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## Research article

Antimony modification of VO<sub>x</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR catalysts and the effect of thermal aging

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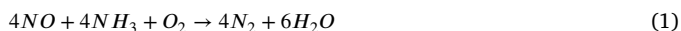
Aging

## ABSTRACT

Titanium oxide supported vanadium oxide (VO<sub>x</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub>) remains an important material for catalytic reduction of NO<sub>x</sub> emissions, but to address future air pollution scenarios, its thermal stability must be improved without sacrificing its catalytic SCR activity. In this study, antimony oxide modified VO<sub>x</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> catalysts were prepared via incipient wetness impregnation and investigated both in fresh state and after thermal stress at 580 °C in static air for 100 h, reflecting a common aging protocol in automotive applications. Characterization of the fresh and aged catalysts was performed by nitrogen physisorption, ammonia temperature-programmed desorption, Raman and *in situ* infrared spectroscopy and compared with the bare TiO<sub>2</sub> support and an unmodified VO<sub>x</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> catalyst as references. The addition of antimony oxide stabilizes the anatase TiO<sub>2</sub> phase and shows an inherent standard SCR activity even in the absence of vanadium. The modification of VO<sub>x</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> catalysts by antimony oxide reveal an improved SCR performance after aging despite the formation of V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> and rutile at a high V loading. This improvement may be related to enhanced redox properties that are influenced by the V/Sb molar ratio, with the catalyst having a molar V/Sb ratio of 1.2 showing particularly notable activity after aging. Variations in the impregnation sequence have shown that co-impregnation of both components in fresh state is the most favorable synthesis route in terms of standard SCR activity, although the catalytic properties converge after aging. Further, the modification with antimony oxide resulted in a significantly reduced N<sub>2</sub>O formation, indicating improved selectivity toward the desired reaction.

## 1. Introduction

The awareness of the environmental impact of NO<sub>x</sub> gases (NO and NO<sub>2</sub>) originating from combustion processes, along with the introduction of legislative emission standards, has initiated the development of suitable technologies to meet the defined requirements. The selective catalytic reduction (SCR) of the NO<sub>x</sub> gases with ammonia (NH<sub>3</sub>) is the most common post-treatment method currently employed. The main reaction in this process is the reduction of NO<sub>x</sub> gases with NH<sub>3</sub> in presence of oxygen, the so-called standard SCR reaction, subsequently forming nitrogen and water as shown in Eq. (1). For the application in mobile sources, a urea solution is used as ammonia source, decomposing to NH<sub>3</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> when injected into the exhaust gas stream.



Vanadium oxide-based catalysts (VO<sub>x</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub>) are commonly used in urea-based SCR systems as they have relatively low material costs, are resistant to sulfuric compounds, and show low formation of N<sub>2</sub>O [1,2]. The respective loading of the catalytic active material is a crucial aspect for the activity and thermal stability of V-based SCR catalysts. Although a low V loading is beneficial for thermal stability, a high loading is generally associated with a higher SCR activity [3]. Depending on the loading, the vanadium oxide species are present in the form of monomers, polymers, or V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> crystallites. Polymeric VO<sub>x</sub> species have shown the highest activity, which is associated with the so-called “coupling effect” where the interacting adjacent VO<sub>x</sub> species shorten the regeneration time of the redox sites, thus resulting in an overall lower energy barrier of the catalytic cycle [4]. VO<sub>x</sub>-based SCR catalysts currently used in industry, contain about 2 wt% of vanadium to achieve a high ratio of polymeric VO<sub>x</sub> while minimizing undesired side reactions, e.g. the oxidation of SO<sub>2</sub> to SO<sub>3</sub>, which can convert to sulfuric acid (H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>) in the presence of moisture [1,5,6].

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However, the application in mobile sources demand efficient and durable catalysts that have to fulfill specific requirements. The ideal SCR catalyst must function satisfactorily in a broad temperature window, with sufficient activity at low temperatures during cold starts, while also being stable at higher temperatures when engine loads are high [3]. Certain drawbacks of  $\text{VO}_x$ -based catalysts are the narrow temperature operating window of 300–400 °C, while exhaust temperatures can vary from 150 °C to 650 °C [3]. Another critical aspect is the potential formation and release of hazardous  $\text{V}_2\text{O}_5$  [7], due to the relatively low Tamman temperature of bulk  $\text{V}_2\text{O}_5$  (209 °C) [8]. This behavior was encountered in engine-based volatility tests with the release of small amounts of vanadium started from 500 °C under SCR conditions [9].

To meet these challenges, catalyst development focused on stabilizing the support, preventing the formation of  $\text{V}_2\text{O}_5$ , and improving the redox properties of the active phase by introduction of different additives [10]. The implementation of tungsten (W) modifier has been shown to promote the structural and thermal stability of the  $\text{VO}_x$  species while also extending the SCR activity temperature window towards higher temperatures [11]. Silicon (Si) has proven to maintain the stability of the  $\text{TiO}_2$  support as it decelerates the sintering process [9, 12–15]. As the inclusion of W and Si has been extensively studied, current catalyst formulations can be considered to be almost mature. This motivates the search for new ways of structural improvement of  $\text{VO}_x/\text{TiO}_2$  catalysts to improve the catalyst technology. Recently, the addition of antimony, cerium or niobium oxides have been proposed to be promising in order to meet the fore-mentioned challenges, such as improving low-temperature activity and thermal stability as well as resistance to  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  and  $\text{SO}_2$  [16–19]. While the synergistic impact of antimony has been studied in combination with tungsten [20], niobium [16], or cerium [21–24], only a few studies have been focused exclusively on the effect of antimony [16,25]. These studies, however, lack the analysis of the effect of thermal stress or aging.

The present work reports on the modification of  $\text{VO}_x/\text{TiO}_2$  catalysts with antimony focusing on the physico-chemical and catalytic properties before and after thermal stress. Catalysts with industrially relevant vanadium loadings (1.5 to 3.5 wt%) were prepared, analyzed and compared with references. In addition, the influence of the impregnation sequence, i.e. co-impregnation or sequential impregnation of V and Sb, was investigated. The surface properties of fresh and thermally treated catalysts have been characterized with several techniques to correlate the surface area, crystallite size, and acidity with the catalyst structure. Specifically, *in situ* infrared spectroscopy was used to monitor surface species upon adsorption of  $\text{NH}_3$  or NO, which are two common probe molecules that, on the one hand, provide essential information about surface sites and, on the other hand, are relevant for the SCR reaction.

## 2. Materials and methods

### 2.1. Catalyst preparation and characterization

The samples were prepared by incipient wetness impregnation of DT-51D  $\text{TiO}_2$  powder (99 wt% anatase, Tronox plc) using  $(\text{VO}(\text{C}_2\text{O}_4)_2)_3$  (GfE GmbH) and antimony(III) acetate solution  $(\text{Sb}(\text{CH}_3\text{CO}_2)_3)_3$  (Sigma-Aldrich) as precursors. After impregnation, the powder samples were calcined in stationary air at 500 °C for one hour, referred to as ‘fresh’ samples. For the preparation of the sequential impregnated catalysts, the samples were calcined under the same conditions in between the precursor addition. In consideration of the fluctuating exhaust gas temperature in mobile sources between ambient and maximum temperatures, the combined effect of temperature over an extended period of time was tested. An accelerated aging protocol may include engine testing or an atmosphere-controlled lab furnace, aiming to test the catalysts under more realistic conditions (e.g. presence of water vapor or contaminants). However, those protocols are impractical for rapid screening tests. In this study, thermal aging was performed by

exposing a portion of the fresh samples at 580 °C for 100 h in stationary air, correlating to a common operation situation the average conditions under operation. The resulting samples are labeled as ‘aged’. An overview of the prepared samples with the targeted composition and physico-chemical properties is given in Table S.1.

The Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) model was used to determine the specific surface area (SSA). To that end, nitrogen physisorption was measured at –196 °C with a Micromeritics Tristar 3000 instrument using approximately 200 mg of sample. Prior to the measurements, the samples were dried at 250 °C in a nitrogen flow for 6 h.

Temperature-programmed desorption (TPD) experiments with ammonia ( $\text{NH}_3$ ) were conducted with a Sensys DSC calorimeter from Setaram. The outlet gases from the calorimeter were monitored by mass spectrometry (Hiden HPR 20 QUI MS). About 50 mg of the sample was pretreated in 10%  $\text{O}_2$  at 500 °C for 30 min and cooled down to 100 °C in Argon atmosphere. 2000 ppm  $\text{NH}_3$  was introduced for 2 h followed by purging with Argon until the  $\text{NH}_3$  signal vanished. For the TPD experiment, the desorbed  $\text{NH}_3$  signal ( $m/z = 17$ ) was measured continuously while the temperature was increased from 100 °C up to 700 °C (at a rate of 5 °C/min) and kept constant at 700 °C for 30 min. The  $\text{NH}_3$  uptake was determined by subtraction of the baseline and integration of the TPD profile. It should be noted that a potential source of error in the measurements are variations of the sample mass ( $\pm 1$  mg), which translates to an error of  $\pm 3\%$  in the determined  $\text{NH}_3$  uptake.

The crystallinity of the samples was analyzed with powder X-ray diffraction (XRD) on a Bruker AXS D8 Discover diffractometer equipped with monochromatic  $\text{Cu-K}\alpha$  radiation source (0.15406 nm) operating at 40 kV and 40 mA. The diffractograms were recorded under ambient conditions in the  $2\theta$  range from 10° to 80°, with incremental steps of 0.022° with a dwell time of 1 s. The  $\text{TiO}_2$  anatase crystallite size was determined by adopting the Scherrer equation for the signal at the angle of 25°.

Raman spectroscopy was performed with an InVia Reflex spectrometer from Renishaw in the back scattering mode using a high power near-infrared diode laser ( $\lambda = 532$  nm) as excitation source. The spectra were recorded under ambient conditions collecting 20 accumulations for 10 s each and using a laser power of 0.6 mW (measured along the optical path before the objective) to prevent any dehydration of the  $\text{VO}_x$  particles as a consequence of local heating. A spectral resolution better than  $2\text{ cm}^{-1}$  was achieved using a grating with 2400 l/mm. The optical image of the selected spots (focused with a 50x Leica objective) was always checked before and after collecting the Raman spectra, to exclude any damage due to the laser illumination. The presented Raman spectra were baseline-subtracted using a linear background and normalized to the peak intensity of the feature at  $639\text{ cm}^{-1}$ .

The *in situ* DRIFTS experiments were performed with a Bruker Vertex 70 spectrometer, which was equipped with a high-temperature stainless steel reaction cell (Harrick Praying Mantis™ High Temperature Reaction Chamber) with  $\text{CaF}_2$  windows and a nitrogen cooled MCT detector. The temperature of the sample holder was controlled by a PID regulator (Eurotherm) and measured using a thermocouple (type K). Another thermocouple was placed within the sample bed to obtain the bed temperature. The feed to the reaction cell was controlled via individual mass flow controllers (Bronkhorst), with a total flow of  $100\text{ mL min}^{-1}$  in all experiments. Only the particle size fraction of 40–80  $\mu\text{m}$  of the sample powder was used. Prior to the experiment the samples were pretreated at a sample bed temperature of 290 °C with 10 vol%  $\text{O}_2$  in Ar for 30 min and then cooled in Ar to the desired temperature, collecting a background spectrum. The experiments were performed by introducing a flow of 500 ppm  $\text{NH}_3$  or NO to the reaction cell. The  $\text{NH}_3$  adsorption was performed at 80 °C in order to avoid any potential interference with traces of co-adsorbed water. The region between 950–4100  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  was recorded with a spectral resolution of  $4\text{ cm}^{-1}$ . The peak decomposition was performed with the IGOR Pro 8 (wavemetrics) data fitting routine using a Levenberg–Marquardt algorithm. The spectra were fitted by several Voigt profiles with the

same shape parameter, which is defined as the ratio of Lorentzian and Gaussian widths ( $\sqrt{\ln 2} \cdot (W_L/W_G)$ ), and the peak position were matched, based on the time-resolved spectra (details are specified in Ref. [26]). Prior to the fitting procedure, the spectrum was aligned with a spline and subtracted. In order to compare the decomposition of each sample before and after aging, the peak positions were fixed with a constraint of  $\pm 0.5 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  while the intensity and width of the peaks were set free to vary.

The  $\text{NH}_3$ -SCR activity measurements and monitoring the  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  formation were carried out in a vertical fixed-bed stainless steel flow-reactor. The synthetic feed gas was composed from high purity gases using a set of mass flow controllers with a top to bottom flow. The effluent gas stream including  $\text{NO}$ ,  $\text{NH}_3$ ,  $\text{NO}_2$  and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  was analyzed continuously by on-line gas phase Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) spectrometer (MKS). About 0.3 g of pelletized powder (250–300  $\mu\text{m}$ ) was used for each sample. In order to represent the operation of common SCR converter in heavy-duty vehicles, the reaction conditions were controlled as follows: 500 ppm  $\text{NO}$ , 525 ppm  $\text{NH}_3$ , 300 ppm  $\text{CO}$ , 3%  $\text{CO}_2$ , 10%  $\text{O}_2$ , 5 vol%  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  and  $\text{N}_2$  balance with a gas hourly space velocity of 60,000  $\text{h}^{-1}$ . The sample was exposed to the reaction mixture at 175  $^\circ\text{C}$  until stable and the temperature was then increased step-wise to 200, 225, 250, 300, 350, 400 and 450  $^\circ\text{C}$  with 30–40 min at each temperature. The FT-IR spectra were collected after the SCR reaction reached a steady state, and the  $\text{NO}_x$  conversion was calculated as follows:

$$\text{NO}_x \text{ conversion} = \frac{[\text{NO}_x]_{\text{in}} - [\text{NO}_x]_{\text{out}}}{[\text{NO}_x]_{\text{in}}} \cdot 100\% \quad (2)$$

Using the  $\text{NO}_x$  conversion data collected in the kinetically controlled regime, the apparent activation energy ( $E_{\text{app}}$ ) was estimated via Arrhenius plots where  $\ln(\text{NO}_x \text{ conversion})$  was plotted against  $1/T$ . From the slope ( $m$ ), the apparent activation energy was calculated as  $E_{\text{app}} = -m \cdot R$  with  $R = 8.3145 \text{ J/(mol K)}$ .

### 3. Results and discussion

#### 3.1. Impact of antimony on $\text{TiO}_2$

A comparison of the specific surface area (SSA) and crystallite size for the bare ( $\text{TiO}_2$ ) and modified support ( $\text{Sb/TiO}_2$ ) reveals that antimony has a stabilizing impact on the anatase phase. After the aging procedure, the surface area of the bare support decreases by about 46% (from 88 to 47  $\text{m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ ). This loss is mainly due to particle growth of the anatase phase [27], as confirmed by XRD analysis which reveals an increase of the particle size by 24% (from 196 to 257  $\text{\AA}$ ). In contrast, with the addition of antimony, the surface area is preserved for the modified support ( $\text{Sb/TiO}_2$ ) showing a minor loss of 5% (from 76 to 72  $\text{m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ ) and a nearly unaffected particle size after aging (from 192 to 204  $\text{\AA}$ ), proving a stabilizing effect of antimony on  $\text{TiO}_2$ . The respective XRD diffractogram (SI, Fig. S1) is dominated by  $\text{TiO}_2$  anatase signatures, whereas no signatures related to antimony-oxides or -titanates were observed, indicating a high dispersion of antimony oxide particles.

The sample surface and the interaction with ammonia, a key reactant in the SCR reaction, were further studied via ammonia temperature-programmed desorption experiments (TPD) and *in situ* DRIFTS upon adsorption of  $\text{NH}_3$ . The  $\text{NH}_3$  uptake was determined based on integration of the TPD profiles (SI, Fig. S2). The comparison of the  $\text{NH}_3$  uptake for the bare support before and after aging shows a similar trend as to the surface area, with a decrease of 44% (from 250 to 141  $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1}$ ). Upon modification with antimony, the  $\text{NH}_3$  uptake is relatively low (80  $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1}$ ), indicating that antimony does not enhance the overall acidity nor provides additional acid sites. Notably, after the aging procedure, the  $\text{NH}_3$  uptake is increased by 54% (to 123  $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1}$ ).

The DRIFT spectra in Fig. 1 show  $\text{NH}_3$  ad-species by positive adsorption bands in the region between 1700 and 1100  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  and provide information about Lewis and Brønsted acid sites. Negative features are

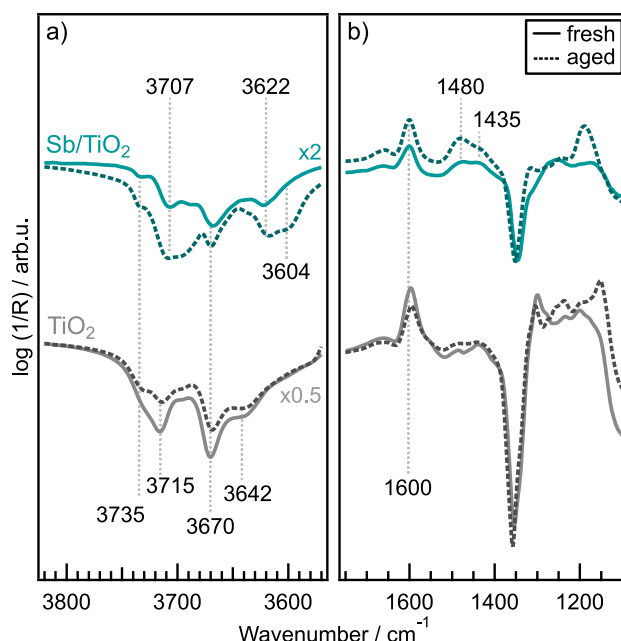
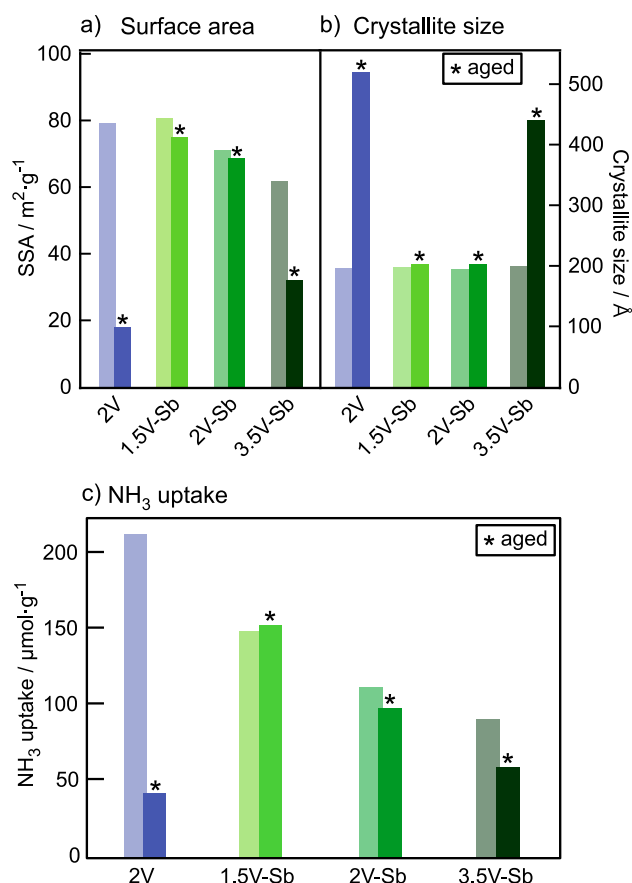


Fig. 1. DRIFT spectra of the bare and Sb-modified  $\text{TiO}_2$  support before (solid line) and after (dashed line) aging for the  $\text{NH}_3$  adsorption at 80  $^\circ\text{C}$ . (a)  $\nu(\text{O-H})$  region and (b)  $\delta(\text{N-H})$  deformation modes of ammonia. The OH bands were adjusted by factor  $x$  for a better visibility.

observed in the region 3800–3500  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ , which result from suppressed O-H vibrations due to the coverage by ammonia coupled with the formation of  $\text{NH}_4^+$ . In addition, the negative band around 1360  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  originates from hindered S=O stretching vibrations from surface sulfates as the support is prepared via the sulfate route [28–30].

The bare  $\text{TiO}_2$  support exhibits a series of suppressed OH bands (Fig. 1a) that are related to isolated (3735, 3715  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ) and bridged (3670, 3642  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ) titania hydroxyl groups on different surface facets [27], while the adsorption bands in the N-H deformation region (Fig. 1b) (1700–1100  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ) signify ammonia adsorption predominantly on Lewis acid sites (1600  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ). Minor bands at 1470–1440  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  origin from ammonium cations ( $\text{NH}_4^+$ ) formed by the protonation of adsorbed ammonia, hence Brønsted acid sites are available on the bare support. As demonstrated in our earlier work [26], Brønsted acid sites can be differentiated by the N-H vibrations of the ammonium cation that is formed on isolated (1480  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ) and bridged (1430  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ) hydroxyl groups, thus declared as monomeric and polymeric Brønsted acid site. With the addition of antimony ( $\text{Sb/TiO}_2$ ), the intensity of the suppressed OH signals is relatively low, suggesting that most of the  $\text{TiO}_2$  sites are covered by antimony entities. The bands at 3670 and 3735  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  are related to the OH groups of titania, while the bands at 3707 and 3624  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  are suggested to origin from isolated Sb-OH and bridged OH groups, either Sb-(OH)-Ti or Sb-(OH)-Sb, as there are no such bands on the bare  $\text{TiO}_2$  support. The ammonia adsorption bands reveal the adsorption mainly on Lewis acid sites (1600  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ) along with weak bands of Brønsted acid sites (1480–1440  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ). After the aging procedure, the OH bands intensify with the band at 3707  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  as a new main band, and a shoulder around 3604  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  is observed. The more intense band at 3707  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  suggests that more isolated Sb-OH sites have formed throughout the aging process while revealing additional  $\text{TiO}_2$  sites as the intensity of the bands at 3735 and 3670  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  also increase. The presence of bridging OH groups is evident by the increased intensity of the bands at 3622–3604  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  and are assigned to Sb-(OH)-Sb and Sb-(OH)-Ti. The N-H deformation modes exhibit that the intensity of both Lewis (1600  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ) and the monomeric Brønsted acid sites (1480  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ) increase. Thus, the *in situ* DRIFT spectra indicate that throughout thermal treatment, more





**Fig. 2.** Comparison of (a) specific surface area (SSA), (b) TiO<sub>2</sub>-anatase crystallite size based on XRD and (c) NH<sub>3</sub> uptake based on NH<sub>3</sub>-TPD measurements for the V-Sb catalysts with a different V loading as well as the reference catalyst (2V) before and after (\*) aging.

isolated Sb-OH and Sb(OH)-Ti groups are formed while additional TiO<sub>2</sub> sites are exposed. Those observations correlate with the findings of Eppler [31], suggesting the incorporation of antimony into titania, forming Sb-O-Ti bonds, below temperatures of 870 °C. The exposed additional TiO<sub>2</sub> may contribute to the observed higher NH<sub>3</sub> uptake after aging, due to the fact that titania has a higher inherent NH<sub>3</sub> adsorption energy than vanadium oxides [32,33].

In terms of the NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR performance, the fresh modified support reveals a NO<sub>x</sub> conversion of 26% at 300 °C and maximizing to 49% at 450 °C (SI, Fig. S3), proving an inherent SCR activity of antimony oxide. After aging, the NO<sub>x</sub> conversion depletes and drops by about 20% for most temperatures.

### 3.2. Impact of antimony on VO<sub>x</sub> species

In this section, the promotional effect of antimony on vanadium oxide catalysts is reported. Three catalysts were prepared with an increasing vanadium loading of 1.5, 2.0 and 3.5 wt% V, reflecting industrial relevant vanadium loadings in commercial catalysts [34,35], with a respective V/Sb molar ratio of 0.9, 1.2 and 2.1. The maximum vanadium loading of 3.5wt% was chosen as to avoid significant formation of V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>. An unmodified catalyst with a vanadium loading of 2.0 wt% was used as a reference.

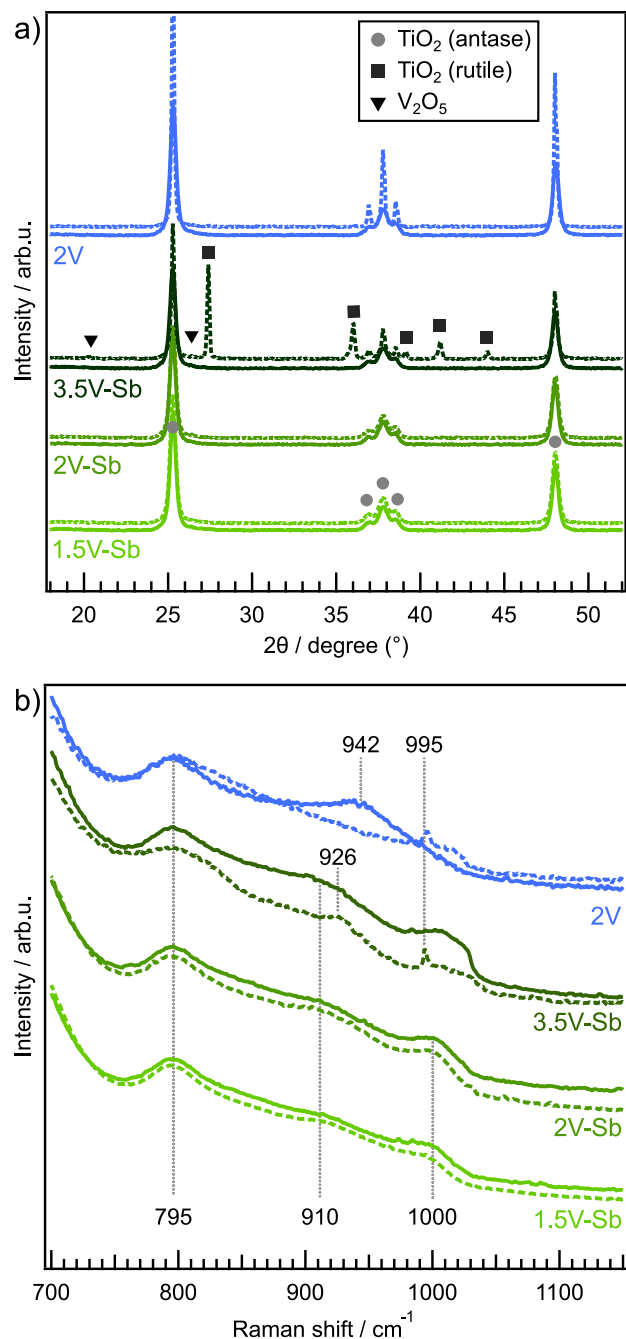
Fig. 2a compares the specific surface area of the catalysts before and after the aging procedure. In fresh state, the reference catalyst (V/Ti) exhibits a specific surface of 79 m<sup>2</sup> g<sup>-1</sup>, which decreases by 77% to 18 m<sup>2</sup> g<sup>-1</sup>. This significant loss is most likely related to the TiO<sub>2</sub> particle growth promoted by the presence of vanadium [3,26,27]. Concurrently,

the crystallite size of the TiO<sub>2</sub>-anatase signature significantly increases from 195 to 519 Å, as seen in Fig. 2b. The SSA of the modified catalysts in fresh state decreases from 81 to 62 m<sup>2</sup> g<sup>-1</sup> as the vanadium loading increases. It is likely that a higher vanadium loading causes pore blocking [3,26]. After aging, the surface area of the 1.5V-Sb and 2V-Sb catalysts is slightly decreased (13% for 1.5V-Sb, -3% for 2V-Sb), in conformity with a maintained crystallite size. By contrast, with a loading of 3.5 wt%, a significant decrease of 57% in SSA from 62 to 32 m<sup>2</sup> g<sup>-1</sup> is observed, along with a pronounced growth of crystallite size (from 199 to 440 Å).

The determined NH<sub>3</sub> uptake (Fig. 2c) of the reference catalyst is 213 μmol g<sup>-1</sup> and significantly reduces to 42 μmol g<sup>-1</sup> (-80%) after aging, which is attributed to a loss of surface area. With added antimony, the NH<sub>3</sub> uptake of the fresh modified catalysts is lower in fresh state (149, 112, and 81 μmol g<sup>-1</sup>) indicating that antimony does not enhance the overall acidity or interaction with ammonia. However, as the vanadium loading increases, the determined NH<sub>3</sub> uptake decreases. In an earlier study [26], it was observed that a high SSA and NH<sub>3</sub> uptake were mainly attributed to the degree of uncovered titania. Further, it must be mentioned that SSA or NH<sub>3</sub> uptake are not considered to be the limiting parameters for the SCR activity under stationary conditions. The 1.5V-Sb catalyst reveals an increased NH<sub>3</sub> uptake after aging (149 to 153 μmol g<sup>-1</sup>, +2%), following the same phenomena as for the modified support. As noted in the Experimental section, the determined value can deviate by ±3% due to potential variations of the sample mass. While 2V-Sb reveals a slight loss of -13% (112 to 98 μmol g<sup>-1</sup>), the 3.5V-Sb catalysts reveals a significant decrease of -35% (91 to 59 μmol g<sup>-1</sup>), in agreement with the results for SSA and crystallite size. To summarize, compared to the reference sample, all modified catalysts demonstrate a higher preservation of the NH<sub>3</sub> uptake throughout the aging procedure.

The results from the XRD and Raman measurements are shown in Fig. 3. XRD measurements were conducted to determine the crystallinity of the samples and observe the potential formation of crystallites due to aging. The X-ray diffractograms of all samples in fresh state show broad patterns of TiO<sub>2</sub>-anatase. No patterns related to oxides of vanadium, antimony, or vanadates (e.g. SbVO<sub>4</sub>) could be observed, suggesting a high dispersion of the compounds in an amorphous state or below the detectable level. After the aging procedure, the anatase signatures of the reference catalyst significantly increase (SI, Fig. S1), since vanadium accelerates the particle growth of TiO<sub>2</sub> [26,27]. Both the 1.5V-Sb and 2V-Sb catalysts underline the stabilizing effect of antimony on TiO<sub>2</sub> as neither significant changes in the signatures nor additional signatures occur. The 3.5V-Sb catalyst shows strong features of rutile TiO<sub>2</sub> and patterns of V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> indicating the formation of those compounds and a phase transformations throughout thermal treatment.

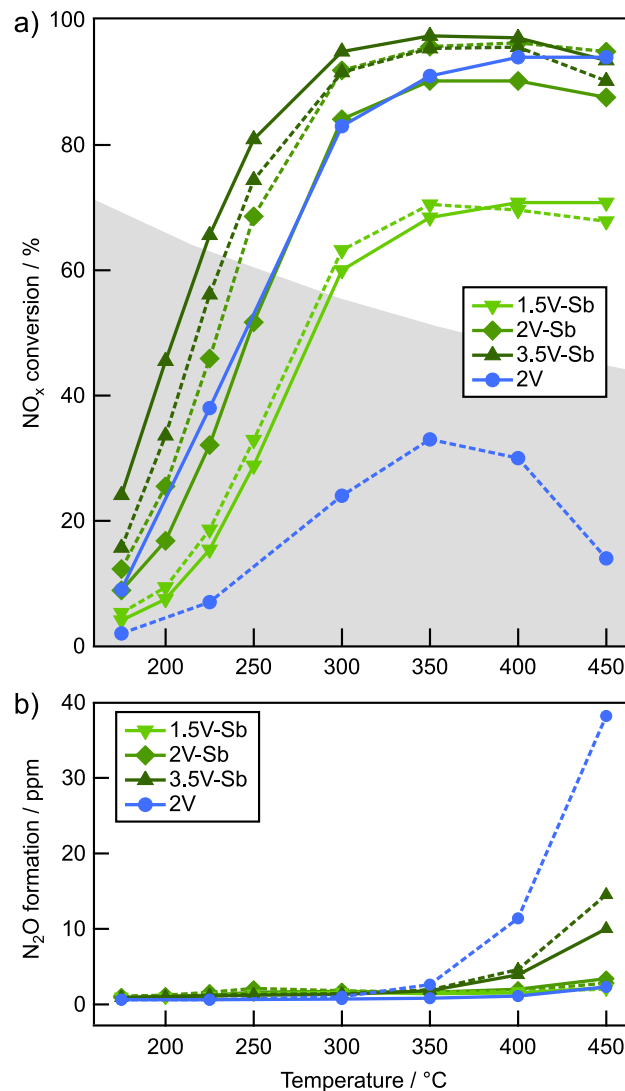
Raman spectroscopy was used to investigate the distribution of VO<sub>x</sub> species on the catalyst surface and alterations after aging. The spectral region between 1050 and 700 cm<sup>-1</sup> is characteristic of the fundamental vibrational modes of metal-oxo groups of VO<sub>x</sub> species, while the region between 650 and 350 cm<sup>-1</sup> is dominated by TiO<sub>2</sub> bands (SI, Fig. S4). The feature at 795 cm<sup>-1</sup> is assigned to a second order vibration [36]. The modified catalysts with a vanadium loading of 1.5 and 2.0 wt% show a broad feature in the region of 900–930 cm<sup>-1</sup>, which can be attributed the overlay of V-O-Ti vibrations (942 cm<sup>-1</sup> [37]) and V-O-V vibrations (890 cm<sup>-1</sup> [38,39]) related to polymeric VO<sub>x</sub> species. The origin of the feature at 1000 cm<sup>-1</sup> cannot be definitively explained. In our earlier study [26], features around 1019 cm<sup>-1</sup> were observed for a vanadium loading close to or above monolayer coverage, and consequently relate to a high degree of polymerized VO<sub>x</sub>. Due to the inevitable presence of moisture under ambient conditions, the vibrational features of isolated or monomeric V = O vibrations (around 1030 cm<sup>-1</sup>) cannot be observed [26,38]. Consequently, the feature at 1000 cm<sup>-1</sup> is considered to relate to highly polymerized VO<sub>x</sub>. Therefore, the addition of antimony implies to have a structural effect on the formation of VO<sub>x</sub> with a higher degree of polymerization, since no such feature is



**Fig. 3.** (a) Background subtracted XRD patterns and (b) Raman spectra ( $\lambda = 532$  nm) of the V-Sb catalyst with a different V loading before (solid line) and after (dashed line) aging under ambient conditions.

observed for the reference catalyst. The Raman spectra collected after the aging procedure do not show any shifts or additional features, indicating that the  $\text{VO}_x$  species are not affected by thermal stress of the aging procedure, which is in agreement with the results from XRD. By contrast, the unmodified catalyst reveals a sharp feature ( $995\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) which is related to crystalline  $\text{V}_2\text{O}_5$  [38,39]. In addition to a feature for  $\text{V}_2\text{O}_5$  ( $995\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) the aged catalyst with a vanadium loading of 3.5 wt% shows features related to rutile  $\text{TiO}_2$  at lower Raman shifts (SI, Fig. S4), in agreement with X-ray diffraction.

Fig. 4 shows the steady-state  $\text{NO}_x$  conversion and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  formation as a function of temperature in the range of 175 to  $450\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$  for the modified catalysts and the reference before and after aging. The formation of



**Fig. 4.** (a)  $\text{NO}_x$  conversion and (b)  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  formation of the V-Sb catalysts with a different loading and the reference catalysts (2V) before (solid line) and after (dashed line) aging. The shaded area shows the region where the reaction is kinetically controlled, see SI for mass transfer analysis. Reaction conditions: 525 ppm  $\text{NH}_3$ , 500 ppm  $\text{NO}$ , 300 ppm  $\text{CO}$ , 3%  $\text{CO}_2$ , 10%  $\text{O}_2$ , 5%  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  in  $\text{Ar}/\text{N}_2$  balance with a GHSV =  $60,000\text{ h}^{-1}$ .

$\text{NO}_2$  is not shown since it has not been detected at any temperature. The fresh reference catalyst (2V) reveals a steady increase of the  $\text{NO}_x$  conversion as a function of the temperature. At low temperatures ( $225\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ ), a  $\text{NO}_x$  conversion of 38% is observed, then in the mid-temperature region ( $300\text{--}350\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) it further increases to 83 and 91%, while the highest  $\text{NO}_x$  conversion of 94% is achieved in the high-temperature range ( $400\text{--}450\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ ). After the aging procedure, the  $\text{NO}_x$  conversion is significantly lower at all temperatures with a maximum  $\text{NO}_x$  conversion of 33% at  $350\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ . The decline in performance is attributed to the significant loss of surface area along with the formation of  $\text{V}_2\text{O}_5$ , which is detrimental to the desired reaction selectivity [26].

The modified catalyst with a vanadium loading of 2 wt% (2V-Sb) shows a performance similar to the reference catalyst at temperatures between 250 to  $350\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ , while outside this range the  $\text{NO}_x$  conversion slightly drops with a deficit of maximum 6%. After the aging procedure, the  $\text{NO}_x$  conversion is improved across all tested temperatures, with a maximum of 96% at 300 and  $400\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ . The 1.5V-Sb catalyst achieves an overall lower  $\text{NO}_x$  conversion given to lower amount of active material, reaching a maximum of 71% at  $450\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ . After aging, the activity in the low- to mid-temperature regime slightly increases, while marginal

lower at temperatures above 400 °C. For the 3.5V-Sb sample the overall highest NO<sub>x</sub> conversion across the samples in the low-temperature region and peaks at 97% at 350–400 °C then slightly falls off to 94% at 450 °C. After aging the activity is decreased by 6% on average.

The V/Sb molar ratio seems to be a critical factor for the thermal activation of SCR activity, as only the 2V-Sb catalyst (molar ratio 1.2 V/Sb) shows a significant increase in performance. It is generally accepted that the catalytic cycle in the SCR reaction involves acid sites activating NH<sub>3</sub>, and redox sites regenerating the vanadium species in presence of oxygen [40,41]. The latter are considered to be the rate determining step [42,43]. As a consequence, the thermal treatment and interaction of Sb with V and in that specific ratio seems to enhance those redox properties. The calculation of the specific reaction rate (SI, Fig. S5) confirms those observations. When normalized to the amount of vanadium, the aged 2V-Sb catalysts shows the highest activity at low temperatures (225 °C) as well as at higher temperatures (300 °C) after the aging procedure. While with a higher V loading (3.5V-Sb) the low-temperature activity in fresh state is the highest compared to the other catalysts, although revealing a moderate performance at higher temperatures and after aging.

The apparent activation energy is rather similar for all catalysts (SI, Fig. S6), especially for the aged catalysts, giving no evidence for different operating SCR mechanisms for different catalysts. Although the Arrhenius plots are based on a few number of points, these results could indicate that the improved activity for NO reduction seen at low temperatures for antimony modified catalysts is not caused by lower barriers for redox processes. Instead, this is likely due to an increased availability of active surface oxygen species. For the fresh vanadium only (2V) and low loaded vanadium antimony (1.5V-Sb) catalysts a slight decrease in apparent activation energy can be seen upon aging, which may be due to formation of V-O-V/V-O-Sb species during the thermal treatment.

The N<sub>2</sub>O formation over the fresh reference catalyst and the 1.5V-Sb and 2V-Sb catalysts is low, ranging from 0.8 to 3.4 ppm across all temperatures. In contrast, the 3.5V-Sb catalysts shows an elevated N<sub>2</sub>O formation of 10 ppm at 450 °C, further increasing to 14.5 ppm after the aging procedure. The aged reference catalyst exhibits a maximum formation of 38.2 ppm at 450 °C. The enhanced N<sub>2</sub>O formation is associated with the presence of crystalline V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> and/or highly polymerized VO<sub>x</sub> species, which are known to promote side reactions [26] leading to N<sub>2</sub>O production. The presence of V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> on 3.5V-Sb and 2 V was confirmed by both XRD and Raman spectroscopy, supporting its correlation with the observed trend.

The results show that the modification by antimony may not substantially promote the activity in fresh state, but significantly preserves the activity after thermal aging. Additionally, the N<sub>2</sub>O formation at high temperatures is significantly lower in comparison to the unmodified catalysts.

The *in situ* DRIFT spectra recorded after exposing the sample to 500 ppm NH<sub>3</sub> (Fig. 5) show strong bands related to suppression of bridged Sb-(OH)-V hydroxyl groups (3624 cm<sup>-1</sup>) on the 1.5V-Sb catalysts, alongside with suppression of isolated Sb-OH (3695 cm<sup>-1</sup>) and vanadium hydroxyl (V-OH and V-(OH)-V around 3650 cm<sup>-1</sup>) groups. After aging, the intensities of the vanadium hydroxyls and Sb-OH bands are increased while the intensity of the bridged Sb-(OH)-V groups decreases, suggesting segregation of vanadium and antimony on the surface throughout the aging process, resulting in isolated Sb-OH and more available sites of V-OH or V-(OH)-V. The 3.5V-Sb catalyst shows primarily features related to V-OH and V-(OH)-V sites. After aging, the overall intensity of the OH bands is decreased, consistent with the losses in the specific surface area and NH<sub>3</sub> uptake. In the N-H vibrational region (1800–1200 cm<sup>-1</sup>), the catalyst with a low loading (1.5V-Sb) reveals two overlapping bands at around 1470 and 1435 cm<sup>-1</sup>, reflecting the vibrations of NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> on isolated (1470 cm<sup>-1</sup>) and bridged (1435 cm<sup>-1</sup>) Brønsted acid sites. As the vanadium loading increases, the Brønsted acid sites shifts to 1435 cm<sup>-1</sup> as main band, indicating

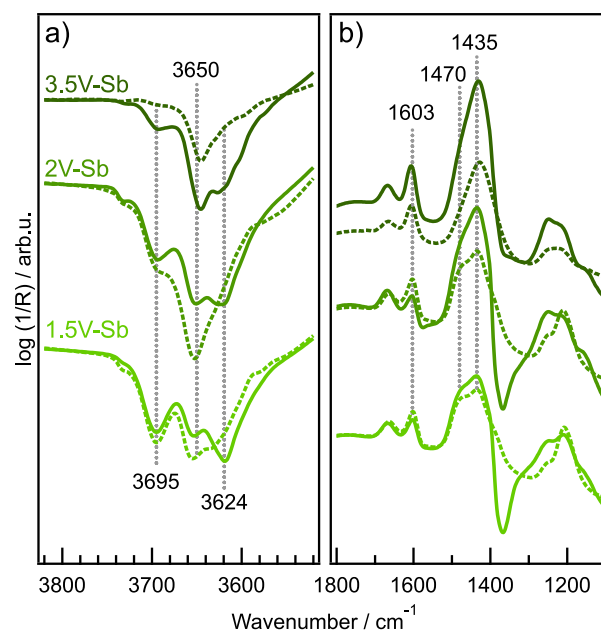


Fig. 5. DRIFT spectra of the V-Sb/TiO<sub>2</sub> catalyst with different V loading before (solid line) and after (dashed line) aging for the NH<sub>3</sub> adsorption at 80 °C. (a) ν(O-H) region and (b) δ(N-H) deformation modes of ammonia.

Table 1

Proposed band assignment of the OH groups (3700–3600 cm<sup>-1</sup>) in this work and bands of adsorbed ammonia based on Ref. [26].

Position/cm <sup>-1</sup>	Assignment	Vibration
3707–3695	terminal Sb-OH	ν(OH)
3624	bridging Sb-(OH)-V	ν(OH)
3622–3604	bridging Sb-(OH)-Sb/Sb-(OH)-Ti	ν(OH)
3650	terminal V-OH [26]	ν(OH)
3635	bridging V-(OH)-V [26]	ν(OH)
1470	monomeric Brønsted acid site [26]	δ <sub>as</sub> (NH)
1433	polymeric Brønsted acid site [26]	δ <sub>as</sub> (NH)
1606	polymeric Lewis acid site [26]	δ <sub>as</sub> (NH)
1595	monomeric Lewis acid site [26]	δ <sub>as</sub> (NH)

the formation of NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> predominantly on bridged OH sites. The absence of the band associated to surface sulfates (around 1360 cm<sup>-1</sup>) also suggests a full coverage of the TiO<sub>2</sub> support. After the aging procedure, the Brønsted band intensity for the 1.5V-Sb catalyst is maintained while significantly affected with a high vanadium loading (3.5V-Sb). The adsorption bands of coordinatively bound ammonia (1603 cm<sup>-1</sup>) on Lewis acid sites do not undergo any significant band shifts. Notably, the intensity after aging is increased for 1.5V-Sb and 2V-Sb, while decreased for 3.5V-Sb. An overview of the exemplified infrared bands and their assignment is given in Table 1. When comparing the DRIFT spectra with the activity data it seems that increased performance after aging is directly related to the increased intensity of the V-OH (3650–35 cm<sup>-1</sup>) groups in 2V-Sb and 1.5V-Sb while only for 3.5V-Sb the intensity decreases coherently with the reduced NO<sub>x</sub> conversion.

The adsorption of NO on TiO<sub>2</sub>-supported metal oxides is commonly characterized by formation of surface nitrates and NO<sub>2</sub> in the wavenumber region of 1800–1200 cm<sup>-1</sup>. The spectra for the NO adsorption (Fig. 6a) on the V-Sb/TiO<sub>2</sub> catalysts with a V loading of 1.5 and 2 wt% feature a main adsorption band around 1625 cm<sup>-1</sup> which is associated to NO<sub>2</sub>, followed by signals related bidentate nitrates (1578, 1235 cm<sup>-1</sup>), while monodentate nitrates (~1510 cm<sup>-1</sup>) are weakly represented in the spectra. Two other sets of broad bands located around 2190 and 1990 cm<sup>-1</sup> arise from adsorbed nitrosonium (NO<sup>+</sup>) and NO species (not shown for brevity, c.f. SI, Fig. S7). The catalyst with 3.5 V loading shows bridged nitrates as main species with the

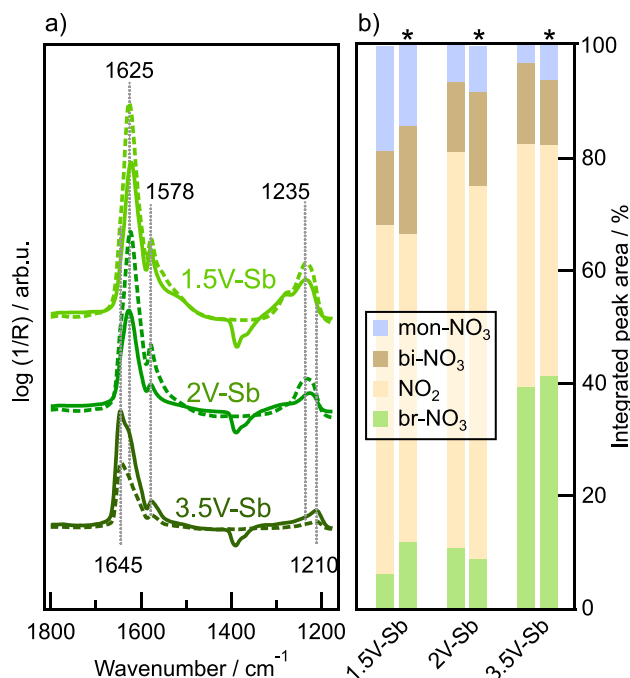


Fig. 6. DRIFT spectra (left) and relative abundance of  $\text{NO}_x$  species (right) of the V-Sb/TiO<sub>2</sub> catalyst with a different vanadium loading before (solid line) and after (dashed line, \*) aging for the NO adsorption at room temperature.

main band at 1645  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  and also confirmed by the respective split vibration at 1210  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ . Notably, the overall intensity of the adsorption bands increases on 1.5V-Sb and 2V-Sb after aging. The result of the peak decomposition (Fig. 6b) reveals that the overall ratio of the surface species is only marginally affected by the aging procedure.  $\text{NO}_2$  is the dominant species on 1.5V-Sb and 2V-Sb followed by bidentate and monodentate nitrates. With a higher vanadium loading (3.5V-Sb), the bridged nitrates and  $\text{NO}_2$  are represented at equal shares. The results of peak decomposition suggest that the addition of antimony affects the ratio of formed  $\text{NO}_x$  species on the surface. The larger proportion of adsorbed  $\text{NO}_2$  on Sb modified catalysts suggest an increased availability and/or oxidation capacity of surface oxygen species that form these  $\text{NO}_2$  ad-species rather than nitrate species. This speculation can explain the improved low-temperature SCR activity over the Sb-modified catalysts shown in Fig. 4a. Here, the Sb content was kept constant while the V loading was varied. To further investigate the effect of V/Sb ratio on SCR activity a systematic variation of Sb content for different V loadings would be required. Although it would be interesting to find out the relationship between the nitrates species and the catalytic SCR activity, this is beyond the present scope. The results, however, encourage future detailed studies where, for example, modulation excitation spectroscopy experiments may provide information about active and spectator species via phase-sensitive detection analysis [44,45].

### 3.3. Influence of preparation sequence

In order to investigate the interaction of vanadium oxide, antimony and the titania support, the influence of the preparation sequence was systematically altered. Samples were prepared with an equimolar amount of vanadium and antimony, via co-impregnation and sequential impregnation with one compound impregnated on the support first, respectively. When vanadium is added first, the sample was labeled 'seq V-Sb', and vice versa. The target vanadium loading was 2.3 wt% and 5.6 wt% antimony, respectively.

The co-impregnated catalyst (co) exhibits a specific surface area of 70  $\text{m}^2 \text{g}^{-1}$ , which decreases to 64  $\text{m}^2 \text{g}^{-1}$  (–8%) after the aging procedure (Fig. 7a). In comparison, both sequentially impregnated catalysts

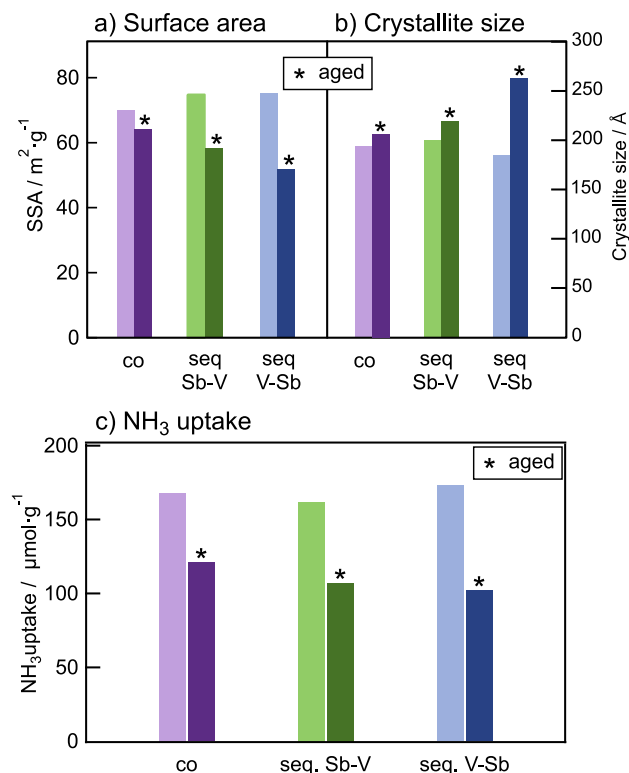


Fig. 7. Comparison of (a) specific surface area, (b) crystallite size, and (c)  $\text{NH}_3$  uptake based on  $\text{NH}_3$ -TPD measurements for the catalysts, prepared via co and sequential impregnation, before and after (\*) aging.

Table 2

Specific surface area (SSA) and  $\text{NH}_3$  uptake based on  $\text{NH}_3$ -TPD experiments for the catalysts prepared via co and sequential impregnation.

Sample	SSA/ $\text{m}^2 \text{g}^{-1}$	$\text{NH}_3$ uptake/ $\mu \text{mol g}^{-1}$
V-Sb co	70	168
V-Sb co aged	64	121
Sb-V seq	74	162
Sb-V seq aged	58	107
V-Sb seq	75	173
V-Sb seq aged	52	102

in fresh state exhibit a higher surface area of 74  $\text{m}^2 \text{g}^{-1}$  (seq Sb-V) and 75  $\text{m}^2 \text{g}^{-1}$  (seq V-Sb), indicating that the vanadium and antimony preferably interact with each other, thus occupying less TiO<sub>2</sub> sites. After the aging procedure, the catalyst with vanadium added first (seq V-Sb) shows the highest loss in surface area of –31% (75 to 52  $\text{m}^2 \text{g}^{-1}$ ). It is known that vanadium promotes the TiO<sub>2</sub> particle growth [26,27]. As all titania sites are available during the first impregnation, i.e., vanadium in the case of the 'seq V-Sb' catalyst, this reduction is likely due to a larger interface between vanadium and titania for this sample.

Further analysis of the anatase diffraction patterns confirm that the crystallite size of 'seq V-Sb' increase the most after the aging procedure (Fig. 7b). Notably, the co-impregnated catalyst maintains the SSA to the greatest extent (70 to 64  $\text{m}^2 \text{g}^{-1}$ , –8%) while minimizing the growth in crystallite size. The comparison of the determined  $\text{NH}_3$  uptake denotes the same trends as for the surface area, revealing a smallest relative decrease for the co-impregnated sample, while the 'seq V-Sb' decreases the most (Fig. 7c). These results are summarized in Table 2.

The analysis of the XRD patterns (Fig. 8a) confirms the previous findings. The co-impregnated catalysts reveals only TiO<sub>2</sub>-anatase signatures before and after the aging procedure. On the contrary, both sequentially impregnated catalysts show signatures related to rutile TiO<sub>2</sub> after aging, with more pronounced signatures for the 'seq V-Sb'



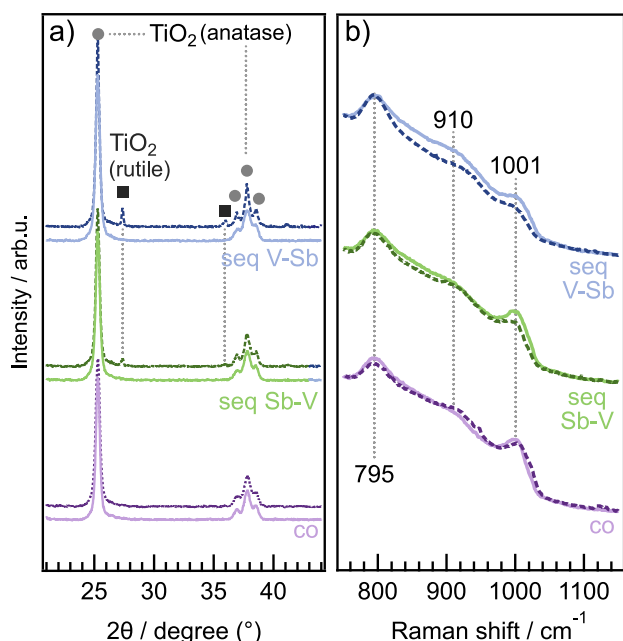


Fig. 8. (a) Background subtracted XRD patterns and (b) Raman spectra ( $\lambda = 532$  nm) of the V-Sb/TiO<sub>2</sub> catalyst prepared via different impregnation procedures before (solid line) and after (dashed) (line) aging under ambient conditions.

catalyst. The Raman spectra of the catalysts (Fig. 8b) reveal features around 910 and 1001 cm<sup>-1</sup>. Thus the samples predominately contain polymerized VO<sub>x</sub> species [39]. The 'co'-impregnated and 'seq Sb-V' catalysts show a higher intensity for the feature at 1001 cm<sup>-1</sup>. This suggests a higher degree of polymerized VO<sub>x</sub> species than on the 'seq V-Sb' catalyst. Since vanadium is added first, the particles can evenly distribute on the available titania sites. After the aging procedure, the spectra reveal minor alterations and therefore suggest that the preparation method does not affect the thermal stability of the VO<sub>x</sub> species upon thermal stress.

Fig. 9 shows the steady-state NO<sub>x</sub> conversion and N<sub>2</sub>O formation as a function of temperature for the fresh and aged catalysts. The fresh co-impregnated catalyst shows the overall highest NO<sub>x</sub> conversion across all temperatures. When comparing the sequentially impregnated catalysts, the catalyst with antimony added first ('seq. Sb-V') achieves higher NO<sub>x</sub> conversions up to temperatures of 250 °C, while at higher temperatures ( $\geq 300$  °C) the 'seq V-Sb' catalyst reveals a better performance. After the aging procedure, the NO<sub>x</sub> conversion over the co-impregnated catalyst decreases, while both sequentially impregnated catalysts show an increased performance. Notably, the NO<sub>x</sub> conversion of all catalysts is similar after aging. The apparent activation energy for the sequentially impregnated catalysts is different for the fresh catalysts but very similar for the aged catalysts (SI, Fig. S10). This supports the interpretation that the aging transforms their surfaces to a similar state and thus they show the same catalytic behavior after aging. Again, the apparent activation energy is similar for the vanadium only catalysts and the antimony modified ones suggesting that the improved low temperature SCR activity for the Sb modified catalysts is a matter of increased availability of active surface oxygen species.

With respect to N<sub>2</sub>O formation, the fresh catalysts reveal values between 0.9 to 2 ppm until 350 °C, and reach a level of 4.0 ppm at 450 °C. After aging, the N<sub>2</sub>O formation is still moderate for low- to mid-temperatures. At 450 °C, the 'seq V-Sb' catalyst reaches 6.5 ppm N<sub>2</sub>O, which is significantly higher in comparison to the other catalysts (4.9, 4.6 ppm).

In order to study alterations on the surface of the catalysts in detail, the ammonia adsorption was monitored *via in situ* DRIFTS

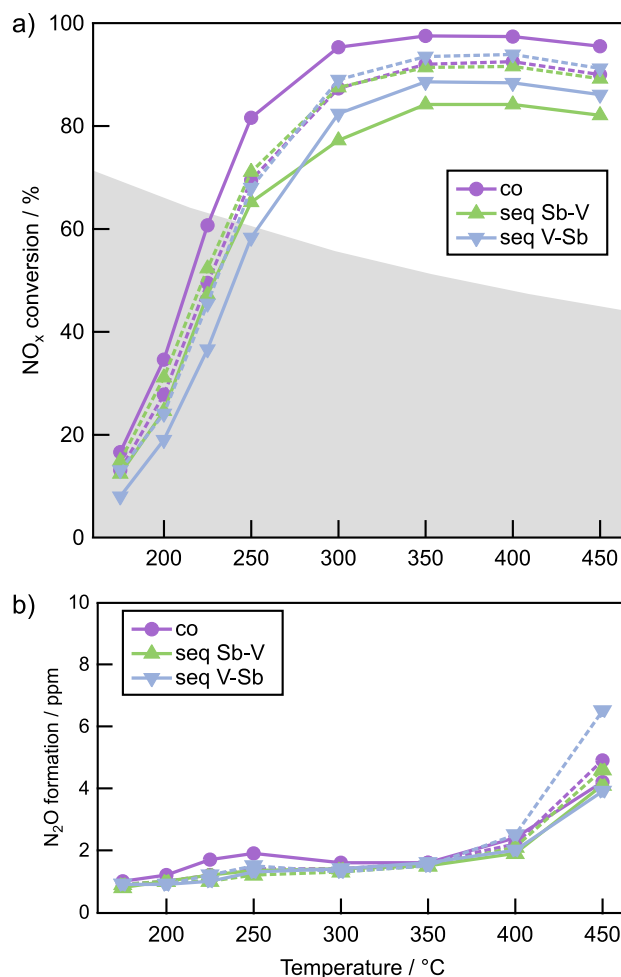


Fig. 9. NO<sub>x</sub> conversion of catalysts, prepared via co and sequential impregnation, before (solid line) and after (dashed line) aging. The shaded area shows the region where the reaction is kinetically controlled, see SI for mass transfer analysis. Reaction conditions: 525 ppm NH<sub>3</sub>, 500 ppm NO, 300 ppm CO, 3% CO<sub>2</sub>, 10% O<sub>2</sub>, 5% H<sub>2</sub>O in Ar/N<sub>2</sub> balance with a GHSV = 60,000 h<sup>-1</sup>.

(Fig. 10). Based on the previous assignment (Table 1), the suppressed bands of isolated Sb-OH (3695 cm<sup>-1</sup>), vanadium hydroxyl groups (3650–35 cm<sup>-1</sup>) and bridged hydroxyls (3622–04 cm<sup>-1</sup>) are observed. The OH bands of the co-impregnated and 'seq V-Sb' catalyst appear rather similar, while 'seq Sb-V' reveals a higher ratio of isolated Sb-OH (3695 cm<sup>-1</sup>). The intensity of the V-OH and V-(OH)-V bands is increased, suggesting that more V sites are available after the aging procedure. Alongside with that, the bands for the bridged OH groups decrease while the Sb-OH intensity is maintained, indicating a segregation of vanadium and antimony species. Only the 'seq Sb-V' catalyst reveals a distinct decline of the of Sb-OH band (3695 cm<sup>-1</sup>). In the N-H vibrational region, the resulting absorption bands of ammonia adsorbed on Lewis (1605 cm<sup>-1</sup>) and Brønsted (1470–35 cm<sup>-1</sup>) acid sites are similar across all catalysts. The weak sulfate signal (around 1360 cm<sup>-1</sup>) for co-impregnated catalysts indicates a high coverage of the support, as stated previously. After aging, the intensity of the Lewis acid band is increased for all catalysts. The Brønsted acid band is slightly decreased for the co-impregnated catalysts, while 'seq V-Sb' sample reveals a marked decline in intensity.

It is important to note that after the aging procedure, the resulting ammonia adsorption spectra of all catalysts resemble each other showing similar intensities of the respective infrared bands, which also correlates with the converged NO<sub>x</sub> conversion.

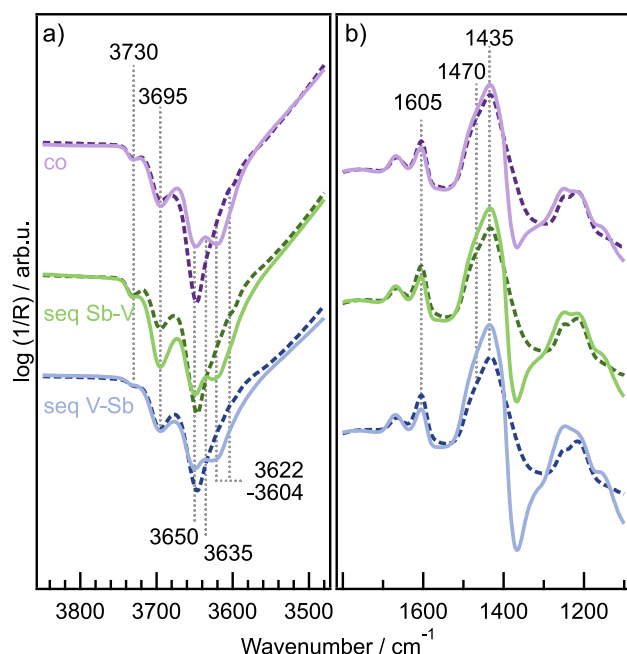


Fig. 10. DRIFT spectra of the V-Sb/TiO<sub>2</sub> catalyst prepared via different impregnation procedures before (solid line) and after (dashed line) aging for the NH<sub>3</sub> adsorption at room temperature. (a) ν(O-H) region and (b) δ(N-H) deformation modes of ammonia.

### 3.4. Consequences of the antimony modification for deactivation mechanisms

A visualization of the interpreted results is displayed in Fig. 11, with the aim to clarify how the modification with antimony suppresses the catalyst deactivation and which mechanisms are involved. During the aging procedure of titania-supported vanadium oxides (VO<sub>x</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub>), the TiO<sub>2</sub> and VO<sub>x</sub> phases undergo different changes and some mechanisms are particularly controlling. Commonly, thermal aging involves sintering of the anatase TiO<sub>2</sub> particles, eventually accompanied by an anatase-to-rutile phase transformation, leading to a significant loss of the specific surface area which is directly linked to the particle growth. The presence of vanadium oxides on titania enhances those processes, and the effect correlates to the added amount or rather surface density of the vanadium oxides [26,46]. The decreased available surface area for the dispersed phase affects the VO<sub>x</sub> species, as those may undergo aggregation, forming higher polymerized VO<sub>x</sub> species, and in some cases forming crystalline V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>, eventually also leading to pore clogging [3]. Crystalline V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> particles promote side reactions such as ammonia oxidation and N<sub>2</sub>O formation, ultimately resulting in an overall decreased catalytic performance [26,47] as specified for the reference catalyst in Fig. 4.

The modification with antimony proves a stabilizing effect on both the TiO<sub>2</sub> support and the VO<sub>x</sub> species which is represented in a maintained specific surface area along with a minimized particle size growth after the aging procedure. The characterization of the catalysts shows that the absolute majority of the titania sites are covered by the vanadium and antimony oxides, which in turn counteracts the anatase sintering as well as VO<sub>x</sub> species agglomeration (except for 3.5V-Sb).

## 4. Conclusions

In this study, the effect of the modification of titania supported VO<sub>x</sub> catalysts with antimony oxide has been investigated as well as the effect of thermal aging. We demonstrate that the addition of antimony has proven to hold an inherent SCR activity and to stabilize the anatase phase of TiO<sub>2</sub> including a minimized particle size growth. For the

Sb-modified VO<sub>x</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> catalysts, the addition of antimony does not enhance the overall acidity in regard to the total NH<sub>3</sub> uptake. The molar ratio of V and Sb appears to be crucial for the catalytic performance after thermal stress, as only 2V-Sb with a molar ratio of 1.2 V/Sb shows an increased NO<sub>x</sub> conversion after the aging procedure. The increased performance may be related to enhanced redox properties due to interaction of vanadium and antimony species. Further, the *in situ* DRIFT spectra suggest the exposure of additional vanadium sites, as indicated by an increased intensity of V-OH/V-(OH)-V groups. Further, the N<sub>2</sub>O formation is much lower when the catalysts are modified with antimony in comparison to the reference. The molar ratio of 2 V/Sb is detrimental on the basis of a significant loss of surface area, the formation of V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>, and an increased N<sub>2</sub>O formation while maintaining a high activity. In addition, we find an important effect of the impregnation method for the catalyst in fresh state, with an overall higher performance when the two compounds are added via co-impregnation. When V is added first, it is more likely to affect the TiO<sub>2</sub>-anatase phase negatively, implied by a loss of surface area accompanied by a transformation from anatase to rutile.

### CRediT authorship contribution statement

**Alexander Nellessen:** Writing – original draft, Visualization, Methodology, Investigation, Formal analysis, Data curation. **Roberta Villamaina:** Project administration, Formal analysis, Data curation. **Andreas Schaefer:** Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Investigation, Formal analysis, Data curation. **Agnes Raj:** Project administration, Formal analysis, Data curation, Conceptualization. **Andrew Newman:** Conceptualization. **Anna Martinelli:** Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Investigation, Formal analysis. **Per-Anders Carlsson:** Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Methodology, Investigation, Funding acquisition, Formal analysis, Conceptualization.

### Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests: Per-Anders Carlsson reports financial support was provided by Energimyndigheten. Per-Anders Carlsson reports financial support was provided by Swedish Research Council. If there are other authors, they declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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### Data availability

Data will be made available on request.

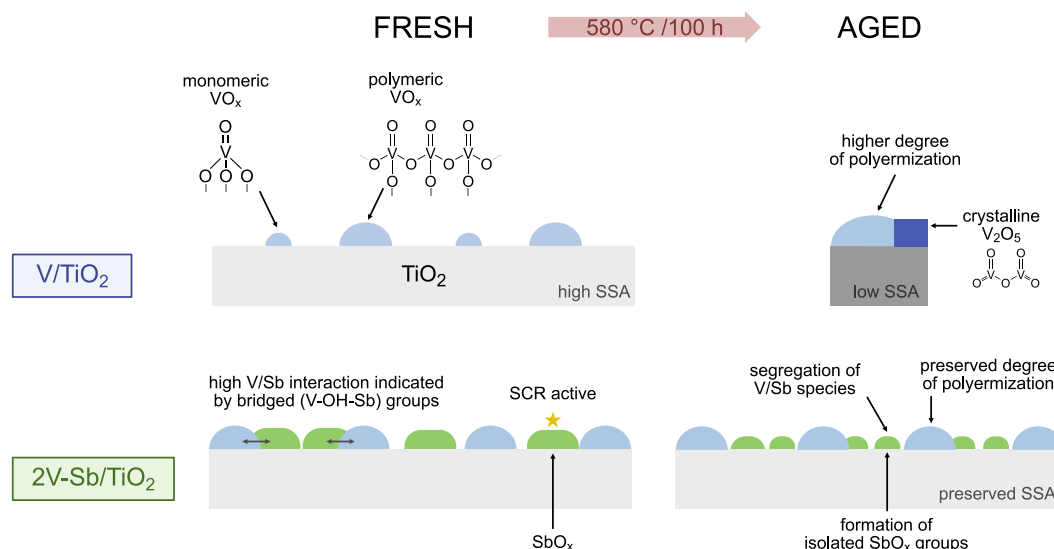


Fig. 11. Schematic illustration of the consequences of the aging procedure and the deactivation mechanisms on the Sb-modified catalyst with a V loading of 2 wt% (2V-Sb/TiO<sub>2</sub>) and the reference catalyst.

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