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\[ \text{CrO}_x/nano-\text{Ce}_{0.6} \text{Zr}_{0.35} \text{Y}_{0.05} \text{O}_2 \] catalysts that are highly selective for the oxidative dehydrogenation of isobutane to isobutene

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Nanosized \( \text{Ce}_{0.60} \text{Zr}_{0.35} \text{Y}_{0.05} \text{O}_2 \) (nano-CZY) solid solution with a particle size of 4–5 nm and CrO\(_x\)/nano-CZY catalysts were prepared. The 8 wt% CrO\(_x\)/nano-CZY catalyst performs the best, giving 93% isobutene selectivity and 10% isobutene yield at 540\(^\circ\)C in isobutane oxidative dehydrogenation. Such an excellent performance is related to the good reducibility of CrO\(_x\) domains and the promotion of O\(_2\) adsorption at oxygen vacancies of nano-CZY.
CrOₓ/nano-Ce₀.₆Z₀.₃₅Y₀.₀₅O₂ catalysts that are highly selective for the oxidative dehydrogenation of isobutane to isobutene

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Abstract

Fluorite-type nanosized Ce\textsubscript{0.60}Zr\textsubscript{0.35}Y\textsubscript{0.05}O\textsubscript{2} (\textit{nano-}CZY) solid solution catalysts that are relatively uniform in particle size (4–5 nm) and \(y\) CrO\textsubscript{x}/\textit{nano-}CZY (\(y\) is the weight percentage of Cr\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{3} ranging from 2 to 10 wt\%) catalysts were prepared by the ethylene glycol-assisted CTAB-templated co-precipitation and incipient wetness impregnation methods, respectively. The materials were characterized by a number of analytical techniques and their catalytic performance was evaluated for the oxidative dehydrogenation of isobutane. The \(y\) CrO\textsubscript{x}/\textit{nano-}CZY catalysts show excellent activities, with the \(y = 8\) wt\% one performing the best (ca. 93% isobutene selectivity and ca. 10% isobutene yield at 540 °C and 30 000 mL/(g\textsubscript{cat} h)). We conclude that the good reducibility of the highly dispersed CrO\textsubscript{x} domains and the promotion of O\textsubscript{2} adsorption at oxygen vacancies of \textit{nano-}CZY (for enhanced oxidation of the reduced catalyst) are responsible for the excellent performance of the 8 wt\% CrO\textsubscript{x}/\textit{nano-}CZY catalyst.

\textit{Keywords:} ceria-zirconia-yttria solid solution; nanoparticle; supported chromia catalyst; isobutane oxidative dehydrogenation
1. Introduction

The catalytic conversion of light hydrocarbons to value-added organic compounds is of economic and environmental significance. Compared to the high-temperature nonoxidative dehydrogenation of alkane to alkene, the thermodynamically favorable oxidative dehydrogenation (ODH) pathway is better. This is because the latter can be conducted at much lower temperatures and the inevitable problems of the former such as cracking of hydrocarbons, carbon deposition, and catalyst deactivation can be avoided to a great extent. However, the ODH process usually gives rise to comparatively lower alkene selectivity due to deep oxidation, resulting in a waste of raw material (alkane). Therefore, the design and fabrication of materials that are catalytically selective to alkene formation is the key to effective utilization of light hydrocarbons through the ODH route.

A number of studies have shown that supported vanadia (VO\textsubscript{x}) [1,2], chromia (CrO\textsubscript{x}) [3], and molybdena (MoO\textsubscript{x}) [4] perform well in the ODH of alkane. Investigations have been conducted over catalysts such as Cr-Ce-O [5] and Ca-CrO\textsubscript{x}/Al\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{3} [6]. Yang et al. [4] studied the structure and catalytic properties of V\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{5}/Cr\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{3}/Al\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{3} and V\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{5}/MoO\textsubscript{x}/Al\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{3} for propane ODH. They observed that the V-O-Cr(Mo) linkage was more reducible and reactive than the V-O-V linkage and the V\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{5}/Cr\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{3}/Al\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{3} catalysts were more active than the V\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{5}/Al\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{3} catalysts. Neri et al. [6] studied a series of CaO-modified CrO\textsubscript{x}/Al\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{3} catalysts and found that the 2 wt% Ca-doped CrO\textsubscript{x}/Al\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{3} exhibited a maximum isobutene selectivity of 57% at 7% isobutane conversion due to the formation of well-dispersed Cr\textsuperscript{6+} species.

In the ODH of alkane, the property of a catalyst support is an important factor that influences selectivity and activity [7,8]. It is known that nanometer ceria-zirconia or
ceria-zirconia-yttria solid solutions have two distinct properties: (i) high density of oxygen vacancies, enabling facile activation of O\textsubscript{2} and hydrocarbon molecules, and (ii) good oxygen storage/release ability, facilitating redox actions [9]. As a result, the nanomaterials are good catalyst supports for ODH reactions. On the other hand, the physicochemical properties of CeO\textsubscript{2} or Ce\textsubscript{1-x}Zr\textsubscript{x}O\textsubscript{2} can be considerably modified by doping the oxide lattice with suitable metal ions. The partial replacement of Ce by trivalent rare earth metal ions (e.g. La\textsuperscript{3+}, Y\textsuperscript{3+}, or Pr\textsuperscript{3+}) promotes the formation of oxygen vacancies and noticeably improves the thermal stability, redox ability, and OSC (oxygen storage capacity) of the solid solutions [10,11], hence enhancing catalytic performance [12].

Previously, we observed that single transition metal oxides (CrO\textsubscript{x}) [13,14] and binary transition metal oxides (CrO\textsubscript{x}−MoO\textsubscript{x}) [15] could be highly dispersed on the surfaces of ordered nanoporous silica (SBA-15) and MgO-coated 3D nanoporous SBA-16. These materials showed good catalytic activities for the ODH of isobutane [14,15]. We also reported that with the inclusion of a small amount of Y\textsuperscript{3+} in the RE\textsubscript{0.6}Zr\textsubscript{0.4}O\textsubscript{2} (RE = Ce, Pr) lattice, the as-obtained RE\textsubscript{0.6}Zr\textsubscript{0.35}Y\textsubscript{0.05}O\textsubscript{2} solid solutions are enriched with oxygen vacancies, consequently showing enhanced lattice oxygen mobility and oxygen storage/release (redox) ability [9,16]. It is known that the ODH reaction proceeds via a Mars-van Krevelen redox mechanism (with the lattice oxygen of transition metal oxide domains in the supported catalyst involved in the rate-determining steps of C−H bond activation [17]), and the reduced catalyst is re-oxidized by O\textsubscript{2} from the gas phase. We envisage that the unique properties of nanosized ceria-zirconia-based materials are beneficial for ODH reactions. Using nanometer Ce\textsubscript{0.60}Zr\textsubscript{0.35}Y\textsubscript{0.05}O\textsubscript{2} solid solution (nano-CZY) as support and chromia as active component, we
prepared a series of \( \text{CrO}_x/nano\text{-CZY} \) catalysts of different chromia loadings and found that the nanomaterials perform excellently in the ODH of isobutane to isobutene. In this paper, we report the fabrication and catalytic activities of the \( nano\text{-CZY} \)-supported \( \text{CrO}_x \) catalysts.

2. Experimental

2.1. Catalyst preparation

The \( nano\text{-CZY} \) support was synthesized according to a rather novel strategy. In a typical procedure, stoichiometric amounts of metal precursors (4.5 mmol \( \text{Ce(NO}_3\)_3 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O} \), 2.6 mmol \( \text{Zr(NO}_3\)_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O} \), 0.4 mmol \( \text{Y(NO}_3\)_3 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O} \), hexadecyltrimethyl ammonium bromide (CTAB) and ethylene glycol (EG) surfactants (giving \( (\text{Ce} + \text{Zr} + \text{Y})/(\text{CTAB} + \text{EG}) \) and CTAB/EG molar ratio of 1/1.2 and 1/600, respectively) were dissolved in 30 mL of deionized water. An ammonia (28 wt\%) solution was added dropwise to the mixture under stirring and the pH value was carefully controlled to 11 for the generation of a yellowish precipitate. After being washed three times with deionized water and methanol, the precipitate was filtered out and dried at 80 °C for 48 h, thus obtaining the CTAB/EG-removed CZY precursor. The as-generated CZY precursor was heated to 600 °C at a rate of 1 °C/min and maintained at this temperature for 2 h for the acquisition of the \( nano\text{-CZY} \) support.

The \( y \text{CrO}_x/nano\text{-CZY} \) (\( y \) represents the \( \text{Cr}_2\text{O}_3 \) weight percentage, \( y = 2, 4, 6, 8, \) or 10 wt\%) catalysts were prepared through the incipient wetness impregnation of \( nano\text{-CZY} \) with suitable amount of \( \text{Cr(NO}_3\)_3 \) solution. The dried precursor was calcined (heated from room temperature (RT) to 550 °C at a ramp of 10 °C/min) in \( \text{O}_2 \) (30 mL/min) at 550 °C for 3 h. Finally, the as-received solid substance was ground, pressed, crushed, and sieved to a size
range of 40–60 mesh. For comparison purposes, we adopted the incipient wetness impregnation approach to prepare a \( \gamma \text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3 \) (surface area = 104 m\(^2\)/g) supported chromia catalyst (8 wt% CrO\(_x\)/Al\(_2\)O\(_3\), Cr surface density = 8.45 Cr/nm\(^2\)). All the chemicals were analytical grade (Beijing Chemical Reagent Co.) and were used without further purification.

2.2. Catalyst characterization

X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns of the \textit{nano-CZY} and \( y \text{CrO}_x/nano\text{-CZY} \) samples were recorded on a Bruker/AXS D8 Advance diffractometer using Cu \( K\alpha \) irradiation and nickel filter (\( \lambda = 0.15406 \) nm). The BET surface areas of the samples were measured by means of a Micromeritics ASAP 2020 instrument. Before the adsorption of N\(_2\) at \(-196^\circ\text{C}\), the samples were degassed at 250 \(^\circ\text{C}\) for 3 h. The transmission electron microscopic (TEM) images and selected area electron diffraction (SAED) patterns of the samples were taken on a JEOL-2010 apparatus operated at a 200 kV accelerating voltage. The X-ray photoelectron spectroscopic (XPS, VG CLAM 4 MCD analyzer) technique was applied to determine the O 1s, Cr 2p, Ce 3d, Zr 3d, Y 3d, and C 1s binding energies (BEs) of surface oxygen, chromium, cerium, zirconium, yttrium, and carbon species using Mg \( K\alpha \) (\( h\nu = 1253.6 \) eV) as excitation source. Before XPS measurements, the samples were pretreated in an O\(_2\) flow of 20 mL/min at 500 \(^\circ\text{C}\) for 1 h and then cooled to RT. Then the samples were mounted and transferred to the spectrometer in a transparent Glove Bag (Instruments for Research and Industry, USA) filled with helium. Finally, the samples were outgassed (in the preparation chamber) for 0.5 h before XPS analysis. The BE values were calibrated against the C 1s signal (284.6 eV) of contaminant carbon. Raman spectra of the \( y \text{CrO}_x/nano\text{-CZY} \) samples were collected on a laser Raman instrument (Bruker RFS/100) equipped with a Nd:YAG laser (1064 nm) and an
InGaAs detector. The laser power was 100 mW. For each Raman run, the sample (0.2 g) was mounted inside the Raman cell on a stainless steel holder and Raman scattering (in the 200–1200 cm\(^{-1}\) region) was collected with 4 cm\(^{-1}\) resolution.

H\(_2\) temperature-programmed reduction (H\(_2\)-TPR) was carried out in the RT–700 °C range. About 50 mg of sample was treated in O\(_2\) (40 mL/min) at 500 °C for 1 h and then cooled down to RT before being reduced in a 5% H\(_2\)–95% He flow of 25 mL/min at a ramp rate of 10 °C/min. The effluent was monitored with a mass spectrometer (MS, Hiden HPR20), and the MS response was calibrated against the complete reduction of a standard CuO powder sample (99.995%, Aldrich).

2.3. Catalytic evaluation

The ODH of isobutane (i.e. \(i\)-butane or \(i\)-C\(_4\)H\(_{10}\)) was performed in a quartz fixed-bed micro-reactor at atmospheric pressure and a feed gas (\(i\)-C\(_4\)H\(_{10}\)/O\(_2\)/N\(_2\) molar ratio = 2 : 4 : 44) flow rate of 50 mL/min. Unless specified otherwise, 0.1 g of the catalyst (40–60 mesh) was used (diluted with an equal amount of acid-washed quartz sand (40–60 mesh) to minimize the temperature gradient), giving a space velocity (SV) of 30 000 mL/(g cat h). A thermocouple was placed in the middle of the catalyst bed to measure the reaction temperature. The effluent was analyzed on-line using a Shimadzu GC-2010 gas chromatograph equipped with FID and TCD. The aluminum oxide porous layer open tubular (Rt-Alumina PLOT, Restek, USA) capillary column (30 m in length, for FID) was used to separate hydrocarbons, whereas the Uni Beads-1S column (3 m in length, for TCD) was used to separate CO, CO\(_2\), and O\(_2\). The isobutane conversion and product selectivity were calculated based on carbon balance.

To clarify the effect of oxygen adspecies on catalytic performance, we performed
isobutane-pulse (50.0 µL for each pulse) experiments at 340 °C over the 8 wt% CrO₅/nano-CZY catalysts (0.1 g) using helium (flow rate = 30 mL/min) as carrier gas. Before each experiment, the catalyst was in-situ pretreated in an O₂ or H₂ flow of 30 mL/min at 350 °C for 0.5 h, and then purged with helium for 0.5 h. The outlet gases were analyzed on-line by GC-MS (Agilent 5975B).

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Crystal phase composition, BET surface area, and pore structure

Figure 1 shows the wide-angle XRD patterns of the nano-CZY and y CrO₅/nano-CZY samples. By comparing to the XRD patterns of cubic Ce₀.₆Zr₀.₄O₂ (JCPDS PDF# 38-1439), one can realize that the as-fabricated nano-CZY is of fluorite-type cubic crystal structure, indicating the formation of single-phase CZY solid solution [9]; all the peaks can be indexed as shown in Fig. 1(a). With loading of CrO₅, there is little change in CZY line position, demonstrating the retention of the cubic structure; the only observable change is a drop in peak intensity, implying a decline in CZY crystallinity. When chromia loading reaches 10 wt% (Fig. 1(f)), weak signals ascribable to α-Cr₂O₃ crystal phase (JCPDS PDF# 02-1095) are detected. The results suggest that at loadings < 10 wt%, the CrO₅ domains are highly dispersed on the nano-CZY surfaces. The BET results indicate that the surface area of the catalysts is 100, 74, 74, 72, 73, and 70 m²/g for y = 0, 2, 4, 6, 8, and 10 wt%, respectively. The corresponding Cr surface density values (i.e. the number of Cr atoms per nm² surface area) are 0, 2.26, 4.33, 6.60, 8.66, and 10.74 Cr/nm². It should be noted that if all the CZY particles were spherical with a diameter of 5 nm, the surface area of CZY would be ca. 160 m²/g (CZY density = ca. 7.5
much higher than that of the as-fabricated CZY sample. The result means that the CZY particles are not perfectly spherical. Therefore, we describe them as sphere-like particles.

Figure 2 shows the representative TEM images and SAED patterns of \textit{nano-CZY} and 8 wt\% CrO$_x$/\textit{nano-CZY}. The \textit{nano-CZY} sample displays a picture of irregular clusters, each cluster is composed of a number of relatively uniform sphere-like CZY nanoparticles (diameter: 4–5 nm) (Fig. 2(a,b)). There are a large number of nanopores between the CZY nanoparticles (Fig. 2(b)). After 8 wt\% chromia is loaded on the \textit{nano-CZY} support, the aggregation of CZY nanoparticles becomes serious (Fig. 2(c)) but there is little change in the size of nanoparticles (Fig. 2(d)). The appearance of multiple bright electron diffraction rings in the SAED patterns (insets of Figs. 2(b,d)) reveals that the as-obtained \textit{nano-CZY} and 8 wt\% CrO$_x$/\textit{nano-CZY} materials are polycrystalline. The recording of well-resolved lattice fringes (Figs. 2(b,d)) indicates the generation of well-grown CZY solid solution. The lattice spacing is measured to be ca. 0.31 nm, coinciding with that (0.312485 nm) of the (111) plane of cubic CeO$_2$ (JCPDS PDF# 81-0792) or that (0.306400 nm) of the (111) plane of cubic Ce$_{0.6}$Zr$_{0.4}$O$_2$ (JCPDS PDF# 38-1439).

3.2. Surface species and reducibility

Figure 3 illustrates the O 1s, Ce 3d, and Cr 2p XPS spectra of \textit{y} CrO$_x$/\textit{nano-CZY}. In Fig. 3(A), one can see unsymmetrical O 1s peaks at BE = ca. 529.5 eV that can be divided into two components by deconvolution: one at 529.4 eV and the other at 531.6 eV. The former is attributable to surface lattice oxygen while the latter is attributable to adsorbed oxygen (e.g. O$_2^-$, O$_2^{2-}$ or O$^-$) species [18,19]. The presence of surface hydroxyl group species can be excluded because the samples were pretreated in O$_2$ at 500 °C and were not exposed to air prior
to XPS analysis. Due to the fact that the O 1s BEs of $\alpha$-Cr$_2$O$_3$ and mono-/poly-chromate are in the range of 529–530 eV, it is not possible to exclude the co-existence of $\alpha$-Cr$_2$O$_3$ and CrO$_x$ domains, especially at high chromia loadings. In Fig. 3(B), one can see two sets of Ce 3d signals: one has peaks at BE = 882.8, 885.4, 889.1, and 898.7 eV attributable to Ce 3d$_{5/2}$ while the other has peaks at BE = 901.8, 903.4, 907.6, and 917.0 eV attributable to Ce 3d$_{3/2}$ [20,21]. The signals at BE = 885.4 and 903.4 eV are due to Ce$^{3+}$ while the others due to Ce$^{4+}$ [20,21]. In other words, the cerium of nano-CZY and $\gamma$ CrO$_x$/nano-CZY existed either as Ce$^{3+}$ or as Ce$^{4+}$. The co-existence of Ce$^{3+}$ and Ce$^{4+}$ ions in $\gamma$ CrO$_x$/nano-CZY suggests the presence of oxygen vacancies on/in the nano-CZY support. It is known that oxygen vacancies are apt to promote O$_2$ adsorption and activation, consequently facilitating the Ce$^{3+}$ $\Leftrightarrow$ Ce$^{4+}$ redox process [9,16]. The formation of oxygen vacancies in Ce$_{1-x}$Zr$_x$O$_2$ has been reported by Balducci et al. [22] and Madier et al. [23], and enhanced density of oxygen vacancies via Y$^{3+}$ doping to the lattice of ceria-zirconia solid solution has been reported by He et al. [9] and Cavani et al. [24]. Usually, O$_2$ molecules are adsorbed at oxygen vacant sites, and it is reasonable to believe that the oxygen adspecies are largely located on the nano-CZY surface of the $\gamma$ CrO$_x$/nano-CZY catalysts. As illustrated in Fig. 3(C), the two asymmetrical Cr 2p peaks can be deconvoluted into two sets of components: one with peaks at 576.9 and 579.0 eV, and the other with peaks at 586.0 and 588.2 eV. The signals at ca. 576.9 and 586.0 eV can be assigned to Cr$^{3+}$ whereas those at ca. 579.0 and 588.2 eV can be assigned to Cr$^{6+}$ [24,25].

The surface O$_{\text{ads}}$/O$_{\text{latt}}$, Ce$^{3+}$/Ce$^{4+}$, and Cr$^{6+}$/Cr$^{3+}$ ratios as depicted in Table 1 were calculated according to peak areas. One can see that, with rise of chromia content, there is only a slight increase in the amounts of oxygen adspecies and surface Ce$^{3+}$ species, indicating that
the loading of chromia on *nano-CZY* does not cause a significant change in the density of surface oxygen vacancies. One the other hand, with increase of chromia loading, there is a monotonous decline in the amount of surface Cr\(^{6+}\) species.

As a potent tool to obtain structural information, laser Raman is sensitive to crystalline symmetry. Illustrated in Fig. 4 are the laser Raman spectra of the \(y\) CrO\(_x\)/*nano-CZY* samples. The Raman spectrum of *nano-CZY* (not shown here) and that of the *nano-CZY* in \(y\) CrO\(_x\)/*nano-CZY* shows a big band at 460 cm\(^{-1}\) and a weak band at 600 cm\(^{-1}\). The former corresponds to a triply degenerate F\(_{2g}\) mode and can be viewed as a mode of symmetric O–Ce–O stretching [25], whereas the latter can be ascribed to a doubly degenerate longitudinal optical mode of ceria-zirconia-yttria (similar to that of CeO\(_2\) [26]) and linked to oxygen vacancies in the lattices of solid solutions [27]. In the present investigation, we detected no Raman bands ascribable to zirconia or yttria phases. The results reveal that the Zr\(^{4+}\) and Y\(^{3+}\) ions are incorporated into the CeO\(_2\) lattices. In other words, there is the generation of single-phase CZY solid solutions. It is generally accepted that there are three kinds of chromium species on the surface of supported chromia, *viz.* isolated monochromate (CrO\(_3\)), polychromate \(\alpha\)-Cr\(_2\)O\(_3\), and crystalline \(\alpha\)-Cr\(_2\)O\(_3\). In Fig. 4, one can observe Raman bands at 850, 875, 980, and 1009 cm\(^{-1}\): the first two can be assigned to Cr-O-Cr stretching of hydrated dichromate [28], the third to monochromate species of Cr\(^{6+}\) state (CrO\(_3\)) [4], and the fourth to polychromate species with different degrees of oligomerization [4,28]. With the rise of chromia loading from 2 to 6 wt\% (Figs. 4(a–c)), the Raman bands increase in intensity, indicative of an increase in content of chromium species, but further rise of chromia loading to 8 or 10 wt\% results in a decline in signal intensity, plausibly due to the formation of
crystalline \(\alpha\)-Cr\(_2\)O\(_3\) [29] as evidenced by the observation of Raman bands at 550 cm\(^{-1}\) (Figs. 4(d, e)). Based on the Raman results, one can deduce that near monolayer coverage of chromia on nano-CZY surface is achieved at a chromia loading of ca. 8 wt\% (corresponding to a Cr surface density of ca. 8.66 Cr/nm\(^2\)); at this stage the formation of crystalline \(\alpha\)-Cr\(_2\)O\(_3\) should be minimal.

Most researchers believe that the ODH of alkanes over supported transition metal oxides proceeds via a redox mechanism and the reducibility of the catalyst plays a crucial role. Shown in Figs. 5A and B are the H\(_2\)-TPR profiles and initial H\(_2\) consumption rates of \(y\) CrO\(_x\)/nano-CZY, respectively. For nano-CZY (not shown), there is a broad and weak reduction band centered at 505 °C due to the removal of oxygen adspecies and the reduction of surface Ce\(^{4+}\) to Ce\(^{3+}\) [30], corresponding to a H\(_2\) consumption of 0.83 mmol/g\(_{\text{cat}}\). With the loading of chromia, the \(y\) CrO\(_x\)/nano-CZY samples show a strong reduction band in the 280–420 °C range, together with a broad and weak reduction band centered at 493 °C. The former is due to the reduction of chromia, whereas the latter is due to the reduction of Ce\(^{4+}\) ions in nano-CZY. The slight drop in reduction extent of the nano-CZY support of \(y\) CrO\(_x\)/nano-CZY with the rise of chromia loading could be a result of strong interaction between nano-CZY and CrO\(_x\) domains. At elevated chromia loadings, the shift (to lower temperature) of the reduction band of chromia becomes prominent. It might be a combined result of (i) the presence of highly dispersed CrO\(_x\) domains that are reducible and (ii) the strong interactions between CrO\(_x\) and CZY nanocrystals. A similar effect was also observed in the case of VO\(_x\)/Al\(_2\)O\(_3\) by Dai et al. [2]. The H\(_2\) consumption for the reduction of CrO\(_x\) in \(y\) CrO\(_x\)/nano-CZY at \(y = 2, 4, 6, 8,\) and 10 wt\% is 0.27, 0.50, 0.71, 0.92, and 0.87 mmol/g\(_{\text{cat}}\),
respectively, corresponding to a Cr\textsuperscript{6+} content of 89, 83, 78, 76, and 58 mol\%, higher than the respective surface Cr\textsuperscript{6+} content (80, 69, 59, 54, and 51 mol\%) estimated based on the surface Ce\textsuperscript{6+}/Cr\textsuperscript{3+} ratios depicted in Table 1. This result is understandable because the amounts of surface and bulk Cr\textsuperscript{6+} concentrations vary across the nano-CZY-supported chromia catalysts. The nano-CZY in the y CrO\textsubscript{x}/nano-CZY samples shows similar extents of H\textsubscript{2} consumption (0.63, 0.63, 0.62, 0.61, and 0.60 mmol/g\textsubscript{cat}, respectively). It is obvious that the 8 wt\% CrO\textsubscript{x}/nano-CZY catalyst is the most reducible. The formation of crystalline α-Cr\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{3} phase causes a drop in H\textsubscript{2} consumption even though the chromia loading of 10 wt\% CrO\textsubscript{x}/nano-CZY is higher than that of 8 wt\% CrO\textsubscript{x}/nano-CZY. It is convenient to use the initial H\textsubscript{2} consumption (where consumption of lattice oxygen is less than 25\% and there is no phase transformation of catalyst) rate to evaluate the reducibility of a solid oxide catalyst [2,17]. From Fig. 5B, one can see that the initial H\textsubscript{2} consumption rate basically followed a sequence of 2 wt\% CrO\textsubscript{x}/nano-CZY < 4 wt\% CrO\textsubscript{x}/nano-CZY < 6 wt\% CrO\textsubscript{x}/nano-CZY < 10 wt\% CrO\textsubscript{x}/nano-CZY < 8 wt\% CrO\textsubscript{x}/nano-CZY, indicating that the 8 wt\% CrO\textsubscript{x}/nano-CZY catalyst is the highest in reducibility.

3.3. Catalytic performance

According to the results of blank experiments conducted under similar conditions, nano-CZY by itself (at 540 °C: isobutane conversion = 21.9\%, isobutene selectivity = 2.9\%, C\textsubscript{1}–C\textsubscript{3} selectivity = 2.4\%, and CO\textsubscript{x} (CO\textsubscript{2} + CO) selectivity = 94.7\%) is highly active for the deep oxidation of isobutane to CO\textsubscript{x}, whereas quartz sand (at 540 °C: isobutane conversion = 1.1\%, isobutene selectivity = 98.1\%) is rather inactive but selective. Table 2 summarizes the
catalytic activities of $y$ CrO$_x$/nano-CZY under the conditions of isobutane/oxygen molar ratio $= 1/2$, reaction temperature $= 340$–$540$ °C, and SV $= 30 000$ mL/(g cat h). In the adopted temperature range, O$_2$ conversions are below 45%. Over the catalysts, with 2 wt% CrO$_x$/nano-CZY being an exception, the rise of reaction temperature causes an increase of isobutane conversion and C$_4$-olefin yield, accompanied by a decrease in C$_4$-olefin selectivity and a monotonous increase in C$_1$–C$_3$ hydrocarbon selectivity. In the case of 2 wt% CrO$_x$/nano-CZY, isobutane conversion, CO$_x$ selectivity, and C$_4$-olefin yield alter only slightly with temperature rise. High C$_4$-olefin yield of ca. 10% is achieved over the 6–10 wt% CrO$_x$/nano-CZY catalysts at 540 °C, corresponding to isobutane conversion and C$_4$-olefin selectivity of ca. 11% and 91–93%, respectively. Among the generated C$_1$–C$_3$ hydrocarbons, the major compound is propylene (ca. 89%) and the others (ca. 11%) are methane, ethane, ethylene, and propane; among the C$_4$-olefins, the main one is isobutene (ca. 96%) and the others (ca. 4%) are trans- and cis-butene and butadiene. In addition to these products, there is a trace amount (ca. 0.2%) of C$_4$-oxygenates (such as alcohol, aldehyde, carboxylic acid) generated at temperatures above 500 °C.

The catalytic activities over the 6–10 wt% CrO$_x$/nano-CZY catalysts (C$_4$-olefin selectivity $> 91$% and C$_4$-olefin yield $\approx 10$% at 540 °C) are much better than those achieved over K-CrO$_x$/SiO$_2$ (C$_4$-olefin yield $\approx 6$% at 525 °C) [31] and over [Si,V]-MCM-41 (C$_4$-olefin yield $\approx 5$% at 550 °C) [32]. For better comparison, we measured the catalytic activity of 8 wt% CrO$_x$/Al$_2$O$_3$ under similar reaction conditions. At isobutane/oxygen molar ratio $= 1/2$, reaction temperature $= 540$ °C, and SV $= 30 000$ mL/(g cat h), the 8 wt% CrO$_x$/Al$_2$O$_3$ catalyst shows an isobutane conversion of ca. 50% and an isobutene selectivity of ca. 12%, giving a
isobutene yield of ca. 6%. Apparently, the 8 wt% CrO$_x$/nano-CZY catalyst is superior to the 8 wt% CrO$_x$/Al$_2$O$_3$ catalyst in performance. The excellent catalytic performance of the former can be associated with the high dispersion of CrO$_x$ domains on the nano-CZY solid solution and the relatively facile activation of O$_2$ molecules over the catalyst. The fact that the isobutane conversion changes insignificantly with the rise in temperature might be due to a complicated effect induced by the competing reactions (i.e. selective and complete oxidation of isobutene, respectively, by the CrO$_x$ lattice oxygen and the oxygen adspecies at the oxygen vacancies of nano-CZY). It is generally accepted that the lattice oxygen of MO$_x$ (M = V, Mo, Cr) domains highly dispersed on a support is the active species for the selective oxidation of light hydrocarbons (e.g., propane and butane [2,17,33,34]), whereas the adsorbed oxygen species are responsible for the deep oxidation of alkanes. In the present work, the lattice oxygen atoms of CrO$_x$ react with isobutane to generate the isobutanoxide intermediates (a mechanism similar to that of propane ODH over VO$_x$/ZrO$_2$ [33]) or isobutyl intermediates (a mechanism similar to that of n-butane ODH over supported vanadia [8,34]); both intermediates subsequently decompose to form isobutene. The gas-phase O$_2$ molecules are adsorbed at the oxygen vacancies of nano-CZY, and the oxygen adspecies in the vicinity of the CrO$_x$ domains can effectively re-oxidize the catalysts reduced due to the consumption of CrO$_x$ lattice oxygen (O$_{\text{latt}}^{2-}$) in the ODH process. Consequently, the steps of O$_2$ (in gas phase) $\rightarrow$ 2O$_{\text{ads}}$ (at oxygen vacancies of nano-CZY) $\rightarrow$ 2O$_{\text{latt}}^{2-}$ (in CrO$_x$) are promoted. The timely replenishment of the catalyst with O$_{\text{latt}}^{2-}$ in CrO$_x$ would guarantee the high selectivity to isobutene. In the meantime, the oxygen adspecies can also oxidize isobutane directly to isobutene as well as to carbon oxides. In other words, the isobutene selectivity is determined
by the relative extent of the ODH and deep oxidation reactions. Due to the limited presence of oxygen vacancies in \textit{nano-CZY}, the amount of oxygen adspecies formed on the CZY surface is low. Taking these results into consideration and based on the activity data, one can realize that the selective oxidation of isobutane is the dominant process, and hence a rise of reaction temperature would only cause a slight increase in isobutane conversion. It is generally accepted that O$_{\text{ads}}$ is highly reactive towards light alkanes, resulting in deep oxidation and low olefin selectivity as in the case of \textit{nano-CZY}. Nonetheless, compared to alumina, \textit{nano-CZY} is more suitable to disperse chromia. To clarify the role of oxygen adspecies in the catalytic system, we carried out isobutane-pulse experiments at 340 °C over the 8 wt\% CrO$_x$/\textit{nano-CZY} catalysts that had been in-situ treated in an O$_2$ or H$_2$ flow of 30 mL/min at 350 °C. The results are summarized in Table 3. Over the oxidized catalyst and with the rise of pulse number, isobutane conversion decreases (reflecting the gradual decrease of oxygen adspecies on \textit{nano-CZY}) while isobutene selectivity increases (implying that with the depletion of oxygen adspecies on \textit{nano-CZY}, CrO$_x$ lattice oxygen becomes significantly involved in the ODH process). Over the reduced catalyst (with most of the oxygen adspecies removed), isobutane conversion is low while isobutene selectivity is high, and there is little change in the two factors with the rise of pulse number. The results indicate that, after pre-reduction of catalyst, interaction of isobutane with lattice oxygen of CrO$_x$ dominates. Another piece of supporting evidence is that, after 25 pulses of isobutane and 25 pulses of O$_2$ over the reduced catalyst (Table 3), the catalyst (re-oxidized) shows low isobutane conversion and high isobutene selectivity, and the isobutane conversion decreases while the isobutene selectivity increases with the rise of pulse number; the results confirm the involvement of
oxygen adspecies in the replenishment of the reduced catalyst with lattice oxygen. Although
the activity measurements of the pulsing experiments were carried out in a non-steady state,
useful information can be deduced based on the trend of performance change. It is apparent
that the CrO$_x$ lattice oxygen of the nano-CZY-supported catalyst is active for isobutane ODH
and the oxygen species adsorbed on nano-CZY can replenish the reduced catalyst with lattice
oxygen (thus promoting the ODH reaction).

Based on the above results and discussion, we deduce that the excellent catalytic
performance of the 6–10 wt% CrO$_x$/nano-CZY catalysts is a combined result of (i) presence
of highly dispersed CrO$_x$ domains, (ii) better reducibility of catalysts, and (iii) involvement of
oxygen adspecies on nano-CZY in the re-oxidation of the reduced chromia catalyst.

4. Conclusions

Nanostructured nano-CZY support (4–5 nm) and $\gamma$ CrO$_x$/nano-CZY ($\gamma = 2$–10 wt%) catalysts were synthesized by ethylene glycol-assisted CTAB-templated and incipient wetness
impregnation methods, respectively. The $\gamma$ CrO$_x$/nano-CZY catalysts show excellent activities
for isobutane ODH, with the 8 wt% CrO$_x$/nano-CZY one performing the best (ca. 93%
isobutene selectivity and ca. 10% isobutene yield at 540 °C and 30 000 mL/(g cat h)). It is
deduced that the excellent catalytic performance is attributable to factors such as (i) existence
of highly dispersed CrO$_x$ domains, (ii) better CrO$_x$ reducibility, and (iii) promoted oxidation
of the reduced catalysts by oxygen adspecies on nano-CZY.

Acknowledgements
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References


Captions of Tables and Figures

Table 1. Surface $O_{\text{ad}}/O_{\text{latt}}$, $\text{Cr}^{6+}/\text{Cr}^{3+}$, and $\text{Ce}^{3+}/\text{Ce}^{4+}$ ratios of $y \text{CrO}_x$/nano-CZY catalysts estimated according to the XPS results.

Table 2. Catalytic activities of $y \text{CrO}_x$/nano-CZY for the ODH of isobutane at isobutane/oxygen molar ratio = 1/2 and SV = 30 000 mL/(g$_{\text{cat}}$ h).

Table 3. Isobutane conversions and isobutene selectivities obtained in the isobutane-pulsing experiments at 340 °C over the O$_2$- and H$_2$ pretreated 8 wt% CrO$_x$/nano-CZY catalysts.

Fig. 1. XRD patterns of $y \text{CrO}_x$/nano-CZY samples with $y = (a)$ 0, (b) 2, (c) 4, (d) 6, (e) 8, and (f) 10 wt%.

Fig. 2. TEM images and SAED patterns (insets) of (a, b) nano-CZY and (c, d) 8 wt% CrO$_x$/nano-CZY.

Fig. 3. (A) O 1s, (B) Ce 3d, and (C) Cr 2p XPS spectra of $y \text{CrO}_x$/nano-CZY with $y = (a)$ 2, (b) 4, (c) 6, (d) 8, and (e) 10 wt%.

Fig. 4. Laser Raman spectra of $y \text{CrO}_x$/nano-CZY with $y = (a)$ 2, (b) 4, (c) 6, (d) 8, and (e) 10 wt%.

Fig. 5. (A) H$_2$-TPR profiles and (B) H$_2$ consumption rate of $y \text{CrO}_x$/nano-CZY with $y = (a)$ 2, (b) 4, (c) 6, (d) 8, and (e) 10 wt%.
Table 1

Surface O$_{\text{ads}}$/O$_{\text{latt}}$, Cr$^{6+}$/Cr$^{3+}$, and Ce$^{3+}$/Ce$^{4+}$ ratios of $y$ CrO$_{y}$/nano-CZY catalysts estimated according to the XPS results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$y$ (wt%)</th>
<th>Surface O$<em>{\text{ads}}$/O$</em>{\text{latt}}$ ratio</th>
<th>Surface Cr$^{6+}$/Cr$^{3+}$ ratio</th>
<th>Surface Ce$^{3+}$/Ce$^{4+}$ ratio</th>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.51</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>1.18</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>0.13</td>
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Table 2
Catalytic activities of $\gamma$ CrO$_x$/nano-CZY for the ODH of isobutane at isobutane/oxygen molar ratio = 1/2 and SV = 30 000 mL/(g$_{\text{cat}}$ h)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$\gamma$ (wt%)</th>
<th>Temperature (°C)</th>
<th>Conversion (%)</th>
<th>Selectivity $^a$ (%)</th>
<th>Isobutene yield (%)</th>
</tr>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>isobutene</td>
<td>$O_2$</td>
<td>isobutene</td>
<td>$C_1$–$C_3$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>340</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>31.5</td>
<td>95.9</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>460</td>
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<td>35.0</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>540</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>44.5</td>
<td>90.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$^a$ $C_1$–$C_3$ denotes $CH_4 + C_2H_6 + C_2H_4 + C_3H_8 + C_3H_6$; $CO_x = CO_2 + CO$; $C_4^-$ denotes 1,3-butadiene + cis-2-butene + trans-2-butene; in addition, there is a trace amount of $C_4$-oxygenates in the product mixture.
Table 3

Isobutane conversions and isobutene selectivities obtained in the isobutane-pulsing experiments at 340 °C over the O₂- and H₂ pretreated 8 wt% CrOₓ/nano-CZY catalysts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Catalyst</th>
<th>Pulse number</th>
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<th></th>
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<td>5</td>
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<td>20</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O₂-pretreated 8 wt% CrOₓ/nano-CZY</td>
<td>4.22/79.6</td>
<td>4.03/81.3</td>
<td>3.71/82.8</td>
<td>3.61/85.6</td>
<td>3.49/88.9</td>
<td>3.28/90.9</td>
<td>3.19/92.0</td>
<td>3.01/93.8</td>
<td>2.74/95.7</td>
<td>2.59/95.8</td>
<td>2.59/95.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H₂-pretreated 8 wt% CrOₓ/nano-CZY</td>
<td>1.02/99.5</td>
<td>0.76/98.9</td>
<td>0.51/99.1</td>
<td>0.31/99.2</td>
<td>0.13/98.7</td>
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<td>1.86/93.2</td>
<td>1.12/95.7</td>
<td>0.76/96.2</td>
<td>0.41/96.7</td>
<td>0.18/97.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* The data of isobutane conversion (%)/isobutene selectivity (%);

* The data were obtained after a pulse of isobutane over the H₂-pretreated catalyst that had undergone 25 pulses of isobutane and 25 pulses of O₂.
Fig. 1. XRD patterns of $y$ CrO$_2$/nano-CZY samples with $y =$ (a) 0, (b) 2, (c) 4, (d) 6, (e) 8, and (f) 10 wt%. 
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Fig. 4. Laser Raman spectra of $y\text{CrO}_x/nano$-CZY with $y = (a) 2, (b) 4, (c) 6, (d) 8, and (e) 10$ wt%.
Fig. 5. (A) H₂-TPR profiles and (B) H₂ consumption rate of \( y \) CrO\(_x\)/nano-CZY with \( y = (a) 2, (b) 4, (c) 6, (d) 8, \) and (e) 10 wt\%. 

\[ \text{Initial H}_2 \text{ consumption rate} \times 10^{-5} \text{ mol/(mol Cr s)} \]

\[ \begin{align*}
\text{Temperature (°C)} & \quad \text{H}_2 \text{ consumed (a.u.)} \\
200 & \quad 355 \\
300 & \quad 356 \\
400 & \quad 364 \\
500 & \quad 368 \\
600 & \quad 393 \\
\end{align*} \]

\[ \begin{align*}
\text{1000/T (K}\text{⁻¹}) & \quad \text{Initial H}_2 \text{ consumption rate} \times 10^{-5} \text{ mol/(mol Cr s)} \\
1.66 & \quad 6.0 \\
1.68 & \quad 4.0 \\
1.70 & \quad 2.0 \\
1.72 & \quad 0.0 \\
\end{align*} \]