



# Activated carbon fibers loaded with MnO<sub>2</sub> for removing NO at room temperature



Mingxi Wang<sup>1</sup>, Henian Liu<sup>1</sup>, Zheng-Hong Huang<sup>\*</sup>, Feiyu Kang

Laboratory of Advanced Materials, School of Material Science and Engineering, Tsinghua University, Beijing 100084, China

## HIGHLIGHTS

- We prepared MnO<sub>2</sub>-loaded activated carbon fibers by co-precipitation method.
- MnO<sub>2</sub> loading can remarkably promote ACF's catalytic oxidation efficiency for NO.
- The NO removal efficiency of MnO<sub>2</sub>/ACF composite depends on the MnO<sub>2</sub> loaded amount.

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## ABSTRACT

MnO<sub>2</sub> loaded on activated carbon fibers (MnO<sub>2</sub>@ACF) were successfully prepared using co-precipitation methods, the as-prepared MnO<sub>2</sub>@ACF were characterized by scanning electron microscopy (SEM), X-ray diffraction (XRD), temperature-programmed desorption (TPD), X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) and N<sub>2</sub> adsorption/desorption analysis. The results showed that MnO<sub>2</sub> particles were highly dispersed with a strong interaction between MnO<sub>2</sub> particles and ACFs. MnO<sub>2</sub> loaded on ACF can promote the catalytic oxidation efficiency of NO into NO<sub>2</sub> remarkably, the loaded amount of MnO<sub>2</sub> has an obvious effect on the NO oxidation efficiency over MnO<sub>2</sub>@ACF. The optimal amount of MnO<sub>2</sub> for MnO<sub>2</sub>@ACF is 3.64 wt.%, and the oxidation efficiency of NO was increased from 20.1% over A15 to 30.6% over MnO<sub>2</sub>@ACF.

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## 1. Introduction

Nitrogen oxides (NO<sub>x</sub>) emitted from mobile vehicles and stationary sources are severe harmful atmospheric pollutants for humanity and ecosystem because they can induce acid rain, photochemical smog, and ozone depletion [1,2], so NO<sub>x</sub> removal has been the subject of very intense research in the recent years. Among all the NO<sub>x</sub>, NO is considered to be the most abundant NO<sub>x</sub> contaminants and the most difficult to be removed from ambient air, because NO is nearly insoluble in water as a kind of colorless and odorless gas, while NO<sub>2</sub> is relatively easy to be removed owing to its good dissolving nature in water. Thus, the focus and difficulty of NO<sub>x</sub> removal is NO elimination.

Up to now, the extensively studied method of NO removal is selective catalytic reduction (SCR) of NO with ammonia [3–5], V-based catalysts V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>-WO<sub>3</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> [6] are used as a common catalyst in the NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR process, which shows high catalytic activity and selectivity. However, some inevitable problems exist in the

process of NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR, such as the high working temperature, the toxicity of vanadium-species [7] and low N<sub>2</sub> selectivity in high temperature range. Moreover, NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR is appropriate to high concentration NO but low efficiency on low concentration, thus NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR is generally employed to remove high concentration NO at high temperature from stationary source. Therefore, it is urgent to develop applicable materials or catalysts that can remove low-concentration NO effectively at room temperature.

Another route for removing NO is oxidizing NO into NO<sub>2</sub>, which has attracted considerable interests because it can proceed in air at room temperature thermally over some catalysts [8], the produced NO<sub>2</sub> is captured by basic water as nitrate. Nevertheless, NO is readily to be oxidized into NO<sub>2</sub> by O<sub>2</sub> in the case of high concentration without catalyst even at room temperature, while it is extremely difficult to transform into NO<sub>2</sub> at low concentration the dynamic limit of NO oxidation [9]. Carbonaceous materials, such as activated carbon [10–12], activated carbon fibers (ACF) [13–15], carbon nanofibers (CNF) [16,17] and carbon xerogels [18] have been proved as effective catalysts of NO oxidation at room temperature, because carbonaceous materials possess many desirable properties, low cost, resistance to acid and base, large surface area and developed pore structure, and high catalytic activity. Most

<sup>\*</sup> Corresponding author. Tel.: +86 10 62773752; fax: +86 10 62771160.

E-mail address: [zh Huang@mail.tsinghua.edu.cn](mailto:zh Huang@mail.tsinghua.edu.cn) (Z.-H. Huang).

<sup>1</sup> Equal contribution.

researches related to NO removal by carbonaceous materials have been summarized in the recent review [19].

Previously, we investigated the catalytic oxidation of low concentration (20 ppm) NO into NO<sub>2</sub> over activated carbon nanofibers (ACNFs) at room temperature, the results show that NO can be effectively oxidized into NO<sub>2</sub> even at low concentration [16], and the oxidation efficiency can be further increased when graphitized carbon nanofibers were used as catalysts [17]. Although ACNFs possess excellent catalytic activity for NO oxidation at room temperature, it is not feasible currently to remove NO using ACNFs as catalysts on a large scale due to their high costs. The most promising materials used widely to remove NO at room temperature may be ACFs, some researches on NO oxidation using ACFs as catalysts have been conducted at room temperature [20–22], but most of these studies focused on high-concentration NO (>400 ppm) oxidation. In our previous work, we investigated the catalytic oxidation of low concentration NO of 50 ppm over pitch-based ACFs at 30 °C [23], and found that ACFs can catalytically oxidize NO into NO<sub>2</sub> in the case of low concentration (50 ppm) at room temperature.

To further enhance the catalytic activity of NO oxidation over ACFs, loading some suitable catalysts on ACFs is an available choice. Many transition metal oxide catalysts, such as cerium oxide (CeO<sub>2</sub>) [24,25], titanium dioxide (TiO<sub>2</sub>) [26,27], cobalt oxide (Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>) [28], especially manganese oxides (MnO<sub>x</sub>) [29,30] are effective in NO oxidation process. Here, MnO<sub>2</sub> were co-precipitated onto ACFs and the effects of MnO<sub>2</sub> loading on the catalytic activity of NO oxidation were investigated. It was expected that loading MnO<sub>2</sub> would enhance the oxidation activity of ACFs against NO at room temperature.

## 2. Experimental

### 2.1. Materials preparation

Pitch based ACF (A15) was supplied by Osaka Gas Co., Ltd. The ACF sample was dried at 110 °C for 12 h in vacuum drying oven. Other reagents such as Mn(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>, KMnO<sub>4</sub>, are all analytically pure (AR) reagents and purchased from Beijing Modern Fine Chemical Co., Ltd.

The process of co-precipitation for loading manganese oxide on ACF was as follows: ACF was firstly dipped into manganous nitrate (Mn(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>) solution, then potassium permanganate (KMnO<sub>4</sub>) solution was added under violent stirring, redox reaction occurred between KMnO<sub>4</sub> and Mn(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub> which resulted in manganese oxide depositing in the surface and pores of ACF. Adjusting the concentrations of Mn(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub> and KMnO<sub>4</sub>, MnO<sub>2</sub>-loaded ACF (MnO<sub>2</sub>@ACF) with controllable MnO<sub>2</sub> loading amount can be obtained. Here, various concentrations (0.005~0.05 mol/L) of KMnO<sub>4</sub> and Mn(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub> were used, ACF sample was firstly soaked in Mn(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub> solution for 1 h, then KMnO<sub>4</sub> solution was dropwise added under violent stirring. After the solution containing ACF was stirred continuously for 90 min, the ACF was taken out of the solution and dried at 120 °C for 4 h in vacuum drying oven. Finally, the dried ACF was heat treated at 200 °C for 2 h under N<sub>2</sub>. The MnO<sub>2</sub> content was determined by the mass difference between the pristine ACFs and the ACFs loaded with MnO<sub>2</sub>.

### 2.2. Characterization

The morphologies of ACF samples were observed by a field emission scanning electron microscope (SEM, LEO-1530). Powder X-ray diffraction (XRD) was performed with a D8 advance X-ray diffractometer using nickel filtered Cu-Kα (40 kV, 30 mA) radiation and a secondary beam graphite monochromator. The samples were

scanned at a rate of 4°/min over the range of 5° ≤ 2θ ≤ 90°. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) was recorded on a Thermo Scientific ESCALAB 250Xi system equipped with a dual X-ray source using Al-Kα. All the binding energies were calibrated using contaminant carbon (C1s = 284.6 eV) as a reference, the chemical state of all substances are determined according to Handbook of X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (Chastain J, 1992).

Nitrogen adsorption–desorption isotherms of all samples were measured in volumetric adsorption systems (BELSORP-max, Bel, Japan) at 77 K. Before the measurements, all the samples were degassed at 200 °C for 12 h. The specific surface area of samples was calculated by α<sub>s</sub> method [31], because α<sub>s</sub> is more suitable to evaluating the surface area of samples that show typical I-type adsorption–desorption isotherms. The pore volume and pore size distribution of samples were calculated by applying the quenched solid density functional theory (QSDFT) [32] to the nitrogen isotherms.

Temperature-programmed desorption (TPD) experiments of NO/O<sub>2</sub> were conducted on a Chem BET Pulsar chemisorption analyzer (Quantachrome Instruments, USA). In the NO-TPD experiments, about 20 mg sample was used and firstly outgassed at 200 °C in He atmosphere (100 ml/min) for 1 h, then cooled to 50 °C. After NO/O<sub>2</sub> (60 SCCM) was passed through the sample for 60 min, the sample was flushed with He at the same temperature for 30 min. Finally, the sample was subsequently subjected to TPD under He flow, the TPD operation was carried out from 50 to 1000 °C at a ramping rate of 10 °C/min, and the He flow was 100 SCCM. The evolved gases were monitored by a thermal conductivity detector (TCD).

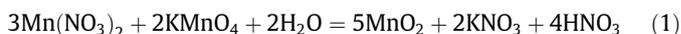
### 2.3. Catalytic activity measurements

The catalytic oxidation activity measurement of MnO<sub>2</sub>@ACF was carried out in a fixed-bed quartz micro-reactor (φ 11 mm × 50 mm) operating in a steady state flow mode, 100 mg of the sample was used in each test and the packing length of sample in reactor was 6 mm. The reactant gas consists of 50 ppm NO, 21 vol.% O<sub>2</sub> with balance N<sub>2</sub>, the total flow rate were adjusted to 200 SCCM by mass flow control system. The temperature was monitored at 30 °C with a thermostatic water bath through dipping the reactor in the water bath, the concentration of NO<sub>x</sub> in the inlet and outlet gas was measured by a NO<sub>x</sub> chemiluminescence analyzer of NO–NO<sub>2</sub>–NO<sub>x</sub> (Thermo Electron Co., USA, model 42i).

## 3. Results and discussion

### 3.1. Characteristics of MnO<sub>2</sub>@ACF

As described in Section 2.1, MnO<sub>2</sub> was loaded on ACFs in-situ by co-precipitation method, MnO<sub>2</sub> was produced by the following reactions:



The co-precipitation method is an effective way to synthesize MnO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles, high purity MnO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles can be obtained, and as-produced precipitants are MnO<sub>2</sub>, which is confirmed by the XRD patterns (Fig. 1). Obviously, the amount of KMnO<sub>4</sub> and Mn(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub> determine the amount of MnO<sub>2</sub>, different amount of MnO<sub>2</sub> can be loaded onto ACF by adjusting the concentration of KMnO<sub>4</sub> and Mn(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>, the results are listed in Table 1, the loading amount of MnO<sub>2</sub> increased with increase of concentrations of the Mn sources.

The XRD patterns of MnO<sub>2</sub> powder and MnO<sub>2</sub>@ACFs prepared by co-precipitation are shown in Fig. 1. It can be seen that the

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