

Nitrogen-Doped, Metal-Free Activated Carbon Catalysts for Aerobic Oxidation of Alcohols

Hiroyuki Watanabe, Sayaka Asano, Shin-ichiro Fujita, Hiroshi Yoshida, and Masahiko Arai*

Division of Chemical Process Engineering, Faculty of Engineering, Hokkaido University, Sapporo 060-8628, Japa[n](#page-7-0)

S Supporting Information

[AB](#page-7-0)STRACT: [Various nitro](#page-7-0)gen-doped carbon materials were prepared via treatments of an activated carbon (AC) with ammonia and hydrogen peroxide, and their catalytic performance was tested for aerobic oxidation of several alcohols in ethanol. The amount and nature of doped nitrogen-species were examined by X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy to discuss the genesis of active species by nitrogen doping. The nitrogendoped AC catalysts are active for the oxidation of such alcohols

as benzyl alcohol, cinnamyl alcohol, and 5-(hydroxymethyl)-2-furaldehyde, and in some cases, they are even more selective to the oxidation of the hydroxyl group compared with conventional Pt/C and Ru/C catalysts, for which coupling products with the ethanol solvent are formed at low conversion levels. Graphite-type doped nitrogen species are significant for the formation of active sites on the surface of AC. The present results demonstrate the potential of nitrogen-doped AC materials as metal-free, carbon-based catalysts useable for organic synthetic reactions.

KEYWORDS: activated carbon, nitrogen doping, metal-free carbon catalyst, oxidation, alcohol

1. INTRODUCTION

Nitrogen-doped carbon and carbon nitride are interesting functional materials that may be useful as electrochemical and chemical catalysts and supports for transition metal catalysts.^{1−4} Those carbon-based materials can be prepared in different methods; for example, chemical vapor deposition, well-desig[ned](#page-8-0) organic synthesis, and doping of nitrogen to parent bulk carbon materials. In addition to their effectiveness in electrochemical applications, those carbon-based materials will serve as metalfree catalysts in synthetic organic reactions. For example, Thomas et al. indicate that their well-designed synthetic carbon nitride materials can catalyze Friedel−Craft and cyclization reactions.^{1,5,6} Jin et al.⁷ and Xu et al.⁸ show porous carbon nitride materials, prepared using porous silica materials as template[s, to](#page-8-0) be active [fo](#page-8-0)r Knonevenag[el](#page-8-0) and transesterification reactions, which are usually catalyzed by base catalysts. Bitter et al.⁹ and Wang et al.¹⁰ used chemical vapor deposition using nitrogen-containing compounds (nitriles, pyridine, amines) to pr[e](#page-8-0)pare nitrogen-d[op](#page-8-0)ed carbon nanotubes. These were observed to be active catalysts for Knoevenagel condensation. Bitter et al. suggest the importance of pyridine type doped nitrogen species for the genesis of catalytic activity.⁹ A theoretical study indicates that carbon atoms at edge sites of graphite sheets may interact with oxygen molecules with th[e](#page-8-0) aid of adjacent doped nitrogen atoms, and the nitrogen-doped carbon can then work in a way similar to that of Pt metal, 11 resulting in a good performance as a Pt-free electrode in proton-exchange membrane fuel cells.^{12,13}

The present authors doped nitrogen to an activated carbon (AC) by treating in a mixture o[f am](#page-8-0)monia and air at temperatures of 400−800 °C. The nitrogen-doped AC

materials are active catalysts for liquid-phase reactions, including Knoevenagel condensation; 14 transesterification; 14 chemoselective reduction of nitrobenzene, styrene, and 3 nitrostyrene with hy[d](#page-8-0)razine;^{15,16} and aerobic oxidation [of](#page-8-0) xanthene,¹⁷ which are catalyzed by bases, metals, and metal oxides.¹⁸ On the basis of X[-ray](#page-8-0) photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) [mea](#page-8-0)surements and reaction runs with melamine, pyridi[ne,](#page-8-0) and 2-pyridone, 17 Fujita et al. suggest that, for the oxidation of xanthene, pyridine-type N species in a large graphitic sheet is import[ant](#page-8-0) for the activity of nitrogen-doped AC catalysts. Recently, Liao et al. have reported that the liquid phase aerobic oxidation of cumene to cumene hydroperoxide can effectively be catalyzed by metal-free carbon nanotube materials synthesized by chemical vapor deposition using mixtures of xylene and aniline¹⁹ and heat treatment of commercial carbon nanotubes with nitric acid.²⁰ They suggest the significance of interactions bet[we](#page-8-0)en hydroperoxide cumene and the surface of nitrogen-doped carbon na[not](#page-8-0)ubes for their high catalytic activity.¹⁹ Those results indicate the importance of nitrogen and oxygen species doped on the surface of carbon materials for the catal[yti](#page-8-0)c performance observed,^{14−20} but their chemical structure and role in the catalysis are still not clear in depth. Their catalytic activity depends on the co[nd](#page-8-0)i[tio](#page-8-0)ns of the nitrogen doping to AC; in our cases, conditions such as ammonia concentration and treatment temperature, which change the amount and nature of the nitrogen species doped on its surface.^{14−17} Long et al. investigated the catalysis of

Received: De[cembe](#page-8-0)r 16, 2014 Revised: March 19, 2015 Published: March 23, 2015

nitrogen-doped graphene nanosheets for aerobic oxidation of benzyl alcohol and a few other benzylic alcohols.²¹ They reported that the graphite-type nitrogen species contributed to the formation of active sites; they also discussed the [re](#page-8-0)action mechanisms. Recently, nitrogen-containing graphene-based catalysts were applied for oxidation reactions using hydrogen peroxide and *tert*-butyl hydroperoxide as oxidants.^{22–24}

Thus, one can say that the nitrogen-doped metal-free carbon materials would be promising catalysts for orga[nic sy](#page-8-0)nthetic reactions, which could replace conventional base, metal, and metal oxide catalysts. After considering the previous results obtained thus far, it is still desirable to test their catalytic activity for other synthetic reactions and to make an effort at clarifying the active sites in more detail. Using a porous bulk material of AC, we undertook the present work to investigate the potential of nitrogen-doped AC materials for aerobic oxidation of several alcohols, an industrially important reaction, and the nature of doped nitrogen species involved in active sites through surface characterization by XPS. The catalyst recyclability has also been examined because it is one of the merits of using heterogeneous catalysts in organic synthetic reactions. Furthermore, conventional carbon-supported Pt and Ru catalysts have also been used for the oxidation reactions, and the features of the metalfree, nitrogen-doped AC catalysts have been compared with those of the supported noble metal catalysts.

2. EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

2.1. Preparation of Nitrogen-Doped Carbon. A commercial AC powder (GL Science Co.) was used as a starting carbon source and treated in the following procedures.^{14,15} About 500 mg of AC sample was set in a quartz tube reactor, and an $NH₃$ stream of pure $NH₃$ or a mixture of $NH₃$ (90%) in air was passed over the sample at 100 cm^3 min⁻¹ for 30 min. The reactor was heated at 10 °C min⁻¹ up to a certain temperature lower by 100 °C than the desired temperature and then at 5 °C min[−]¹ up to the desired temperature, at which the sample was treated in the $NH₃$ stream for 1 h. The AC sample was cooled in the same $NH₃$ stream to 300 $^{\circ}$ C, and after switching the NH₃ stream to pure N_2 , the sample was further cooled to room temperature. The AC powder was also treated by 30% hydrogen peroxide: 300 mg of AC powder was dispersed in 15 cm³ of 30% hydrogen peroxide, and the mixture was treated in a Teflon tubular reactor in a stainless steel autoclave at 100 or 130 °C for 5 h while being stirred by a magnetic stirrer. After the treatment, the AC powder was cooled to room temperature, separated by filtration, washed with anhydrate ethanol (Wako), and dried under ambient conditions and then at 100 °C overnight. In some cases, AC powder was treated by the hydrogen peroxide followed by the $NH₃$ treatment.

For comparison, commercially available carbon-supported noble metal catalysts, 5 wt % Pt/C and 5 wt % Ru/C (Wako), were also used. The degree of metal dispersion measured by CO chemisorption (BEL-METAL-1) was 0.25 for the former and 0.56 for the latter. The CO pulse chemisorption was measured after pretreatment with H_2 at 100 °C for 30 min and then with He at 110 °C for 30 min. A stoichiometry of metal/ $CO = 1/1$ was assumed.

2.2. Characterization of Carbon-Based Catalysts. The textural properties of AC materials prepared were measured by N_2 adsorption/desorption on Quantachrome NOVA 100.^{14,15} The specific surface area was determined by the Brunauer-Emmet−Teller equation. The surface of nitrogen-doped [AC](#page-8-0) samples was examined by XPS (JEOL JPS-9200) using monochromatic Al K α radiation.^{14,15} A pelletized AC sample on an iridium foil was subjected to the XPS measurement without any pretreatment, and t[he ch](#page-8-0)arge-up shift corrections of binding energies were made by reference to C_{1s} of 284.0 eV.

2.3. Aerobic Oxidation of Alcohols. The catalytic performance of those nitrogen-doped AC samples was tested for liquid phase aerobic oxidation of alcohols according to similar procedures as described previously.¹⁶ The reaction runs were conducted in a Teflon tube in a stainless steel reactor (100 cm^3), which was loaded with 1 mmol su[bst](#page-8-0)rate, 100 mg ACbased catalyst, and 5 cm^3 ethanol (solvent) and closed. Air in the reactor, its pressure being 0.1 MPa at room temperature, was used as an oxidant. The other reaction conditions used (temperature and time) will be indicated later. The reaction mixture was analyzed by a gas chromatograph (GL Science GC-390B) with a high-resolution capillary column (30 m, 0.25 mm o.d., 0.25 μ m i.d.) packed with TC-WAX and a flame ionization detector. The substrates used were benzyl alcohol, cinnamyl alcohol, 3-phenyl-1-propanol, 1-heptanol, cyclohexylmethanol, and 5-(hydroxymethyl)-2-furaldehyde, the former four compounds being purchased from Wako, and the latter two, from Aldrich. These substrates were used as received.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Various nitrogen-doped AC catalyst samples were prepared under different conditions given in Table 1, which includes the

^aFirst: AC was treated in H_2O_2 at temperatures given for 5 h. Second: AC was then treated in a stream of $NH₃$ and/or air at temperatures given for 1 h. ^bReaction conditions: substrate 1.1 mmol, catalyst 100 mg, solvent (ethanol) 5 cm³, temperature 120 °C, time 5 h. ^cNot measured.

results of their BET surface area measurements. The treatment with 90% $NH₃$ and 10% air burned off AC to some extent. The weight loss was found to be 27% by the treatment at 800 °C and smaller at lower temperatures. Note that the surface area is not a significant factor determining the catalytic performance.^{14,17} These samples were applied for aerobic oxidation of benzyl alcohol, cinnamyl alcohol, and others. In addition, the resul[ts w](#page-8-0)ith the nitrogen-doped AC catalysts were compared with those with conventional carbon-supported noble metal

catalysts of 5 wt % Ru/C and 5 wt % Pt/C , for which the degree of metal dispersion was 0.56 and 0.25, respectively, measured by CO chemisorption.

3.1. Oxidation of Benzyl Alcohol. The results of benzyl alcohol oxidation (Scheme 1) with various nitrogen-doped AC

Scheme 1. Oxidation of Benzyl Alcohol to Benzaldehyde

catalysts are also given in Table 1. Under the conditions used, benzaldehyde was observed to form without any other byproducts, and no reaction occ[ur](#page-1-0)red in the absence of catalyst (blank test). The parent and H_2O_2 -treated AC samples were less active (1–3). A sample treated with NH₃ at 800 °C was a little active (4). When AC was treated by H_2O_2 followed by NH₃, the oxidation activity was enhanced significantly $(6-8)$, and a maximum conversion of 23% was obtained with the AC catalyst prepared through the H_2O_2 treatment at 130 °C and the subsequent one with NH₃ at 800 °C (8). The other AC catalysts prepared with 90% $NH₃$ were less active (9, 10), and those prepared through the treatments with H_2O_2 and 90% NH₃ were moderately active $(11-13)$. Thus, the catalyst preparation conditions were crucial for determining the oxidation activity of AC-based catalysts. The large difference in the catalytic performance observed cannot be explained by that in the BET surface area (Table 1).

The surface of those AC samples was examined by XPS, and three different nitrogen species [we](#page-1-0)re detected: pyridine-, pyrrole-, and graphite-type nitrogen species (Figure $1)$.^{21,25−28} The XPS results measured with samples 4–13 are

Figure 1. A typical N 1s XPS spectrum showing the presence of pyridine-type (a), pyrrole-type (b), and graphite-type (c) nitrogen species doped on the surface of a nitrogen-doped AC catalyst, 8.

presented in the Supporting Information (SI; Figure S1). Figure 2 shows the surface concentration of these three different nitrogen s[pecies doped on the surf](http://pubs.acs.org/doi/suppl/10.1021/acscatal.5b00375/suppl_file/cs5b00375_si_001.pdf)ace of various ACbased catalysts (4−13 of Table 1). No XPS analysis was made for the AC samples 1–3 that were not treated by NH_3 . The conversion of benzyl alcohol [me](#page-1-0)asured is plotted against the amounts of those different nitrogen species in Figure 3. The amount of a certain nitrogen species in a carbon sample was estimated by the product of the surface concentration [\(](#page-3-0)mole fraction) of the nitrogen species measured by XPS and the BET surface area of the sample $(m^2 g^{-1})$. The conversion cannot be

Figure 2. Composition of nitrogen species, pyridine-type (a), pyrroletype (b), and graphite-type (c) on the surface of nitrogen-doped AC catalyst samples. No XPS analysis was made for samples 1−3 given in Table 1, which were parent AC and AC samples treated with H_2O_2 but not with NH₃.

correlated with the amount of either pyridine-type or pyrroletype nitrogen species, but there is a good relationship with the amount of graphite-type nitrogen species, which should contribute to the genesis of active sites on the surface of AC for the oxidation of benzyl alcohol. This is in accordance with the result of Long et al. using nitrogen-doped graphene nanosheet catalysts for the same oxidation reaction. 21 There were oxygen species on the surface of those carbon materials, but the conversion of benzyl alcohol was not relat[ed](#page-8-0) to the amount of oxygen species measured by XPS (Figure S2 in the SI). XRD was used to examine their structural features, but no significant difference was observed among those carbon [sam](http://pubs.acs.org/doi/suppl/10.1021/acscatal.5b00375/suppl_file/cs5b00375_si_001.pdf)ples (Figure S3 in SL). It was previously observed for base-catalyzed Knoevenagel and transesterification reactions that the catalytic activity [was](http://pubs.acs.org/doi/suppl/10.1021/acscatal.5b00375/suppl_file/cs5b00375_si_001.pdf) correlated with the ratio of surface nitrogen species against surface oxygen ones for the nitrogendoped AC catalysts.¹⁴ This is different from the correlation of Figure 3c because of the difference in the nature of the reactions studied.

Ther[e](#page-3-0) is a scatter at small amounts of graphite-type nitrogen species (<0.15%) for the relationship of Figure 3c. This suggests the presence of other active sites on the surface of AC samples. Hayashi and co-workers examined various aerobic oxidation reactions over untreated AC catalysts.^{2[9,3](#page-3-0)0} They reported that surface oxygen-containing groups, which were evolved as CO at high temperatures, were activ[e sit](#page-8-0)es for oxidative cyclization.³⁰ In addition, the present authors recently indicated that pyridine-type nitrogen species were active for the aerobic oxidation o[f x](#page-8-0)anthene.¹⁷ Those other surface species should catalyze the aerobic oxidation of alcohols but be less active compared with the grap[hit](#page-8-0)e-type nitrogen species. This would cause a scatter in the range of small amount of graphitenitrogen species, as observed in Figure 3c.

3.2. Oxidation of Cinnamyl Alcohol. A few selected ACbased catalysts (1, 4, 7, and 8 in Table [1\)](#page-3-0) were applied for the oxidation of a different substrate of cinnamyl alcohol at 80 °C (Scheme 2). Cinnamaldehyde was obs[er](#page-1-0)ved to form in 100% selectivity under the conditions used. These AC catalysts were active, an[d](#page-3-0) the conversion was also correlated with the amount of graphite-type nitrogen species, as seen in Figure 4. This suggests again that these nitrogen species are involved in the formation of active sites.

Figure 3. Plots of total conversion in oxidation of benzyl alcohol to benzaldehyde against the amount of pyridine-type (N_a) , pyrrole-type (N_b) , and graphite-type (N_c) nitrogen species on the surface of nitrogen-doped AC catalysts listed in Table 1.

Figure 4. Plot of total conversion in oxidation of cinnamyl alcohol to cinnamaldehyde at 80 °C for 15 h against the amount of graphite-type (N_c) nitrogen species on the surface of a few selected nitrogen-doped AC catalysts (1, 4, 7, 8) listed in Table 1.

3.3. Oxidation of Other Alcohols. The catalytic performance of a selected nitrogen-doped AC catalyst 8, most active among those listed in Table 1, was examined in the aerobic oxidation of other alcohols. Table 2 summarizes the results obtained with several alcohol[s,](#page-1-0) including benzyl and cinnamyl alcohols. As already described, the n[itr](#page-4-0)ogen-doped AC catalyst can oxidize benzyl alcohol and cinnamyl alcohol to the corresponding aldehydes with 100% selectivity (entries 1, 2). For 3-phenyl-1-propanol, cyclohexylmethanol, and 1-heptanol, the nitrogen-doped AC was inactive (entries 3, 4, 5). For the oxidation of 5-(hydroxymethyl)-2-furaldehyde, a conversion of 24% was achieved with the nitrogen-doped AC catalyst in 15 h with a selectivity of 93% (entry 6). The byproduct was the acetal from the substrate and the solvent of ethanol. For benzyl alcohol, cinnamyl alcohol, and 5-(hydroxymethyl)-2-furaldehyde (entries 1, 2, 6), the carbon bonding to the hydroxyl group may be activated by its adjacent conjugated system, and they can be easily oxidized. In contrast, the other alcohols (entries 3, 4, 5) do not have such a conjugated system, so they cannot be activated and oxidized.

3.4. Catalyst R[ec](#page-1-0)yclability. The catalyst reusability was examined using a nitrogen-doped AC catalyst, 8, and a model substrate of benzyl alcohol. The sample was separated by filtration after the first oxidation run and used for the second one under the same conditions. Figure 5 gives the results of repeated oxidation runs, indicating a decrease in the conversion obtained, in particular after the first run[.](#page-4-0) The surface of fresh and recycled (three times) catalyst samples was examined by XPS. Figure 6 displays the XPS N 1s spectra, and Table 3 gives the surface concentration of nitrogen species as measured by XPS. The r[esu](#page-4-0)lts show a significant decrease in the am[ou](#page-5-0)nt of graphite-type species on the recycling, which should be involved in the active sites as above-mentioned (Figures 3 and 4). These nitrogen species were found to change to oxidetype ones, as indicated from the XPS results (Figure 6). The amounts of oxygen species measured by XPS were 5.3% and 7.0% for the fresh and recycled samples. As mention[ed](#page-4-0) later, the presence of gaseous oxygen was needed to improve the rate of benzyl alcohol oxidation. It was assumed, therefore, that the surface oxygen species were insignificant for the catalyst deactivation observed (Figure 5). The catalyst deactivation due to the disappearance of graphite-type nitrogen species should occur during the oxida[ti](#page-4-0)on reaction. Attempts were made to regenerate the nitrogen-doped AC catalyst 8 after the first reaction run, which was treated in ethanol at 1 MPa H_2 and 120 °C for 8 h or by hydrazine (8 cm^3) at 120 °C for 2 h and then used for the second run. The conversion values observed were 13% and 7.5% after the former treatment and the latter one, respectively, which were 50% and 30% of the initial performance of the fresh catalyst. These two treatments failed to activate the catalyst that lost its activity after the first reaction run.

The occurrence and extent of catalyst deactivation of nitrogen-doped AC catalysts depends on the type of reaction and the type of active sites involved. The catalysts lose their activity for oxidation reactions of xanthene¹⁷ and alcohols (this work) and Knoevenagel condensation 14 in which water is produced and could have an effect in [the](#page-8-0) deactivation. In contrast, no catalyst deactivation occ[urs](#page-8-0) for the transesterification reaction, 14 which is a base-catalyzed reaction similar to Knoevenagel condensation. The catalyst recyclability was not mentioned by L[on](#page-8-0)g et al. for their nitrogen-doped graphene nanosheet catalysts.²¹ The group of Peng et al. prepared nitrogen-doped carbon nanotubes by chemical vapor deposition using aniline [a](#page-8-0)nd xylene as nitrogen and carbon sources. $31,32$ They showed that these carbon materials were

Table 2. Results of Aerobic Oxidation of Several Alcohols with the Nitrogen-Doped Metal-Free AC 8 Catalyst^a

a
Reaction conditions: solvent ethanol 5 cm³, substrate 1.1 mmol, catalyst 100 mg. T, reaction temperature; t, reaction time; X, total conversion; S, selectivity to the desired oxidation product.

Figure 5. Results of recycling test of a nitrogen-doped AC catalyst 8 in the aerobic oxidation of benzyl alcohol. Reaction conditions: initial weight of catalyst 100 mg, benzyl alcohol 1.1 mmol, ethanol 5 cm³, 120 $^{\circ}$ C, 5 h.

Figure 6. N 1s XPS spectra of fresh and recycled (three times) nitrogen-doped AC-based catalyst 8: (a) pyridine-type, (b) pyrroletype, (c) graphite-type, (d) oxide-type nitrogen species.

metal-free active catalysts for liquid-phase oxidation of an aromatic alkene of cyclohexene using molecular oxygen, and in addition, these catalysts were recyclable for five runs, in contrast to the present case (Figure 5). Nitrogen species should exist in the structure of graphene sheets for Peng's carbon nanotubes, whereas they are likely to be doped to such structure irregular sites as edge ones for our AC-derived materials. This difference in the structural features might explain the absence and presence of catalyst deactivation in the oxidation reactions.

3.5. Oxidation Processes over Nitrogen-Doped AC Catalysts. For nitrogen-doped graphene nanosheet catalysts, Long et al. pointed out the significance of graphite-type nitrogen species for their catalysis in the oxidation of alcohols.² These authors propose a Langmuir−Hinshelwood process, in which an sp² N−O₂ adduct is formed on the graphite-ty[pe](#page-8-0) nitrogen active sites, and this is a key step for the oxidation. A model calculation of Ikeda et al. indicates that an oxygen molecule may be activated on a carbon atom bonded to a doped nitrogen atom.¹¹ The present results also indicate that the oxidation of alcohols proceeds over the surface of nitrogendoped AC catalysts [an](#page-8-0)d the graphite-type nitrogen species contribute to the formation of active sites. Additional reaction runs were conducted to consider reaction mechanisms. A reaction with benzyl alcohol was conducted with the nitrogendoped AC catalyst 8 in the presence of a radical scavenger of pbenzoquinone (0.1 mmol) in the reaction mixture under the standard conditions (benzyl alcohol 1.0 mmol; for others, see the caption of Table 1). The conversion was observed to be only 3%, which was even smaller than the 23% obtained in the absence of p-benzoqu[in](#page-1-0)one. This suggests that radical species may be included in the oxidation processes. Another additional run was conducted in an atmosphere of pure N_2 instead of air. The oxidation was found to occur but with an even smaller conversion of 9% as compared to 23%, suggesting that a source of oxidant is the gaseous O_2 in the air, not the doped O species.

Table 3. Concentration of Surface Nitrogen Species in a Nitrogen-Doped AC Catalyst 8 before and after the Repeated Oxidation Runs (Three Times)^a

"Reaction conditions: initial weight of catalyst 100 mg, benzyl alcohol 1.1 mmol, ethanol 5 cm³, 120 °C, 5 h.

Scheme 3. Possible Reaction Pathways for Aerobic Oxidation of Benzyl Alcohol over Nitrogen-Doped AC Catalyst^a

 $a(a)$ Adsorption of oxygen molecule; (b) formation of oxygen radical; (c) oxidation of alcohol producing aldehyde and regenerating active sites; (d) change of active sites (graphite-type nitrogen) into inactive sites (oxide-type nitrogen), causing catalyst deactivation.

After considering those additional results and the abovementioned previous works, $11,21$ possible reaction pathways may be envisaged as follows (Scheme 3): An oxygen molecule dissolved in the liquid p[hase](#page-8-0) is adsorbed on a carbon site adjacent to the graphite-type nitrogen and/or on the carbon atom and the nitrogen atom. Then some oxygen radical is formed and reacts with an alcohol molecule, which might be activated by interactions between the graphite-type nitrogen and C1 atom of benzyl alcohol, producing benzaldehyde and regenerating the active sites. In some cases, an undesired process should occur in which the graphite-type nitrogen is changed to the oxidized-type nitrogen during the oxidation reaction, causing the unavoidable catalyst deactivation. The formation of a byproduct of water might play a role in the catalyst deactivation, similar to the case of a Knoevenagel condensation.¹⁴

The group of Peng et al. report that the nitrogen-doped carbon nano[tub](#page-8-0)e materials are active for the liquid-phase oxidation of cyclohexene, in which the nitrogen doping enhances the rate of oxidation and the selectivity to 2 cyclohexene-1-one. $31,32$ It is noted that these catalytic features are explained by their capability to promote the radical chain propagation via sta[biliz](#page-8-0)ing peroxyl and cycloxyl radicals, and as a result, 2-cyclohexene-1-ol is further converted to 2-cyclohexene-1-one, as well. As above-mentioned, the well-organized carbon nanostructure (graphene wall) of their catalysts could be different in the catalytic performance with our commercial AC-based nitrogen-doped carbon catalysts.

In a previous work, 17 the aerobic oxidation of xanthene was investigated with nitrogen-doped AC catalysts, which were prepared in similar m[an](#page-8-0)ners but without the pretreatment with hydrogen peroxide; therefore, they contained a trace amount of graphite-type nitrogen species on their surface. It was assumed that the presence of pyridine-type nitrogen species gave a Lewis base nature to the neighboring carbon atoms, and these carbon sites were more effective for the activation of methylene group of the substrate. As a result, the catalytic activity tended to increase with an increase in the amount of surface pyridine-type

nitrogen species. Although the graphite-type species were little doped, the activation of oxygen should occur on those ACbased catalysts but less effectively as compared with the present AC-based catalysts containing the graphite-type nitrogen species. This is a reason that a higher reaction temperature of 100 $^{\circ}$ C is required for the oxidation of xanthene¹⁷ and the activation oxygen should be less significant than that of xanthene under the reaction conditions used.

3.6. Comparison with Conventional Noble Metal Catalysts. The catalytic performance of a selected nitrogendoped AC catalyst, 8, most active among those listed in Table 1, was examined in the aerobic oxidation of other alcohols and compared with that of conventional carbon-supported noble [m](#page-1-0)etal catalysts, 5 wt % Ru/C and 5 wt % Pt/C. Table 4 summarizes the results obtained with several alcohols including benzyl and cinnamyl alcohols. Benzyl alcohol was oxidized t[o](#page-6-0) benzaldehyde in 23% conversion in 5 h with 100 mg nitrogendoped AC catalyst (entry 1), whereas a similar conversion was achieved with a smaller amount (10 mg) of Ru/C in a shorter time (3 h) (entry 5). It is interesting to note that benzaldehyde was formed in 100% selectivity with the former but in a lower selectivity of 60% for the latter at similar conversion levels, with which an acetal was produced in a large quantity from the oxidized product (benzaldehyde) and the solvent (ethanol). The Pt/C was less active for the oxidation of benzyl alcohol (entries 2, 4). The nitrogen-doped AC catalyst was inactive for the oxidation of cyclohexylmethanol (entry 6); the supported noble metal catalysts were active, but the desired product of cyclohexyl aldehyde was not detected (entries 7, 8). For the oxidation of an aliphatic alcohol of 1-heptanol, the nitrogendoped AC was inactive (entry 9). A small conversion of 9% was obtained with 100% selectivity with Ru/C under the conditions used (entry 11). For cinnamyl alcohol, the metal-free AC catalyst (100 mg) gave a conversion of 21% and a selectivity of 100% in 15 h (entry 12). A similar conversion of 17% was obtained in a shorter time of 7 h with a smaller amount of Ru/ C (entry 14). Similar to the case of benzyl alcohol, the selectivity to the desired product (cinnamaldehyde) was even

Entry	Catalyst	$\mbox{\bf w}^{\,\mbox{\scriptsize a}}$	T^a	$\mathfrak{t}^{\,\mathrm{a}}$	$\mathbf{X}^{\,\text{a}}$	$\mathbf{S}^{\,\mathrm{a}}$
		(mg)	$(^{\circ}C)$	(h)	$(\%)$	$(\%)$
(a)	ЮH	ူ 'n,				
$\,1$	N-Carbon	100		$\sqrt{5}$	23	$100\,$
$\sqrt{2}$	$\ensuremath{\mathop{\text{\rm Pt/C}}}\xspace$	$10\,$		0.5	7	$100\,$
$\sqrt{3}$		100	120	$\overline{\mathbf{3}}$	9	87
$\overline{\mathbf{4}}$	$\rm Ru/C$	$20\,$		$\,1$	$\mathbf{9}$	100
5		$10\,$		$\mathfrak z$	$22\,$	60
(b)						
6	N-Carbon	100		$\sqrt{5}$	$\boldsymbol{0}$	
$\boldsymbol{7}$	$\ensuremath{\mathop{\text{\rm Pt/C}}}\xspace$	$10\,$	120	$\sqrt{5}$	$20\,$	$\boldsymbol{0}$
$\,$ 8 $\,$	$\rm Ru/C$	$10\,$		$\sqrt{5}$	$21\,$	$\boldsymbol{0}$
(c)	OH.		H, I			
$\overline{9}$	N-Carbon	100		15	$\boldsymbol{0}$	
10	$\ensuremath{\mathop{\text{\rm Pt/C}}}\xspace$	10	80	$\sqrt{5}$	≤ 1	100
$11\,$	Ru/C	$10\,$		$\sqrt{5}$	9	$100\,$
(d)	ΟН					
12	N-Carbon	100		15	$21\,$	$100\,$
13	$\ensuremath{\mathop{\text{\rm Pt/C}}}\xspace$	$10\,$	$\rm 80$	15	$\boldsymbol{7}$	$100\,$
14	$\rm Ru/C$	$10\,$		$\overline{7}$	17	$38\,$
15		$10\,$		$15\,$	43	21
(e)	ö ╙		ဂူ ဂူ ◡			
$16\,$	$\operatorname{N-Carbon}$	$100\,$		15	24	93
$17\,$	$\ensuremath{\mathop{\text{\rm Pt}}\nolimits}/\ensuremath{\mathop{\text{\rm C}}\nolimits}$	$10\,$	$80\,$	5	29	$\boldsymbol{0}$
$18\,$	$\rm Ru/C$	$10\,$		$\sqrt{2}$	$28\,$	14
19		$10\,$		5	48	$12\,$

Table 4. Results of Aerobic Oxidation of Alcohols with the Nitrogen-Doped Metal-Free AC 8 and Conventional Carbon-Supported Noble Metal Catalysts^b

 a w, weight of catalyst used; T, reaction temperature; t, reaction time; X, total conversion; S, selectivity to the desired oxidation product. b Reaction conditions: solvent ethanol 5 cm^3 , substrate 1.1 mmol.

low (38%), which gave an acetal from cinnamaldehyde and ethanol. Again, Pt/C was less active (entry 13). For the oxidation of 5-(hydroxymethyl)-2-furaldehyde, a conversion of 24% was achieved with the nitrogen-doped AC catalyst (100 mg) in 15 h with a selectivity of 93% (entry 16). Both Pt/C and Ru/C were active, but their selectivity values to the desired oxidation product were low (entries 17−19), which gave an

acetal from the substrate and the solvent, in contrast to the cases of benzyl and cinnamyl alcohols.

The comparison was further made among the nitrogendoped AC and carbon-supported noble metal catalysts in the oxidation of benzyl alcohol. Table 4 shows that the performance of Pt/C (entry 3) was not good as compared with Ru/C (entry 2) under the same reaction conditions, as abovementioned. The AC-based and Ru/C catalysts gave very similar

conversion levels under the conditions used, so these two can be compared (entries 1, 2). For the Ru/C catalyst, the TOF is 29 h^{-1} and the selectivity to the desired oxidation product of benzaldehyde is 60%, in which the acetal is formed from benzaldehyde and the solvent (ethanol) in a large amount. For the nitrogen-doped AC catalyst, the graphite-type nitrogen species can be assumed to contribute to the formation of active sites, so the TOF was determined using the number of these species determined by XPS (see footnote a of Table 4). The metal-free AC catalyst produces benzaldehyde in 100% selectivity but has a TOF of 1.6 h⁻¹, which is even s[ma](#page-6-0)ller by more than 1 order of magnitude compared with 29 h^{-1} for the Ru/C catalyst. In addition, the apparent activation energy, E_a , was measured at temperatures of 100−130 °C for the nitrogendoped AC and 90−110 °C for Ru/C using the data collected at conversion <15%.

Arrhenius-type plots of the reaction rate against 1/temperature are presented in Figure 7. The E_a value was determined to

Figure 7. Arrhenius type plots of the rate of reaction against 1/ reaction temperature for the oxidation of benzyl alcohol over the nitrogen-doped metal-free AC catalyst 8 (a) and a carbon-supported Ru one (b).

be 22 and 32 kJ mol[−]¹ for the metal-free AC and Ru/C catalysts, respectively. The $E_{\rm a}$ value is smaller by 10 kJ mol^{−1}for the former than the latter; however, the TOF is even smaller. These results suggest that the reaction mechanisms are different between the two catalysts or the rate-determining step is the same but the required activation energy is different, depending on the nature of the active sites.

A detailed kinetics analysis was made by Long et al. for the oxidation of benzyl alcohol over their nitrogen-doped graphene nanosheet catalysts.²¹ Their oxidation reactions were conducted in the presence of water in the reaction mixture at the start of reaction. An activa[tio](#page-8-0)n energy of 56 kJ mol[−]¹ was reported for the oxidation of benzyl alcohol over the nitrogen-doped graphene nanosheet catalysts, which was close to 51 kJ mol⁻¹

for a Ru/Al_2O_3 -catalyzed oxidation using PhCF₃ solvent reported in the literature.³³ The apparent activation energy determined for the nitrogen-doped AC catalyst in the present work is different from tho[se](#page-8-0) previous values^{21,29} and from that of a reference of Ru/C catalyst (Table 5). Those results indicate again that the catalytic actions [of n](#page-8-0)itrogen-doped carbon materials are different, depending on the carbon structure, well-structured graphene and nanotubes, or lessstructured carbons such as AC used in the present work, which determines the location and environment of the nitrogen dopants. More detailed reaction kinetics analysis is in progress to shed light on the catalysis of the metal-free nitrogen-doped bulk AC catalyst of our interest.

4. CONCLUSIONS

The nitrogen-doped, metal-free AC catalyst is active for the aerobic oxidation of alcohols, such as benzyl alcohol, cinnamyl alcohol, and 5-(hydroxymethyl)-2-furaldehyde, to the desired aldehydes but inactive for the oxidation of 3-phenyl-1-propanol, 1-heptanol, and cyclohexylmethanol under the conditions used. In other words, the alcohols in which the carbon bonding to hydroxyl group may be activated by its adjacent conjugated system can be oxidized by the nitrogen-doped AC catalysts. On nitrogen-doping, different types of nitrogen species-pyridine-, pyrrole-, and graphite-type-are formed on the surface of AC. The graphite-type nitrogen species are involved in the genesis of catalytically active sites, which should adsorb and activate an oxygen molecule. The nitrogen-doped, metal-free AC catalyst has a smaller TOF value by more than 1 order of magnitude compared with those for carbon-supported Ru and Pt catalysts, but the apparent activation energy is smaller for the former than the latter, suggesting different reaction mechanisms. The graphite-type nitrogen species are likely to change to the less active oxidized ones, causing catalyst deactivation during the oxidation reaction, which could not be avoided owing to the nature of the reaction.

■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

S Supporting Information

The following file is available free of charge on the ACS Publications website at DOI: 10.1021/acscatal.5b00375.

Catalyst characterization results (XPS, XRD) [and](http://pubs.acs.org) [relation betwe](http://pubs.acs.org)en conve[rsion in benzyl alcohol ox](http://pubs.acs.org/doi/abs/10.1021/acscatal.5b00375)idation and amount of surface oxygen species (PDF)

■ AUTHOR INFORMATION

Corresponding Author

*E-mail marai@eng.hokudai.ac.jp.

Table 5. Comparison of a Nitrogen-Doped AC Catalyst Sample 8 with C[onventional Supported N](mailto:marai@eng.hokudai.ac.jp)oble Metal Catalysts for Aerobic Oxidation of Benzyl Alcohol at 120 $\mathrm{^{\circ}C}^a$

 a Reaction conditions: see caption for Figure 1. b Selectivity to benzaldehyde. c TOF to the consumption of benzyl alcohol. The number of exposed active sites was determined as follows: The number of exposed Ru and Pt atoms was measured by CO pulse chemisorption assuming a stoichiometry of CO/metal = 1. The degree of metal dispersion determined was 56% and 25% for the Ru/C and Pt/C samples, respectively. The number of graphite-type nitrogen species was estimate[d f](#page-2-0)rom the surface composition (0.41%) measured by XPS and a BET surface area of 1198 m² g⁻¹, , assuming a density of a carbon atom per 0.02625 nm² for the graphitic surface. ^dApparent activation energy determined at 100−130 °C and at 90− 110 °C for the N-doped AC and 5% Ru/C catalysts, respectively, using the data of conversion <15% (Figure 7).

Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

■ REFERENCES

(1) Thomas, A.; Fischer, A.; Goettmann, F.; Antonietti, M.; Müller, J.-O.; Schlögl, R.; Carlsson, J. M. J. Mater. Chem. 2008, 18, 4893-4908.

(2) Su, D. S.; Zhang, J.; Frank, B.; Thomas, A.; Wang, X.; Paraknowitsch, J.; Schlögl, R. ChemSusChem 2010, 3, 169−180.

(3) Mabena, L. F.; Sinha Ray, S.; Mhlanga, S. D.; Coville, N. J. Appl. Nanosci. 2011, 1, 67−77.

(4) Yu, D.; Nagelli, E.; Du, F.; Dai, L. J. Phys. Chem. Lett. 2010, 1, 2165−2173.

(5) Goettmann, F.; Fischer, A.; Antonietti, M.; Thomas, A. Angew. Chem., Int. Ed. 2006, 45, 44657−4471.

(6) Goettmann, F.; Thomas, A.; Antonietti, M. Angew. Chem., Int. Ed. 2007, 46, 2717−2720.

(7) Jin, X.; Balasubramanian, V. V.; Selvan, S. T.; Sawant, D. P.; Chari, M. A.; Lu, G. Q.; Vinu, A. Angew. Chem., Int. Ed. 2008, 48, 7884−7887.

(8) Xu, J.; Shen, K.; Xue, B.; Li, Y. X.; Cao, Y. Catal. Lett. 2013, 143, 600−609.

(9) van Dommele, S.; de Jong, K. P.; Bitter, J. H. Chem. Commun. 2006, 64, 4858−4861.

(10) Wang, L.; Wang, L.; Jin, H.; Bing, N. Catal. Commun. 2011, 15, 78−81.

(11) Ikeda, T.; Boero, M.; Huang, S.; Terakura, K.; Oshima, M.; Ozaki, J. J. Phys. Chem. C 2008, 112, 14706−14709.

(12) Ozaki, J.; Anahara, T.; Kimura, N.; Oya, A. Carbon 2006, 44, 3358−3361.

(13) Ozaki, J.; Kimura, N.; Anahara, T.; Oya, A. Carbon 2007, 45, 1847−1853.

(14) Kan-nari, N.; Okamura, S.; Fujita, S.; Ozaki, J.; Arai, M. Adv. Synth. Catal. 2010, 352, 1476−1484.

(15) Fujita, S.; Watanabe, H.; Katagiri, A.; Yoshida, H.; Arai, M. J. Mol. Catal. A: Chem. 2014, 393, 257−262.

(16) Yoshida, H.; Watanabe, H.; Katagiri, A.; Fujita, S.; Arai, M. Abstract of 7th Tokyo Conference on Advanced Catalytic Science and Technology (TOCAT7), Kyoto, June 1−6, 2014, O-E23.

(17) Fujita, S.; Yamada, K.; Katagiri, A.; Watanabe, H.; Yoshida, H.; Arai, M. Appl. Catal., A 2014, 488, 171−175.

(18) Fine Chemicals through Heterogenous Catalysis; Sheldon, R. A., van Bekkum, H., Eds.; Wiley-VCH: New York, 2001; pp 309−326, 491−551.

(19) Liao, S.; Chi, Y.; Yu, H.; Wang, H.; Peng, F. ChemCatChem 2014, 6, 555−560.

(20) Liao, S.; Peng, F.; Yu, H.; Wang, H. Appl. Catal., A 2014, 478, 1−8.

(21) Long, J.; Xie, X.; Xu, J.; Gu, Q.; Chen, L.; Wang, X. ACS Catal. 2012, 2, 622−631.

(22) Li, W.; Gao, Y.; Chen, W.; Tang, P.; Li, W.; Shi, Z.; Su, D.; Wang, J.; Ma, D. ACS Catal. 2014, 4, 1261−1266.

(23) Gao, Y.; Hu, G.; Zhong, J.; Shi, Z.; Zhu, Y.; Su, D.; Wang, J.; Bao, X.; Ma, D. Angew. Chem., Int. Ed. 2013, 52, 2109−2113.

(24) Yang, J.; Sun, G.; Gao, Y.; Zhao, H.; Tang, P.; Tan, J.; Lu, A.; Ma, D. Energy Environ. Sci. 2013, 6, 793−798.

(25) Woods, M. P.; Biddinger, E. J.; Matter, P. H.; Mirkelamoglu, B.; Ozkan, U. S. Catal. Lett. 2010, 136, 1−8.

(26) Raymundo-Piňero, E.; Cazorla-Amorós, D.; Linares-Solano, A.; Find, J.; Wild, U.; Schlögl, R. Carbon 2002, 40, 597–608.

(27) Maldonals, S.; Morin, S.; Stevenson, K. J. Carbon 2006, 44, 1429−37.

(28) Kondo, T.; Casolo, S.; Suzuki, T.; Shikano, T.; Sakurai, M.; Harada, Y.; Saito, M.; Oshima, M.; Trioni, M. I.; Tantardini, G. F.; Nakamura, J. Phys. Rev. B: Condens. Matter Mater. Phys. 2012, 86, 035436.

(29) Sano, Y.; Tanaka, T.; Hayashi, M. Chem. Lett. 2007, 36, 1414− 1415.

(30) Kawashita, Y.; Yanagi, J.; Fujii, T.; Hayashi, M. Bull. Chem. Soc. Jpn. 2009, 82, 482−488.

(31) Cao, Y.; Yu, H.; Peng, F.; Wang, H. ACS Catal. 2014, 4, 1617− 1625.

- (32) Yu, H.; Peng, F.; Tan, J.; Hu, X.; Wang, H.; Yang, J.; Zheng, W. Angew. Chem., Int. Ed. 2011, 50, 3978−3982.
- (33) Yamaguchi, K.; Mizuno, N. Chem. Eur. J. 2003, 9, 4353−4361.