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The effect of metal-support interactions on formaldehyde oxidation and by-product selectivities in TiO₂ supported metal catalysts (Co, Cr, Mo, and Ag).

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Abstract

One of the most significant indoor air pollutants is formaldehyde, and long-term exposure to HCHO may cause health problems. Catalytic oxidation at room temperature is an effective technology for removing HCHO indoors. In this paper, a simple sol-gel synthesis method was proposed for the preparation of TiO₂ support, and a series of 5%M (Co, Cr, Mo, and Ag) catalysts were prepared by impregnation process. The materials were characterized by XRD, TEM, FT-IR, BET, and H₂ -TPR. The catalytic activities and the oxidation reaction of HCHO were investigated by an analytical system equipped with an infrared analyser (MKS multigas 2030) to analysis the different products. The results showed that the M/TiO₂ catalysts obtained have TiO₂ anatase phase diffraction peaks as well as a high surface area and porosity. The samples physicochemical, catalytic properties, and by-product selectivity's differ depending on the metal impregnated. The Ag/TiO₂ catalyst was effective for the removal of formaldehyde gas at 95 °C, resulting in the selective production of carbon dioxide and water. The Co/TiO₂ demonstrated complete conversion of HCHO at 244 °C and improved CO₂ selectivity. The TEM images for the Ag/TiO₂ catalyst showed that the silver particles were identified and very well dispersed on the support. Finally, these results might help in the development of high-performance catalysts activities at ambient temperature.

Keywords: formaldehyde, TiO₂, Catalytic oxidation, Sol-Gel, Supported metal catalysts, selectivities, CO₂, temperature

Introduction

Indoor air pollution has become a growing concern in recent years, as people spend a significant amount of time inside buildings and structures, where the concentration of toxic substances such as volatile organic compounds (VOCs) is often higher than outdoors [1, 2]. Various toxic substances (VOCs) have been introduced into the indoor environment, such as formaldehyde, benzene, toluene, and so on [3]. Formaldehyde (HCHO) is the primary indoor pollutant emitted by commonly used building and decorative materials and has been linked to various health issues, including cancer [4]. Although various technologies have been developed to reduce the concentration of formaldehyde in indoor air, such as physical adsorption [6, 7], photocatalytic [8, 9], and catalytic oxidation. However, due to its limited adsorption capacity, the adsorbent has an unstable removal impact [5]. The photocatalyst's action can result in secondary toxicity pollution, such as HCHO [5]. In contrast, catalytic oxidation is an effective and environmentally friendly method for formaldehyde elimination into carbon dioxide and water. Metal oxide and noble-metal catalysts have been used for formaldehyde oxidation, and their catalytic performance is closely related to their morphology, surface area, and crystal structure. At room temperature, noble-metal catalysts have very high catalytic performance for HCHO oxidation; for example, Pt/TiO₂ with a Pt loading of 1% exhibited excellent activity for formaldehyde oxidation [9]. Transition metal materials, on the other hand, have received widespread attention due to their low cost and high catalytic activity. Mn [10, 11], Co [12], and Cr [13] have been shown to have good catalytic activity, and metals such as Ce [14], Sn [15], and Cu [16] can be doped into the catalyst as promoters to improve activity. Titanium oxide has long been of interest to scientists as both a catalyst and support material. Its highly developed surface contains both acid-base sites and exhibits high mechanical and thermal stability, enabling the significant dispersion of active phases and providing it with exceptionally interesting properties for use in heterogeneous catalysis. Various methods have been developed to synthesize TiO₂, including the sol-gel method [17]. This method has great potential for producing various material structures, such as bulk, fibres, sheets, films, and particles, at low temperatures [18]. It enables the creation of materials with high purity and homogeneity, as well as the control of particle size distributions at the nanoscale level. In this study, we used sequential sol-gel and impregnation methods to synthesize titanium oxide and load metals onto it. We investigated the effect of the metal type on the catalytic performance for formaldehyde (HCHO) oxidation and detected by-products using an advanced infrared analyser (MKS multigas 2030). To investigate the physicochemical properties of the synthesized catalysts, we used a combination of X-ray

diffraction (XRD), Transmission Electron Microscopy (TEM), Fourier-transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR), Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET), and hydrogen temperature programmed reduction (H_2 -TPR).

Experimental section

Catalyst synthesis

All chemical reagents used were of the highest analytical grade. In our study, titanium oxide was synthesized using the sol-gel method and used as a support. Titanium (IV) isopropoxide (70% from S. Aldrich) was dissolved in absolute ethanol (99.8% from S. Aldrich) and stirred for 30 min. To control the hydrolysis and condensation reaction rates, ethyl acetoacetate was added to the solution in a molar ratio of Eacac (Ethyl acetoacetate): Ti = 1. After 30 minutes of stirring, 1.5 mL of a 0.1M aqueous nitric acid solution (65% from S. Aldrich) was added dropwise, corresponding to a molar ratio H_2O : Ti = 10. The solution was then stirred until a yellow gel formed. The gel was dried in an autoclave under supercritical ethanol conditions ($P = 63$ bars; $T = 243$ °C), crushed, and then calcined under an oxygen flow for 3 hours at 500 °C with a temperature rise of 1 °C/min and a flow rate of 30 mL/min.

In the impregnation method, aqueous precursor solutions of cobalt (II) nitrate hexahydrate, chromium (III) chloride, pure molybdenum powder, and silver nitrate were added to the support material while stirring. The M/TiO₂ catalysts were activated by a reduction treatment under H_2 (30 mL/min) at 300 °C with a ramp of 1°C/min after drying at 100 °C for 12 hours. The impregnated solids were labelled as Co/TiO₂, Cr/TiO₂, Mo/TiO₂, and Ag/TiO₂.

Catalysts characterization

Understanding a catalyst's morphological, textural, and structural properties is critical because these properties have a direct impact on the number and accessibility of active sites, as well as the catalytic activity. In what follows, we will discuss the various techniques we used to characterize our catalysts.

The nitrogen physisorption method is commonly used to measure the specific area and porosity of catalysts produced with an ASAP 2020 Micromeritics analyser. Specifically, the BET method is used to calculate the specific surface area (S_{BET}) from the nitrogen adsorption data, using a P/P_0 ratio between 0.04 to 0.31. The desorption branch of the isotherm is then analysed using the Barret-Joyner-Halenda (BJH) model to calculate the total pore volume (V_p) and average pore size (D_p).

Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) images were obtained using an 80 kV JEOL JEM-1011 microscope to gather additional information about the composition, morphology, and structure of the catalysts. The catalysts were mixed with ethanol and dispersed in an ultrasonic bath. Subsequently, the solutions were placed on a copper plate and dried by evaporating the ethanol before the analysis.

The Perkin Elmer spectrometer was used for Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR) to identify the molecular bonds in the samples. The samples were analysed using an IR irradiating source in the frequency range of 400-4000 cm⁻¹ [19].

To identify the crystalline phases and chemical composition of the catalysts, X-ray diffraction (XRD) was performed using a PANalytical X'pert PRO MPD diffractometer with a CuK α ¹ radiation (1.54060 Å) in reflection geometry. The diffractograms were recorded over a range of 10-70°, with a step size of 0.017° and a scan step time of 12 seconds. The crystalline phases were identified by comparing them to ICDD PDF standards. The average crystallite size of the samples (d_{XRD}) (in nm) was calculated using Scherrer's equation:

$$d_{XRD} = 0.9 \lambda / \beta \cos \theta$$

Where $K=0.9$, β is the corrected full width at half maximum (in rad), and θ is the Bragg angle of the diffraction peak (in rad).

The programmed H₂ temperature reduction profiles (H₂-TPR) were performed using a Micromeritics AutoChem 2920 analyser. The TPR technique can be used to characterize supported metals and oxides by determining the hydrogen consumption during metal oxide reduction as a function of temperature. A 5% H₂/Ar gas mixture with a ramp rate of 5 °C/min and a flow rate of 30 mL/min was used to achieve temperatures ranging from 40 to 700 °C.

Catalytic activity measurement

The MKS Multigas 2030 infrared analyser was used to set up the oxidation of volatile organic compounds in the gas phase, enabling continuous analysis of several molecules such as formaldehyde, CO₂, CO, methanol, formic acid, and water with a detection threshold of the order of parts per million (ppm).

The formaldehyde used in the tests was derived from paraformaldehyde, which was dissolved overnight with stirring at 50 °C. To stabilize the mixture, the measured mass of the solid was dissolved in 100 mL of ultrapure water and 1 mL of 0.1 mol L⁻¹ sodium hydroxide solution.

The catalytic oxidation of HCHO over the catalysts (50 mg) was tested in a glass flow reactor using a gas mixture comprising of 100 ppm HCHO, 19.5% O₂, 78% N₂, and 2.5% H₂O balanced at a total flow rate of 100 cm³ min⁻¹, and GHSV of 84,000 h⁻¹.

$$HCHO \text{ Conversion (\%)} = \frac{[HCHO]_i - [HCHO]_T}{[HCHO]_i} * 100$$

Where [HCHO]_i denotes the initial concentration and [HCHO]_T denotes the concentration during the reaction.

The apparent selectivity's for carbon dioxide, carbon monoxide, methanol, and formic acid are calculated as follows:

$$(Pi) \text{ selectivity (\%)} = \frac{[Pi]}{\sum [Pj]} * 100$$

Where [Pi] is the concentration of the product and [Pj] is the sum of all reaction product concentrations.

The previous selectivity values will allow the yields of these products to be calculated as shown in the equation:

$$(Pi) \text{ Yield (\%)} = HCHO \text{ Conversion} * (Pi) \text{ selectivity}$$

Results and discussion

X-Ray Diffraction analysis

Figure. 1 displays the XRD spectra of sol-gel synthesized TiO₂, Co/TiO₂, Cr/TiO₂, Mo/TiO₂, and Ag/TiO₂ catalysts. The anatase phase of each catalyst exhibits prominent peaks indexed using the standard powder diffraction pattern (JCPDS 01-071-1166) with a tetragonal symmetry structure. The rutile phase is not observed since the support TiO₂ was calcined at 500 °C. The anatase phase is identified by the peaks located at 2θ = 25.44°, 38.0°, 48.3°, 54.43°, and 63.4°, which correspond to the (101), (004), (200), (105), and (204) planes, respectively [20-21]. The absence of distinctive peaks corresponding to silver and cobalt in the diffraction pattern suggests that Ag was highly dispersed on the surface of anatase TiO₂, while cobalt can either be inserted in the interstitial sites of the crystal or substitute Ti ions. Furthermore, the smaller ionic radius of Ti⁴⁺ ion (0.068 nm) compared to that of Ag⁺ ion (0.126 nm) makes it difficult for Ag⁺ to replace Ti⁴⁺ in the crystal lattice [22]. However, the ionic radius of Co²⁺ (0.072 nm) is slightly larger than that of Ti⁴⁺, making it possible for Co²⁺ to substitute for Ti⁴⁺ in the titania

lattice [23]. The XRD patterns of Mo/TiO₂ exhibited two diffraction peaks assigned to the cubic molybdenum metallic at $2\theta = 40.50^\circ$ and 58.65° . In contrast, the Cr/TiO₂ XRD patterns revealed a reduction in the intensity of the TiO₂ anatase characteristic peaks and specific peaks at $2\theta = 15.27^\circ$, 30.82° , 36.53° , 53.27° , and 64.18° corresponding to the monoclinic crystal system of Chromium Chloride (CrCl₃). This result suggests that the reduction temperature of the chromium precursor is insufficient to remove chlorine and chromium, which were poorly incorporated into the TiO₂ structure. The addition of metal increased the anatase peaks, indicating a higher degree of crystallinity, and the increase in crystallinity was strongly influenced by the type of metal present in TiO₂. The increase in crystallinity resulting from the presence of metals could be due to metal ions occupying interstitial sites within the crystal or undergoing surface doping [24].

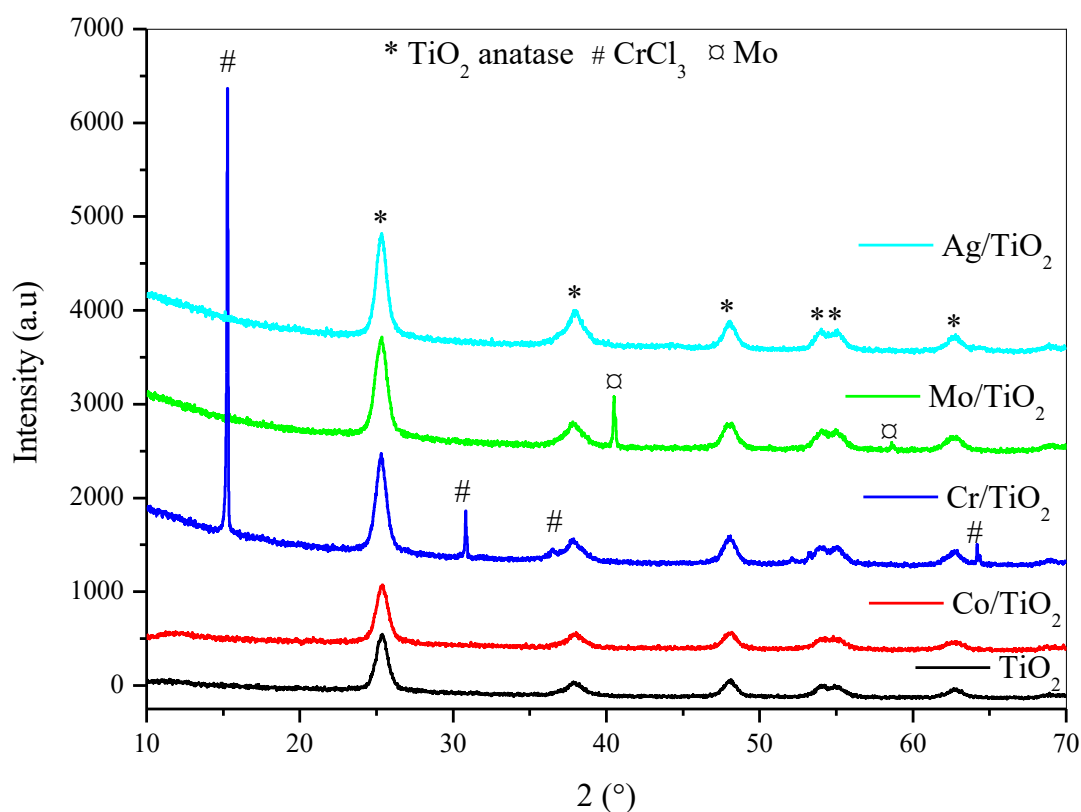


Figure 1. X-ray diffraction of: TiO₂, Co/TiO₂, Cr/TiO₂, Mo/TiO₂ and Ag/TiO₂

Table. 1 shows the crystallite sizes of the synthesized catalysts calculated using the Debye-Scherrer equation. TiO₂ had the smallest crystallite size (12.4 nm), followed by Ag/TiO₂ (14.6

nm), Co/TiO₂ (15.2 nm), Mo/TiO₂ (36.8 nm), and Cr/TiO₂ (61.3 nm). The increased crystal size after metal loading confirmed the higher crystallinity.

Table 1. Material properties of synthesized catalysts

Catalyst	S _{BET} (m ² /g) ^a	Pore volume (cm ³ /g) ^a	Average pore diameter(Å) ^a	Crystallite size (nm) ^b
TiO ₂	132	0.38	84	12.4
Co/TiO ₂	113	0.32	86	15.2
Cr/TiO ₂	91	0.24	75	61.3
Mo/TiO ₂	118	0.36	85	36.8
Ag/TiO ₂	104	0.28	77	14.6

^a Determined by BET, ^b Determined by XRD

Physisorption measurements

Figure. 2a depicts the N₂ adsorption-desorption isotherms for TiO₂ and various M/TiO₂ samples with 5% metal loading. According to IUPAC classification, all samples resembled the type IV isotherm, a profile characteristic of mesoporous materials [25]. The hysteresis loop associated with isotherms is assigned to the H₂ type, which corresponds to mesoporous textures and ink-bottle shaped pores formed by aggregated spherical particles [26-27]. The BJH pore size distribution of various M-TiO₂ catalysts is depicted in **Fig. 2b**, indicating that all samples have a monomodal size distribution. N₂ adsorption-desorption measurements were used to calculate the BET surface area, pore volume, and average pore diameter of each catalyst (Table 1). Sol-gel synthesized TiO₂ had the highest specific surface area of 132 m²/g, compared to 118 m²/g of Mo/TiO₂, 113 m²/g of Co/TiO₂, 104 m²/g of Ag/TiO₂, and 91 m²/g of Cr/TiO₂. The TiO₂ exhibited a much larger surface area, and the decrease of this surface area upon addition metal (Co, Cr, Mo, and Ag) can be explained by the increase of its crystal sizes. TiO₂, Mo/TiO₂, Co/TiO₂, Ag/TiO₂, and Cr/TiO₂ have pore volumes of 0.38, 0.36, 0.32, 0.28, and 0.24 cm³/g, respectively. The average pore diameter of Co/TiO₂ (86 Å) and Mo/TiO₂ (85 Å) was greater than TiO₂ (84 Å), Ag/TiO₂ (77 Å), and Cr/TiO₂ (75 Å), possibly due to a partial blockage of the pore's support entrances by cobalt and molybdenum species.

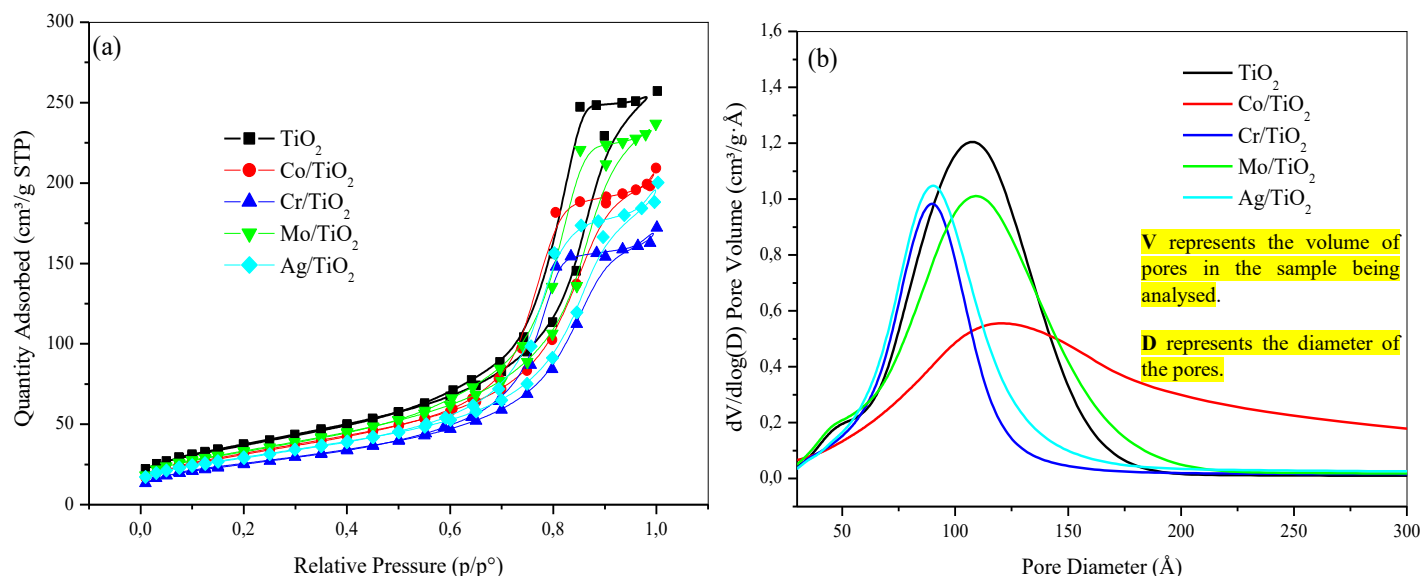


Figure. 2 The curves of nitrogen adsorption-desorption isotherms (a) and the corresponding pore size distribution curves (b) of TiO₂, Co/TiO₂, Cr/TiO₂, Mo/TiO₂ and Ag/TiO₂

Reducibility H₂-TPR analysis

According to prior research, the redox properties of the catalysts, such as low temperature reducibility, surface oxygen distributions, and oxygen mobility in the lattice, have a significant impact on their catalytic behaviour for VOC oxidation [28-29]. Using the H₂-TPR measurement, the hydrogen absorptions could characterize the phenomenon of adsorption and dissociation of hydrogen molecules through chemical combination with active oxygen species at the surface level of metal oxide catalysts [30]. As a result, the information provided by this technique can also be used to evaluate the availability of surface-active oxygen and the abundance of vacant oxygen on metal oxides. **The figure. S1 (from the supporting information)** depicts the TPR-H₂ profiles of the catalysts. The pure TiO₂ profile shows a very broad and low intensity reduction peak at 536 °C, which is related to the sample's low hydrogen consumption. This could be because of resistance to the reducing process. This is due to the surface dehydroxylation of TiO₂ and the reduction of Ti⁴⁺ to Ti³⁺ [31].

The H₂-TPR profile of the Co/TiO₂ catalyst exhibits two reduction peaks. The first peak, which occurs at 300-400°C, corresponds to the reduction of Co₃O₄ to CoO, resulting in the reduction of Co³⁺ to Co²⁺ metal. The second peak, which occurs at 400-550°C, corresponds to the reduction of CoO to Co, resulting in the reduction of Co²⁺ to Co⁰ metal [32]. For Cr/TiO₂ catalysts, a single low-intensity hydrogen consumption peak was observed over the entire temperature range due to the difficulty in reducing the chromium species in the presence of

chlorine. The reduction peak, which appears around 585 °C [33], corresponds to the change in oxidation state from Cr^{3+} to either Cr^{2+} or the metallic state. The TPR profile of Mo/TiO_2 does not exhibit any reduction peaks, indicating that the molybdenum species are in the metallic state in the supported catalyst, which is consistent with the XRD diagram [34]. On the other hand, the TPR profile of Ag/TiO_2 reveals three major peaks with higher H_2 consumption, observed at 85, 125, and 300 °C, respectively. As previously reported [35], the thermal analysis revealed three reduction peaks. The peak observed below 100 °C was attributed to the reduction of chemisorbed oxygen on the catalyst surface. The peak observed at around 100°C was attributed to the reduction of large Ag_2O clusters that had a low concentration or were highly dispersed, which made them undetectable by XRD [36]. Finally, the peak observed around 300 °C was attributed to the reduction of stable and well-dispersed Ag_2O or Ag^+ ions. This clearly demonstrates the presence of strong support-metal interactions between Ag and TiO_2 , which enhances the reduction process [36].

FT-IR analysis

The FTIR spectra of (a) TiO_2 , (b) Co/TiO_2 , (c) Mo/TiO_2 , (d) Cr/TiO_2 , and (e) Ag/TiO_2 nanocomposites in the 400- 4000 cm^{-1} wavenumber range are shown in **Figure. S2 (from the supporting information)**. All samples exhibited an absorption band in the 3800-3000 cm^{-1} range, which is attributed to the stretching vibrations of OH from physisorbed water molecules. The contribution due to water proton absorption is represented by the absorption band around 1620 cm^{-1} . The strong band in the 900-450 cm^{-1} range is associated with Ti-O-Ti vibration in TiO_2 [37-38]. The small adsorption bands 2300 cm^{-1} in the Mo/TiO_2 and Ag/TiO_2 spectra correspond to atmospheric CO_2 .

Catalytic activity

The Mars-Van Krevelen (MVK) mechanism has been widely used to describe the catalytic oxidation of VOCs over metallic oxides [39-40]. The mechanism consists of two independent steps: the oxidation of VOC molecules to CO_2 and H_2O via surface oxygen species and the reaction between reduced sites and oxygen from a gas phase to form surface oxygen species. Consequently, the surface oxygen species and the reducibility of the catalyst are critical for the overall oxidation of VOCs. **Figure. 3** illustrates the catalytic properties of TiO_2 and M/TiO_2 catalysts in HCHO oxidation. All catalysts, except TiO_2 , were able to completely oxidize formaldehyde under the tested conditions. The highest catalytic activity was observed for Ag/TiO_2 , which achieved complete HCHO conversion at a relatively low temperature of 95 °C.

At 245 °C, the Co/TiO₂ catalyst also achieved complete conversion of HCHO. The Mo/TiO₂ catalyst exhibited much lower activity, with total elimination of formaldehyde occurring at 317 °C. Similarly, Cr/TiO₂ was able to completely decompose formaldehyde, but at a higher temperature of 298 °C. To compare different materials in the field of catalysis, two key parameters are commonly studied: the T₅₀ and T₉₀ temperatures, which correspond to the temperatures at which 50% and 90% conversion, respectively, are achieved. The most desirable sample is one that achieves 50% or 90% conversion at the lowest possible temperatures. **Figure. 4** presents a summary histogram of the T₅₀ (in black) and T₉₀ (in red) values for the different materials. Notably, TiO₂ support exhibited a T₅₀ of 207 °C, while the lowest T₅₀ was observed for Ag/TiO₂, which achieved 50% conversion at 79 °C. The Co/TiO₂ and Mo/TiO₂ catalysts exhibited T₅₀ values of around 143 °C and 232 °C, respectively, while Cr/TiO₂ had the highest T₅₀ of 248 °C. It is worth mentioning that TiO₂ conversion did not exceed 85% for T₉₀, which is why **Figure. 3** does not display a T₉₀ value for this sample. Nevertheless, the T₉₀ values for all substituted materials were measured. The most active catalyst, with a T₉₀ of 90 °C, was Ag/TiO₂, which achieved a lower T₉₀ than the T₅₀ values of the other modified materials. By contrast, the T₉₀ values for Co/TiO₂, Cr/TiO₂, and Mo/TiO₂ were found to be 224 °C, 290 °C, and 309 °C, respectively.

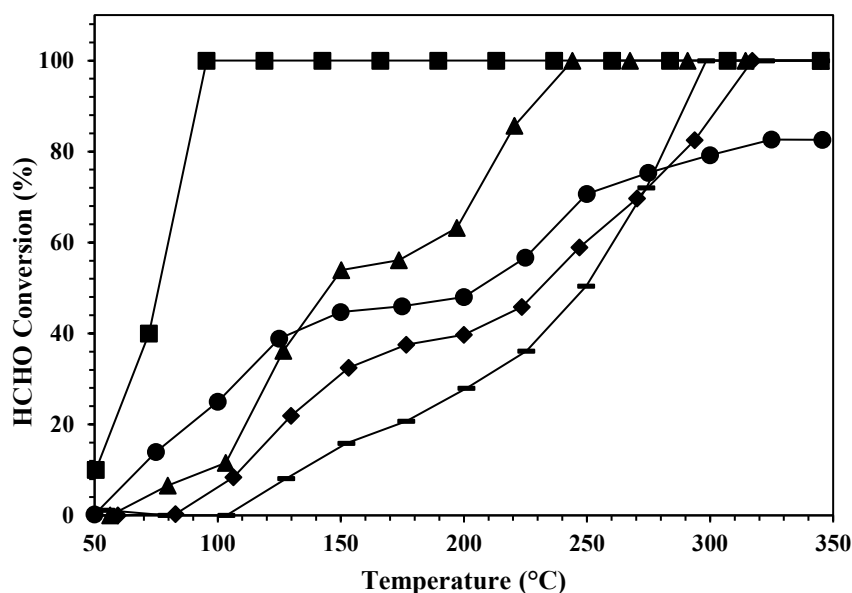


Figure. 3 HCHO conversions on: (●) TiO₂, (▲) Co/TiO₂, (—) Cr/TiO₂, (◆) Mo/TiO₂ and (■) Ag/TiO₂. Reaction conditions: HCHO 100 ppm, catalyst mass 50 mg, O₂ 19.5 vol%, total flow rate 100 cm³min⁻¹, GHSV 84000h⁻¹

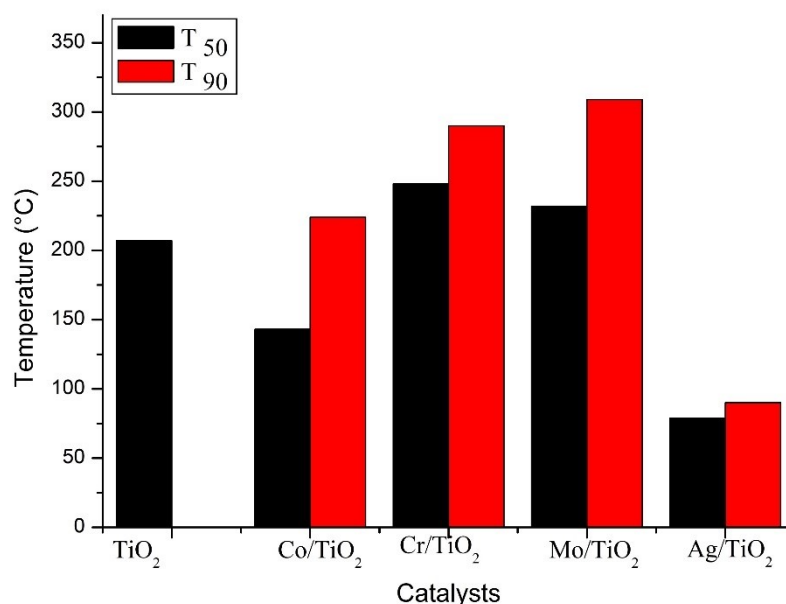


Figure. 4 Histogram of T₅₀ and T₉₀ in catalytic oxidation of formaldehyde according to the catalysts tested, HCHO 100 ppm, catalyst mass 50 mg, O₂ 19.5 vol%, total flow rate 100 cm³min⁻¹, GHSV 84000h⁻¹

The activity is not the only factor to consider when selecting a catalyst; selectivity is also important. Because the most active material is also the most selective in terms of harmful byproducts, it was unsuitable for indoor HCHO removal. As a result, it is necessary to compare the product yields obtained from various materials. Three products are detected under our experimental conditions: CO₂, CO, and CH₃OH, with the formic acid not being observed (**Figure. S3 from the supporting information**). At the temperature range of 50 to 350 °C, H₂O and CO₂ (**Fig. S3.a**) were the only products for the catalyst Ag/TiO₂, however, an important amount of CO (**Fig. S3.b**) was detected at over 200 °C produced by TiO₂ support, Cr/TiO₂, and Mo/TiO₂. As can be seen from **Fig. S3.c**, methanol could be detected when the reaction temperature was 52 °C for TiO₂, 60 °C for Co/TiO₂, 80 °C for Cr/TiO₂, and 100 °C for Mo/TiO₂. The yield of the different samples is in the following order:

Ag/TiO₂ > Co/TiO₂ > Cr/TiO₂ > Mo/TiO₂ > TiO₂.

This result shows that the redox sites created by silver species are more reactive in formaldehyde oxidation to CO₂ than the sites generated by molybdenum and chromium. The Co/TiO₂ sites have the potential to convert the HCHO and CH₃OH generated into CO₂ at 250

°C. Ag/TiO₂ can generate more active sites for HCHO oxidation than the other catalysts, and to compare with some literature data, **Table. 2** showed the activities of some of the different Ag-based catalysts.

Table 2. Catalytic activity of silver-based catalysts in the HCHO oxidation

Catalysts	Reactions conditions	T ₅₀ (°C)	Reference s
Ag/TiO ₂	100 ppm HCHO, O ₂ 19.5 vol%, GHSV 84000h ⁻¹	79	This work
Ag/CeO ₂	810 ppm HCHO, O ₂ 20 vol%, 84000 h ⁻¹ SV	90	[41]
Ag-HMO	400 ppm HCHO, 10 vol% O ₂ , 30.000 ml(gh) SV	80	[42]

With GHSV: gas hourly space velocity

Transmission electron microscopy

In order to better understand the variations in catalytic activity, the morphology and microstructure of the samples were analysed using transmission electron microscopy (TEM) techniques. **Figure. 5** provides representative TEM images of the calcined TiO₂ and M/TiO₂ samples. **Figure. 5a** displays the disordered but highly mesoporous structure of the TiO₂ support, which has a lattice spacing of 0.356 nm indexed as (101) and is identified as the anatase phase [43]. The Co/TiO₂ sample, depicted in **Figure. 5b**, exhibits well-defined spherical shapes with an agglomerated structure. **Figure. 5c** illustrates that the chrome catalyst only contains large metal particles within the size range of 30-200 nm, with no small Cr nanoparticles detected, and the Cr particles being larger than the other metal particles. As shown in **Figure. 5d**, the presence of Mo particles on the surface of the TiO₂ support is consistent with the particle size of 19.1 nm determined from X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns using Scherrer's equation (as shown in Table 1). The Mo particles are too large to be located within the pores of the TiO₂. **Figure. 5e** shows that the distribution of Ag particles is relatively uniform. The addition of silver has resulted in some black spots with a hexagonal structure, indicating that Ag nanoparticles have been successfully loaded onto the surface of TiO₂. When combined with our XRD and BET analyses, it can be concluded that the surface area of the support favours the high dispersion of the metal. **Table. 3** displays the chemical composition of each sample analysed through EDS elemental analyses. The findings indicate that the chemical composition of each impregnated element is close to that theoretically estimated.

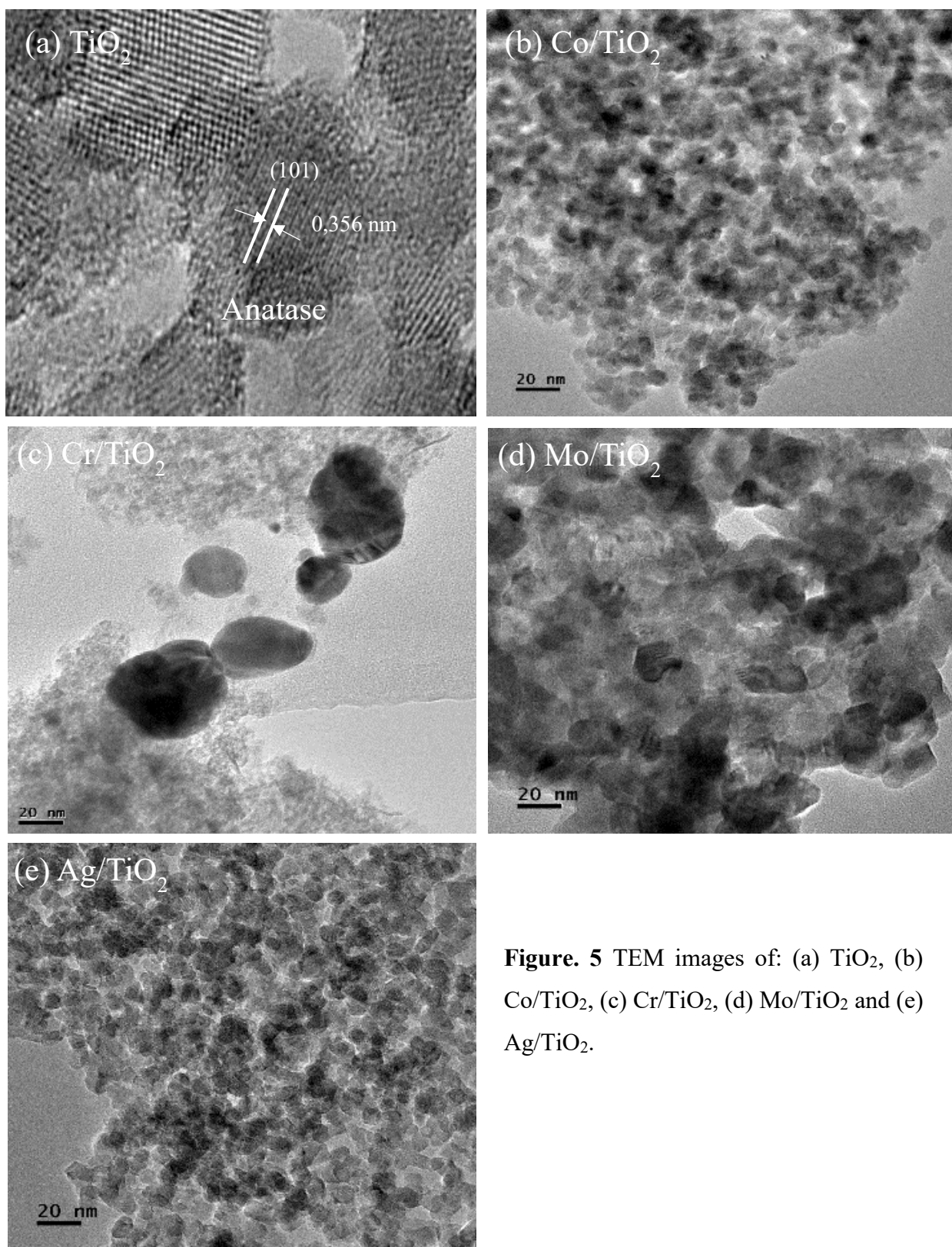


Figure. 5 TEM images of: (a) TiO_2 , (b) Co/TiO_2 , (c) Cr/TiO_2 , (d) Mo/TiO_2 and (e) Ag/TiO_2 .

Table. 3 EDS analysis of the different samples

Element	TiO ₂ Wt%	5%Co/TiO ₂ Wt%	5%Cr/TiO ₂ Wt%	5%Mo/TiO ₂ Wt%	5%Ag/TiO ₂ Wt%
Ti	65.18	64.15	60.54	62.33	60.32
O	34.82	31.36	34.45	33.00	35.12
Co	-	4.49	-	-	-
Cr	-	-	5.01	-	-
Mo	-	-	-	4.67	-
Ag	-	-	-	-	4.56
Total	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

Conclusion

In summary, the addition of metals (Co, Cr, Mo, and Ag) to the TiO₂ support, prepared using sol-gel and impregnation methods, significantly affected the conversion of formaldehyde (HCHO). XRD analysis revealed the presence of the anatase phase of TiO₂ support, the existence of CrCl₃ in the Cr/TiO₂ catalyst, and metallic Mo in the solid Mo/TiO₂. BET analysis showed the similarity of the isotherms characterized by a mesoporous texture. TPR confirmed the existence of reduction peaks of silver and cobalt, which had an impact on the oxidative character of the catalysts.

The catalytic tests demonstrated that the Ag/TiO₂ catalysts exhibited superior catalytic activity, achieving 100% conversion of HCHO at 95°C and being the most selective for the production of CO₂. An improvement in catalytic activity was attributed to the presence of Co, which showed advanced activity for the complete oxidation of HCHO and selectivity for CO₂. The presence of Mo and Cr catalysts led to high production of carbon monoxide.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare no conflicts of interest

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