## Catalytic Cooperation between MoO<sub>3</sub> and Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> in N-Ethyl Formamide Dehydration

II. Nature of Active Sites and Role of Spillover Oxygen

BING ZHOU,<sup>1</sup> TADEUSZ MACHEJ,<sup>2</sup> PATRICIO RUIZ, AND BERNARD DELMON

Catalyse et Chimie des Matériaux Divisés, Université Catholique de Louvain, Place Croix du Sud 1, 1348 Louvain-la-Neuve, Belgium

Received January 19, 1990; revised March 27, 1991

The present work reports experiments designed to further investigate the role of  $MoO_3$  and  $Sb_2O_4$ in the cooperative effect they exhibit in N-ethyl formamide dehydration. Temperature-programmed desorption of NH<sub>3</sub> showed that Brønsted acid sites are responsible for activity. TPD of  $CO_2$ gave no indication of basic sites. The Brønsted sites are sensitive to reduction and reoxidation. Thermoreoxidation of previously reduced molybdenum oxide and oxidation of carbon deposited on MoO<sub>3</sub> are more rapid when  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> is admixed. The interpretation of the phenomenon is that  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> dissociates molecular O<sub>2</sub> to an oxygen spillover species which can maintain MoO<sub>3</sub> at a high degree of oxidation and, if necessary, reoxidize it or remove deposited carbon. Brønsted sites necessitate a high degree of oxidation and their number is consequently promoted by spillover oxygen. Mechanisms are proposed for the dissociation of oxygen, the reoxidation of pre-reduced MoO<sub>3</sub>, and the formation of Brønsted acid sites. The importance of the reported results for selective oxidation or multicomponent catalysts is discussed. @ 1991 Academic Press, Inc.

#### 1. INTRODUCTION

In the preceding paper of this series (1), the catalytic synergy in the dehydration of N-ethyl formamide to propionitrile was explained by a remote control mechanism according to which active sites situated on  $MoO_3$  (controlled phase or acceptor A) would be created or regenerated by the action of a mobile species (spillover oxygen) formed on  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> (controlling phase or donor D). To give further support to the proposed mechanism, it is essential to investigate the nature of the active sites and to analyse, in greater detail, the role of spillover oxygen.

For this purpose, we must first of all summarize the reports in the literature concerning acidity in catalysts similar to ours and the role of Sb in selective oxidation catalysts.

In general, activity for a dehydration reactions is related to the presence of acidic sites. Tanabe and co-workers (2-5) attempted to correlate general catalytic activity with the acidity and basicity of binary oxides. Ai *et al.* (6-12) measured the acidity and basicity of a great number of catalysts containing MoO<sub>3</sub>. They found that the addition of another oxide to MoO<sub>3</sub> increased the acidity of the catalysts and concluded that the catalytic activity could be relatively well interpreted by the acid-base properties of catalysts. Belokopytov et al. (13) and Groff (14) detected Lewis and Brønsted sites on the surface of MoO<sub>3</sub>. Tatibouët et al. (15, 16) postulated that the apical planes (001) + (101) and side plane (100) of the MoO<sub>3</sub> crystallites possessed the dehydrating sites. In a more recent study, Brückman et al. (17) concluded that the Brønsted acid sites were located on the (110), (001), and (101) faces of MoO<sub>3</sub> crystallites.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Present address: Dalian Institute of Chemical Physics, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Dalian, China.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> On leave from the Institute of Catalysis and Surface Chemistry, Polish Academy of Sciences, Cracow, Poland.

On the other hand, numerous studies have been devoted to catalysts containing antimony oxide, such as  $FeSbO_4 + Sb_2O_4$ ,  $SnO_2 + Sb_2O_4$ , and  $UO_3 + Sb_2O_4$ . These studies are far from having clarified the role of antimony oxide. Boreskov and co-workers (18, 19) suggested that the excess antimony avoids the formation of free Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> which could be responsible for the total oxidation. Fattore et al. (20) confirmed that  $FeSbO_4$  and  $Sb_2O_4$ , as separate phases, cooperate in producing acrolein from propene, giving a higher selectivity than each phase alone. They postulated that allylic radical formation takes place on Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> and that oxygen ions migrate from  $FeSbO_4$  to  $Sb_2O_4$ . Aso et al. (21) postulated that the excess Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> brings about the formation of a particular specific surface structure which results in the production of surface oxygen species suitable for the selective oxidation. After further studies (22), they concluded that surface Sb ions provided adsorption sites for oxygen. A surface layer enriched in Sb would preferentially accomodate the type of surface oxygen which oxidizes olefins selectively. Burriesci et al. (23) suggested that the role of excess bulk antimony is to promote the formation of structurally distorted and defective FeSbO<sub>4</sub>, in order to form oxygen vacancies. Such vacancies are possibly associated with adsorption sites for the oxygen species that is responsible for allylic oxidation. Teller et al. (24) hypothesized that  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> crystallites are oriented to the surface of FeSbO<sub>4</sub> where they create catalytically active sites not found in isolated phases. Centi and co-workers (25, 26) postulated that the formation of surface groups such as O=Sb=O could explain the observed increase of selectivity in selective oxidation. Volta et al. (27) noted that particular Sb-Sb arrangements on the surface, such as those at the (001) crystallographic plane of  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>, are responsible for the high selectivity. More recently, Straguzzi et al. (28) suggested that one role of the antimony component is to ensure that the oxidation is selective by replacing the "active" oxygens, responsible for total oxidation, with the "inactive" oxygens found on the surface of antimony oxides, the other role being to allow the reoxidation of the catalysts.

The first objective of this work is to try to identify the active sites on MoO<sub>3</sub> and to analyse the role of  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> in the catalytic cooperation observed in N-ethyl formamide dehydration and in particular the role of spillover oxygen in the formation of active sites.

To detect the nature of active sites in the surface of oxides, chemisorption is often used and small molecules such as NH<sub>3</sub>, pyridine and CO<sub>2</sub>, serve as a probe. The information concerning this adsorption is usually deduced from infrared spectroscopy measurements (29, 30). Due to the very low surface area  $(2 \text{ m}^2\text{g}^{-1})$  and low transparency of our samples, the concentration of adsorbed species is too close to or below the detectability limit by the infrared techniques (31)and the method is very difficult to apply. Another classic method used for the detection of active sites is temperature-programmed desorption (TPD) of the adsorbed species. We used this method to measure the basicity (TPD of CO<sub>2</sub>) and acidity (TPD of  $NH_3$ ) of our samples.

In the preceding paper of this series (1)we showed that the decrease of propionitrile selectivity was associated with a loss of oxygen from the surface of molybdenum oxide. The degree of reduction decreased with the increase in  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> antimony in the sample. Carbon deposition on the surface of MoO<sub>3</sub> was also responsible for the decrease of activity. The presence of  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> in the mixtures decreased the quantity of carbon deposited on MoO<sub>3</sub>. It was concluded that  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> acted as a regenerating phase. We gave arguments supporting the view that the role of  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> was to generate spillover oxygen. The second objective of this paper, therefore, is to elucidate how this oxygen spillover can regenerate deactivated sites (or maintain their activity) on MoO<sub>3</sub>. In order to obtain experimental information concerning these aspects, the following experiments were carried out. Previously reduced or carbon-contaminated molybdenum oxide was mixed with  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> and the mixtures were investigated in different reoxidation conditions using three techniques: thermoreoxidation to measure the degree of reoxidation; electron spin resonance (ESR) to detect the disappearance of Mo<sup>+5</sup>; and carbon analysis to quantify the removal of coke on the samples.

In the final part of this paper we attempt to give an explanation as to why the structural properties of  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> could explain the efficiency of this phase in producing spillover oxygen, and we show that spillover oxygen brings about the formation of acid sites on MoO<sub>3</sub>.

As the catalysts used in oxygen-aided N-ethyl formamide dehydration are similar to those active and selective in allylic oxidation, we conclude with a short comparison with selective oxidation.

## 2. EXPERIMENTAL METHODS

## 2.1. Sample Preparation

(a) Pure oxides, Ms and MoiSb samples. The preparation of the pure  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> (2 m<sup>2</sup>g<sup>-1</sup>), pure MoO<sub>3</sub> (2 m<sup>2</sup>g<sup>-1</sup>), mechanical mixtures of these oxides, Ms and impregnation of Mo ions on Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> support, MoiSb samples, was described in detail in the preceding paper of this series (1).

(b)  $MoO_{3-x}$  and  $MoO_{3-y}$ . Portions of our pure MoO<sub>3</sub> (3 g) were reduced in H<sub>2</sub> (60 ml/min) at 380°C for 10 h or at 150°C for 25 h; these were designated as  $MoO_{3-x}$  and  $MoO_{3-y}$ , respectively. Their BET surface areas were 7.6 and 2.5 m<sup>2</sup>g<sup>-1</sup>. The X-ray diffraction pattern of MoO<sub>3</sub> showed the presence of MoO<sub>3</sub> and MoO<sub>2</sub> in MoO<sub>3-x</sub>. That of MoO<sub>3-y</sub> was identical to unreduced  $MoO_3$ .

(c)  $MoO_3C$ . A MoO<sub>3</sub> sample, used as a catalyst in N-ethyl formamide dehydration in the absence of oxygen during 70 h, constituted the MoO<sub>3</sub> contaminated by carbon used in our experiments. It was designated

as MoO<sub>3</sub>C. Its BET surface area was 4.2  $m^2g^{-1}$ .

These previously reduced or carbon-contaminated molybdenum oxides were mechanically mixed with  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> (suspension in *n*-pentane, stirring and evaporation (1)).

Powder mixtures of differing mass ratios, i.e.,

$$r = \frac{W_{\text{MoO}_3}}{W_{\text{MoO}_3} + W_{\alpha-\text{Sb}_2\text{O}_4}},$$

varying from r = 0.0 to r = 1.0 were prepared. The pure  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> (r = 0.0) and the pure MoO<sub>3</sub> (r = 1.0) were treated under the same conditions as the mixtures.

## 2.2. Basicity and Acidity Measurements

The temperature-programmed desorption (TPD) of  $CO_2$  and  $NH_3$  was used to detect the surface basicity and acidity respectively. TPD measurements were carried out using a versatile apparatus equipped with a thermal conductivity detector (32).

2.2.1. TPD of  $CO_2$ . About 0.2 g of sample were pretreated under helium at 450°C for 1 h, exposed to  $CO_2$  at 25°C during 30 min, and flushed at that temperature with helium during 30 min. TPD measurements were carried out with a heating rate of 10°C min<sup>-1</sup>, from 25 up to 450°C under a flow of helium.

2.2.2. TPD of  $NH_3$ . Two series of measurements were made. In the first series, a sample of ca. 0.2 g was pretreated under helium at 450°C for 1 h, exposed to  $NH_3$  at 25°C during 30 min, and flushed at that temperature with helium during 30 min. TPD measurements were carried out from that temperature up to 450°C under a flow of helium, at a heating rate of 10°C/min<sup>-1</sup>. The amounts of ammonia which desorbed (in  $\mu$ mol NH<sub>3</sub> g<sup>-1</sup>) during these TPD runs were assumed to correspond to the total surface acidity of the samples studied.

In the second series of measurements, ca. 0.2 g of a standard mixture of composition r = 0.5 was reduced with H<sub>2</sub> at 150°C during 1 h, flushed with helium at 25°C, and exposed to NH<sub>3</sub> as before. The TPD run was carried out from 25 up to 360°C. The sample was then reoxidized with  $O_2$  (10% of  $O_2$  in He) at 150°C during 1 h and the whole procedure was repeated.

The quantity of ammonia adsorbed by the samples was estimated by a calibration method, namely by comparing it with the integral thermal conductivity signals obtained with precisely known amounts of  $NH_{3}$ .

## 2.3. Reoxidation

The measurement of the degree of reoxidation and reduction of a previously reduced molybdenum oxide in the presence of  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> was carried out as follows.

2.3.1. Thermoreoxidation. In order to overcome the low sensibility of the thermoreoxidation technique, our  $MoO_{3-x}$  sample, a relatively deeply reduced molybdenum oxide, was used in the measurements.

Thermoreoxidation of  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> + MoO<sub>3-x</sub> mixtures was carried out with a Setaram MTB 10-8 microbalance connected to a vacuum and a gas-handling system. The weight changes were recorded continuously. About 0.08 g of sample were used in each run. The sample was heated from 25 to 370°C (10°C/ min) in a flow of 60 ml/min of helium (Air Liquide Belge, 99.995%). After 1 h at 370°C, helium was replaced with a flow of 60 ml/ min of dried air (Air Liquide Belge, 99.999%). The isothermal reoxidation experiments were always carried out at 370°C.

Results are expressed as a percentage of  $MOO_{3-x}$  weight increase, i.e.  $(\Delta m/m_{MoO_{3-x}})\%$  with  $\Delta m = m_t - m_o$  and  $^mMoO_{3-x} = m_o r$ , where  $m_t$  is the weight after t minutes,  $m_o$  is the initial weight, and r is the mass ratio of MoO<sub>3</sub> weight to total weight of the sample.

2.3.2. Electron Spin Resonance (ESR). ESR gives the possibility of determining the degree of reduction of our samples by the measurement of the  $Mo^{+5}$  ions concentration. Thanks to the high sensitivity of ESR, a slight superficial reduction of  $MoO_3$  is enough to give the  $Mo^{+5}$  signal. This technique allows us to investigate the surface oxidation state of  $MoO_3$  without changing its structure. Our  $MoO_{3-y}$  sample, a slightly reduced molybdenum oxide, was chosen for this investigation.

The measurements were performed in an X-band Varian E-12 Spectrometer with double cavity. The modulation frequency was 100 kHz. The power of the incident microwave beam was 20 mW. The special device of the sample holder used for pretreatment and ESR measurements was described in Ref. (33).

About 0.30 g of sample ( $MoO_{3-y}$ ) was outgased at 25°C for 1 h and heated with a rate of 10°C/min from 25°C to 130°C. Oxygen (Air Liquide Belge, 1% of O<sub>2</sub> 99.995% + 99% of He 99.995%) was introduced and the reoxidation was carried out isothermally at 130°C. The spectra were recorded at different times.

In order to compare quantitatively the ESR spectra, the  $Mo^{+5}$  signal intensities were normalized with the equation

$$[Mo^{+5}]_{rel} = \frac{I \Delta H^2}{I_0} \cdot \frac{S_S}{S} \cdot \frac{1}{m} \cdot \frac{1}{r}, \qquad (1)$$

where I is the intensity of the signal characteristic of  $Mo^{5+}$ ,  $\Delta H$  is the width of the signal for  $Mo^{5+}$ ,  $I_0$  is the intensity of the internal standard (pitch), S is the selected sensitivity of the apparatus during measurement,  $S_s = 1.25.10^4$  is the standard sensitivity, m is the mass of the sample (g), and r is the mass ratio.

The relative intensity of  $Mo^{5+}$  ( $[Mo^{5+}]_{rel}$ ) after normalization is divided by the amount of  $MoO_{3-\nu}$  present in the samples.

## 2.4. Analysis of Carbon Deposit

The  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> + MoO<sub>3</sub>C mixtures were pretreated at 370°C in air for 10, 20, 40, and 80 min. An analysis of the carbon deposit still remaining on the samples was performed using the method proposed by Jones *et al.* (34). The sample was fired in O<sub>2</sub> (Air Liquide Belge, 99.995%) at 1200°C. The CO<sub>2</sub> produced was absorbed by a N,N-dimethylformamide solution and subsequently titrated by a 0.02 *M* tetra-*n*-butylammonium hydroxide solution.

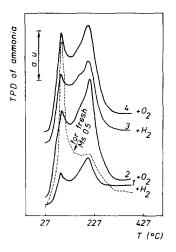


FIG. 1. NH<sub>3</sub> TPD profiles for the Ms 0.5 sample after different treatments: (1) reduction with H<sub>2</sub>, (2) reoxidation with O<sub>2</sub>, (3) second reduction with H<sub>2</sub>, (4) second reoxidation with O<sub>2</sub>. Dashed curve is the profile from the fresh Ms 0.5 sample.

The results are expressed using the formula

$$C\% = (W_{\rm c}/W_{\rm MoO_{3}C})\%$$

where  $W_c$  is the weight of carbon determined by the analysis and  $W_{MoO_3C}$  is the weight of MoO<sub>3</sub>C in the analysed sample.

### 3. RESULTS

## 3.1. Basicity and Acidity

3.1.1. TPD of  $CO_2$ .  $CO_2$  temperature-programmed desorption was carried out for the Ms0.0, Ms0.5 and Ms1.0 samples. No  $CO_2$  desorption peak was observed.

3.1.2. TPD of  $NH_3$ . The TPD profile for Ms0.5 samples in the first series of measurements mentioned in Section 2.2.2. is presented in Fig. 1 (dashed line). Two overlapping peaks of  $NH_3$  desorption with maxima at 110 and about 220°C are observed. The peak at 110°C is more intense than that at 220°C.

The amounts of NH<sub>3</sub> adsorbed by the Ms samples as a function of sample composition are presented in Fig. 2. Ms0.0 (namely pure  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>) does not adsorb NH<sub>3</sub> at 25°C. The

number of acidic centers increases with the concentration of MoO<sub>3</sub> in the sample until r = 0.5. The catalyst containing approximately equal quantities of  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> and MoO<sub>3</sub> possesses the maximum NH<sub>3</sub> adsorption capacity. Upon further increase of the MoO<sub>3</sub> content in the sample (r > 0.5) the amount of adsorbed NH<sub>3</sub> diminishes.

Figure 3 presents the TPD profiles of the MoiSb samples (impregnated samples). Two peaks of  $NH_3$  desorption are also present, with maxima at 110 and 230°C. Contrary to the Ms samples, the peak at 110°C is less intense than that at 230°C. The former remains practically unchanged for the different samples while the latter increases with the MoO<sub>3</sub> content in the samples.

Table 1 gives the amounts of NH<sub>3</sub> adsorbed by the MoiSb samples. No NH<sub>3</sub> adsorption is detected for MoiSb0.0. After  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> is impregnated with a small amount of MoO<sub>3</sub>, a conspicuous increase of NH<sub>3</sub> adsorption is observed. This adsorption increases with the content of MoO<sub>3</sub> in the samples.

Figure 1 presents the ammonia TPD profiles of the Ms0.5 sample obtained in the second series of measurements described in Section 2.2.2.

A mild reduction with hydrogen at 150°C decreases surface acidity (initially equivalent to 146  $\mu$ m of NH<sub>3</sub> g<sup>-1</sup>) by a factor of 3. The catalyst, when reoxidized with oxygen (10% of O<sub>2</sub> in He) at 150°C, recovers a high acidity, which diminishes again after the next reduction. After a new reoxidation, the

TABLE 1

Amount of NH<sub>3</sub> Adsorbed by MoiSb Samples

Samples	$NH_3$ adsorbed by sample ( $\mu$ mol/g cata.)	
	Before reaction	After reaction
MoiSb0.0%	0	· · · · · ·
MoiSb0.075%	22	
MoiSb0.15%	33	30
MoiSb0.60%	39	40

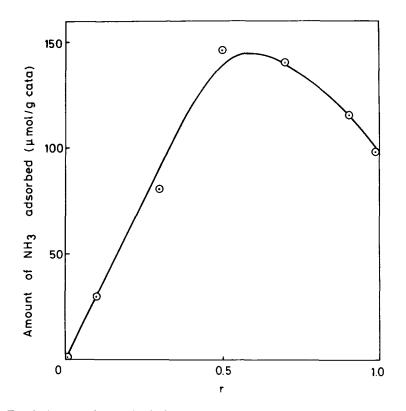


FIG. 2. Amount of NH<sub>3</sub> adsorbed by Ms as a function of the sample composition.

catalyst again regains a part of its initial acidity. The changes observed are mainly due to the peak at 220°C.

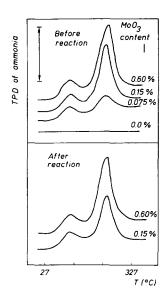


FIG. 3. NH<sub>3</sub> TPD profiles for MoiSb samples.

## 3.2. Reoxidation of Previously Reduced Molybdenum Oxides

3.2.1. Thermoreoxidation. Figure 4 presents the evolution of weight gain per amount of  $MoO_{3-x}$  contained in the samples with time during isothermal reoxidation at 370°C. At the beginning, some induction period is observed. The induction time for  $MoO_{3-x}$  (r = 1.0) is the longest. With the increase of  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> content in the samples, the induction time decreases progressively to zero. At any given time, the weight gain of  $MoO_{3-x}$  in the mixtures is greater than that of  $MoO_{3-x}$  alone. It increases with the  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> content in the samples.

The slope of the curves in Fig. 4, at the point at the inflexion point (end of induction time), is taken as an empirical rate. (This corresponds to the maximal rate of reoxidation). It is visible in Fig. 4 that the reoxidation reaction accelerates with the increase of  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> content in the samples.

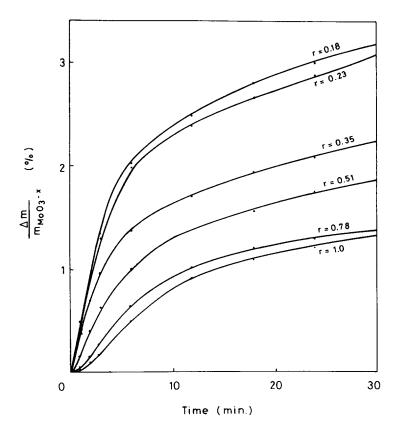


FIG. 4. Weight increase of  $MO_{3-x}$  in  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> + MoO<sub>3-x</sub> samples as a function of reoxidation time.

3.2.2. ESR measurements. ESR measurements were used to monitor the disappearance of  $Mo^{5+}$  during reoxidation. The samples containing  $MoO_{3-y}$  were chosen for this investigation. The relative intensities of the  $Mo^{5+}$  signal (g = 1.93; width: ca. 100 Gauss) as a function of reoxidation time are presented in Fig. 5. For all the samples, the  $Mo^{5+}$  intensities decrease with the reoxidation time. In  $MoO_{3-y}$  alone, the decrease of  $Mo^{5+}$  ions as a function of reoxidation time is almost linear. A marked curvature is observed for samples r = 0.7, 0.5, and 0.3; the aspect of the curves is practically the same for all three.

Before reoxidation (time 0), all samples contain practically the same quantity of  $Mo^{5+}$  ions. As soon as the reoxidation begins, the concentration of  $Mo^{5+}$  ions in the various mixtures always becomes lower than that in  $MoO_{3-y}$  alone, and the decrease is more rapid. The increase of  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> con-

tent in the mixtures accelerates this reoxidation.

#### 3.3. Analysis of Carbon Deposit

The results of the analysis of carbon deposit as a function of pretreatment time are given in Fig. 6. The quantity of carbon remaining on the samples decreases with the increase of the treatment time. This decrease in the mixtures is more rapid than that in MoO<sub>3</sub>C alone. At any given time, one notices that an increase of the  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> content in the mixtures up to r = 0.3 brings about a decrease of the remaining carbon quantity. A further increase of the  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> content in the mixture (from r = 0.3 to r = 0.1) has little effect.

#### 4. DISCUSSION

The preceding paper (1) has shown that  $MoO_3$  possesses the active sites and the role of  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> was to influence its cata-

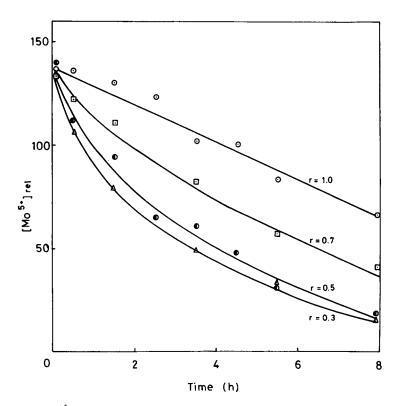


FIG. 5.  $[M^{+5}]_{rel.}$  in  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> + MoO<sub>3-y</sub> samples as a function of reoxidation time.

lytic activity in N-ethyl formamide dehydration. The discussion of the results of the present paper will focus on the following themes:

1. Basicity, acidity and nature of active sites;

2. Correlation between acidity and activity;

3. Influence of reduction and reoxidation on acidity;

4. Reoxidation of reduced molybdenum oxides;

5. Removal of carbon deposit;

6. Role of spillover oxygen and general correlation with catalytic activity;

7. Short comparison with selective oxidation.

## 4.1. Basicity, Acidity, and Nature of Active Sites

No  $CO_2$  adsorption on the Ms samples was detected. Nevertheless, these results

should not be taken as proof of a total absence of basic sites. Indeed, Ai (7, 8, 9) observed that pure MoO<sub>3</sub> did not adsorb  $CO_2$  but adsorbed acetic acid. The author attributed this phenomenon to the difference in acid strength. Acetic acid is stronger than  $CO_2$  and can adsorb on weak basic sites. With respect to our results, this means that our samples are devoid of relatively strong basic sites, but they might possess weak ones.

The NH<sub>3</sub> TPD results indicate the presence of two types NH<sub>3</sub> attached to the surface. They correspond to the desorption of NH<sub>3</sub> at 110°C, and in the 220–230°C temperature range, respectively.

These results should be compared with the findings of Belokopytov *et al.* (13) and Groff (14). The authors, in an infrared investigation of the acidity of  $MoO_3$  by  $NH_3$  adsorption, concluded that  $MoO_3$  possesses (i) Lewis acid centers capable of adsorbing ammonia by the formation of a coordination

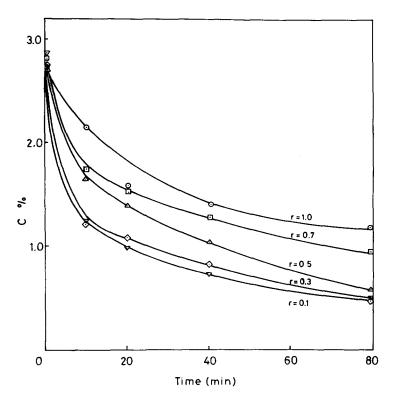


FIG. 6. Quantities of carbon deposit remaining on MoO<sub>3</sub> in  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> + MoO<sub>3</sub>C samples as a function of pretreatment time.

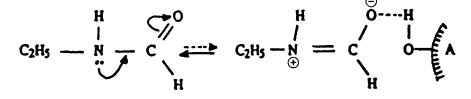
bond and (ii) Brønsted centers, bringing about the formation of  $NH_4^+$  ions. The bond between  $NH_3$  and Lewis centers would be less strong than that with Brønsted centers (13). The IR band assigned to  $NH_3$  adsorption on Brønsted sites disappeared only after evacuation at temperatures higher than 200°C. Taking into account these results, one can assign the second TPD peak (220–230°C) in Figs. 1 and 3 to  $NH_3$  desorption from Brønsted sites.

The vast majority of mechanisms evoked to explain dehydration reactions involve Brønsted acid sites. Our previous results (35) led us to propose a concerted mechanism in which vicinal Brønsted acid (A) and basic (B) sites cooperated.

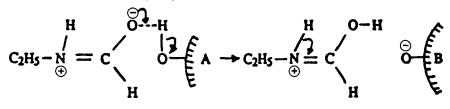
We do not exclude completely this mechanism. However, another mechanism can explain our results without having to evoke basic sites, the presence of which is not demonstrated in our work. This mechanism involves the intervention of a sole Brønsted acid site, and is presented in Scheme 1.

There is some difference of the NH<sub>3</sub> TPD profiles between Ms and MoiSb samples (Figs. 1 and 3): in the latter, the majority of the acid sites correspond to Brønsted ones whereas in the former, the two peaks are comparable in intensity. In the preceding paper (1), it has been shown that, in the Ms samples, MoO<sub>3</sub> formed large particles in the shape of plate-like crystallites exposing predominantly the (010) plane, whereas in the MoiSb samples, MoO<sub>3</sub> formed small particles with an important exposition of other planes, such as apical (001) + (101) and side ones (100). These morphologies could result in the differences in acid properties. In fact, the unsaturated oxygen ions on the (001), (101), and (100) planes (36-38) would be compensated for by a dissociative adsorption of water and this would produce Brønsted centers (31).

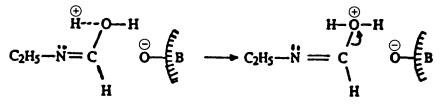
1. Establishment of H-bridge

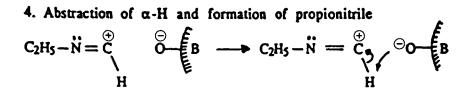


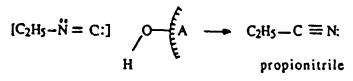
2. Formation of OH group



3. Protonation of OH group and elimination of H<sub>2</sub>O







SCHEME 1. Mechanism of NEF dehydration involving Brønsted acid sites.

# 4.2. Correlation between Activity and Acidity

In the preceding paper (1), we observed that pure MoO<sub>3</sub> was active in N-ethyl formamide dehydration, contrary to  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>. We concluded that the active sites are situated on MoO<sub>3</sub>. When MoO<sub>3</sub> was in contact with  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>, the activity increased conspicuously for both Ms and MoiSb samples.

The results in this paper indicate that  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> does not adsorb NH<sub>3</sub>. On the con-

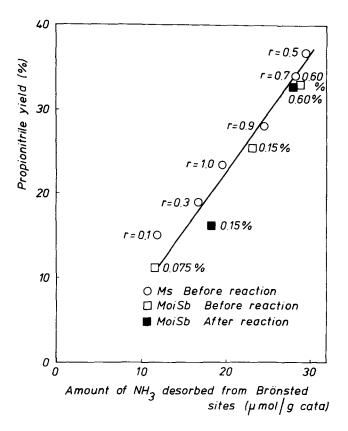


FIG. 7. Propionitrile yield as a function of amount of  $NH_3$  desorbed from Brønsted sites of Ms and MoiSb samples.

trary, MoO<sub>3</sub> possesses the acid sites. The surface acidity increases remarkably when MoO<sub>3</sub> is in contact with  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> (Figs. 1, 2, and 3, and Table 1).

As the total amount of NH<sub>3</sub> desorbed from the MoiSb sample corresponds mainly to Brønsted sites, we could expect that a plot of dehydration activity vs. desorbed NH<sub>3</sub> would be approximately linear. This is indeed what we can observe. Account taken of the remark at the end of the preceding section, it is not surprising that we did not observe such a linearity with the Ms samples. For this reason, we separated the peaks corresponding to the two types of adsorption and took only the amount of NH<sub>3</sub> desorbed around 220°C (Brønsted sites). The corresponding plot of activity vs. NH<sub>3</sub> adsorbed is presented in Fig. 7. A good linear correlation between activity and

Brønsted acidity is obtained. It is remarkable that the same correlation holds for both series of samples.

This proves that the activity is controlled by the number of Brønsted sites on the surface.

From these results, it is possible to calculate the turnover frequency on Brønsted sites. The propionitrile formed in the Ms 0.5 samples is 32.8  $\mu$ mol min<sup>-1</sup> m<sup>-2</sup> and the amount of NH<sub>3</sub> desorbed from the Brønsted sites is 14.8  $\mu$ mol m<sup>-2</sup> (Fig. 7). The calculated turnover frequency is thus about 2 min<sup>-1</sup>.

## 4.3. Influence of Reduction and Reoxidation on Acidity

In the first paper of this series (1), we have shown that the catalysts worked efficiently in N-ethyl formamide dehydration only in the presence of gaseous oxygen. In this paper, we must try to explain how oxygen might modify the number of Brønsted sites.

As a whole, Fig. 1 shows an influence of the reducing-oxidizing treatment on both sites (Lewis and Brønsted). But reoxidation of reduced samples gives a conspicuous increase of TPD peaks corresponding to Brønsted sites (compare curves 1 and 3, corresponding to reduced samples, with curves 2 and 4, after reoxidation). This increase is more important than that corresponding to Lewis sites.

Generally, Brønsted sites cannot persist on the surface in the absence of water or precursors of hydroxyls. For explaining the results in Fig. 1, one can take into account the fact that MoO<sub>3</sub> can retain sufficient hydrogen in its shear structure (or as a MoO<sub>3</sub> "bronze") during the hydrogenation step (39-41), and that this hydrogen could form hydroxyls in the reoxidation step.

The TPD results of Fig. 1 thus gives proofs that oxygen can create or restore the useful Brønsted sites.

In the first series of measurements described in section 2.2.2, the Ms samples were pretreated in helium; no gaseous oxygen was present during the measurement. Nevertheless, the presence of  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> increased the surface acidity of the sample. In the following section, we show that the oxygens on the surface of  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> can migrate onto the surface of  $MoO_3$ ; this can explain the creation or regeneration of the acid sites.

## 4.4. Reoxidation of Reduced Molybdenum Oxides

The reoxidation of the samples containing  $MoO_{3-x}$  shows that an increase of the  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> content in the mixture, decreases progressively the induction time to zero, and accelerates the rate of reoxidation.

When  $MoO_{3-x}$  is alone, the sole source of reoxidation is gaseous (molecular) oxygen  $O_2$ . When there is a contact with  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>, another source is the mobile oxygen species activated by  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>, which migrate onto the surface of  $MoO_{3-x}$ . The acceleration of the reoxidation of  $MoO_{3-x}$  by  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> is an important proof of the migration of oxygen species from  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> onto MoO<sub>3-x</sub>.

In general, reoxidation of reduced oxides is a process consisting of three steps:

1. adsorption of gaseous oxygen on the oxide surface;

2. dissociation of the adsorbed oxygen into a suitable oxygen species;

3. replenishment of this suitable oxygen species in the crystalline lattice.

The results presented in this paper strongly suggest that the rate determining step in the reoxydation of  $MoO_{3-x}$  would be the dissociation of oxygen;  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> could facilitate that dissociation.

The results and the conclusions are further confirmed by ESR measurements for the series of samples containing  $MoO_{3-y}$ . In that case, the  $MoO_3$  sample is slightly reduced, and reduction is restricted to the superficial regions. The reoxidation is also accelerated by the presence of  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> in the samples.

## 4.5. Removal of Carbon Deposit

Under mild conditions, such as 370°C in air, carbon is removed only progressively. This permits us to measure the different quantities of carbon remaining on the samples after a series of treatment (Fig. 6). In principle, for a sample containing only MoO<sub>3</sub>C, the carbon deposit can be removed either directly by molecular oxygen or by oxygen species coming from the surface of molybdenum oxide. When MoO<sub>3</sub>C is in contact with  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>, the removal of carbon is more rapid. An explanation consistent with those given above is that molecular oxygen is activated by  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> and is transferred to MoO<sub>3</sub>C. If the particles of MoO<sub>3</sub>C are surrounded by those of  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>, many of the active oxygen species migrating from the surface of  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> could attack the carbon deposit. The decrease of the quantity of carbon deposit remaining on the samples when the  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> content in the samples increases (Fig. 6) indicates that this process plays an

important role in the reoxidation of deposited carbon.

## 4.6. Role of Spillover Oxygen and General Correlation with Catalytic Activity

The role of spillover oxygen has been discussed in the preceding paper (1). We concluded that it created the new active sites and/or regenerated the sites deactivated during the reaction. The deactivation was due to the reduction of  $MoO_3$  and/or carbon deposition on  $MoO_3$ .

The results presented in this paper prove the validity of this interpretation. Indeed, the presence of  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> increases the surface acidity of Ms samples (Fig. 2); the reoxidation of the reduced molybdenum oxides, such as  $MoO_{3-x}$  or  $MoO_{3-y}$ , is facilitated by the presence of  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> in the samples (Figs. 4 and 5); and the surface of MoO<sub>3</sub> with a carbon deposit is more rapidly cleaned when in contact with  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> (Fig. 6). These results, even if alone, would strongly suggest that  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> can activate gaseous oxygen into a mobile species. They would also constitute proof of the existence of spillover oxygen. The formation and migration of spillover oxygen from  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> to MoO<sub>3</sub> has been proven by an independent experiment using <sup>18</sup>O (42). Taking all the results together, we are forced to come to the conclusion that spillover oxygen is involved in the creation of new active sites and regeneration of deactivated sites.

It is necessary to emphasize that no gaseous oxygen was present during the NH<sub>3</sub> TPD measurement of the first series (described in Section 2.2.2.). It is the oxygen on the surface of  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> that migrates onto the surface of MoO<sub>3</sub> where it creates the new acid sites. This creation is probably due to the fact, as shown in Fig. 8, that the oxygen ion migrating from  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> has a tendency to share its electrons with surface  $Mo^{6+}$  ions. This partially compensates the polarizing effects of the lattice oxygen atoms surrounding Mo, which tend to render Mo positive. This effect would result in increasing the density in negative charges of the unsaturated oxygen ions on, or above,

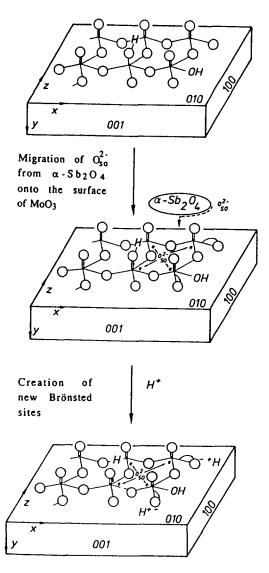


FIG. 8. Creation of new Brønsted sites by spillover oxygen: (•) molybdenum atom, ( $\bigcirc$ ) oxygen atom,  $(O_{so}^{2-})$  spillover oxygen.

the surface, thus increasing the possibility of adsorbing a proton. The results would be the formation of Brønsted sites.

On the other hand, it should be noted that molybdenum oxides previously reduced or covered by carbon deposit were prepared in extremely severe conditions. Even in this case, the reoxidation and the removal of deposited carbon in conditions similar to those of N-ethyl formamide dehydration, i.e., 370°C in the presence of oxygen, take

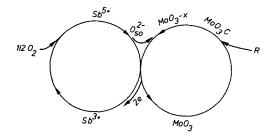


FIG. 9. Cycle of reoxydation and removal of carbon deposit by spillover oxygen.

place remarkably easily, especially for the sample containing  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>. During "normal" N-ethyl formamide dehydration in the presence of oxygen, the reduction of part of the MoO<sub>3</sub> surface or coke formation certainly takes place only accidentally. It suffices that relatively few spillover oxygen species, activated by  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>, could migrate onto the surface of MoO<sub>3</sub> for reoxidizing the reduced sites and cleaning the surface from coke.

We have thus a self-consistent explanation of the role of  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>. By supplying spillover oxygen, it creates active sites and cleans the surface from coke deposit. It remains to discuss the reason of the efficiency of  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> in producing spillover oxygen.

The  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> is constituted by Sb<sup>5+</sup> ions, which are in a distorted octahedral coordination with six strongly bonded oxygens, and Sb<sup>3+</sup> ions, which are in a distorted pseudotrigonal-bipyramidal coordination with four strongly bonded oxygens and one weakly bonded oxygen (43-45). The characteristic of this structure gives the possibility to activate the oxygen, probably by a dissociation of one molecular oxygen into two oxygen ions. The adsorption of molecular oxygen can take place at the oxygen vacancy near Sb<sup>3+</sup>. After the polarization and dissociation, the molecular oxygen becomes two  $O^{2-}$  ions, and the  $Sb^{3+}$  is oxidized to  $Sb^{5+}$ .

In a general way, the action of the reoxidation and the removal of carbon deposit could be described by the following equations:

$$Sb^{3+} + \frac{1}{2}O_2 \rightarrow Sb^{5+} + O^{2-}$$
 (1)

$$Sb^{5+} + 2e^- \rightarrow Sb^{3+}$$
 (2)

$$MoO_{3-x} + xO^{2-} \rightarrow MoO_3 + 2xe^-$$
 (3)

$$MoO_3C + 2O^{2-} \rightarrow MoO_3 + CO_2 + 4e^-.$$
(4)

The electrons released by the reactions (3) and (4) could be accepted by  $Sb^{5+}$  at the contact region of  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> with MoO<sub>3</sub>. After capture of electrons, Sb<sup>5+</sup> becomes Sb<sup>3+</sup> (reaction (2)). This provokes other oxygen vacancy for the dissociative adsorption of molecular oxygen.

This whole process, as shown in Fig. 9, constitutes a cycle which could operate many times during the catalytic reaction.

## 4.7. Short Comparison with Selective Oxidation

When our results are compared with those in literature concerning the role of  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> in other catalytic systems, especially in the  $FeSbO_4 + Sb_2O_4$  catalysts, some parallelism could be expected. Straguzzi et al. (28) noted that although the involvement of Sb ions in the reaction cannot be ruled out, the primary function of the antimony appears to be to adsorb oxygen from the gas phase and that the oxygen, after dissociative adsorption on the antimony, leads to the reoxidation of the catalyst. The cooperation of Sb<sup>5+</sup> and  $Sb^{3+}$ , i.e., the capture of electrons by Sb<sup>5+</sup> and the adsorption of molecular oxygen from the gas phase by vacancies near  $Sb^{3+}$ , are indeed a process of  $Sb^5$  + reduction and Sb<sup>3+</sup> reoxidation during reaction. This phenomenon was observed by Kriegsmann et al. (46) and Straguzzi et al. (47).

Our results certainly agree with the literature in that they point to the critical role of antimony with respect to oxygen activation.

They shed light on the mechanism and in particular on site formation, which has a direct bearing on selective oxidation.

The fact that Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> acts via a remote con-

trol mechanism in formamide dehydration suggests that a remote control mechanism might also work in selective oxidation. In this way it contributes to the understanding of the role of antimony in a multicomponent catalyst.

The research concerning the desirable catalyst properties in selective oxidation reactions has received more and more attention in recent years (48). Although a consensus has not been reached, some trends can be discerned. One of the interesting approaches consists in explaining the role of acid-basic and redox properties in selective oxidation (31, 48).

The acido-basic properties may play a role in many steps of the selective oxidation. As postulated by Grzybowska (31), the adsorption and activation of hydrocarbons can be considered as an acido-basic process, olefins being adsorbed on exposed metal cations (Lewis centers) with abstraction of hydrogen on oxygen ions (Lewis bases). Such an approach implies direct correlation between activity and acidity for the reactions in which the activated adsorption is a rate-determining step. Acido-basic properties may also be involved in regulating the energetics and kinetics of the adsorption-desorption steps of the reaction products and thus may influence the selectivity of various products formed in the consecutive route of the oxidation. High acidity of a catalyst may bring about a strong adsorption of reactants, which may then react further on the surface without desorption to the gas phase, giving undesirable CO<sub>2</sub>. Ai et al. (6-12) suggested, that the oxidation reaction of the base-base type (e.g., butene to butadiene) requires the presence of both acidic centers (for butene adsorption) and basic ones (to facilitate butadiene desorption), whereas for the base-acid reaction (butene to maleic anhydride) the acidic centers are necessary to facilitate both adsorption of substrate and desorption of a product.

The redox properties of the selective oxidation catalysts have been largely studied in the literature. It is well known that a good selective oxidation catalyst, after its lattice oxygen takes part in the reaction, should be capable of replenishing the formed vacancy with the oxygen species activated by an element in the catalyst (49-56).

The work presented here can provide valuable clues for establishing a correlation between activity and acido-basic as well as redox properties of catalyst.

#### 5. CONCLUSIONS

The experiments presented in this paper were designed to identify the nature of active sites and to investigate the role of spillover oxygen.

Our results show clearly that the Brønsted sites situated on the surface of MoO<sub>3</sub> are necessary for the dehydration of N-ethyl formamide. For this reaction a mechanism involving only Brønsted sites can be considered. The number of these sites and, in a similar manner, the catalytic activity can be influenced by the presence of  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> in the catalysts.

Reduction of MoO<sub>3</sub> has been considered as one of the reasons for deactivation. Reoxidation of previously reduced molybdenum oxides indicates that the rate-determining step is the dissociation of molecular oxygen into a suitable oxygen species which can replenish the crystalline lattice. The  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> facilitates that dissociation. The supply of dissociated oxygen species by migration from  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> onto the surface of MoO<sub>3</sub> permits or accelerates the reoxidation. Reoxidation is accompanied by reformation of the Brønsted sites.

Carbon deposition on the surface of  $MoO_3$ is another reason for deactivation probably narrowly linked with the first. Oxidation of carbon deposits on the surface of  $MoO_3$ demonstrates that the oxygen species, activated by  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>, can remove the carbon deposits more efficiently than gaseous oxygen.

In conclusion,  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> can produce spillover oxygen by dissociation of molecular oxygen into oxygen ions. These oxygens can migrate from  $\alpha$ -Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> onto the surface of MoO<sub>3</sub> where they create the new Brønsted sites and/or regenerate the sites deactivated by reduction of catalysts and deposition of carbon.

#### ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We are very much indebted to Professor K. Tanabe for the fruitful discussions we had during a stay he made in our laboratory, and especially for the discussions on the mechanism of N-ethyl formamide dehydration.

The financial support of the Commissariat Général aux Relations Internationales de la Communauté Française de Belgique (B. Zhou) and the Service de Programmation de la Politique Scientifique (P. Ruiz, T. Machej) is gratefully acknowledged. We are indebted to M. Genet for the constructive discussions and comments.

The authors thank Professor P. Cloos, Dr. O. B. Nagy, and Dr. J. L. Dallons for their useful comments and suggestions.

#### REFERENCES

- Zhou, B., Sham, E., Bertrand, P., Machej, T., Ruiz, P., and Delmon, B., J. Catal. 132(1), 157 (1991).
- Shibata, K., Kiyoura, T., Kitagawa, J., and Tanabe, K., Bull. Chem. Soc. Jpn. 46, 2985 (1973).
- Tanabe, K., Shibata, T., Kiyoura, and Kitagawa, J., Bull. Chem. Soc. Jpn. 47, 1064 (1974).
- 4. Itoh, M., Hattori, H., and Tanabe, K., J. Catal. 35, 225 (1974).
- Jin, T., Hattori, H., and Tanabe, K., Bull. Chem. Soc. Jpn. 55, 2279 (1982).
- 6. Ai, M., and Suzuki, S., J. Catal. 26, 202 (1972).
- 7. Ai, M., and Suzuki, S., J. Catal. 30, 362 (1973).
- 8. Ai, M., J. Catal. 40, 327 (1975).
- 9. Ai, M., Bull. Chem. Soc. Jpn. 49(5), 1328 (1976).
- 10. Ai, M., J. Catal. 50, 291 (1977).
- 11. Ai, M., J. Catal. 52, 16 (1978).
- 12. Ai, M., Bull. Chem. Soc. Jpn. 56, 862 (1983).
- Belokopytov, W., Yu, V., Kholyavenko, K. M., Gerei, S. V., J. Catal. 60, 1 (1979).
- 14. Groff, R. P., J. Catal. 86, 215 (1984).
- Tatibouët, J. M., and Germain, J. E., J. Catal. 72, 375 (1981).
- Tatibouët, J. M., Germain, J. E., and Volta, J. C., J. Catal. 82, 240 (1983).
- Brückman, K., Grabowski, R., Haber, J., Mazurkiewicz, A., Slozynski, J., and Wiltowski, T., J. Catal. 104, 71 (1987).
- Boreskov, G. K., Vent' yaminov, S. A., Dzis'ko, V. A., Tarasova, D. V., Dindoin, V. M., Sazonova, M. M., Olen'kova, T. P., and Keiefi, L. M., Kinet. Catal. 10, 1350 (1969).

- Shchukin, V. P., Boreskov, G. K., Ven'yaminov, S. A., and Tarasova, D. V., *Kinet. Catal. Engl. Transl.* 11, 153 (1970).
- Fattore, V., Fuhrman, Z. A., Manara, G., and Notari, B., J. Catal. 37, 223 (1975).
- Aso, I., Furukawa, S., Yamazoe, N., and Seiyama, T., J. Catal. 64, 29 (1980).
- Yamazoe, N., Aso, I., Amamoto, T., and Seiyama, T., in "Proceedings, 7th International Congress on Catalysis, Tokyo, 1980," p. 1239. Elsevier, Amsterdam, 1981.
- Burriesci, N., Garbassi, F., Petrera, M., and Petrini, G., J. Chem. Soc. Faraday Trans. 1 78, 817 (1982).
- 24. Teller, R. G., Brazdil, J. F., Grasselli, R. K., J. Chem. Soc. Faraday Trans. 1 81, 1693 (1985).
- Centi, G., Trifiro, F., Catal. Rev. Sci. Eng. 28 (2 & 3), 165 (1986).
- Carbucicchio, M., Centi, G., and Trifiro, F., J. Catal. 91, 85 (1985).
- Volta, J. C., Bussiere, P., Coudurier, G., Herrmann, J. M., and Vedrine, J. C., *Appl. Catal.* 16, 315 (1985).
- Straguzzi, G. I., Bischoff, K. B., Koch, T. A., and Schuit, G. C. A., J. Catal. 104, 47 (1987).
- Busca, G., and Lorenzelli, V., Mater. Chem. 7, 89 (1982).
- Kung, M. C., and Kung, H. H., Catal. Rev. Sci. Eng. 27, 452 (1985).
- Grzybowska-Swierkosz, B., Mater. Chem. Phys. 17, 121 (1987).
- 32. André, O., "Thesis, Fraculté des Sciences Agronomiques, Université Catholique de Louvain, 1985."
- 33. Tascon, J. M. D., Mestdagh, M. M., and Delmon, B., J. Catal. 97, 312 (1986).
- 34. Jones, R. F., Gale, P., Hopkins, P., and Powell, L. N., Analyst (London) 90, 623 (1965).
- Ceckiewicz, S., and Delmon, B., Bull. Soc. Chim. Belg. 93, 163 (1984).
- 36. Tatibouët, J. M., C.R. Seances Acad. Sci. Ser. 2: 297(II), 703 (1983).
- 37. Ziolkowski, J., J. Catal. 80, 263 (1983).
- Volta, J. C., Forissier, M., Theobold, F., and Pham, T. P., Chem. Commun. Faraday Discus 72, 225 (1981).
- 39. Dickens, P. G., Birtill, J. J., and Wright, C. J., J. Solid State Chem. 28, 185 (1979).
- Birtill, J. J., and Dickens, P. G., J. Solid State Chem. 28, 367 (1979).
- Slade, R. C. T., Halstead, J. K., and Dickens, P. G., J. Solid State Chem. 34, 183 (1980).
- Weng, L. T., Duprez, D., Ruiz, P., Delmon, B., J. Mol. Catal. 52, 349 (1989).
- 43. Thornton, G., Acta Crystallogr. Sect. B 33, 1271 (1977).
- 44. Gopalakrishnan, P. S., and Manohar, H., Cryst. Struct. Commun. 4, 203 (1975).

- 45. Teller, R. G., Antonio, M. R., Brazdil, J. F., Grasselli, R. K., J. Solid State Chem. 64, 249 (1986).
- 46. Kriegsmann, H., Ohlmann, G., Scheve, J., Ultrich, F. J., *in* "Proceedings, 6th International Congress on Catalysis, London, 1976," Vol. 2, p. 836. The Chemical Society, London, 1977.
- 47. Straguzzi, G. I., Bischoff, K. B., Koch, T. A., Schuit, G. C. A., Appl. Catal. 25, 257 (1986).
- 48. Kung, H. H., Ind. Eng. Chem. Prod. Res. Dev. 25, 171 (1986).
- 49. Keulks, G. W., J. Catal. 19, 232 (1970).
- Wragg, R. V., Ashmore, P. G., and Hockey, J. A., J. Catal. 22, 49 (1971).
- 51. Haber, J., in "Proceedings, 8th International Con-

gress on Catalysis, Berlin, 1984," Vol. I, p. 85. Dechema, Frankfurt-am-Main, 1984.

- Hucknall, D. J., "Selective Oxidation of Hydrocarbons." Academic Press, New York/London, 1974.
- 53. Schuit, C. C. A., J. Less-Common Met. 36, 329 (1974).
- 54. Callahan, J. L., Grasselli, R. K., Milberger, E. C., and Strecher, H. A., *Ind. Eng. Chem. Proc. Res. Dev.* 9, 134 (1970).
- Brazdil, J. F., Suresh, D. D., and Grasselli, R. K., J. Catal. 66, 387 (1980).
- Dadyburjor, D. B., Jewur, S. S. and Ruckenstein, E., Catal. Rev. Sci. Eng. 19(2), 293 (1979).