

Review

# Research Progress on Metal Oxides for the Selective Catalytic Reduction of NO<sub>x</sub> with Ammonia

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**Abstract:** Nitrogen oxides emitted from diesel vehicle exhaust seriously endanger the atmospheric environment and human health, which have attracted people's attention. Among numerous nitrogen oxide (NO<sub>x</sub>) removal technologies, photocatalytic removal of NO<sub>x</sub> and SCR have received widespread attention. The photocatalytic treatment of NO<sub>x</sub> technology is a good choice due to its mild reaction conditions and low costs. Moreover, NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR has been widely used in denitration technology and plays an important role in controlling NO<sub>x</sub> emissions. In NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR technology, the development of high-efficiency catalysts is an important part. This paper summarizes the research progress of metal oxide catalysts for NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR reactions, including V-based catalysts, Mn-based catalysts, Fe-based catalysts, Ce-based catalysts, and Cu-based catalysts. Meanwhile, the detailed process of the NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR reaction was also introduced. In addition, this paper also describes a possible SO<sub>2</sub> poisoning mechanism and the stability of the catalysts. Finally, the problems and prospects of metal oxide catalysts for NO<sub>x</sub> removal were also proposed.

**Keywords:** metal oxides; NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR; catalytic performance; SO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O poisoning



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## 1. Introduction

With an increase in the number of vehicles globally, there has been an increase in pollution from vehicle exhaust [1]. Of the gases present in vehicle exhaust, nitrogen oxides (NO<sub>x</sub>) are one of the most serious pollutants, causing air pollution that leads to acid rain, ozone depletion, and the greenhouse effect [2,3]. Moreover, NO<sub>x</sub> also poses a huge threat to human health as it damages the human body through contact, inhalation, etc. [4]. Moreover, it has been reported that people with asthma may experience chronic pulmonary dilation and exacerbation of respiratory symptoms within 60 min of being exposed to nitrogen dioxide (NO<sub>2</sub>) [5]. As NO<sub>x</sub> gases pose such a serious threat to the human body and environment, the removal of NO<sub>x</sub> is essential. Removal technologies for NO<sub>x</sub> mainly include selective catalytic reduction (SCR), selective non-catalytic reduction (SNCR), activated carbon adsorption methods, photocatalytic degradation, and advanced oxidation processes (AOPs) based on ozone oxidation [6]. Generally, SCR technology involves reacting NO with reducing agents, such as gaseous ammonia (NH<sub>3</sub>), liquid NH<sub>3</sub>, and urea in the presence of a catalyst, whereas SNCR involves injecting a reducing agent into a system in a suitable "temperature window" to promote a denitration reaction without a catalyst to reduce NO<sub>x</sub> to nitrogen and water. Activated carbon has a high adsorption capacity for a low concentration of NO<sub>x</sub>. However, due to the possibility of spontaneous combustion of the activated carbon at >300 °C, its use poses significant difficulties for adsorption and regeneration. Photocatalytic degradation is a pollutant control technology that has the advantages of mild reaction conditions and producing a low amount of secondary pollution [7]. The

photocatalytic reactor is the core equipment in photocatalytic technology and its efficiency is influenced by many factors, such as light source, catalyst properties, and temperature. Therefore, designing a perfect reactor is crucial for enhancing NO<sub>x</sub> removal efficiency. This also indicates that the design of reactors plays a very important role in photocatalytic technology. Moreover, the catalytic removal of NO<sub>x</sub> using the semiconductor TiO<sub>2</sub> as a photocatalyst is very effective. Khanal et al. [8] prepared ultrafine Ta<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> nanoparticles and tested the photodegradation of NO<sub>x</sub> under UV–vis irradiation at room temperature. Compared with commercially available TiO<sub>2</sub>, which is traditionally considered to be the most advanced NO<sub>x</sub> degradation material, the ultrafine Ta<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> nanoparticles exhibited a higher NO conversion. AOPs based on ozone oxidation for denitration mainly utilize ozone to oxidize NO<sub>x</sub>, which is then absorbed by a washing tower for removal. This denitration system efficiently removes pollutants such as NO<sub>x</sub>, sulfur dioxide, and particulate matter simultaneously, without affecting other pollutant control technologies. Thus, it is an efficient supplementary or alternative technology to traditional denitration technology. Alumina, as a representative ozone catalyst, is highly efficient, has a long lifespan, is cheap, and can remove more harmful gases from the exhaust in a shorter time than other catalysts. Table 1 summarizes the methods of NO<sub>x</sub> removal mentioned above, as well as their catalysts and performance.

**Table 1.** The NO<sub>x</sub> removal technologies as well as representative catalysts and performance.

Removal Technologies of NO <sub>x</sub>	Representative Catalysts and Their Performance
SCR	V <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> -WO <sub>3</sub> /TiO <sub>2</sub> catalysts exhibit the satisfactory catalytic performance in the medium temperature range
SNCR	-
Activated carbon adsorption	Activated carbon adsorbs low concentration NO <sub>x</sub> at temperatures below 300 °C
Photocatalytic degradation	Commercially available TiO <sub>2</sub> has the excellent NO removal effect
Advanced oxidation processes (AOPs) ozone oxidation	Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> catalyst has the higher oxidation efficiency and longer lifespan

Currently, hybrid systems involving the simultaneous use of multiple techniques are also a hot research topic, such as technology for the simultaneous removal of soot and NO<sub>x</sub> [9], and of SO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub>. Liu et al. [10] used an O<sub>2</sub>/H<sub>2</sub>O/H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> system activated by vacuum ultraviolet (VUV) in a wet VUV spray reactor for the simultaneous removal of NO and SO<sub>2</sub>. This hybrid system exhibited good simultaneous removal performance for NO and SO<sub>2</sub>. The effects of different process variables on the removal of NO and SO<sub>2</sub> were also investigated. The VUV power, acidity, and alkalinity of the solution, in addition to O<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> concentrations, were found to affect the removal of NO from the exhaust, with this study providing a sufficient research foundation for future studies of this technology. In addition, promising and eco-friendly integrated processes involving adsorption, photolysis, and photocatalysis to remove low concentrations of gaseous pollutants from the air have been investigated. Generally, carbon materials, zeolites, and metal–organic framework (MOF) materials are used as adsorbents or carriers in these hybrid systems, while TiO<sub>2</sub> is used as a photocatalyst [7].

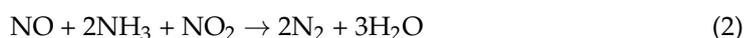
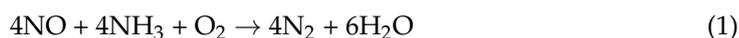
However, it should be noted that the NO<sub>x</sub> from diesel vehicles' exhaust exceeds 80% of the total gas emitted from gasoline vehicle exhaust. Therefore, controlling the emissions of NO<sub>x</sub> from diesel vehicles has become one of the main issues that need to be addressed. At present, post-treatment technology is the most effective method for controlling NO<sub>x</sub> emissions [11]. From the perspective of economic and technological feasibility for diesel vehicles' aftertreatment systems, SCR technology is the most suitable choice for controlling diesel vehicle exhaust emissions. Among SCR technologies, NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR is the most effective emissions control technology [12,13], wherein the design and preparation of highly efficient catalysts that can effectively utilize NH<sub>3</sub> to remove NO<sub>x</sub> are crucial [14]. At present, the catalysts for the NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR reaction have been extensively studied [15,16]. SCR catalysts can be classified into categories based on their active components: noble metal catalysts [17,18],

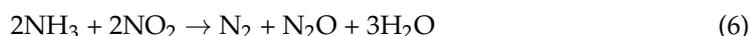
metal oxide catalysts [19,20], and transition metal ion exchange zeolite catalysts [21]. Noble metal catalysts exhibit satisfactory low-temperature performance, but they are expensive, exhibit a narrow operating temperature window, and their poor sulfur resistance limits their widespread application [22]. The transition metal ion exchange zeolite catalysts exhibit a wide operating window at a high NO conversion and poor low-temperature catalytic activity. However, with the international regulations on diesel vehicle pollutant emissions, there are certain constraints on the NO<sub>x</sub> gases that are generated under cold-start diesel-engine conditions, and the SCR performance at low temperatures is receiving increased research attention. Therefore, metal oxides have become a focus of research due to their advantages of being cheap, as well as exhibiting high thermal stability and excellent low-temperature catalytic activity. Among the metal-oxide catalysts, traditional V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>-WO<sub>3</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> catalysts that exhibit satisfactory catalytic performance at 300–450 °C have been commercialized for many years [23]. In addition to the V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>-WO<sub>3</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> catalysts, metal-oxide catalysts, such as Mn-based oxides, have received increasing research attention due to their diverse valence states and excellent low-temperature SCR activity, and exhibit a good research future in the field of low-temperature denitration. Iron-based catalysts are also cheap, environmentally friendly, and exhibit excellent redox properties and good denitration activity. In addition, Ce- and Cu-based catalysts are widely used in NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR reactions. This review provides an in-depth introduction to SCR and the application and role of metal oxides, such as V-, Mn-, Fe-, Ce-, and Cu- oxides, in SCR reactions. Moreover, the development and issues associated with the metal oxides used in the SCR reactions are also summarized.

## 2. The Main Reactions of the NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR System

The NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR technology is currently the most popular technology used for removing NO<sub>x</sub> from vehicle exhaust. The main reaction of NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR is shown in Equation (1), wherein NH<sub>3</sub> reduces NO to H<sub>2</sub>O and N<sub>2</sub>, which is referred to as the “standard SCR” reaction. When the content of NO<sub>2</sub> increases and reaches the same molar equivalent as NO, the “fast SCR” reaction (Equation (2)) occurs, which was first proposed in the early 1980s and can improve the denitration efficiency at low temperatures as the reaction rate of the “standard SCR” is much lower than that of the “fast SCR”. [24]. And excess NO<sub>2</sub> may partially depend on the relatively slow “NO<sub>2</sub>-SCR” reaction (Equation (3)) [25]. Moreover, other reactions that occur during the SCR reaction can affect the overall activity and selectivity of the NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR catalyst, including NO and NH<sub>3</sub> oxidation (Equations (4) and (5)) and N<sub>2</sub>O generation (Equation (6)). Also, N<sub>2</sub>O is more likely to contribute towards greenhouse effects than carbon dioxide [26–28].

In diesel exhaust gas, the NO content is much higher than that of the NO<sub>2</sub>. However, it is possible to improve the upstream oxidation catalyst to increase the content of NO<sub>2</sub> entering the SCR device, promoting the reduction of NO<sub>x</sub> in the presence of NO and NO<sub>2</sub>, that is, “fast SCR.” The “fast SCR” reaction at low temperatures exhibits higher reaction activity than the “standard SCR” reaction, which can effectively improve the NO<sub>x</sub> removal efficiency. According to Equations (1) and (2), it can be inferred that the adsorption of NH<sub>3</sub> and NO/NO<sub>2</sub> on the surface of the SCR catalyst as well as the adsorption and activation of oxygen are important determining factors in the SCR reaction.

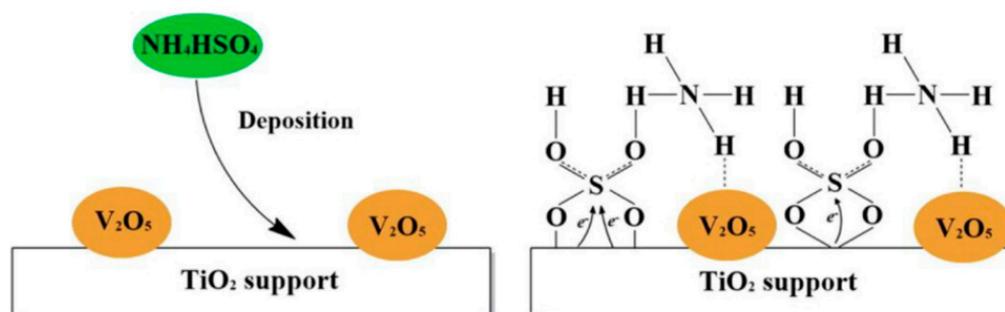




### 3. SCR Catalysts

#### 3.1. V-Based Catalysts

$\text{V}_2\text{O}_5\text{-WO}_3/\text{TiO}_2$  is the earliest-known commercial  $\text{NH}_3$ -SCR catalyst, which has a sufficient number of acidic sites, good redox ability, and exhibits high  $\text{NH}_3$ -SCR catalytic activity in the medium-temperature range (300–450 °C) [29]. However, the exhaust emissions of diesel vehicles contain  $\text{SO}_2$ , which is easily oxidized to  $\text{SO}_3$ .  $\text{NH}_4\text{HSO}_4$  is then formed as a result of the reaction between  $\text{NH}_3$  and  $\text{SO}_3$ , which can deposit on the catalyst surface and cover the active sites, which is the reason for sulfur poisoning of the  $\text{V}_2\text{O}_5\text{-WO}_3/\text{TiO}_2$  catalyst (Figure 1) [30]. In addition, the catalyst is also unstable at high temperatures; it may be due to the  $\text{TiO}_2$  transformation from anatase to rutile at high temperatures and the separation or volatilization of vanadium species. Therefore, many researchers have turned their attention to the modification of V-based oxide catalysts to address the above issues [31,32].



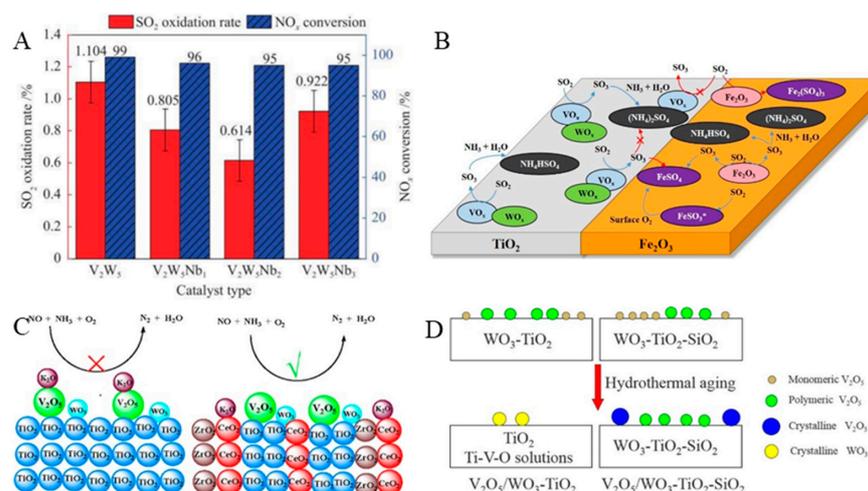
**Figure 1.** Surface species over  $\text{V}_2\text{O}_5/\text{TiO}_2$  modified by  $\text{NH}_4\text{HSO}_4$  depositions. Reprinted with permission from Ref. [30]. Copyright 2016, Elsevier B.V.

The addition of active components is an appropriate method to enhance the sulfur resistance of a catalyst and promote its high-temperature stability. A  $\text{V}_2\text{O}_5/\text{TiO}_2$  catalyst modified using Sb has been shown to exhibit high  $\text{SO}_2$  tolerance in an  $\text{NH}_3$ -SCR reaction. Xu et al. [33] also reported a  $\text{V}_2\text{O}_5\text{-Sb}_2\text{O}_3/\text{TiO}_2$  monolithic catalyst for the  $\text{NH}_3$ -SCR reaction, the operating temperature window of which was 225–375 °C when the  $\text{NO}_x$  conversion was >90%. The low-temperature activity of the catalyst significantly decreased after the introduction of  $\text{SO}_2$ , which was caused by the deposition of  $\text{NH}_4\text{HSO}_4$ . The catalyst modified with  $\text{Sb}_2\text{O}_3$  promoted the reaction between  $\text{NH}_4\text{HSO}_4$  and  $\text{NO}$ , reducing the deposition of  $\text{NH}_4\text{HSO}_4$ , and therefore exhibited better  $\text{NH}_3$ -SCR performance than the non-modified catalyst in the presence of  $\text{SO}_2$ . Moreover, a Nb-modified  $\text{V}_2\text{O}_5\text{-WO}_3/\text{TiO}_2$  catalyst was also studied for the  $\text{NH}_3$ -SCR. It was shown that the  $\text{SO}_2$  conversion in the presence of the  $\text{Nb}_2\text{O}_5\text{-V}_2\text{O}_5\text{-WO}_3/\text{TiO}_2$  catalyst was the lowest (0.6%) of the tested catalysts at 350 °C at a  $\text{Nb}_2\text{O}_5$  loading of 2%, while the  $\text{NO}_x$  conversion was still >95% (Figure 2A). This was because the surface area of the catalyst decreased upon the introduction of Nb, resulting in a decrease in the amount of  $\text{SO}_2$  adsorbed. Moreover, the adsorbed oxygen on the catalyst was also significantly reduced after the modification of Nb, indicating that the redox performance of the modified catalyst is weakened, which limited the oxidation of  $\text{SO}_2$  [34]. Jung et al. [35] also studied the effects of doping Nb on the  $\text{NO}_x$  removal from the exhaust in  $\text{V}_2\text{O}_5\text{-WO}_3/\text{TiO}_2$  (VWT) catalysts. The results indicated that Nb enhanced the low-temperature performance of the VWT catalyst. Doping of the VWT catalyst with Nb also enhanced its  $\text{SO}_2$  and  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  resistance. After catalyst poisoning for 24 h, the  $\text{NO}$  conversion of the Nb-doped VWT catalyst at 240 °C was 12% higher than that of the VWT catalyst. This is because, compared to VWT, less ammonium bisulfate (ABS) is formed in

the  $V_2O_5-WO_3-Nb_2O_5/TiO_2$  catalyst. In addition, the  $V_2O_5/WO_3-TiO_2$  catalyst modified with Zr showed better performance than the unmodified catalyst after hydrothermal aging of the catalysts, which was attributed to the inhibition of the shrinkage of the catalyst surface area and the growth of the  $TiO_2$  crystal size upon addition of Zr [36]. Kang et al. [37] physically mixed  $V_2O_5-WO_3/TiO_2$  and several  $Fe_2O_3$  samples with different textural properties for the  $NH_3$ -SCR. In the presence of  $SO_2$ , the physically mixed catalyst showed higher catalytic stability and  $SO_2$  resistance compared with the  $V_2O_5-WO_3/TiO_2$  catalyst. The  $V_2O_5-WO_3/TiO_2$  catalyst modified by  $Fe_2O_3$  showed relatively stable catalytic performance and high  $SO_2$  resistance. As shown in Figure 2B,  $Fe_2O_3$  effectively prevented catalyst deactivation by inhibiting the formation of ammonium sulfate species. Moreover,  $Fe_2O_3$  also increased the number of acidic adsorption sites of the reactants. In addition, compared to commercial V-based catalysts, the physical mixing of alumina and V-based catalysts resulted in better stability during the  $SO_2$  aging process. This is because the ABS formed on the surface of alumina is obtained through physical contact and migration rather than the direct adsorption of gaseous  $SO_2$ . The mixed alumina still exhibited excellent ABS affinity and stability after undergoing  $SO_2$  aging and regeneration processes, which was attributed to its physicochemical properties, such as acidity and pore size [38]. In addition, Ni et al. [39] reported that Ce improved the  $SO_2$  resistance of a  $V_2O_5-WO_3/TiO_2$  catalyst in a low-temperature  $NH_3$ -SCR reaction. The ABS on the surface of the catalyst preferentially deposited on  $CeO_2$  to form cerium sulfate, which protected the active species  $V_2O_5$  and  $TiO_2$ , maintaining better  $NH_3$ -SCR performance in the presence of  $SO_2$ . Also, it has been reported that  $CeO_2$  promotes the decomposition of ABS [40]. Wang et al. [41] tested the activity of  $MO_x-WO_3/TiO_2$  catalysts ( $M = Fe, Mn, Cu, V$ ) treated with  $SO_2$  at 200 °C for 24 h. The results showed that the low-temperature activity of the catalyst significantly decreased after treatment under an  $SO_2$  atmosphere. The catalyst treated with  $SO_2$  inhibited the adsorption of  $NH_3$  and  $NO$  on the surface of the catalysts, which was the main reason for its deactivation. Among the prepared catalysts,  $FeO_x-WO_3/TiO_2$  was found to be the best catalyst for the  $NH_3$ -SCR at medium to low temperatures due to the easy decomposition of sulfates on its surface.

In addition to adding a single component to modify V-based catalysts, dual component addition can further improve the SCR performance of a catalyst. The Ce and Sb co-modification of a  $V_2O_5/TiO_2$  catalyst was shown to improve  $SO_2$  and  $H_2O$  resistance. At a  $NO_x$  conversion of >90%, its operating temperature window was 220–450 °C. The excellent catalytic performance of the modified catalyst was attributed to its strong adsorption of  $NO$ , large number of acidic sites, and low  $SO_2$  adsorption capacity [42]. Cao et al. [43] reported a  $Ce^{4+}$  and  $Zr^{4+}$  co-doped  $V_2O_5-WO_3/TiO_2$  catalyst. The addition of Ce and Zr promoted the removal of  $NO_x$  at 300–400 °C and showed the best  $H_2O + SO_2$  resistance owing to the resulting catalyst having more acidic sites as well as exhibiting strong water and sulfur resistance (Figure 2C). In addition, the promotional effects of Cu and Fe on the  $V_2O_5-WO_3/TiO_2$  catalyst for the removal of  $NO$  by  $NH_3$  in the temperature range of 280–360 °C were also studied by Wang et al. [44]. They reported that the addition of Cu led to an increase in the  $Cu^{2+}$  content of the catalyst, which is the main species of Cu-containing catalysts, while Fe formed  $FeVO_4$  with V. The addition of Cu or Fe improved the SCR performance of the catalyst, which was attributed to a good dispersion of active substances, good redox performance, and abundant active oxygen species.

In addition, the high-temperature instability of V-based catalysts can be improved through doping with Si. The addition of  $SiO_2$  to a  $WO_3-TiO_2$  support improves the resistance of the catalyst to hydrothermal aging. As shown in Figure 2D, the introduction of  $SiO_2$  inhibits the phase transition of  $TiO_2$ , the growth of  $TiO_2$  crystal size, and the shrinkage of the catalyst surface area [45]. Similarly, Shao et al. also reported that a Si-doped  $V_2O_5-WO_3/TiO_2$  catalyst showed higher thermal stability than a  $V_2O_5-WO_3/TiO_2$  catalyst as Si doping prevents the anatase to rutile phase transition and contributes to good dispersion of  $VO_x$  and  $WO_3$  [46].



**Figure 2.** (A) Catalytic performance of various catalysts in the simultaneous denitration and SO<sub>2</sub> oxidation at 350 °C. Reprinted with permission from Ref. [34]. Copyright 2022, Elsevier B.V. (B) Effects of Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> on V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>-TiO<sub>2</sub> catalyst. Reprinted with permission from Ref. [37]. Copyright 2021, Elsevier B.V. (C) The effects poisoning of Ce<sup>4+</sup> and Zr<sup>4+</sup> doping. Reprinted with permission from Ref. [43]. Copyright 2017, Elsevier B.V. (D) The effects of SiO<sub>2</sub> doping. Reprinted with permission from Ref. [45]. Copyright 2016, Elsevier B.V.

Based on the above research, V-based catalysts have been improved and optimized, achieving significant results. Table 2 shows a good catalytic performance of V-based catalysts for the NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR reaction that has been reported in the literature. However, there are still some issues with using V-based catalysts, such as low SCR activity at low temperatures, a narrow activity temperature window, and biological toxicity. Therefore, V-free catalysts are receiving increased research attention.

**Table 2.** The catalytic performances of V-based catalysts for NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR reaction in reported the literature.

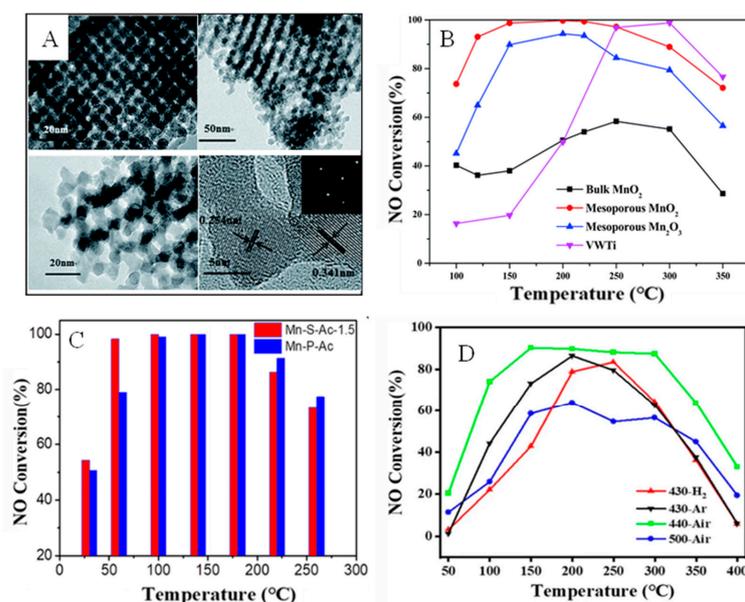
Catalysts	Feed Composition					GHSV (h <sup>-1</sup> )	Conversion (Corresponding Temperature Window)	Ref.
	NO (ppm)	NH <sub>3</sub> (ppm)	O <sub>2</sub> (vol%)	SO <sub>2</sub> (ppm)	H <sub>2</sub> O (vol%)			
V <sub>2</sub> O <sub>5</sub> -Sb <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> /TiO <sub>2</sub> monolithic catalyst	1000	1000	5	1000	10	5000	>90% (225–375 °C)	[33]
V1WT	500	500	5	-	-	120,000	>90% (300–500 °C)	[36]
VW/Ti + Fe	1200	1200	13	5%CO <sub>2</sub>	5.2	120,000	>95% (300–400 °C)	[37]
7Ce-VW/Ti	500	500	5	-	-	160,000	100% (250–400 °C)	[39]
500	500	5	200	5.5	-	65% (250 °C)		
3V6Mo10CeTi	1000	1000	8	-	-	30,000	97% (200 °C)	[40]
SbV10Ce/TiO <sub>2</sub>	800	800	3	-	-	60,000	>90% (220–450 °C)	[42]
800	800	3	800	6	-	>85% (220–500 °C)		
VWTCZ	500	500	5	-	-	60,000	>97% (300–400 °C)	[43]
500	500	5	100	5	-	75% (350 °C)		
VWTS	500	500	5	-	10	100,000	>80% (350–550 °C)	[45]
VWTSi <sub>10</sub> -550 °C	500	500	5	-	-	300 mL min <sup>-1</sup>	>80% (205–520 °C)	[46]

### 3.2. Mn-Based Catalyst

Manganese oxide (MnO<sub>x</sub>) catalysts exhibit excellent low-temperature SCR catalytic performance (Table 3) due to their various valence states and good redox capabilities. Therefore, the study of MnO<sub>x</sub> has attracted widespread attention. The SCR catalytic activity of MnO<sub>x</sub> is related to the valence, specific surface area, and crystallinity of the manganese. Among these attributes of manganese, the crystalline structures of MnO<sub>2</sub> catalysts feature structural defects, and therefore the SCR activity of MnO<sub>2</sub> is higher compared to that of other oxidized forms of manganese [47,48]. Thirupathi et al. [49] showed that the reducibility of MnO<sub>2</sub> catalysts was improved and their NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR catalytic performance also was enhanced, indicating that MnO<sub>2</sub> is the active component with the highest SCR reaction activity. Moreover, MnO<sub>x</sub>, which exhibits low crystallinity, shows good low-

temperature performance. In addition, the catalytic performance of  $\text{MnO}_x$  catalysts can be improved by adjusting their crystal structure and morphology. Yang et al. [50] adjusted the crystal phase of  $\text{MnO}_x$  to enhance the denitration performance and found that  $\alpha\text{-MnO}_2$  exhibited better catalytic activity compared to  $\beta\text{-MnO}_2$ ,  $\gamma\text{-MnO}_2$ , and  $\delta\text{-MnO}_2$ . Meanwhile, the morphology of the catalyst also affects its redox properties. Liang et al. [51] introduced W and Mo as new acidic centers into  $\alpha$ -,  $\beta$ -,  $\gamma$ -, and  $\delta$ - $\text{MnO}_2$ . When Mn–O–W or Mn–O–Mo bonds formed on the surface of  $\alpha\text{-MnO}_2$ , the best ability to capture  $\text{NH}_3$  and NO on the surface of the catalyst was observed. The results showed that the high activity of  $\text{MnO}_2$  is related to the strong interaction between H and the surface  $\text{O}_{2c}$  site and that this site is prone to forming oxygen vacancies.

Moreover, the type of  $\text{MnO}_x$  and the valence state of Mn play crucial roles in the SCR reaction [52,53]. The SCR catalyst activity of  $\text{MnO}_x$  varies according to the valence state. It has been reported that  $\text{MnO}_2$  exhibits the best SCR catalytic performance, which is related to  $\text{Mn}^{4+}$  promoting the redox cycle and enhancing the oxidation of NO to  $\text{NO}_2$  [54,55]. Zhan et al. [56] prepared ordered mesoporous  $\text{MnO}_2$  and  $\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3$  using the KIT-6 template (Figure 3A). The mesoporous manganese oxide has more chemically adsorbed oxygen and stronger acid sites, as well as strong reducibility. As shown in Figure 3B, mesoporous  $\text{MnO}_2$  removed NO with an efficiency of 100% in the temperature range of 150–250 °C, which was higher than the activity of mesoporous  $\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3$  due to mesoporous  $\text{MnO}_2$  having more  $\text{Mn}^{4+}$ . The results indicate that the mesoporous structure and oxidation state of  $\text{MnO}_x$  have a major impact on the SCR. Liu et al. [57] constructed  $\text{MnO}_2$  nanosheets with a large number of oxygen vacancies via a solvent-free synthesis method, which exhibited the best low-temperature activity among tested samples, with a denitration efficiency of  $\leq 100\%$  at 100 °C (space velocity  $700,000 \text{ h}^{-1}$ ) (Figure 3C). Moreover, the  $\text{NH}_3$ -SCR mechanism of the  $\text{MnO}_2$  nanosheet catalyst was further studied and the results showed its catalysis to be underpinned by the Langmuir–Hinshelwood (L–H) mechanism. Hollow spherical  $\text{MnO}_2$ ,  $\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3$ ,  $\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4$ , and  $\text{MnO}$  catalysts of similar sizes were obtained by decomposing  $\text{MnCO}_3$  in air at 440 and 500 °C, and under  $\text{H}_2$  and Ar at 430 °C, respectively. Within different reaction temperature ranges, as shown in Figure 3D, the SCR performance order of the  $\text{MnO}_x$  catalysts was different and the NO conversion of  $\text{MnO}_2$  was the highest [58].



**Figure 3.** (A) The TEM images of  $\text{MnO}_x$ . Reprinted with permission from Ref. [56] Copyright 2015, The Royal Society of Chemistry and (B–D) NO conversion of  $\text{MnO}_x$  in different published literature. (B) Reprinted with permission from Ref. [56]. Copyright 2015, The Royal Society of Chemistry. (C) Reprinted with permission from Ref. [57]. Copyright 2018, American Chemical Society, and (D) Reprinted with permission from Ref. [58]. Copyright 2022, Springer).

However, undoped  $\text{MnO}_x$  catalysts exhibit a narrow temperature window for the  $\text{NH}_3$ -SCR, as well as low  $\text{N}_2$  selectivity and  $\text{SO}_2$  resistance, which limit their practical applications [59,60]. Therefore, doping or mixing  $\text{MnO}_x$  with other metal oxides can greatly improve their SCR activity and  $\text{SO}_2$  resistance due to the interaction between the Mn and doping element [61,62]. Table 3 summarizes the catalytic performances of Mn-based catalysts for the  $\text{NH}_3$ -SCR reaction reported in the literature.

$\text{CeO}_2$  can store and release oxygen and is added to Mn-based oxides as a promoter to enhance the performance and  $\text{SO}_2$  resistance of catalysts in the SCR reactions. After the introduction of Ce,  $\text{SO}_2$  preferentially reacts with Ce to form cerium sulfate, which acts as a sacrificial site to reduce the sulfation of  $\text{MnO}_x$ , thereby improving the sulfur resistance of the catalyst. Jin et al. [63] studied the mechanism of sulfur poisoning in Mn–Ce composite oxides in detail. As shown in Figure 4A, the introduction of Ce inhibits the generation of manganese sulfate on the surface of the catalyst. Moreover, it has been reported that  $\text{CeO}_2$  can store  $\text{NO}_x$  as a  $\text{SO}_2$  trap to prevent sulfation of the active sites when  $\text{SO}_2$  is exposed [64,65]. Chen et al. [66] studied the SCR performance of doped  $\text{CeO}_2$  catalysts. The results showed that the NO conversion of the catalysts doped with different crystal forms of  $\text{MnO}_x$  and  $\text{CeO}_2$  was always >95% in the range of 75–250 °C, indicating that  $\text{MnO}_2$ -doped  $\text{CeO}_2$  catalysts have excellent low-temperature  $\text{NH}_3$ -SCR performance. In addition, catalysts doped with  $\text{CeO}_2$  also produce less  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  and the generated  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  mainly arises from the SCR reaction rather than  $\text{NH}_3$  oxidation. This is because compared with an undoped manganese oxide catalyst, the reduction and acidity of the catalyst doped with  $\text{CeO}_2$  are improved, which is conducive to the adsorption of  $\text{NH}_3$  and NO, and reduces the reactivity of  $\text{O}_2$  and  $\text{NH}_3$ .

In addition, different Mn and Ce contents also affect the catalytic performance of the  $\text{NH}_3$ -SCR. Wang et al. [67] studied the SCR catalytic performance of  $\text{Mn}_4\text{CeO}_x$  and  $\text{MnCe}_4\text{O}_x$  catalysts, reporting that the  $\text{Mn}_4\text{CeO}_x$  catalyst exhibited higher catalytic activity than the  $\text{MnCe}_4\text{O}_x$  catalyst in the temperature range of 75–250 °C and that the  $\text{NO}_x$  removal of the  $\text{Mn}_4\text{CeO}_x$  catalyst was 100% at 150 °C. Within the tested temperature range, the  $\text{N}_2$  selectivity of the  $\text{Mn}_4\text{CeO}_x$  catalyst was always higher than that of the  $\text{MnCe}_4\text{O}_x$  catalyst due to the  $\text{Mn}_4\text{CeO}_x$  catalyst exhibiting better redox capacity and stronger acidity. Moreover, the relative content of  $\text{Ce}^{4+}$  in the  $\text{Mn}_4\text{CeO}_x$  catalyst was relatively high, indicating that it produces more  $\text{Mn}^{4+}$  and generates more oxygen vacancies, thereby promoting the SCR reaction.

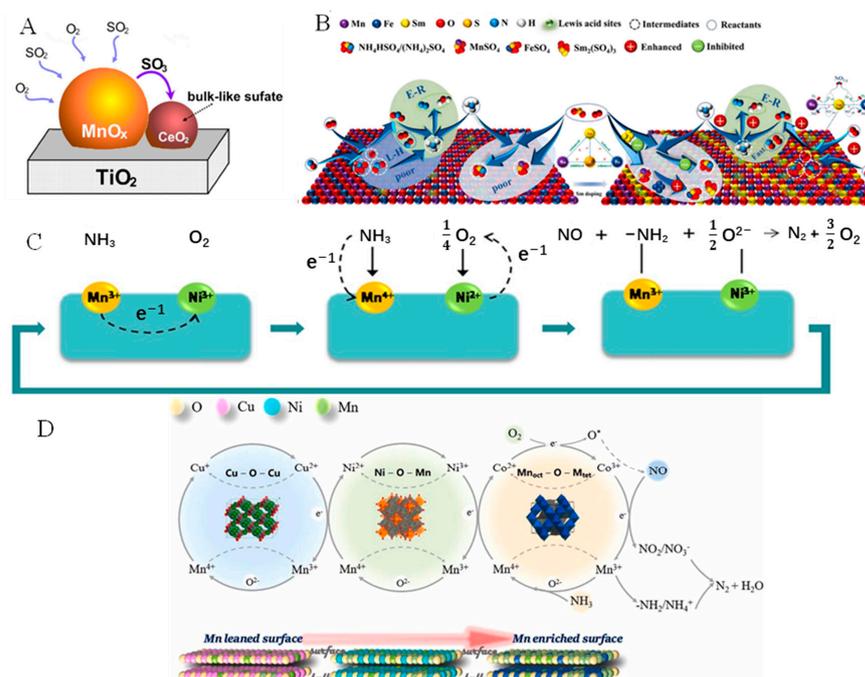
The rare earth metal Sm is also a good dopant, as it is non-toxic, cheap, stable, and can control the chelation of transition state intermediates [68]. Meng et al. [69] first discovered that the doping of Sm enhanced the sulfur and water tolerance of  $\text{MnO}_x$  catalysts. Moreover, Chen et al. [70] revealed the promotional effects of Sm doping on the denitration and sulfur resistance of a Sm-doped  $\text{MnFeO}_x$  catalyst, the results of which are shown in Figure 4B. The strong electron transfer between  $\text{Sm}^{2+}$  and  $\text{Mn}^{4+}$  preferentially induced Fe and Sm to act as sacrificial sites to react with  $\text{SO}_2$ , effectively suppressing the formation of metal sulfates and ammonium salts on the catalyst surface. In addition, adding transition-metal oxides to  $\text{MnO}_x$  also enhances the catalytic performance of the catalysts. Li et al. [71] prepared cobalt-doped  $\text{MnO}_x$  catalysts via a coprecipitation method. The catalyst with a Mn/Co = 1 exhibited the best catalytic activity, with a NO conversion of >90% at 100–275 °C. The doping of  $\text{MnO}_x$  with Co greatly increased the high-valence-metal ion content and chemically adsorbed oxygen on the surface of the  $\text{MnO}_x$  catalyst and reduced the apparent activation energy of the catalyst, which contributed to the excellent SCR catalytic performance of the catalyst. Ni-doped  $\text{MnO}_x$  catalysts also showed good results in the  $\text{NH}_3$ -SCR; it is related to the synergistic effect between Mn and Ni. As shown in Figure 4C,  $\text{Ni}^{3+}$  traps electrons from  $\text{Mn}^{3+}$  and they are converted into  $\text{Ni}^{2+}$  and  $\text{Mn}^{4+}$ , respectively. The activation process of converting  $\text{Mn}^{3+}$  to  $\text{Mn}^{4+}$  is related to the dehydration of  $\text{NH}_3$  to  $\text{NH}_2$ , which helps to improve SCR activity and the stability of Ni– $\text{MnO}_x$  catalysts. According to the reaction  $\text{Mn}^{3+} + \text{Ni}^{3+} \leftrightarrow \text{Mn}^{4+} + \text{Ni}^{2+}$ ,  $\text{Ni}^{3+}$  converts to  $\text{Ni}^{2+}$ , with the generated  $\text{Ni}^{2+}$  providing electrons to  $\text{O}_2$  before reverting back to  $\text{Ni}^{3+}$ . Finally,  $\text{NH}_2$  and  $\text{O}^{2-}$  react with NO gas to

produce non-polluting products (Figure 4C) [72]. Li et al. [73] also reported Co-, Ni-, and Cu-doped MnO<sub>x</sub> catalysts for the SCR, and it was found that it was easier to use Co to produce Mn-enriched oxides, with Co-MnO<sub>x</sub> exhibiting the highest NO<sub>x</sub> removal activity and SO<sub>2</sub> resistance among the synthesized catalysts. The high activity of Co-MnO<sub>x</sub> contributes to its special Mn-enriched surface (Co<sup>2+</sup>)<sub>tet</sub>(Mn<sup>3+</sup>Co<sup>3+</sup>)<sub>oct</sub>O<sub>4</sub> structure. In addition, Co-MnO<sub>x</sub> exists in lower density surrounding the Mn. Meanwhile, Co-MnO<sub>x</sub> benefits from the electron transfer between Mn and Co, and surface nitrate can react with the adsorbed NH<sub>3</sub> using the L-H mechanism (Figure 4D).

Based on the above research, Mn-based catalysts exhibit excellent low-temperature catalytic performance, but the N<sub>2</sub> selectivity and water/sulfur resistance at high NO conversion still need to be further improved. In addition, the reaction mechanism of Mn-based catalysts should be further studied.

**Table 3.** The catalytic performances of Mn-based catalysts for NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR reaction in reported the literature.

Catalysts	NO (ppm)	NH <sub>3</sub> (ppm)	Feed Composition		H <sub>2</sub> O (vol%)	GHSV (h <sup>-1</sup> )	Conversion (Corresponding Temperature Window)	Ref.
			O <sub>2</sub> (vol%)	SO <sub>2</sub> (ppm)				
MnO <sub>2</sub>	500	500	11			36,000	100% (150 °C)	[48]
Mn <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>							100% (250 °C)	
Mn <sub>3</sub> O <sub>4</sub>							100% (200 °C)	
Mn-Ni/TiO <sub>2</sub> (Ni/Mn = 0.4)	400	400	2	-	-	50,000	100% (200 °C)	[49]
α-MnO <sub>2</sub>	500	500	19			36,000	100% (120 °C)	[50]
γ-MnO <sub>2</sub>							100% (120 °C)	
β-MnO <sub>2</sub>							40% (120 °C)	
mesoporous MnO <sub>2</sub>	500	500	3	-	-	28,000	100% (150–250 °C)	[56]
Mn <sub>3</sub> CeW <sub>0.3</sub> O <sub>x</sub>	500	500	5	-	-	100,000	>70% (100–275 °C)	
	500	500	5	-	5		>72% (150–300 °C)	[59]
	1000	1000	3	-	-		>98% (120–220 °C)	
Cr(0.4)-MnO <sub>x</sub>	1000	1000	3	100		30,000	85% (120 °C)	[61]
CeO <sub>2</sub> @α-MnO <sub>2</sub>	500	500	11	-	-	36,000	100% (75–250 °C)	[66]
	500	500	5				100% (75–200 °C)	
SmMnFe-0.1	500	500	5	100	5	60,000	90% (200 °C)	[70]
	500	500	5				100% (150–240 °C)	
Ni(0.4)-MnO <sub>x</sub>	500	500	5	100		64,000	87% (230 °C)	[72]
Co-MnO <sub>x</sub>	500	500	5	200	10	32,000	86% (200 °C)	[73]



**Figure 4.** (A) The formation pathway of bulk-like sulfate on Mn-Ce/TiO<sub>2</sub> samples. Reprinted with permission from Ref. [63]. Copyright 2014, Elsevier B.V. (B) Mechanism model of Sm promoting SCR activity and SO<sub>2</sub> resistance over MnFeO<sub>x</sub> catalysts. Reprinted with permission from Ref. [70]. Copyright

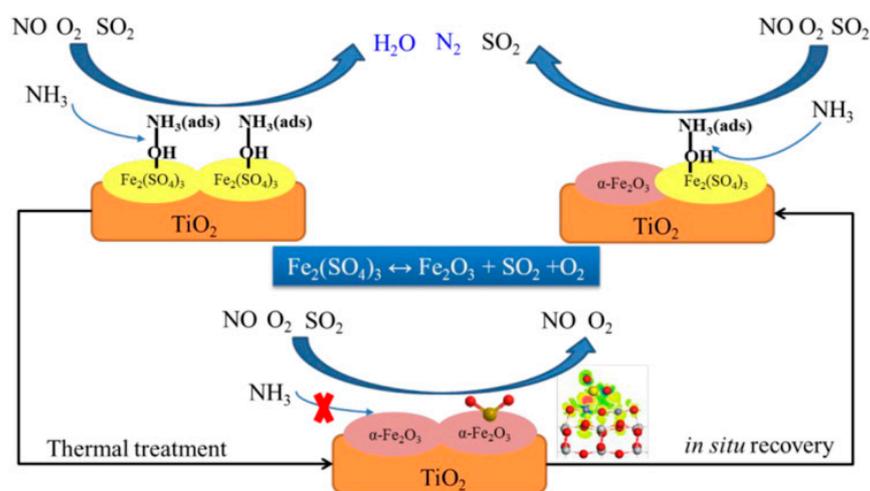
2022, Elsevier B.V. (C) The electrons transfer between Mn ions and Ni ions over the catalyst for NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR. Reprinted with permission from Ref. [72]. Copyright 2014, Elsevier B.V. and (D) The proposed mechanism of the SCR reaction over the Ni(0.4)-MnO<sub>x</sub> catalyst and the synergetic catalytic effect between Mn and Ni cations. Reprinted with permission from Ref. [73]. Copyright 2021, Elsevier B.V.

### 3.3. Fe-Based Catalysts

The catalytic effect of Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> and FeO is very weak for the SCR, so Fe-based catalysts are generally based on Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> as the main active substance. In recent years, Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> has attracted attention in the field of developing Fe-based SCR catalysts due to its excellent redox properties, acidity, and sulfur resistance [74]. The conversion of the valence state of iron in iron oxide between Fe<sup>2+</sup> and Fe<sup>3+</sup> is helpful for generating lattice oxygen. Fe<sup>3+</sup> converts NO into NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>, improving the SCR activity of Fe-based catalysts [75]. Different crystal forms of iron oxide, such as α-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, β-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, and γ-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, exhibit different NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR catalytic activities. The α-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> is more abundant in nature compared to β-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> and γ-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, and exhibits low toxicity, high resistance to SO<sub>2</sub>, and has a suitable electronic band structure [76]. Zhou et al. [77] reported an Fe<sub>2</sub>(SO<sub>4</sub>)<sub>3</sub>/CeO<sub>2</sub> catalyst for NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR, which exhibited good NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR performance and enhanced N<sub>2</sub>O selectivity as a result of the synergetic interaction of Fe, Ce, and SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>. As shown in Figure 5, Yu et al. [78] conducted thermal stability experiments over an Fe<sub>2</sub>(SO<sub>4</sub>)<sub>3</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> catalyst. It was found that Fe<sub>2</sub>(SO<sub>4</sub>)<sub>3</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> decomposed into α-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> at >350 °C, which led to a slight decrease in the number of Brønsted acid sites and NO<sub>x</sub> conversion. α-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> bound gaseous NO<sub>x</sub> more effectively than NH<sub>3</sub>, resulting in the production of abundant surface nitrate species, which may have had a negative impact on its catalytic performance in the SCR. Therefore, great efforts have been devoted to adjusting the redox properties and surface acidity of α-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. Cerium oxide is added to Fe oxide due to its unique ability to store and release oxygen, which promotes lattice distortion to generate oxygen vacancies and regulates its chemical and physical properties, such as reducibility and surface acidity, leading to a “fast SCR” that improves the activity of the catalyst at low temperature [79]. Chen et al. [80] prepared an α-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> with a single-atom Ce-doping catalyst. It was reported that the NO conversion of the Fe<sub>0.93</sub>Ce<sub>0.07</sub>O<sub>x</sub> catalyst was 93% at 250 °C, which was maintained for 168 h when 200 ppm SO<sub>2</sub> and 5 vol% H<sub>2</sub>O were introduced. This can be explained by the doping of Ce in the FeO<sub>x</sub> catalyst generating Fe–O–Ce sites, which were beneficial to the NO oxidation of the catalyst and the reduction of NO<sub>x</sub> by NH<sub>3</sub>, resulting in the high activity of the catalyst. Therefore, the presence of Fe–O–Ce sites in this catalyst is crucial. Meantime, the catalyst also exhibited good resistance to SO<sub>2</sub>/H<sub>2</sub>O, as the NH<sub>4</sub>HSO<sub>4</sub> deposited on the surface by the catalyst decomposes at lower temperatures.

In addition, compared to α-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, γ-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> has more surface defects and hydroxyl groups, therefore, improving its adsorption performance for NH<sub>3</sub> [81]. Mou et al. [82] reported that γ-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanorods featuring reactive (110) and (100) crystal planes with iron sites and adjacent oxygen sites can jointly adsorb NO and NH<sub>3</sub>. Yu et al. [83] also studied a γ-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> catalyst regarding its resistance to SO<sub>2</sub>. At >300 °C, the NO conversion fell to 50% within the first 3 h. Then, with time, the conversion of NO gradually recovered to approximately 80%. It was speculated that SO<sub>2</sub> may hinder the adsorption of NO<sub>x</sub>; the formed surface sulfate can terminate the L–H reaction within the first 3 h, but promotes the Eley–Rideal (E–R) reaction to occur after 3 h. However, the conversion of NO continued to decrease without rebounding at <300 °C. This also means that beneficial reactive surface sulfates may form at a higher temperature. Therefore, different sulfate coverage at different temperatures may be triggered following different reaction mechanisms related to the NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR reaction over sulfation catalysts. Moreover, as the balance between acidity and redox performance of the catalyst in the NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR reaction is crucial, the doping effects of Ti<sup>4+</sup>, Ce<sup>3+/4+</sup>, and Al<sup>3+</sup> were systematically studied due to their different acidity and redox properties [84]. Among the doped catalysts, the catalyst doped with Ti<sup>4+</sup> exhibited the best catalytic performance, with a four-fold NO<sub>x</sub> conversion increase (100 °C) compared

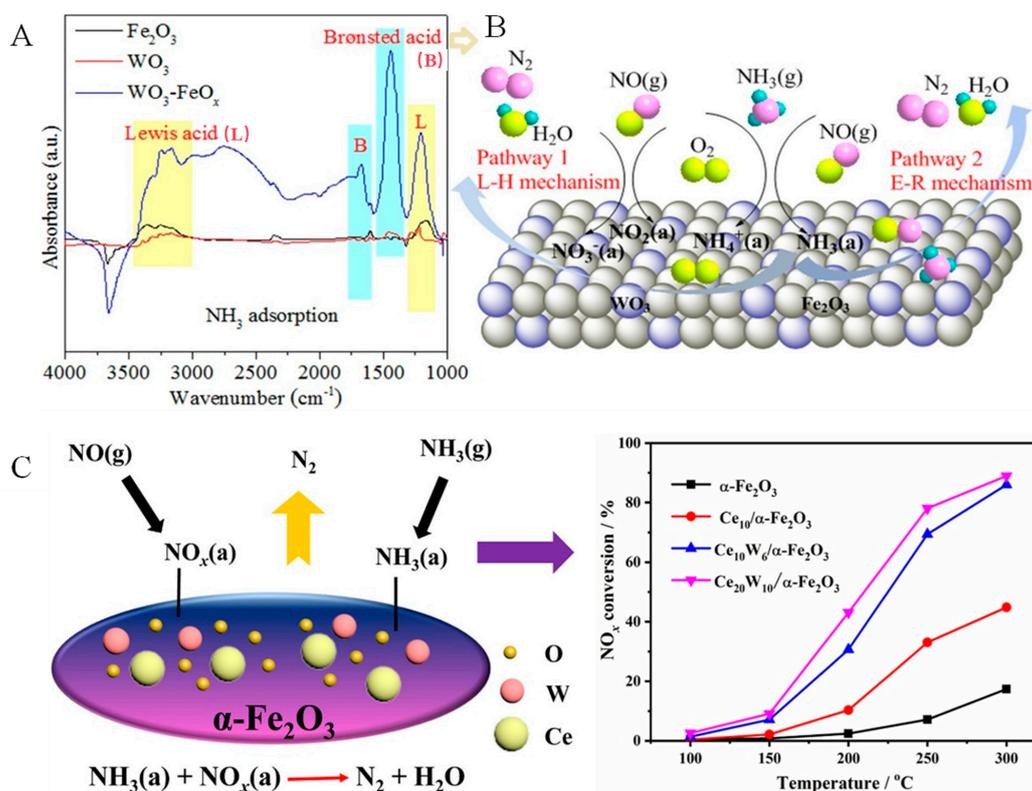
to  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ , which is related to its acidity and reducibility. The samples doped with  $\text{Ce}^{3+/4+}$  exhibited excellent redox properties but had fewer acidic sites. Meanwhile, after the introduction of  $\text{SO}_2$  and  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$ , the  $\text{Fe}_9\text{Ti}_1\text{O}_x$  catalyst achieved a  $\text{NO}_x$  conversion of 80% at 250 °C and maintained this performance for 80 h. The excellent water and sulfur resistance of the  $\text{Fe}_9\text{Ti}_1\text{O}_x$  catalyst makes it a good candidate catalyst for the SCR reaction. In addition, the sulfation and doping of Ti reduced the oxidation of  $\text{Fe}^{3+}$  and inhibited  $\text{NH}_3$  oxidation. Fan et al. prepared Ti-doped  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  ( $\text{Ti-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ ) nanoparticles [85], which showed a significant NO conversion of 80% at 250 °C under 100 ppm  $\text{SO}_2$ . The addition of  $\text{Ti}^{4+}$  resulted in the migration of electrons around  $\text{Fe}^{3+}$ , leading to electron deficiency in  $\text{Fe}^{3+}$ . As a result, electron-donating  $\text{NH}_3$  was preferentially adsorbed by  $\text{Fe}^{3+}$ , which is beneficial for enhancing the low-temperature resistance of the  $\text{Ti-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  catalyst to  $\text{SO}_2$ . Moreover, doping of the  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  catalyst with  $\text{Ti}^{4+}$  resulted in the conversion of a large number of Brønsted acid sites into Lewis acid sites. In addition, a Sm-doped  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  catalyst was successfully prepared via a citric acid assisted sol-gel method. The results showed that the reaction rate of  $\text{NO}_x$  over the  $\text{Fe}_{0.94}\text{Sm}_{0.06}\text{O}_x$  catalyst was almost 11 times that of an undoped  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  catalyst. The  $\text{Fe}_{0.94}\text{Sm}_{0.06}\text{O}_x$  catalyst maintained a  $\text{NO}_x$  conversion of >85% at 250 °C for 168 h after  $\text{SO}_2$  and  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  were introduced. The reason for the high activity and stability of the catalyst in the presence of  $\text{SO}_2+\text{H}_2\text{O}$  is that the doping of Sm promoted the decomposition of  $\text{NH}_4\text{HSO}_4$  on the catalyst surface. [86].



**Figure 5.** Decomposition of sulfates and in situ recovery on  $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3/\text{TiO}_2$  catalysts. Reprinted with permission from Ref. [78]. Copyright 2019, Elsevier B.V.

Zhang et al. [87] prepared a Cu-modified  $\text{W}/\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  catalyst, and  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  and  $\text{Fe}_2\text{CuO}_2$  supports were successfully prepared by adjusting the glucose content. The introduction of Cu prevented the growth of  $\gamma\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  crystals and the generation of  $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  crystals in addition to promoting the formation of highly dispersed  $\text{CuFe}_2\text{O}_4$ , which is beneficial for the reaction  $\text{Cu}^{2+} + \text{Fe}^{2+} \leftrightarrow \text{Cu}^+ + \text{Fe}^{3+}$ , thereby increasing its  $\text{O}_\alpha/(\text{O}_\alpha + \text{O}_\beta)$  value and redox properties and exhibiting the best  $\text{NH}_3\text{-SCR}$  catalytic performance based on a large amount of  $\text{Cu}^+$  and  $\text{Fe}^{3+}$ . Fan et al. [88] also used three-dimensional (3D) hierarchical dandelion-like  $\text{TiO}_2$  microspheres and reduced graphene oxide (rGO) as carriers to synthesize  $\text{Cu}/\text{Fe-TiO}_2\text{-rGO}$  catalysts for  $\text{NH}_3\text{-SCR}$  that exhibited good catalytic performance. The temperature window of the  $\text{Cu}_{0.4}\text{Fe}_{0.6}\text{-TiO}_2\text{-rGO}$  catalyst at 90% NO conversion was 250–350 °C. Moreover, the presence of Fe species enhanced the activity at a low temperature. In addition, there were a large number of Lewis acid sites and a small number of Brønsted acid sites on the catalyst surface, indicating that the Fe in the catalyst follows the L–H mechanism to promote the removal of  $\text{NO}_x$ . Moreover, Liu et al. [89] reported a  $\text{WO}_3$ -doped  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  catalyst for  $\text{NH}_3\text{-SCR}$ . The  $10\text{W}/\text{Fe}$  catalyst showed excellent catalytic performance, with a temperature window of 275–425 °C when the NO conversion was >90%. This result was attributed to the interaction between  $\text{WO}_3$  and  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ . The doping of  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  with

WO<sub>3</sub> enhances the acidity of the catalyst and increases its specific surface area, which is conducive to the adsorption of reactants and thus enhances the catalytic performance of the catalyst. The catalytic activity of the catalyst decreased after the introduction of SO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O, which was caused by the deposition of sulfate species. However, after the removal of SO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O from the reaction atmosphere, the catalytic activity recovered, indicating that the catalyst showed high H<sub>2</sub>O and SO<sub>2</sub> tolerance. Wang et al. reported [90] that a 30% WO<sub>3</sub>-FeO<sub>x</sub> catalyst showed high catalytic activity, with 100% NO<sub>x</sub> removal between 225 and 500 °C. The introduction of WO<sub>3</sub> promoted Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> to adsorb more oxygen. As shown in Figure 6A, in situ diffuse reflectance infrared Fourier transform spectroscopy (DRIFTS) measurements showed that the introduction of WO<sub>3</sub> increased the number of acidic sites; moreover, it also helped to form adsorbed NO<sub>x</sub> species, which explained the enhanced performance of the WO<sub>3</sub>-FeO<sub>x</sub> catalysts. It was reported that the catalyst followed E-R and L-H mechanisms (Figure 6B). Based on this, adding Ce increased the number of active oxygen atoms and the position of moderate alkalinity. Meanwhile, the addition of W significantly reduced the number of alkaline sites and increased the number of Brønsted acid sites. The addition of Ce and W was beneficial for balancing the surface acidity and alkalinity of the catalyst, which was also the reason why the catalyst exhibited excellent low-temperature SCR activity (Figure 6C) [79]. Kang et al. [91] also prepared Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>-modified CeO<sub>2</sub>-WO<sub>3</sub> catalysts for NO<sub>x</sub> reduction in the presence of SO<sub>2</sub>, which exhibited excellent SCR catalytic performance in the range of 270–420 °C. The addition of Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> increased the proportion of Ce<sup>3+</sup> and the number of surface oxygen vacancies in the catalyst. In addition, after introducing SO<sub>2</sub>, the addition of Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> inhibited sulfur poisoning and prevented the irreversible binding of SO<sub>2</sub> with active ingredients, which also explained the good SO<sub>2</sub> resistance of the catalyst.



**Figure 6.** (A,B) In situ DRIFTS result and reaction mechanism of WO<sub>3</sub>-FeO<sub>x</sub> catalysts. Reprinted with permission from Ref. [90]. Copyright 2020, Elsevier B.V. and (C) The effect of W and Ce doping Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. Reprinted with permission from Ref. [79]. Copyright 2022, Elsevier B.V.

Based on the above research, Fe-based SCR catalysts have been shown to exhibit higher activity at medium to high temperatures, as shown in Table 4, but their low-temperature

activity is not ideal and needs to be further improved. Therefore, modified Fe-based catalysts are particularly important for enhancing low-temperature catalytic performance and N<sub>2</sub> selectivity.

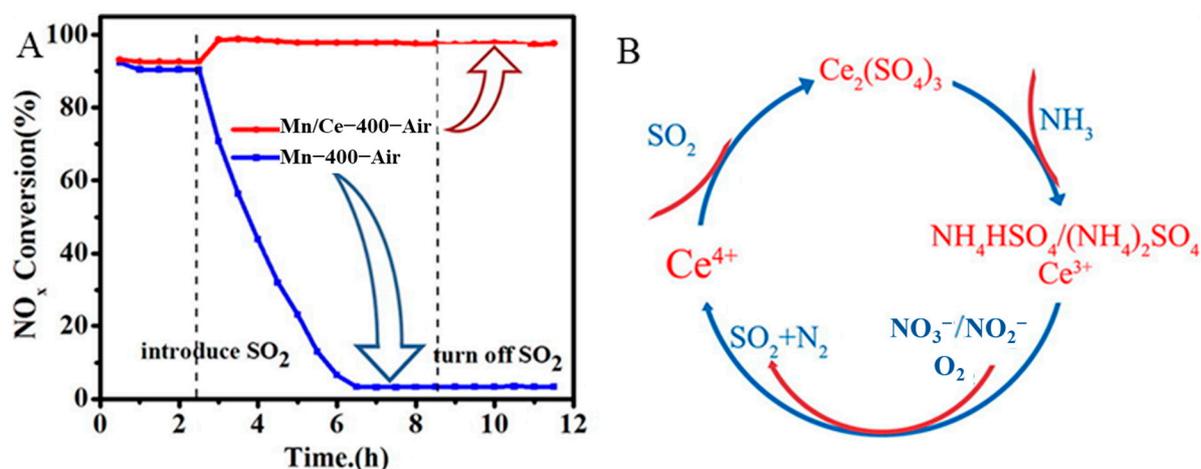
**Table 4.** The catalytic performances of Fe-based catalysts for NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR reaction in reported the literature.

Catalysts	Feed Composition					GHSV (h <sup>-1</sup> )	Conversion (Corresponding Temperature Window)	Ref.
	NO (ppm)	NH <sub>3</sub> (ppm)	O <sub>2</sub> (vol%)	SO <sub>2</sub> (ppm)	H <sub>2</sub> O (vol%)			
6FeSCe	500	500	5	-	-	118,000	>90% (300–450 °C)	[77]
	500	500	5	50	5		85% (300 °C)	
FeTi	500	500	4	-	-	60,000	>90% (350–450 °C)	[78]
	500	500	5	-	-		>95% (175–325 °C)	
Fe <sub>0.93</sub> Ce <sub>0.07</sub> O <sub>x</sub>	500	500	5	200	5	90,000	93% (250 °C)	[80]
	500	500	3	-	-		96% (230 °C)	
γ-Fe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> -FM	500	500	3	-	-	30,000	79% (230 °C)	[81]
	500	500	3	300	-		>80% (150–350 °C)	
Fe <sub>9</sub> Ti <sub>1</sub> O <sub>x</sub>	500	500	5	-	-	60,000	>95% (175–325 °C)	[84]
	500	500	5	-	-		93% (250 °C)	
Fe <sub>0.94</sub> Sm <sub>0.06</sub> O <sub>x</sub>	500	500	5	200	5	60,000	85% (250 °C)	[86]
	500	500	5	-	-		>90% (275–425 °C)	
10W/Fe	500	500	5	-	-	100,000	90% (350 °C)	[89]
	500	500	5	50	5		100% (250–500 °C)	
0.3W-Fe	600	600	5	-	-	60,000	90% (250 °C)	[90]
	600	600	5	100	10		>96% (270–420 °C)	
Fe(4)@CeW/H	500	500	5	-	-	40,000	82% (300 °C)	[91]
	500	500	5	100	8			

### 3.4. Ce-Based Catalyst

Cerium oxide has unique advantages in the NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR reactions due to its excellent capacity for storing and releasing oxygen [92,93], good redox performance [94,95], and strong NO<sub>x</sub> and NH<sub>3</sub> adsorption capabilities [96,97]. However, undoped CeO<sub>2</sub> catalysts exhibit poor SCR activity and SO<sub>2</sub> resistance at <200 °C. The presence of SO<sub>2</sub> results in the formation of NH<sub>4</sub>H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>, Ce<sub>2</sub>(SO<sub>4</sub>)<sub>3</sub>, and Ce(SO<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub> on Ce-based catalysts [98]. NH<sub>4</sub>H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> blocks the active sites and reduces the activity of the catalysts. Ce(SO<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub> and Ce<sub>2</sub>(SO<sub>4</sub>)<sub>3</sub> inhibit the formation and adsorption of nitrate, disrupting the Ce<sup>3+</sup>/Ce<sup>4+</sup> redox cycle and leading to deactivation of the catalyst, which greatly limits the application of CeO<sub>2</sub> [99,100]. Adding other active components to CeO<sub>2</sub> can effectively resolve these issues. A good interaction between Ce and Mn endows them with good redox properties and denitration performance, as well as sulfur resistance [101,102]. Compared with a single-oxide catalyst, MnO<sub>x</sub>-CeO<sub>2</sub> has been shown to exhibit higher activity for NO oxidation, which is due to its higher oxygen mobility and stronger reducibility [103]. Therefore, Ce-Mn composite oxide catalysts have been widely applied for NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR reactions. Qi et al. reported, for the first time, that a 30 wt% Mn/70 wt% Ce exhibited excellent SCR activity at low temperatures [104]. Gao et al. [105] synthesized Mn/CeO<sub>2</sub> catalysts and studied their catalytic activity. The results showed that the Mn/CeO<sub>2</sub> catalyst exhibited high activity, with a NO<sub>x</sub> conversion of 100% at 150–240 °C. Moreover, it was also reported that Mn-Ce composite oxides exhibited excellent low-temperature SCR catalytic performance, with a temperature window of 150–310 °C at >90% NO<sub>x</sub> conversion [106]. It is worth noting that the Mn-Ce composite oxide exhibited good SO<sub>2</sub> resistance, with the NO<sub>x</sub> conversion of the catalyst increasing from 92.6% to 97.8% at 150 °C in the presence of 200 ppm SO<sub>2</sub> (Figure 7A). In the presence of SO<sub>2</sub> in the reaction atmosphere, the NH<sub>3</sub> adsorption sites of the active component separated from the oxidant, inhibiting the oxidation of NH<sub>3</sub> (Figure 7B). In addition, a prepared Mn<sub>x</sub>Ce<sub>y</sub> binary catalyst with a 3D network structure also exhibited good catalytic performance, which was attributed to the rich pore structure of the catalyst being conducive to gas diffusion and promoting the NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR reaction. Among them, the Mn<sub>1</sub>Ce<sub>1</sub> catalyst showed the best denitrification properties, with a NO conversion of 97% at 180 °C [107]. Lin et al. also studied MnO<sub>x</sub>-CeO<sub>2</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> catalysts for the NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR reaction, with the catalysts exhibiting excellent low-temperature catalytic performance for the NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR due to the large differences in radii; Mn atoms can enter lattice CeO<sub>2</sub> to form

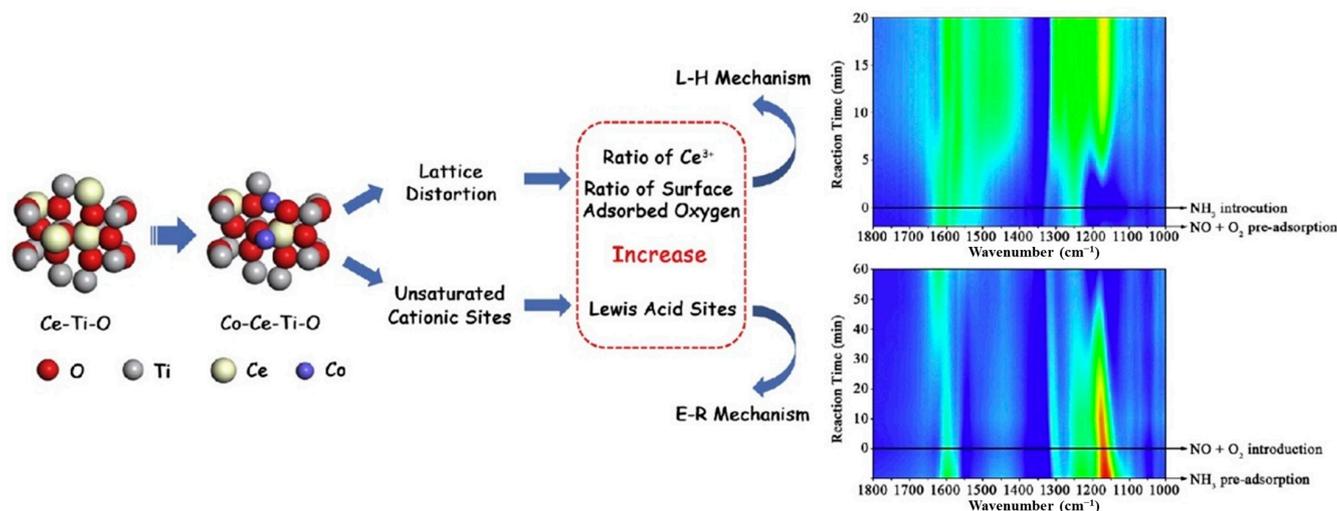
a MnCeO<sub>x</sub> solid solution structure, which improved the redox performance of the catalyst. Moreover, the presence of abundant Mn<sup>4+</sup> and Ce<sup>3+</sup> on the catalyst surface generated more active oxygen [108].



**Figure 7.** (A) NO conversion of MnCe composite oxide catalyst in the presence of SO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O. (B) The mechanism of SO<sub>2</sub>-poisoning over MnCe composite oxide catalyst. Reprinted with permission from Ref. [106]. Copyright 2021, Elsevier B.V.

In addition to manganese, the doping of the catalysts with other metals can also improve their denitration activities. Wang et al. [109] prepared WO<sub>3</sub>/CeO<sub>2</sub> catalysts, which exhibited excellent SCR performance due to the strong interaction between W and Ce. It was also reported that W–Ce composite metal-oxide catalysts loaded with different W/Ce content were prepared via a coprecipitation method, which had a significant impact on the surface acidity, especially the number of Brønsted acid sites, with W<sub>0.18</sub>CeO<sub>x</sub> exhibiting the best NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR performance at 190–490 °C for 100% NO<sub>x</sub> conversion, while still maintaining a wide active temperature window from 235 to 460 °C when treated with 5% H<sub>2</sub>O at high temperature for 12 h [110]. Yao et al. [111] developed TiO<sub>2</sub>/CeO<sub>2</sub> nanocubes and nanorods for the effective reduction of NO<sub>x</sub>. It was speculated that the strong interaction between the (110) plane of the CeO<sub>2</sub> nanorods and highly dispersed TiO<sub>2</sub> may have contributed to the improvement in the activation and reduction behavior of chemically adsorbed oxygen. Moreover, Liu et al. [112] prepared Co-, Cu-, and Fe-doped Ce-Ti mixed oxides, and improved the low-temperature SCR activity of the catalysts. Among the tested samples, Co-Ce-Ti catalysts exhibited the best SCR activity and the widest temperature window at low temperatures. This may be due to the different ionic sizes of Co<sup>2+</sup> and Ce<sup>4+</sup>, which greatly promote the lattice distortion of Ce-Ti mixed oxides. Subsequently, the proportion of Ce<sup>3+</sup> to surface adsorbed oxygen increased, which was conducive to the generation of adsorbed NO<sub>x</sub> species and to improving the L-H reaction. Meanwhile, the coordination of unsaturated cation sites on the Co-Ce-Ti samples induced the adsorption of more NH<sub>3</sub> at Lewis acid sites. It is considered to be key in the E-R mechanism, thereby promoting a reaction that follows the E-R mechanism. The enhancement in the reaction via the L-H and E-R mechanisms seemed to be directly related to an improvement in the denitration performance of the Co-Ce-Ti samples, and the L-H mechanism at low temperatures may have been the main mechanism due to its fast reaction rate (Figure 8). In addition, Ce-Cu composite oxides have attracted research attention due to the interaction of Ce and Cu in the oxidation reaction. However, even during mild heat treatment, deactivation of Ce-Cu composite oxides may occur. This deactivation may be due to the high migration rate over Cu and the sensitivity of CeO<sub>2</sub> to thermal damage, leading to the formation of Cu<sub>x</sub>O<sub>y</sub> clusters [113,114]. Therefore, developing more heat-resistant Ce-Cu composite oxides is the most important step in the application of CeCu composite oxides in the SCR processes [115–117]. In further research, among the Co-, Mn-, and Cu-modified Ce-W-Ti

catalysts, the temperature range of Cu/Ce-W-Ti catalysts with 5 wt.% Cu was 260–400 °C at a NO<sub>x</sub> conversion of >90%. The catalysts also exhibited higher SO<sub>2</sub> and water vapor resistance, which may be attributed to the highly dispersed Cu species, in addition to the higher Ce<sup>3+</sup> and active oxygen contents of the catalysts [118]. In addition, Li et al. [119] reported novel ternary CeNbVO catalysts for NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR. The prepared CeNbVO catalysts exhibited high NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR activity, where among them the temperature window of CeNbVO-2 was 210–420 °C for a NO conversion of >90%. The excellent catalytic performance of the catalyst was attributed to its appropriate acidity and redox properties. Moreover, this catalyst showed better H<sub>2</sub>O/SO<sub>2</sub> resistance than the other tested catalysts.



**Figure 8.** The effect of Co over Co-Ce-Ti catalyst on the E-R and L-H mechanism. Reprinted with permission from Ref. [112]. Copyright 2017, Elsevier B.V.

Based on the above research, progress has been made in the study of Ce-based catalysts for NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR. Among them, Mn-Ce composite oxide catalysts showed the best SCR activity. However, for further applications, the temperature window at high NO conversion, N<sub>2</sub> selectivity, and stability of Mn-Ce composite oxides still need to be further improved. In addition, the catalytic mechanism of Ce-based catalysts is relatively complex and further research on this is required.

### 3.5. Cu-Based Catalyst

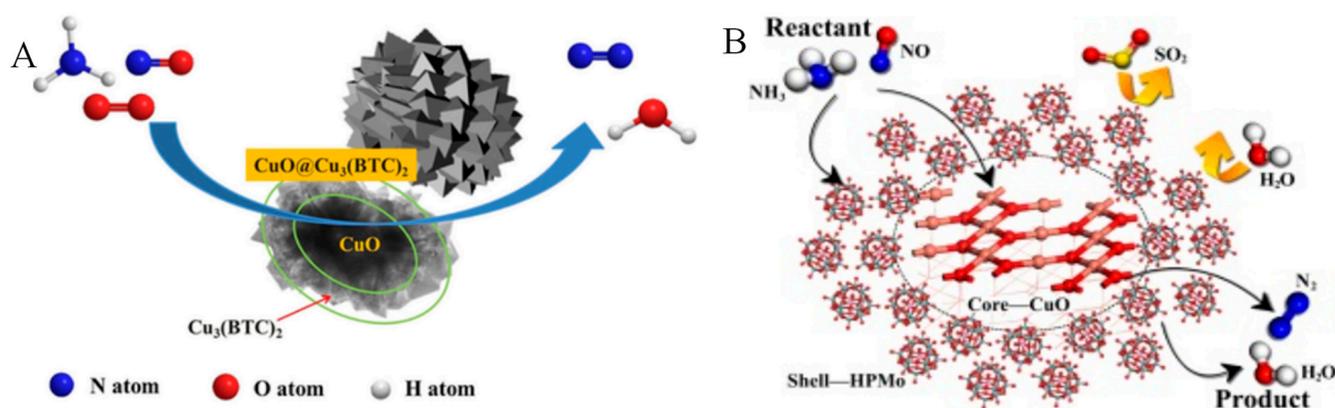
The Cu-based catalysts are widely applied in the NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR reaction and feature Cu<sup>2+</sup>/Cu<sup>+</sup>, which is both an oxidation–reduction and acidic site [120]. Usually, an undoped CuO catalyst exhibits poor SCR catalytic performance compared with modified Cu-based catalysts. Yu et al. prepared a series of CuO–V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> catalysts for the SCR of NO with NH<sub>3</sub> and found that the addition of the Cu species promoted the production of more V<sup>4+</sup> and chemisorbed oxygen in the V-Ti catalysts, resulting in enhanced NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR catalytic performance [121]. Wang et al. [122] reported that the addition of copper in the V/Ti catalysts enhanced the number of acidic sites and active oxygen species on the catalyst and promoted good redox properties. Zheng et al. also studied the SCR performance of CuV/Ti catalysts and found that the NO conversion of the CuV/Ti catalysts reached 100% in the range of 220–330 °C with excellent N<sub>2</sub> selectivity. This is because the addition of CuO transformed the V/Ti catalyst from a single active center (V) to a dual active center (V + Cu) [123]. From this, it can be seen that CuO is a good additive for V-Ti catalytic systems. Moreover, Raja et al. [124] also reported TiO<sub>2</sub>–carbon nanotube (CNT) loaded MnO<sub>x</sub>–CuO catalysts for the NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR of NO at low temperatures, and it was found that the addition of Cu improved the catalytic activity of the catalyst. Different Cu loadings had different effects on the SCR performance. The catalyst with 5 wt% Cu content was found to be the most active catalyst. Even in the presence of 200 ppm SO<sub>2</sub>, the temperature window

for the Mn-Cu<sub>5</sub>/Ti-CNTs for >90% NO conversion was still the widest at 200–300 °C, which was related to the increasing content of Mn<sup>4+</sup> and chemical adsorption on the surface of the catalyst as a result of Cu loading. Researchers have also developed a new type of Mo-doped CuO catalyst for the low-temperature NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR reaction. The NO<sub>x</sub> conversion of a CuO catalyst doped with Mo was reported to be >80% at 175 °C. Mo doping into the CuO lattice forms Mo-O-Cu species, improving the adsorption of NH<sub>3</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub> and promoting the formation of oxygen vacancies, which are important factors in promoting the SCR activity [125]. In addition, the sulfated Cu-based catalyst also exhibited excellent catalytic performance and sulfur resistance in the NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR reaction.

A Cu-based catalyst surface sulfated by SO<sub>2</sub> forms new acidic sites, which inhibit the oxidation of NH<sub>3</sub> and enhance its resistance to SO<sub>2</sub>. Yu et al. [126] prepared CuSO<sub>4</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> catalysts with different CuSO<sub>4</sub> loading amounts (0–20 wt%). The effect of the copper(II) sulfate content on the catalytic activity was investigated. A high CuSO<sub>4</sub> loading was shown to be beneficial for the interaction between CuSO<sub>4</sub> and TiO<sub>2</sub>. With an increase in CuSO<sub>4</sub> loading, the activity of the catalyst was significantly improved at <340 °C, however, the oxidation of NH<sub>3</sub> was also enhanced at >340 °C. A novel Cu-Ce-S catalyst was prepared by Shi et al. for the NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR [127], where the S and Cu originated from CuSO<sub>4</sub>. The NO<sub>x</sub> conversion of the 3% Cu-Ce-S catalyst decreased by only 3% in the presence of H<sub>2</sub>O and SO<sub>2</sub> due to the Cu<sup>2+</sup> being doped into the CeO<sub>2</sub> lattice. During the reaction, SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> preferentially connected with Cu<sup>2+</sup>, protecting the active site of Ce<sup>4+</sup>. The Cu<sup>2+</sup> ↔ Cu<sup>+</sup> and Ce<sup>4+</sup> ↔ Ce<sup>3+</sup> redox cycles also enhanced the activity of the catalyst.

In addition to modifying Cu-based catalysts, special structures can also be designed to improve catalytic performance. Cu-based catalysts with a core-shell structure have been extensively studied for the SCR of NO<sub>x</sub> by NH<sub>3</sub>. Cu-based catalysts with a core-shell structure can achieve a dynamic equilibrium between NH<sub>3</sub> oxidation and NO<sub>x</sub> reduction. Generated NO and NO<sub>2</sub> can diffuse from the core and react with NH<sub>3</sub> to form N<sub>2</sub>, reducing the formation of the by-product N<sub>2</sub>O. Yu et al. [128] designed and synthesized a CuO@Cu-MOF core-shell catalyst with CuO as the core and Cu<sub>3</sub>(BTC)<sub>2</sub> as the shell via an in situ growth method for the NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR reaction (Figure 9A). The CuO core in the catalyst exhibited excellent NO adsorption performance and reducibility, while the Cu<sub>3</sub>(BTC)<sub>2</sub> shell also featured a large number of acidic sites. This material with abundant acidic sites and NO<sub>x</sub> intermediate species promoted the low-temperature NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR reaction. In addition, the CuO@Cu-MOF also showed satisfactory stability, making it a promising low-temperature SCR catalyst. In addition, the core-shell structure also prevented the low-temperature activity of the catalyst from being affected by SO<sub>2</sub> and water vapor. This new type of titanium dioxide-supported copper-doped phosphomolybdic acid (Cu-HPMo) was studied by Jiang et al. [129] As shown in Figure 9B, the Cu is the core and HPMo is the shell. The results show that when the Cu/Mo molar ratio is three, the Cu(3)-HPMo/TiO<sub>2</sub> catalyst shows the best SCR performance, with a denitrification efficiency of ≥99% at 200 °C, which does not decrease in the presence of 200 ppm SO<sub>2</sub> and 4 × 10<sup>4</sup> ppm H<sub>2</sub>O. This indicates that strong acidity inhibits SO<sub>2</sub> adsorption and exhibits good resistance to SO<sub>2</sub>. According to density functional theory calculation results, SO<sub>2</sub> is not chemisorbed on the HPMo surface, indicating that the catalyst with this structure exhibited the best sulfur resistance.

Based on the above research, modified Cu-based catalysts exhibit enhanced SCR catalytic performance. However, the operating temperature window for high NO conversion over Cu-based catalysts is relatively narrow, which is an important issue that needs to be resolved so that Cu-based oxide catalysts can be practically used. In addition, the low-temperature SCR activity of Cu-based oxide catalysts needs to be further improved.



**Figure 9.** Schematic diagram of reaction mechanism of CuO@Cu-MOF (A) and Cu-HPMo (B) core-shell structure catalysts [128,129]. (A) Reprinted with permission from Ref. [128]. Copyright 2019, Wiley-VCH. (B) Reprinted with permission from Ref. [129]. Copyright 2020, Elsevier B.V.

#### 4. The Stability of the SCR Catalyst

SCR devices are usually placed downstream of the diesel particulate filter (DPF), and therefore denitration catalysts need to be able to withstand the temperature of the DPF regeneration. Thus, it can be seen that improving the high-temperature stability of denitration catalysts is of great significance for diesel exhaust aftertreatment systems. The important factor that affects the high-temperature resistance of the catalyst is its surface acidity. Therefore, the high-temperature resistance of catalysts is generally enhanced by increasing their surface acidity. Acidic oxides, such as WO<sub>3</sub> and ZrO<sub>2</sub>, are considered to be the optimal materials for improving high-temperature stability [130]. Chen et al. [131] prepared W-Zr-O<sub>x</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> catalysts for the NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR via a precipitation method. The loading of W-Zr-O<sub>x</sub> resulted in having more acidic sites on the catalyst surface, better redox performance, and a higher proportion of oxygen vacancies, thereby improving the high-temperature activity of the catalyst. It has also been found that the interaction between WO<sub>3</sub> and ZrO<sub>2</sub> can improve the surface acidity and redox performance of a catalyst, which is beneficial to its excellent performance at high temperatures. Feng et al. [132] used different methods to prepare W-Zr-ZSM-5 catalysts, among which catalysts with rich acidic sites and excellent redox properties exhibited better deNO<sub>x</sub> performance at high temperatures. In addition, cerium(IV) oxide, as an additive, formed a Ti-Ce-O<sub>x</sub> catalyst with Ti and significantly improved the catalytic activity and thermal stability of the TiO<sub>2</sub> catalyst support. After high-temperature treatment for 24 h, the catalytic activity of Ti-Ce-O<sub>x</sub>-500 remained unchanged at 400 °C. This excellent catalytic performance and stability were attributed to its high specific surface area, in addition to its abundant acidic sites and active oxygen species. In addition, cerium atoms have been shown to prevent grain growth and protect the pore structure of catalysts at high temperatures [133].

However, when a diesel engine is cold started or operated under low engine load, there are also requirements for the low-temperature catalytic performance of denitration catalysts. Currently, the low-temperature activity of denitration catalysts is usually improved by adding metal oxides. Among them, Mn-based catalysts exhibit high low-temperature activity due to their variable valence states and excellent redox properties. However, the operating temperature window for high NO conversion over MnO<sub>x</sub> is relatively narrow and the water- and sulfur-resistant performance needs to be improved (see Section 3.2 for details).

#### 5. Conclusions and Outlook

NO<sub>x</sub>, as one of the main pollutants in diesel vehicle exhaust, seriously endangers the atmospheric environment and human health. Therefore, the elimination of NO<sub>x</sub> has become the focus of research. At present, the most effective and widely used technology for controlling NO<sub>x</sub> from diesel vehicle exhaust is NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR technology. This paper introduced

the reactions that existed in the NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR reaction process and their relationships. And the research progress of metal oxide catalysts for the NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR reaction was also described, mainly including V-based catalysts, Mn-based catalysts, Fe-based catalysts, Ce-based catalysts, and Cu-based catalysts. V-based catalysts as mature commercial catalysts were studied earlier. Mn-based catalysts have the best low-temperature SCR performance. The Fe-based catalysts, Ce-based catalysts and Cu-based catalysts with good catalytic performance have also attracted attention. However, there are still many problems and challenges in the application of metal oxide catalysts for NO<sub>x</sub> control, and further research is needed. Therefore, the following issues need to be addressed in future research on metal oxide catalysts:

- (1) The metal oxide catalysts have disadvantages, such as narrow operating temperature windows basically within the low or medium-low temperature range and poor N<sub>2</sub> selectivity. Therefore, modifying catalysts to enhance their NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR catalytic performance is the main focus of future research.
- (2) The presence of H<sub>2</sub>O and SO<sub>2</sub> are definite in diesel vehicle exhaust and metal oxides can easily react with them to deactivate the catalyst, therefore, improving the hydrothermal stability and SO<sub>2</sub> tolerance of the catalyst remains the major factor of the SCR technology.
- (3) Further research needs to be focused on the reaction mechanisms of sulfur dioxide and water poisoning processes for catalysts. The studies of catalyst poisoning mechanisms cannot determine the process of catalyst poisoning only through in situ characterization technology. The synchrotron-radiation, theoretical calculations, and isotopic tracer techniques should also be considered to fully explain the mechanisms of the catalyst poisoning process.
- (4) The injection of NH<sub>3</sub> is a major component of the SCR device, but there may be blockages in the NH<sub>3</sub> injection on occasion and the NH<sub>3</sub> amount is imprecise. Therefore, optimizing the injection way and accurately controlling the injection amount will be one of the important goals.

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