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To cite this version:

W. Zhang, C. Descorme, J. Luis Valverde, A. Giroir-Fendler. Yttrium-modified Co3O4 as efficient catalysts for toluene and propane combustion: Effect of yttrium content. Journal of Hazardous Materials, 2022, 437, 10.1016/j.jhazmat.2022.129316 . hal-03986515

HAL Id: hal-03986515 <https://hal.science/hal-03986515v1>

Submitted on 22 Jul 2024

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1 Yttrium-modified $Co₃O₄$ as efficient catalysts

²for toluene and propane combustion: Effect of

3 yttrium content

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13

14 **Abstract**

15 A series of Y-modified cobalt oxides with various Y/(Co+Y) molar ratios (0.25%, 16 0.5%, 1%, 3% and 5%) were prepared to study the effect of Y content on toluene and 17 propane combustion. The characterization of the catalysts revealed that proper Y 18 incorporation resulted in smaller crystallite sizes, larger specific surface areas, more 19 oxygen vacancies and weaker Co−O bonds. As such, the Y-modified Co3O4 showed 20 enhanced low-temperature reducibility, boosted oxygen mobility and better catalytic 21 activity. However, excess Y ($> 1\%$) aggregates on the surface of Co₃O₄ and forms 22 yttrium carbonate species, hindering the catalyst activity. A volcano-type relationship 23 between the Y content and the catalytic activity was established. The optimal catalyst 24 1%Y-Co (with Y/(Co+Y) molar ratio of 1%) exhibited toluene oxidation rate of 24 25 nmol g⁻¹ s⁻¹ at 220 °C and propane oxidation rate of 69 nmol g⁻¹ s⁻¹ at 180 °C. 26 Besides, 1%Y-Co presented perfect cycling stability and long-term durability in 27 propane oxidation. Regarding its low cost, high efficiency and good stability, 28 1%Y-Co is a promising catalyst for the practical elimination of hydrocarbon 29 emissions.

30

31 **Keywords:** Yttrium modification; Cobalt oxide; Oxygen mobility; Catalytic 32 oxidation; Toluene; Propane

34 **Environmental Implication**

35

36 Hydrocarbon emissions including BTX (benzene, toluene, and o-xylene) and light 37 alkanes have caused significant environmental and human health concerns. However, 38 the elimination of such hazardous pollutants remains challenging. Catalytic oxidation 39 is the most promising technique to address the problem. Herein, yttrium-modified 40 Co3O4 catalysts were successfully designed for efficient destruction of toluene and 41 propane at relatively low temperatures. The physicochemical properties 42 characterizations reveal that an appropriate introduction of vttrium (1%) in Co₃O₄ 43 could produce large surface area materials with enhanced redox ability. The present 44 study provides a facile way to develop an inexpensive and high-performance catalyst 45 for hydrocarbons elimination.

46

47 **1. Introduction**

48 Hydrocarbon emissions from a variety of sources, including fossil-fueled 49 automobiles, petrochemical processes, industrial and power generation plants, and the 50 treatment of solid and liquid wastes, contribute to a major group of atmospheric 51 pollutants[1–3]. Among hydrocarbon exhausts, BTX (benzene, toluene and o-xylene), 52 widely have high photochemical ozone creation potential [3] and high toxicity to 53 human health [4,5]. On the other hand, light alkanes release has also drawn much 54 attention because of i) the increase of light alkanes emitted from stationary sources as 55 the chemical processes and products develop [2,6,7], ii) the increasing utilization of 56 liquefied petroleum gas and compressed natural gas as substitutes for gasoline and 57 diesel vehicles [6,8], and iii) the difficulty to eliminate from engine exhaust emissions 58 due to their stable saturated C-H bond [9,10]. The control of BTX and light alkane 59 emissions is an essential and compelling issue. Catalytic oxidation is a promising 60 control technique characterized by its high efficiency, low operating temperatures and 61 low production of secondary pollutants. The key to this technique is the availability of 62 highly active, selective, and stable catalysts. In the past decades, transition metal 63 oxides have been extensively studied for hydrocarbon oxidation due to their lower 64 cost, higher thermal stability and better tolerability to poison compared with noble 65 metal catalysts. $Co₃O₄$ is an attractive transition metal oxide because it is not only one 66 of the most active catalysts for light alkanes combustion, with comparable 67 performance to some noble metal catalysts [11,12], but also exhibits excellent 68 performance for BTX removal [13–16].

69 To enhance the performance of Co3O4 catalysts, various routes have been 70 developed, e.g. nanocasting to obtain high-porosity $Co₃O₄$ [17], selectively exposing 71 the active crystal plane of $Co₃O₄$ [9], controlling the morphology of $Co₃O₄$ by 72 hydrothermal methods [14,15], treating $Co₃O₄$ with acid to create surface defects 73 [11,18], loading $Co₃O₄$ onto porous support to increase the dispersion of $Co₃O₄$ 74 [19,20], forming composite oxide to have synergistic effects [2,8,21] and

85 As an important material in the ceramic industry, yttria is usually used to prepare 86 well-known YSZ (yttria-stabilized zirconia) ceramics [30]. It is demonstrated that 87 anionic vacancies, which facilitate the accumulation and exchange of oxygen, can be 88 generated by the introduction of Y into zirconia [31]. Zanella et al. obtained 89 high-surface-area TiO₂ by Y doping and found that Y could restrain the growth of 90 TiO2 crystal and stabilize the anatase structure [32]. Yang et al. reported that Y 91 doping led to smaller sizes of ZnO nanoparticles with better optical properties [33]. It 92 is interesting to choose Y as a modifier for $Co₃O₄$ based on the following reasons: i) 93 the larger ionic radius of Y than Co may induce distortion of structure and formation 94 of oxygen vacancies; ii) the lower electronegativity of Y than Co can lower the

95 d-band energy of Co to decrease the CO adsorption strength [34]; iii) the aggregated 96 Y₂O₃ can probably serve as pinning particles to inhibit the growth of Co₃O₄. It was 97 recently reported that the Y_2O_3 promoted Co_3O_4 catalyst showed excellent activity for 98 the catalytic decomposition of N₂O [35,36]. However, the co-precipitation method 99 used to synthesize the $Y_2O_3-C_03O_4$ catalysts in these studies cannot achieve good 100 homogeneity of Y and Co, which limits the possible Y-Co interaction. To the best of 101 our knowledge, there are few publications concerning the synthesis of Y-modified 102 Co3O4 with high compositional homogeneity for catalytic combustion. Therefore, it is 103 highly desirable to prepare the homogeneous mutually dispersed Y-Co oxide catalysts 104 to maximize the redox properties of the catalysts.

105 Herein, we introduced Y to $Co₃O₄$ catalytic system by a facile citrate sol-gel 106 method with Y content ranging from 0 to 5%. The Y-modified $Co₃O₄$ catalysts were 107 systematically characterized using multiple techniques and evaluated for the total 108 oxidation of toluene and propane (representatives of BTX and light alkanes, 109 respectively). The objective of this work is to investigate the effect of Y content on 110 the structure and catalytic performance of cobalt oxide and to reveal the 111 structure-performance correlation.

112 **2. Experimental**

113 **2.1. Catalyst preparation**

114 Y-modified cobalt oxide catalysts were prepared via citrate sol-gel. The synthetic 115 procedure is illustrated in Fig. S1. First, 5.821 g of $Co(NO₃)₂·6H₂O$ (20 mmol; Alfa 116 Aesar) and 0.019, 0.038, 0.077, 0.230, and 0.383 g of Y(NO3)3·6H2O (0.05, 0.1, 0.2, 117 0.6, and 1 mmol; Aldrich Chemistry), together with 4.611 g of citric acid (24 mmol; 118 Sigma-Aldrich) were dissolved and mixed in 50 mL of distilled water. Then, the 119 mixed solution was evaporated at 80 °C under continuous water-bath stirring until a 120 gel was formed. Next, the wet gel was foamed in an oven at 120 °C overnight. 121 Finally, the obtained spongy solid was crushed into powder, calcinated in a furnace at 122 250 °C for 2 h and then 500 °C for 2 h at a heating rate of 2 °C min⁻¹. Samples with 123 various $Y/(C_0+Y)$ molar ratios $(0.25\%, 0.5\%, 1\%, 3\%, \text{ and } 5\%)$ were named as 124 0.25% Y-Co, 0.5% Y-Co, 1% Y-Co, 3% Y-Co, and 5% Y-Co, respectively. As controls, 125 pure cobalt oxide (labeled Co) and yttrium oxide (labeled Y) were prepared by the 126 same procedure.

127 **2.2. Catalyst characterization**

128 The as-prepared catalysts were characterized by various techniques including 129 inductively coupled plasma-optical emission spectroscopy (ICP-OES), X-ray powder 130 diffraction (XRD), Fourier transformed infrared (FTIR) spectroscopy, Raman 131 spectroscopy, N2 adsorption−desorption, Temperature-programmed reduction 132 experiments in hydrogen (H_2-TPR) , thermal gravity-oxygen storage capacity 133 (TG-OSC), and X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS). The details about the 134 characterization methods are described in Section 1 of the Supporting Information.

135 **2.3. Catalytic test**

136 Catalytic tests were carried out in a U-shaped reactor (4 mm in internal diameter) 137 using 0.15 g of the catalyst mixed with some silicon carbide (~ 0.55 g) to avoid hot 138 spots. The reaction temperature was measured by a K-type thermocouple inserted into the catalytic bed. The total flow rate was kept at 100 mL min⁻¹, giving a weight hourly space velocity (WHSV) of 40,000 mL g^{-1} h⁻¹. Detailed test conditions of 141 toluene and propane oxidation are provided in Section 2 of the Supporting 142 Information.

143 **3. Results and discussion**

144 **3.1. Decomposition of the precursors**

145 **Fig. S2** shows the FTIR spectra of pure Co, 1%Y-Co, and 5%Y-Co foaming 146 precursors. There is no obvious difference among the spectra. The broad band between 2800−3600 cm−1 147 indicated the presence of adsorbed H2O and O−H group [37]. The bands at 845 and 1385 cm−1 148 were attributed to the nitrate species [37]. The 149 bands at ca. 1575 and 1395 cm⁻¹ were from the asymmetric and symmetric stretching 150 vibrations of COO[−] [37], and the bands at ca. 620 and 550 cm⁻¹ from vibrations of 151 Co−O [38]. The FTIR spectra of the precursors are consistent with the characteristics

162 **3.2. Structural and textural properties**

163 The weight percentages of Co and Y in the catalysts were determined by ICP-OES 164 (**Table 1**). The calculated Y/(Co+Y) atomic ratios were basically consistent with the 165 nominal ones. The structure and crystallinity of the catalysts were investigated by 166 XRD (**Fig. 1**). The Y sample exhibited typical diffraction peaks of cubic Y_2O_3 crystal 167 (JCPDS PDF# 71-0049, $a = 10.596$ Å), while the diffraction peaks of Co and Y-Co 168 oxides can be well indexed to cubic spinel $Co₃O₄$ phase (JCPDS PDF# 74-2120, a = 169 8.0840 Å) with Fd3m (227) space group. For all Y-Co oxides, no diffraction peaks 170 corresponding to Y_2O_3 phase were observed, suggesting that the yttrium species may 171 be incorporated into the $Co₃O₄$ crystal lattices, uniformly distributed in the $Co₃O₄$ 172 matrix, or highly dispersed on the surface of cobalt oxide in an amorphous state. As 173 the Y content increases from 0 to 5%, the diffraction peaks of Y-Co oxides get weaker 174 and broader, indicating a declined crystallinity and a smaller crystallite size. 175 Additionally, the peaks corresponding to the (311) plane of $Co₃O₄$ in the Y-Co oxides 176 shifted to a lower angle compared with that of pure cobalt oxide. The average 177 crystallite size (d) and lattice constant (a) of these oxides were estimated by the MDI 178 Jade 6.0 program (**Table 1**). With increasing Y content, the crystallite size decreased. 179 Regarding the lattice constant, the Y-Co oxides exhibited larger values than pure 180 Co3O4, while no significant difference was observed when the Y concentration 181 increased. A possible explanation is that only a bit of Y ions could enter the $Co₃O₄$ 182 lattice, causing lattice expansion and defects; excessive Y2O3 might highly disperse in 183 the matrix or on the surface of Co₃O₄. Since Y^{3+} (0.104 Å) has a larger ionic radius 184 than Co^{3+} (0.685 and 0.75 Å in low and high spin state, respectively) or Co^{2+} (0.79 185 and 0.885 Å in low and high spin state, respectively), it was likely to locate at the 186 interface, crystal boundary of Co3O4, or serve as pinning particles, and thereby 187 restraining the nucleation and growth rate of $Co₃O₄$ during the calcination process 188 [23,39].

190 **Fig. 1.** (a) XRD patterns of the catalysts and (b) diffraction peaks of the (311) crystal

191 plane.

192 **Table 1.** The physicochemical properties of the catalysts.

^a Determined and calculated by ICP analysis; ^b average crystallite size and lattice

194 constant from XRD patterns; ^c specific surface area and total pore volume determined 195 by N_2 adsorption.

196 **Fig. 2** depicts the FTIR spectra of the oxides. Looking at pure Co oxide, two 197 intense bands were observed at around 654 and 539 cm^{-1} , corresponding to the 198 stretching vibration of tetrahedrally coordinated Co^{2+} -O and octahedrally coordinated 199 Co³⁺–O, respectively [40]. For pure Y oxide, the two bands at ~557 and 459 cm⁻¹ are 200 attributed to the Y–O vibration of cubic Y_2O_3 [41]. Additionally, the intense double 201 peaks at 1504 and 1411 cm⁻¹ correspond to v3 mode of $CO₃²$, whereas the bands at 202 \sim 1075 and 845 cm⁻¹ correspond to v1 and v2 modes of CO₃²⁻, respectively [42]. The 203 abundant presence of carbonate species suggests that Y_2O_3 can react with CO_2 in air 204 to form $Y_2(CO_3)$ or YOHCO₃. Regarding Y-Co oxides, the characteristic bands of 205 $Co₃O₄$ were well maintained, in agreement with XRD analysis. Interestingly, some 206 new bands corresponding to carbonate species were clearly observed in 3% and 207 5%Y-Co. Considering that no carbonate species were identified for pure Co₃O₄, we 208 deduced that at low content, Y^{3+} is randomly dispersed throughout the Co₃O₄ particle, 209 whereas large Y_2O_3 particles aggregate on the surface of Y-Co oxide when $Y/(Co+Y)$ $210 \t > 1\%$.

212 **Fig. 2.** FTIR spectra of the catalysts.

213 To further study the effect of Y content on the $Co₃O₄$ structure and unravel the 214 formation of defects, Raman spectra were collected (**Fig. 3a**). For pure Co oxide, five 215 characteristic peaks corresponding to the stretching mode of spinel $Co₃O₄$ were 216 clearly observed [11,43,44], which agrees well with the XRD and FTIR analyses. The 217 peak at 676 cm⁻¹ was assigned to the octahedral sites (CoO₆) with A_{1g} symmetry. The 218 weak peak at 605 cm⁻¹ was due to the F^3_{2g} symmetry. The two medium-intensity 219 peaks centered at around 507 and 467 cm⁻¹ were associated with the F^2_{2g} and E_g 220 symmetry modes, respectively. The peak at 180 cm^{-1} was attributed to the tetrahedral 221 sites (CoO₄) with F^1_{2g} symmetry. Compared with pure Co oxide, the Raman peaks of 222 Y-Co oxides weakened and broadened with increasing $Y/(Co+Y)$ ratios, indicating 223 the formation of lattice defects and oxygen vacancies, which induced weaker Co−O 224 bonds of the catalyst [45,46]. The Co−O bond force constant (k), reflecting the Co−O 225 bond strength, was estimated based on the Raman shift of A_{1g} mode according to 226 Hooke's law [13,46,47]. As shown in **Fig. 3b**, the k value of the catalysts gradually

227 decreased with the increase of Y content, demonstrating that Y modification 228 weakened the Co−O bond in Co3O4. The presence of oxygen vacancies could enhance 229 the electron density of their surrounding lattice oxygen, decrease the binding energy 230 of lattice oxygen and thus weaken the Co−O bond [46]. According to Ref [34], the 231 surface concentration of Co^{2+} and Co^{3+} is proportional to the areal intensity ratio of 232 $F¹_{2g}$ and A_{1g} . By integration, these values were estimated and listed in **Table 2**. It can 233 be seen that Y introduction led to higher F^1_{2g}/A_{1g} ratio, which could be related to the 234 formation of oxygen vacancies [43]. Among the Y-Co oxides, 1%Y-Co exhibited the 235 largest amount of oxygen vacancies.

237 **Fig. 3.** (a) Raman spectra of the catalysts and (b) Correlation between the Co−O bond 238 strength and the $Y/(Co+Y)$ atomic ratios.

- 239 **Table 2.** Quantitative analysis of Raman spectra, H₂-TPR and TG-OSC, and O₂-TPD
- 240 profiles of the catalysts.

242 **Fig. 4** shows N2 adsorption-desorption isotherms and BJH pore size distributions of 243 the oxides. The specific surface area (SSA), pore volume (V_{pore}) , and average pore 244 size (Dpore) are summarized in **Table 1**. According to the IUPAC classification, all 245 Y-Co oxides exhibited Type IV isotherm curves with H1-shaped hysteresis loops, 246 indicating the presence of mesopores. Pure Co oxide is almost non-porous with a low 247 SSA of 6 m² g⁻¹. The introduction of Y increased the porosities of the Y-Co oxides; 248 the more Y added, the larger SSA and V_{pore} were obtained, which agrees well with the 249 decrease in crystallite size. Y modification also affected the pore size of the Y-Co 250 oxides. The average pore size decreased from 25 nm to 10 nm as the Y amount 251 increased from 0.25% to 5%, meanwhile, the pore size distribution became more and 252 more centralized. The large surface area and pore volume could facilitate mass

253 transfer and the adsorption of reactants, while the small pore size might facilitate the 254 full contact between the reactants and the catalyst by extending the residence time of 255 reactants [35], which benefits the catalytic combustion.

257 **Fig. 4.** (a) N2 adsorption-desorption isotherms and (b) BJH pore size distributions of 258 the catalysts.

259 **3.3. Redox ability**

260 It is well-accepted that the catalytic oxidation of hydrocarbons over transition metal 261 oxides proceeds via a redox mechanism [48], in which the redox ability of the catalyst 262 plays a crucial role.

263 H2-TPR experiments were conducted to study the effect of Y modification on the 264 reduction behavior of $Co₃O₄$. The results are shown in Fig. 5a. Pure $Y₂O₃$ exhibits no 265 appreciable reduction peak, indicating Y_2O_3 is irreducible within the test temperature 266 range. For pure $Co₃O₄$, a broad peak was observed, which was due to the overlapping 267 of two peaks corresponding to the stepwise reduction of Co^{3+} to Co^{2+} and Co^{2+} to Co^{0} . 268 In terms of Y-Co oxides, these two reduction peaks could be clearly identified. As Y 269 content increased from 0% to 1%, the low-temperature reduction peak shifted to 270 lower temperature, suggesting the enhanced low-temperature reducibility caused by 271 Y-Co interaction and size effect [49], whereas the high-temperature reduction peak 272 remained unchanged. Further increase in Y content to 3% or 5% resulted in worse 273 reducibility, reflected by the significant shift of both two reduction peaks to higher 274 temperatures. As evidenced by FTIR analysis, excessive Y_2O_3 can aggregate on the 275 surface of the Y-Co oxides, which may hinder the reduction of $Co₃O₄$.

The total H2 uptake amount of pure Co oxide was 16.5 mmol g−1 276 (**Table 2**), which 277 is identical to that of the stoichiometric Co₃O₄ (16.6 mmol g^{-1}). This value decreased 278 with increasing Y content due to the irreducible nature of Y_2O_3 . To better compare the 279 low-temperature reducibility of these catalysts, the H₂ uptake amount between 50 $^{\circ}$ C 280 and 300 \degree C was quantified (**Table 2**). It is clear that more H₂ was consumed by 281 1%Y-Co up to 300 °C than other catalysts. Moreover, the initial H_2 consumption rate, 282 which is frequently used to evaluate the low-temperature reducibility of oxide 283 catalysts [9,50], was also calculated based on the H_2 consumption per gram of catalyst 284 per second (**Fig. 5b**). Evidently, the initial H₂ consumption rate varied as follows: 285 1%Y-Co > 0.5% Y-Co > 0.25% Y-Co > 3% Y-Co \approx Co > 5% Y-Co.

287 **Fig. 5.** (a) H2-TPR profiles and (b) initial H2 consumption rate curves of the catalysts.

286

288 To get insight into the oxygen storage and release capacity of the oxides, TG 289 experiments under N_2 were carried out after pretreating the oxides by air. **Fig. 6a** 290 shows the TG weight loss curves from 25 to 800 °C. For all catalysts, the weight loss 291 below 100 °C corresponded to the removal of physically adsorbed oxygen. In the 292 range of 100–700 \degree C, the weight loss was divided into two regions: the one below 300 293 °C is ascribed to the removal of surface chemisorbed oxygen species (O_{α}) , whereas 294 the latter was associated with the depletion of surface lattice oxygen species (O_6) . The 295 large weight loss detected above 700 \degree C is due to the conversion of Co₃O₄ to CoO. As 296 listed in **Table 2**, the released amount of either α or β oxygen increased with Y 297 concentration. This indicates that the introduction of Y can facilitate the formation of 298 oxygen vacancies and enhance the oxygen mobility of $Co₃O₄$. However, it should be 299 pointed out that some Y carbonate species may be present in 3%Y-Co and 5%Y-Co, 300 which can also cause a weight loss in the TG-OSC curves. O₂-TPD experiments were

314 **3.4. Surface species**

315 The catalytic activity of the oxides is closely related to their surface 316 physicochemical properties. To investigate the effect of Y content on the surface 317 chemical compositions and surface oxygen species, XPS spectra were recorded. As 318 illustrated in **Fig. S4a**, the XPS survey spectra revealed the presence of Co, O and Y 319 elements in Y-Co samples. The surface atomic ratio of each element obtained by 320 integration is summarized in **Table 3**. The results suggested a slight enrichment of Y 321 on the surface of Y-Co samples. The detailed photoemission peaks of Y 3d are shown 322 in **Fig. S4b**. The peak intensity of Y 3d increased with increasing Y content in the 323 Y-Co samples. The peaks of Y $3d_{5/2}$ in Y-Co samples occurred at 157.2 eV, showing 324 a shift of 0.6 eV compared with that (156.6 eV) in Y₂O₃ nanocrystals [51], which may 325 be associated with either oxygen trapping or the existence of Y carbonate species. It 326 was reported that Y₂O₃ tends to adsorb CO₂ from the atmosphere to form carbonate 327 species [52,53], which was also supported by the FTIR analysis. The presence of 328 carbonate species was further confirmed by the peaks at ~288.4 eV occurred in the C 329 1s spectra (**Fig. S4c**). **Fig. 7** presents the Co 2p and O 1s XPS spectra of the oxides. 330 The main peak positions of the Co 2p doublet $(2p_{1/2}$ and $2p_{3/2})$ are at ~ 794.7 and 331 779.7 with a spin-orbit splitting of ~ 15.0 eV, along with two weak satellite peaks, 332 similar to those reported for pure $Co₃O₄$ [2,14,17]. According to some literature 333 [2,14,17], the Co $2p_{3/2}$ spectra were deconvoluted into two components peaks, one for 334 Co^{2+} (ca. 781.5 eV) and the other for Co^{3+} (ca. 779.7 eV). As shown in **Table 3**, the

Catalysts	Surface concentration $(at.\%)$		Surface molar ratio		
	Y	Co	Ω	Co^{2+}/Co^{3+}	O_{ads}/O_{latt}
Co	θ	32.5	57.4	0.39	0.41
0.25% Y-Co	0.4	31.4	57.1	0.42	0.58
0.5% Y-Co	1.1	30.9	57.0	0.46	0.63
1% Y-Co	1.7	28.4	56.8	0.57	1.13
3% Y-Co	3.9	27.5	55.5	0.41	2.70

347 **Table 3.** XPS characteristics of the catalysts.

350 **Fig. 7.** (a) Co 2p and (b) O 1s XPS spectra of the catalysts.

351 **3.5. Catalytic performance**

352 All catalysts were tested in the total oxidation of toluene and propane for one 353 heating−cooling catalytic cycle. To avoid overestimation of mineralization rate due to 354 adsorption or incomplete conversion of hydrocarbon, $CO₂$ yield instead of 355 hydrocarbon conversion was used in the light-off curves. Because of the accumulation 356 of intermediates and excessive release of $CO₂$ during the heating process of toluene 357 oxidation (**Fig. S5a and S6b**), the light-off curves obtained upon the cooling stage 358 were applied to compare the catalytic performance. **Fig. 8** shows the catalytic 359 performance of the prepared catalysts for toluene or propane oxidation under 360 oxygen-rich conditions. T_{10} , T_{50} and T_{90} values (temperatures at 10, 50 and 90% 361 toluene or propane conversion, respectively) were summarized in **Table S1** and **S2**.

362 In toluene oxidation, pure Y_2O_3 was almost inert, with only 2% toluene converted 363 at 350 °C, whereas pure Co₃O₄ exhibited good performance (T₉₀ = 291 °C). Benefiting 364 from the introduction of Y species, the catalytic performance of pure $Co₃O₄$ was 365 greatly enhanced, evidenced by the shift of light-off curves towards lower temperature 366 range. The best performance was achieved when the $Y/(Co+Y)$ ratio reached 1%. The 367 T₅₀ value of catalyst 1%Y-Co (244 °C) was 31 °C lower than that of pure Co₃O₄ (275) 368 ºC). Further increasing of the Y content in Y-Co catalysts inhibited their activity at the 369 high-temperature stage, though their low-temperature performance could be further 370 improved. The produced CO and CO2 during the toluene oxidation process were in 371 situ monitored and displayed in **Fig. S6**. As a function of Y content in $Co₃O₄$, the 372 concentration of by-product CO had an obvious tendency of dropping while the bump 373 in the CO2 evolution curve caused by the sudden decomposition of accumulated 374 intermediate of toluene oxidation got bigger. Therefore, the incorporation of Y in 375 Co3O4 could inhibit the production of CO during toluene combustion.

 376 Regarding the propane oxidation, pure Y₂O₃ presented poor performance again 377 (1.6% of propane conversion at 350 ºC). However, the effect of Y modification on 378 propane oxidation was a bit different from that on toluene oxidation. The catalytic 379 performance of Y-Co catalysts increases with Y content up to a Y concentration of 380 1% and then decreased gradually. The T₉₀ value of 1%Y-Co (242 °C) was 27 °C 381 lower than that of pure Co₃O₄, while the T₉₀ value of 5%Y-Co (323 °C) was 54 °C

 382 higher than that of pure Co₃O₄. Thus, a low content of Y modification can improve 383 the activity of $Co₃O₄$ in propane oxidation, whereas superfluous Y addition to $Co₃O₄$ 384 could be detrimental to propane oxidation, especially in the high-temperature range. 385 During the catalytic reactions, only trace amounts of propene were produced (**Fig.** 386 **S7**), indicating the excellent selectivity of the prepared catalysts for propane 387 oxidation.

389 **Fig. 8.** (a) Toluene and (b) propane conversion to $CO₂$ as a function of temperature 390 over the catalysts (reaction conditions: toluene/propane concentration = 1000 ppm, $O₂$ 391 concentration = 21 vol.% and WHSV = 40,000 mL g^{-1} h⁻¹).

392 By assuming that toluene and propane oxidation under the oxygen-rich atmosphere 393 follows the first-order reaction kinetics model, the Arrhenius curves of –ln r vs 394 1000/RT for all catalysts were plotted in **Fig. S8** (the corresponding reactant 395 conversions were 1−8%). As summarized in **Table S1** and **S2**, for toluene oxidation, 396 1%Y-Co catalyst exhibited the lowest apparent activation energy and pre-exponential 397 factor. For propane oxidation, the E_a values decreased with an increase of Y content, 398 as the ln A values do. **Fig. S9** revealed a compensation effect between the Ea and lnA 399 values [56].

400 The reaction rates and specific reaction rates of the catalysts were calculated and 401 listed in **Table S1** and **Table S2**. For both toluene and propane oxidation, the 402 Y-modified Co3O4 catalysts exhibited higher reaction rates than pure $Co₃O₄$. 403 However, regarding the specific reaction rates, the values of the Y-modified $Co₃O₄$ 404 catalysts were larger than that of pure $Co₃O₄$ in toluene oxidation while the value of 405 pure Co3O4 was the largest in propane oxidation. This phenomenon suggests that the 406 large specific surface areas of the Y-Co catalysts contributed a lot to their enhanced 407 propane oxidation performance, whereas the enhanced toluene oxidation performance 408 of the Y-Co catalysts was mainly due to their increased intrinsic activity. Combining 409 the catalytic activity in both toluene and propane oxidation, 1%Y-Co was considered 410 the optimal catalyst. As shown in **Table S3**, the catalytic performance of catalyst 411 1%Y-Co in toluene and propane combustion was comparable to or even better than 412 most catalysts recently reported in the literature. Considering the simple preparation 413 method and low cost, 1%Y-Co can be a candidate for the practical elimination of 414 hydrocarbon emissions. The cycling stability and long-term durability of 1%Y-Co 415 were investigated. As shown in **Fig. 9a and 9b**, 1%Y-Co exhibited excellent cycling 416 stability, as evidenced by the identical light-off curves upon three consecutive

417 catalytic cycles in both toluene and propane oxidation processes. As shown in **Fig. 9d**, 418 1%Y-Co exhibited outstanding long-term performance in propane oxidation, almost 419 no deactivation was observed after a 29-h continuous test at either 239 ºC or 194 ºC. 420 However, significant activity loss occurred for 1%Y-Co in long-term toluene 421 oxidation (**Fig. 9c**). This can be explained by the accumulation of intermediate on the 422 surface of the catalyst, considering excess amount of $CO₂$ was produced during the 423 heating reaction cycle in the high-temperature region (**Fig. S5a and S6b**). 424 Nevertheless, this kind of deactivation is reversible. When the catalyst was treated in 425 air for a while, the carbonate species deposited on the surface of the catalyst can be 426 quickly burned out and consequently the catalyst was completely regenerated. The 427 reversible inactivation in toluene oxidation but stable performance in propane 428 oxidation of the Y-Co catalysts were further confirmed by performing the long-term 429 test over 0.5%Y-Co (**Fig. S10**).

432 **Fig. 9.** (a) Toluene and (b) propane conversion to $CO₂$ as a function of temperature 433 over 1%Y-Co upon three consecutive catalytic cycles; (c) Toluene and (d) propane 434 conversion to $CO₂$ as a function of time on stream over 1% Y-Co (reaction conditions: 435 toluene/propane concentration = 1000 ppm, O_2 concentration = 21 vol.% and WHSV 436 = 40,000 mL g^{-1} h⁻¹).

437 In practical applications, water vapor is widely present and thus the effect of 5 438 vol.% H2O on the catalytic oxidation of propane over typical catalysts was studied 439 (**Fig. 10**). Introduction of 5 vol.% H₂O suppressed the activity (with T_{50} values going 440 up ~ 20 °C) of both pure Co and 1%Y-Co catalysts, probably due to the competition 441 adsorption of H_2O with propane on the active sites or the shift of reaction equilibrium 442 [55]. However, for 5%Y-Co, the light-off curves crossed before and after water 443 addition; namely, in the presence of water, the low-temperature catalytic performance 444 of 5%Y-Co was inhibited whereas the high-temperature one was promoted. When 5 445 vol.% H_2O was removed from the feed stream, the activity of 1%Y-Co was almost 446 completely restored. The result demonstrated that 1%Y-Co was still highly active for 447 propane oxidation (T₉₀ = 265 °C) even under humid conditions.

449 **Fig. 10.** Effect of 5 vol.% H2O on the light-off curves of the catalysts in propane

450 oxidation (reaction conditions: toluene/propane concentration = 1000 ppm, $O₂$

451 concentration = 21 vol.% and WHSV = 40,000 mL g^{-1} h⁻¹).

452 **3.6. Discussion**

453 In this study, Y-Co oxides prepared from citrate sol-gel exhibited better catalytic 454 activity for toluene or propane combustion than pure Co oxide. The activity of the 455 Y-Co oxides was dependent on the atomic ratio of Y/(Co+Y), 1%Y-Co being the 456 most active catalyst. XRD, FTIR, Raman and N_2 adsorption analysis showed that low 457 content of Y (\leq 1%) can be randomly dispersed throughout the Co₃O₄ crystallite with 458 the formation of lattice defects and oxygen vacancies, while excess Y aggregates on 459 the surface of $Co₃O₄$ and forms Y carbonate species. The incorporation of Y can 460 restrain the growth of $Co₃O₄$ crystallites, resulting in smaller grains and larger surface 461 areas. H₂-TPR results evidenced that the low-temperature reducibility of the Y-Co 462 oxides increases until Y reaches 1%, then it decreases. TG-OSC revealed that Y

463 addition not only increased the number of surface oxygen species but also improved 464 lattice oxygen mobility. XPS analysis demonstrated the presence of ample surface 465 oxygen vacancies and adsorbed oxygen species in 1%Y-Co.

466 To get insight into the participation of oxygen species in the propane oxidation 467 reaction, the catalytic test was performed from 50 to 450 \degree C over the catalysts in He 468 flow. As shown in **Fig. S11**, free of gaseous O_2 supplying, only a small amount of 469 $CO₂$ was produced below 350 °C, which should be originated from the consumption 470 of surface oxygen species. In line with the TG-OSC analysis, more surface oxygen 471 species were present in Y-Co catalysts than in pure Co catalyst. In 350−450 °C, 472 abundant CO2 occurred, signifying the participation of surface or bulk lattice oxygen 473 in the reaction via a redox mechanism [10]. The $CO₂$ production at 450 °C over 474 different catalysts follows the order: 1% Y-Co > 0.5% Y-Co > 0.25% Y-Co $\approx 3\%$ Y-Co 475 > Co > 5%Y-Co, which is consistent with their catalytic activity for propane 476 oxidation under oxidation conditions. The result further revealed that more active 477 oxygen species present in 1%Y-Co than in pure Co and other Y-Co catalysts. 478 Considering the well-accepted redox mechanism for toluene or propane oxidation 479 over $Co₃O₄$ catalysts, the superior catalytic performance of 1% Y-Co was correlated 480 with the excellent reducibility and abundant reactive oxygen species that are able to 481 participate in toluene or propane oxidation. Given the low activity of pure Y oxide, 482 Y₂O₃ clusters aggregating on the surface of catalysts 3% Y-Co and 5% Y-Co may 483 block the active sites, which would explain their inferior activity for toluene or 484 propane combustion.

485 **4. Conclusion**

486 Summarizing up, Y-modified Co3O4 catalysts with low contents of Y (0.25−5%), 487 synthesized via citrate sol-gel, exhibited high efficiency for the total oxidation of 488 toluene and propane. The optimal atomic ratio of $Y/(C_0+Y)$ was found to be 1%, with 489 T_{90} values of 268 and 242 °C for toluene and propane oxidation, respectively, much 490 lower than those of pure cobalt oxide (291 and 269 °C). In addition, catalyst 1% Y-Co 491 demonstrated good cycling stability and long-term durability in propane oxidation. 492 Appropriate incorporation of Y into $Co₃O₄$ greatly lowered the crystallite size, 493 increased the surface area, promoted reducibility, and increased the number of surface 494 oxygen species of the Y-Co catalysts. Excess Y will accumulate on the catalyst 495 surface to form yttrium carbonate species, inhibiting the activity of the catalyst. The 496 excellent performance of catalyst 1%Y-Co was attributed to its superior 497 low-temperature reducibility and sufficient active oxygen species. This study provides 498 a new point of view about designing an inexpensive and efficient catalyst for 499 hydrocarbons elimination by introducing an appropriate amount of Y.

501 **Acknowledgments**

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Y-modified Co₃O₄ catalysts for VOCs combustion

