The Morphology of Rhodium Supported on TiO$_2$ and Al$_2$O$_3$ as Studied by Temperature-Programmed Reduction–Oxidation and Transmission Electron Microscopy

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Supported Rh/Al$_2$O$_3$ and Rh/TiO$_2$ catalysts with varying metal loadings were investigated by chemisorption and temperature-programmed reduction and oxidation. Hydrogen chemisorption showed that all the Rh on Al$_2$O$_3$ was well dispersed ($H_{Rh} > 1$ for loadings below 5 wt% and $H_{Rh} > 0.5$ up to 20 wt%), while the dispersion on TiO$_2$ was much lower. TPR/TPO showed that this was due to the growth of two different kinds of Rh/Rh$_2$O$_3$ particles on TiO$_2$; one kind was easily reduced/oxidized, with a high dispersion, and the other kind was harder to reduce/oxidize, with a lower dispersion. TEM showed that the first kind of Rh$_2$O$_3$ consisted of flat, raftlike particles and the second kind of spherical particles.

INTRODUCTION

In the past 10 years or so rhodium has been gaining importance in catalytic chemistry. Not only is rhodium widely recognized as the best catalyst to promote the reduction of NO in “three-way catalysts” (1–3), but it also takes a special place in the conversion of synthesis gas, since its product range can include oxygenated products (alcohols, aldehydes, acids) besides hydrocarbons (4–12). Various workers have tried to influence the selectivity and activity of supported rhodium catalysts in syngas conversion via a special preparation (4–6), via additives (7–9), and via control of the oxidation state of the rhodium in the catalysts (10–12). In those cases where the influence of additives or mixed oxides worked in the right direction of enhanced oxygenate production, some workers traced this to the presence of rhodium ions on the surface of the catalysts (12, 13). The supposed presence of rhodium ions has been a point of discussion for quite some time. Several authors claimed that it was present in monometallic rhodium catalysts. Worley et al. investigated among others a 0.5-wt% Rh/Al$_2$O$_3$ catalyst via infrared spectroscopy of adsorbed CO (14–16), and ascribed several infrared bands to CO molecules bound to isolated Rh(I) sites. This is in contrast with earlier findings by Yates et al. (18), who investigated some Rh/Al$_2$O$_3$ catalysts with electron microscopy and found rhodium to be present as metallic rafts.

In all cases it seems obvious that the support plays an important role in either bringing or keeping the metal in a certain state of (un)reactivity. A special example of such an interaction between metal and support has been described by Tauster et al. (19, 20) and is now known as strong metal–support interaction (SMSI). Supported noble and transition metals such as Pt, Rh, and Ru are normally capable of chemisorbing among others H$_2$ and CO. However, if they are supported on oxides such as TiO$_2$, V$_2$O$_3$, and Nb$_2$O$_5$, and if they have been reduced at high temperatures (e.g., 773 K), this che-
misorption capability is greatly diminished. This SMSI phenomenon has been related to the occurrence of lower oxides of the supports (21), although these are known to be formed at higher temperatures than necessary to cause SMSI (22) and the exact nature of the interaction still remains unclear. The SMSI state can be destroyed according to Tauster et al. by oxidation at elevated temperatures, followed by low-temperature reduction (473 K): this procedure restores normal chemisorption behavior (19).

All of the above-mentioned phenomena have to do with one common property, namely, the oxidation–reduction behavior of supported rhodium catalysts. We therefore decided to study a number of Rh/Al₂O₃ and Rh/TiO₂ catalysts with varying metal loadings (see Experimental). Al₂O₃ was chosen because it is known as a support giving good dispersions and stable catalysts, and TiO₂ was chosen because it is known to exhibit SMSI. We varied the metal loading to create a variation in particle size, to see whether, and if so how, oxidation–reduction and SMSI behavior are influenced by particle size.

Before we describe the experimental techniques we used, we wish to introduce another topic, namely, passivation. It is obvious that reduced catalyst systems cannot simply be removed from the reduction reactor and then be stored in air for later use; we stabilize (passivate) the metal surface by applying a layer of oxygen upon the metal particles in a controlled way (see Experimental). Although a simple low-temperature reduction is sufficient to remove the passivation oxygen again (as will be shown), some authors have given attention to the state of the catalysts after storage in air. One can see this storage as a prolonged passivation, but without the precautions we take to prevent uncontrollable effects upon the first contact between air and the reduced metal catalyst. Thus Burwell et al. used wide-angle X-ray scattering, extended X-ray absorption fine structure (EXAFS), hydrogen chemisorption, and hydrogen–oxygen titration to characterize their supported Pt and Pd catalysts (23–26), and they found them to be oxidized to a great extent after prolonged storage in air.

We show that a good insight into all these matters can be gained with the aid of temperature-programmed reduction and of temperature-programmed oxidation (TPR and TPO), supported by chemisorption measurements. TPR as a characterization technique was introduced by Jenkins, Robertson, and McNicol in 1975 (27, 28) and has been used extensively in recent years. The development has been reviewed by Hurst et al. (29). The technique allows one to obtain (semi)quantitative information about the rate and ease of reduction of all kinds of systems, and once the apparatus has been built the analyses are fast and relatively cheap. We used an apparatus as described by Boer et al. (30), which enabled us to extend the analyses to temperature-programmed oxidation and to gather information about the rate and ease of oxidation as well.

**EXPERIMENTAL**

TiO₂ (anatase, Tioxide Ltd., CLDD 1367, surface area 20 m²/g, pore volume 0.5 cm³/g) and γ-Al₂O₃ (Ketjen, 000-1.5E, surface area 200 m²/g, pore volume 0.6 cm³/g) were impregnated with aqueous solutions of RhCl₃ · xH₂O via the incipient wetness technique to prepare the catalysts. Five Rh/Al₂O₃ catalysts were prepared, with Rh contents of 2.3, 4.6, 8.5, 11.6, and 20.0 wt%, respectively. Six Rh/TiO₂ catalysts were prepared, with Rh contents of 0.3, 0.7, 1.0, 2.0, 3.2, and 8.1 wt%, respectively. In the following the catalysts are denoted as RT (Rh/TiO₂) and RA (Rh/Al₂O₃), followed by the metal loading. After impregnation the catalysts were dried in air at 355, 375, and 395 K for 2 h successively, followed by direct prereduction in flowing H₂ at 773 K for 1 h. Prior to removing the catalysts from the reduction reactor they were passivated at room temperature by replacing the H₂ flow by N₂ and subsequently slowly adding
O$_2$ up to 20%. Then the catalysts were taken out of the reactor and stored for further use.

In our TPR–TPO apparatus a 5% H$_2$ in air or a 5% O$_2$ in He flow can be directed through a microreactor, which is connected to a temperature programmer. H$_2$ or O$_2$ consumption is monitored continuously by means of a thermal conductivity detector (TCD). A typical sequence of experiments is as follows:

—The passivated or oxidized sample is flushed under Ar at 223 K.
—Ar is replaced by the Ar/H$_2$ mixture, causing at least an apparent H$_2$ consumption (first switch peak).
—The sample is heated under Ar/H$_2$ flow at 5 K/min to 873 K.
—After 15 min at 873 K, the sample is cooled at 10 K/min to 223 K.
—The reduced sample is flushed with Ar.
—Ar flow is replaced by the Ar/H$_2$ mixture once more, now causing only an apparent H$_2$ consumption (second switch peak).

An identical sequence is followed during TPO, so the final oxidation temperature in TPO is also 873 K, unless stated otherwise.

The switch-peak procedure deserves some closer attention. The strong signal we call the first switch peak is due mainly to the displacement of Ar by Ar/H$_2$ in the reactor, but in some cases real hydrogen consumption may take place, even at 223 K. Therefore, we repeat the whole procedure after the TPR has been performed: in that case the catalyst has been reduced and cooled down to 223 K, and as a consequence it is covered by hydrogen. Then we replace the Ar/H$_2$ by pure Ar. Subsequently we switch back to Ar/H$_2$. Since we cannot expect any hydrogen consumption from the reduced, hydrogen-covered sample this time, the resulting second switch peak is due solely to the displacement of Ar by Ar/H$_2$. Thus the difference between the first and second switch peaks reveals the real hydrogen consumption at 223 K, if there is any.

The reactions that might take place during TPO and TPR are

$$4\text{Rh} + 3\text{O}_2 \rightarrow 2\text{Rh}_2\text{O}_3$$

$$(\text{O}_2/\text{Rh} = 0.75)$$

$$\text{Rh}_2\text{O}_3 + 3\text{H}_2 \rightarrow 2\text{Rh} + 3\text{H}_2\text{O}$$

$$(\text{H}_2/\text{Rh} = 1.50).$$

The quantities in parentheses are the hydrogen or oxygen consumptions in TPR or TPO expected for reduction of bulk Rh$_2$O$_3$ or formation of Rh$_2$O$_3$ (apart from chemisorption of any kind). In a standard experiment a TPR is done on a passivated catalyst, followed by TPO (on the now reduced catalyst), followed by TPR (on the now oxidized catalyst). To differentiate the temperature-programmed data from the chemisorption data, we have used the symbols H$_2$/Rh and O$_2$/Rh for the former data and the symbols H/Rh and O/Rh for chemisorption data.

Chemisorption measurements were carried out in a conventional glass apparatus after reduction of the passivated catalysts at 773 K in flowing H$_2$ for 1 h, followed by evacuation at 473 K for 1 h. After hydrogen admission at 473 K, desorption isotherms were measured at room temperature. For the RT series, 773 K (high-temperature) reduction will induce SMSI, and so the RT catalysts were also reduced at 523 K (low temperature) to study their normal chemisorption behavior. In measuring the desorption isotherms, desorption became noticeable only at pressures below 200 Torr (1 Torr = 133.3 N/m$^2$), so we believe that the chemisorption value above that pressure is representative of monolayer coverage (cf. Crucq et al. (31)).

Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) was carried out on a Jeol 200 CX top-entry stage microscope. Photographs were taken at a magnification of 430,000 and then enlarged further photographically to a final magnification of 1,290,000. TEM measurements were made on samples pre-oxidized at 900 K. This temperature was chosen because, as TPO measurements show, for some samples this temperature is necessary to cause total oxidation. We chose to examine oxidized samples in
TEM, since passivated samples may contain rhodium in several oxidation states and this may lead to difficulties (e.g., in electron diffraction). Samples were prepared by applying a slurry of the catalyst in alcohol onto a carbon-coated copper grid and evaporating off the alcohol. Metal loadings were established for the passivated samples spectrophotometrically.

RESULTS

Hydrogen Chemisorption

The hydrogen chemisorption data for the RA series (Rh/Al₂O₃) are represented graphically in Fig. 1, while the data for the RT series (Rh/TiO₂) are presented in Fig. 2. For Rh/Al₂O₃ the H/Rh value drops below 1.0 somewhere around 5 wt% loading, but H/Rh is still above 0.5 at 20 wt% (whose catalyst had to be prepared via two successive impregnation and drying steps). For Rh/TiO₂ reduced at 523 K, H/Rh decreases much faster with increasing metal loading and drops below 1.0 before the metal loading reaches 0.5 wt%. We need to keep in mind the 10 times larger surface area of the alumina, but it is obvious that anatase is less capable of stabilizing small rhodium particles than is alumina. For Rh/TiO₂ reduced at 773 K, some hydrogen chemisorption is still measurable at high metal loadings, but the measured values are of the order of magnitude of the experimental error.

The attentive reader will have noticed by now that the catalysts must have already been in the SMSI state after the prereduction at 773 K. The fact that they do show normal chemisorption behavior after 523 K reduction implies that passivation and storage in air have nullified the SMSI.

The reduction–oxidation behaviors of a selected number of these catalysts, RA 2.3, RA 4.6, and RA 20.0, and RT 0.3, RT 1.0, RT 3.2, and RT 8.1, are presented below.

TPR/TPO of the Rh/Al₂O₃ Catalysts

The temperature-programmed reduction profile of a passivated RA catalyst is shown in Fig. 3. The horizontal axis shows the
temperature, the vertical axis the hydrogen consumption in arbitrary units. All three passivated catalysts show the same profile, with a hydrogen consumption maximum below 300 K, followed by a slight desorption. Hydrogen consumption decreases from 1.33 H₂/Rh for RA 2.3 (which is almost enough to account for the reduction of stoichiometric Rh₂O₃), to 0.49 H₂/Rh for RA 20.0 (average oxidation state of the rhodium in this case was +1).

The subsequent TPO profiles show more difference. For all three catalysts (see Figs. 4a–c), oxygen consumption starts at 223 K, that is, in the switch peak. For RA 2.3 the oxygen consumption rises at the beginning of the temperature ramp, reaches a maximum at 300 K, and falls slowly toward higher temperatures. Total oxygen consumption mounts up to 0.65 O₂/Rh. The behavior of RA 20.0 (Fig. 4c) is quite different. After some oxygen consumption in the switch peak, oxygen consumption keeps a low level for several hundred degrees of temperature rise and reaches a maximum at 628 K. O₂/Rh is 0.70. The behavior of RA 4.6 was intermediate (Fig. 4b). Integration of the oxygen consumption signal proved difficult because of the small thermal conductivity of O₂ and due to the small sample sizes (typically 50–75 μmole of metal).

The TPR profiles of all oxidized RA catalysts are similar and the profile of the RA 20.0 catalyst is shown in Fig. 5. The profile consists of one sharp and well-defined peak at about 340 K, with an H₂/Rh value ranging from 1.3 (RA 20.0) to 1.6 (RA 2.3). In all three cases we have the reduction of supported Rh₂O₃. Unsupported Rh₂O₃ in our apparatus showed a reduction peak at 400 K, while bulk rhodium metal only started to become bulk-oxidized above 870 K.

**TPR/TPO of the Rh/TiO₂ Catalysts**

Figure 6 shows the TPR profiles of the passivated catalysts RT 0.3, RT 1.0, RT 3.2, and RT 8.1. With increasing metal loading, in other words, decreasing H/Rh values, we see how the reduction peak disappears into the switch peak at 223 K. For RT 0.3 the reduction peak is still completely separated from the switch peak, with a maximum at 273 K and an H₂/Rh of 0.56, while for RT 8.1 the reduction peak has merged with the switch peak and the hydrogen consumption has dropped to H₂/Rh = 0.25. We believe that the explanation for this lies in the fact that with decreasing H/Rh (and for RT 1.0 the H/Rh ratio is not more than 0.41, lower than for RA 20.0) the metal particles keep a metallic core upon passivation. Hydrogen molecules can diffuse through the outer passivated layer of the particle, reach the metallic core, and
dissociate there to provide atomic hydrogen for an easy reduction of the oxide layer at low temperature.

We find support for this idea in Fig. 7, showing the TPO profiles of the respective catalysts. All catalysts show some oxygen consumption as soon as the temperature ramp has been started. The two low-loaded catalysts, RT 0.3 and RT 1.0 (7a and b) have an early consumption maximum around 300 K, like RA 2.3, but also show distinct consumption around 570 K, while RA 20.0 had a maximum around 620 K. In Fig. 7c, RT 3.2, we can distinguish three areas of oxygen consumption apart from the switch peak, namely, around 350, 600, and a new maximum at 770 K. This consumption at 770 K is dominant in Fig. 7d, the TPO of the reduced RT 8.1 catalyst. At first glance we can attribute the low-temperature oxygen consumption to chemisorption and the high-temperature oxygen consumption to thorough oxidation, but we come back to this in the Discussion. In any case, it is this last observation, the high temperature needed for thorough oxidation, that confirms the presence of a metallic core in larger particles after passivation. $O_2/Rh$ is about 0.7 for all RT catalysts.

In Fig. 8, the TPR profiles of the oxidized catalysts are presented, and a very interesting phenomenon shows up here. RT 0.3 and RT 1.0 show only one clear consumption maximum, 330–340 K, $H_2/Rh = 1.20$, like the RA catalysts (Fig. 5). However, RT 3.2 and RT 8.1 have a second consumption maximum at 385–400 K, about the temperature where unsupported bulk Rh$_2$O$_3$ reduces. Taking both peaks together, $H_2/Rh$ is about 1.70 for RT 3.2 and 1.41 for RT 8.1, so without any doubt both peaks can be ascribed to the reduction of Rh$_2$O$_3$. To be more specific, the low-temperature TPR peak must belong to well-dispersed, ill-defined Rh$_2$O$_3$, which is also easily formed, while the high-temperature TPR peak belongs to the reduction of bulklike, crystalline Rh$_2$O$_3$, which can only be formed by the high-temperature oxidation. This was proven earlier (32) by halting a TPO experi-

![Fig. 6. TPR of passivated Rh/TiO$_2$: (a) 0.3, (b) 1.0, (c) 3.2, and (d) 8.1 wt%.

![Fig. 7. TPO of reduced Rh/TiO$_2$: (a) 0.3, (b) 1.0, (c) 3.2, and (d) 8.1 wt%.]
We examined this catalyst, RT 1.0 (wet), and the comparable RT 1.0 (Figs. 8b and 7b) catalyst with TEM. Samples were prepared by applying a slurry of the catalysts (oxidized at 900 K) in absolute alcohol on a carbon-coated grid and evaporating the alcohol. TEM micrographs are shown in Figs. 10a–c. Figure 10a shows the bare support, anatase, as received from the manufacturer. It is clearly visible that the TiO$_2$ particles (with diameters of about 500 Å) are covered with very tiny seed crystals of TiO$_2$, which apparently, due to the poor sintering capacities of these kinds of oxides, did not have the chance to grow into larger particles. In Fig. 10b (RT 1.0) we find them back as conglomerates (clustered together in the impregnation and drying steps of the preparation) like the one indicated by arrow A. The other particles on the TiO$_2$ surface show the uniform density and smooth outline characteristic of heavy metal oxide particles, with diameters rang-
Fig. 10. (a) Transmission electron micrograph of anatase TiO₂; (b) transmission electron micrograph of 1.0 wt% Rh₂O₃/TiO₂ (H/Rh = 0.41); and (c) transmission electron micrograph of 1.0 wt% Rh₂O₃/TiO₂ (H/Rh = 0.2).

Discussion

Hydrogen chemisorption has been used through the years by many workers to characterize metal surfaces (6, 11, 13, 17, 19, 23–26, 33, 34), and when attempts were made to calculate metal surface areas from hydrogen chemisorption data, a hydrogen metal stoichiometry of 1 was always used. On the other hand, if CO was involved, some authors (35) chose a stoichiometry of 1, while others (18) preferred higher stoichiometries. From Figs. 1 and 2, however,
it becomes clear that H/Rh values also can exceed unity. For Rh/TiO₂ this occurs for metal loadings below 0.5%, and for Rh/Al₂O₃ even for metal loadings up to 5%. Although in this study only two catalysts with an H/Rh value above unity were investigated, we have reported about other ultra-dispersed systems elsewhere (32, 36). In our opinion, if one accepts that a metal atom such as rhodium can adsorb two or more CO molecules, one should not reject the idea of that same atom adsorbing more than one hydrogen atom. Thus we also think that in those cases where H/Rh exceeds unity, the hydrogen chemisorbed does not exceed a monolayer (cf. Crucq et al. (31)) and is all bound to the metal. A consequence of this is the impossibility to calculate a particle size from chemisorption data for highly dispersed systems, since there is no way of calculating the number of rhodium surface atoms. For larger, well-defined particles such as those found in RT 1.0 (wet), with an H/Rh of 0.2, the calculated particle size is 60 Å, which is in good accordance with our TEM measurements (Fig. 10c).

The H/Rh values measured for Rh/TiO₂ after reduction at 773 K (Fig. 2), that is, with rhodium in the SMSI state, seem to
show a tendency to increase with metal loading, but the values measured are still sufficiently small that we do not want to draw any conclusions without further study.

From TPR/TPO measurements the following model can be proposed. Rhodium on a support can occur in either a dispersed form or in a bulklike form. The dispersed form is easy to reduce to the metal, giving a reduction peak in TPR around 340 K. It is also easily oxidized, which manifests itself in TPOs such as Figs. 4a and 7a and b, and in the fact that upon passivation the oxidation state of the Rh can almost reach +3 (cf. $H_2/Rh = 1.33$). That reaction with oxygen is vehement, even at room temperature, shows also in the fact that prolonged passivation breaks SMSI (if not, one would not have seen any hydrogen consumption at all after the low-temperature reduction, since the RT catalysts would still be in the SMSI state induced by the 773 K prereduction). The exact assignment of the three TPO peaks is difficult since the literature does not provide much material about the mechanism of oxidation of supported metal catalysts. However, theory, dealing with the oxidation of bulk metals, does envisage three separated phenomena as stages in the oxidation process. Rapid chemisorption is known to occur at clean surfaces (37) at low
temperatures. Formation of an oxide film occurs at temperatures typically up to 573–
673 K, following logarithmic rate equations, and leading to an oxide film with a thick-
ness from 20 (38) to 1000 Å (39, 40). Finally, Wagner’s oxidation theory (41) de-
scribes how the oxidation process goes on, rate-controlled by volume diffusion of the
reacting ions and/or of electrons through the growing oxide scale, leading to a para-
bolic rate equation. We can imagine that such models can describe the oxidation
processes in supported metal particles as well, dependent on their sizes.

It is observed that the larger supported
Rh2O3 particles reduce at the same temper-
ature as unsupported Rh2O3 (TPR peak at
400 K), while supported Rh metal particles
oxidize at a much lower temperature (high-
est TPO peak at 770 K) than bulk Rh metal
(TPO profile just shows beginning of oxida-
tion at 870 K). The reason for this differ-
eence in behavior is that during reduction of
a metal oxide, diffusion of H2 is in principle
no problem. Diffusion of H2 through the
product metal phase is reasonably fast and
the metal phase has a lower specific volume
than the reactant metal oxide phase, thus
leaving room for H2 molecules to reach the
interface between metal oxide and metal.
Therefore in reduction the reduction tem-
perature is determined by the rate of nucle-
ation and thus by the temperature at which
a metal oxide can split H2 at a reasonable
rate. On the other hand, in the oxidation of
a metal particle the product metal oxide
layer is more voluminous than the metal
which it replaces, and in many cases a pro-
tective product layer will be formed. Oxida-
tion is then fully determined by diffusion
and in TPO the peak temperature shifts
with particle size. Even for the very highly
dispersed catalyst, for which an EXAFS
study has shown that on the average each
particle only contains 35 atoms (42), the
TPO profile shows a long high-temperature
tail. Apparently also the reconstruction
from a chemisorbed state into a pure metal
oxide state is an activated process (43).

From Figs. 3, 5, 6, and 8 it is clear that no
matter how the rhodium is present on the
support (dispersed or not, oxidized or pas-
sitived) reduction to metallic rhodium is
complete at 450 K (Fig. 8) during TPR.
With the highest TPR peak maximum in
Fig. 8 at about 400 K, it is obvious that Rh
on support catalysts will be fully reduced
when heated for an hour at 400 K under
hydrogen. We cannot conclude from this
evidence alone that bimetallic systems such
as the Rh/Fe system discussed in the Intro-
duction (12, 13) will be metallic at that tem-
perature too. However, in the case of a bi-
metallic system, reduction tends to take
place completely at the temperature where
the easier reducible compound would have
been reduced in a monometallic system
(44).

We can conclude from our measurements
that the systems which Worley et al. have
studied (14–16) must have been fully re-
duced prior to admission of carbon mono-
oxide. They found four major infrared absorp-
tion peaks: 2100 and 2030 cm⁻¹, called
the twin absorption and attributed to a
Rh(I)(CO)₂ compound; 2050–2080 cm⁻¹, at-
tributed to a Rh(O)CO compound; and
1850–1900 cm⁻¹, attributed to bridged car-
bonyl species. Also of interest is that the
twin absorption peaks are attributed to iso-
lated rhodium sites, since the wavenumbers
of these two peaks are independent of CO
coverage, unlike the others. For 2.2-wt%
rhodium catalysts, they found that Al2O3
as a support led to more twin absorption than
TiO₂, and RhCl₃ as a precursor gave more
twin absorption than Rh(NO₃)₃. They con-
cluded that Rh(NO₃)₃ is more easily reduced
than RhCl₃, and better still on TiO₂ than on
Al₂O₃, thus leaving most unreduced rho-
dium in the case of RhCl₃/Al₂O₃, the cata-
lyst with the most intense twin absorption.
We prefer another explanation, since we
know that reduction must have been com-
plete in all cases. Rh/Al₂O₃ gives maximum
twin absorption because it is the best dis-
persed system after reduction. Upon CO
adsorption the very small rhodium particles
are broken up into Rh(I)(CO)₂ species, which give the twin IR absorption. EXAFS proof for this explanation has been published elsewhere (36).

Our findings are in good accordance with the results published by Burwell et al. for Pd and Pt on SiO₂ and Al₂O₃ (23-26). Upon exposure to air larger metal particles form an oxide skin which slows down further oxidation. Logarithmic law-type oxidation is a separate step (Fig. 4c), and thorough (parabolic) oxidation occurs only at 700 K. Apparently diffusion through the oxide layer is strongly hindered.

The finding of two distinguishable phases of rhodium on a support has been reported earlier by Yao and Shelef (45), although they used Al₂O₃ as a support. We did not succeed in creating bulklike rhodium on Al₂O₃ by increasing the metal loading in the way that we did in the case of TiO₂, but by wet reduction of the impregnated catalyst it proved possible to make a catalyst which is oxidized above 700 K and reduced at 390 K.

CONCLUSIONS

Hydrogen chemisorption showed very clearly the difference between Al₂O₃ and TiO₂ as supports for rhodium. On Al₂O₃, H/Rh was above 1.0 up to 5 wt% metal loading and was still above 0.5 for 20.0 wt% loading, while in the case of TiO₂ H/Rh dropped below 1.0 before 0.5 wt% loading was reached. The consequences of this difference in dispersion for the behavior of rhodium in oxidation-reduction clearly showed up in TPR/TPO.

On Al₂O₃, Rh₂O₃ is reduced around 340 K, and Rh is oxidized via chemisorption, starting at 223 K, followed by formation of an oxide skin around 630 K. On TiO₂ part of the rhodium behaved in the same way. The other part was harder to reduce (around 390 K) and to oxidize (around 800 K).

With a catalyst prepared by wet reduction (supposed to be sintered), all of the reduction took place at 400 K, and all of the oxidation even above 850 K. TEM showed that the resulting Rh₂O₃ particles were spherical, about 70 Å in diameter, while in an equally loaded, properly reduced catalyst the Rh₂O₃ particles ranged from 10 to 60 Å and showed no sign of a spherical form.

Hydrogen chemisorption did show a tendency at higher metal loadings to survive high-temperature reduction; that is, part of the rhodium seemed to be unaffected by SMSI, but the chemisorption measured was actually too small to draw conclusions from it at present.

The results demonstrate that with a suitable choice of a limited number of techniques one can obtain a very good insight into the state of a catalyst after impregnation and oxidation-reduction.

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TPR/TPO OF Rh ON Al₂O₃ AND TiO₂