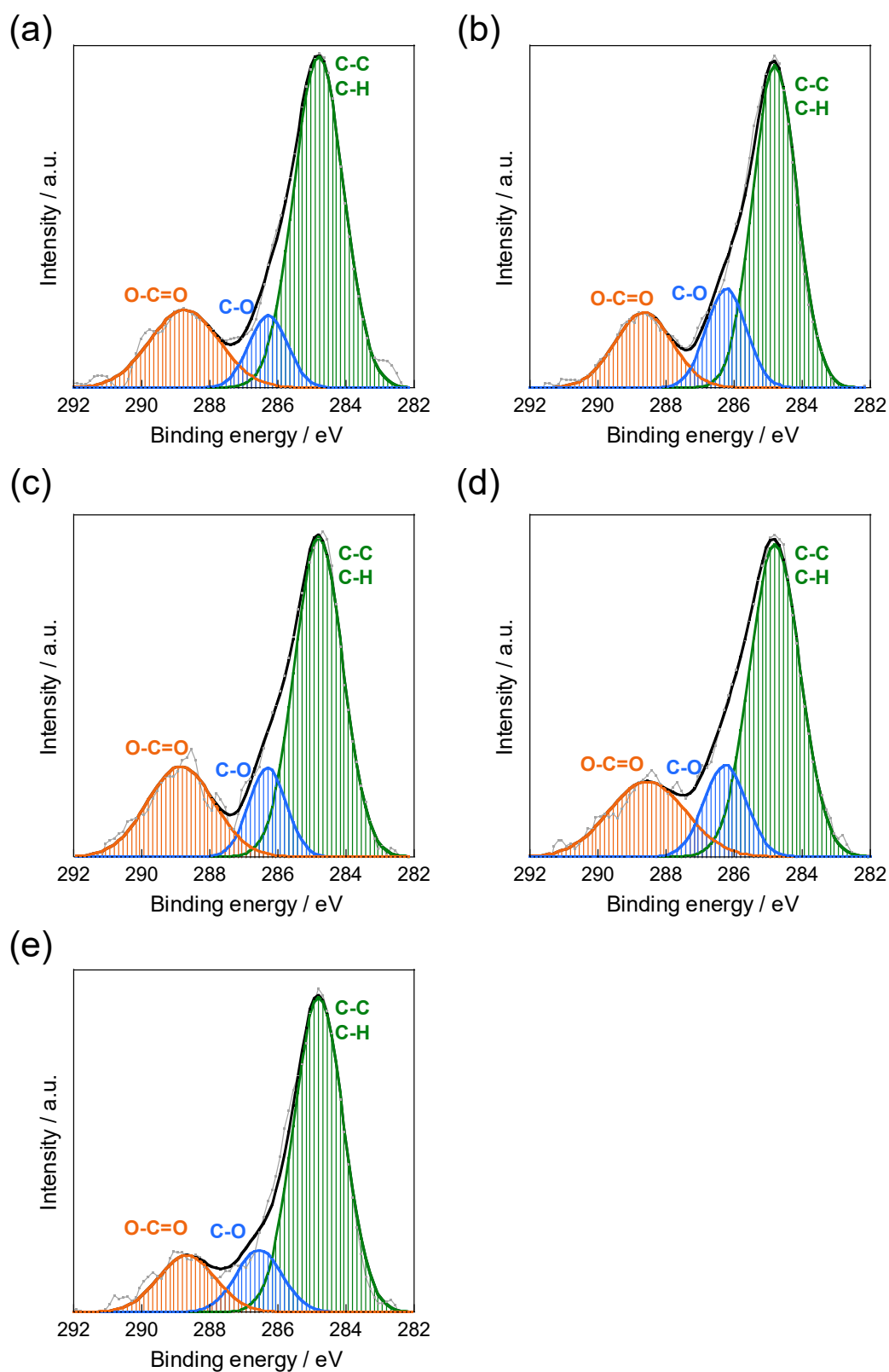


Figure 3.4. X-ray photoelectron spectra of C 1s after reduction under H₂ at 773 K for 1 h: (a) CeO₂, (b) Ce_{0.9}Sr_{0.1}O_{2- δ} , (c) Ce_{0.9}Al_{0.1}O_{2- δ} , (d) Ce_{0.9}Y_{0.1}O_{2- δ} , and (e) Ce_{0.9}Zr_{0.1}O_{2- δ} . Copyright 2021 RSC publishing.

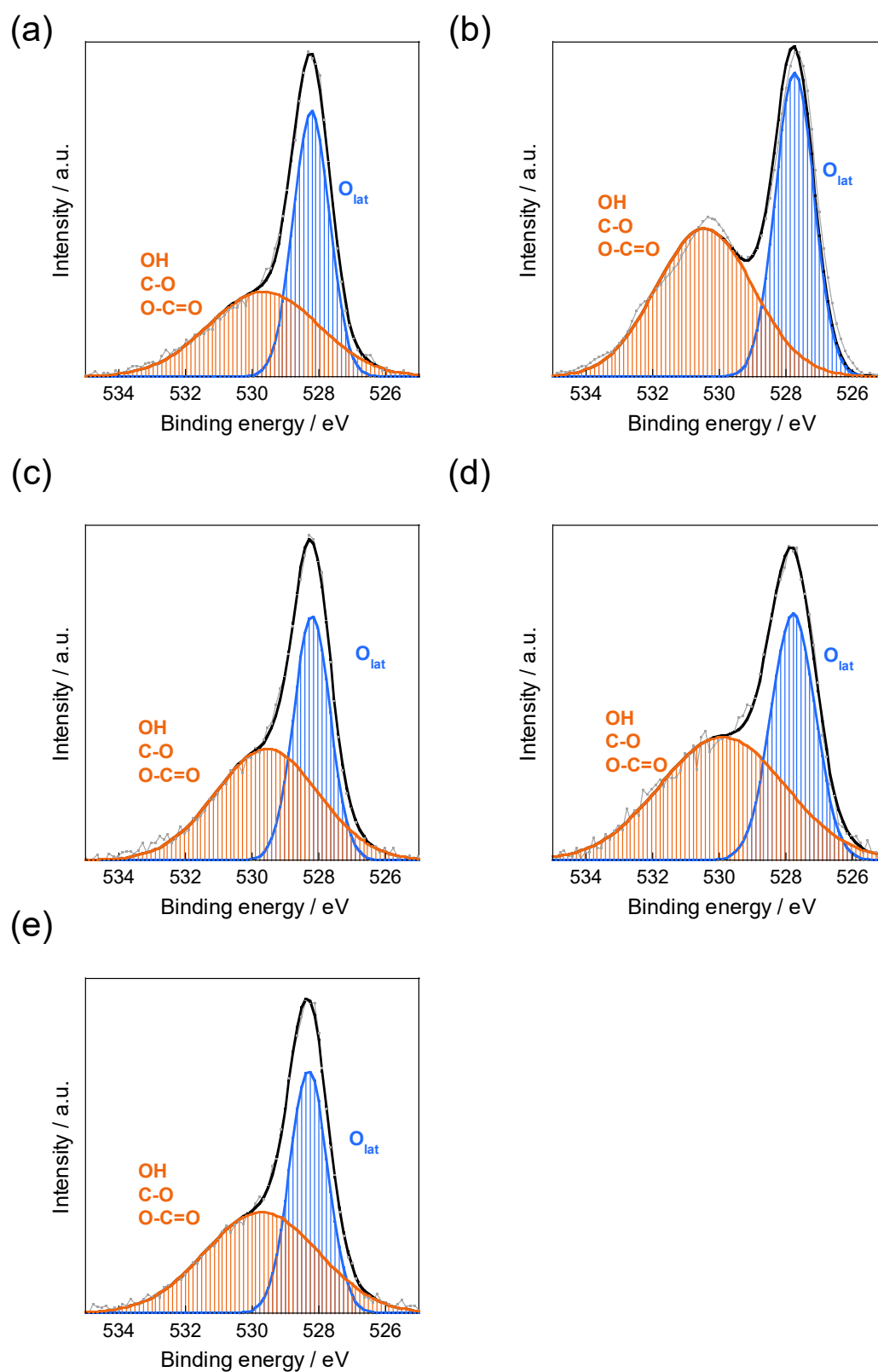


Figure 3.5. X-ray photoelectron spectra of O 1s after reduction under H₂ at 773 K for 1 h: (a) CeO₂, (b) Ce_{0.9}Sr_{0.1}O_{2-δ}, (c) Ce_{0.9}Al_{0.1}O_{2-δ}, (d) Ce_{0.9}Y_{0.1}O_{2-δ}, and (e) Ce_{0.9}Zr_{0.1}O_{2-δ}. Copyright 2021 RSC publishing.

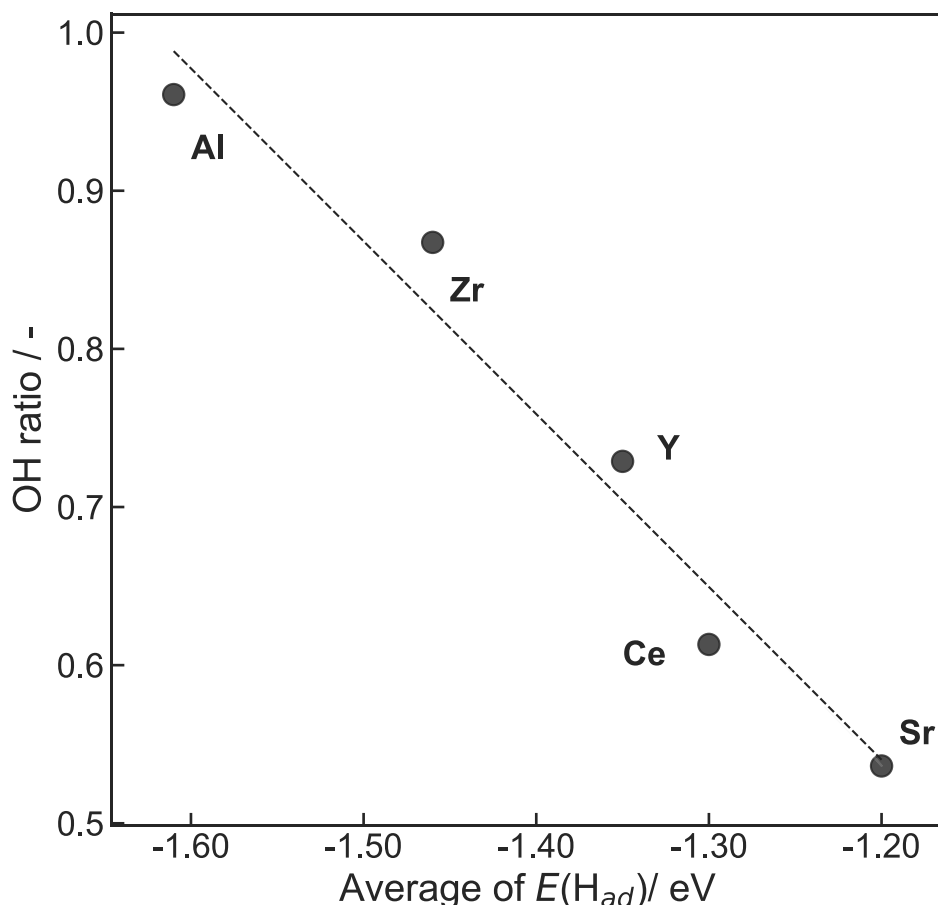


Figure 3.6. Correlation between OH ratio and average of DFT-calculated $E(H_{ad})$. Copyright 2021 RSC publishing.

3.4. Chapter Conclusion

Heterocation-doping effects on H atom adsorption over CeO_2 were elucidated. We performed DFT calculations with multiple flows (“Fix 1 adsorption”, “Fix 2 adsorption”, and “Relax adsorption”) and elucidated the separate influences of valence and ionic radius. The electron-depleted O_{lat} and the flexibility of the lattice play important roles for the strong adsorption of $O_{lat}-H^+$. Electron-depleted O_{lat} can be formed by doping of heterocations with lower valences and smaller ionic radii. Additionally, doping with smaller heterocations induced high flexibility of CeO_2 matrix. The DFT suggestion was confirmed from XPS measurements. Results experimentally elucidated that $O_{lat}-H^+$ strongly adsorbed over surfaces doped with heterocations that have lower valence and a smaller ionic radius.

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Appendix of Chapter 3

A.3.1. Bader charge analysis of O_{lat}

Bader charge analysis ^[1-4] was performed for investigating the heterocation-doping effects on electronic state of O_{lat} . “Fix surface” and “Relax surface” were used as calculation models. The heterocation-doping effect is different between the O_{lat} coordinated to the dopants and the other O_{lat} as shown in the former chapter. Therefore, the obtained Bader charges were divided into the charges of the surface O_{lat} coordinated only to Ce (Figure A.3.4) and the charge of the surface O_{lat} coordinated to the dopant (Figure A.3.5). As for surface O_{lat} coordinated to only Ce, doping with lower valent heterocations induced the decrease in the Bader charge of O_{lat} as for “Fix surface”, see Figure A.3.4 (a). This decrement suggests the formation of Lewis acid sites by doping of lower valent heterocations. The Lewis acidity becomes pronounced along with the increase in the ionic radius of heterocations. This is caused by the high dispersion of heterocations with larger ionic radius. Some of the Lewis acid sites were supplied electron by lattice relaxation (Figure A.3.4 (b)). The difference in charge between the “Relax surface” and “Fix surface” is presented in Figure A.3.4 (c). The charge transfer became large as the ionic radius of heterocations increased. This is because larger heterocation-doping makes the surrounding Ce-O bonds to contract as shown Figure A.3.3. When O_{lat} was next to dopants, the surface doped with Al, Ga, and Y exhibited a quite different trend from that of the O_{lat} coordinated only to Ce (Figure A.3.5). It suggests that the electronic state of O_{lat} changes significantly when two dopants are adjacent to each other. Comparing Figure 3.2 and Figure A.3.2, the coordination status of O_{lat} around dopants changed significantly as the ionic radius of the heterocations became small remarkably. Hence, significant electron transfer was confirmed for doping of heterocations with small ionic radii (Figure A.3.5 (c)). The obtained Bader charges of all outermost O_{lat} were also summarized in Figure A.3.6. The change of oxygen Bader charge by heterocation-doping were drawn in Figures A.3.7-A.3.9. Only outermost oxygen was drawn as balls. The transparent triangles stand for the planes including O_{lat} and outermost cations. The color of balls means the difference of Bader charge by heterocation doping using the charge of CeO_2 as a reference. Red sites show the electron rich oxygen, and blue sites stand for the electron deficient oxygen. The limit of color scale was set to be $\pm 0.1 e$ for increasing the color contrast. When two heterocations are placed next to each other, the electronic state changes significantly even after lattice relaxation as shown in color maps. Results suggest that the distribution of dopants affects the electronic state of O_{lat} .

A.3.2. Reducible heterocation-doping effects

The role of reducibility in heterocation-doping effects was studied using Ti as a model dopant. DFT calculations were performed in the same way as shown in part 3.3.1. Figure A.3.5. portrays the optimized surface (“Relax surface”). The calculated results were inserted in Figure

3.3 as shown in Figure A.3.6. Doping with Ti significantly facilitated the adsorption of $O_{\text{lat}}\text{-H}^+$. In particular, the strongest adsorption of H atom was confirmed on surfaces doped with Ti regarding “Fix2 adsorption”. Ti^{4+} is known to be reduced into Ti^{3+} easily. Therefore, it was suggested that Ti^{4+} functioned as an electron reservoir and strongly promoted $O_{\text{lat}}\text{-H}^+$ adsorption.

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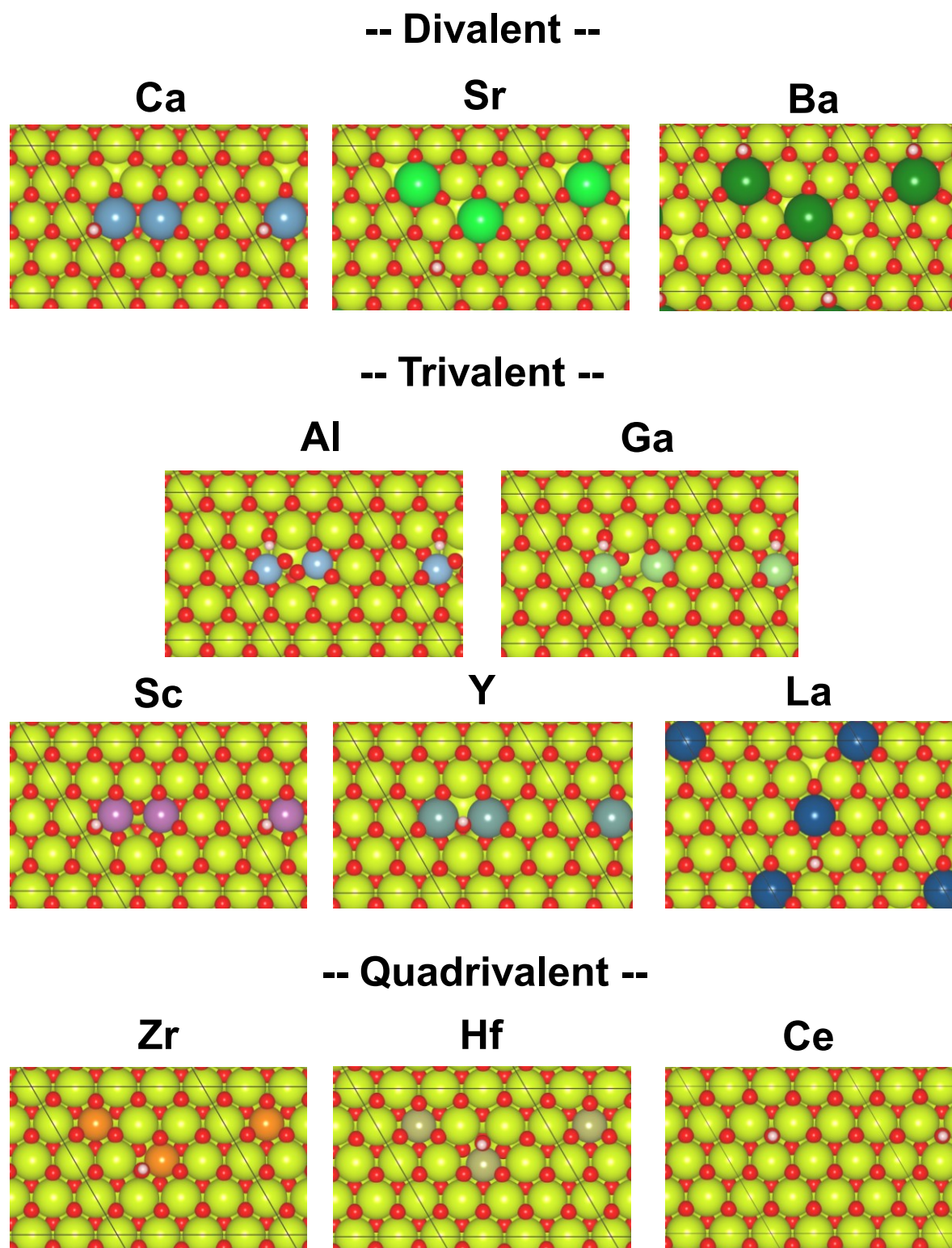


Figure A.3.1. DFT-optimized structures of $Ce_xM_{1-x}O_{2-\delta}$ (111) with H atom (“Relax adsorption” in Figure 3.1). Yellow ball means Ce, red stands for O, pink is H, and other colors show heterocations. Copyright 2021 RSC publishing.

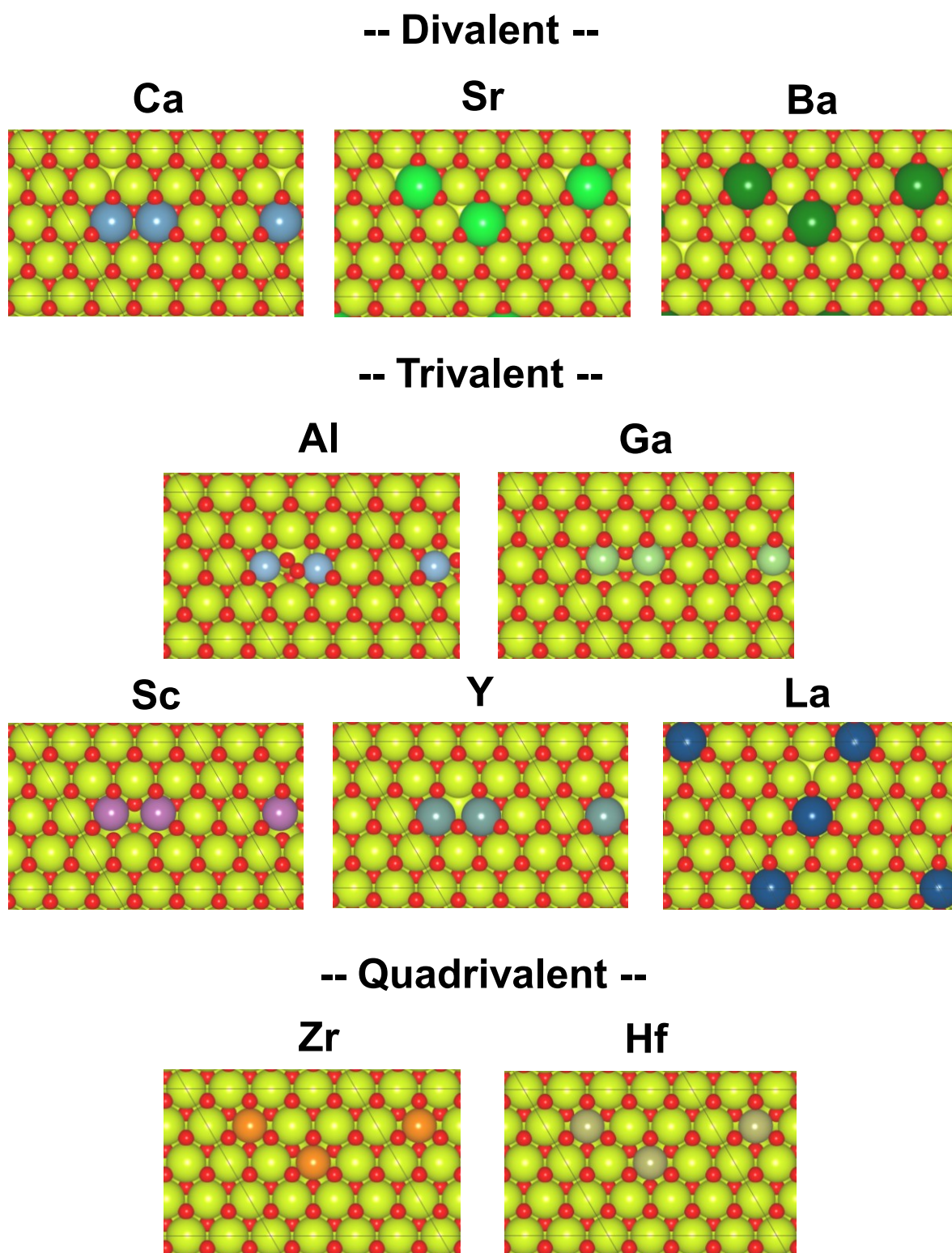


Figure A.3.2. DFT-optimized structures of $Ce_xM_{1-x}O_{2-\delta}$ (111) with O_{vac} for charge compensation (“Fix surface” in Figure 3.1). Yellow ball means Ce, red stands for O, and other colors show heterocations. Copyright 2021 RSC publishing.

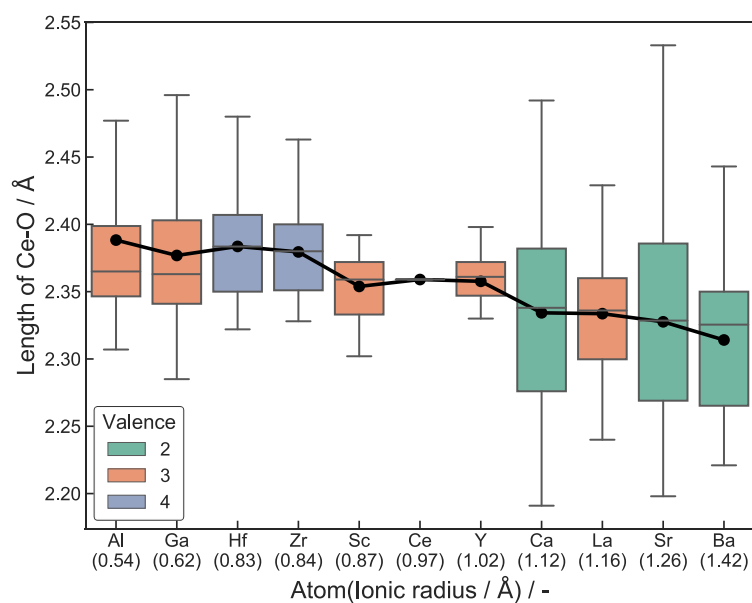


Figure A.3.3. Box plots for the Ce-O length at the outermost surface of “Relax surface”. Whisker length is limited to be 1.5 times of interquartile range. Black plots mean average values. Copyright 2021 RSC publishing.

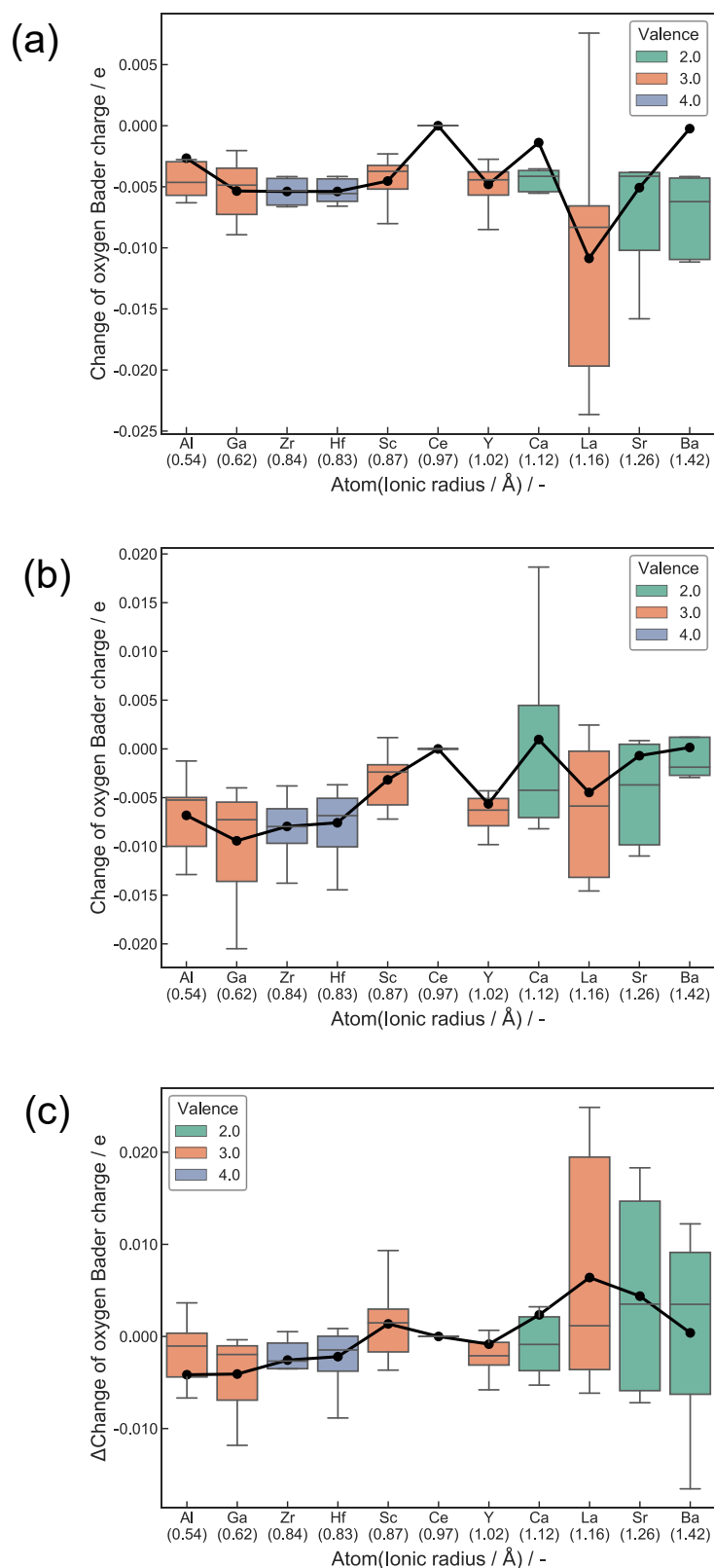


Figure A.3.4. Box plots for the difference in Bader charges of outermost surface O_{lat} next to only Ce. The charge of CeO_2 (111) was used as a reference value. (a) “Fix surface”, (b) “Relax surface”, and (c) difference between “Relax surface” and “Fix surface”. Whisker length is limited to be 1.5 times of interquartile range. Black plots mean average values. Copyright 2021 RSC publishing.

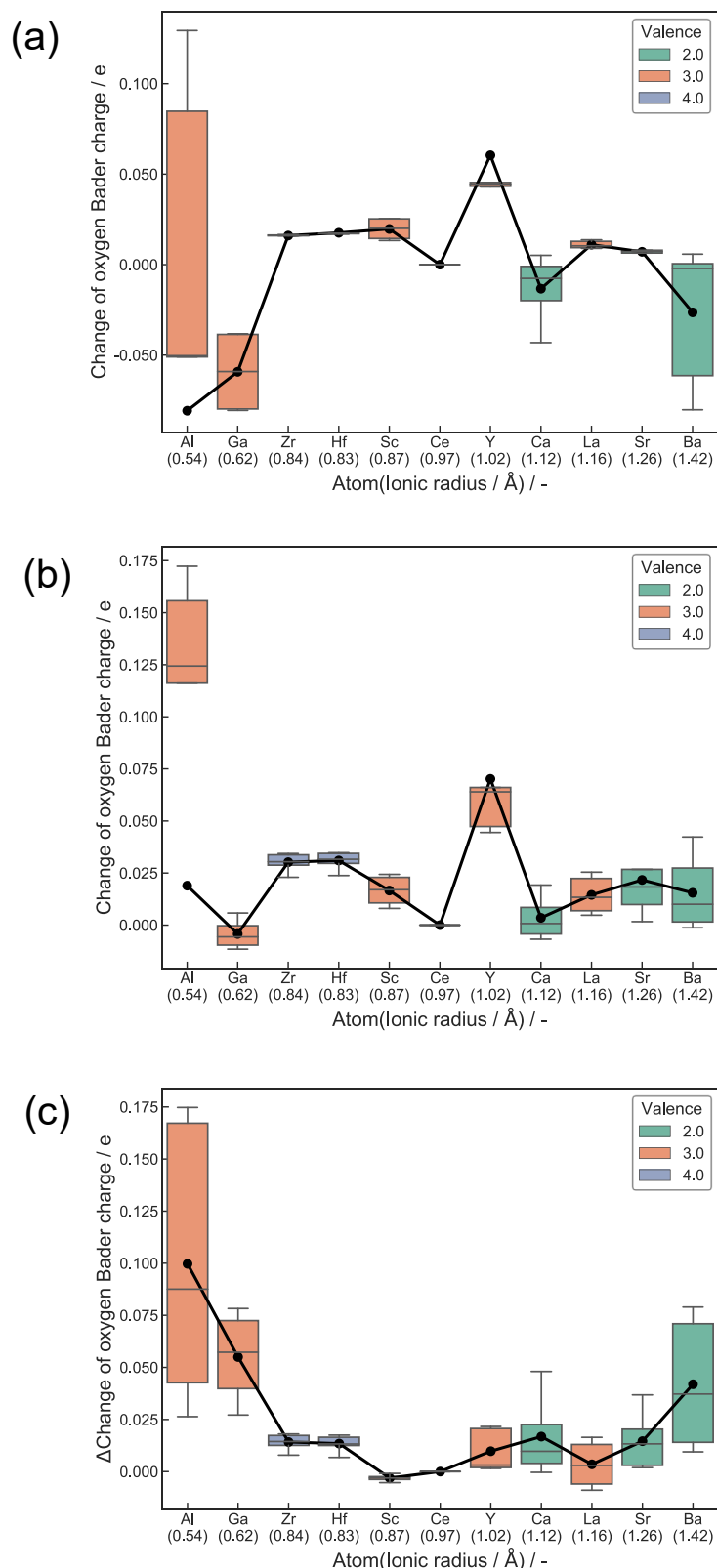


Figure A.3.5. Box plots for the difference in Bader charges of outermost surface O_{lat} next to dopants. The charge of CeO_2 (111) was used as a reference value. (a) “Fix surface”, (b) “Relax surface”, and (c) difference between “Relax surface” and “Fix surface”. Whisker length is limited to be 1.5 times of interquartile range. Black plots mean average values. Copyright 2021 RSC publishing.

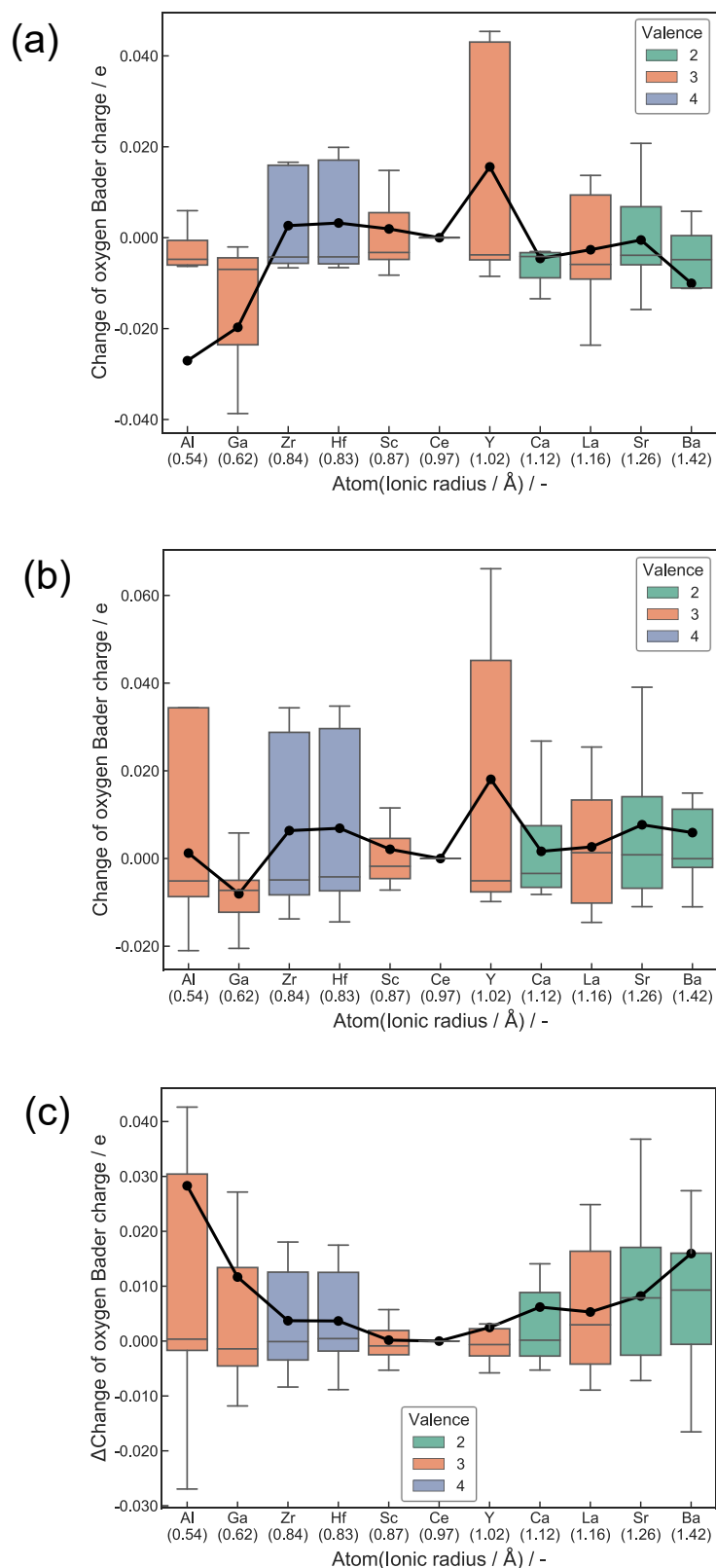


Figure A.3.6. Box plots for the difference in Bader charges of all outermost surface O_{lat} . The charge of CeO_2 (111) was used as a reference value. (a) “Fix surface”, (b) “Relax surface”, and (c) difference between “Relax surface” and “Fix surface”. Whisker length is limited to be 1.5 times of interquartile range. Black plots mean average values. Copyright 2021 RSC publishing.

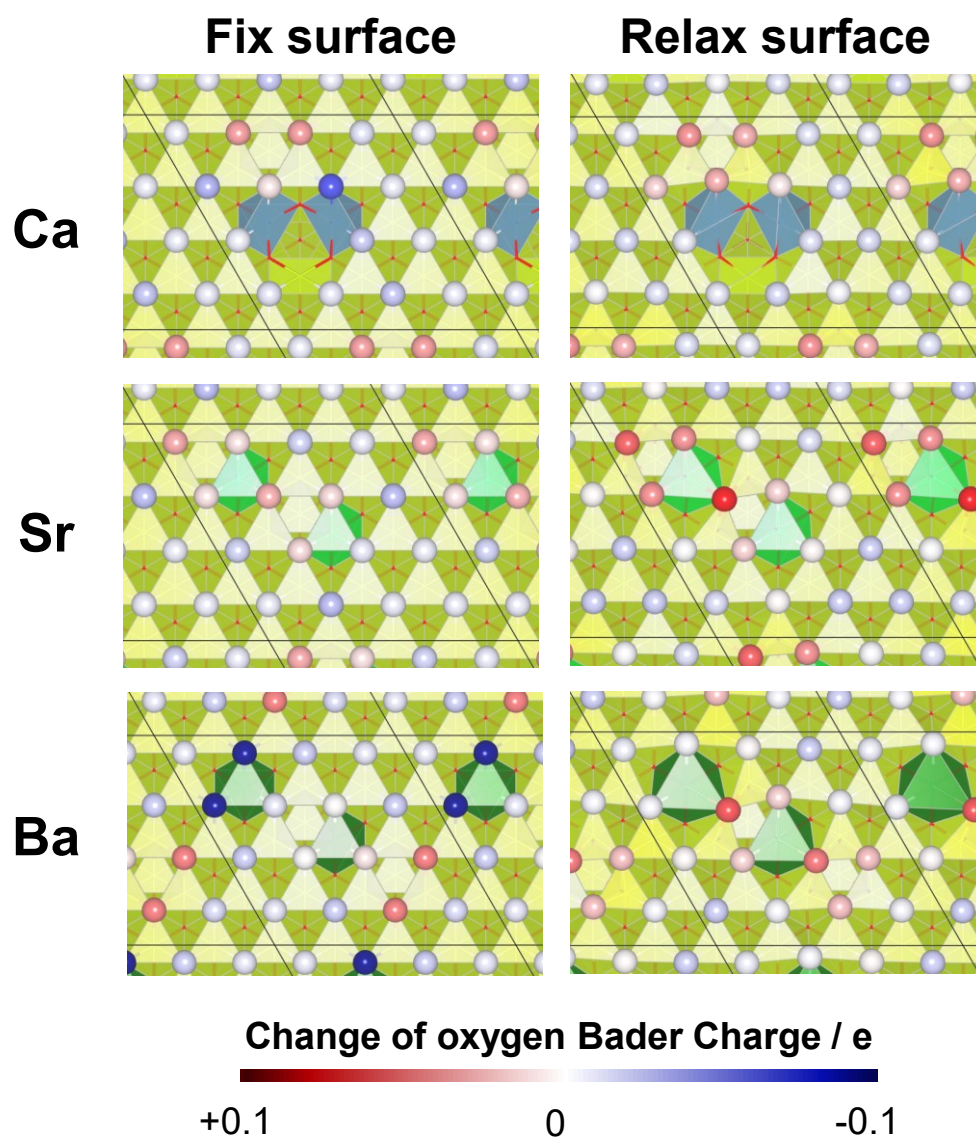


Figure A.3.7. Color maps for change of outermost oxygen charge by divalent heterocation-doping using CeO_2 (111) as a reference value. Left panel shows data of “Fix surface”, and right panel is “Relax surface”. Red balls indicate the electron rich oxygen, and blue balls show the electron deficient oxygen. Copyright 2021 RSC publishing.

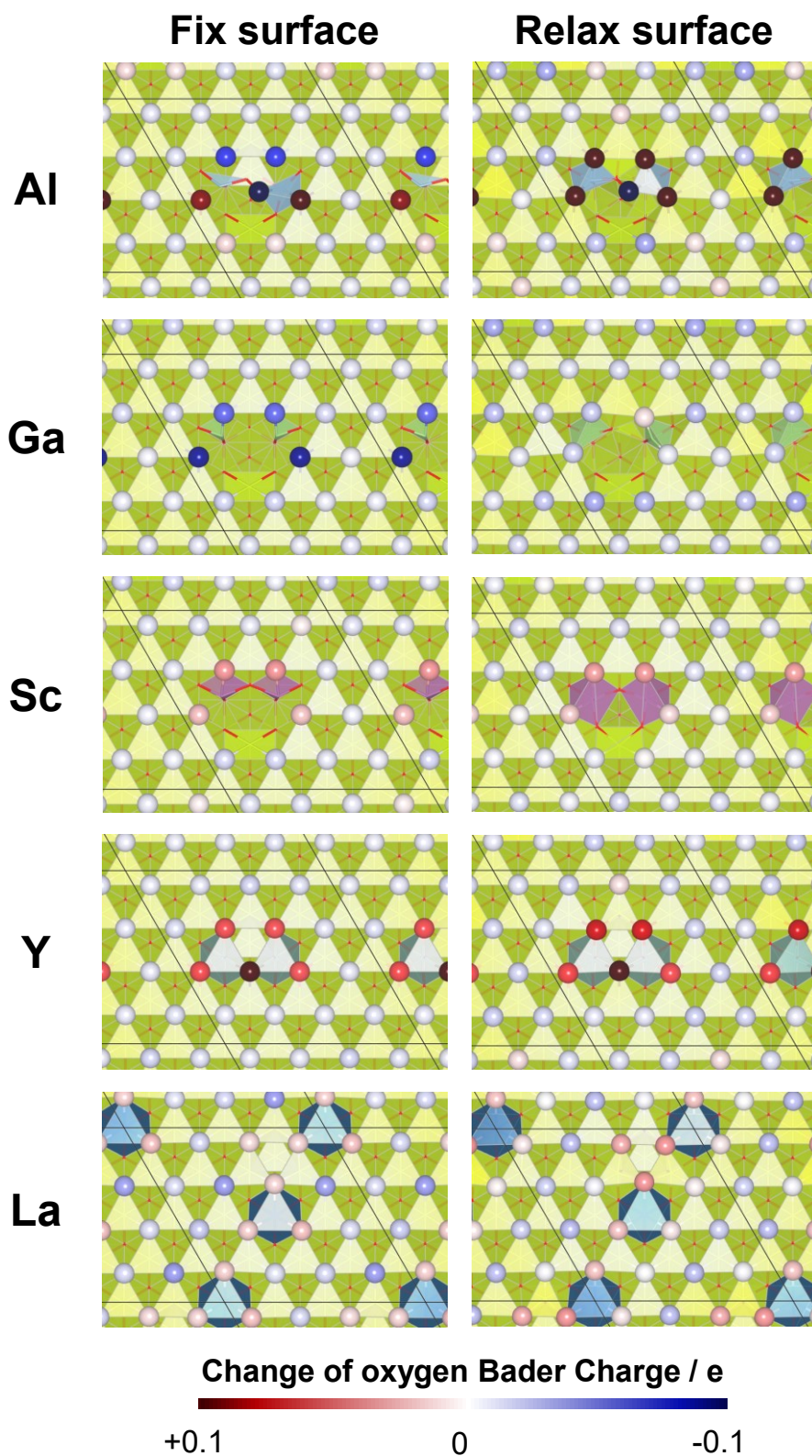


Figure A.3.8. Color maps for change of outermost oxygen charge by trivalent heterocation-doping using CeO_2 (111) as a reference value. Left panel shows data of “Fix surface”, and right panel is “Relax surface”. Red balls indicate the electron rich oxygen, and blue balls show the electron deficient oxygen. Copyright 2021 RSC publishing.

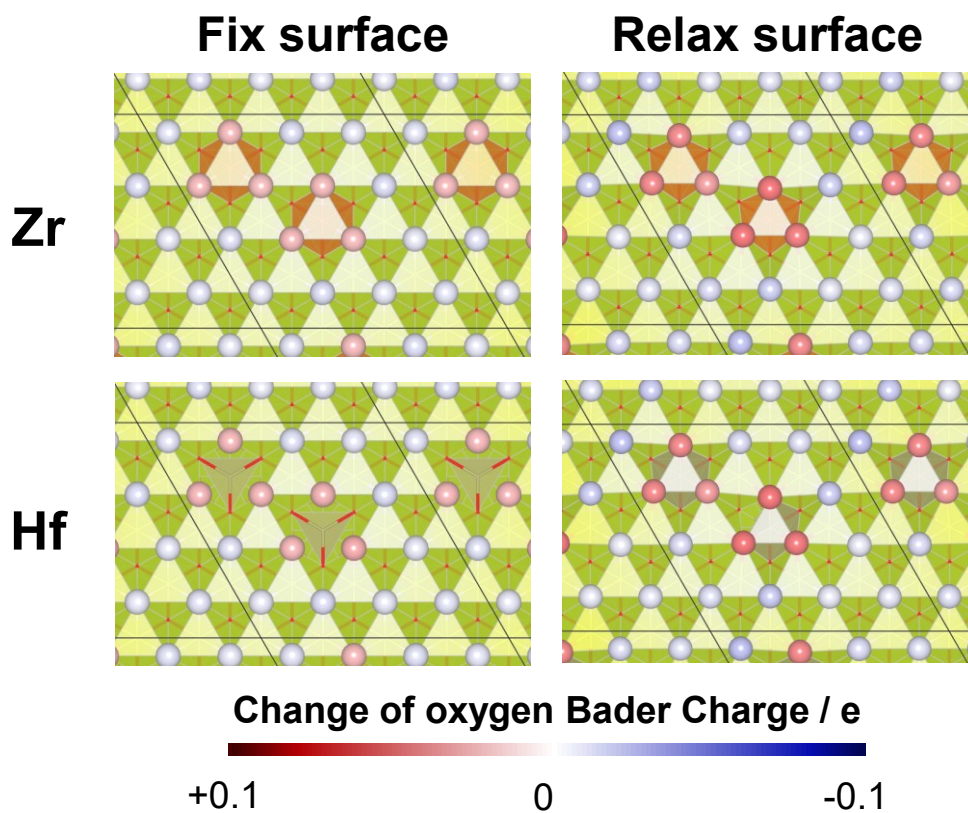


Figure A.3.9. Color maps for change of outermost oxygen charge by quadrivalent heterocation-doping using CeO_2 (111) as a reference value. Left panel shows data of “Fix surface”, and right panel is “Relax surface”. Red balls indicate the electron rich oxygen, and blue balls show the electron deficient oxygen. Copyright 2021 RSC publishing.

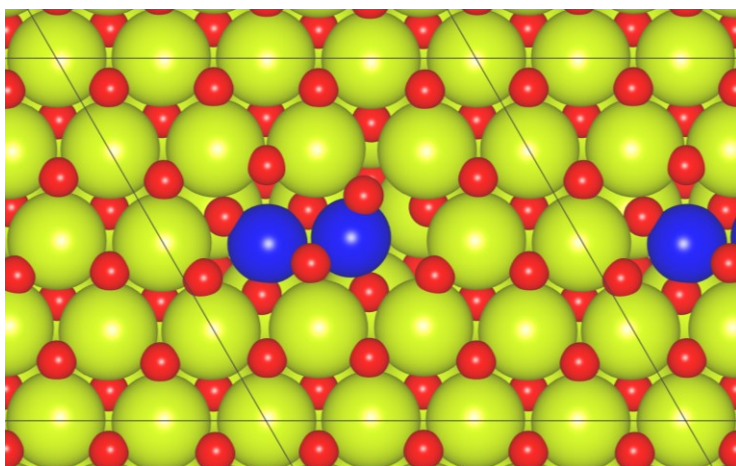


Figure A.3.10. Top view of CeO₂ (111) doped with Ti. Yellow ball means Ce, red stands for O, and blue shows Ti. Copyright 2021 RSC publishing.

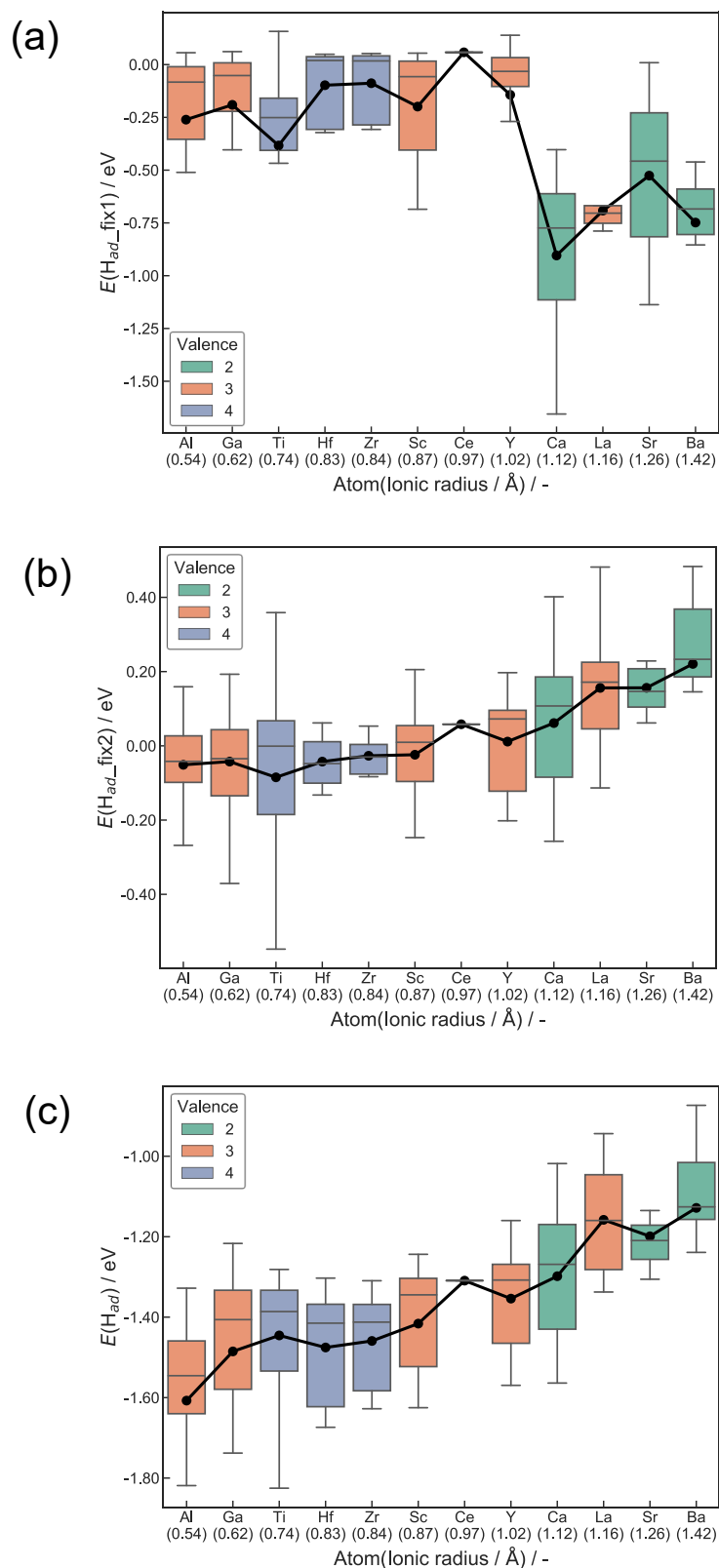


Figure A.3.11. Box plots for the energies of H atom adsorption including data of Ti: (a) “Fix1 adsorption”, (b) “Fix2 adsorption”, and (c) “Relax adsorption”. Whisker length is limited to be 1.5 times of interquartile range. Black plots mean average values. Copyright 2021 RSC publishing.

Table A.3.1. Valence configurations used for DFT calculations. Copyright 2021 RSC publishing.

Atom	Valence configuration
/-	/ -
Ca	$4s^2$
Sr	$5s^2$
Ba	$6s^2$
Al	$3s^23p^1$
Ga	$3d^{10}4s^24p^1$
Sc	$3d^14s^2$
Y	$4d^15s^2$
La	$5s^25p^65d^16s^2$
Ti	$3d^24s^2$
Zr	$4s^24p^64d^25s^2$
Hf	$5p^65d^26s^2$
Ce	$4f^15s^25p^65d^16s^2$
O	$1s^22s^22p^5$
H	$1s^1$

Table A.3.2. Oxygen vacancy (O_{vac}) formation energy ($E(O_{\text{vac}})$) over $\text{Ce}_{1-x}\text{M}_x\text{O}_{2-\delta}$ (111). Copyright 2021 RSC publishing.

Dopant / -	n / -	$E(O_{\text{vac}})$ / eV
Pristine	1	2.98
Ca	1	-0.80
	2	-1.41
	3	0.83
Sr	1	-0.66
	2	-1.23
	3	1.25
Ba	1	-0.71
	2	-0.61
	3	2.49
Al	1	0.59
Ga	1	-0.63
	2	0.08
Sc	1	-0.95
	2	0.76
Y	1	-0.72
	2	2.36
La	1	-0.67
	2	2.59
Ti	1	0.42
Zr	1	1.92
Hf	1	1.68

Chapter 4 OH Amount Effects on NH₃ Synthesis in the Electric Field

The content in this chapter is partly reproduced from K. Murakami, Y. Tanaka, R. Sakai, Y. Hisai, S. Hayashi, Y. Mizutani, T. Higo, S. Ogo, J. G. Seo, H. Tsuneki, and Y. Sekine, Key factor for the anti-Arrhenius low-temperature heterogeneous catalysis induced by H⁺ migration: H⁺ coverage over support, *Chem. Commun.*, 2020, **56**, 3365-3368. Copyright RSC Publishing.

4.1. Introduction

Over the past several decades, industrial catalytic processes have evolved for large-scale plants. They are functioning efficiently under harsh conditions (high-temperatures and pressures) because of various facilities including heat exchangers. By contrast, next-generation catalytic processes must work under milder conditions to manage on-site and on-demand operation. Therefore, moderation of catalyst working conditions using external stimuli (*e.g.* photonic, magnetic, and electric fields) has been a central subject in the field of catalysis.^[1-7] Our group has specifically examined application of an electric field on the catalyst beds.^[8-10] As described in chapter 1, “the catalytic reactions in the electric field” means the catalytic reactions facilitated by the application of direct current into semiconductor. The reaction in the electric field is totally different from the conventional electrochemical reactions. Also, its promotion effect is not derived from the Joule heating. We have reported that the electric field invoke the reactions between OH groups and reactants like CH₄ and N₂ adsorbed over loading metals. The peculiar role of OH in the electric field enables catalysis of various reactions at low temperatures. Catalytic reactions in an electric field are promising. In-depth knowledge of those novel catalytic reactions is increasingly valuable.

The works presented in this chapter specifically addressed the importance of OH–CeO₂ interactions on catalysis related to surface protonics. NH₃ synthesis facilitated in an electric field was chosen as a model reaction. Actually, NH₃ is an extremely important chemical feedstock used as a raw material for fertilizers, resins, and fibers. These days, it is also receiving attention as a hydrogen carrier because of its high hydrogen content and ease of handling.^[11, 12] Therefore, a novel efficient process for NH₃ synthesis is desired from the perspective of developing a sustainable society.

Results presented in the following sections have revealed the contributions of H⁺ amounts adsorbed onto O_{lat} (O_{lat}-H⁺) to the temperature dependence of NH₃ synthesis in an electric field. Furthermore, we have revealed that the O_{lat}-H⁺ amount under a H₂ atmosphere can be tuned by doping of heterocations, as described in chapter 3. Therefore, the heterocation-doping effects on NH₃ synthesis in the electric field were also investigated.

4.2. Experimental

4.2.1. Catalyst preparation

CeO₂ and Ce_{0.9}M_{0.1}O_{2- δ} (M: Al and Sr) were synthesized as a support. A complex polymerization method was used in the same manner as that shown in Chapters 2 and 3. CeO₂ (JRC-CEO-01), which was supplied from the Catalyst Society of Japan, was also used as a support.

Using the supports listed above, active metals loaded catalysts of 1wt%Ru/support were prepared using an impregnation method. First, Ru(acac)₃ was dissolved into acetone. Then, support powders were added to the solutions and stirred at room temperature for 2 h. The slurries were dried over a hot plate for the evaporation of solvents. Subsequently, the obtained powders were reduced at 723 K for 2 h under Ar: H₂ = 1: 1 (total flow, 100 SCCM). Prepared catalysts were molded into 355–500 μ m particles for activity tests and DRIFTS measurements.

4.2.2. Catalytic activity tests

All activity tests were conducted using a fixed-bed flow-type reactor under 0.1 MPa. A schematic image of the reactor is shown in Fig. 1.7. Two 2-mm-diameter stainless steel rods were attached to the catalyst beds. Through these electrodes, 0 or 6 mA direct current (Current density: 212 A m⁻²) was applied to the catalyst bed using a power supply device. Catalyst bed temperatures were detected directly using a thermocouple inside the reactor. The thermocouple was attached to the catalyst beds at the bottom. Applied current and voltage were measured using a digital phosphor oscilloscope (TDS 2001C; Tektronix Inc.). The obtained signals showed that the applied voltages were stable during the activity tests. For all tests, 100 mg of catalysts were charged. Before activity tests, the catalysts were pre-reduced at 723 K for 2 h under N₂: H₂ = 1: 3 (240 SCCM total flow rate, 0.1 MPa total pressure). Synthesized NH₃ during activity tests was trapped in cold distilled water and then quantitatively analyzed using an ion chromatograph (IC-2001; Tosoh Corp.). Unless other notation is given, the activity tests were performed under N₂: H₂ = 1: 3 (240 SCCM total flow rate, 0.1 MPa total pressure).

4.2.3. *In-situ* FT-IR measurement in transmission mode

In-situ FT-IR measurements were performed in transmission mode (FT-IR 6200; Jasco Corp.) using pelletized 1wt%Ru/CeO₂ (JRC-CEO-01). For pellet preparation, 1wt%Ru/CeO₂ (JRC-CEO-01) powders were pressed at 40 kN for 1 min. The measurement scheme is shown in Fig. A.4.1. First, the sample was pre-reduced at 723 K with N₂ (5 SCCM) and H₂ (15 SCCM) supply for 2 h. Later, the cell interior was purged under Ar (20 SCCM) at 673 K for 1 h for removing O_{lat}-H⁺. Desorption with purging was confirmed before this test. Then, background data were measured under Ar (20 SCCM) flow at each temperature (323, 373, 423, 473, 573, and 673 K). Finally, peaks

assigned to $O_{\text{lat}}\text{-D}^+$ stretching were detected under N_2 (5 SCCM) and D_2 (15 SCCM) at each temperature. Before each observation, the catalyst was pre-purged by Ar (20 SCCM) flow at 673 K for 1 h.

4.2.4. *in-situ* DRIFTS measurement

In-situ DRIFTS measurements (FT-IR 6200; Jasco Corp.) with a ZnSe window and MCT detector were conducted using 355–500 μm granules of 1wt%Ru/CeO₂ (JRC-CEO-01). The customized cell for DRIFTS measurements with the electric field is insufficiently heat resistant. Therefore, measurements were conducted at a temperature lower than 473 K. First, the sample was pre-reduced under N_2 (5 SCCM) and H_2 (15 SCCM) at 473 K for 2 h. Later, the cell was purged by Ar (20 SCCM) at 473 K for 1 h. Then, the background spectrum was collected under Ar (20 SCCM) at 323 and 473 K. After N_2 (5 SCCM) and D_2 (15 SCCM) were supplied at each temperature, the spectra were measured at 323 K and 473 K with and without the electric field (0 and 6 mA). Before all measurements under N_2 and D_2 , the catalyst was pre-treated under Ar (20 SCCM) at 473 K for 1 h to remove the adsorbed species.

4.3. Results and discussion

4.3.1. Specific temperature dependence of NH_3 synthesis in the electric field

To elucidate the effects of OH-CeO₂ interactions on NH_3 synthesis in the electric field, the temperature and H_2 partial pressure (P_{H_2}) dependence of the NH_3 synthesis rate (r) were investigated using 1wt%Ru/CeO₂ (JRC-CEO-01) as a catalyst, as shown in Fig. 4.1. Without the electric field, conventional Arrhenius-like behavior was confirmed (open symbols in Fig. 4.1(a) and Table A.4.1). Applying the electric field caused completely different temperature dependence of the NH_3 synthesis rate (closed symbols in Fig. 4.1(b) and Tables A.4.2). First, conventional Arrhenius-like behavior was detected at the high-temperature region (573–673 K). In contrast, NH_3 synthesis rates increased concomitantly with the decrement in reaction temperatures at around 373–573 K. Additionally, Arrhenius-like behavior was obtained again at temperatures lower than around 373 K. This specific temperature dependence indicates a change in the NH_3 synthesis mechanism by application of the electric field as introduced in Chapter 1. Therefore, one can infer that some factors, which become advantageous at lower temperatures, play important roles in the NH_3 synthesis in the electric field. For further understanding, the P_{H_2} dependence was examined (Fig. 4.1(b) and Tables A.4.2–A.4.4). At temperature regions where NH_3 synthesis rates increased along with the decrement in reaction temperatures (373–573 K), the reaction rates increased as the P_{H_2} increased. The reaction rates did not change at other temperature regions. Reportedly, Ru-

based catalysts exhibit negative dependence on P_{H_2} because of H_2 poisoning over the Ru surface. [13, 14] Using CeO_2 support, the poisoning over Ru is suppressed by hydrogen spillover. [15] We also confirmed almost identical activities irrespective of P_{H_2} without the electric field (Fig. A.4.2 and Tables A.4.1, A4.5–A.4.6). Therefore, the positive effects of P_{H_2} on NH_3 synthesis rate over 1wt%Ru/ CeO_2 (JRC-CEO-01) in the electric field also suggest a novel reaction mechanism in the electric field. From this specific dependence exhibited in Fig. 4.1, we inferred that the adsorbed species formed by supplied H_2 was a fundamentally important the rate-determining step. As introduced in chapter 1, we have reported that NH_3 synthesis in the electric field proceeds *via* an “associative mechanism”, where N_2H is formed from N_2 on active metals and $\text{O}_{\text{lat}}\text{-H}^+$ over metal oxide supports. [16–20] Therefore, the temperature dependence of the amount of $\text{O}_{\text{lat}}\text{-H}^+$ over CeO_2 can be inferred as the important factor leading to the peculiar behavior in the electric field shown in Fig. 4.1.

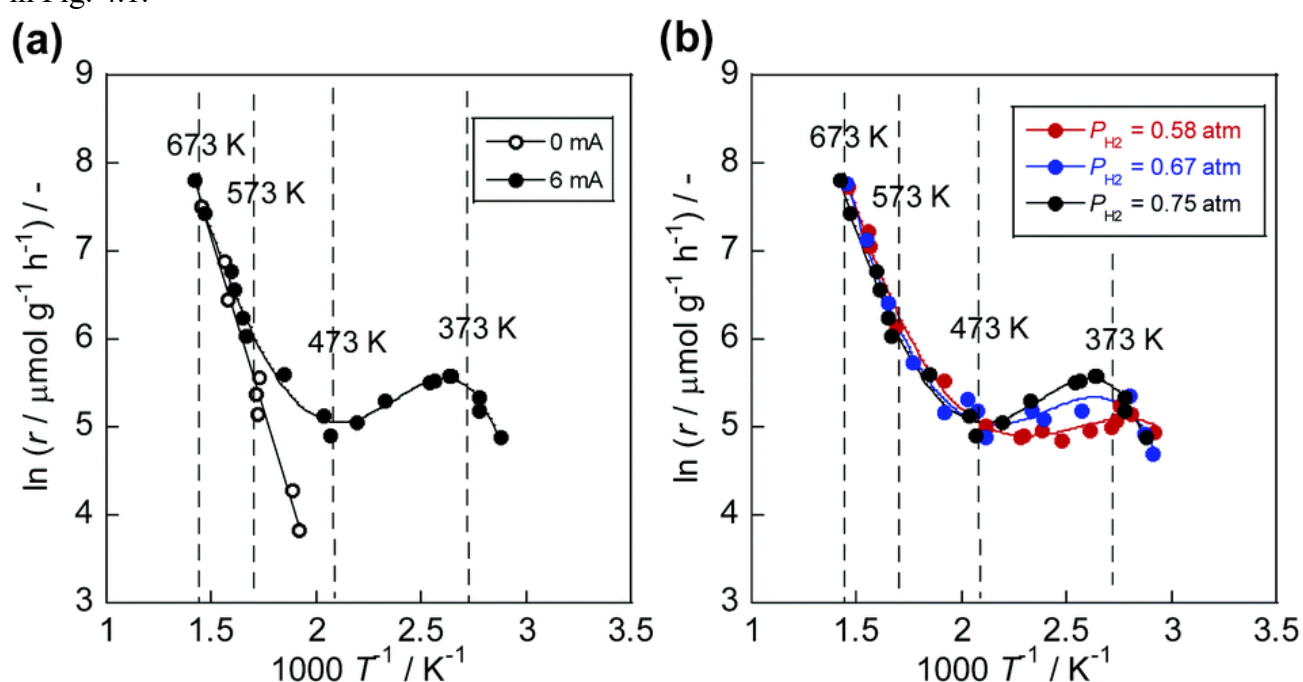


Figure 4.1. Arrhenius plots for NH_3 synthesis rate (r): (a) with and without the electric field (0 and 6 mA) under $P_{\text{H}_2} = 0.75$ atm; and (b) P_{H_2} dependence in the electric field (0.58, 0.67, and 0.75 atm) with 6 mA: Catalyst, 1wt%Ru/ CeO_2 (JRC-CEO-01); total flow rate, 240 SCCM; total pressure, 0.1 MPa. Copyright 2020 RSC Publishing.

4.3.2. Temperature dependence of the $\text{O}_{\text{lat}}\text{-H}^+$ amount over CeO_2

To evaluate the assumption described above quantitatively, the temperature dependence of $\text{O}_{\text{lat}}\text{-H}^+$ coverage was assessed using *in situ* DRIFTS measurements in transparent mode without the electric field (Fig. 4.2 (a)) and DRIFTS mode with and without the electric field (Fig. 4.2 (b)). D_2 was supplied as a reactant instead of H_2 to exclude effects of atmospheric H_2O outside of the cell. $\text{O}_{\text{lat}}\text{-D}^+$ stretching peaks were detected at around 2780 cm^{-1} [21] after D_2 supply. Therefore, probably the $\text{O}_{\text{lat}}\text{-H}^+(\text{D}^+)$ considered in chapter 3 exists on the surface of 1 wt%Ru/ CeO_2 (JRC-

CEO-01) under H₂ (D₂) atmosphere. Then, the peak area of O_{lat}-D⁺ stretching peaks was used for *pseudo*-quantitative analysis of the O_{lat}-H⁺ coverage. IR measurements in transmission mode are suitable for quantitative investigation. However, the electric field cannot be applied because of the measurement cell structure. Therefore, we also took DRIFTS measurements to investigate the electric field effects on the O_{lat}-H⁺ amount, although DRIFTS cannot evaluate the precise quantitative amount, in principle. Qualitatively, the electric field showed no marked influence. Application of the electric field produces a small amount of Joule heat. Therefore, a small change of the spectrum can be expected to be attributable to the increase in temperature. In addition, the effect of the catalyst bed temperature (*i.e.* difference between 323 K and 473 K) on adsorption is much greater than the electric field effect. Therefore, using the data without the electric field (Fig. 4.2(a)), the relative coverage of O_{lat}-H⁺ ($\theta(T)$) was calculated. The area at 323 K (Area (323 K)) was used as a reference.

$$\theta(T) = \text{Area}(T)/\text{Area}(323 \text{ K}) \quad (4.1)$$

The temperature dependence of $\theta(T)$ is shown in Fig. 4.2(b). Accordingly, the O_{lat}-H⁺ coverage increased in accordance with the decrease in the temperature. The coverage saturated around 323–373 K.

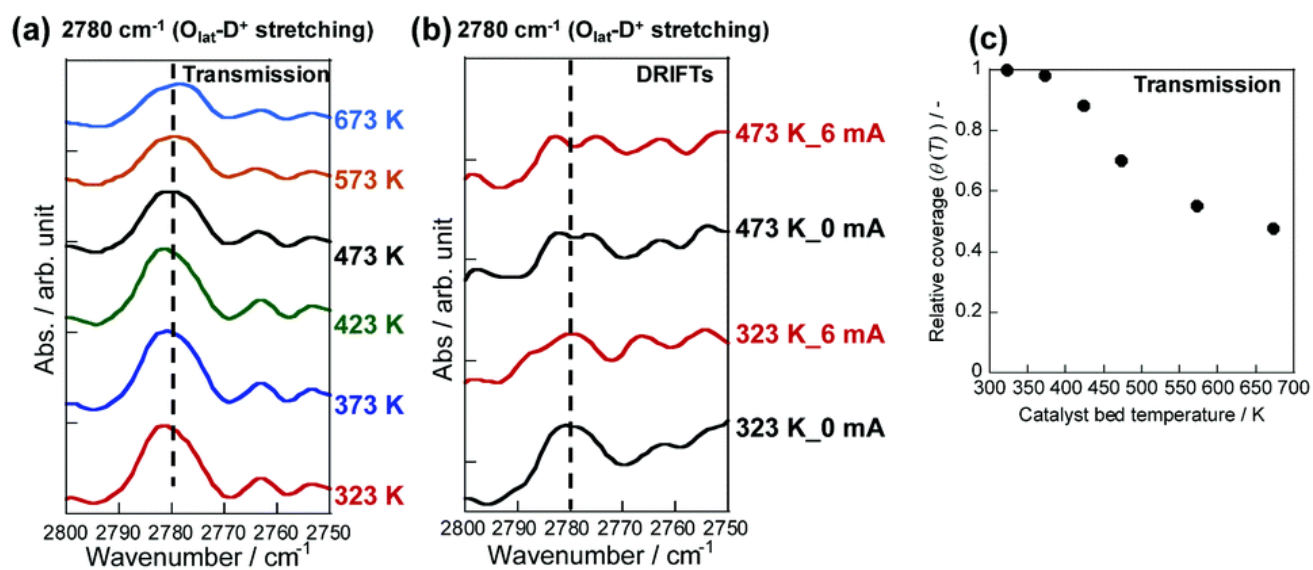


Figure 4.2. Quantitative analysis for O_{lat}-D⁺ : (a) *in-situ* IR spectra in transmission mode; and (b) *in-situ* DRIFTS spectra with and without EF; and (c) relative coverage using transmission spectra ($\theta(T) = \text{Area}(T)/\text{Area}(323 \text{ K})$): Catalyst, 1wt%Ru/CeO₂ (JRC-CEO-01); reactant, N₂ : D₂ = 1 : 3; total flow rate, 20 SCCM; total pressure, 0.1 MPa. Copyright 2020 RSC Publishing.

4.3.3. Reaction rate equation considering the temperature dependence of $O_{\text{lat-H}^+}$ amount

The obtained results in IR measurements suggest the contribution of $O_{\text{lat-H}^+}$ coverage on specific temperature dependence in the electric field. At the high-temperature region (> 573 K), the decrease in $O_{\text{lat-H}^+}$ coverage on CeO_2 renders enhancement of the NH_3 synthesis rate by the electric field negligible. The NH_3 synthesis proceeds *via* a conventional “dissociative mechanism”. Figure 4.2(a) showed that the $O_{\text{lat-D}^+}$ existed on CeO_2 to some extent, even in a high-temperature region. However, the electric field effects became smaller because of the following reasons. First, the reaction *via* the “dissociative mechanism” is much more active at high temperatures. In addition, the reaction *via* the “associative mechanism” is expected to be limited at the three-phase boundary (TPB), although the reaction through the “dissociative mechanism” can proceed at all regions of the exposed metal surface. Therefore, the reaction sites for the “associative mechanism” are much smaller than those for the “dissociative mechanism”. For those reasons, the contribution of the “associative mechanism” became trivial at a high temperature, even though $O_{\text{lat-H}^+}$ remains. However, at a low-temperature region (< 373 K), CeO_2 surface is sufficiently covered by $O_{\text{lat-H}^+}$. In addition, the reaction rate of direct N_2 dissociation is negligible at low temperatures. Therefore, almost all NH_3 is produced reaction *via* the “associative mechanism”. At a middle-temperature region (373–573 K), the overall reaction rate can be described by the sum of the reaction rates through both the “dissociative mechanism” and the “associative mechanism”. Therefore, we formulated the overall NH_3 synthesis rate in the electric field as shown below.

$$r_{\text{calc}}(T) = r_{\text{dissociative}}(T) + \theta(T) \times r_{\text{associative}}(T) \quad (4.2)$$

In that equation, $r_{\text{dissociative}}(T)$ and $r_{\text{associative}}(T)$ show the extrapolated values according to Fig. 4.3. The Arrhenius plots without the electric field are used for the expression of $r_{\text{dissociative}}(T)$; also, $r_{\text{associative}}(T)$ was calculated using an experimentally obtained approximate straight line at a low temperature ($T < 373$ K). In this range of low temperatures, the change of $\theta(T)$ was negligible. Therefore, Arrhenius-like behavior was confirmed for NH_3 synthesis rate in the electric field. Results show that the straight line on the right side in Fig. 4.3 represents the temperature dependence of NH_3 synthesis rate *via* the “associative mechanism” when the $O_{\text{lat-H}^+}$ coverage is maximum and does not change along with temperatures. Rate-determining step approximation was applied to the second term of equation (4.2). We assumed that the rate-determining step in the electric field would be the reaction between $O_{\text{lat-H}^+}$ and N_2 (formation of N_2H), meaning that the reaction rate depends linearly on the $O_{\text{lat-H}^+}$ concentration. In terms of the $O_{\text{lat-H}^+}$ concentration, $\theta(T)$ obtained from IR measurements (Fig. 4.2 (c)) were used. Figure 4.3 presents a comparison between the experimentally obtained values and $r_{\text{calc}}(T)$. It is particularly interesting that the calculated value showed excellent matching with the experimental values. This agreement indicates some correlation between the activation of the NH_3 synthesis and $O_{\text{lat-H}^+}$ amount in the electric field. Moreover, this discovery is expected to be extended to other reaction systems. It will

provide important guidance for the optimization of catalysts and reaction conditions related OH groups in the electric field.

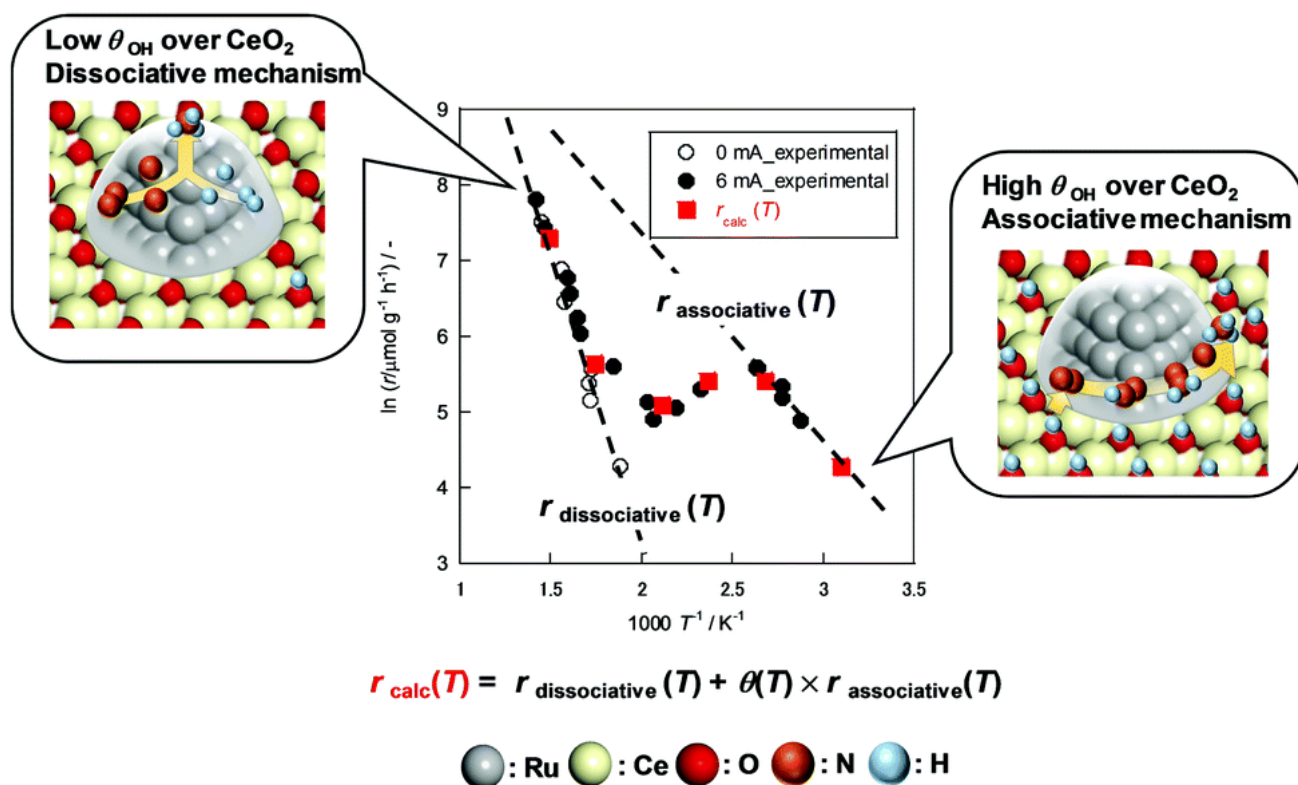


Figure 4.3. Experimental reaction rate under $P_{H_2} = 0.78$ atm and calculated reaction rate ($r_{calc}(T)$). Data in Figure 4.1 are used for $r_{dissociative}$ and $r_{associative}$: Catalyst, 1wt%Ru/CeO₂ (JRC-CEO-01); total flow rate, 240 SCCM; total pressure, 0.1 MPa. Copyright 2020 RSC Publishing.

4.3.4. Heterocation-doping effects on catalytic reactions related to OH

The discussion presented above has elucidated the great importance of O_{lat-H^+} amount in catalysis with the electric field under H_2 atmosphere. Additionally, results show that the O_{lat-H^+} amount over CeO_2 can be controlled by heterocation doping in Chapter 3. Therefore, we studied the effect of heterocation doping on the NH_3 synthesis rate in the electric field using 1wt%Ru/CeO₂ and 1wt%Ru/Ce_{1-x}M_xO_{2- δ} (M : Al and Sr). It has been revealed that Al doping and Sr doping respectively exert positive and negative effects on O_{lat-H^+} amount (Figs. 3.3 and 3.6). Figure 4.4 and Tables A.4.7–A.4.9 represents heterocation-doping effects on the temperature dependence of NH_3 synthesis rate in the electric field. Consequently, the manipulation of O_{lat-H^+} amounts by heterocation doping markedly changed the temperature dependence of catalysis involving surface protonics. First, the synthesis rate at around 373–573 K was increased significantly by Al doping. It indicates that high coverage of O_{lat-H^+} was maintained at around 373–573 K by virtue of the doping of Al. In addition, the NH_3 synthesis rates did not increase with the decrement in catalyst bed temperatures at around 373–573 K because the NH_3 synthesis rate, which proceeds by

conventional “dissociative mechanism”, begins to increase before a significant decrease in $O_{\text{lat}}\text{-H}^+$ as a result of the increase in temperature. Sr doping did not change the temperature dependence to any great degree. However, the increase of NH_3 synthesis rate along with the decrease in temperature did not reach a limit even at around 373 K. That finding indicates that the coverage of $O_{\text{lat}}\text{-H}^+$ did not hit a ceiling at 373 K because of the decrease in $O_{\text{lat}}\text{-H}^+$ stability by Sr doping. In summary, these findings indicate that heterocation doping can control the catalytic performance involving OH groups in the electric field.

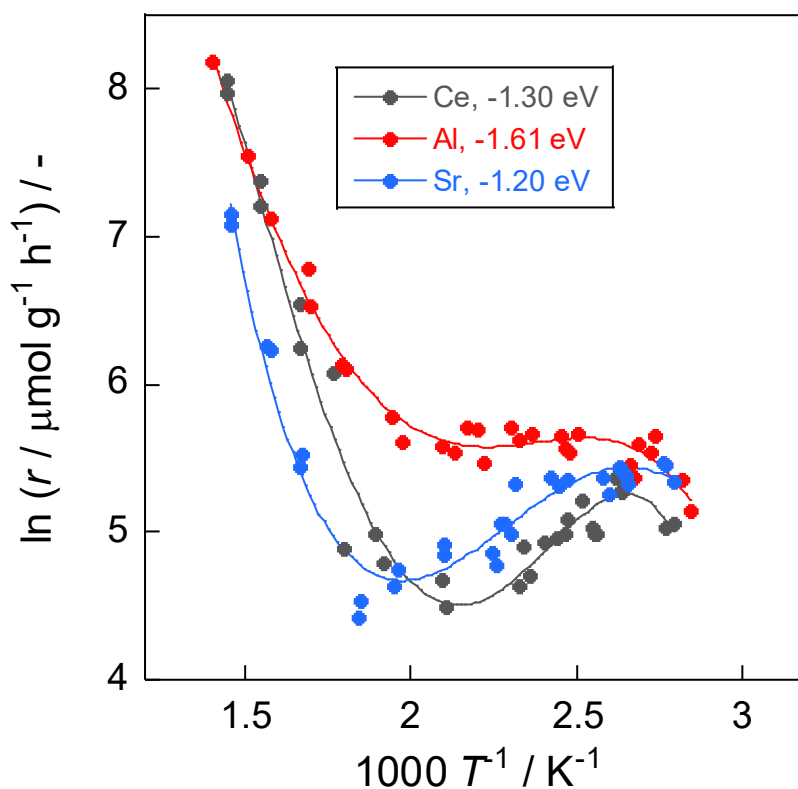


Figure 4.4. Arrhenius plots for NH_3 synthesis rate (r): Catalyst, 1wt%Ru/CeO₂, 1wt%Ru/Ce_{0.9}Al_{0.1}O_{2- δ} , 1wt%Ru/Ce_{0.9}Sr_{0.1}O_{2- δ} , applied current, 6 mA; total flow rate, 240 SCCM; P_{H_2} , 0.75 atm, total pressure, 0.1 MPa.

4.4. Chapter Conclusion

We elucidated the key role of $O_{\text{lat}}\text{-H}^+$ amount over CeO₂ on catalysis in the electric field under H₂ atmosphere. The rate of NH_3 synthesis proceeding *via* N₂H also increased as the catalyst bed temperature decreased at around 573–373 K. This specific trend results from the increase in $O_{\text{lat}}\text{-H}^+$ amount along with the decrement in temperature. The quantitative correlation between $O_{\text{lat}}\text{-H}^+$ amount and NH_3 synthesis rate in the electric field was revealed to be in line with *in-situ* IR measurements. In addition, the manipulation of $O_{\text{lat}}\text{-H}^+$ amounts by heterocation doping significantly changed the temperature dependence of NH_3 synthesis in the electric field. Those

results elucidated the importance of DFT-suggestion about heterocation-doping effects on OH–CeO₂ interaction.

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Appendix of Chapter 4

A.4.1. The effects of the electric field on CeO₂ morphology

XRD measurements were conducted to evaluate the effects of the electric field on morphology of CeO₂. Measurement conditions are shown in part 2.2.3. Figure A.4.3 shows the XRD patterns for CeO₂ (JRC-CEO-01), 1wt%Ru/CeO₂ (JRC-CEO-01) before activity tests, and 1wt%Ru/CeO₂ (JRC-CEO-01) after activity tests. Consequently, we confirmed no change of CeO₂ morphology even after applying the electric field.

A.4.2. Applied current dependence of NH₃ synthesis rate in the electric field

Applied current dependence of NH₃ synthesis rate in the electric field was investigated using 1wt%Ru/CeO₂ (JRC-CEO-01), see Figure A.4.4. Here, the synthesis rate was evaluated using the synthesis rate per applied power (r_w) calculated as blow.

$$r_w = \frac{r}{I \times V} \quad (\text{A.4.1})$$

I and V meant applied currents and voltages, respectively. As a result, r_w showed almost identical values among all applied current. It stands for the importance of applied power for the activation of the NH₃ synthesis. This trend was consistent with previous studies. [1]

A.4.3. CO-pulse

The Ru particle sizes over 1wt%Ru/CeO₂, Ce_{0.9}Al_{0.1}O_{2- δ} , Ce_{0.9}Sr_{0.1}O_{2- δ} were evaluated using CO pulse (Autosorb-iQ; Quantachrome Instruments Japan G.K.). The catalysts were pre-treated under H₂ flow at 723 K for 2 h and evacuated at 723 K for 1 h. Afterwards, the temperature was decreased to 323 K under He flow, and 10% CO was dosed. The stoichiometric adsorption of CO over Ru and hemisphere approximation were applied when calculating the Ru particle size. Calculated Ru particle sizes are summarized in Table A.4.10. It was found that Ru particles tend to aggregate on Sr-doped CeO₂.

A.4.4. Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET)

The specific surface areas of CeO₂, Ce_{0.9}Al_{0.1}O_{2- δ} , Ce_{0.9}Sr_{0.1}O_{2- δ} were evaluated by N₂ adsorption using Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) method (Gemini VII 2390a; Micromeritics Instrument Corp.). The samples were pre-treated at 473 K for 2 h under N₂ atmosphere. The obtained results are summarized in Table A.4.11.

A.4.5. Heterocation-doping effects on the NH₃ synthesis without the electric field

Heterocation-doping effect on NH₃ synthesis without the electric field was investigated using 1wt%Ru/CeO₂, Ce_{0.9}Al_{0.1}O_{2-δ}, Ce_{0.9}Sr_{0.1}O_{2-δ} (Figures A.4.5-A.4.6, and Tables A.4.12-4.14). As shown in Figures A.4.5, 1wt%Ru/Ce_{0.9}Sr_{0.1}O_{2-δ} exhibited smaller activity than other catalysts. The decrement would be caused by the sintering of Ru particles as shown in part A.4.2. Hence, turnover frequency normalized by the amount of the exposed metal Ru (TOF-s) was calculated using Ru particle sizes. All catalysts exhibited almost identical TOFs as shown in Figure A.4.6.

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Figures and Tables

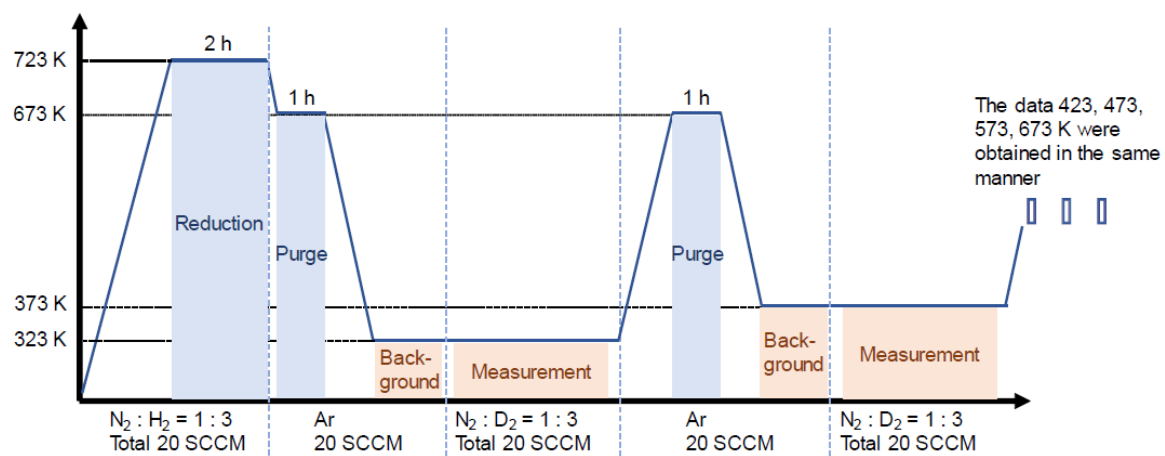


Figure A.4.1. Schematic image of flow for *in-situ* IR measurement in transparent mode.
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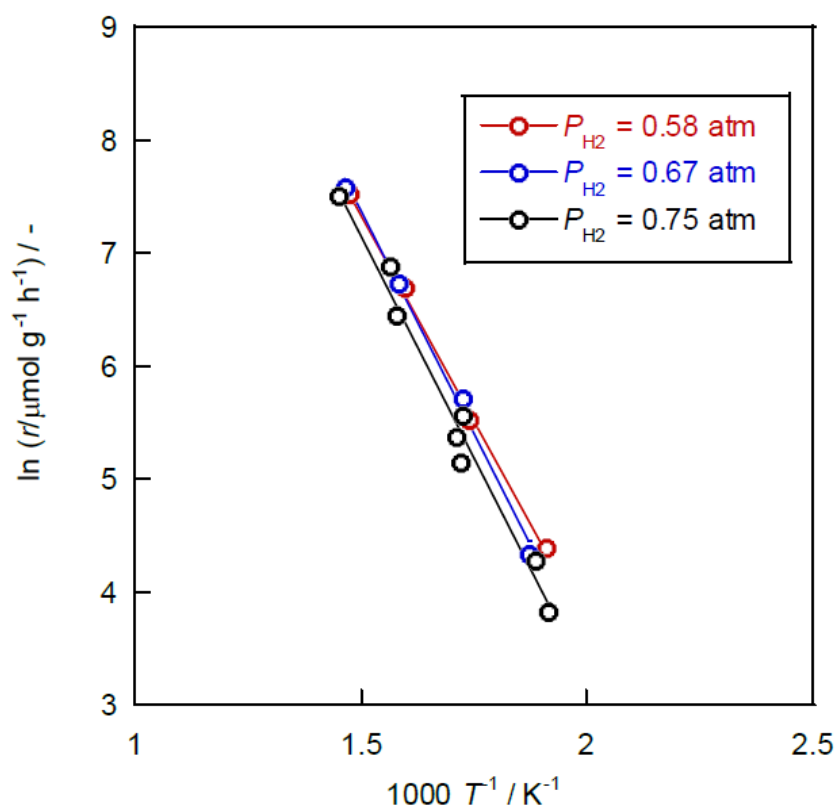


Figure A.4.2. Arrhenius plots for NH_3 synthesis rate (r) under several P_{H_2} (0.58, 0.67 and 0.75 atm): Catalyst, 1wt%Ru/CeO₂ (JRC-CEO-01); applied current, 0 mA; total flow rate, 240 SCCM; total pressure, 0.1 MPa. Copyright 2020 RSC Publishing.

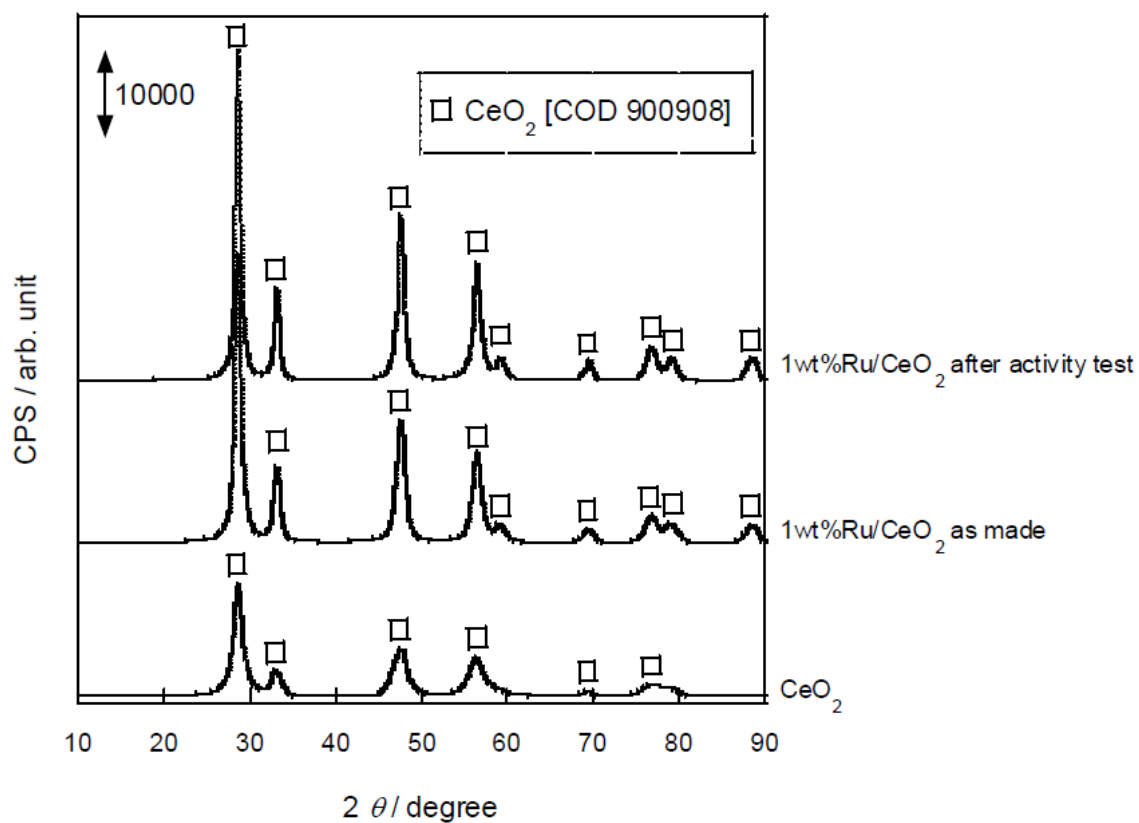


Figure A.4.3. XRD spectra for CeO₂ (JRC-CEO-01) and 1wt%Ru/CeO₂ (JRC-CEO-01) as made and after activity test. Copyright 2020 RSC Publishing.

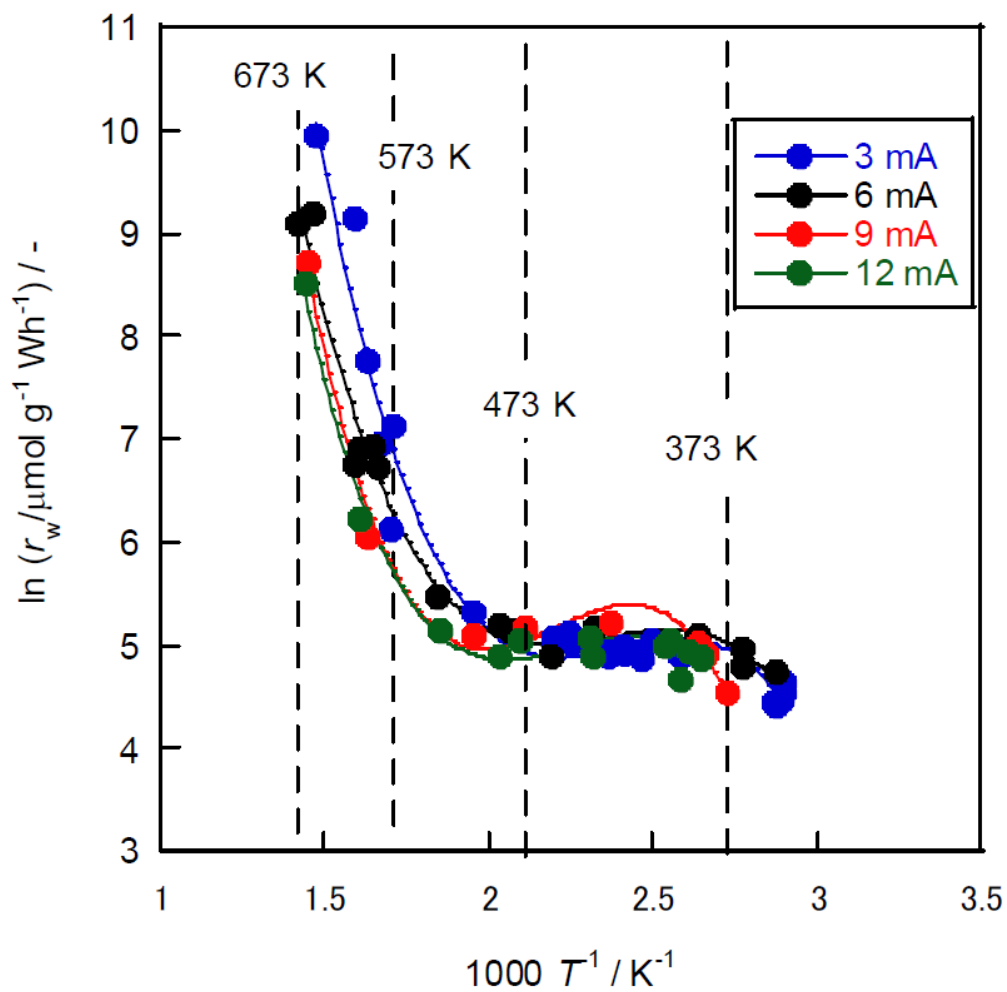


Figure A.4.4. Arrhenius plots for NH₃ synthesis rate per input power (r_w): Catalyst, 1wt%Ru/CeO₂ (JRC-CEO-01); applied current, 3-12 mA; total flow rate, 240 SCCM; P_{H_2} , 0.75 atom; total pressure, 0.1 MPa. Copyright 2020 RSC Publishing.

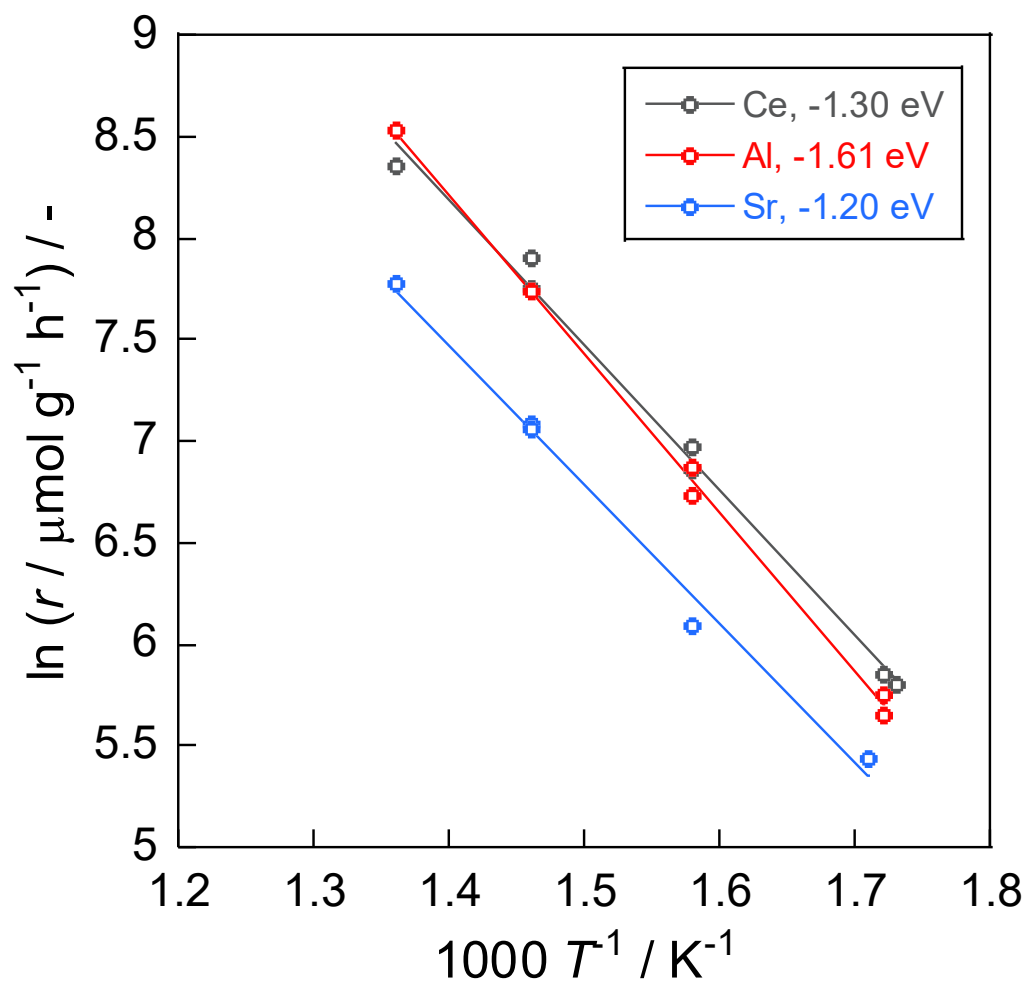


Figure A.4.5. Arrhenius plots for NH₃ synthesis rate (r): Catalyst, 1wt%Ru/CeO₂, Ce_{0.9}Al_{0.1}O_{2- δ} , Ce_{0.9}Sr_{0.1}O_{2- δ} , applied current, 0 mA; total flow rate, 240 SCCM; total pressure, 0.1 MPa.

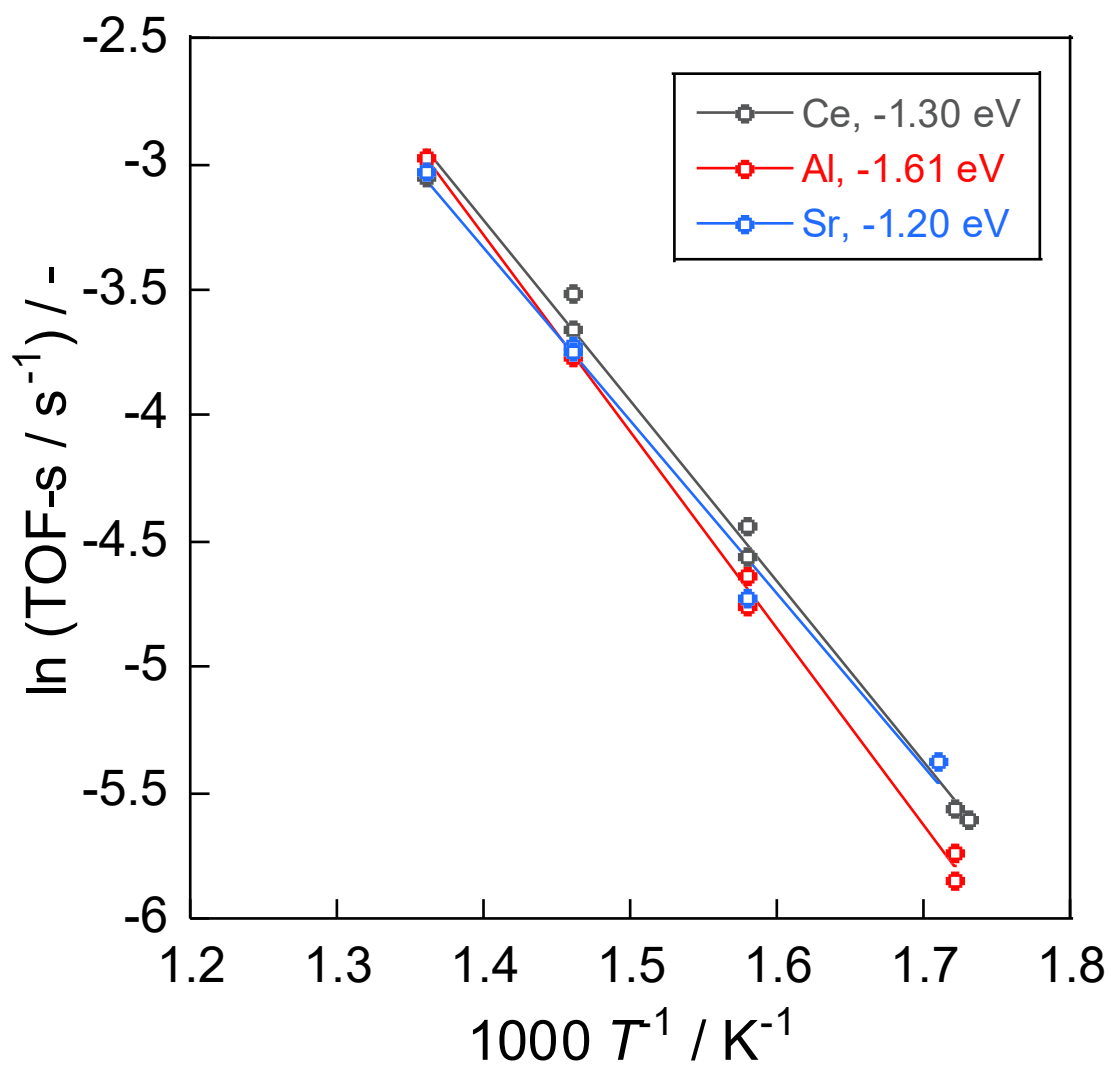


Figure A.4.5. Arrhenius plots for TOF-s: Catalyst, 1wt%Ru/CeO₂, Ce_{0.9}Al_{0.1}O_{2- δ} , Ce_{0.9}Sr_{0.1}O_{2- δ} ; applied current, 0 mA; total flow rate, 240 SCCM; P_{H_2} , 0.75 atom; total pressure, 0.1 MPa.

Table A.4.1. NH₃ synthesis rate (r): Catalyst, 1wt%Ru/CeO₂ (JRC-CEO-01); applied current, 0 mA; total flow rate, 240 SCCM; P_{H_2} , 0.75 atom; total pressure, 0.1 MPa. Copyright 2020 RSC Publishing.

Catalyst bed temperature	NH ₃ synthesis rate	1000/ T	$\ln r$
/ K	/ $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$	/ K ⁻¹	/ -
522	46.4	1.91	3.84
530	73.0	1.89	4.29
580	261.1	1.72	5.57
581	173.9	1.72	5.16
585	215.6	1.71	5.37
634	637.8	1.58	6.46
641	988.4	1.56	6.90
690	1837.9	1.45	7.52

Table A.4.2. NH₃ synthesis rate (*r*): Catalyst, 1wt%Ru/CeO₂ (JRC-CEO-01); applied current, 6 mA; total flow rate, 240 SCCM; *P*_{H₂}, 0.75 atom; total pressure, 0.1 MPa. Copyright 2020 RSC Publishing.

Catalyst bed temperature	Response voltage	NH ₃ synthesis rate	1000/ <i>T</i>	ln <i>r</i>
/ K	/ kV	/ μmol g ⁻¹ h ⁻¹	/ K ⁻¹	/ -
348	-0.19	131.4	2.88	4.88
360	-0.25	181.0	2.78	5.20
361	-0.24	208.3	2.77	5.34
379	-0.28	265.5	2.64	5.58
379	-0.28	266.4	2.64	5.58
430	-0.19	199.2	2.32	5.29
457	-0.20	157.7	2.19	5.06
484	-0.13	135.2	2.07	4.91
492	-0.16	168.0	2.03	5.12
541	-0.19	273.6	1.85	5.61
600	-0.08	416.5	1.67	6.03
606	-0.09	517.0	1.65	6.25
622	-0.12	716.3	1.61	6.57
629	-0.17	876.3	1.59	6.78
683	-0.03	1694.9	1.46	7.44
705	-0.05	2476.3	1.42	7.81

Table A.4.3. NH₃ synthesis rate (r): Catalyst, 1wt%Ru/CeO₂ (JRC-CEO-01); applied current, 6 mA; total flow rate, 240 SCCM; P_{H_2} , 0.67 atom; total pressure, 0.1 MPa. Copyright 2020 RSC Publishing.

Catalyst bed temperature	Response voltage	NH ₃ synthesis rate	1000/ T	$\ln r$
/ K	/ kV	/ $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$	/ K^{-1}	/ -
357.8	-0.22	212.5	2.79	5.36
389.5	-0.20	181.1	2.57	5.20
428.1	-0.20	177.8	2.34	5.18
482.2	-0.14	180.8	2.07	5.20
521.7	-0.12	176.7	1.92	5.17
566.3	-0.13	310.2	1.77	5.74
606.8	-0.10	610.1	1.65	6.41
646.7	-0.06	1254.5	1.55	7.13
689.5	-0.02	2367.4	1.45	7.77

Table A.4.4. NH₃ synthesis rate (*r*): Catalyst, 1wt%Ru/CeO₂ (JRC-CEO-01); applied current, 6 mA; total flow rate, 240 SCCM; *P*_{H₂}, 0.58 atom; total pressure, 0.1 MPa. Copyright 2020 RSC Publishing.

Catalyst bed temperature	Response voltage	NH ₃ synthesis rate	1000/ <i>T</i>	ln <i>r</i>
/ K	/ kV	/ μmol g ⁻¹ h ⁻¹	/ K ⁻¹	/ -
342.5	-0.21	141.2	2.92	4.95
356.3	-0.22	173.4	2.81	5.16
364.0	-0.24	190.9	2.75	5.25
365.4	-0.19	161.3	2.74	5.08
369.3	-0.19	148.9	2.71	5.00
383.0	-0.18	143.6	2.61	4.97
404.0	-0.15	126.6	2.48	4.84
420.1	-0.18	144.0	2.38	4.97
436.7	-0.17	136.0	2.29	4.91
438.6	-0.16	131.8	2.28	4.88
472.8	-0.13	144.8	2.12	4.98
473.8	-0.14	152.6	2.11	5.03
521.7	-0.15	253.2	1.92	5.53
591.9	-0.06	466.5	1.69	6.15
639.8	-0.06	1156.5	1.56	7.05
643.7	-0.02	1371.7	1.55	7.22
684.2	-0.02	2304.3	1.46	7.74

Table A.4.5. NH₃ synthesis rate (r): Catalyst, 1wt%Ru/CeO₂ (JRC-CEO-01); applied current, 0 mA; total flow rate, 240 SCCM; P_{H_2} , 0.67 atm; total pressure, 0.1 MPa. Copyright 2020 RSC Publishing.

Catalyst bed temperature	NH ₃ synthesis rate	1000/ T	$\ln r$
/ K	/ $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$	/ K ⁻¹	/ -
535.2	77.4	1.87	4.35
579.7	305.7	1.73	5.72
631.8	849.2	1.58	6.74
683.3	1985.2	1.46	7.59

Table A.4.6. NH₃ synthesis rate (r): Catalyst, 1wt%Ru/CeO₂ (JRC-CEO-01); applied current, 0 mA; total flow rate, 240 SCCM; P_{H_2} , 0.58 atom; total pressure, 0.1 MPa. Copyright 2020 RSC Publishing.

Catalyst bed temperature	NH ₃ synthesis rate	1000/ T	$\ln r$
/ K	/ $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$	/ K^{-1}	/ -
524	81.3	1.91	4.40
576	250.4	1.74	5.52
627	805.7	1.60	6.69
678	1854.5	1.47	7.53

Table A.4.7. NH₃ synthesis rate (r): Catalyst, 1wt%Ru/CeO₂; applied current, 6 mA; total flow rate, 240 SCCM; P_{H_2} , 0.75 atom; total pressure, 0.1 MPa.

Catalyst bed temperature / K	Response voltage / kV	NH ₃ synthesis rate / $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$	1000/ T / K ⁻¹	ln r / -
358	-0.28	159.1	2.79	5.07
361	-0.26	153.5	2.77	5.03
379	-0.29	194.8	2.64	5.27
379	-0.28	197.0	2.64	5.28
382	-0.29	215.4	2.62	5.37
391	-0.26	146.2	2.56	4.98
392	-0.24	147.2	2.55	4.99
393	-0.25	153.2	2.55	5.03
398	-0.27	183.9	2.51	5.21
405	-0.24	163.0	2.47	5.09
406	-0.23	147.4	2.46	4.99
410	-0.24	143.5	2.44	4.97
416	-0.19	140.0	2.40	4.94
424	-0.22	110.2	2.36	4.70
428	-0.29	135.1	2.34	4.91
430	-0.13	104.1	2.32	4.64
475	-0.14	89.5	2.10	4.49
478	-0.15	108.5	2.09	4.69
521	-0.15	120.2	1.92	4.79
528	-0.16	147.9	1.89	5.00
557	-0.07	133.7	1.80	4.90
567	-0.07	437.7	1.76	6.08
600	-0.07	517.9	1.67	6.25
601	-0.07	693.9	1.66	6.54
646	-0.12	1360.2	1.55	7.22
646	-0.13	1618.3	1.55	7.39
692	-0.07	3169.0	1.45	8.06
692	-0.07	2931.9	1.44	7.98

Table A.4.8. NH₃ synthesis rate (r): Catalyst, 1 wt%Ru/Ce_{0.9}Al_{0.1}O_{2- δ} ; applied current, 6 mA; total flow rate, 240 SCCM; P_{H_2} , 0.75 atom; total pressure, 0.1 MPa.

Catalyst bed temperature / K	Response voltage / kV	NH ₃ synthesis rate / $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$	1000/ T / K ⁻¹	ln r / -
352	-0.21	171.8	2.84	5.15
355	-0.23	213.4	2.81	5.36
366	-0.29	285.6	2.73	5.65
367	-0.30	257.2	2.72	5.55
373	-0.32	272.0	2.68	5.61
374	-0.31	215.7	2.67	5.37
376	-0.29	236.2	2.66	5.46
399	-0.31	288.3	2.50	5.66
404	-0.27	255.1	2.47	5.54
405	-0.27	261.2	2.47	5.57
408	-0.28	285.8	2.45	5.66
423	-0.27	289.6	2.36	5.67
430	-0.27	278.7	2.33	5.63
435	-0.27	301.6	2.30	5.71
451	-0.27	239.5	2.22	5.48
454	-0.31	297.4	2.20	5.70
462	-0.30	303.9	2.17	5.72
470	-0.26	255.7	2.13	5.54
478	-0.27	266.7	2.09	5.59
507	-0.21	273.2	1.97	5.61
515	-0.25	327.3	1.94	5.79
555	-0.24	450.7	1.80	6.11
558	-0.26	462.1	1.79	6.14
590	-0.21	693.2	1.69	6.54
592	-0.23	886.7	1.69	6.79
633	-0.15	1245.8	1.58	7.13
664	-0.12	1902.9	1.51	7.55
713	-0.07	3616.3	1.40	8.19

Table A.4.9. NH₃ synthesis rate (*r*): Catalyst, 1wt%Ru/Ce_{0.9}Sr_{0.1}O_{2-δ}; applied current, 6 mA; total flow rate, 240 SCCM; *P*_{H₂}, 0.75 atom; total pressure, 0.1 MPa.

Catalyst bed temperature / K	Response voltage / kV	NH ₃ synthesis rate / μmol g ⁻¹ h ⁻¹	1000/ <i>T</i> / K ⁻¹	ln <i>r</i> / -
358	-0.18	208.6	2.79	5.34
361	-0.23	234.2	2.77	5.46
362	-0.24	238.4	2.76	5.47
377	-0.26	206.7	2.66	5.33
378	-0.27	217.7	2.65	5.38
380	-0.26	226.0	2.63	5.42
381	-0.29	230.9	2.63	5.44
385	-0.26	193.7	2.60	5.27
388	-0.27	216.4	2.58	5.38
405	-0.27	214.0	2.47	5.37
409	-0.27	204.2	2.45	5.32
413	-0.26	215.9	2.42	5.37
433	-0.25	207.9	2.31	5.34
435	-0.24	146.7	2.30	4.99
438	-0.25	156.9	2.28	5.06
441	-0.26	158.1	2.27	5.06
443	-0.21	119.7	2.26	4.78
445	-0.21	128.9	2.25	4.86
476	-0.21	138.1	2.10	4.93
476	-0.20	127.0	2.10	4.84
510	-0.19	115.4	1.96	4.75
513	-0.19	103.9	1.95	4.64
542	-0.16	94.1	1.85	4.54
543	-0.17	83.7	1.84	4.43
599	-0.05	253.7	1.67	5.54
599	-0.05	231.6	1.67	5.45
634	-0.02	508.2	1.58	6.23
640	-0.02	523.6	1.56	6.26
687	-0.02	1277.8	1.46	7.15
687	-0.02	1201.1	1.46	7.09

Table A.4.10. Ru particle sizes over 1wt%Ru/CeO₂, Ce_{0.9}Al_{0.1}O_{2-δ}, and Ce_{0.9}Sr_{0.1}O_{2-δ}.

Catalyst	Ru particle size
/ -	/ nm
1wt%Ru/CeO ₂	2.05
1wt%Ru/Ce _{0.9} Al _{0.1} O _{2-δ}	1.88
1wt%Ru/Ce _{0.9} Sr _{0.1} O _{2-δ}	3.75

Table A.4.11. Specific surface area of CeO_2 , $\text{Ce}_{0.9}\text{Al}_{0.1}\text{O}_{2-\delta}$, $\text{Ce}_{0.9}\text{Sr}_{0.1}\text{O}_{2-\delta}$.

Sample / -	Specific surface area / $\text{m}^2 \text{g}^{-1}$
CeO_2	25
$\text{Ce}_{0.9}\text{Al}_{0.1}\text{O}_{2-\delta}$	83
$\text{Ce}_{0.9}\text{Sr}_{0.1}\text{O}_{2-\delta}$	51

Table A.4.12. NH₃ synthesis rate (r): Catalyst, 1wt%Ru/CeO₂; applied current, 0 mA; total flow rate, 240 SCCM; P_{H_2} , 0.75 atom; total pressure, 0.1 MPa.

Catalyst bed temperature / K	NH ₃ synthesis rate / $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$	TOF-s / s^{-1}	1000/ T / K^{-1}	$\ln r$ / -	$\ln \text{TOF-s}$ / -
580	335.0	0.004	1.73	5.81	-5.60
581	349.9	0.004	1.72	5.86	-5.56
631	1066.5	0.012	1.58	6.97	-4.44
632	951.1	0.010	1.58	6.86	-4.56
684	2713.0	0.030	1.46	7.91	-3.51
686	2337.2	0.026	1.46	7.76	-3.66
737	4286.2	0.047	1.36	8.36	-3.05

Table A.4.13. NH₃ synthesis rate (r): Catalyst, 1wt%Ru/Ce_{0.9}Al_{0.1}O_{2- δ} ; applied current, 0 mA; total flow rate, 240 SCCM; P_{H_2} , 0.75 atom; total pressure, 0.1 MPa.

Catalyst bed temperature / K	NH ₃ synthesis rate / $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$	TOF-s / s^{-1}	1000/ T / K^{-1}	$\ln r$ / -	$\ln \text{TOF-s}$ / -
582	318.6	0.003	1.72	5.76	-5.74
583	283.9	0.003	1.72	5.65	-5.85
634	962.2	0.010	1.58	6.87	-4.63
634	843.4	0.009	1.58	6.74	-4.76
686	2288.2	0.023	1.46	7.74	-3.77
737	5089.3	0.051	1.36	8.53	-2.97

Table A.4.14. NH₃ synthesis rate (r): Catalyst, 1wt%Ru/Ce_{0.9}Sr_{0.1}O_{2- δ} ; applied current, 0 mA; total flow rate, 240 SCCM; P_{H_2} , 0.75 atom; total pressure, 0.1 MPa.

Catalyst bed temperature / K	NH ₃ synthesis rate / $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$	TOF-s / s^{-1}	1000/ T / K^{-1}	$\ln r$ / -	$\ln \text{TOF-s}$ / -
583	230.7	0.005	1.71	5.44	-5.37
634	440.4	0.009	1.58	6.09	-4.72
686	1175.8	0.024	1.46	7.07	-3.74
686	1204.9	0.024	1.46	7.09	-3.72
738	2399.1	0.048	1.36	7.78	-3.03

Chapter 5 General Conclusion

Control of OH groups over the CeO₂ surface and its utilization for catalysis has been described throughout this thesis.

Chapter 2 described the tuning of interaction between H₂O and surfaces of CeO₂-based materials by heterocation doping. H₂O adsorption plays an important role in various catalyses related to surface H atom migration including surface protonics in the electric field. First, DFT calculations were performed. Then CeO₂ (111) surfaces doped with two heterocations were constructed. Results revealed differences in heterocation distribution. Heterocations with smaller ionic radii and smaller valences preferably adjoin mutually. The same trend was confirmed using XRD and Raman measurements. Secondly, heterocation-doping effects on H₂O adsorption were investigated using the optimized Ce_{1-x}M_xO_{2-δ} (111) surfaces. Results revealed that the H₂O–CeO₂ interaction was governed by the ionic radius of the heterocations. Surfaces doped with smaller heterocations present benefits for strong binding. Moreover, *in-situ* DRIFTS measurements were taken to confirm the suggestion from DFT calculations. Results show that the peaks derived from the stretching vibrations in O–H are red-shifted by doping of heterocations with smaller ionic radii. The validity of DFT-calculated results was confirmed.

Chapter 3 described the heterocation-doping effects on interaction between H atoms over lattice oxygen (O_{lat}-H⁺) and CeO₂-based materials under a H₂ atmosphere. To separate possible heterocation-doping effects (*e.g.* heterocation-induced electron transfer, heterocation-induced lattice distortion, and adsorption-induced lattice distortion), DFT calculations with multiple flows were performed. The results indicate that electron-depleted lattice oxygen and lattice flexibility play important roles in the strong adsorption of H atoms. Electron-depleted lattice oxygen can be formed by doping of heterocations with low valences and small ionic radii. Doping of heterocations with smaller ionic radii provides a high degree of CeO₂ matrix flexibility. The DFT-suggestion was confirmed experimentally using XPS measurements.

Chapter 4 described the importance of the OH–CeO₂ interaction for catalysis in the electric field under H₂ atmosphere. NH₃ synthesis in the electric field was chosen as a model reaction. First, the temperature dependence of the synthesis rate in the electric field was considered. Results revealed the specific temperature dependence of the NH₃ synthesis rate during application of the electric field. Three regions were confirmed: The synthesis rate increased as the temperature decreased at around 373–573 K. Arrhenius-like behavior was confirmed in the other two regions ($T > 573$ K or $T < 373$ K). Findings reported herein show that NH₃ synthesis in the electric field proceeds *via* the “associative mechanism”, where N₂H is formed from N₂ on active metals and O_{lat}-H⁺ over supports. Therefore, *in-situ* FT-IR measurements were conducted to investigate the temperature dependence in O_{lat}-H⁺ coverage over CeO₂. Consequently, O_{lat}-H⁺ coverage increased concomitantly with the decrease in catalyst bed temperatures. Those results suggest the importance of O_{lat}-H⁺ coverage in the catalysis in the electric field. The overall reaction rate in the electric

field was formulated based on the inference described above. Then, the calculated values showed excellent agreement with the experimentally obtained values, elucidating the fundamentally important role of $O_{\text{lat}}\text{-H}^+$ coverage quantitatively. Finally, we studied the effects on the NH_3 synthesis rate obtained with control of $O_{\text{lat}}\text{-H}^+$ contents by doping. The NH_3 synthesis rate in the electric field at around 373–573 K increased by increasing the OH coverage with the addition of Al.

Through the work described in this thesis, the objectives listed below were achieved.

1. Elucidation of the controlling factors of interactions between H_2O and CeO_2 : The ionic radius dominates the H_2O adsorption over CeO_2 .
2. Elucidation of the governing factors of interactions between $O_{\text{lat}}\text{-H}^+$ atoms and CeO_2 : Electron-deficiency of lattice oxygen and lattice flexibility plays an important role in H atom adsorption. Ionic radii and valences of heterocations strongly influence the controlling factors described above.
3. Elucidating the importance of $O_{\text{lat}}\text{-H}^+$ coverage on catalysis in the electric field under H_2 atmosphere: The increment of $O_{\text{lat}}\text{-H}^+$ coverage led to higher catalytic reactions in the electric field.

This knowledge can be a great milestone for the further development of catalysis related to OH groups.

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早稲田大学 博士（工学） 学位申請 研究業績書
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