

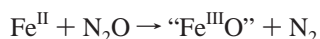
Theoretical Study of the Dissociation of N₂O in a Transition Metal Ion-Catalyzed ReactionAna Martínez,[†] Annick Goursot,^{*,‡} Bernard Coq,[‡] and Gérard Delahay[‡]*Instituto de Investigaciones en Materiales, Circuito Exterior s/n, C. U. Apdo. Postal 70-360, C.P. 04510, México, D.F. México, and Laboratoire de Matériaux Catalytiques et Catalyse en Chimie Organique, UMR 5618 CNRS; ENSCM, 8 rue de l'Ecole Normale, 34296 Montpellier, Cédex 5, France**Received: December 11, 2003*

Models of Fe–zeolites have been used to study the dissociation of N₂O, with and without the presence of ammonia. From Density Functional Theory calculations, the mechanism and energetics of N₂O decomposition paths are presented and discussed. The influence of ammonia is analyzed. The results obtained for a single metal ion and for models including a zeolite cluster are compared. The approximate activation barrier calculated with this cluster model is in good agreement with experiment. The presence of two ammonia ligands reduces the calculated activation barrier, leading to the conclusion that ammonia plays a role in both steps of the N₂O decomposition, i.e., the breaking of the ON₂ bond and the reduction of the iron-oxo compounds.

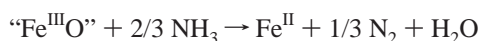
1. Introduction

Nitrous oxide has been identified as an ozone-depleting agent and as a greenhouse gas. At present, the N₂O concentration is rising by 0.25% in the atmosphere, every year, and the main causes for this increase are the anthropogenic activities. N₂O emissions from industrial processes can be the most easily controlled. Off-gases from adipic acid plants contain N₂O in high concentration, which can be either catalytically decomposed, by the highly exothermic reaction¹ N₂O → N₂ + 1/2 O₂ (ΔH° = −39 kcal mol^{−1}), or valorized in the low temperature oxidation of methane and benzene using very efficient Fe–zeolite catalysts, independently discovered in 1988.² It was proposed that N₂O interaction with Fe–ZSM-5 yields a very active surface oxygen, commonly called α-oxygen.³ From both experimental and theoretical studies, this species was proposed to be associated with Fe in binuclear^{4–6} or mononuclear⁷ oxo-cations.

When N₂O is present at very low concentration in tail-gas from nitric acid plants and power plants, the simplest control technology for N₂O removal would also be based on the catalytic decomposition, and Fe–zeolites are among the most active materials in the presence of O₂, although they remain somewhat inefficient. However, a boosting effect on the N₂O decomposition was experimentally identified when adding a hydrocarbon, CO or NH₃, on Fe–ZSM-5, Fe–ferrierite (Fe–FER) and Fe–zeolite beta (Fe–BEA) catalysts.⁸ From experimental results,^{8f} the reduction of N₂O by NH₃ is regulated by the redox cycle Fe^{II} ⇌ Fe^{III}. In the first step, N₂O formally oxidizes Fe^{II} in Fe^{III} with formation of N₂ according to



In the second step, NH₃ removes the adsorbed oxygen leading back to the Fe^{II} species



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Upon the interaction of N₂O with Fe–BEA, different surface oxygens O* would exist associated with one or two Fe atoms, the former being the most reactive oxo-cation species with respect to H₂ or CO.⁹ The role of the reductant in the catalytic decomposition of N₂O is not fully understood: it may facilitate the removal of surface oxygens O*, but also take part directly to the O–N₂ dissociation reaction. Recent theoretical studies have investigated the decomposition of N₂O over Fe–zeolites, without reductant. Yakovlev et al.¹⁰ have used Fe(OH)₃(H₂O)₂ to model the metal site, studying the decomposition mechanism. Another study showed that oxo metal cations could also be possible active sites for N₂O decomposition.¹¹ Very recently, Ryder et al.¹² have analyzed the further steps of N₂O decomposition, starting from the zeolite–FeO compound. However, several aspects of the reaction still remain unclear, particularly the role of the zeolite framework and the effect of NH₃.

To achieve a better understanding of the decomposition of N₂O on Fe–zeolites mediated by ammonia, we have used density functional theory (DFT) calculations to analyze the effect of the zeolite framework in the interaction of N₂O with the Fe(II) extraframework cations and to verify if this interaction is modified by the presence of NH₃. We chose to consider zeolite beta (BEA) as a model, because Fe–BEA was proven very efficient for the N₂O decomposition, helped or not by the presence of NH₃.^{8e,f}

We compare then our results concerning the energetic of N₂O in Fe–BEA with recent experiments obtained in our laboratory, i.e., the adsorption enthalpy of N₂O at 300 K and the apparent activation energy for N₂O decomposition at 500 K. The very good agreement between calculated and experimental values allows us to validate our methodology, in particular, for the reaction in the presence of NH₃, for which it is not experimentally possible to estimate the activation barrier to N₂O decomposition.

2. Models

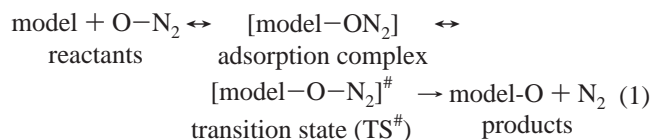
BEA has a widely open three-dimensional channel structure, with 12-membered ring apertures, leading to a full accessibility of the extraframework cations.¹³ Substitution of Si by Al induces a negative charge in the framework, which has to be compensated by the presence of a counterion. The distribution of Al in the framework, generated during the synthesis in the presence

of triethylammonium template, remains unknown, although the Si/Al ratio is controlled. The structure of transition metal ion (TMI) sites is determined by both local and non local criteria. The coordination of TMI to the framework is mainly a local factor. However, the relative positions of other (Al, cation) couples also influence the geometry of TMI sites and are more related to non local effects. To generate a reasonably realistic model cluster, a dozen of periodic solid models were analyzed, after substituting aluminum for silicon atoms, with a Si/Al ratio of 13 and random Al distributions obeying the Löwenstein rule.¹⁴ The structures of these solids were then optimized using a standard force field for zeolites.¹⁵ The Fe cations located in the main channels of BEA were all found to be coordinated to 3(4) oxygens belonging to 4m-, 5m-, and 6m-rings. This coordination to framework oxygens with 4 short, or 3 short and one longer bonds, is in agreement with recent quantum mechanics calculations on various TMI-zeolite systems,^{16–18} and this could be a common local factor between TMI sites in different zeolitic structures. Since all solids with different Al distributions were leading to comparable Fe(II) sites, we have selected one model where Fe(II) was located in the main channel and was compensating the charges of two Al separated by only one Si, allowing to cut a reasonably small cluster. This cluster corresponds to a minimum structure, which is sufficient to reproduce the properties of a TMI-zeolite site, as already shown in a previous work on Cu(II)-zeolite models of various sizes.^{19,20} This cluster, terminated with H atoms, is presented in Figure 1a. The terminal O–H bonds have been set to 0.96 Å. To preserve the original structure of the zeolite, the H atoms have been positioned along the corresponding Si–O bonds. The geometry has then been optimized, keeping the terminal H fixed in order to simulate the constraints of the remaining solid, assumed to be rigid.

3. Methods

Previous and present results show that divalent TMIs in zeolites receive a substantial amount of electron density from the framework.^{17,19} Even if the calculated amount of this charge redistribution depends on the methodology used (exchange-correlation functional, population analysis), the zeolite structure and the nature of the TMI, one can estimate that the formal +2 metal charge is reduced to +0.7–1.3.^{17,19} This led us to compare the reaction of N₂O with the Fe–BEA cluster and with a single Fe⁺ cation. It should be noted that this crude approximation for the iron site also implies the constrain of a fixed Fe configuration ⁶D (d⁶s, Fe⁺), whereas the presence of the zeolite ligand lowers the spherical symmetry of the TMI and allows a fractional occupation of the metal orbitals.

The reaction we have studied can be schematized as



We have compared the energetic of reaction 1 when the catalytic site (model) is represented by the cluster Fe–BEA (Figure 1a) or a single Fe⁺ cation. The presence of NH₃ has then been studied using the cluster Fe–BEA including two NH₃ molecules compared with [Fe(NH₃)₂]⁺. Figures 2–6 illustrate this reaction for the different models, as described in section 4.

3.1. Computational Details. The calculations have been performed within the Linear Combination of Gaussian-Type Orbitals-Density Functional formalism (LCGTO-DF) using the deMon programs^{21,22} and the Gaussian 94²³ code.

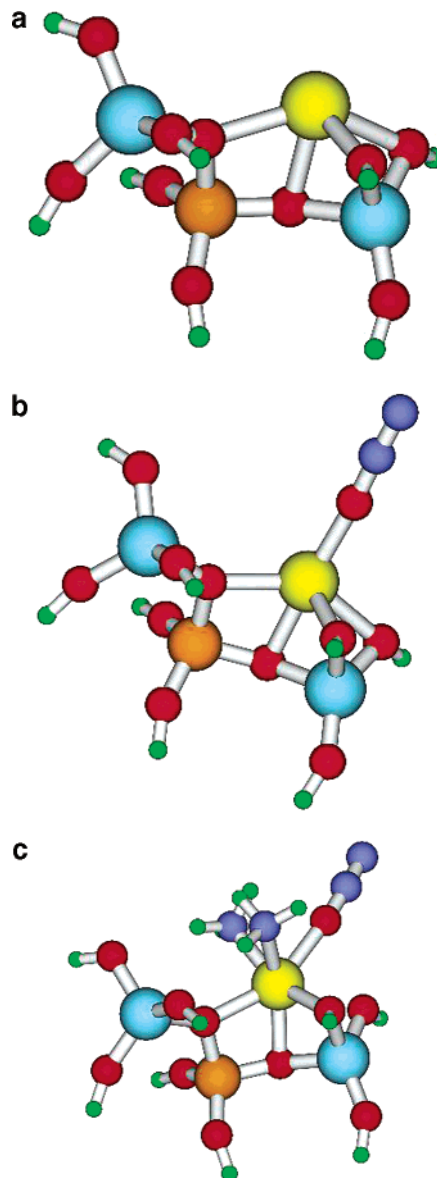


Figure 1. Optimized structures of the clusters representing Fe–BEA (a), N₂O–Fe–BEA (b) and N₂O–Fe–BEA(NH₃)₂ (c); Fe is tetra-coordinated to 4 zeolite-oxygens.

The geometries of the BEA models have been optimized at the nonlocal level of theory using gradient-corrected (GGA) functionals (Perdew and Wang²⁴ functional for exchange and Perdew²⁵ for correlation). The bases used for the BEA cluster were of DZVP quality²⁶ for Si/Al (6321/521/1*), O/N (621/41/1*), and H (41/1), whereas two bases of TZ²⁷ and QZ²⁸ quality were compared for Fe. The auxiliary function sets²⁶ used to fit the charge density and the exchange-correlation potential were (5,5;5,5) for Fe, (5,2;5,2) for O/N, (5,4;5,4) for Si/Al and (5,1;5,1) for H.

For the study of reaction 1 with Fe⁺, the calculations have been performed with the Perdew and Wang²⁴ or the Becke²⁹ functional for exchange, whereas the Perdew²⁵ functional was used for correlation.

It is well-known that a good description of the term energies of TM atoms is very difficult, due to both theoretical and methodological errors. DFT includes a good treatment of electron correlation, but fails in many cases to reproduce degenerate energies for degenerate orbitals and redundancy relations.^{30–33} Moreover, several determinants are often necessary to estimate multiplet energies. However, as indicated by

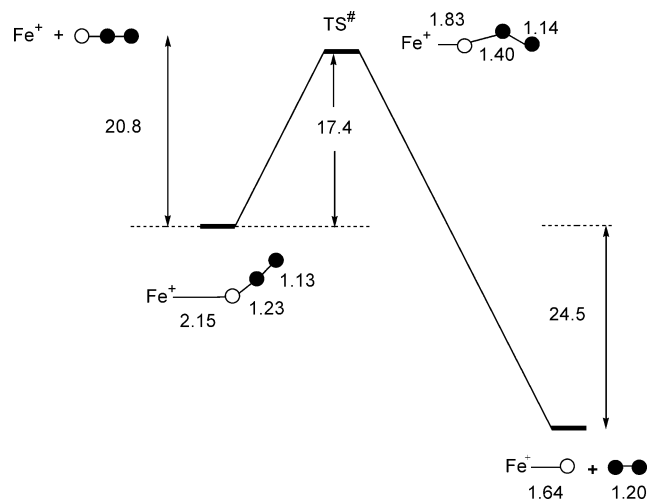


Figure 2. Scheme of the reaction of Fe⁺ with O–N₂, including the calculated transition state TS[#]. (Energy differences ΔU ($T = 0$ K) in kcal mol^{−1}; white and black balls represent oxygen and nitrogen atoms, respectively.)

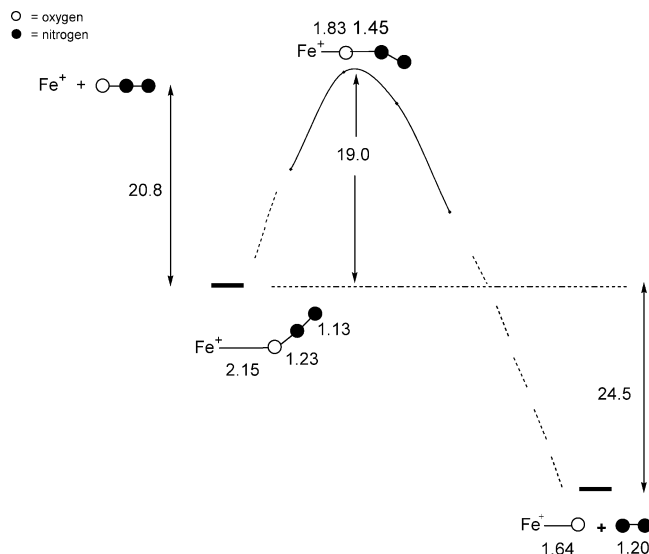


Figure 3. Scheme of the reaction of Fe⁺ with O–N₂, with an approximate reaction path for the O–N₂ dissociation (see text). (Energy differences ΔU ($T = 0$ K) in kcal mol^{−1}; white and black balls represent oxygen and nitrogen atoms, respectively)

the diagonal-sum rule,³⁴ one can always calculate, as a single determinant, the ground-state of a given configuration, using the max M_L and M_S values. This procedure, associated with a good description of the degeneracy of the 3d orbitals,^{31,35} leads to quite reasonable results by comparison with experiment,³⁶ given a good choice of orbital basis sets, which become critical parameters when the relative energies of d^6s^2 and $d^{n+1}s^1$ configurations are concerned. Since we are mainly dealing with an Fe⁺ electron structure in Fe–BEA, the Fe basis must be chosen so as to reproduce correctly the energy difference between the ground-states of the 3d⁶4s¹ (⁶D) and 3d⁷ (⁴F) Fe⁺ configurations, which will be involved in binding adsorbents. Table 1 compares the results obtained for various orbital bases and two exchange-correlation functionals. Whereas Fe presents a severe difficulty for most of the commonly used bases, the values obtained for Fe⁺ remain generally reasonable, especially for the bases (2), (3), and (4).

Basis (3) has been used in the study involving the isolated Fe⁺ cation, associated with 6311-G+²⁷ bases for the other atoms. Basis (4) for Fe, associated with DZVP bases²⁶ for the other

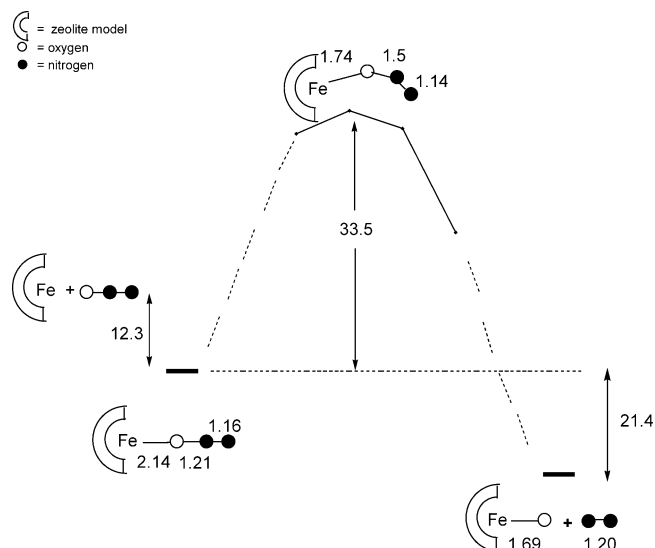


Figure 4. Scheme of the reaction of Fe–BEA with O–N₂, with an approximate reaction path for the O–N₂ dissociation (see text). (Energy differences ΔU ($T = 0$ K) in kcal mol^{−1}; white and black balls represent oxygen and nitrogen atoms, respectively.)

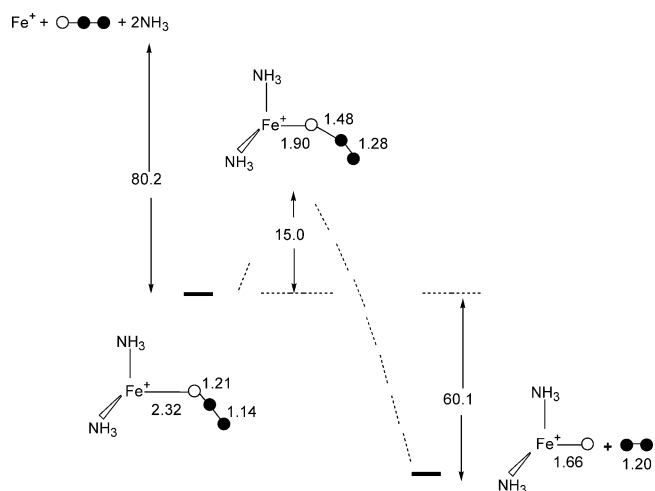


Figure 5. Scheme of the reaction of Fe⁺ with O–N₂ and 2 NH₃, with an approximate reaction path for the O–N₂ dissociation (see text). (Energy differences ΔU ($T = 0$ K) in kcal mol^{−1}; white and black balls represent oxygen and nitrogen atoms, respectively.)

atoms, has been used for the calculations involving the BEA model, as in previous studies on Cu(II)-zeolites.^{16,40}

Models including the single cation Fe⁺ have sextet ground-states, whereas those including BEA–Fe have quintet ground-states.

3.2. Energetic of the Reaction. The electronic energies calculated from DFT have been corrected for the zero point level, assuming the harmonic oscillator approximation. The corresponding differences in standard internal energy ΔU^0 at $T = 0$ K are presented in the Figures.

As proposed by Trout et al.,⁴¹ we have used only the vibrational frequencies of the Fe–adsorbate species in the evaluation of the vibrational contributions to ΔU^0 , assuming that the presence of the adsorbed molecules does not modify significantly the Fe–BEA vibrations. For the gaseous molecules, the translational, rotational, and vibrational contributions have been taken into account.

Standard enthalpy differences are calculated using the expression $\Delta H^0 = \Delta U^0 + \Delta n RT$, all zeolite compounds being assumed to be incompressible and all gases ideal, where Δn

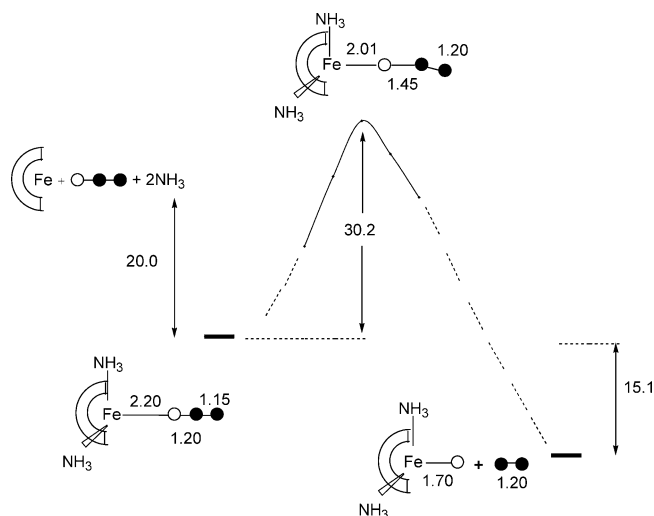


Figure 6. Scheme of the reaction of Fe-BEA with O-N₂ and 2 NH₃, with an approximate reaction path for the O-N₂ dissociation (see text). (Energy differences ΔU ($T = 0$ K) in kcal mol⁻¹; white and black balls represent oxygen and nitrogen atoms, respectively.)

TABLE 1: Energy Difference (eV) between the ⁶D (3d⁶4s¹) (taken as origin) and the ⁴F (3d⁷) States of Fe⁺, Calculated with Different Bases and Functionals and Compared with Experimental Value

basis	Becke ²⁹ –Perdew ²⁵ functionals	Perdew ²⁴ –Perdew ²⁵ functionals
(1) DZ ²⁶	-0.38	-0.12
(2) TZ ²⁶	0.09	0.17
(3) TZ (6311-G ⁺) ²⁷	0.19	0.26
(4) QZ (Wachters) ²⁸	0.19	0.08
(5) TZ ²⁷	0.58	0.70
(6) DZ-ANO ³⁸	0.28	0.47
experimental value ³⁹	0.25	

represents the difference in moles between the products and the reactants in the chosen equilibrated reaction.

The Eyring equation, based on the “transition state” model, or “activated complex” method has been extended to surface reactions and is used in heterogeneous catalysis to estimate reaction rates.^{42–44} Combining the Arrhenius equation with the Eyring equation allows one to evaluate thermodynamic parameters which can be measured experimentally, especially the apparent activation energy E_a of N₂O decomposition (at ca. 500 K), related to the reaction rate of oxidation of Fe^{II}-BEA by N₂O (experimental rate = $k_0 \exp(-E_a/RT)$). The true activation energy (from the adsorption complex to the transition state) encompasses two terms and it is obtained after adding the appropriate heat of adsorption (formation of adsorption complex from the reactants) to the apparent activation energy. However, we will focus essentially on the apparent activation energy, since it is the property which can be measured experimentally.

The “activated complex” method pictures the direct reaction between reactants proceeding through an activated complex, or transition state TS[#], that, later, breaks further into products.

Using the Eyring equation and the formal expression of the apparent activation energy leads to the expression of the rate constant of the equilibrated reaction to the activated complex: $k = k_0 \exp(-E_a/RT)$, with $k_0 = B \cdot \exp(-2) \cdot \exp(\Delta S^\ddagger/RT)$ and $B = k_B T/h$, where k_B , h , R are the Boltzmann, Planck and rare gas constants, respectively, and $T = 500$ K.

The apparent activation energy is calculated using $E_a = \Delta H_a^\ddagger + 2RT$, where ΔH_a^\ddagger is the apparent enthalpy of activation, i.e., the difference between the transition state and reactant enthalpies. ΔH_a^\ddagger is evaluated as $\Delta U_a^\ddagger + RT$, with ΔU_a^\ddagger being the

TABLE 2: Atomic Electron Distribution in the Models without NH₃, Estimated Using the Mulliken Population Analysis and Mayer BO⁴⁷ Values; Fe Spin Density (σ) Is Also Indicated

	Mulliken net charges		Mayer BO	
	Fe (σ)	zeolite framework	ON ₂	O-N ₂
Fe ⁺	+1.0 (5.0) (s ^{1.0} d ⁶)			
[Fe-ON ₂] ⁺	+0.93 (4.80) (s ^{0.66} d ^{6.41})		+0.07	0.13
[Fe-ON ₂] ⁺ (O-N ₂ = 1.39 Å, TS)	+1.05 (4.65) (s ^{0.49} d ^{6.46})		-0.04	0.67
Fe-BEA	+1.05 (3.60) (sp ^{0.28} d ^{6.67})	-1.05		
N ₂ O-Fe-BEA	+1.15 (3.60) (sp ^{0.27} d ^{6.58})	-1.20	+0.04	0.17
N ₂ O-Fe-BEA (O-N ₂ = 1.50 Å, approximate TS)	+1.19 (3.65) (sp ^{0.27} d ^{6.54})	-0.98	-0.21	0.93

difference in internal energies between the activated complex and the reactants at the experimental $T = 500$ K.

The apparent entropy of activation, which is negative because two species associate to form only one, enters into the pre-exponential factor k_0 , i.e., in the kinetics of the decomposition.

4. Results and Discussion

The full path including the transition state search has been performed for [Fe-ON₂]⁺, to validate the search for an approximate O-N₂ dissociation path, which is a reasonably accurate and low-cost way of locating possible intermediates in the reaction. This methodology has been applied with great success in many problems involving the analysis of a complex potential energy surface for different reactions.⁴⁵

4.1. Adsorption of N₂O. The interaction between the zeolite framework model and the Fe(II) cation (Figure 1a) generates a substantial redistribution of electron density, since the calculated Mulliken net charge of Fe is +1.05 instead of +2 (Table 2). In parallel, the Fe spin density (σ) is reduced from 4.0 (isolated Fe²⁺) to 3.6 in BEA-Fe. Charge and spin redistributions have also been reported for a Cu-Y zeolite and the estimated spin delocalization was supported by the comparison between theoretical and experimental hyperfine coupling constants.^{16,20} It is worth noting that, as expected, admixture of the Hartree-Fock exchange in the B3LYP functional leads to weaker metal-ligand interactions and to a larger localization of the spin density on the TMI, as compared to a pure GGA exchange and correlation functional. This result is consistent with the Fe spin density of 3.78 calculated for Fe(II)-ZSM-5, in a recent work based on B3LYP calculations.⁴⁶

Binding N₂O to the BEA model leads to a complex illustrated in Figure 1b. The Fe-O bond is 2.136 Å long, whereas the N-O (1.209 Å) and N-N (1.156 Å) bond lengths are comparable with those calculated for the isolated N₂O molecule (1.211 and 1.154 Å, respectively). The bonded Fe-ON₂ group remains close to linear. If one neglects the role of the framework in the interaction with N₂O, one can say that the [zeolite(-2) Fe(+2)] site behaves as an Fe⁺ cation. This is certainly an oversimplification but it can be helpful in a first step, to reach a better understanding of the role of the BEA framework in the reaction.

Binding N₂O to Fe-BEA does not induce a dramatic change in the electron distribution of Fe-BEA (Table 2). There is a slight loss of iron electronic charge upon ligand addition, to the benefit of the BEA cluster, with no change of the spin density distribution. The TMI configuration remains intermediate

between the 4s¹3d⁶ and 3d⁷ Fe⁺ configurations, which are very close in energy for the isolated cation (Table 1). The presence of the zeolite cluster allows the participation of the 4p orbitals. In fact, the calculated electron distribution of [Fe–ON₂]⁺ shows that the adsorption of one ligand promotes electronic charge from the 4s into the 3d Fe orbitals.

Binding N₂O to Fe⁺ leads to the complex [Fe–ON₂]⁺, 20.8 kcal mole^{−1} more stable than the reactants (Figures 2 and 3). This stabilization is larger than the one calculated in the Fe–BEA cluster, 12.3 kcal mole^{−1} (Figure 4). In both cases, the Fe–ON₂ Mayer bond order (BO),⁴⁷ taken as a measure of the bond strength is weak and the O–NN BO at 1.4–1.5 is decreased with respect to the value of 1.75 obtained in the isolated N₂O molecule. The decreased metal–ligand adsorption energy in the presence of a zeolite cluster with respect to the isolated cation is due to short-range interactions between the metal–ON₂ part and the zeolite model. It has been pointed out for other models of zeolites that the decrease in binding energy is very little sensitive to the size of the model cluster.⁴⁸ The structures of the Fe–ON₂ group in both Fe⁺ (Figure 2) and Fe–BEA (Figure 4) models are very comparable, except the bent structure (⟨Fe–O–N₂⟩ bond angle of 137°, instead of 176° in the Fe–BEA model). This is however not a determinant fact, since the stabilization with respect to a linear structure is less than 1 kcal mole^{−1}.

As illustrated in Figure 2, the transition state (TS[#]) to O–NN dissociation of the simple model [Fe–ON₂]⁺ is 17.4 kcal mol^{−1} higher in energy than the initial complex. This transition state presents a negative frequency at −601 cm^{−1} corresponding to the mode of vibration for the dissociation of the O–N bond. The Fe–O bond length at the transition state (1.83 Å) is shorter than for the stable complex, while the N–O bond distance is much longer (1.40 Å). The complex is no more linear, with a ⟨Fe–O–N⟩ bond angle of 167° and a ⟨O–N–N⟩ bond angle of 144°. The transition state structures of [Fe–ON₂]⁺ and Fe–ON₂ are different, due to the smaller binding energy of ON₂ to Fe in the neutral complex, which involves a longer Fe–O bond (2.08 Å) and a shorter O–N₂ bond (1.26 Å) in this neutral species.⁴⁹

The reaction products are [Fe–O]⁺ and N₂, with a stabilization energy of 24.5 kcal mole^{−1} with respect to the initial complex. Going from the minimum to the transition state, the Fe ion has transferred some charge (0.11 el.) and some spin density to the distorted molecule.

The approximate reaction path search has been performed point by point on the potential energy surface, fixing the N–O bond elongation as the reaction coordinate and relaxing all other coordinates. This procedure will thus overestimate the true activation barrier. To test this procedure, we show in Figure 3 the results obtained for [Fe–ON₂]⁺. Each N–O bond distance fixed corresponds to one point on the curve. This approximate dissociation path is reaching a maximum 19.0 kcal mol^{−1} higher in energy than the original complex (Figure 2). The main geometrical differences between this species of maximum energy and the calculated TS[#] are the O–N bond, which is 0.05 Å longer at the maximum and the ⟨Fe O N N⟩ dihedral angle equal to 60° instead of 180°. Assuming that this approximation is quite reasonable, we have adopted a similar search for all other models.

The approximate dissociation path for BEA–Fe–ON₂ is presented in Figure 4. The maximum energy point is 33.5 kcal mol^{−1} higher than the adsorption complex and thus 21.2 kcal mol^{−1} higher than the reactants. The O–N bond is elongated to 1.50 Å and the Fe–O bond is strongly decreased to 1.74 Å.

TABLE 3: Specific Activity in TOF (s^{−1}) and Apparent Activation Energy for the N₂O Dissociation in Two Fe–BEA Catalysts (data adapted from ref 49)

0.40 wt %Fe–BEA		1.9 wt %Fe–BEA	
<i>T</i> /K	TOF /s ^{−1} × 10 ³	<i>T</i> /K	TOF /s ^{−1} × 10 ³
486	0.15	460	0.018
490	0.16	467	0.025
493	0.21	475	0.032
496	0.24	482	0.040
500	0.29	490	0.049
503	0.32	497	0.069
507	0.37	505	0.094
510	0.43	512	0.123
513	0.48	520	0.156
		528	0.20
<i>E_a</i> /kcal mol ^{−1}	21.4		19.7

Moreover, there is a greater modification in the electron charge distribution than in the case of [Fe–ON₂]⁺, with more electronic charge transferred to the ON₂ part, coming essentially from the BEA cluster. This is confirmed by the fact that the Fe spin density remains unchanged ($\sigma = 3.60$)

A common feature between the TS[#] and the points at the maximum of the approximate path is that their structures display shortened Fe–O bonds associated with elongated O–N bonds. This concerted effect is illustrated by the changes in the Mayer BOs, which show an increase of the Fe–O BO value by a factor of about 5, whereas the O–N BO value decreases by a factor of 1.5 or 2 (Table 2). Actually, this concerted metal–O bond strengthening with O–N₂ bond weakening going from the initial complex to the transition state structure is reasonable, leading to short Fe–O bonds in the final product (1.6–1.7 Å). A similar effect has been also shown in previous B3LYP studies of [Fe–ON₂]⁺ (Fe–O shortened by 0.4 Å, O–N₂ lengthened by 0.27 Å)⁵⁰ and ³[Cu–ON₂]⁺ (Cu–O shortened by 0.2 Å, O–N₂ lengthened by 0.1 Å).⁵¹

It is of interest to compare the activation barrier from the reactants, BEA–Fe + N₂O, to the approximate transition state, BEA–Fe–O–N₂, with the apparent activation energy determined experimentally for N₂O dissociation on Fe-based catalyst. This comparison can be made with data derived from the N₂O dissociation, actually the N₂ evolution, performed on two Fe–BEA catalysts composed of cationic Fe species.⁵² Table 3 presents the specific activities (in TOF, number of N₂O molecules dissociated per Fe atom and per second) and the calculated apparent activation energies (TOF = $k_0 \exp(-E_a/RT)$). The experimental values of the apparent activation energy *E_a* are 19.7 and 21.4 kcal mol^{−1}. The apparent activation energy, calculated at 500 K, using the activated complex theory (see section 3.2), leads to a value of *E_a* = 22.9 kcal mol^{−1}, in good agreement with the experimental values.

It is worth noting that such a calculation performed on the basis of reaction 1 modeled with Fe⁺ (Figure 2 or 3), instead of Fe–BEA, leads to an activation energy close to zero, which is in disagreement with experiment.

The enthalpy ΔH° at 300 K for N₂O adsorption:



has been calculated as −13.4 kcal mol^{−1}, whereas the experimental measurement at the same temperature on an Fe–BEA catalyst leads to the value of 13.2 kcal mol^{−1}.⁵³ The adsorption enthalpy for Fe⁺ + N₂O, i.e., −22 kcal mol^{−1}, is much larger as compared to the experimental value found on Fe–BEA.

These results show that the energetic of both N₂O chemisorption and activation is properly described with the model

TABLE 4: Atomic Electron Distribution in the Models with NH₃, Estimated Using the Mulliken Population Analysis and Mayer BO⁴⁷ Values; Fe Spin Density (σ) Is Also Indicated

models	Mulliken net charges				Mayer BO		
	Fe (s)	zeolite framework	ON ₂	(NH ₃) ₂	Fe–ON ₂	O–N ₂	Fe–N
Fe ⁺	+1.0 (5.0) (s ^{1.0} d ⁶)						
[(NH ₃) ₂ Fe–ON ₂] ⁺	+0.70 (4.85) (s ^{0.88} d ^{6.42})		0.00	+0.30	0.08	1.43	0.17
[(NH ₃) ₂ Fe–ON ₂] ⁺ (O–N ₂ = 1.48 Å, approximate TS ⁹)	+0.85 (4.60) (s ^{0.70} d ^{6.45})		–0.13	+0.28	0.70	0.79	0.20 0.20
Fe–BEA	+1.05 (3.60) (sp ^{0.28} d ^{6.67})	–1.05					
N ₂ O–Fe(NH ₃) ₂ –BEA	+1.19 (3.70) (sp ^{0.37} d ^{6.42})	–1.45	–0.03	+0.29	0.12	1.60	0.43 0.26
N ₂ O–Fe(NH ₃) ₂ –BEA (O–N ₂ = 1.45 Å, approximate TS ⁹)	+1.32 (3.65) (sp ^{0.36} d ^{6.30})	–1.37	–0.33	+0.38	0.42	1.04	0.48 0.29

Fe–BEA, whereas it is not if the catalytic site is reduced to a single iron cation.

4.2. Adsorption of N₂O and NH₃. According to experimental results, between two and three NH₃ molecules can be adsorbed per Fe site when gaseous NH₃ is introduced in Fe–BEA catalysts.⁹ To study the influence of NH₃ on the decomposition of N₂O, two NH₃ molecules have thus been added to the previous models [Fe–ON₂]⁺ and Fe–BEA–ON₂ (Figure 1c).

The electronic properties of these compounds are displayed in Table 4, whereas the approximate decomposition paths are presented in Figure 5 for [Fe(NH₃)₂–ON₂]⁺ and in Figure 6 for N₂O–Fe(NH₃)₂–BEA.

Ammonia molecules are electron donating ligands, which essentially transfer their charge to Fe in the [Fe(NH₃)₂–ON₂]⁺ model, leading to the distribution of the positive charge between the metal and the NH₃ molecules, although there is no spin delocalization on the ammonia ligands. The picture of the charge distribution is different in the presence of the BEA cluster. Indeed, as already reported for other TMI-zeolite models, the electronic charge from the NH₃ molecules is mainly transferred to the zeolite cluster.⁵⁴

The formation energies, from the constituents, of the two initial complexes including 2 NH₃ ligands (Figures 5,6) are much larger than those without NH₃ (Figures 3,4), especially for [Fe(NH₃)₂–ON₂]⁺. However, this is mainly due to the strong binding of NH₃ with Fe⁺, and Fe–BEA to a lesser extent. Indeed, if the formation energy of [Fe(NH₃)₂–ON₂]⁺ from Fe⁺, 2NH₃ and N₂O amounts to more than 80 kcal mol^{–1}, the binding energy of N₂O to [Fe(NH₃)₂]⁺ is only 5.4 kcal mol^{–1}. Such a weak interaction explains the quite long Fe–ON₂ bond (2.32 Å) found for this complex.

In the same line, the stabilization of the products with respect to the initial complexes is also larger than for the associated compounds without ammonia.

The search for a maximum of the approximate decomposition path, related to the O–N bond elongation, leads to a species 15.0 kcal mol^{–1} higher in energy than the minimum [Fe(NH₃)₂–ON₂]⁺ structure, and 30.2 kcal mol^{–1} higher than the stable N₂O–Fe(NH₃)₂–BEA model.

The O–N bond lengths corresponding to the species at the maximum of the decomposition paths (Figures 5,6) are within 1.45–1.50 Å, whereas the Fe–O bond distances are decreased with respect to the initial complexes. The related Fe–ON₂ and O–N₂ BOs follow the same trends as previously mentioned for the models without NH₃, i.e., substantial increase and decrease, respectively. Finally, it is worth noting that these species include ON₂ groups which contain more electronic charge than their counterparts without NH₃, this charge origi-

nating essentially from Fe in [Fe(NH₃)₂–ON₂]⁺, whereas all constituents, i.e., BEA, Fe and NH₃ participate in this donation in the case of N₂O–Fe(NH₃)₂–BEA.

Despite the lack of experimental data concerning the activation energy for N₂O dissociation in the presence of ammonia, it is of interest to evaluate the activation barrier from the reactants, BEA–Fe + N₂O + 2NH₃, to the approximate transition state, BEA–Fe(NH₃)₂–O–N₂. The calculated value of E_a at 500 K, using the activated complex theory, is 15.3 kcal mol^{–1}, i.e., 30% lower than without ammonia, showing that, already in the first step of Fe^{II} oxidation by N₂O, the presence of ammonia is energetically beneficial.

Again, modeling the Fe–zeolite with a single iron cation leads to a wrong description of the catalytic process, since there is no calculated activation barrier.

4.3. N₂O Dissociation. As shown from the results presented above, the dissociation mechanism involves both the O–N₂ bond elongation and the Fe–ON₂ bond shrinking. These two effects are clearly correlated. A substantial elongation (0.2–0.3 Å) of the O–N bond, even in the isolated N₂O molecule, stabilizes strongly the virtual antibonding σ (σ^*) orbital and decreases the HOMO–LUMO gap (by 1.3 eV for 0.2 Å elongation in N₂O). As expected, this elongation corresponds to a decrease of the Mayer BO (1.7 to 0.7 for 0.2 Å elongation).

The same effect occurs for the species determined at the maximum of the energy paths. These structures contain more electronic charge localized in the ON₂ group than without O–N elongation, favoring contributions of the antibonding O–N orbitals to the occupied molecular orbitals of the complex and weakening thus the O–N bond.

The O–N₂ bond, approximately a double bond, costs energy to elongate. This energy cost is partially compensated by the reinforcement of the Fe–ON₂ bond. The balance between these two effects gives the measure of the activation barrier. Its value depends thus, primarily, on the aptitude of the Fe⁺ cation, and also of its environment, to compensate partly the loss of energy due to the O–N₂ bond stretching. For all models, one can say that, when the O–N₂ bond is elongated further than 1.45–1.50 Å, the energy gained by the Fe–O bond strengthening is larger than the energy loss and the reaction leads to the final products where the Fe–O bond is shortened to 1.65–1.70 Å.

The basic mechanism of N₂O dissociation is similar for an isolated Fe⁺ cation and a neutral model of Fe(II)-zeolite. However, for a valid quantitative description of the chemisorption energies and activation barriers, it is quite necessary to include the zeolite framework in the model.

5. Conclusions

This study allows us to draw two main conclusions, the first more theoretical and the second more mechanistic.

The results obtained with Fe⁺ or Fe(NH₃)₂⁺ are not comparable with those obtained using Fe–BEA and Fe–BEA(NH₃)₂. The energetic is different: both original complex and products (in eq 1, section 3) are less stable when the BEA cluster is involved and the activation barrier is significantly higher, in good agreement with the experimental data. Moreover, the electron distribution in the complexes containing N₂O and both N₂O and NH₃ is different for Fe⁺ and Fe–BEA. These differences show the decisive role played by the zeolite, able to take or release charge when ligands adsorb or desorb. This aptitude to regulate the charge distribution is certainly a decisive asset for catalysis by TMI-zeolites.

The role of NH₃ in the selective catalytic reduction is not restricted to the reduction step, as proposed generally, the presence of one or two ammonia molecules allows to reduce the activation barrier to N₂O dissociation on Fe^{II}. The calculated binding energies of Fe–O in BEA–FeO (93 kcal mol^{−1}) and BEA–Fe(NH₃)₂O (68 kcal mol^{−1}) show that the presence of adsorbed NH₃ makes also the abstraction of the oxygen easier. According to our results, the presence of ammonia is thus efficient in both steps of SCR, favoring energetically both the dissociation of N₂O, to yield “Fe^{III}O”, and the removal of the so-called α-oxygen, leading back to the Fe(II) species.

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