

Structure and Performance of LiYO₂ Methane Coupling Catalysts: Active Phases and Decay Mechanisms

X. ZHANG, D. A. JEFFERSON, AND R. M. LAMBERT¹

Department of Chemistry, University of Cambridge, Lensfield Road, Cambridge CB2 1EW, United Kingdom

Received August 13, 1992; revised November 24, 1992

X-ray diffraction, high-resolution electron microscopy, and microreactor studies have been used to investigate variations in structure and reactivity of a LiYO₂ catalyst during the oxidative coupling of methane. The results indicate that both LiYO₂ and small crystallites of Li⁺-doped Y₂O₃ are active for methane conversion to ethane and ethylene. An amorphous phase appears during transformation of LiYO₂ into Y₂O₃; continued loss of lithium accompanied by formation of larger crystallites of Y₂O₃ gives rise to increased deep oxidation and reduced C₂ production. The deactivation of these catalysts is associated with increase in size and crystallinity of the fluorite-like Y₂O₃ paracrystals, loss of incorporated Li⁺, and partial conversion to lithium carbonate. © 1993 Academic Press, Inc.

INTRODUCTION

The oxidative coupling of methane to higher hydrocarbons continues to attract intensive research both in academic and industrial laboratories. Following Keller and Bhasin's original work (1), many oxide systems have been found to exhibit promising activity and the subject has been extensively reviewed (2, 3). Mixed oxides characterized by the rock salt superstructure constitute a promising class of catalysts, and we have shown that among these, LiNiO₂ and LiYO₂ are particularly effective (4, 5). A comparison between these two systems is interesting for the following reason. Although they possess closely related structures, LiNiO₂ is capable of exhibiting redox behavior, whereas LiYO₂ is not. Earlier work, including our own, has shown that Ni²⁺/Ni³⁺ interconversion within the oxide matrix plays a key role in determining the behavior of LiNiO₂ as an oxidative coupling catalyst (4–8). Since this possibility does not exist in the case of LiYO₂, the nature of the catalytically active phase is likely to be quite different.

This paper reports on the performance of LiYO₂ catalysts that exhibit very high initial activity and selectivity at ~1000 K. Bulk and surface structural changes in the catalyst are correlated with changes in reactive behavior, permitting an identification of active phases and poisoning mechanisms.

EXPERIMENTAL

LiYO₂ was synthesized by solid-state reaction of lithium nitrate and yttrium oxide. The well-mixed reactants were placed in an alumina boat and calcined in air by slowly raising the temperature to 900 K, maintaining this temperature for several hours; this was followed by slow heating to 1100 K, at which temperature the sample was maintained for 15 h. The 500 mg of catalyst that had been pelletized, crushed, and sieved to 500 μm was tested in a 4-mm-i.d. silica tube microreactor at 1000 K at 1 bar total pressure, GHSV of 2250 h⁻¹, with premixed reactant (18% CH₄, 3% O₂, 79% He). Products were analyzed by means of a multiplexed quadrupole mass spectrometer; detailed descriptions of the catalyst preparation and characterization have been given elsewhere (4, 5). Powder X-ray dif-

¹ To whom correspondence should be addressed.

fraction (XRD) patterns were recorded on a Philips PW1710 horizontal diffractometer using $\text{CuK}\alpha$ radiation. Diffractograms were recorded from $2\theta = 3 - 60^\circ$ with the detector moving in $\Delta 2\theta = 0.025^\circ$ steps to achieve a sufficiently good signal-to-noise ratio for quantitative assessment of structure variations with reaction time.

Catalyst samples taken at different stages of the reaction were deposited from suspension onto copper grids coated with holey carbon films; these were examined by high-resolution electron microscopy (HREM) using a modified JEOL JEM-200CX electron microscope fitted with a special side-entry stage and objective lens (9). The objective lens characteristics were $C_s = 0.52$ mm, $C_c = 1.05$ mm, giving an interpretable point resolution (10) of 1.95 \AA and an absolute information limit (measured at 10% of maximum contrast) of 1.75 \AA . To preserve structural stability during examination, reduced specimen currents ($< 0.1 \text{ \AA}^2 \text{ cm}^{-2}$) were employed, and examination was restricted to sub-1000- \AA aggregates to ensure maximum heat dissipation from the particles under study.

After correction of objective lens astigmatism and alignment of the objective lens to avoid contrast effects due to inclined illumination (11), a series of high-resolution micrographs were recorded from each area of interest at a nominal magnification of $\times 475,000$, with focal increments between successive micrographs of approximately 300 \AA . To determine the exact magnification of each series of micrographs, a calibration of true magnification against objective lens focusing voltage was made, using a gold specimen giving 2.04-\AA (200) lattice fringes: A further check was made with the specimen of the fresh catalyst where the 4.10-\AA (101) lattice fringes of LiYO_2 (12) could be readily identified and used as an internal calibration. Overall accuracy of magnification was to within 2%. Where the crystallite size was in the sub-100 \AA range, phases could be identified only by their lattice spacings, but for larger crystallites, se-

lected area electron diffraction (SAED) patterns were also recorded and used for phase characterization.

RESULTS

Microreactor Studies

Figures 1a and 1b show activity and selectivity variations during methane coupling over a LiYO_2 catalyst at 1000 K and GHSV of 2250 h^{-1} as a function of reaction time. The activity ($\sim 15\%$ CH_4 conversion) and C_2 selectivity (68%) of the fresh catalyst compare favorably with those reported for other efficient systems (2, 3). Note also that methane conversion increased from ~ 15 to 25% after 80 min, an effect also observed by Miro *et al.* (13) in their studies on Na/NiTiO_3 methane coupling catalysts. Significant changes in product selectivity

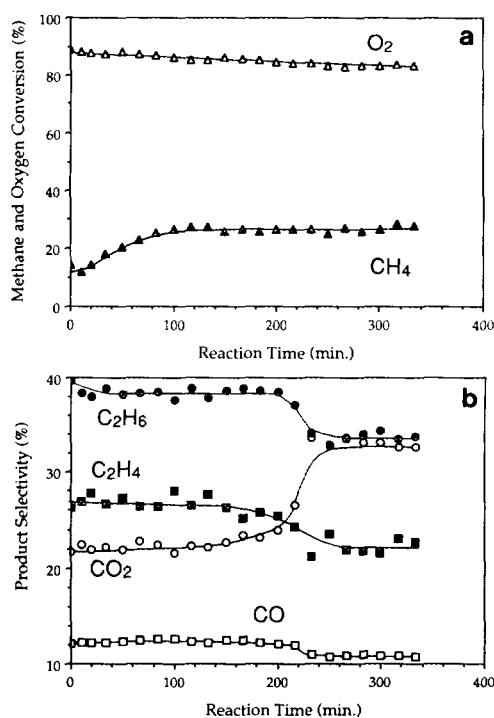


FIG. 1. Reactivity data for methane coupling over LiYO_2 at 1000 K and a GHSV of 2250 h^{-1} for ~ 400 min, (a) methane (\blacktriangle) and oxygen (\triangle) conversion; analytical error in O_2 detection $\sim 15\%$, (b) selectivities to ethane (\bullet), ethylene (\blacksquare), CO (\square), and CO_2 (\circ).

occurred in the interval ~200–240 min. For the first 200 min, selectivities to C₂H₆, C₂H₄, CO, and CO₂ were essentially stable (except for a slight fall in C₂H₆ selectivity) at 38, 26, 12, and 22%, respectively. Beyond this point, C₂ selectivity fell substantially (C₂H₆, 34%; C₂H₄, 21%), while CO₂ production increased substantially from 22 to 33%. Although CO production fell from 12 to 5% during the same interval, overall carbon oxide production was significantly increased.

Because subsequent examination revealed that Y₂O₃ was present in the catalyst under certain conditions, control experiments were carried out on pure Y₂O₃ under conditions identical to those noted above. Methane conversion and C₂ selectivity were 8.0 and 41.2%, respectively, on both counts considerably inferior to the performance of LiYO₂.

X-ray Diffraction

XRD measurement (Fig. 2a) confirmed that the fresh LiYO₂ catalyst was composed of a single phase of pure LiYO₂, no impurity peaks being observed. After ~30 min reaction a new phase that could be confidently identified as Y₂O₃ appeared; diffraction peaks due to Y₂O₃ increased as those due to LiYO₂ decreased. Figure 2b shows XRD patterns of the LiYO₂ catalyst after 60 min reaction: The peaks labelled α are due to LiYO₂, those labelled β being due to Y₂O₃. At this stage, LiYO₂ was still the dominant phase. With further reaction, the Y₂O₃ phase became dominant and another new phase (γ) appeared. After ~200 min, there was a marked further decrease in the intensity of LiYO₂ reflections and an increase in those due to Y₂O₃. Figure 2c shows the XRD patterns taken after 338 min of reaction; Y₂O₃ is now the dominant phase with $\leq 1\%$ residual LiYO₂. The new phase (γ) is most probably Li₂CO₃, although not all the diffraction peaks are in good agreement with literature information and calculations. In particular, we observed a reflection at 49.5° (2 θ), while the

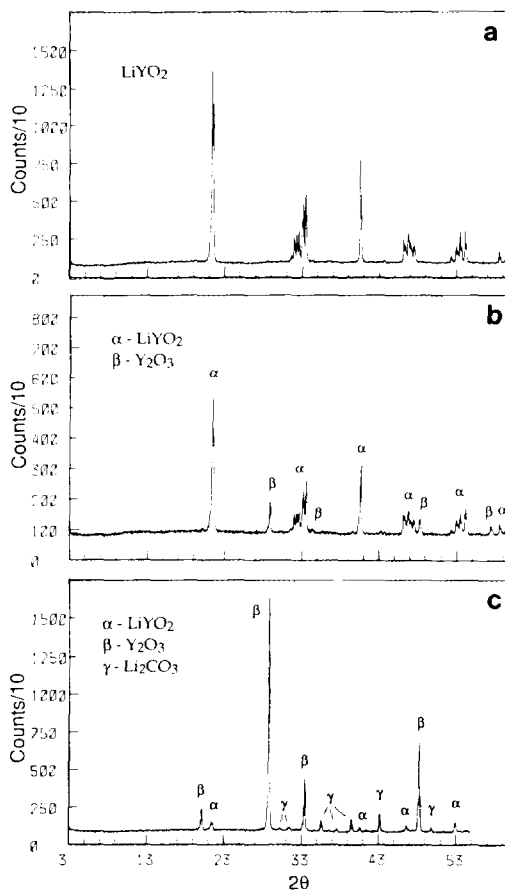


FIG. 2. Powder X-ray diffraction patterns of (a) fresh catalyst, and (b) used catalyst, and (c) deactivated catalyst.

corresponding calculated value for Li₂CO₃ is 48.7° (2 θ). This is discussed below.

In light of the above findings, control experiments were performed to characterize further the transformation of LiYO₂ to Y₂O₃ and Li₂CO₃. Figure 3a shows XRD patterns obtained after calcining a LiYO₂ catalyst at 1300 K in air for 60 min. These are similar to those obtained from the used catalyst (Fig. 2b), in which both LiYO₂ and Y₂O₃ were observed. Further experiments showed that the extent of LiYO₂ \rightarrow Y₂O₃ conversion depended on calcination temperature and time. In the case of the data in Fig. 3a, it is estimated that ~30% Y₂O₃ appeared in the LiYO₂ catalyst after calcina-

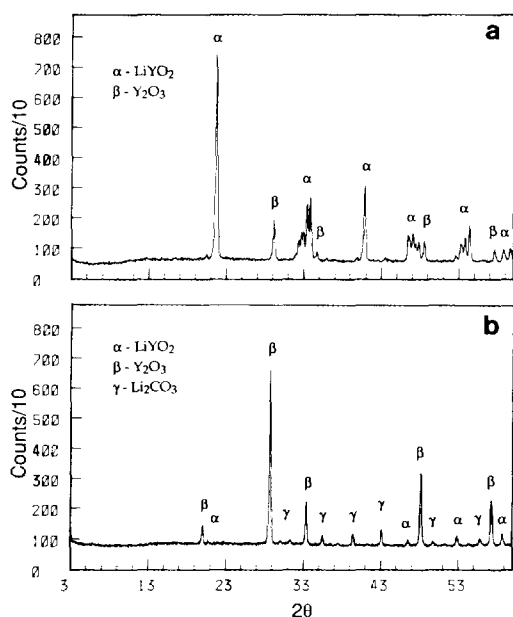


FIG. 3. Powder X-ray diffraction patterns of LiYO_2 after (a) recalcination at 1300 K in air for 60 min and (b) heating in CO_2 (10% CO_2 /90% He, 30 ml/min) at 1000 K for 60 min.

tion. The interaction of LiYO_2 with CO_2 was also examined at 1000 K for 60 min in a flow of 10% CO_2 /90% He at $\sim 2250 \text{ h}^{-1}$ GHSV. Figure 3b shows XRD patterns resulting from this treatment, and it can be seen that LiYO_2 was almost completely converted into Y_2O_3 and Li_2CO_3 .

High-Resolution Electron Microscopy

To facilitate discussion of the HREM results, relevant crystallographic data for

LiYO_2 , Y_2O_3 , and Li_2CO_3 are summarized in Table 1.

Fresh Catalyst

The HREM specimens comprised clumps of relatively small crystallites (mostly submicrometer) with no pronounced orientational relationship between them; this lack of preferred orientation was confirmed by SAED. Figure 4 shows a typical HREM image of the fresh catalyst. The general surface morphology was that of a smooth, relatively clean surface (no carbon contamination was visible) with no distinct features. Although lattice fringes extended right up to the actual surface, there was a distinct absence of any surface features such as steps: All such discontinuities were "rounded-over." This type of surface is typical of material prepared by solid-state synthesis at relatively low temperature (16).

As noted above, the nominal magnification of all the micrographs is 5.463×10^6 . However, determination of an exact value comes from consideration of lattice spacings in the phases that might be present. Assuming that Li_2CO_3 is completely absent in the fresh catalyst, the largest spacing should correspond to the $\{101\}$ fringes in LiYO_2 . This is shown clearly in Fig. 4: Taking these as 4.100 Å gives a true magnification of 5.247×10^6 ; all quoted d -spacings are obtained on this basis.

In addition to the typical structure shown in Fig. 4, a few crystals of the type shown in

TABLE I

Crystal Structure Parameters of Relevant Phases

Phase	Structure	Parameters	d -spacings (Å) ^a	Ref.
LiYO_2	Tetragonal	$a = 4.44 \text{ \AA}$ $c = 10.69 \text{ \AA}$	$d_{(101)} = 4.100$, $d_{(103)} = 2.779$ $d_{(004)} = 2.673$, $d_{(200)} = 2.220$	(12)
Y_2O_3	Cubic	$a = 10.605 \text{ \AA}$	$d_{(222)} = 3.061$, $d_{(400)} = 2.651$ $d_{(440)} = 1.875$	(14)
Li_2CO_3	Monoclinic	$a = 8.39 \text{ \AA}$, $b = 5.00 \text{ \AA}$ $c = 6.21 \text{ \AA}$, $\beta = 114.5^\circ$	$d_{(110)} = 4.18$, $d_{(200)} = 3.82$	(15)

^a Calculated values of largest d -spacings.

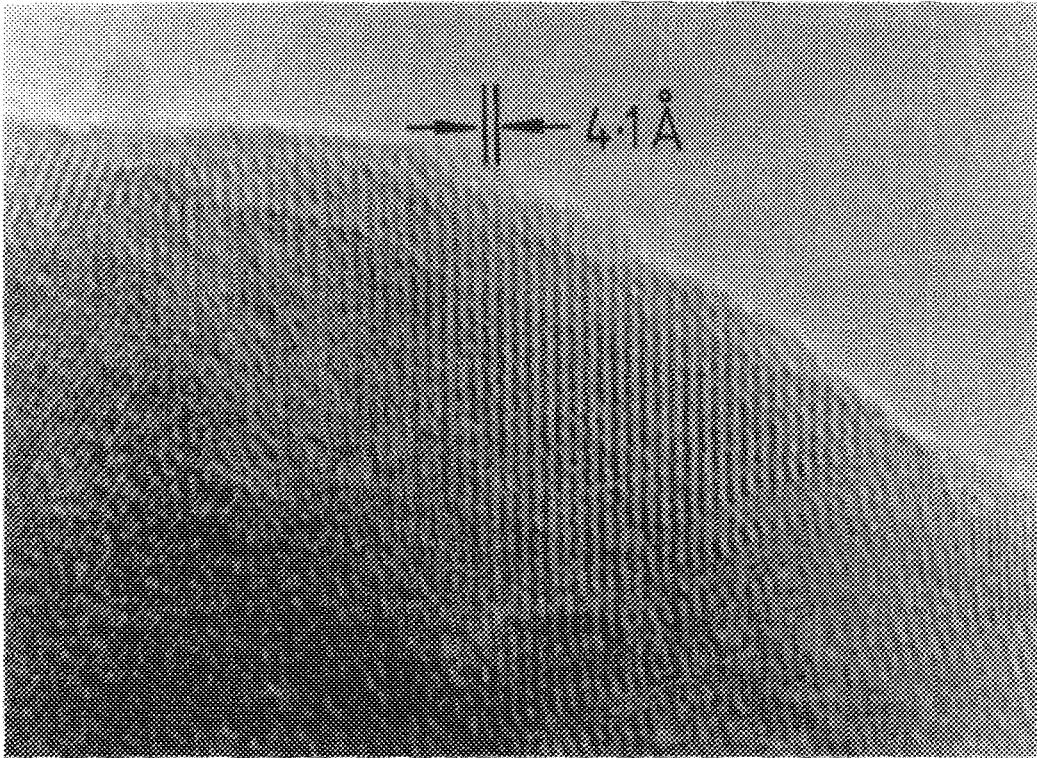


FIG. 4. Typical HREM images of the fresh LiYO₂ catalyst, showing the 4.1 Å spacing characteristic of LiYO₂.

Fig. 5 were also observed; in this case there is definite evidence of surface steps. Such crystals were relatively large (although still $<1 \mu\text{m}$) and exhibited lattice fringes inclined to the edge that extended into the bulk of the specimen. d -spacings of three such sets of fringes were 3.145, 3.145, and 2.573 Å; the angles between them were 55.5°.

Used Catalyst

At magnifications below $\times 100,000$, the used catalyst appeared very similar to the fresh sample, having the same degree of aggregation and the same overall surface appearance. At higher magnifications, however, most crystals exhibited considerable differences in surface structure. Typical examples are shown in Figs. 6 and 7, which are taken from different areas on the same

specimen aggregate. In Fig. 6a, areas showing 4.100-Å fringes are still readily apparent (A), indicating that LiYO₂ was still present, although these fringes were less common than in the fresh sample and rarely extended to the crystal edges. In addition, the Y₂O₃-like areas (B) were much more common.

The most significant differences are apparent at the specimen edges, where small crystallites have developed, as exemplified by the surface protuberance in Fig. 6b. Here a small paracrystal $\sim 40 \text{ \AA}$ across is shown: The fringe spacing (3.1 Å) is compatible with fluorite-like Y₂O₃ in [110] projection, and the overall contrast is very similar to that normally observed in CeO₂, another fluorite-like oxide (17). Also of interest is an apparently amorphous surface phase, shown in Fig. 7. This observation,

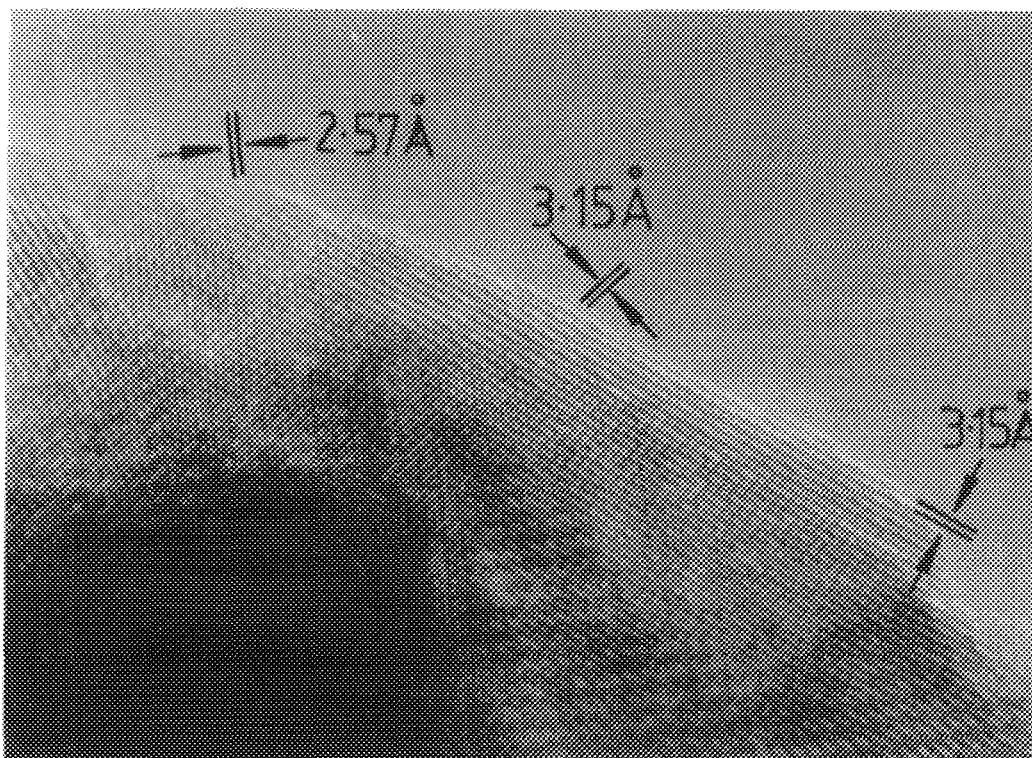


FIG. 5. HREM images of the fresh catalyst showing three sets of fringes (spacings 3.145, 3.145, and 2.573 Å) corresponding closely to those of the Y_2O_3 structure.

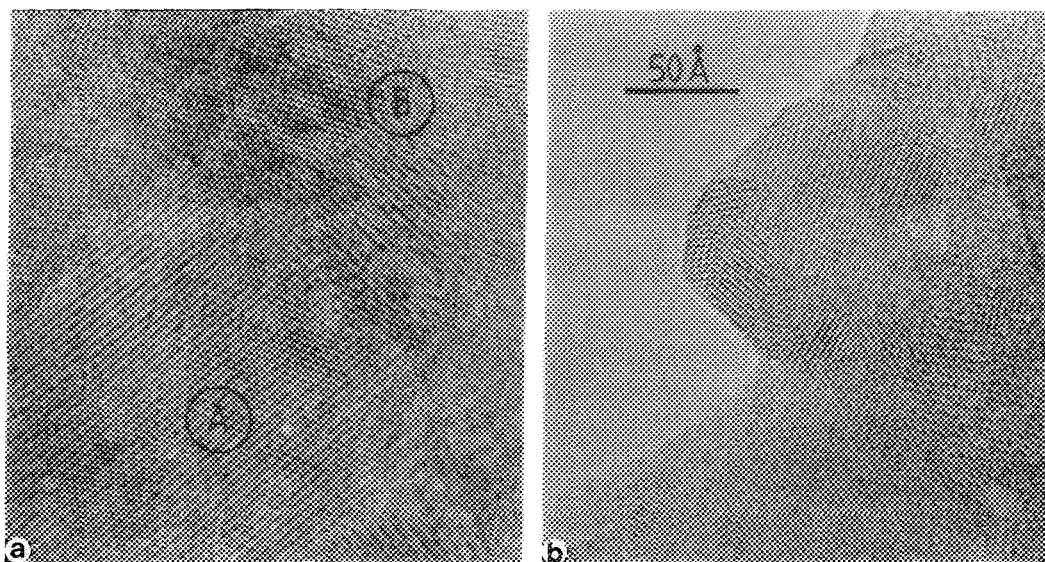


FIG. 6. (a) HREM images of the used catalyst, showing some regions (A) with a 4.1-Å spacing and adjacent areas with 3.1-Å fringes (B). (b) The margin of the same crystal, showing development of micrographs with 3.1-Å spacings.

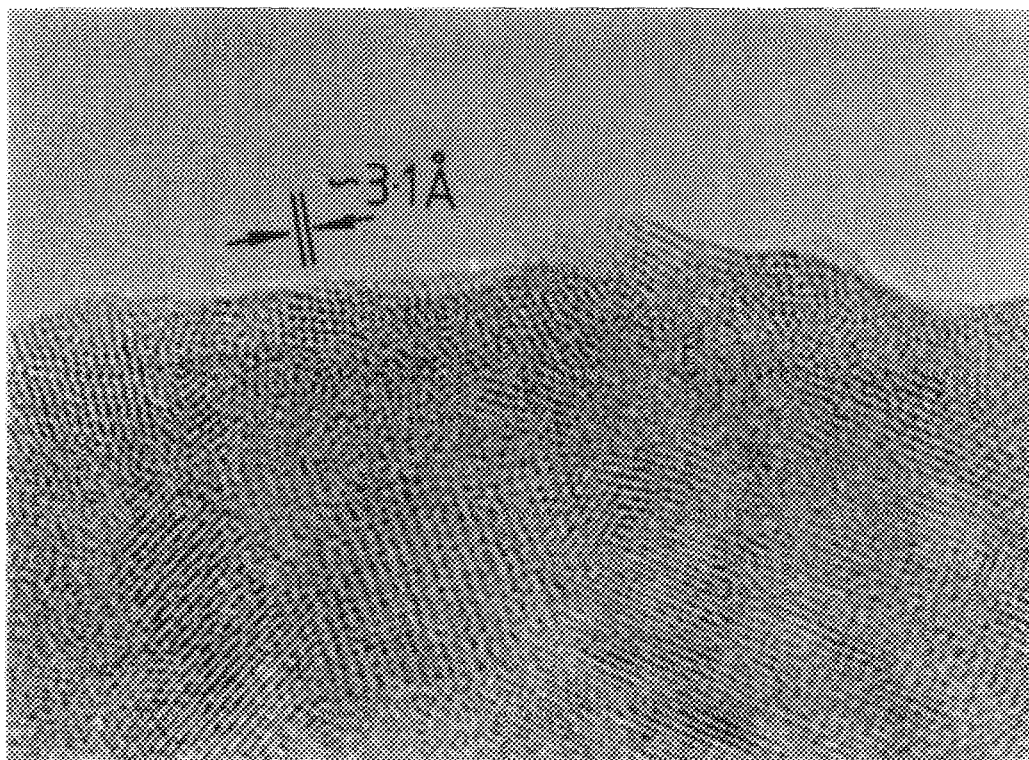


FIG. 7. HREM images of the used catalyst taken from different areas on the same specimen aggregate as Fig. 6, showing an amorphous phase coupled with regions showing fringes of approximately 3.1-Å spacing.

coupled with the presence of similar closely spaced fringes (Fig. 6), suggests that the paracrystals develop from the parent material by transformation of an amorphous intermediate.

Deactivated Catalyst

The deactivated catalyst differed substantially from both the fresh and used materials. The specimen clearly consisted of two phases: (i) large, approximately hexagonal-shaped crystals, which gave clear SAED patterns and had not been observed previously, and (ii) much smaller crystallites, which occurred either in large, micrometer-sized clusters or attached to the margins of the crystals of the first phase. A representative micrograph of the large crystals is shown in Fig. 8. In addition to the 3.1-Å fringes due to the small crystal identi-

fied as Y₂O₃, there are 4.28- and 7.52-Å fringes due to the large crystal. The smaller crystallites shown in Fig. 9 are characterized by 3.1-Å fringe spacings with relative inclination of 55.5°. SAED patterns from the large crystals were obtained in two orientations that correspond to low-index axes of projection. Figure 10 shows one of the patterns giving an axial ratio of 1.0 and an interaxial angle of 60°.

DISCUSSION

Fresh Catalyst: Activation and Steady-State Performance

LiYO₂ has an ordered rock salt superstructure consisting of mixed cation layers between layers of closest-packed O²⁻ (18). The XRD data (Fig. 2a) indicate that the fresh catalyst is a single phase consisting of this material. It gives rise to very high se-

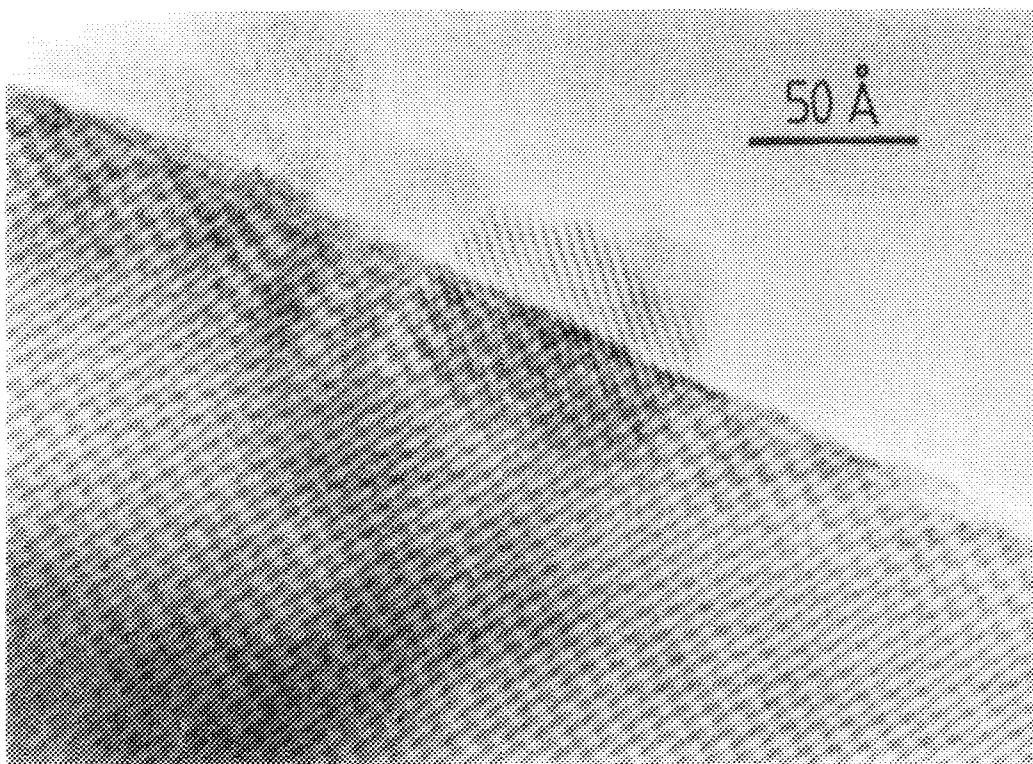


FIG. 8. HREM images of the deactivated catalyst showing large crystals with small crystals attached.

lectivities toward C_2 formation, although initial methane conversion is about 40% lower than that characteristic of the used catalyst (Fig. 1). These results suggest that $LiYO_2$ is an active phase for methane oxidative coupling. This inference is confirmed by the HREM results, which clearly indicate that $LiYO_2$ is the principal phase in the fresh catalyst, even on the microcrystalline scale. The minority phase (Fig. 5) appears to be a cubic structure, the observed fringes arising from the $\{222\}$ and $\{400\}$ planes of Y_2O_3 . However, the observed lattice spacings are significantly different ($\sim \pm 0.1$ Å) from those characteristic of pure Y_2O_3 , suggesting that some Li^+ may be incorporated into the Y_2O_3 . This minority phase was invisible to XRD, suggesting that it comprised $<1\%$ of the fresh catalyst.

The reaction data (Fig. 1) show that se-

lectivity varied relatively little over the first 200 min, although there was a significant increase in methane conversion. Taken together, these two observations imply the formation of a carbon-containing product that does not appear in the gas phase. Carbonate formation on the catalyst seems the most likely explanation, and indeed Li_2CO_3 is detected at sufficiently long reaction times (see below). During this same interval, XRD measurements show the appearance of a new phase (Y_2O_3) whose amount increases with time while the amount of $LiYO_2$ decreases. This is an interesting observation, given the relatively stable (good) performance of the catalyst and the fact that pure Y_2O_3 itself is known to be only a modest catalyst. It therefore appears that the Y_2O_3 produced by decomposition of $LiYO_2$ must differ in some significant way

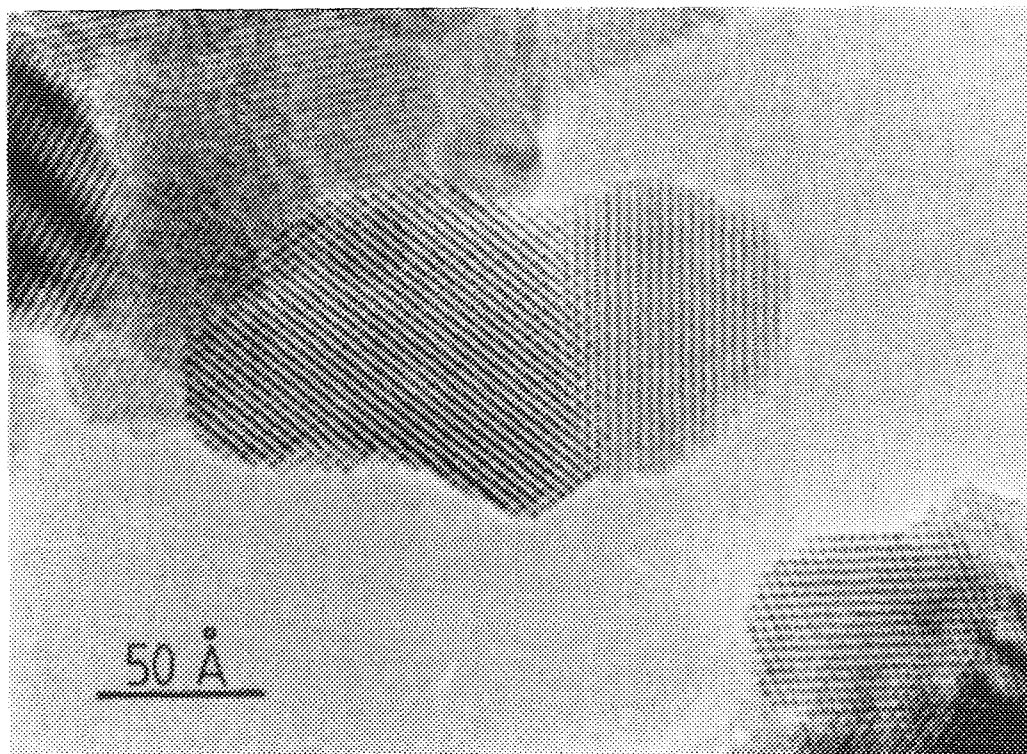


FIG. 9. HREM images of the deactivated catalyst showing small crystals of 3.1-Å fringe spacing with some surface steps visible.

from pure Y₂O₃. Here, the HREM measurements provide the crucial evidence. They reveal the presence of small paracrystals of a fluorite-like Y₂O₃ structure (Fig. 6) whose measured fringe spacings indicate the incorporation of Li⁺ into the oxide structure. Related to this is the observation of an amorphous phase (Fig. 7): The production of such a phase seems highly likely during the transformation of LiYO₂ to Y₂O₃. The nature of the oxygen sublattice changes from fcc in the former to simple cubic in the latter, and in addition a large number of ordered oxygen vacancies must be generated, involving considerable disruption of the anion lattice during interconversion of the two phases amounting to a complete recrystallization. The implication is that the stable, active, and selective catalyst consists of a mixture of LiYO₂ and

paracrystalline Li⁺-doped Y₂O₃ almost certainly by reducing the number of oxygen vacancies required. It seems likely that lithium incorporation stabilizes the small crystallites of Y₂O₃. It is also possible that the amorphous phase (present in significant amounts) plays some role in the reaction. Where this amorphous region breaks out at the surface (see Fig. 7), one might expect extremely active sites to be generated; such exceptionally active sites might also be present at the stepped surfaces present on the Li⁺-doped Y₂O₃ paracrystals.

The increase in methane conversion that occurs over the first ~80 min indicates that some change must be occurring in the catalyst. Miro *et al.* (13) have observed similar behavior in the case of Na/NiTiO₃ catalysts. This increase may be associated with an increase in catalyst surface area that oc-

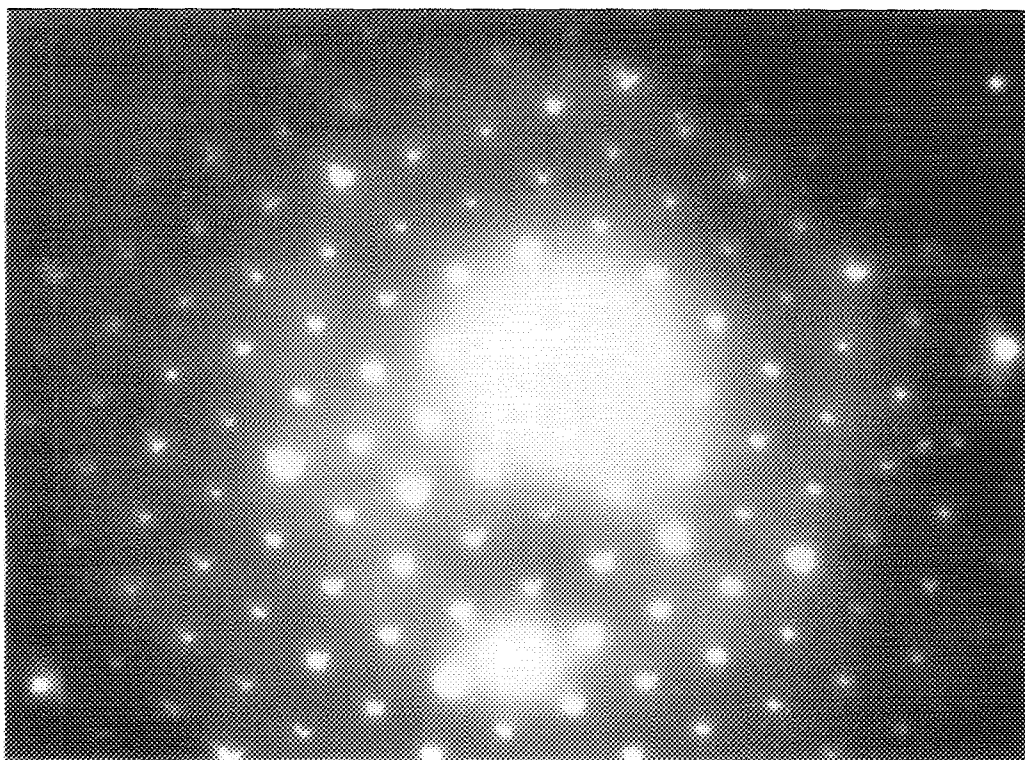


Fig. 10. SAED patterns from the large crystals. Axial ratio = 1.0 and interaxial angle = 60° .

curs during $\text{LiYO}_2 \rightarrow \text{Y}_2\text{O}_3$ (Li) interconversion. It may also reflect the production of sites of high specific activity (2) and/or sacrificial consumption of lattice oxygen from the Y_2O_3 phase (18).

Catalyst Deactivation

Figure 1 shows that a very marked decline in catalyst performance occurs after ~ 200 min; C_2 selectivity falls to 55% while CO_2 selectivity rises to 33%, carbon balance being maintained within the experimental error ($\pm 5\%$) in the period following ~ 200 min reaction, implying that the increase in CO_2 production observed during this stage is not associated with decomposition of Li_2CO_3 . These observations, and the simultaneous fall in CO production at constant methane conversion, are consistent with an increase in the number of deep oxidation sites on the catalyst. The fact that

the loss in selectivity that occurs at ~ 200 min is not accompanied by detectable changes in reactant conversion deserves comment. Given the constant level of CH_4 conversion, one might expect some increase in O_2 conversion at ~ 240 min associated with the increased CO_2 production. Our analytical error for oxygen is $\sim 15\%$ and may have obscured any such effect. More significantly perhaps, the XRD and HREM measurements show that the $\text{Y}_2\text{O}_3(\text{Li}) \rightarrow \text{Y}_2\text{O}_3$ transformation is well advanced by ≥ 200 min. The onset of sacrificial consumption of lattice oxygen from Y_2O_3 at this point could then account for the increase in CO_2 . A quantitative valuation of the limiting "worst" case, i.e., all additional oxygen required in the interval 240–340 min comes from Y_2O_3 , indicates that at the end of the experiment the stoichiometry of the latter would be $\text{Y}_2\text{O}_{2.983}$,

which is well within the known limits of reduction of Y₂O₃ (18). The XRD data show that the LiYO₂:Y₂O₃ ratio in the deactivated catalyst had fallen to 0.05:1.0 after 338 min. A significant amount of Li₂CO₃ was also present at this point. Note that not all the diffraction peaks due to Li₂CO₃ are consistent with those of the pure substance, suggesting that yttrium incorporation may have occurred (see below). Interestingly, the performance of this deactivated, largely Y₂O₃(Li)-containing catalyst, both in terms of methane conversion and C₂ selectivity is still superior to that of pure Y₂O₃ (4).

The HREM data show that the deactivated catalyst consists of two phases with very different crystallite sizes. The smaller crystallites (Fig. 9) may be identified as Li-doped Y₂O₃ from their {222} and {440} lattice spacings. The average particle diameter was ~100 Å, and the overall state of crystallinity was comparable to that of bulk material—*much higher than in the paracrystalline particles of Y₂O₃(Li) characteristic of the active and selective phase*. No trace of the quasi-amorphous phase was found. SAED patterns obtained from particles of the second phase (Fig. 10) are similar in some respects to those expected from Li₂CO₃. However, a detailed calculation of reciprocal lattice spacings shows that these are not compatible with pure Li₂CO₃, even when allowance is made for calibration errors due to the strong objective lens. For example, in Fig. 8, the reciprocal lattice spacing should correspond to those of the {110} and {200} planes of Li₂CO₃ (4.18 and 3.82 Å, respectively); the observed values are ~4.28 and 7.52 Å. Discrepancies are also apparent in the direct space image. The large pseudo-hexagonal crystal giving rise to the SAED pattern (Fig. 10) carries fluoride-like particles on its surface. Some of the lattice spacings of the large crystal are significantly greater than those characteristic of pure Li₂CO₃. Thus the fringes in this crystal yield spacings of 4.28 and 7.52 Å; the former is compatible with pure Li₂CO₃ but the latter is certainly not—nor is the

interplanar angle of 90°. These results can only be reconciled with the accepted structure of Li₂CO₃ in terms of the formation of a ($\sqrt{3} \times \sqrt{3}$)R30° superlattice in the *x-y* plane, which would account for both the observed fringe spacings and the SAED patterns. How might such a superlattice arise? An obvious possibility is that it is caused by incorporation of yttrium into the Li₂CO₃. Such an interpretation would be compatible with the relative proportions of the two phases (large crystals of Li₂CO₃ and small Y₂O₃(Li) particles): There are not enough of the latter to account for all the yttrium in the specimen, suggesting that some of this yttrium must go into the Li₂CO₃ majority phase. Recall that the XRD data (γ peaks in Fig. 2b) are not in good agreement with calculated values based on pure Li₂CO₃, which lends strong support to this view.

It seems clear that lithium, either in the mixed oxide LiYO₂ or incorporated in Y₂O₃, is an essential ingredient for an active and selective catalyst. Reaction products can act to degrade catalytic performance by accelerating the loss of lithium from these active phases. Thus we have shown that Li is removed from the catalyst at high temperatures, possibly as Li₂O or, in the presence of H₂O, even more readily as LiOH (19, 20). CO₂ exacerbates these effects by inducing the transformation of LiYO₂ to Li₂CO₃.

CONCLUSIONS

1. LiYO₂ is an active and selective methane coupling catalyst. Under reaction conditions it undergoes decomposition to Y₂O₃.
2. This reactively produced Y₂O₃ is generated in a paracrystalline form and incorporates lithium. It seems likely that the LiYO₂ → Y₂O₃(Li) transformation proceeds via an amorphous phase.
3. Catalyst deactivation is associated with loss of Li from the oxide phases, increase in size and crystallinity of the Y₂O₃(Li), and Li₂CO₃ formation. It seems

likely that the catalytically efficient $Y_2O_3(Li)$ paracrystals are stabilized by their lithium content.

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