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### 1. Introduction

Nitrogen oxides ( $NO_x$ ), including NO and  $NO_2$ , are primarily emitted from mobile and stationary sources such as vehicles and industries.  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  have raised public concerns due to their detrimental effects on both human health and ecosystems.<sup>1-3</sup> For example,  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  can interact with other air pollutants such as volatile organic compounds (VOCs) under sunlight, leading to

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# Regulating  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  adsorption at ambient temperature by manipulating copper species as binding sites in copper-modified SSZ-13 zeolites†

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Atmospheric  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  pollution poses significant risks to human health and the environment even at low concentrations, necessitating the development of efficient technologies for its removal under ambient conditions. In this study copper (Cu)-modified SSZ-13 zeolites (referred to as  $Cu^{n+}SSZ-13$  where n represents the valence state of Cu) were developed for  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  removal by adsorption.  $Cu<sup>n+</sup>SSZ-13$  zeolites containing Cu species with different valence states and proportions were prepared by reducing a  $Cu^{2+}$ exchanged SSZ-13 zeolite (Cu<sup>2+</sup>SSZ-13) using H<sub>2</sub> at different temperatures. The Cu<sup>n+</sup>SSZ-13 reduced at 190 °C showed the highest NO<sub>2</sub> removal capacity (1.79 mmol g<sup>−1</sup>), outperforming pristine SSZ-13 and  $Cu<sup>2+</sup>SSZ-13$  by 52.3% and 19.4%, respectively. The improvement was due to the increased amount of adsorption sites (Cu<sup>+</sup> and H<sup>+</sup>) and the stronger affinity of Cu<sup>+</sup> than Cu<sup>2+</sup> for NO<sub>2</sub>, as confirmed by density functional theory (DFT) calculations. The generation of  $Cu<sup>0</sup>$  nanoparticles and moisture in zeolites during reduction was undesirable for  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  adsorption. However, this could be eliminated by lowering the reduction temperature and performing thermal activation, respectively. This work provides systematic methods for designing zeolite adsorbents for ambient  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  removal and offers insights into the burgeoning field of air pollution control. PAPER<br> **EXERCTION SECTION CONSULTING NO<sub>2</sub> adsorption at ambient temperature<br>
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the formation of secondary pollutants such as smog and highly irritating gases.<sup>4-6</sup> Meanwhile,  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  themselves, as toxic components, can directly affect human health by decreasing lung function and causing respiratory symptoms, even at low concentrations.<sup>7</sup> As  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  is more active and around 30 times more toxic than  $NO<sub>2</sub>$ <sup>8</sup> NO<sub>2</sub> is categorized as a criteria pollutant representing  $NO_x$ . Thus, atmospheric  $NO_2$  pollution and its control have attracted increased attention in recent decades, particularly in densely populated urban areas. For example, the concentration of roadside  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  in Hong Kong remains at a harmful level  $(80 \text{ µg m}^{-3})$ ,<sup>9</sup> which is twice the World Health Organization (WHO) standard (40 µg m<sup>-3</sup>).<sup>10</sup> The complex and congested nature of Hong Kong makes it challenging to dilute the roadside  $NO<sub>2</sub>$ . Therefore, efforts to abate atmospheric  $NO<sub>2</sub>$ should focus on both reducing  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  emissions in exhaust gases and removing  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  from the ambient air.

 $De-NO<sub>x</sub>$  technologies, such as selective catalytic reduction (SCR) and selective non-catalytic reduction (SNCR), have been extensively developed and implemented, delivering high efficiency in  $NO_x$  removal (99%).<sup>11-13</sup> However, the operating temperature window (300–1100 °C) of these technologies makes their application prohibitive in low-temperature NO<sub>x</sub> (e.g., atmospheric  $NO_x$ ) abatement. Moreover, the generation of  $NH_3$ (as a reductant) by decomposing urea solution at low temperatures (<180  $\degree$ C) poses a significant challenge for the SCR

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process.<sup>14</sup> In addition, stricter regulations have increased the urgency for low-temperature  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  emission control. Adsorption is considered an alternative approach for  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  removal at low temperature. However, most adsorbents have only been evaluated for NO<sub>x</sub> adsorption at temperatures above 80  $\,^{\circ}\text{C},^{15-17}$ omitting  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  adsorption under ambient conditions. Thus, this study aims to develop effective  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  adsorbents, with high  $NO<sub>2</sub>$ adsorption capacity and selectivity, for atmospheric  $NO<sub>2</sub>$ abatement at ambient temperature.

Adsorbents that exhibit a specific affinity for  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  with moderate strength can afford high  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  selectivity and capacity, making them desirable for  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  adsorption. Given the presence of  $\pi$  bonds in the NO<sub>2</sub> molecule, materials containing transition metal species are promising candidates for NO<sub>2</sub> adsorption due to their unique interaction ( $\pi$ -complexation) with NO<sub>2</sub>, which enables  $\pi$ -backdonation from a d orbital metal center to the  $\pi^*$ orbitals of the  $\pi$ -structured molecules.<sup>18</sup> This interaction, with moderate strength, bridges the gap between physisorption and chemisorption, enabling the  $\pi$ -complexation adsorbents to exhibit both high selectivity and good reversibility.<sup>19</sup> Copper (Cu), an affordable and abundant transition metal that has been extensively studied and used in high-temperature  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  SCR, has emerged as a promising candidate for  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  adsorption.<sup>20-24</sup> For instance, Cu-containing carbon showed a high  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  removal capacity at room temperature, while the low thermal stability of carbon materials causes them to burn readily during regeneration at high temperatures.<sup>20</sup> Cu nanoparticle (NP) loaded silica (KCC-1) has been reported to be an effective  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  adsorbent, with the highly dispersed Cu NPs serving as effective adsorption sites for  $NO<sub>2</sub>$ .<sup>25</sup> However,  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  adsorption and dissociation on  $Cu<sup>2+</sup>$  and  $Cu<sup>+</sup>$  have not been studied. Cu-based metal–organic frameworks (MOFs) showed enhanced  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  adsorption due to increased porosity and the reactive adsorption of  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  on Cu.<sup>24</sup> However, the high cost and low thermal/hydrothermal stability of MOFs limit their applications in real-word gas adsorption processes. **Journal of Materials Chemistry Articles**<br>
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Small-pore zeolites, characterized by their three-dimensional porous structures, high thermal stability, and large surface areas, have extensive applications in gas adsorption and separation.<sup>26</sup> Zeolites can also serve as unique ligands that tune the  $\pi$ -complexation between NO<sub>2</sub> and Cu.<sup>27</sup> Sierraalta et al. have demonstrated that Cu species-containing zeolites showed a stronger affinity for  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  molecules than those containing other transition metals (Ag and Au).<sup>28</sup> Onitsuka et al. reported that zeolites infused with Cu salts showed enhanced performance in adsorbing  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  at a low concentration of about 5 ppm.<sup>29</sup> Note that extra-framework cations in zeolites are the dominant adsorption sites, whose properties dictate gas adsorption performance.<sup>30</sup> For instance, the valence state of these cations can affect  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  adsorption performance, particularly the affinity of the adsorbent for  $NO<sub>2</sub>$ . For specific types of cations, such as Cu, their valence state is directly related to the radius and the occupancy of the valence shell. Compared with  $Cu<sup>2+</sup>, Cu<sup>+</sup>$  and  $Cu<sup>0</sup>$  possess higher valence shell occupancies and fewer constraints (due to the larger radius) on the valence shell electrons, allowing more d-orbital electrons to be back-donated to the  $\pi^*$  orbital of NO<sub>2</sub>. Consequently, the  $\pi$ -complexation

occurring between  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  and Cu ions at lower states (Cu<sup>+</sup> and  $Cu<sup>0</sup>$ ) is anticipated to improve gas-host interaction, leading to a higher affinity for  $NO<sub>2</sub>$ .

Herein, we prepared Cu<sup>n+</sup>SSZ-13 zeolites ( $n = 0, 1$ , and 2) by reducing a Cu<sup>2+</sup>-exchanged SSZ-13 zeolite under a H<sub>2</sub> atmosphere and systematically studied their  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  removal performance and mechanisms. Thanks to the formation of  $Cu<sup>+</sup>$  ions and the increased number of adsorption sites,  $Cu^{n+}SSZ-13$ zeolites showed enhanced  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  uptake and insignificant NO release. This work suggests that the tuning of Cu species as specific binding sites in zeolites could be an effective approach for regulating the affinity of zeolites for  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  adsorption.

### 2. Experimental

#### 2.1 Synthesis

2.1.1 Synthesis of H<sup>+</sup>SSZ-13 (Si/Al = 12). The synthesis of  $H$ <sup>+</sup>SSZ-13 (Si/Al = 12) was conducted following a previously reported method.<sup>31</sup> Specifically, 39.6 g of  $N, N, N$ -trimethyl-1adamantanamine hydroxide (TMAdaOH, 25 wt%, Sachem Inc.) and 19.5 g of tetraethyl orthosilicate (TEOS, sigma 98%) were mixed with 4.05 g of deionized (DI) water. This mixture was stirred for 2 h at room temperature in a sealed polypropylene bottle. Afterwards, 1.05 g of aluminum ethoxide (Strem Chemical, 99%) was added to the mixture and stirred for another 1 h. The gel was then transferred into a 100 mL Teflon-lined autoclave and heated at 140 °C under static conditions for 6 days. After the crystallization, the product was filtered, thoroughly washed with DI water, and then dried at 80 °C overnight. Finally, the product was calcined in an air atmosphere at 550 °C for 8 h with a ramping rate of 2  $\rm ^{\circ}C$  min<sup>-1</sup>.

2.1.2 Synthesis of Cu<sup>2+</sup>SSZ-13. The synthesis of Cu<sup>2+</sup>SSZ-13 involved a liquid-phase ion exchange process, a common approach for incorporating extra-framework cations into zeolites. Typically,  $0.5$  g of the as-synthesized H<sup>+</sup>SSZ-13 was dispersed in 50 mL of 0.5 M NH<sub>4</sub>NO<sub>3</sub> and stirred for 12 h at 80  $^{\circ}$ C, with the process being repeated four times to ensure thorough ion exchange. The resulting NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>SSZ-13 product was filtered, thoroughly washed with DI water, and dried at 80  $\mathrm{^{\circ}C}$ overnight. Then, 0.5 g of the as-synthesized  $NH_4$ <sup>+</sup>SSZ-13 was dispersed in 50 mL of 0.5 M  $Cu(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>$  solution and stirred for 12 h at 80 °C, again being repeated four times. The resulting  $Cu<sup>2+</sup>SSZ-13$  was collected by filtration, washed extensively with DI water, and dried at 353 K overnight.

2.1.3 Synthesis of  $H_2$ -reduced Cu<sup>n+</sup>SSZ-13 samples. A series of Cu<sup>n+</sup>SSZ-13 samples were prepared by reducing Cu<sup>2+</sup>SSZ-13 under a  $H_2$  atmosphere at various temperatures.  $H_2$ -temperature programmed reduction (TPR) was conducted on a Micromeritics ASAP 2950 instrument to identify optimal reduction conditions for the preparation of  $Cu^{n+}SSZ-13$ . The signal of  $H_2$ during the reduction process was detected using a thermal conductivity detector (TCD). Then, 0.1 g of  $Cu^{2+}SSZ-13$  was placed in a tube furnace and thermally treated under argon at 350 °C (ramping rate =  $2$  °C min<sup>-1</sup>) for 4 h to remove the preadsorbed impurities. After cooling to room temperature, 5%  $H_2$  (balanced with Ar, 20 cc min<sup>-1</sup>) was continuously purged and Cu<sup>2+</sup>SSZ-13 was heated at 100 °C to 700 °C for 3 h (ramping

rate  $=$  2  $^{\rm o}{\rm C}$  min $^{-1}$ ). The resulting products are named Cu $^{n+}$ SSZ-13-reducing temperature-R  $(e.g., Cu^{n+}SSZ-13-100-R)$ .

#### 2.2 Characterization

Synchrotron powder X-ray diffraction (PXRD) was measured using a Mythen-II detector at the PD beamline, Australian Synchrotron, ANSTO. To understand the valence state and the coordination environment of the Cu ions in  $Cu^{n+}SSZ-13$ samples, Cu K-edge X-ray absorption near-edge structure (XANES) and extended X-ray absorption fine structure (EXAFS) spectra were collected at the XAS beamline, Australian Synchrotron, ANSTO. The morphologies of the samples were investigated using a scanning electron microscope (SEM) (EVO MA10, ZEISS, Germany). The specific surface area and pore volume of  $Cu^{n+}$ SSZ-13-190-R before and after NO<sub>2</sub> dynamic column adsorption, as well as fresh  $H<sup>+</sup>$ SSZ-13, were determined using a 3Flex Surface Characterization Analyzer (Micromeritics Instrument Corp., USA) using N<sub>2</sub> at  $-196$  °C. Prior to measurement, the samples were degassed on the 3Flex Surface Characterization Analyzer at 300 °C for 3 h. The chemical composition (e.g., Si/Al and metal/Al ratios) of the samples was determined by Energy dispersive spectroscopy (EDX) using an EDX detector (Oxford Aztec Energy X-MAX 50) installed in a SEM (FEI Quanta 450 FEG). The in situ Fourier Transform Infrared (FTIR) spectra of Cu<sup>n+</sup>SSZ-13-190-R were recorded on an IRAffinity-1 FTIR spectrophotometer (Shimadzu, Japan) at 25 ° C, with an  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  concentration of 1000 ppm and a flow rate of 60 mL min<sup>-1</sup>. Before the measurement, Cu<sup>n+</sup>SSZ-13-190-R was thermally treated in the FTIR cell under a  $N_2$  atmosphere at 200 °C for 8 h to remove the pre-adsorbed gases and moisture. **Paper**<br>
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#### 2.3 Fixed-bed  $NO<sub>2</sub>/NO$  dynamic column adsorption at room temperature

The dynamic column breakthrough (DCB) of  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  was measured using a fixed-bed system (Fig.  $S1\dagger$ ) under ambient conditions (25 °C, 1 bar). The adsorbent  $(0.1 \text{ g})$  was well mixed with nonreactive glass beads (3 mm in diameter) to generate a homogeneous bed, and then packed into a stainless-steel tube. Unless otherwise specified, the samples were degassed at 300 °C under argon before  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  adsorption until the pre-adsorbed moisture was completely removed, as monitored by a Mass Spectrometer (Stanford Research Systems UGA300). Subsequently,  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  or NO (both at 1000 ppm) in helium was purged through the column at a total inlet flow rate of 60 mL min<sup>-1</sup> at 25 °C. The concentrations of  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  and  $NO<sub>1</sub>$  in the outlet gas were measured using an electrochemical sensor (RAE Systems, MultiRAE Plus PGM-50/5P).

#### 2.4 Density functional theory (DFT) calculation

DFT calculations were performed using the QUANTUM ESPRESSO package.<sup>32-35</sup> Ultrasoft pseudopotentials with the Perdew–Burke–Ernzerhof exchange–correlation functional were employed.<sup>36</sup> The plane wave cutoffs were 30 Ry and 240 Ry for wavefunctions and the augmented charge density, respectively. The semiempirical Grimme's DFT-D3 scheme was used for van der Waals interaction correction.<sup>37</sup> The SSZ-13 zeolite has a 1  $\times$ 

1  $\times$  1 supercell with a total trigonal P supercell size of 13.675 Å  $\times$  13.675 Å  $\times$  14.767 Å. Three Si atoms were replaced with Al atoms. To maintain the charge balance, hydrogen atoms were added near the Al atoms according to the charge of the inserted transition metal ions. The 6-membered ring (6MR) has been identified as the most favorable location for the extraframework cations.<sup>38</sup> Thus, we examined the local structures of the Cu ions in the 6MR, with 2 Si atoms being replaced by 2 Al atoms.

### 3. Results and discussion

#### 3.1 Characterization of adsorbents

 $Cu<sup>2+</sup>SSZ-13$  was prepared from H<sup>+</sup>SSZ-13 by an ion-exchange method, where  $Cu^{2+}$  substituted the extra-framework H<sup>+</sup> cations (Fig. 1a). The synchrotron PXRD patterns of  $Cu^{2+}SSZ-13$ indicated the high purity and crystallinity characteristic of chabazite (CHA)-type SSZ-13 zeolite (Fig. 1b). As displayed in the SEM image (Fig. 1c),  $Cu^{2+}$ SSZ-13 particles possess an elliptical shape and smooth exterior surfaces. Cu<sup>n+</sup>SSZ-13 zeolites were then prepared by reducing  $Cu^{2+}SSZ-13$  under  $H_2$ . Prior to the reduction,  $H_2$ -TPR was conducted to determine the optimal reduction temperature (Fig. 1d). With the temperature increasing, two  $H_2$  consumption peaks appeared at around 200 and 400 °C, which were attributed to the reduction of  $Cu^{2+}$  at various locations within the zeolite.<sup>39</sup> It is noteworthy that  $Cu^{2+}$ ions at different locations within the zeolite require different energy levels to be reduced. For example, the six-membered ring (6MR) in CHA is the most stable site for  $Cu^{2+}$ , demanding more energy for reduction than those situated at an eight-membered ring (8MR).<sup>40,41</sup> To achieve varying levels of  $Cu^{2+}$  reduction in SSZ-13 zeolite, both low ( $\leq$ 250 °C) and high temperature ( $\geq$ 390 °C) ranges were adopted.

Upon high-temperature reduction (390, 490, and 750 °C), the structure of Cu<sup>n+</sup>SSZ-13 samples remained intact, as evidenced by the unchanged PXRD peak locations of  $Cu^{n+}SSZ-13$  and  $Cu^{2+}$ SSZ-13 (Fig. 2a). However, the undesirable formation of  $Cu^{0}$ occurred on the external surface of the zeolite (Fig. 2c). Rietveld refinement of PXRD indicated that the crystallite size of these Cu<sup>0</sup> particles (17, 23, and 25 nm at 390, 490, and 750 °C, respectively) increased with the increasing reduction temperature (Fig. S2†). The X-ray absorption spectroscopy (XAS) results showed that higher reduction temperatures resulted in a shi towards lower energy and a reduction in intensity of the white line peak (Fig. 2b), corresponding to decreases in the valence state and the occupancy of d orbitals of Cu ions.<sup>42</sup> These observations suggest that during the reduction,  $Cu^{2+}$  migrated from the supercage to the external surface of zeolites and aggregated to form metallic Cu particles (Fig. 2c). This mitigation process can be explained by the R-plot EXAFS spectra (Fig. 2b, inset). Two peaks appearing at 1.7 Å and 2.2 Å were ascribed to the Cu–O and Cu–Cu bonds, respectively, arising from the coordination of Cu ions with lattice oxygen atoms in the zeolite (Cu-O) and Cu-Cu bonds in elementary Cu.<sup>43</sup> The intensity of the Cu–O peak decreased while that of the Cu–Cu peak increased upon reduction at higher temperatures, indicating that more  $Cu^{2+}$  migrated from the cage to the external





Fig. 1 (a) Illustration of the local crystal structure of chabazite (CHA) zeolites. SI–SIII' are the possible positions of extra-framework cations; (b) synchrotron powder X-ray diffraction patterns of Cu<sup>2+</sup>SSZ-13 and pristine H<sup>+</sup>SSZ-13 (wavelength = 0.7735 Å); (c) SEM image of Cu<sup>2+</sup>SSZ-13; and (d)  $H_2$ -TPR profile of Cu<sup>2+</sup>SSZ-13.

surface of zeolites to form elementary Cu. This result is consistent with the reduced lattice parameters of  $Cu^{n+}SSZ-13$  at high reduction temperatures (Fig. 2d), which was attributed to the contraction of the zeolite lattice due to negative thermal expansion.<sup>44</sup>

It is acknowledged that the well dispersed extra-framework cations in zeolites serve as the dominant active adsorption sites for gas molecules.<sup>27,45,46</sup> Therefore, the presence of bulk  $Cu<sup>0</sup>$  NPs on the external surface of zeolites should be minimized. Consequently, a further decrease in the reduction temperature was implemented. No characteristic peaks of elementary Cu were observed in the PXRD patterns of  $\mathrm{Cu}^{n+}\mathrm{SSZ-}$ 13 samples reduced at 100, 150, 170 and 190 °C (Fig. 3a), indicating the absence of  $Cu<sup>0</sup>$ . The XAS results showed the changes in  $Cu^{2+}/Cu^{+}$  levels within zeolites (Fig. 3b). The weak absorption peak ranging between 8975 and 8980 eV is the fingerprint of  $Cu^{2+}$ , which is assigned to a dipole-forbidden 1s  $\rightarrow$  3d transition.<sup>47</sup> The characteristic peak of Cu<sup>+</sup> was observed at 8980–8985 eV, corresponding to the 1s  $\rightarrow$  4p transition.<sup>48</sup> As the reduction temperature increased, the  $Cu^{2+}$  peak at 8978 eV diminished, while the Cu<sup>+</sup> peak at 8984 eV gradually increased, suggesting that a higher reduction temperature facilitated the conversion of Cu<sup>2+</sup> to Cu<sup>+</sup>. The edge peak at 8993-8997 eV, known as the 'white line' of  $Cu<sup>2+</sup>$ , indicates a higher oxidation

state when the peak intensity is greater.<sup>48</sup> As the reduction temperature increased, the intensity of the white line decreased, further suggesting a transformation of  $Cu^{2+}$  to  $Cu^{+}$ .

#### 3.2  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  adsorption

The  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  adsorption performance of  $Cu<sup>n+</sup>SSZ-13$  reduced at different temperatures (i.e., 100, 150, 170, and 190 °C) was validated by  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  dynamic adsorption at room temperature (Fig. 4a). Prior to  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  adsorption, the adsorbents were activated at 300 °C under Ar to remove the pre-adsorbed impurities. The  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  adsorption capacity of the Cu<sup>n+</sup>SSZ-13 samples increased with the increasing reduction temperature (Fig. 4b), which is attributed to a higher proportion of  $Cu<sup>+</sup>$  being present at a higher reduction temperature. The linear correlation between the  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  capacity and the reduction temperature encouraged us to tentatively raise the reduction temperature to 250  $\,^{\circ}\text{C}$ , intending to further improve the  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  adsorption capacity. However, the  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  adsorption over  $Cu<sup>n+</sup>$ SSZ-13-250-R was found to be even lower than that of the unreduced sample  $\left(Cu^{2+}SSZ\right)$ 13). This result was caused by the formation of  $Cu<sup>0</sup>$  particles on the external surface of the zeolite (see the SEM image in Fig. S3†), which reduced the number of accessible active adsorption sites for  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  molecules. The highest  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  adsorption



Fig. 2 (a) PXRD patterns (wavelength: 0.8275 Å) and (b) Cu K-edge XAS spectra of Cu<sup>n+</sup>SSZ-13 reduced by H<sub>2</sub> at 390, 490, and 750 °C (inset: Fourier transformed EXAFS modulation with phase correction in the *k*-range of 3.0–12.5 Å<sup>−1</sup>,  $k^2$ -weighted); (c) SEM image of Cu<sup>n+</sup>SSZ-13-390-R; and (d) variation of unit cell parameters (a and c) of Cu<sup>n+</sup>SSZ-13 in relation to the H<sub>2</sub>-reduction temperature.

capacity, achieved by Cu<sup>n+</sup>SSZ-13-190-R, was 1.79 mmol  $g^{-1}$ (Fig. 4b). This capacity demonstrated a significant increase of 19.4% and 52.3% with respect to that of  $Cu^{2+}SSZ-13$  and pristine H+ SSZ-13, respectively, substantially surpassing the performance of the reported metal-modified zeolites (Table S1<sup>†</sup>). The above results clearly show that the  $H_2$  reduction of Cu<sup>2+</sup>SSZ-13 effectively improves the  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  adsorption capacity, which is attributed to the increased affinity of binding sites for  $NO<sub>2</sub>$ .

To assess the impact of  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  adsorption on the specific surface area and pore volume of the Cu-modified zeolite,  $N_2$ adsorption-desorption isotherms were recorded for Cu<sup>n+</sup>SSZ-13-190-R before and after  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  dynamic adsorption (Fig. 4c, d and Table S2†). Post-adsorption, the BET surface area of  $Cu^{n+}$ SSZ-13-190-R remained largely unchanged, while the pore volume slightly increased from 0.34 to 0.40 cm<sup>3</sup> g<sup>-1</sup> which was probably due to the formation of additional interparticle



Fig. 3 (a) PXRD patterns (wavelength of 0.6880 Å) and (b) Cu K-edge XAS of Cu<sup>n+</sup>SSZ-13 reduced by H<sub>2</sub> at 100, 150, 170 and 190 °C.



Fig. 4 (a) NO<sub>2</sub> (1000 ppm) dynamic column adsorption at room temperature on H<sup>+</sup>SSZ-13, Cu<sup>2+</sup>SSZ-13 and Cu<sup>n+</sup>SSZ-13 samples with thermal activation. The hollow ( $\Box$ ) and solid ( $\blacksquare$ ) dots represent the concentration of NO and NO<sub>2</sub>, respectively. (b) The corresponding NO<sub>2</sub> adsorption capacity and NO released amount. (c) N<sub>2</sub> adsorption–desorption isotherms (−196 °C) and (d) pore size distributions of Cu<sup>n+</sup>SSZ-13-190-R before and after  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  (1000 ppm) dynamic column adsorption.

stacking pores. Therefore, the porous structures of Cu<sup>n+</sup>SSZ-13-190-R remained largely unaffected after a cycle of  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  dynamic adsorption. It is anticipated that the lifespan and adsorption capacity of Cu<sup>n+</sup>SSZ-13-190-R can be substantially preserved by regenerating it through a gentle heating process to drive off adsorbed water and  $NO<sub>2</sub>$ . Furthermore, in comparison with H<sup>+</sup>SSZ-13 without Cu modification, which featured micropores with a Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) surface area of 771.69  $m<sup>2</sup>$  $g^{-1}$  and a pore volume of 0.38 cm<sup>3</sup>  $g^{-1}$  (Fig. S4†), Cu<sup>n+</sup>SSZ-13-<br>100 B exhibited a migro meconorous structure with a reduced 190-R exhibited a micro-mesoporous structure with a reduced surface area (557.97  $\mathrm{m^2~g^{-1}}$ ) and pore volume (0.34  $\mathrm{cm^3~g^{-1}}$ ). Despite the larger surface area and pore volume of the unmodified  $H^+$ SSZ-13, the Cu-modified Cu<sup>n+</sup>SSZ-13-190-R demonstrated a higher  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  adsorption capacity. This finding suggests that the incorporation of Cu into the SSZ-13 zeolite significantly enhances the  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  adsorption process, playing a more important role than the surface area and pore volume. Therefore, while surface area and pore volume are important factors in adsorption processes, the unique role of Cu within the SSZ-13 zeolite is the key determinant for the improved  $NO<sub>2</sub>$ removal performance.

To evaluate the effect of moisture on  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  adsorption, experiments were conducted on non-activated Cu<sup>n+</sup>SSZ-13 samples (*i.e.*, without thermal treatment prior to  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  adsorption). Compared with Cu<sup>2+</sup>SSZ-13, the non-activated Cu<sup>n+</sup>SSZ-13 samples showed a decreased  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  capacity and an increased release of NO (Fig. S5†). The decline in capacity was due to the presence of moisture within zeolites generated during the  $H_2$ reduction process (eqn (1)). Such moisture would poison the active adsorption sites (Cu ions) by forming Cu hydrates and blocking sites intended for  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  adsorption, thereby reducing the  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  capacity. FTIR analysis (Fig. S6†) suggested that the moisture could facilitate  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  transformation into  $NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>$  and gaseous NO (eqn  $(2)$ ).<sup>49</sup> After a certain time, the amount of released NO decreased, and the NO release curves stabilized, suggesting the moisture was gradually consumed by  $NO<sub>2</sub>$ . Therefore, the thermal activation process is essential to mitigate the negative effects of moisture on  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  adsorption.

$$
2Cu(OH)^{+} + H_{2} \rightarrow 2Cu^{+} + 2H_{2}O \tag{1}
$$

$$
3NO2 + H2O \rightarrow 2HNO3 + NO(g)
$$
 (2)



Fig. 5 (a) NO (1000 ppm) dynamic adsorption on Cu<sup>n+</sup>SSZ-13 samples at room temperature; and (b) the corresponding NO adsorption capacity.

In addition to improving  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  capacity, moisture removal also contributed to the decrease of NO release, which was evident from the longer NO retention time and the more gradual slopes of NO release curves (Fig. 4a). However, the correlation between the amount of NO released and the reduction temperature was inconsistent, which resulted from the different NO retention abilities of the samples. For example,  $Cu^{n+}$ SSZ-13-100-R showed the highest NO adsorption capacity (Fig. 5), aligning with the lowest amount of NO released (Fig. 4b). The NO adsorption capacity decreased with the increasing reduction temperature from 100 to 190 °C, while it increased when the reduction temperature was further raised to  $250 \text{ °C}$ .

Our Cu<sup>n+</sup>SSZ-13 adsorbent, which exhibits an enhanced capacity for ambient  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  abatement yet sensitivity to moisture, can be effectively used for the reduction of NO<sub>2</sub> emission from the engine pipeline when combined with desiccant materials or condensation systems that remove moisture from the exhaust gas. Additionally, our zeolite can be used in air purifiers or industrial settings to remove  $NO<sub>2</sub>$ , incorporating moisture control mechanisms such as heating elements or moistureabsorbing materials. Given the well-preserved specific surface area and pore volume after  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  adsorption, as evidenced by



Fig. 6 In situ FTIR spectra of Cu<sup>n+</sup>SSZ-13-190-R during NO<sub>2</sub> adsorption, with the background of the fresh sample subtracted (conditions: NO<sub>2</sub> concentration of 1000 ppm, flow rate of 60 mL min<sup>-1</sup>, 25 °C).

porous property analysis, the Cu<sup>n+</sup>SSZ-13-190-R adsorbent is expected to maintain its performance over multiple cycles of adsorption and thermal regeneration, thereby ensuring a long lifespan in the aforementioned practical applications.

#### 3.3 Discussion of the mechanism

To elucidate the mechanism of  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  adsorption on our Cumodified zeolite, in situ FTIR analysis of the Cu<sup>n+</sup>SSZ-13-190-R zeolite during the  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  adsorption process was carried out (Fig. 6). The FTIR spectra revealed the presence of adsorbed  $NO<sub>2</sub>$ at 1690  $\text{cm}^{-1},^\text{50}$  which tended to form an N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> dimer  $(1261 \text{ cm}^{-1})^{51}$  in small-pore zeolites due to the confinement effect.<sup>45</sup> The adsorbed  $N_2O_4$  can undergo ionization in the zeolite to form  $\mathrm{NO_3}^-$  and  $\mathrm{NO}^+$ . $^{52,53}$  As anticipated, the formation of nitrites was observed, including bridging  $\mathrm{NO_3}^- \, \mathrm{(1630 \; cm^{-1})}$ and monodentate  $NO_3^ (1534 \text{ cm}^{-1})$ .<sup>54,55</sup> Meanwhile, the asymmetric band at around 2178  $\rm cm^{-1}$ , corresponding to two  $NO<sup>+</sup>$  stretches at 2214 and 2178  $cm<sup>-1</sup>$ , is indicative of the generation of  $NO<sup>+</sup>$  intermediates,<sup>56</sup> which can serve as an adsorption site for NO<sub>2</sub>.<sup>45</sup> The formation of NO<sup>+</sup>–NO<sub>2</sub> complexes was confirmed by the presence of an N–O stretch at 1741  $cm^{-1}$ accompanied by another NO stretch at 2109  $\mathrm{cm}^{-1},^\mathrm{56}$  as well as a weak band at 1925  $\rm cm^{-1}$  assigned to  $\rm N_2O_3, ^{54}$  a product of  $\rm NO_2$ **Journal of Materials Chemistry A**<br>
pursua property analysis, the Cu<sup>re</sup>Spectral properties are remitted to determine the mediator in the pursuance of the pursual of the mediator of the commons are reminded to the commons

Table 1 The binding energy (kcal mol<sup>-1</sup>) of NO<sub>2</sub> and NO molecules upon adsorption on  $Cu<sup>+</sup>$  and  $Cu<sup>2+</sup>$  in the SSZ-13 zeolite calculated by density functional theory (DFT)

	NO <sub>2</sub>	NO.
$Cu+$	$-20.06$	$-30.31$
$\text{Cu}^{2+}$	$-14.36$	$-30.78$

adsorption on NO<sup>+</sup>.<sup>57</sup> Although a small amount of NO was released during  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  adsorption due to  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  dissociation caused by oxygen vacancies, no distinct FTIR peaks indicative of adsorbed NO were observed. Based on these findings, the mechanism for  $NO_2$  adsorption on the Cu<sup>n+</sup>SSZ-13-190-R zeolite during adsorption was proposed, as shown in eqn (3)–(6).

$$
NO2 + zedite \rightarrow zedite \cdots NO2
$$
 (3)

$$
2NO2 \rightleftharpoons N2O4 \rightleftharpoons NO3- + NO+
$$
 (4)

$$
2NO^{+} + 2NO_{2} \rightarrow NO^{+} \cdots NO_{2} + N_{2}O_{3}
$$
 (5)

$$
NO2 + Ovac \rightarrow Ovac \cdots O + NO (small amount)
$$
 (6)

To understand the effects of copper valence states on  $NO<sub>2</sub>$ adsorption in zeolites, DFT calculations were conducted to study the electronic and structural changes associated with Cu<sup>+</sup> and Cu<sup>2+</sup> ions upon NO<sub>2</sub> adsorption. As shown in Fig. S7,<sup>†</sup> the number of cations (Cu $^+$  and H $^+$ ) in the zeolite after  $\rm{H}_{2}$  reduction is increased. As the cations would serve as major adsorption sites, the increase in cation density would afford more binding sites for  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  adsorption. Moreover, as shown in Table 1, the formation of Cu<sup>+</sup> (binding energy of 20.06 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup>), which has a higher affinity for  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  than  $Cu<sup>2+</sup>$  (binding energy of 14.36) kcal mol<sup>-1</sup>), strengthens the interaction with NO<sub>2</sub> through  $\pi$ complexation. Thus, the increase in the density of adsorption sites with increasing binding strength enables greater  $NO<sub>2</sub>$ uptake.

The optimized local structures of  $NO<sub>2</sub>/NO$  adsorbed on  $Cu<sup>+</sup>$ and Cu<sup>2+</sup> in SSZ-13 zeolites were analyzed (Fig. 7). When  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  or NO is adsorbed, Cu–O bonds are partially disrupted, and the

(b)  $Cu<sup>2+</sup>$  $(a) Cu<sup>+</sup>$ **Empty**  $\bullet$  Al  $\bullet$  Si  $\mathbf{0} \mathbf{0}$  $\bullet$  H  $\bullet$  N  $\bullet$  Cu<sup>+</sup>  $\bullet$  Cu<sup>2+</sup>

Fig. 7 Comparison of optimized local structures of NO<sub>2</sub>/NO adsorbed on Cu<sup>+</sup> and Cu<sup>2+</sup> cations in the SSZ-13 zeolite. The top, middle, and bottom images respectively depict the naked cation, and the cation interacting with NO<sub>2</sub> and NO, all located at the 6 MR sites.



DOc) in the outer-shell orbitals of N, O and transition metal ions upon NO2 adsorption (Lowdin). Data was derived from the electron occupancies

position of Cu ions shifts from a planar arrangement to a nonplanar one. These changes in Cu–O coordination numbers and the displacement of Cu ion positions can indicate the intensity of interaction with  $NO<sub>x</sub>$ . Calculations showed reduced electron occupancies ( $\Delta$ Oc) in the 3d orbitals and increased  $\Delta$ Oc in the 4s and 4p orbitals (Table 2), suggesting  $\sigma$ -donation from NO<sub>2</sub> and  $\pi$ -backdonation from Cu ions, respectively. In addition,  $Cu^{2+}$  (0.72 Å) has a smaller radius than  $Cu^{+}$  (0.96 Å) and attracts electrons more tightly.<sup>26</sup> This constraint resulted in more stable electrons in the d orbitals of  $Cu^{2+}$ , making it more difficult to enable backdonation to the  $\pi^*$  orbital of NO<sub>2</sub> and thus weakening the interaction with  $NO<sub>2</sub>$ . Thus, the higher affinity of Cu<sup>+</sup> for NO<sub>2</sub> than Cu<sup>2+,</sup> which is attributed to the more efficient  $\pi$ complexation, facilitates  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  adsorption by Cu<sup>n+</sup>SSZ-13.

### 4. Conclusions

In this work, in-depth analysis of  $NO_2$  adsorption on  $Cu^{n+}SSZ-13$ zeolites under ambient conditions was conducted, including evaluation of  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  uptake, NO release, the affinity of adsorption sites for  $NO<sub>2</sub>$ , and the underlying adsorption mechanisms. Among the Cu-modified zeolites investigated, Cu<sup>n+</sup>SSZ-13-190-R exhibited the highest  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  adsorption capacity, outperforming both H<sup>+</sup>SSZ-13 and Cu<sup>2+</sup>SSZ-13. Our experimental and DFT studies demonstrated that the enhanced  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  adsorption was attributed to the formation of abundant Cu<sup>+</sup> ions within the zeolite, which have a higher affinity for  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  than  $Cu<sup>2+</sup>$ , as well as the increased amount of adsorption sites. The elimination of moisture and  $Cu^{0}$  formed upon  $Cu^{2+}SSZ-13$  reduction was favorable for  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  adsorption. The findings of this research could provide valuable insights for the development of adsorbents for  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  removal at ambient temperature. **Paper**<br> **Space**<br> **Pacific articles Artic** 

## Data availability

The datasets generated and/or analyzed during the current study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

## Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts to declare.

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 $Cu^{2+} + NO_2$  -0.10 0.31

 $Cu^{2+} + NO<sub>2</sub>$ 

 $-0.10$ 

 $Cu^{2+} + NO$ 

−0.23

−0.04

−0.03 0.06

 $-0.03$ 

0.06

 $-0.02$  0.01

 $-0.02$ 

−0.09

0.31

−0.15

 $-0.01$   $0.21$ 

 $-0.01$ 

 $0.21$  $0.01$ 

−0.07<br>−0.07

 $-0.06$ 

 $-0.10$ 

−0.02 0.19

−0.06 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00

−0.09

−0.14

−0.34

−0.17

−0.19

−0.17 0.47

−0.09

−0.06 0.46 0.00 0.01 0.14 0.02

−0.03 0.01 0.19 0.00

−0.01

−0.01

−0.08 0.19

−0.03 0.15

Table 2 Changes in electron occupancies (

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