

Selective Vapor-Phase Epoxidation of Propylene over Au/TiO₂ Catalysts in the Presence of Oxygen and Hydrogen

Toshio Hayashi,¹ Koji Tanaka, and Masatake Haruta²

Osaka National Research Institute, AIST, Midorigaoka 1, Ikeda, 563-8577 Japan

Received September 23, 1997; revised April 30, 1998; accepted May 15, 1998

Gold has long been thought to be chemically inert, however, it has recently been proven that its catalytic performance is dramatically tunable by control of the particle size and by careful selection of the support metal oxide. A typical example is the selective oxidation of propylene in a gas containing oxygen and hydrogen. When gold is deposited on TiO₂ by a deposition-precipitation technique as hemispherical particles with diameters smaller than 4.0 nm it produces propylene oxide with selectivities higher than 90% and conversions of 1–2% at temperatures of 303–393 K. The oxidation of hydrogen to form water is depressed by propylene, whereas propylene oxidation is not only enhanced but also restricted to partial oxidation by hydrogen. The depression of hydrogen combustion by the presence of propylene and a new peak due to gold deposition in TPD spectra have indicated that propylene is adsorbed on the surfaces of both gold particles and the TiO₂ support. The reaction rate is almost independent on the concentration of propylene and increases linearly with increasing concentrations of O₂ and H₂. The above results suggest that propylene adsorbed on a gold surface may react with oxygen species formed at the perimeter interface between the gold particles and the TiO₂ support through the reaction of oxygen with hydrogen. The effect of gold loading is surprising in that the reaction product switches from propylene oxide to propane when gold loading is decreased to 0.1 wt%. Careful TEM observation indicates that gold particles larger than 2.0 nm in diameter produce propylene oxide, whereas smaller gold particles produce propane.

© 1998 Academic Press

INTRODUCTION

Propylene oxide (hereafter denoted as PO) is one of the most important chemical feedstocks for producing resins such as polyurethane. Major conventional manufacturing methods require two-stage processes, using chlorohydrin or hydroperoxides as an oxidant (1). The direct synthesis of PO, by the use of molecular oxygen, has long been desired and has been nominated one of the most important chem-

ical reactions to remain unsolved by catalysis (2). Despite considerable effort, no economically viable route has yet been found. Most patents, featuring the vapor-phase oxidation of propylene to PO, show either low selectivity or low productivity (3). Since direct oxidation is difficult to achieve, a new process has been designed by Enichem to produce PO by oxidation with H₂O₂ over a titanium silicate catalyst (4, 5). For this process palladium supported on titanium silicate can be used to replace H₂O₂ with a mixture of molecular oxygen and hydrogen (6). The history of the epoxidation processes shows a shift of the oxidant from alkyl hydroperoxide with IV–VI elements toward hydrogen peroxide with Ti-silicate and, currently, toward hydrogen peroxide prepared *in situ* from dioxygen and hydrogen. Recently, a few new approaches have been attempted. Gas-phase partial oxidation of propylene in the copresence of propane (7), electrochemical oxidation on a Pt-black anode (8), and photochemical oxidation over SiO₂ based catalysts (9) can produce PO; however, selectivities are not sufficiently high, 50% at the highest.

Although gold was and still is regarded by many as being poorly active as a catalyst (10, 11), when gold is dispersed as fine particles over select metal oxides it has been found that the supported gold exhibits exceptionally high catalytic activity (12, 13). Examples include CO oxidation (14–22), hydrocarbon combustion (23, 24), hydrogenation of CO₂ and CO (25, 26), water gas shift reaction (27, 28), and also the reduction of NO to N₂ (29). Quite often reactions occur at low or subambient temperatures.

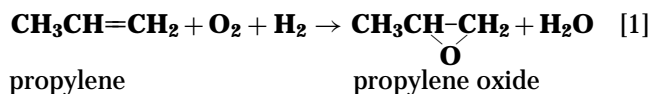
Results reported in the past for the partial oxidation of hydrocarbons over gold catalysts could not always be reproduced and may need for re-examination in view of chlorine contamination, dispersion of gold, support effect, and so forth. Gold catalysts investigated for C1 hydrocarbons are Au/BaSO₄ which can produce HCHO directly from CH₄ at 923K with a yield of 0.4% (30) and Au gauze which produces HCHO from CH₃OH at 723 K with a selectivity of 100% (31). It was reported that Au/SiO₂ catalyzed propylene oxidation to form PO with a yield below 1% and with 50% selectivity (32), whereas Cant and Hall reported that acrolein was produced with a yield of 5% and with

¹ Present address: Nippon Shokubai Co., Ltd., Nishi-Otobi 5-8, Suita, 564-0034 Japan.

² To whom correspondence should be addressed. E-mail: haruta@onri.go.jp.

33% selectivity (33). Sinfelt described that the addition of gold to copper enhanced both activity and selectivity in the acrolein formation from propylene (34). Recently, Niiyama and his coworkers have reported that the deposition of Au onto $\text{Bi}_2\text{Mo}_3\text{O}_{12}$ is effective to improve the yield of acrolein from propylene maintaining its selectivity while Pd and Pt accelerate complete oxidation to CO_2 (35). Gold supported on Al_2O_3 and MgO was reported not to produce epoxide from ethylene and propylene because of two surface center adsorption per olefin molecule (36, 37).

In continuation with our recent work on highly dispersed gold catalysts, we present here the first evidence for the direct vapor-phase oxidation of propylene to PO in the presence of O_2 and H_2 using a catalyst comprising of gold deposited on TiO_2 :



EXPERIMENTAL

Catalyst Preparation

The TiO_2 -supported gold catalysts were prepared by deposition-precipitation (DP) (38) of $\text{Au}(\text{OH})_3$ onto TiO_2 (Nippon Aerosil, P-25, specific surface area; $50 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$) in an aqueous solution of HAuCl_4 at $\text{pH} = 7$. The precursors were washed several times, dried, and calcined in air at 673 K for 3 h. By this method fine gold metal particles with diameters smaller than 4 nm could be deposited with almost uniform dispersion. They were mostly hemispherical in shape and were attached to the TiO_2 support at their flat planes (15). Actual gold loadings of Au/TiO_2 samples calcined were, of course, smaller than the gold contents in the starting solutions of HAuCl_4 , usually by 40–80% (38). The gold loadings hereafter denoted are the gold contents in the finished catalysts measured by X-ray fluorescence analysis and are expressed as weight percentages to TiO_2 or $\text{TiO}_2/\text{SiO}_2$ support.

For comparison studies, the conventional impregnation method was also used; however, it produced spherical Au particles simply loaded on the TiO_2 support and with diameters larger than 10 nm. The $\text{Au}/\text{TiO}_2/\text{SiO}_2$ catalysts were also prepared by the same DP method by replacing TiO_2 with $\text{TiO}_2/\text{SiO}_2$ (TiO_2 loading, 3 wt% to SiO_2), which was prepared by impregnating the silica (Fuji Davison, ID gel, specific surface area; $310 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$) with titanylacetylacetonate, followed by drying and calcination in air at 773 K for 2 h. The influence of metal oxide support was investigated by depositing gold on $\gamma\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ (JRC-ALO-4, a reference sample of the Catalysis Society of Japan, with a specific surface area of $174 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$), Fe_2O_3 (prepared from hydroxide precipitate, $37 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$), Co_3O_4 (prepared from carbonate precipitate, $59 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$), ZnO (prepared from hydroxide

precipitate, $41 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$), and ZrO_2 (Nippon Aerosil Co. Ltd., $40 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$) in a similar manner. Because $\text{Au}(\text{OH})_3$ could not be deposited on SiO_2 , Au/SiO_2 was prepared by the impregnation method.

Pd/TiO_2 and Pt/TiO_2 catalysts were prepared by the usual impregnation method by using $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{PdCl}_4$ and H_2PtCl_6 , followed by drying, calcination in air at 673 K for 3 h, and H_2 treatment at 573 K for 2 h. These Pd and Pt metal particles obtained were confirmed to be smaller than 2 nm in diameter by TEM observation. In the case of Pd and Pt, deposition-precipitation did not lead to any appreciable difference in particle size nor in any catalytic activity for CO oxidation (39). Cu/TiO_2 and Ag/TiO_2 catalysts were also prepared by the impregnation method using nitrates as the starting material, followed by drying, calcination, and H_2 treatment, in a similar manner.

Catalyst Characterization

The particle size of gold was determined by a TEM (Hitachi H-9000NA). Except for Au loadings lower than 0.2 wt%, at least 200 particles were chosen to determine the mean diameter by using a computerized image analyzer (Nippon Avionics Co. Ltd., EXCEL). XPS measurements were conducted by using a spectrometer (Shimadzu ESCA-K1M) with a monochromatized Al focused X-ray beam and an analyzer energy of 50 eV. TPD measurements were carried out by using an apparatus equipped with TCD and FID detector after treating the samples in an O_2 or He stream at 673 K and then cooling to 273 K .

Catalytic Tests

Catalytic performance tests were made under atmospheric pressure in a quartz reactor using a continuous-flow system at a temperature range of 273 K and 623 K . A mixture of propylene, oxygen, hydrogen, and argon as diluent was passed through a fixed bed containing the catalyst samples. The concentration of C_3H_6 , O_2 , H_2 was varied from 2 to 20 vol%, 2 to 20 vol%, and 10 to 90 vol%, respectively. The feed gas compositions seem to be practical for an industrial process of the direct epoxidation of propylene; however, they need safety treatments because the explosion limit of H_2 is from 4.1 to 74.2 vol% in air and from 4.0 to 94.0 vol% in O_2 .

Samples were sieved between 125 and $212 \mu\text{m}$ of particle size for Au/TiO_2 and between 355 and $1000 \mu\text{m}$ for $\text{Au}/\text{TiO}_2/\text{SiO}_2$ and in most cases weighed to 0.5 g. The temperature of the catalyst bed was measured by using a thermocouple in a glass tube which was fixed just above the catalyst bed. The flow rate was 2000 ml/h unless otherwise stated. All reaction products were identified by standard GC-Mass and NMR spectroscopic techniques and analyzed by two on-line gas chromatographs using four types of columns, Porapak Q (3m) for CO_2 , C_3H_6 , and C_3H_8 ,

molecular sieve 5A (3m) for CO, and activated carbon (3m) for H₂ and O₂, as packed columns with a thermal conductivity detector (TCD), and HR-20M (0.53 mm × 50 m, Shinwa Chemical Industries, Co. Ltd.) capillary column for organic compounds with a flame ionization detector (FID). The detection limit of the FID was 0.001 vol% for organic compounds.

RESULTS

Catalyst Characterization

Figures 1 and 2 show typical TEM photographs of Au/TiO₂ (Au loading 0.98 wt% (a) and 0.02 wt% (b)) and the distributions of the diameter of gold particles, respectively. Small gold particles with diameters of 1–4 nm and of hemispherical shape are homogeneously dispersed on TiO₂ particles. The mean particle diameter of Au was 2.4 nm with a standard deviation of 25% for 0.98 wt% Au loading and 1.7 nm with a standard deviation of 25% for 0.02 wt% loading. The Au 4d and 4f spectra of XPS for 0.98 wt% Au/TiO₂ showed no appreciable shift in binding energies from those of bulk gold, indicating that the gold particles were metallic in nature under high vacuum. Because of the very low loading (0.02 wt%), the XPS spectra for smaller gold particles could not be obtained.

Catalytic Properties

Table 1 shows the conditions and products for the reaction of C₃H₆ with O₂ and H₂ over Au, Pd, Pt, Cu, and

Ag supported on TiO₂. The conversion tended to decrease sharply soon after the reaction and then after 10 to 20 min it gradually decreased with time on stream. The deactivation was caused mainly by oligomerization of PO and C₃H₆ and the catalysts used for reaction could be reactivated by air oxidation at 525 K. Only Au/TiO₂ prepared by the deposition–precipitation method could selectively catalyze the oxidation of C₃H₆ to PO. While C₃H₆ conversions are in general not large and the consumption of H₂ to form H₂O is much larger than that calculated from the stoichiometry of Eq. [1], the selectivities to PO are very high and exceed 90%. The other products detected were acetone and carbon dioxide. An increase in gold loading from 0.98 wt% to 3.2 wt% leads to an appreciable increase in the space time yield of PO but to a similar rate of PO formation per unit weight of Au.

When the TiO₂ support is replaced with TiO₂ deposited on SiO₂, the reaction temperature is shifted toward higher temperatures. The shift of reaction temperature can be correlated with a decrease in the catalytic activity for H₂ oxidation. It is also likely that the separation of active sites over the SiO₂ surface allows high temperature operation maintaining a good selectivity to PO. When the reaction temperature was raised to 373K with Au/TiO₂ catalysts, it was only the rate of H₂ combustion that was appreciably increased. The rate of PO formation was not increased but was decreased. It appears that there is an optimum temperature region for the epoxidation of C₃H₆ with each gold catalyst. On the other hand, H₂ combustion is monotonously enhanced with an increase in reaction temperature. The

TABLE 1

Reaction of Propylene with Oxygen and Hydrogen over Au, Pd, Pt, Cu, and Ag Supported on TiO₂ and over Au Supported on TiO₂/SiO₂

Catalyst	Metal loading, ^a wt%	Reaction temperature, K	Reaction ^b conditions	Conversion, %		Selectivity, ^d %				PO yield, ^f %	PO formation rate	
				C ₃ H ₆ ^c	H ₂	PO ^e	Acetone	C ₃ H ₈	CO ₂		mmol/hr/g-cat	mmol/hr/g-Au
Au/TiO ₂	0.98	323	A	1.1	3.2	>99	-	-	-	1.1	0.2	20.0
Au/TiO ₂ ^g	1.0	353	A	0.2	8.9	-	-	<10	>70	-	-	-
Au/TiO ₂	3.2	303	B	0.3	2.5	93	7	-	-	0.3	0.27	8.4
		323	B	0.6	4.2	96	4	-	-	0.6	0.54	16.7
Au/TiO ₂ /SiO ₂	0.20	393	C	2.5	2.6	93	-	-	7	2.3	0.21	102.7
Pd/TiO ₂	1.0	298	A	57	98	-	0.4	98	1	-	-	-
Pt/TiO ₂	1.0	298	A	12	87	-	2	92	6	-	-	-
Cu/TiO ₂	1.0	393	A	<0.2	2.7	-	-	-	>99	-	-	-
Ag/TiO ₂	1.0	393	A	<0.1	<0.1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

^a Actual metal loadings determined by X-ray fluorescence analysis.

^b A: Feed gas, C₃H₆/O₂/H₂/Ar = 10/10/10/70; flow rate, 2000ml/hr; catalyst, 0.5g; B: Feed gas, C₃H₆/O₂/H₂/Ar = 10/10/10/70; flow rate, 2000ml/hr; catalyst, 0.1g; C: Feed gas, C₃H₆/O₂/H₂/Ar = 5/10/40/45; flow rate, 2000ml/hr; catalyst, 0.5g.

^c Conversion of propylene = 100 (moles of all products detected by GC analysis)/(moles of propylene fed); moles of CO₂ formed divided by three.

^d Selectivity = 100 (moles of each product detected directly by GC analysis)/(moles of all products detected directly by GC analysis); moles of CO₂ formed divided by three.

^e PO = propylene oxide.

^f PO Yield = 100 (moles of PO detected directly by GC analysis)/(moles of propylene fed).

^g Prepared by impregnation method.

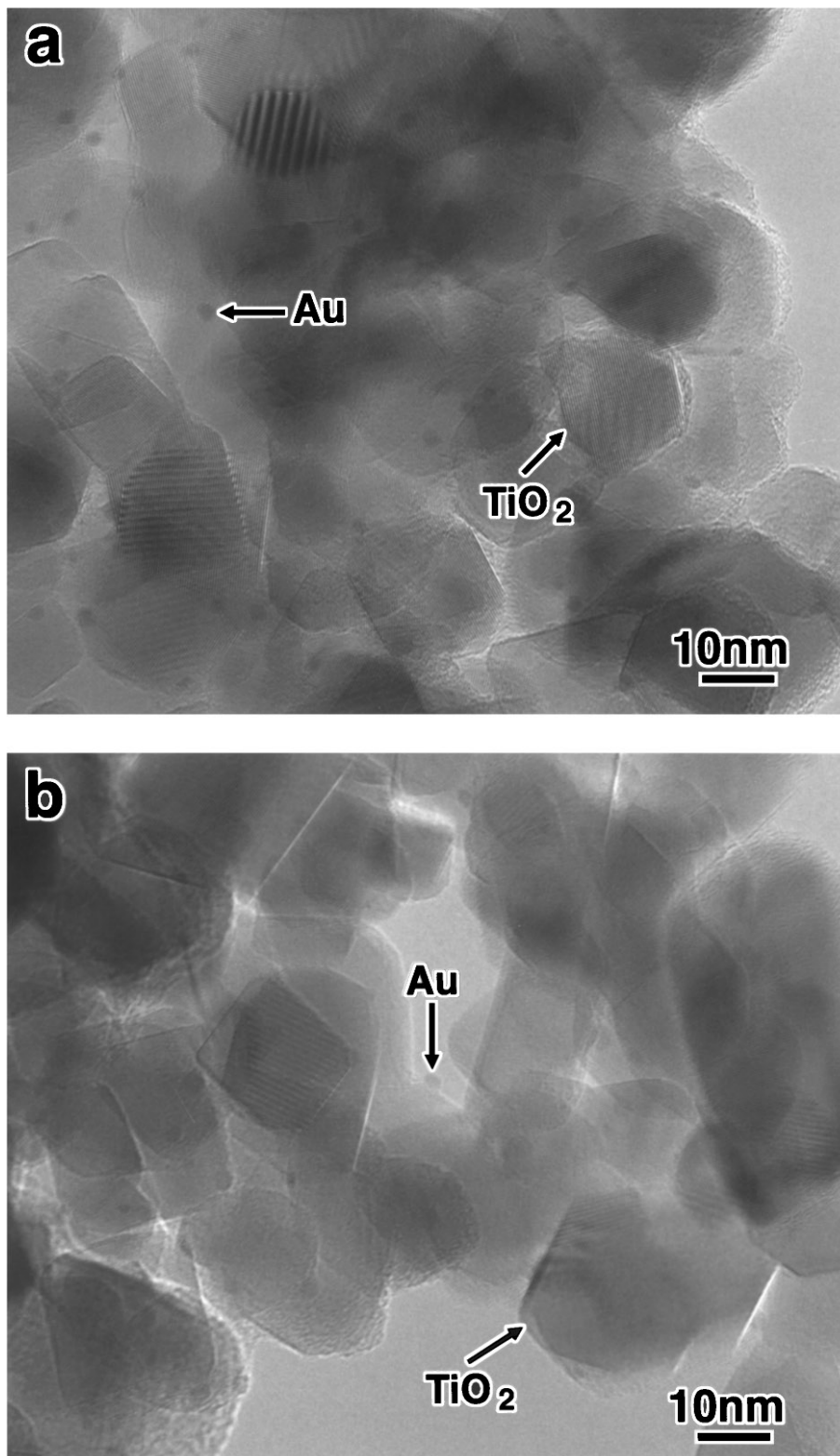


FIG. 1. TEM photographs for Au/TiO₂ catalysts. Au loading: (a) 0.98 wt%, (b) 0.02 wt%.

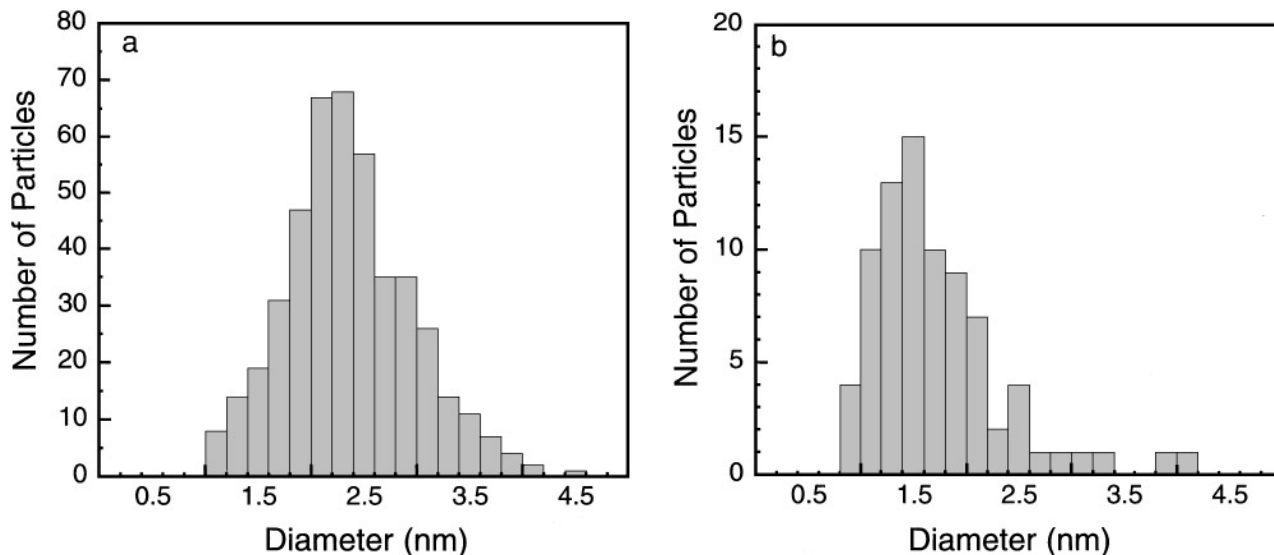


FIG. 2. Size distributions of gold particles for Au/TiO₂ catalysts. Au loading: (a) 0.98 wt%, (b) 0.02 wt%.

feed gas composition used for the Au/TiO₂/SiO₂ catalyst was also different from those of other catalysts: lower C₃H₆ concentration and larger H₂ concentration, both of which were advantageous for improving C₃H₆ conversion (see Fig. 4). The C₃H₆ conversion obtained was above 2% and the rate of PO formation per unit weight of Au was about five times as large as those of Au/TiO₂ catalysts.

Neither Au nor TiO₂ alone exhibited any notable catalytic activity and selectivity at a temperature range of 303 K to 573 K, indicating that the combination of Au with TiO₂ was indispensable for the selective oxidation of C₃H₆. However, it should be noted that PO did not form at all over Au/TiO₂ prepared by the conventional impregnation method, which produced spherical Au particles simply loaded on the TiO₂ support and with diameters above 10 nm. The combination of gold with other metal oxides, such as Al₂O₃, SiO₂, Fe₂O₃, Co₃O₄, ZnO, and ZrO₂ did not catalyze the partial oxidation of C₃H₆ and produced H₂O and CO₂. Over Pd/TiO₂ and Pt/TiO₂, C₃H₆ is mostly transformed into C₃H₈, a hydrogenated product, with only trace amounts of acetone formed as an oxygenate. Even at a lower temperature, at 298 K, the conversions of C₃H₆ and of H₂ are much larger than those at 323 K over Au/TiO₂. Over Cu/TiO₂ and Ag/TiO₂, neither partial oxygenates of C₃H₆ nor C₃H₈ were obtained and H₂ was preferentially converted to H₂O at temperatures above 393 K.

Figure 3 shows the rates of H₂-O₂, H₂-O₂-C₃H₆, and C₃H₆-O₂ reactions over Au(0.20 wt%)/TiO₂/SiO₂ as a function of temperature. The oxidation of C₃H₆, in the absence of H₂, occurs only above 473 K and produces mainly CO₂. While the oxidation of C₃H₆ is enhanced by H₂, the oxidation of H₂ to H₂O is retarded by C₃H₆. This provides optimal conditions for the selective low-temperature epox-

idation of C₃H₆. The fact that H₂ consumption at 350 K is only about 1.4 times as the stoichiometric amount required to produce PO implies that the selective partial oxidation may principally proceed via Eq. [1]. Dioxygen may be transformed by reduction with H₂, to an active species which has the ability to selectively oxidize C₃H₆ to PO. However, as shown in Fig. 3, the ratio of H₂ consumption to oxygenate formation increases with reaction temperature, indicating that the combustion of H₂ with O₂ is more enhanced than the partial oxidation of C₃H₆. From the economical point of view, it is requested to minimize the ratio down to unity by retarding the consumption of H₂ with O₂ to form H₂O.

Figure 4 shows the rate of PO formation as a function of partial pressure of feed gas, H₂, O₂, and C₃H₆, at the reaction temperature of 350 K and 393 K. The PO formation rate appreciably increases with increasing concentration of H₂ and O₂ and almost independent of the concentration of C₃H₆ up to 10 vol%. The rate dependency on oxygen concentration is the first order and saturates at around 10 vol%. The hydrogen-dependency does not level off and gives reaction orders of 0.9–0.6. The above reaction orders imply that C₃H₆ is strongly adsorbed on the catalyst surface nearly to saturation and that the active oxygen species are formed through the reaction of O₂ with H₂.

TPD of Propylene

In TPD spectra, as shown in Fig. 5, a single broad desorption peak is observed at around 313 K for TiO₂. This peak can be assigned to C₃H₆ adsorbed on the surface of TiO₂. Pretreatment in a stream containing H₂O before the introduction of C₃H₆ pulses reduces the intensity of the

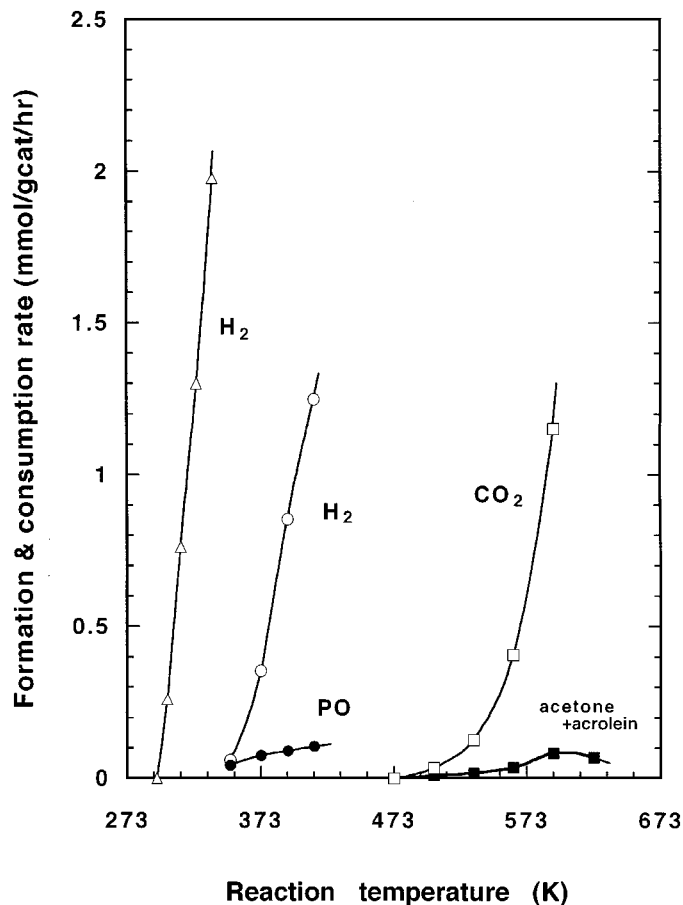


FIG. 3. Rate of oxygenate formation and of hydrogen consumption in the oxidation of hydrogen and/or propylene over Au/TiO₂/SiO₂. Flow rate, 2000ml/hr; catalyst, Au(0.20 wt%)/TiO₂/SiO₂ 0.5g; Δ , hydrogen consumption in a feed gas of H₂/O₂/Ar = 40/10/50 (vol%); \circ , hydrogen consumption and \bullet , PO (propylene oxide) formation in a feed gas of H₂/O₂/C₃H₆/Ar = 40/10/2/48 (vol%); \square , CO₂ formation and \blacksquare , the formation of acetone and acrolein in a feed gas of C₃H₆/O₂/Ar = 2/10/88 (vol%).

desorption peak and brought about a new peak at around 423–573 K due to water desorption. For Au/TiO₂ the C₃H₆ desorption was observed in two peaks at around 313 K and around 323 K. The higher-temperature peak which does not disappear after the moisture pretreatment can be ascribed to the desorption of C₃H₆ from the surface of Au particles or/and the perimeter interface on the TiO₂ support. The former possibility is assumed to be much larger, because H₂ oxidation which occurs on the surface of Au particles is appreciably retarded in the copresence of C₃H₆. The whole peak intensity for C₃H₆ desorption decreases by moisture pretreatment (c) and (d) in the same ratio between TiO₂ and Au/TiO₂, 21% reduction from (b) to (c) and 51% reduction from (b) to (d), indicating that moisture affects the adsorption of C₃H₆ on the TiO₂ support and on the Au particles similarly. Since the exposed surface area of the gold particles occupies only less than 1% of the total sur-

face area of the TiO₂ support in the Au (0.98 wt%)/TiO₂ sample (40), the peak intensity ratio of 4 (Au/TiO₂) to 3 (TiO₂) suggests that the population density of C₃H₆ adsorption is larger by more than 30 times on the Au surface than on the TiO₂ surface. The above results imply that C₃H₆ can preferentially adsorb on the surface of Au particles under reaction conditions where H₂O is continuously formed.

Effect of Au Loading: Switching of Product Selectivity

The unique behavior of Au/TiO₂ system is that the reaction pathway switches from oxidation to hydrogenation at a specific Au metal loading. Table 2 lists the yields of reaction products over Au/TiO₂ catalysts with different gold loadings ranging from 0.02 wt% to 0.98 wt%. The catalysts with Au loadings of 0.98 and 0.39 wt% catalyze oxidation to produce mainly PO with a by-product of CO₂. On the other

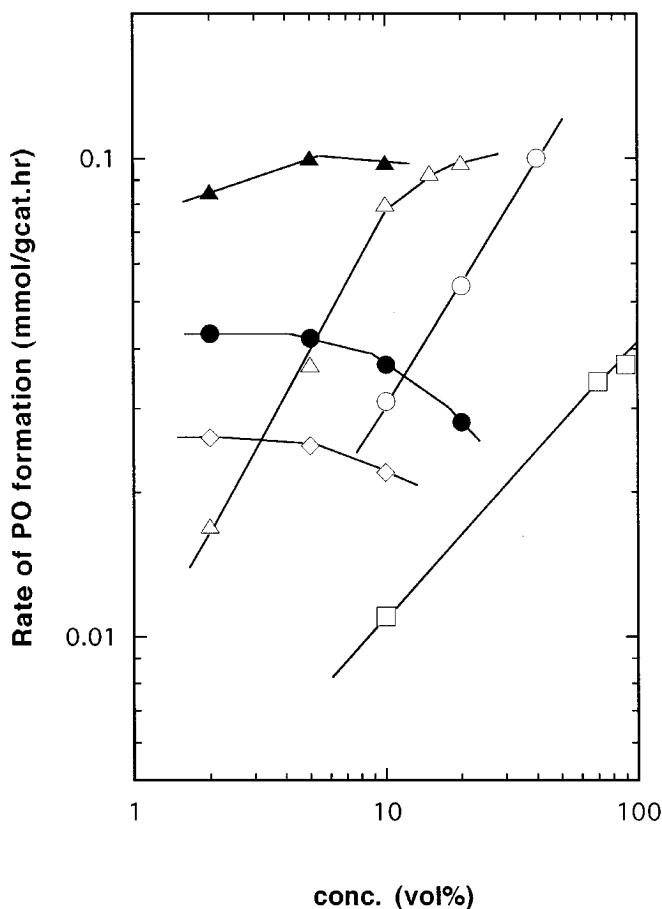


FIG. 4. Rate dependency on reactant concentration over Au/TiO₂/SiO₂: \circ , H₂/O₂/C₃H₆ = 10-40/10/5 (393K); \square , H₂/O₂/C₃H₆ = 10-90/5/5 (350K); Δ , H₂/O₂/C₃H₆ = 40/2-20/5 (393K); \diamond , H₂/O₂/C₃H₆ = 10/10/2-10 (350K); \bullet , H₂/O₂/C₃H₆ = 40/10/2-20 (350K); \blacktriangle , H₂/O₂/C₃H₆ = 40/10/2-10 (393K). Each gas was diluted with Ar up to 100 vol% in total. Flow rate, 2000ml/hr; catalyst, Au(0.20 wt%)/TiO₂/SiO₂ 0.5g.

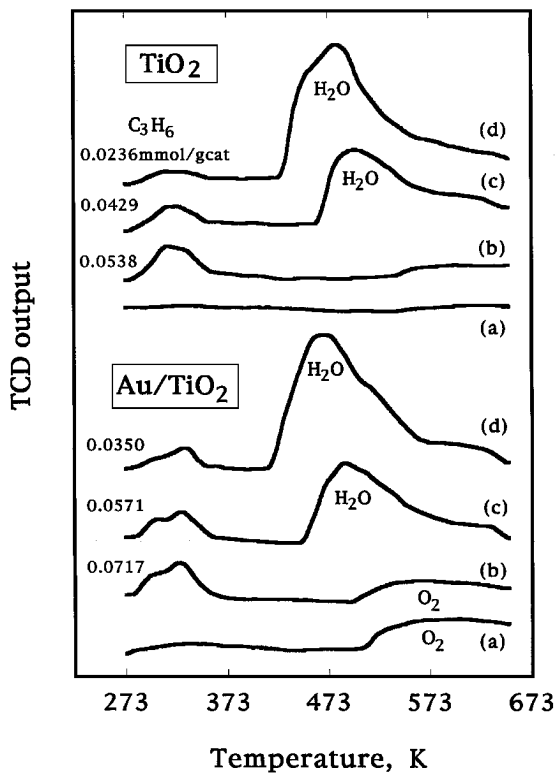


FIG. 5. TPD profile for Au/TiO₂ (Au loading, 0.98 wt%) and TiO₂. Pretreatment for Au/TiO₂ and TiO₂: (a) in O₂ at 573K for 1 h, (b) in O₂ at 573K for 1 h, followed by exposure to C₃H₆ pulses up to full uptake, (c) in O₂ at 573 K for 1 h, followed by exposure to He stream containing H₂O at 2.3 vol% for 10 min, then to C₃H₆ pulses up to full uptake, (d) in O₂ at 573 K for 1 h, followed by exposure to He stream containing H₂O at 2.3 vol% for 20 min, then to C₃H₆ pulses up to full uptake. Heating rate, 5 K/min; rate of flow, 50 ml/min; sample weight, 200 mg.

hand, for Au loadings smaller than 0.10 wt% hydrogenation is catalyzed to produce C₃H₈ alone. Both PO and C₃H₈ were competitively produced for metal loadings of 0.20 wt% and 0.10 wt%, and in the latter case C₃H₈ tended to exceed PO. The reaction products for each catalyst never changed under the different reaction conditions investigated. These results show that the reaction pathway switches over from oxidation to hydrogenation over Au/TiO₂ catalysts at a critical Au loading of 0.20 wt%.

Since the reaction pathway had been assumed to be correlated with the size of Au particles, we made careful TEM observation for every catalyst. In the case of 0.98 wt% and 0.39 wt% Au samples, Au particles having hemispherical shape were homogeneously dispersed with diameters of 1–4 nm. Although the number of Au particles observed was not large for the catalysts with loadings below 0.10 wt%, a major difference between Au loadings above 0.39 wt% and below 0.10 wt% is whether the majority of particles have diameters above or below 2 nm. The sample prepared with a Au loading of 0.20 wt% appeared to have smaller particles than those with lower Au loadings and the mean diameter of

Au particles was not so different for Au/TiO₂ catalysts with Au loadings below 0.20 wt%. On the other hand, the contrast of Au particles in TEM observation become weaker with lower Au loadings. This implies that Au particles were thinner or flatter and that we might have been unable to observe all the small Au particles in the samples with low Au loadings. It is probable that not only particle size but also the particle shape (thick or thin) influence the reaction of C₃H₆. The flat shape of Au particles may account for the fact that the formation rate of C₃H₈ normalized per gram Au appreciably increases with a decrease in Au loading. However, it can be primarily concluded that gold particles larger than 2 nm are responsible for the formation of PO, whereas those below 2 nm catalyze the formation of C₃H₈. Gold particles smaller than 2 nm may be no longer intrinsically gold but may resemble Pt in catalytic nature which also selectively produces C₃H₈ under the same reaction conditions. Since Au clusters smaller than 1 nm could not be clearly observed by TEM the possibility of the contribution of such clusters to the catalytic reaction cannot be excluded.

DISCUSSION

The results obtained appear to show that over the Au/TiO₂-based catalysts molecular oxygen can be transformed through the reaction with molecular hydrogen to an active species, which is capable to selectively oxidize C₃H₆ adsorbed on Au particles to PO. Although we have attempted to detect oxygen species by ESR, no significant information has yet been obtained. Many intermediates, for example H₂O₂, are known to be involved during the reaction between H₂ and O₂ (41). Naito and Tanimoto have speculated that oxygen molecules on small Au particles behave as a peroxo-like adsorbed species, which enhances the dissociation of hydrogen molecules (42). Moreover, the products, epoxides from alkenes, are similar to those of the oxidations of hydrocarbons by H₂O₂ over titanium silicates, on which a peroxo or hydroperoxo species is regarded to be responsible for the selective oxidation (4, 43). From this we speculate that the active oxygen species may be a similar peroxo-like species, formed on a Ti cation site at the boundary between the Au particles and the TiO₂ support. This assumption can also explain why Au/TiO₂ prepared by impregnation does not lead to PO formation; the larger spherical Au particles simply loaded on TiO₂ have much weaker interactions and a much shorter perimeter interface with the TiO₂ on which the peroxo-like species may be produced.

Figure 6 shows a probable formation route for the active oxygen species on the Au/TiO₂ catalyst. Although it is speculative at the present stage of our research, at the border between the gold particles and the TiO₂ support there may be an equilibrium state between $\text{Ti}^{4+}=\text{O}\cdots\text{Au}^0 \rightleftharpoons \text{Ti}^{3+}-\text{O}-\text{Au}^+$. The presence of positively charged gold species has been

TABLE 2
Product Yield for the Reaction of Propylene with Oxygen and Hydrogen over Au/TiO₂
with Different Gold Loadings and the Results of TEM Observation

Au loadings, ^a wt%	Yield of products, ^b %			TEM observaiton			
	Propane	Propylene oxide	CO ₂	Total number of Au particles	Mean diameter, nm	Most frequent diameter, nm	Standard deviation, %
0.98	—	0.61 [0.109] ^c (11.1) ^d	0.08 [0.014] (1.4)	446	2.4	2.2-2.4	25
0.39	-	0.56 [0.100] (25.6)	0.20 [0.036] (9.2)	258	2.2	2.2-2.4	30
0.20	0.33 [0.059] (29.5)	0.54 [0.096] (48.0)	0.05 [0.009] (4.5)	393	1.5	1.2-1.4	25
0.10	1.9 [0.346] (346)	0.1 [0.018] (18.0)	-	35	1.8	1.0-1.2	36
0.05	3.1 [0.554] (1108)	-	-	79	1.5	0.8-1.0	25
0.02	2.5 [0.446] (2230)	-	-	80	1.7	1.4-1.6	25

^a Actual Au loadings determined by X-ray fluorescence analysis.

^b Reaction conditions: feed gas, C₃H₆/O₂/H₂/Ar = 10/10/10/70; flow rate, 2000ml/hr; catalyst, 0.5 g; temperature, 353K.

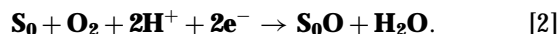
^c Formation rate (mmol/hr/g-cat) is given in parenthesis [].

^d Formation rate (mmol/hr/g-Au) is given in parenthesis ().

indicated by a smaller carbonyl peak at a higher wavenumber region (ν CO) in FT-IR (44). Molecular oxygen is taken up by a Ti³⁺ cation site and is activated, probably to a negatively charged molecular oxygen species, which forms hydroperoxo- or peroxy-like species directly through reaction with hydrogen. The oxygen species adsorbed on Ti site can react with C₃H₆ mainly adsorbed on the surface of Au particles to produce PO.

Monooxygenase enzymes can excellently catalyze the oxidation of alkenes to epoxides at ambient temperatures with high selectivities through the reductive activation of molecular oxygen (45, 46), as expressed in Eq. [2], where So is a

substrate, hydrocarbon:



Dioxygen is transformed to an activated species by the interaction with two protons and electrons. One oxygen atom is donated to the organic substrate and the other to form water. The catalytic features of Au/TiO₂ catalysts observed show reasonable similarity to the enzymes in terms of the reductive activation of dioxygen with molecular hydrogen and, also, by the presence of multifunctional active sites (46). The key role of Au appears to be in providing

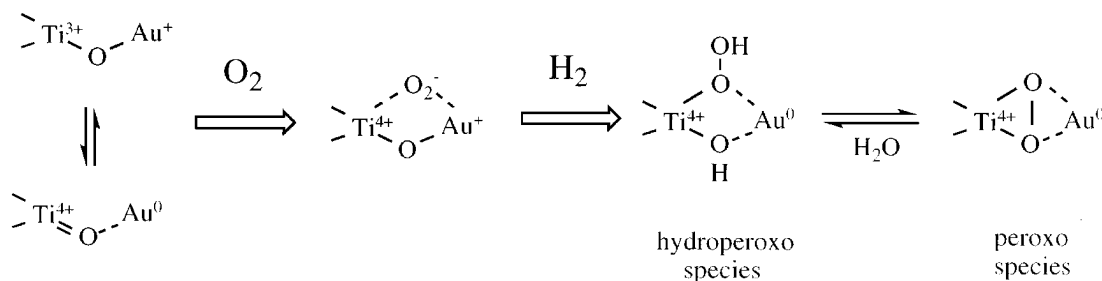


FIG. 6. A probable formation route for the active oxygen species on Au/TiO₂ catalyst.

binding sites for C₃H₆ and to aid electron transfer from H₂ to O₂.

Several attempts have been reported where the behavior of monooxygenase enzymes have also been successfully mimicked concerning the activation of molecular oxygen. Pd-Fe zeolite (47) and Pd-titanosilicate (6, 48) can catalyze the oxidation of both alkanes and alkenes to oxygenates in the liquid phase, by using H₂O₂ generated *in situ*. Vapor phase processes by use of oxygen and hydrogen have also been reported for CH₄ over FePO₄ (49) and benzene over Pd-Cu (50).

The occurrence of hydrogenation of C₃H₆ over Au/TiO₂ with very low Au loadings appears consistent with the results reported by Naito *et al.* for Au/SiO₂ catalyst (42), where using very low Au loadings it was found that the hydrogenation of olefins was accelerated by the presence of oxygen. Our work has further demonstrated that the reaction of C₃H₆ switches between partial oxidation and hydrogenation, depending on the size of Au particles. Flat Au particles with diameters smaller than 2 nm might be oxidic in nature in the copresence of O₂, namely, positively charged to a certain extent, whereas Au particles larger than 2 nm might be still metallic. The positively charged state of Au will have electronically some similarities to that of Pt metal and can catalyze hydrogen dissociation and then hydrogenation. It is probable that Au can remain oxidic only in the presence of O₂ which is electrophilic and therefore O₂ is necessary for hydrogenation over Au/TiO₂. Further investigation is now underway to understand the structure-catalytic function relations and to describe the concerted mechanism of metal and support.

CONCLUSION

The selective partial oxidation of propylene to propylene oxide has been achieved over a supported gold catalyst in a vapor-phase containing H₂ and O₂. Combination of Au and TiO₂ is indispensable for the selective oxidation. Over Au/TiO₂, the presence of H₂ not only enhances the oxidation of C₃H₆ but also leads to the epoxidation to produce propylene oxide at 303 K to 393 K with selectivities above 90%. It appears that the reaction pathway can be tuned, by carefully controlling the size of the Au particles and switches from oxidation to hydrogenation at a critical size of around 2 nm. Although no direct experimental evidence was obtained, it can be suggested that the active oxygen species are produced by the reductive activation of molecular oxygen with molecular hydrogen at the perimeter boundary between the Au particles and the TiO₂ support.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

We thank Mrs. T. Nakamura for performing the particle size analysis.

REFERENCES

1. Ainsworth, S. J., *C&EN*, March 2, 9 (1992).
2. Roth, J. F., *CHEMTECH*, June, 357 (1991).
3. For example, U.S. Patent 5,241,088 (1993) and Europ. Patent 0640598A1 (1994).
4. Notari, B., *Catal. Today* **18**, 163 (1993).
5. E. Occhiello, *Chem. Ind.*, October 6, 761 (1997).
6. Sato, A., Miyake, T., and Saito, T., *Shokubai (Catalyst)* **34**(2), 132 (1992).
7. Hayashi, T., Han, L., Tsubota, S., and Haruta, M., *Ind. Eng. Chem. Res.* **34**, 2298 (1995).
8. Otsuka, K., Yamanaka, I., and Ushiyama, T., *Shokubai (Catalyst)* **37**(6), 408 (1995).
9. Yoshida, H., Tanaka, T., Yamamoto, M., Funabiki, T., and Yoshida, S., *J. Chem. Soc., Chem. Commun.*, 2125 (1996).
10. Schwank, J., *Gold Bull.* **16**, 103 (1983).
11. Hammer, B., and Nørskov, J. K., *Nature* **376**, 238 (1995).
12. Haruta, M., *Catal. Today* **36**, 153 (1997).
13. Haruta, M., *Catal. Surveys Jpn.* **1**, 61 (1997).
14. Haruta, M., Yamada, N., Kobayashi, T., and Iijima, S., *J. Catal.* **115**, 301 (1989).
15. Haruta, M., Tsubota, S., Kobayashi, T., Kageyama, H., Genet, M. J., and Delmon, B., *J. Catal.* **144**, 175 (1993).
16. Tanielyan, S. K., and Augustine, R. L., *Appl. Catal. A: General* **85**, 73 (1992).
17. Lin, S. D., Bollinger, M., and Vannice, M. A., *Catal. Lett.* **17**, 245 (1993).
18. Baiker, A., Maciejewski, M., Tagliaferri, S., and Hug, P., *J. Catal.* **151**, 407 (1995).
19. Kang, Y., and Wan, B., *Appl. Catal. A: General* **128**, 53 (1995).
20. Hoflund, G. B., Gardner, S. D., Schryer, D. R., Upchurch, B. T., and Kielin, E. J., *Appl. Catal. B: Environ.* **6**, 117 (1995).
21. Yuan, Y., Asakura, K., Wan, H., Tsai, K., and Iwasawa, Y., *Catal. Lett.* **42**, 15 (1996).
22. Cant, N. W., and Ossipoff, N. J., *Catal. Today* **36**, 125 (1997).
23. Haruta, M., and Ueda, A., in "Proc. Intern. Workshop on Catal. Comb., Tokyo, 1994," p. 2.
24. Haruta, M., Ueda, A., Tsubota, S., and Sanchez, R. M. T., *Catal. Today* **29**, 443 (1996).
25. Sakurai, H., and Haruta, M., *Appl. Catal. A: General* **127**, 93 (1995).
26. Sakurai, H., and Haruta, M., *Catal. Today* **29**, 361 (1996).
27. Andreeva, D., Idakiev, V., Tabakova, T., and Andreev, A., *J. Catal.* **158**, 354 (1996).
28. Sakurai, H., Ueda, A., Kobayashi, T., and Haruta, M., *J. Chem. Soc., Chem. Commun.*, 271 (1997).
29. Ueda, A., Oshima, T., and Haruta, M., *Appl. Catal. B: Environ.* **12**, 81 (1997).
30. Zavarykina, L. V., Yushkova, E. I., Kazakova, G. D., and Mardashev, Yu. S., *Russian J. Phys. Chem.* **68**, 322 (1994).
31. Hodges, C. N., and Roselaar, L. C., *J. Appl. Chem. Biotechnol.* **25**, 609 (1975).
32. Blues, E. T., Bryce-Smith, D., Lawston, I. W., and Wall, G. D., *J. Chem. Soc., Chem. Commun.*, 513 (1974).
33. Cant, N. W., and Hall, W. K., *J. Phys. Chem.* **75**, 2914 (1971).
34. Sinfelt, J. H., and Cusumano, J. A., in "Advanced Material in Catalysis" (J. J. Burton and R. L. Garten, Eds.), p. 1. Academic Press, New York, 1977.
35. Nakamura, R., Suzuki, S., Aida, R., and Niiyama, H., in "Proc. 24th Meet. Chem. Engng. Soc. Japan. I, 1991," p. 166.
36. Manara, G., and Parravano, G., *J. Catal.* **23**, 379 (1971).
37. Manara, G., and Parravano, G., *J. Catal.* **32**, 72 (1974).
38. Tsubota, S., Cunningham, D. A. H., Bando, Y., and Haruta, M., in "Preparation of Catalysts VI" (G. Poncelet *et al.*, Eds.), p. 229. Elsevier, Amsterdam, 1995.

39. Bamwenda, G. R., Tsubota, S., Nakamura, T., and Haruta, M., *Catal. Lett.* **44**, 83 (1997).
40. Iizuka, Y., Fujiki, H., Yamauchi, N., Chijiwa, T., Arai, S., Tsubota, S., and Haruta, M., *Catal. Today* **36**, 115 (1997).
41. Olivera, P. P., Patrito, E. M., and Sellers, H., *Surf. Sci.* **313**, 25 (1994).
42. Naito, S., and Tanimoto, M., *J. Chem. Soc., Chem. Commun.*, 832 (1988).
43. Huybrechts, D. R. C., Bruycker, L. De., and Jacobs, P. A., *Nature* **345**, 240 (1990).
44. Bocuzzi, F., Chiorino, A., Tsubota, S., and Haruta, M., *J. Phys. Chem.* **100**, 3625 (1996).
45. Green, J., and Dalton, H., *J. Biol. Chem.* **264**, 17698 (1989).
46. White, R. E., and Coon, M. J., *Ann. Rev. Biochem.* **49**, 315 (1980).
47. Herron, N., and Tolman, C. A., *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* **109**, 2837 (1987).
48. Tastumi, T., Yuasa, K., and Tominaga, H., *J. Chem. Soc., Chem. Commun.*, 1446 (1996).
49. Wang, Y., and Otsuka, K., *J. Catal.* **155**, 256 (1995).
50. Kitano, T., Wani, T., Ohnishi, T., Jiang, L-F., Kuroda, Y., Kunai, A., and Sasaki, K., *Catal. Lett.* **11**, 11 (1991).