

## Structure and activity of Pd/V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> catalysts in Wacker oxidation of ethylene

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### **Abstract**

Studies reveal that V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> supported on TiO<sub>2</sub> is more active in gas phase oxidation reactions by O<sub>2</sub> than on Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> or SiO<sub>2</sub> support. Nevertheless, the Pd/V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> catalyst was hardly studied in heterogeneous Wacker-oxidation. The present study concerns preparation of Pd/V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> catalysts and activity of the catalysts in selective gas phase oxidation of ethylene by O<sub>2</sub> in presence of water at atmospheric pressure and in the temperature range of 100-200 °C. The influence of palladium and vanadia loading and the partial pressures of the reactants on the yield of oxidation products (acetaldehyde and acetic acid) were examined. The surface-bound vanadia forms were identified by X-ray diffractometry (XRD), X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS), and FT-Raman spectroscopy. The best activities were achieved with catalysts, having near to monolayer vanadia coverage of the support. Time-on-stream catalytic tests and chemical analysis of the fresh and used catalysts proved the structural and catalytic stability of the Pd/V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> preparations. It was shown that under the conditions of Wacker-oxidation primary product acetaldehyde could become further oxidized to CO<sub>2</sub>, whereas no consecutive oxidation of product acetic acid proceeded.

## 1. Introduction

The oxidation of ethylene to acetaldehyde by contacting ethylene and oxygen gases with a catalyst system, dissolved in water was first described by Schmidt et al. [1]. The aqueous solution contained  $\text{PdCl}_2$ , and, in higher concentration,  $\text{CuCl}_2$ . The copper and palladium was shown to act together in initiating and maintaining the catalytic oxidation process. In the aldehyde-forming reaction the ethylene reduces  $\text{Pd}^{2+}$  to  $\text{Pd}^0$ . The role of  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  ions is the *in situ* selective regeneration of  $\text{Pd}^{2+}$ . The final step of the catalytic cycle is the oxidation of  $\text{CuCl}$  to  $\text{CuCl}_2$  by  $\text{O}_2$  [2]. It was shown that the rate-controlling step of the process is the third-order reaction between dissolved oxygen and  $\text{CuCl}$ , which reaction is favoured at very low pH values, i. e., at high  $\text{HCl}$  concentrations [3]. However, the high chloride concentration leads to formation of undesired chlorinated by-products from olefins, especially from higher olefin reactants. Additional drawbacks of the reaction system are the corrosiveness of the liquid phase reaction medium, formation of noxious copper waste by disproportionation of  $\text{Cu}^+$  to  $\text{Cu}^0$  and  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$ , precipitation and aggregation of  $\text{Pd}$ , leading to  $\text{Pd}$  loss and, thereby, to extra expenses.

As a matter of fact, heterogeneous catalyst was used when the selective oxidation of olefin to carbonyl compounds was first recognized. Based on these early results a pilot plant was built for carrying out the reaction. Moist ethylene/oxygen mixture was passed through a tube reactor, loaded by solid catalyst. However, deactivation and short lifetime of the catalyst turned attention toward homogeneous, liquid-phase catalyst, which was then exploited in industrial practice [4]. In order to overcome the drawbacks of homogeneous Wacker catalyst system the use of chlorine-free terminal oxidants were suggested to be used in absence or in presence of oxygen using  $\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$  oxidizing agent [5] or phosphomolybdic acid and benzoquinone as catalyst [6, 7], respectively.

Although Wacker plants using dissolved catalyst system are operating commercially, the intent of realizing heterogeneous catalytic olefin partial oxidation is not diminishing. The solid Wacker-type catalysts, studied up to now, can be classified as (i) microporous materials, (ii) heteropoly compounds, and (iii) supported transition metal oxides [8]. The microporous materials were usually zeolites. In the zeolite Wacker catalyst the negatively charged zeolite framework corresponds to the chloride anions of the common solution catalyst, whereas metals, corresponding to the active redox pair in the solution catalyst (Pd and Cu), balance the framework charge. Espeel et al. [9] found zeolite to be efficient 'solid solvent' and showed that palladium and copper exchanged zeolite Y converts ethylene to acetaldehyde in exactly the same way as homogeneous Wacker catalyst. Other authors [10] reported that Cu,Pd,H-mordenite is active in the Wacker-type oxidation of carbon monoxide. Layered clays also allow for intercalation of metal cations between negatively charged layers. Mitsudome et al. [11] reported high conversions and selectivities (80-95%) in the selective oxidation reactions of C<sub>3</sub>-C<sub>18</sub> olefins over Pd<sup>2+</sup>-exchanged montmorillonite clay in N,N-dimethylacetamide solvent, containing CuCl<sub>2</sub> co-catalyst. Palladium salts of heteropolyacids of the Keggin-series (H<sub>3+n</sub>PV<sub>n</sub>Mo<sub>12-n</sub>O<sub>40</sub>) supported on silica were successfully applied for selective oxidation of ethylene [12] and 1-butene [13]. However, in both systems the conversion and selectivity in the formation of carbonyl compounds showed fast decrease and the catalytic activity was rapidly lost. Vanadia, supported on various oxides (SiO<sub>2</sub> [14], Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>[15,16] and TiO<sub>2</sub> [17]) and doped with palladium showed good activity in vapour phase oxidation of alkenes. Studies showed that TiO<sub>2</sub> supported Pd/V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> redox system is more active in the Wacker oxidation of propylene to acetone [14] or 1-butene to butanone [17] than the corresponding SiO<sub>2</sub> or Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> supported catalysts. Evin et al. [15] ascertained that titanium acts on the V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> phase as a p-type dopant. As such, it should lower the Fermi level of the system and create a depletion layer near to the surface, thereby, increase the electron mobility and make the whole system

more “reducible”. Stobbe-Kreemers et al. [17] proved the higher reducibility of  $V_2O_5$  on  $TiO_2$  than on  $Al_2O_3$  by means of X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) and temperature-programmed reduction (TPR) measurements. The XPS spectra gave information about the steady-state surface concentration of  $Pd^{2+}$  and  $Pd^0$  for catalysts used in Wacker oxidation of olefin. A significant amount of zero valent palladium was detected in the alumina-supported catalysts indicating that the re-oxidation of  $Pd^0$  by the vanadium oxide layer under steady-state reaction conditions is slow. In contrast, no  $Pd^0$  was observed over the titania-supported catalysts, suggesting that the re-oxidation of  $Pd^0$  by the  $V_2O_5$  was either fast on this support or there was hardly any formation of  $Pd^0$ .

Studies reveal that  $V_2O_5$  supported on  $TiO_2$  is more active in gas phase non-Wacker oxidation reactions by  $O_2$  than the  $V_2O_5$  on  $Al_2O_3$  or  $SiO_2$  support. Deo et al. [18] studied the partial oxidation of methanol to formaldehyde and observed that the turnover frequency (TOF) of the reaction was two order of magnitude higher over  $V_2O_5/TiO_2$  than over  $V_2O_5/Al_2O_3$  and three order of magnitude higher than over  $V_2O_5/SiO_2$  catalyst. Similarly, the  $TiO_2$  appeared to be the support of the most active supported  $V_2O_5$  catalyst in the oxidation of formaldehyde to formic acid [19].

The outstanding activity of  $V_2O_5/TiO_2$  catalysts was recently reviewed by Haber [20]. The formation of the surface vanadium oxide layer on the support before the formation of crystalline  $V_2O_5$  phase is a consequence of the high surface mobility of vanadium oxide, which stem from lower surface free energy of crystalline  $V_2O_5$  than that of the  $TiO_2$  [21]. The migration of vanadium oxide was observed only over the surface of the anatase form titania. The reactivity (and reducibility) of  $V_2O_5/TiO_2$  is supposed to be related to the V-O-Ti bond strength [18]. The spreading of vanadia over the surface of the support increases the number of V-O-Ti bonds and leads to more reducible and active catalyst.

When a solid catalyst is contacted with a liquid phase reaction mixture it is often questioned whether the activity could be associated with the effect of surface active site ensembles because leaching of metal particles can result in an active homogeneous catalyst [22]. Heterogeneous catalytic effect can be proved by filtration separation of the supported catalyst and testing activity in the filtrate. In vapour phase reactions catalyst leaching is less probable. However, the boiling point (vapour pressure) restricts the number of olefins which can be converted in gas phase.

The aims of present study are to gain better understanding of the catalytic effect of Pd/V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> catalysts in the Wacker-type oxidation of ethylene, the influence of palladium and vanadia loading and reactant partial pressures on the activity and selectivity of the catalysts. The consecutive oxidation of partially oxidized products, acetaldehyde and acetic acid, is also discussed.

## **2. Experimental**

### *2.1 Catalyst preparation*

The catalysts were prepared using solution, containing decavanadate (V<sub>10</sub>O<sub>56</sub><sup>6-</sup>) ions, formed from solution, containing metavanadate (VO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>) ions. Ten grams of ammonium metavanadate (NH<sub>4</sub>VO<sub>3</sub>, VEB Laborchemie, Apolda, 99.0 % purity) was dissolved in 1 dm<sup>3</sup> distilled water and, in order to obtain decavanadate ions, the pH of the solution was adjusted to pH=4 by addition of 0.1 mol/dm<sup>3</sup> HNO<sub>3</sub> solution. Calculated amounts of decavanadate solution was added to previously dried TiO<sub>2</sub> (Aeroxide TiO<sub>2</sub>, P-25, Evonik Industries AG) to obtain 2.1, 4.2 and 8.4 wt% V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> in V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> preparations. In the next step the solvent water was evaporated, and the obtained solid was dried at 120 °C overnight, and calcined at 400 °C for 4 h. Using Pd(NH<sub>3</sub>)<sub>4</sub>(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub> (5.0 wt% Pd as solution, Strem Chemicals Inc.) a solution was made containing 4 g/dm<sup>3</sup> Pd. Catalysts of about 0.01, 0.1, and 0.4 wt% Pd

content were obtained by impregnating the above described  $V_2O_5/TiO_2$  preparations with calculated amount of the Pd solution. Preparations were dried and calcined at 400 °C for 4 h.

The vanadium contents of the preparations were expressed in  $V_2O_5$  equivalents. The vanadia/titania samples are designated with a number giving the  $V_2O_5$  content in weight percent and letter V, such as 2.2V, 4.6V and 8.6V. An example for the designation of the Pd-containing samples is 0.4Pd4.6V, where the number in front of the Pd symbol gives the Pd content in weight percent.

### *Characterization of catalysts*

#### *2.2.1. Specific surface area*

Specific surface area (SSA) of the catalysts was obtained by the BET method from  $N_2$  adsorption isotherm determined at -195°C by using Quantachrome NOVA Automated Gas Sorption Instrument. Before measuring adsorption isotherms samples were outgassed by vacuum at 150 °C for 24 h.

#### *2.2.2. Elemental analysis*

The palladium and vanadium content of catalysts was determined by means of Inductively Coupled Plasma Optical Emission Spectrometer (ICP-OES) equipped with polychromator, array detector, and applying axial viewing of the plasma (SPECTRO Analytical Instruments GmbH). For the measurements 100 mg of catalyst sample was rendered soluble by digesting it in 50 ml of boiling concentrated sulphuric acid for 2 hours. Individual calibration curve was recorded for each component in 50 vol% sulphuric acid solution in order to eliminate errors that could be caused by the use of common nitric acidic standards, having densities different from that of the sample solutions.

#### *2.2.3. X-ray powder diffraction*

X-ray patterns were recorded by Philips PW 1810/3710 diffractometer applying monochromatized Cu K $\alpha$  radiation (40 kV, 35 mA). The patterns were recorded at ambient conditions between 3° and 65° 2 $\Theta$ , in 0.02° steps, counting in each step for 0.5 s.

#### *2.2.4. FT-Raman spectroscopy*

Raman spectra were recorded with a dynamically aligned BIO-RAD Digilab Division dedicated FT-Raman spectrometer equipped with a Spectra-Physics Nd-YAG-laser (1064 nm) and high sensitivity liquid-N<sub>2</sub> cooled Ge detector. The laser power used was about 250 mW at the samples. The resolution of the Raman instrument was 4 cm<sup>-1</sup>. A backscattered geometry was used. For each spectrum 256 individual spectra were averaged. The obtained spectra were normalized to the most intense band of the TiO<sub>2</sub> support at 145 cm<sup>-1</sup>.

#### *2.2.5. Temperature-programmed reduction by hydrogen (H<sub>2</sub>-TPR)*

A flow-through microreactor made of quartz tube (I.D. 4 mm) was used. About 100 mg of catalyst sample (particle size: 0.63–1.00 mm) was placed into the reactor and was treated before the measurement in a 30 cm<sup>3</sup> min<sup>-1</sup> flow of O<sub>2</sub> at 350 °C for 1 h. Then the sample was cooled to room temperature in N<sub>2</sub> flow, flushed for 30 min and contacted then with a 30 cm<sup>3</sup> min<sup>-1</sup> flow of 10% H<sub>2</sub>/N<sub>2</sub> mixture. The reactor temperature was ramped up at a rate of 10 °C min<sup>-1</sup> to 600 °C and kept at this temperature for 1 h while the effluent gas was passed through a trap, cooled by liquid nitrogen, and a thermal conductivity detector (TCD). Data were collected and processed by computer. The hydrogen consumption was calculated from the area under the H<sub>2</sub>-TPR curve. The system was calibrated by determining the H<sub>2</sub>-TPR curve of CuO reference material.

#### *2.2.6. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopic(XPS) measurements*

Spectra were measured using an electron spectrometer made by OMICRON Nanotechnology GmbH (Germany). The photoelectrons were excited by MgK $\alpha$  (1253.6 eV) radiation. Spectra were recorded in constant analyzer energy scan mode of EA125 Energy Analyser with 30 eV pass energy resulting in a spectral resolution of 1 eV.

Pellets, pressed from powdered samples, were fixed to standard OMICRON sample plates. Samples were either annealed in high vacuum or treated in the high-pressure chamber of the spectrometer in 300 mbar H<sub>2</sub> at elevated temperatures. Spectra of vanadium(V)oxide and vanadium (III)oxide were determined and used as reference to assign XPS peaks of the catalyst samples to vanadium species in different chemical states.

The non-reduced samples were charging heavily. A fortunate situation is that in both vanadium oxides [23] and TiO<sub>2</sub> [24-26] the leading contribution to the O 1s spectrum appears around 530.0 eV, thus a relatively reliable binding energy scale (containing no more uncertainty than 0.1-0.2 eV) can be obtained by setting the binding energy of the maximum of the O 1s envelope to this value. According to the literature, this calibration is much better than the one using the binding energy of the C 1s peak of hydrocarbon contamination as reference value [27].

Data were processed using the CasaXPS software package [28] by fitting the spectra with Gaussian-Lorentzian product peaks after removing a Shirley background. Nominal surface compositions were calculated using the XPS MultiQuant software package [29,30] with the assumption of homogeneous depth distribution for all components. XPS databases were used to identify the chemical states of vanadium [31,32].

### *2.2.7. Catalytic activity measurements*

Catalytic test reactions were carried out at atmospheric pressure in a fixed-bed, continuous flow tubular microreactor. Prior to the reaction the catalysts were activated in oxygen flow (20 cm<sup>3</sup> min<sup>-1</sup>) for 1 h at 350 °C. The same treatment was applied to re-activate used catalysts. In the catalytic test C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub>/O<sub>2</sub>/H<sub>2</sub>O/He gas mixture was fed on 500 mg of catalyst sample (particle size 0.63-1.00 mm). The partial pressures of ethylene, oxygen, and water were 3.4, 13.5, and 27 kPa, respectively. In oxidation tests of acetaldehyde and acetic



acid, the partial pressure of latter reactants was kept at 1.7 kPa, whereas the oxygen and water partial pressures were the same as during ethylene oxidation tests. The effect of the partial pressures on the activity was studied by varying the partial pressure of oxygen and water in the ranges of 6.4-52.2 and 0-56.4 kPa, respectively, on expense of the partial pressure of the helium carrier gas. The space time of reactants ethylene, acetaldehyde, and acetic acid was either  $205 \text{ h g}_{\text{cat}} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}_{\text{reactant}}$  or  $410 \text{ h g}_{\text{cat}} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}_{\text{reactant}}$ , except when the space time dependence of ethylene or acetaldehyde conversion was studied. In the measurements of partial pressure and space time dependence 100 mg of catalyst, diluted with 400 mg of inert  $\gamma\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$  was used. The total flow rate of the reaction mixture was always  $30 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ min}^{-1}$ . All gas lines of the apparatus were heated to  $120 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  in order to avoid condensation of water and reaction products. The reaction products were analysed by on-line Shimadzu GC-2010 gas chromatograph (GC) equipped with a 30-m HP-PLOT-U column, thermal conductivity and flame ionization detectors (TCD and FID). The calibration of the GC for each reactant and product compound was carried out separately. The conversion of ethylene was calculated from the ethylene concentrations in the feed and effluent. Selectivities were calculated from molar product composition.

### 3. Results and discussion

Specific surface area and contents of palladium and vanadia of fresh and used catalysts are given in Table 1. Deposition of  $\text{V}_2\text{O}_5$  and Pd on  $\text{TiO}_2$  resulted in catalysts, having only slightly smaller specific surface areas (SSA) than the pure titania support ( $\text{SSA}=55 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ ). The catalytic activity and selectivity of the fresh catalysts could be reproduced using re-activated catalysts. Therefore, the effect of reaction conditions on the activity could be studied over a single catalyst charge that was always re-activated before reaction conditions were changed. Neither the activity nor the selectivity changed in 20 h time-on-stream. After several

days in contact with the reacting mixture under varying conditions the chemical composition of the catalysts was determined again. Results suggest that no significant compositional change occurred (Table 1).

The catalytic activity strongly depends on the dispersion and structure of the supported vanadium-containing species. Monolayer surface coverage corresponds to approximately 7 to 8  $\text{VO}_x$  species on a square nanometer of titania surface [33]. In case of titania P-25 the monolayer coverage amounts to about 6 wt%  $\text{V}_2\text{O}_5$  content. The  $\text{V}_2\text{O}_5$  content of our catalyst preparations was either far below the monolayer coverage (2.2 wt%) or strongly exceeded it (8.6 wt%). One of our catalysts contained 4.6 wt%  $\text{V}_2\text{O}_5$ , i. e., the  $\text{V}_2\text{O}_5$  loading of the titania support was near to that corresponding to monolayer coverage (Table 1). The XRD patterns in Fig. 1 show that crystalline  $\text{V}_2\text{O}_5$  was present in the sample of highest vanadia content only. Reflections of anatase and rutile appear in the XRD pattern of each sample.

The Raman spectra of titania-supported  $\text{V}_2\text{O}_5$  samples are presented in Fig. 2. In the wavenumber region below  $800\text{ cm}^{-1}$  only the intense absorption bands of  $\text{TiO}_2$  support ( $\sim 145$ ,  $397$ ,  $515$  and  $638\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) are present (not shown). Between  $800$  and  $1200\text{ cm}^{-1}$ , except for the catalyst with the lowest vanadia coverage, a single band appeared at  $995\text{ cm}^{-1}$ . This band can be assigned to crystalline  $\text{V}_2\text{O}_5$  particles. The strength of the band increases with increasing vanadia loading. The  $\text{V}_2\text{O}_5$  reflections and Raman band are somewhat stronger for the 8.6V sample prepared by mechanically mixing  $\text{V}_2\text{O}_5$  and  $\text{TiO}_2$  than those of the chemically prepared 8.6V preparation, indicating that vanadia is present in slightly different forms in the two samples. The finding that the Raman band of crystalline  $\text{V}_2\text{O}_5$  at  $995\text{ cm}^{-1}$  appears also in the spectrum of 4.2 wt%  $\text{V}_2\text{O}_5/\text{TiO}_2$  catalyst can be explained by the much larger Raman scattering cross section of crystalline  $\text{V}_2\text{O}_5$  than that of dispersed monovanadate and polyvanadate structures [34]. Traces of crystalline  $\text{V}_2\text{O}_5$  gave Raman band but could not generate X-ray reflection signals.

H<sub>2</sub>-TPR measurements were carried out to characterize the reducibility of catalysts. The TPR profiles of V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> and Pd/V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> samples are shown on Fig. 3. In absence of palladium the reduction of V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> phase proceeds between 300 and 600°C for each sample. The change in the oxidation state of the vanadium atoms upon reduction was determined by integration of the H<sub>2</sub>-TPR peaks. As Table 2 shows that the H<sub>2</sub>/V values obtained for the V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> samples varies between 1.13 and 1.27, corresponding roughly to the reduction of V<sup>5+</sup> to V<sup>3+</sup>. On the profiles of palladium containing samples two reduction peaks are present: a sharp low-temperature peak below 200°C and a broad high-temperature peak overarching the whole temperature range of the measurement. The reduction of palladium, supported on TiO<sub>2</sub> takes place around 0°C [35]. Thus, the formation of metallic palladium occurs immediately when the N<sub>2</sub> flow is switched to H<sub>2</sub>/N<sub>2</sub> flow. The Pd/TiO<sub>2</sub> (not shown) and 0.4Pd2.1V samples present negative peaks in region 50-180 °C, which are assigned to release of hydrogen absorbed in Pd<sup>0</sup> crystallites at lower temperature. At low vanadia loadings the released hydrogen could mask hydrogen consumption but at higher loadings no negative H<sub>2</sub> desorption peaks could be discerned. Van der Heide [36] showed that the low-temperature reduction of V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> proceeds via a hydrogen spill-over process in which hydrogen is dissociatively chemisorbed at the palladium surface and chemisorbed hydrogen atoms move from palladium to the surrounding vanadium oxide. The spill-over experiments showed no formation of water at 373 K, only the uptake of hydrogen. Moreover, hardly any weight change was observed during hydrogen uptake. They concluded that the V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> monolayer is transferred into a monolayer of a hydrogen bronze of vanadium (H<sub>x</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> x=1.4 to 2) and not into lower valence vanadium-oxides. In our experiments H<sub>2</sub>/V values between 0.49 and 0.66 were obtained for palladium containing samples (Table 2) that suggests only one-electron reduction (V<sup>5+</sup>→V<sup>4+</sup>). Latter result is in conflict with our earlier findings with different oxide-

supported Pd/vanadia catalysts, where always near to two-electron reduction was attained in similar H<sub>2</sub>-TPR measurements [37, 38].

In order to find explanation for the unexpected one-electron reduction we accomplished a detailed XPS study on the 8.6V and 0.4Pd8.6V catalysts. V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> and V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> were used as reference materials (Figure 4A). The XPS spectrum of the reference materials was recorded first in their “as received” state, i.e., without applying any thermal or reductive treatment. For both samples V<sup>5+</sup> was found to be the dominant surface vanadium species. The V 2p spectrum of V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> is dominated by the narrow 2p<sub>3/2</sub> line of V<sup>5+</sup> at 517.1 eV, separated from the main O 1s contribution by 12.8-12.9 eV. These data are in good agreement with the XPS characteristics of these compounds published earlier [39]. In addition to the main V 2p<sub>3/2</sub> peak, a small contribution is also present at about 515.5 eV. It is assigned to the photoelectron peak of V<sup>4+</sup> ions, the presence of which is interpreted as a result of photoinduced V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> reduction (Figure 4A, lowermost spectrum).

The V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> reference sample was studied also after 2 hours of vacuum annealing at 230°C. The treatment transformed the surface layer of the “as received” sample into a mixed valence V<sub>6</sub>O<sub>13</sub> –like compound as suggested by the shape of the valence band spectrum [40]. The spectrum of the O 1s and V 2p region of the sample is shown in Figure 4A (uppermost spectrum). Instead of the narrow V 2p<sub>3/2</sub> line, seen in the spectrum of V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>, a broad band appeared shifted towards lower binding energies. This band was deconvoluted into a narrow band at 517.1 eV and another rather broad feature centered at 516.1 eV. The narrow and the broad bands were shifted from the main O 1s contribution by 12.8 eV (V<sup>5+</sup>) and 14.0 eV, respectively. Latter can be identified as contribution from V<sup>4+</sup> ions [39]. Presence of V<sup>4+</sup> ions is confirmed also by the appearance of a weak peak in the valence band region, above the O 2p-related edge, in the vicinity of the Fermi level, which arises from filled V 3d states.

The V 2p region of the 8.6V sample in the “as received” state shows a narrow V 2p<sub>3/2</sub> component at a binding energy of 517.1 eV, what indicates that the most abundant vanadium species in this sample is V<sup>5+</sup>. Nevertheless, the low binding energy component at 516.0 eV (V<sup>4+</sup>) is clearly stronger than that in the spectrum of the V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> reference sample (Figure 4A). It is to be noticed that the sample is somewhat unstable against X-ray exposure, as this V<sup>4+</sup> component clearly increases during the measurement. In order to minimize this effect, in all experiments the V 2p region was recorded prior to any other spectral region. Titanium was found to be in its fully oxidized state (Ti<sup>4+</sup>). The Ti 2p<sub>3/2</sub> binding energy corresponds to literature values. No reduction of titanium was observed during the measurements.

Figure 4A also shows the XPS spectra of 8.6V V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> sample, obtained after H<sub>2</sub> treatment at different temperatures. Spectra were recorded without exposing the sample to air after the treatments. Treatment at 100°C left the majority of vanadium in V<sup>5+</sup> state. The V<sup>4+</sup> contribution was not enhanced by the treatment. Composition was calculated from the XPS data. The vanadium content was expressed in V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> and is given in weight percents. Accordingly, the surface layer, available for XPS analyses, contains 19 wt% V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>, indicating that vanadia covers large fraction of the titania surface and prevents it from being detected by XPS.

The treatment at 200 °C did not affect the chemical state of Ti<sup>4+</sup> but a clear increase was noticed in the intensity of the V<sup>4+</sup> component of the V 2p<sub>3/2</sub> band.

The H<sub>2</sub> treatment at 300°C caused significant changes relative to the previously recorded XPS spectrum of the 8.6V sample. The V 2p<sub>3/2</sub> band became broad and without structure. No sharp V<sup>5+</sup> contribution could be identified by either simple inspection or curve fitting. The band center shifted obviously to binding energy that is lower than the 516.0 eV binding energy of V<sup>4+</sup>. According to the literature, the broad V 2p<sub>3/2</sub> band of V<sup>3+</sup> appears

roughly around a binding energy of 515.2 eV [39]. Most probably vanadia, containing mixture of  $V^{4+}$  and  $V^{3+}$  ions, is present on the titania surface after the applied treatment.

The lowering oxidation state of vanadium was paralleled by the decreasing amount of XPS detectable vanadium. The obtained 13 wt%  $V_2O_5$  content indicated that the surface layer was depleted from vanadium. It may be either due to diffusion of vanadium ions into deeper layers of the  $TiO_2$ , due to decrease of dispersion of the vanadium-oxide or due to evaporative loss, if volatile oxide- or hydroxide-like vanadium compound was formed. It is to be noted that no vanadium loss was detected during catalytic tests, which were carried out at temperatures below 200 °C (Table 1).

Upon reduction at 400°C the rather weak but still broad V  $2p_{3/2}$  peak shifted to 515.2 eV, which corresponds to the binding energy reported for  $V_2O_3$ . The detected 6 wt%  $V_2O_3$  content shows that the treatment enhanced the depletion of vanadium from the surface of the 8.6V sample.

Fig. 4B shows XPS spectra of the Pd-containing  $V_2O_5/TiO_2$  catalyst 0.4Pd8.6V. The V 2p region of the “as received” sample contains a narrow V  $2p_{3/2}$  component at binding energy 517.1 eV, along with a much broader peak around 516.2 eV, indicating that the  $V^{4+}$  contribution is already significant. The sample was strongly unstable against X-ray exposure, as this  $V^{4+}$  component rapidly increased and became dominant during the measurement. The bulk vanadium content of the 0.4Pd8.6V sample was essentially the same as that of the corresponding Pd-free sample, whereas that of the surface layer was equivalent with a concentration of 18 wt%  $V_2O_5$ . Titanium maintained its fully oxidized state during the measurements, i.e., the Ti  $2p_{3/2}$  peak appeared and remained at the binding energy published for  $Ti^{4+}$  in the literature.

The 1h reduction at 100°C resulted in no significant change in the surface composition. The vanadium chemical states were, however, notably influenced. The V  $2p_{3/2}$

region shows a broad and asymmetric envelope which can be deconvoluted into a  $V^{5+}$  component at 517.1 eV and a broad peak at 516.1 eV, which can be attributed to  $V^{4+}$  ions (Fig. 4B).

The hydrogen treatment at 200°C resulted in a further reduction of vanadia. The peak shape of the broad V  $2p_{3/2}$  feature and the corresponding binding energy resemble now to those of the Pd-free sample reduced at 300°C. The surface vanadium concentration, expressed in  $V_2O_5$ , decreased to 15% (Fig. 4B).

The reduction at 300°C did not brought about noticeable change in the surface composition (Fig. 4B). The broad V  $2p_{3/2}$  peak around 515.4 eV indicated that the vanadium was mostly in  $V^{3+}$  ionic state. Reduction of  $TiO_2$  was still not detectable.

The reduction at 400°C resulted in a minor shift of the broad V  $2p_{3/2}$  peak to 515.3 eV and decreased the surface  $V_2O_5$  concentration to 12 wt% (Fig. 4B).

The relative amounts of vanadium in high ( $V^{5+}$ ) and lower oxidation states ( $V^{4+}$ ,  $V^{3+}$ ) determined from the spectra of Fig. 4, are visualized in Fig. 5. The 8.6V sample is significantly more resistant to reduction than the 0.4Pd8.6V sample. At temperature whereon the  $V^{5+}$  ions of the Pd-free sample only began to get reduced, all the  $V^{5+}$  ions of the Pd-containing sample became reduced to  $V^{4+}$  and  $V^{3+}$ .

For the above characterized samples X-ray induced Auger spectra of vanadium are shown in Fig. 6. As the vanadium  $L_{23}M_{23}M_{45}$  Auger transition involves electrons from the valence band, the obtained line shape is very sensitive for the electron population of the 3d orbitals that is increasing as the oxide undergoes reduction. For  $V_2O_5$  a relatively symmetric line was found at kinetic energy 466.2 eV. Sambhi et al. [25] reported that reduction of supported vanadia shifts the maximum of the Auger line towards higher energies giving rise to a new component at 472-473 eV, which is indicating the appearance of filled vanadium 3d orbitals. Our results are in accordance with these findings. The kinetic energy and shape of the

$L_{23}M_{23}M_{45}$  Auger line suggests that  $V^{5+}$  is the major vanadium species of the 0.4Pd8.6V sample in the “as received” state, although the  $V^{4+}$  contribution is already significant. Upon  $H_2$  treatment at  $100^\circ C$  no significant changes occurred. After reduction at  $200^\circ C$  the  $L_{23}M_{23}M_{45}$  Auger band appeared with center around 469 eV together with a very significant contribution around 472 eV. The line shape starts to resemble the two-peaked feature reported for  $V_2O_3$  what indicates that the sample at this point contains a mixture of  $V^{4+}$  and  $V^{3+}$  ions, with the probable dominance of the latter species. The spectrum recorded after reduction at  $300^\circ C$  corresponds to the shape of that reported for  $V_2O_3$  suggesting that  $V^{3+}$  is the prevailing vanadium species. On effect of reduction at  $400^\circ C$  the Auger line broadens towards the low kinetic energy side. Similar spectrum was obtained for sample 8.6V, reduced at or above  $300^\circ C$  (Fig. 6).

Results of XPS measurements suggest that the average  $H_2/V$  values close to 0.5 are not due to the one electron reduction of  $V^{5+}$  to  $V^{4+}$ . The oxidation state of vanadium in the deeply reduced palladium doped samples was found to be  $V^{3+}$ . Results substantiate that vanadium already was not in its fully oxidized  $V^{5+}$  state when recording of the  $H_2$  consumption in the  $H_2$ -TPR measurements was started. This can explain that lower amount of  $H_2$  was consumed to reach the final  $V^{3+}$  state than was needed starting the reduction from  $V^{5+}$  state.

The Wacker oxidation of ethylene was studied over  $Pd/V_2O_5/TiO_2$  catalysts, having different Pd loadings. When the Pd loading of the 2.1V support was raised from 0.01 to 0.1 wt% the conversion of ethylene significantly increased (Fig. 7). As a result higher acetaldehyde yield was obtained even at decreasing acetaldehyde selectivity. Much higher Pd contents hardly affected product distribution. The selectivity of  $CO_2$  slightly increased on expense of the selectivity of partially oxidized products. Based on these results  $V_2O_5/TiO_2$  catalysts of 0.4 wt% Pd content were chosen for detailed catalytic examination.



Fig. 8 shows the effect of oxygen and water partial pressure on the conversion and selectivity of ethylene oxidation over 0.4Pd4.6V catalyst at 125 °C. At low oxygen partial pressures (< 15 kPa) the conversion and selectivity of products is almost constant. At higher oxygen partial pressures both the ethylene conversion and the acetic acid and CO<sub>2</sub> selectivity are higher but the acetaldehyde selectivity is lower (Fig. 4A). These results are in accordance with the picture of a consecutive oxidation process where acetaldehyde is the primary product that becomes further oxidized to acetic acid or CO<sub>2</sub>. Dependence of ethylene conversion and product selectivity on the partial pressure of water is shown in Fig. 8B. In absence of water in system ethylene becomes converted to CO<sub>2</sub> only. At higher water partial pressure higher acetaldehyde selectivity is obtained at relatively low ethylene conversion. Above about 40 kPa water partial pressure the selectivities are virtually independent from the water content of the reaction mixture. Only slight increase of ethylene conversion was observed, whereas the CO<sub>2</sub> selectivity dropped to about 5%.

The effect of space time on conversion of ethylene and acetaldehyde and on the yield of the main products was examined using 0.4Pd4.2V catalyst at 150 °C (Fig. 9). The yield of acetaldehyde (Fig. 9A) passes through maximum indicating that this product is intermediate of a consecutive oxidation process. In the Wacker conversion of acetaldehyde crotonaldehyde has a concentration maximum at low space times, indicating that aldol condensation of acetaldehyde takes place. No concentration maxima were observed for acetic acid suggesting that it is not intermediate to CO<sub>2</sub> formation (Fig. 9B).

Results of ethylene Wacker oxidation over Pd/V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> catalysts with different vanadia contents are shown as function of reaction temperature in Fig. 10. The main reaction products are acetaldehyde, acetic acid and CO<sub>2</sub>. The formation of methane and acetone was also detected but in negligible amounts. At low temperatures (100-125°C) acetaldehyde is the main product irrespectively of vanadia content. At higher temperatures the selectivities of

acetic acid and  $\text{CO}_2$  rapidly increases and at  $200^\circ\text{C}$  the oxidation to  $\text{CO}_2$  becomes the main reaction. Between  $125$  and  $175^\circ\text{C}$  the formation of acetic acid and  $\text{CO}_2$  is almost equimolecular. The catalysts of higher vanadia content show similar ethylene conversion activity (Fig. 10A). The highest acetaldehyde yields were obtained with the catalyst having close to monolayer vanadia coverage on the titania support ( $\sim 65\%$  at  $100^\circ\text{C}$ , see Fig. 10B). For Wacker activity the intimate contact of Pd and the  $\text{VO}_x$  particles is essential. The structure of surface vanadia has also importance. Fig. 10C demonstrates that a fraction of the primarily formed acetaldehyde becomes converted to acetic acid and  $\text{CO}_2$  over Pd/vanadia redox pair at low temperatures. Low vanadia content corresponding to sub-monolayer coverage of titania support (Fig. 10A) results in lower ethylene conversion and higher acetaldehyde selectivity, whereas higher vanadia content, corresponding to about monolayer coverage results in higher ethylene conversion and lower acetaldehyde selectivity. The product distribution at  $175$ - $200^\circ\text{C}$  is almost the same for all catalysts.

Results of Wacker oxidation of ethylene is shown in Fig. 11A as function of reaction temperature over  $0.4\text{Pd}4.6\text{V}$  in comparison with the conversion of the partially oxidized products, such as acetaldehyde (Fig. 11B) and acetic acid (Fig. 11C) over the very same catalyst under identical conditions. At low temperatures ( $100$ - $125^\circ\text{C}$ ) the conversion of acetaldehyde is low. At higher temperatures ( $\geq 150^\circ\text{C}$ ) the acetaldehyde is converted to acetic acid and  $\text{CO}_2$  in molar ratio close to 1 to 1. Formation of methane can be also observed with 5 to 10 % selectivity. Forni et. al. [41] substantiated that  $\text{CO}_2$  formation takes place not only from acetaldehyde and acetic acid but, at least in part, directly from ethylene. Based on the results, shown on Fig. 11, direct oxidation of ethylene to  $\text{CO}_2$  cannot be excluded, however, it is obvious that oxidation of acetic acid starts only above about  $175^\circ\text{C}$  (Fig. 11C).

#### 4. Conclusions

Pd/V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> catalysts gave high acetaldehyde yield in the selective oxidation of ethylene in presence of water at 100 °C. The highest acetaldehyde selectivity was achieved over catalyst with vanadia content corresponding to sub-monolayer coverage of the titania support. The conversion was low because of the small number of active Pd/VO<sub>x</sub> redox couples. At high vanadia content V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> crystallites were formed on the surface of the support. Palladium on V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> crystallites has high oxidation activity and it converts the primarily formed acetaldehyde to acetic acid and CO<sub>2</sub> even at temperature as low as 100 °C. Regarding the acetaldehyde yield the favorable vanadia content is about equivalent with the amount needed to attain monolayer V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> coverage of the titania support. The results suggest that acetic acid and CO<sub>2</sub> are products obtained from primarily formed acetaldehyde. Oxidation of acetic acid to CO<sub>2</sub> occurs only above 175 °C.

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### Figure legends

Fig. 1 XRD patterns of  $V_2O_5/TiO_2$  preparations with different vanadia loadings. The diffractograms of the  $TiO_2$  support (P25) and its mechanical mixture with 8.6 wt%  $V_2O_5$  are given for comparison.

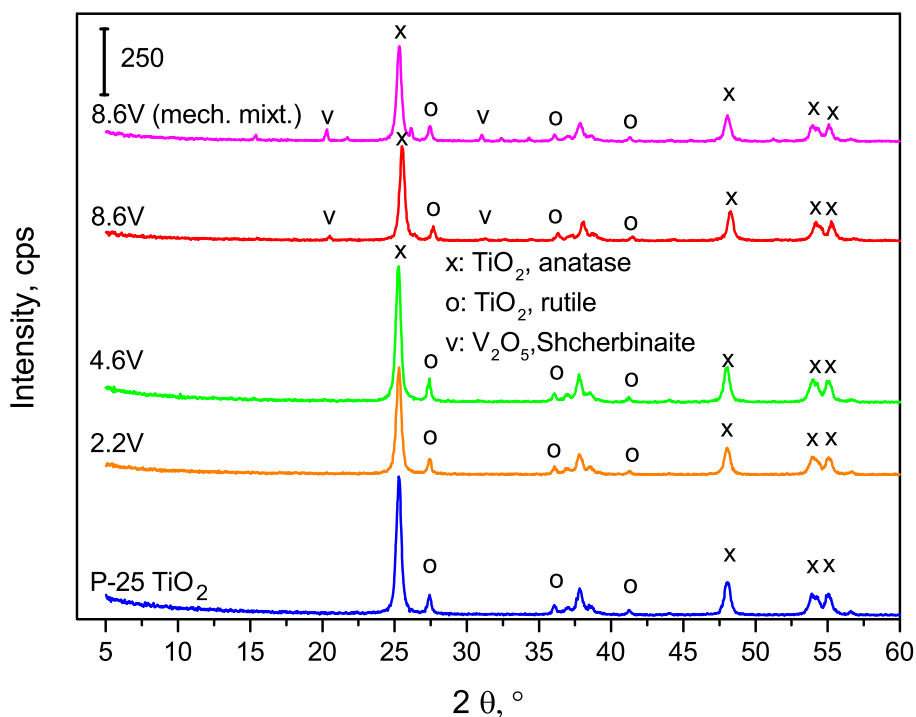


Fig. 1

Fig. 2, FT-Raman spectra of  $V_2O_5/TiO_2$  preparations with different vanadia loadings. The spectra of the mechanical mixture of  $TiO_2$  and 8.6 wt%  $V_2O_5$  is given for comparison.

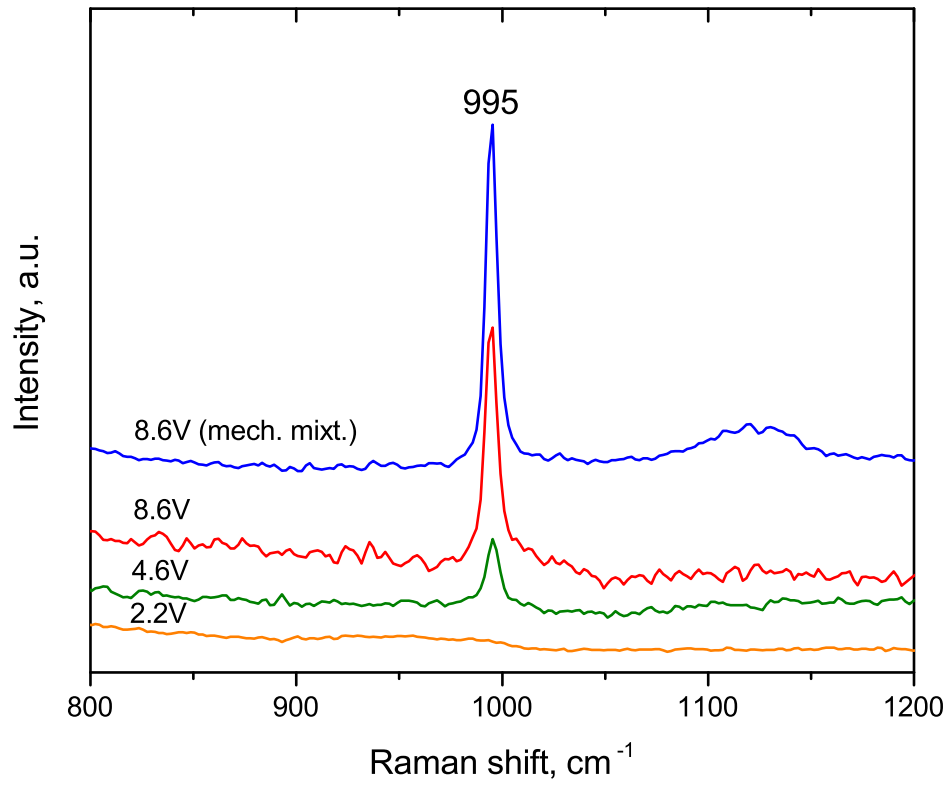


Fig. 2

Fig. 3.  $\text{H}_2$ -TPR profiles of  $\text{V}_2\text{O}_5/\text{TiO}_2$  (dashed lines) and  $\text{Pd}/\text{V}_2\text{O}_5/\text{TiO}_2$  (full lines) catalysts.

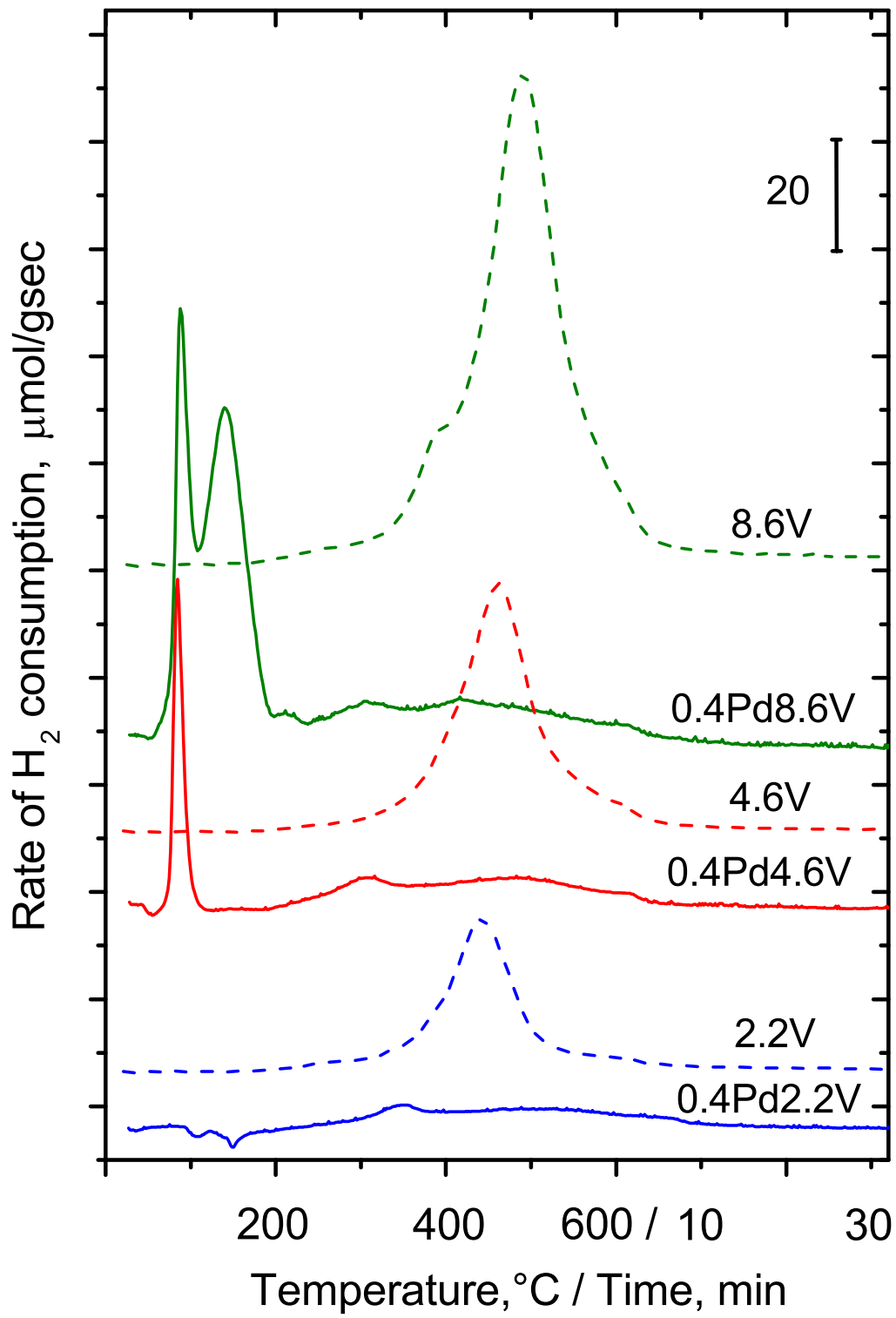


Fig. 3

Fig. 4. X-ray photoelectron spectra of the (A) 8.6V and (B) 0.4Pd8.6V samples in their untreated (as received) and treated states. Treatment involved heating the samples in 300 mbar  $H_2$  successively at 100, 200, 300 and 400 °C for 1h at each temperature. Spectra are labelled by the treatment temperature only. The spectra were corrected for the  $MgK\alpha_{3,4}$  contribution. In panel (A) also spectra of  $V_2O_5$  and a  $V_6O_{13}$ -like compounds are shown for reference. Latter compound was obtained by vacuum annealing  $V_2O_3$  at 230 °C. The reference spectra include both V 2p and O 1s contributions.

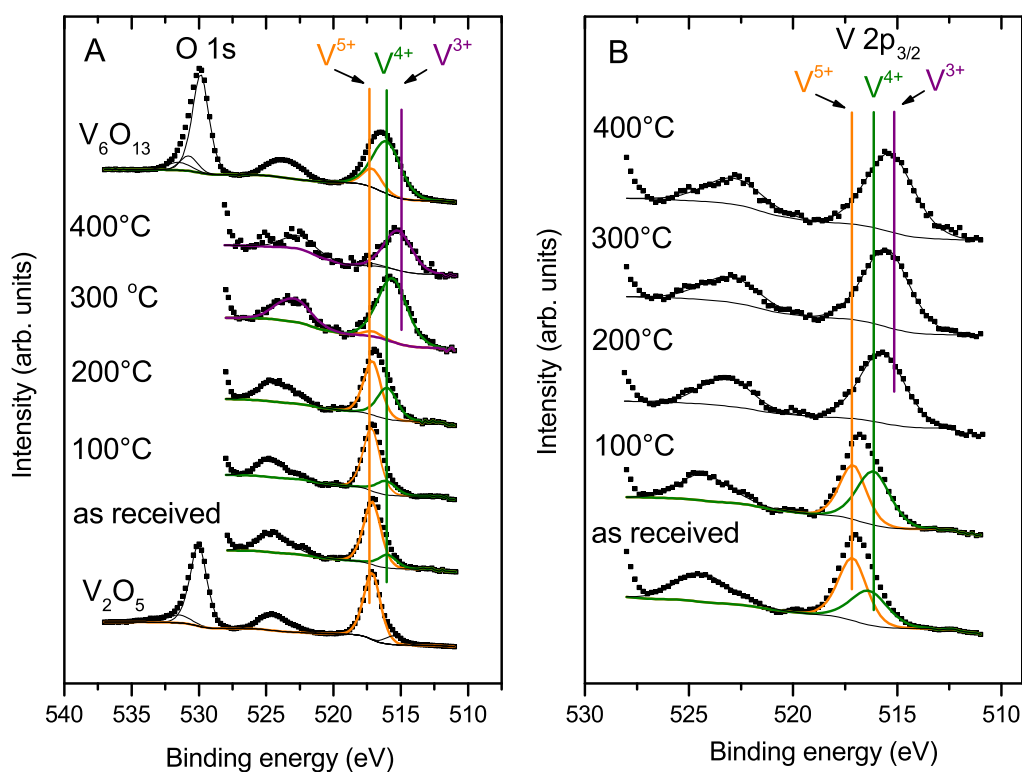


Fig. 4

Fig. 5. Relative amounts of vanadium in  $V^{5+}$  and lower oxidation states as function of the reduction temperature for the 8.6V and 0.4Pd8.6V samples. Data were derived from the spectra of Fig. 4.



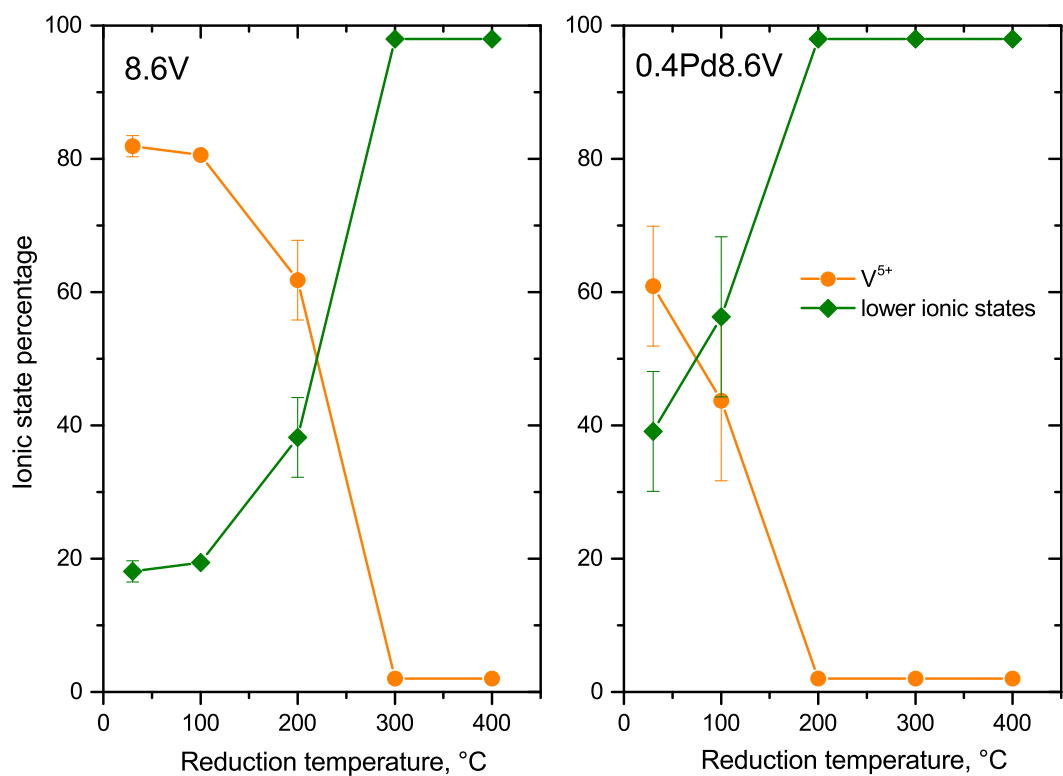


Fig. 5

Fig. 6. X-ray induced vanadium  $L_{23}M_{23}M_{45}$  transition Auger spectra of samples 0.4Pd8.6V, 8.6V, and reference samples  $V_2O_5$ , and  $V_6O_{13}$  compounds. Spectra were obtained in the experiments described in the legend of Fig. 4. Spectra of sample 0.4Pd8.6V are labelled by the treatment temperature only.

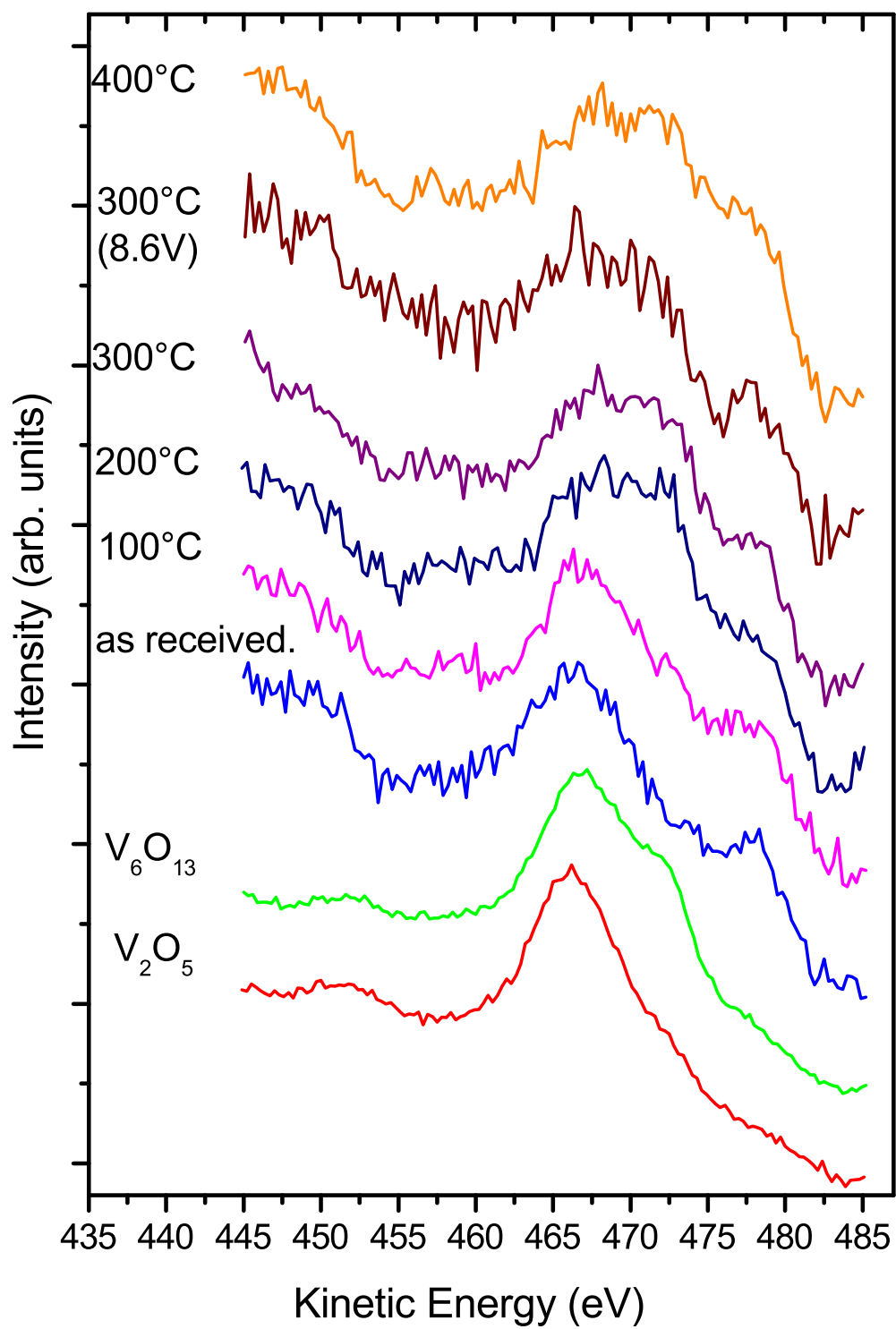


Fig. 6

Fig. 7. The activity of Pd/V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> catalysts as a function of Pd content in the Wacker oxidation of ethylene at 150 °C. The 2.1V preparation was used to make Pd<sub>2.1V</sub> catalysts of different Pd contents. The space time was 205 h g<sub>cat.</sub> mol<sup>-1</sup><sub>ethylene</sub>. The partial pressures of ethylene, oxygen, and water in the C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub>/O<sub>2</sub>/H<sub>2</sub>O/He gas mixture were 3.4, 13.5, and 27 kPa, respectively.

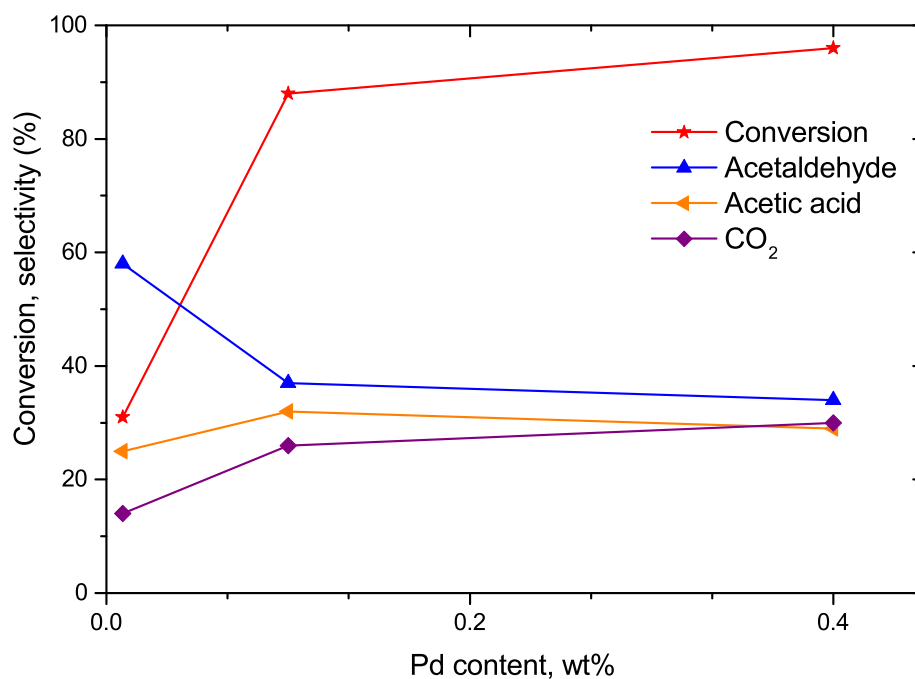


Fig. 7

Fig. 8. Effect of partial pressure of (A) oxygen and (B) water on the selective oxidation of ethylene at 125°C over 0.4Pd4.6V catalyst. 100 mg of catalyst was diluted by 400 mg of inert  $\gamma$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> to get a catalyst bed. The space time of ethylene was kept constant at 41 h g<sub>cat.</sub> mol<sup>-1</sup><sub>ethylene</sub>. The partial pressure of oxygen or water was changed on expense of the partial pressure of the He carrier gas.

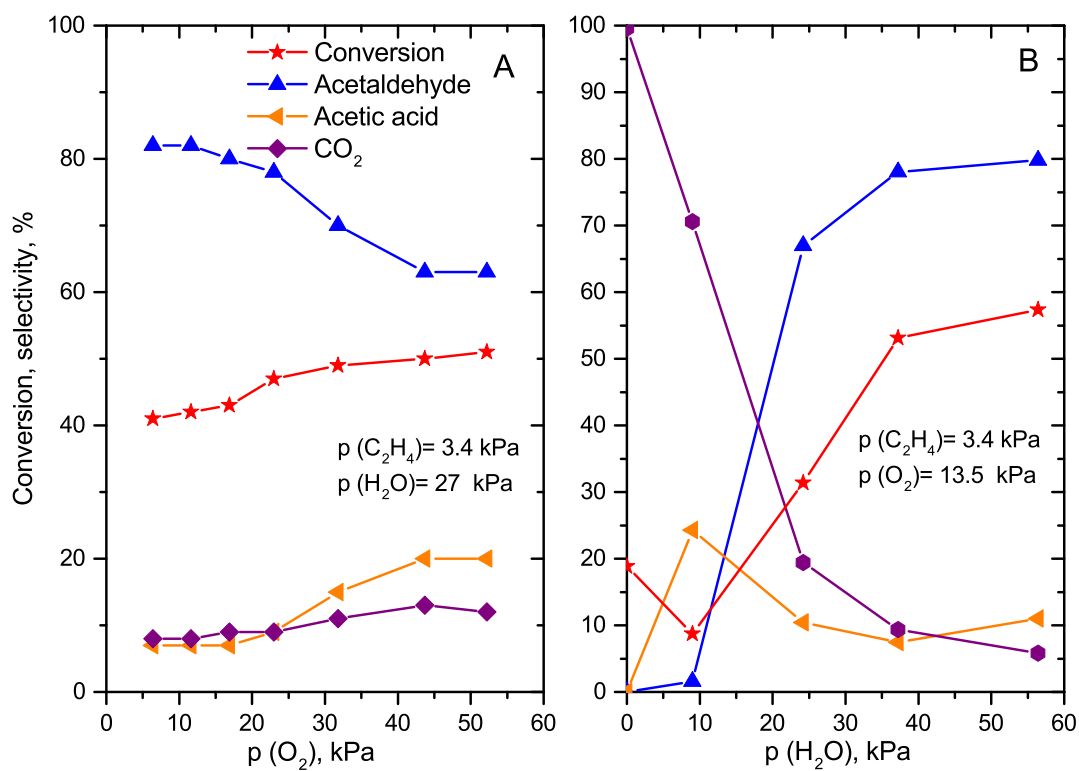


Fig. 8

Fig. 9. The Wacker oxidation of (A) ethylene and (B) acetaldehyde with  $\text{O}_2$  in presence of water at varied reactant space time over  $0.4\text{Pd}4.6\text{V}$  at  $150^\circ\text{C}$ . 100 mg of catalyst was diluted by 400 mg of inert  $\gamma\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$  to get a catalyst bed. The partial pressure of reactant acetaldehyde was kept at 1.7 kPa, The partial pressures of ethylene, oxygen and water were the same as those given in the legend of Fig. 7.

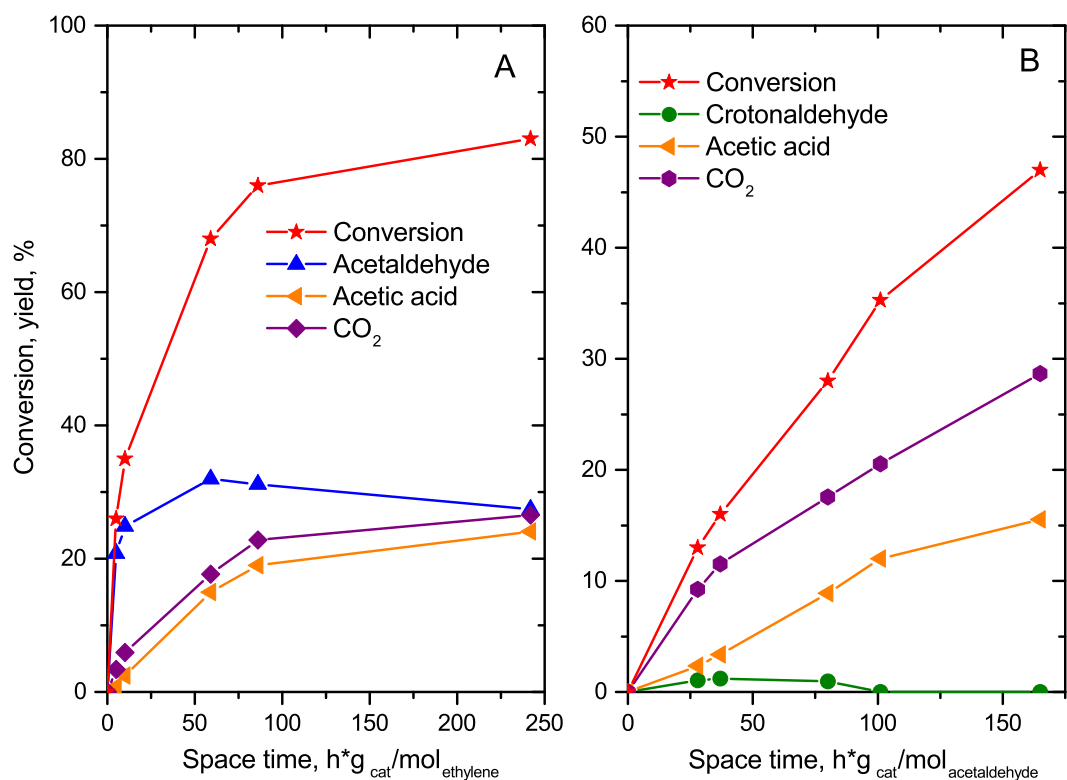


Fig. 9

Fig. 10. Effect of temperature in selective oxidation of ethylene over catalysts with different vanadia loadings (A) 0.4Pd2.2V (B) 0.4Pd4.6V (C) 0.4Pd8.6V. The space time was 205 g<sub>cat</sub>. mol<sup>-1</sup><sub>ethylene</sub>. The partial pressures of ethylene, oxygen and water were the same as those given in the legend of Fig. 7.

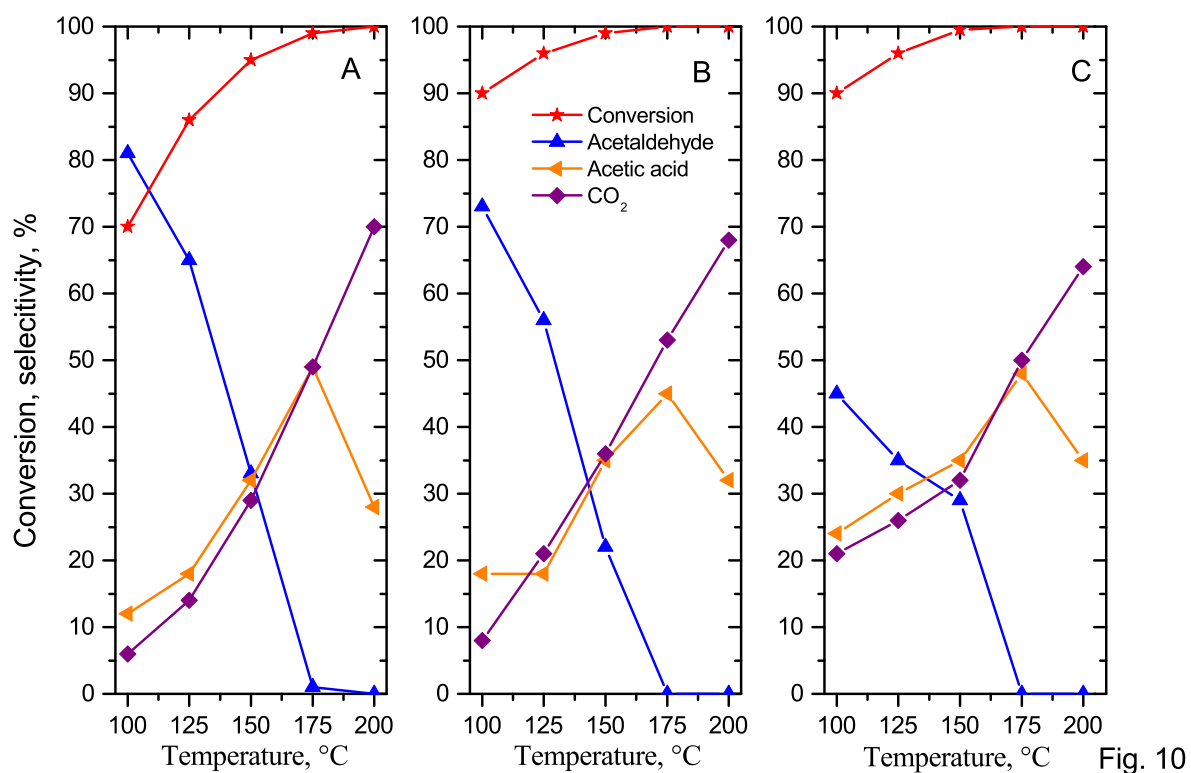


Fig. 11. Effect of temperature on the selective oxidation of (A) ethylene, (B) acetaldehyde and (C) acetic acid over 0.4Pd4.6V catalyst. The space time for ethylene was  $205 \text{ h g}_{\text{cat}} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}_{\text{reactant}}$  and for acetaldehyde or acetic acid was  $410 \text{ h g}_{\text{cat}} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}_{\text{reactant}}$ . The partial pressures of ethylene and acetaldehyde or acetic acid were 3.4 and 1.7 kPa, respectively.

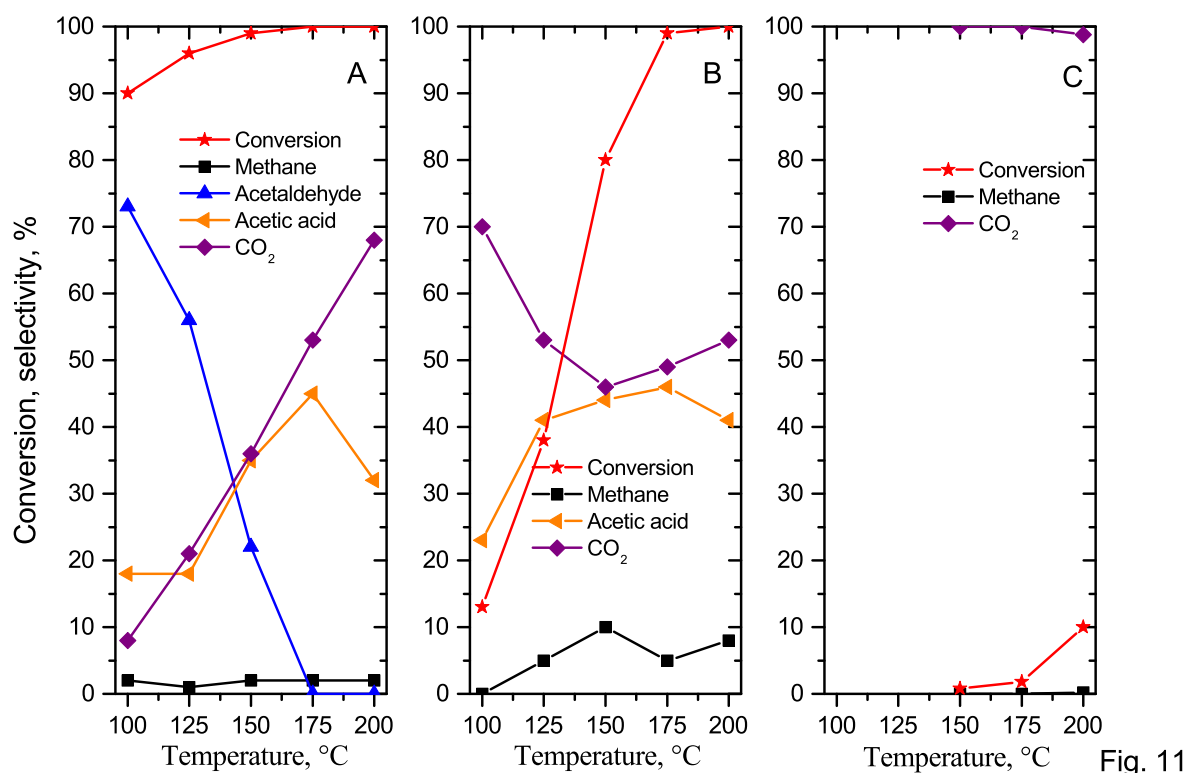


Table 1. Specific surface area and active phase composition of titania-supported catalysts.

Catalyst <sup>a</sup>	SSA, m <sup>2</sup> /g	Pd content, wt %		V <sub>2</sub> O <sub>5</sub> content, wt %	
		fresh	used	fresh	used
0.01Pd2.1V	n.m. <sup>b</sup>	n.d. <sup>c</sup>	n.d. <sup>c</sup>	2.84	n. m <sup>b</sup>
0.1Pd2.1V	n.m. <sup>b</sup>	0.11	n.m. <sup>b</sup>	2.26	2.34
0.4Pd2.1V	55	0.40	0.39	2.18	2.16
0.4Pd4.2V	53	0.37	0.39	4.59	4.56
0.4Pd8.4V	50	0.42	0.38	8.57	8.40

<sup>a</sup> In the designation of the Pd-containing V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> samples V stands for V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> the number before the letter symbols gives the Pd and V content of the catalyst in weight percent. <sup>b</sup>Not measured. <sup>c</sup> Non detectable.

Table 2. Results of H<sub>2</sub>-TPR measurements.

Catalyst	Low-temperature peak		High-temperature peak		$\Sigma H_2/V$
	H <sub>2</sub> ( $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1}$ )	H <sub>2</sub> /V	H <sub>2</sub> ( $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1}$ )	H <sub>2</sub> /V	
0.4Pd <sup>a</sup>	17	-	-	(0.46) <sup>a</sup>	-
2.2V	-	-	311	-	1.27
0.4Pd2.2V	-	-	120	0.49	0.49
4.6V	-	-	537	-	1,13
0.4Pd4.6V	91	0.18	163	0.32	0.50
8.6V	-	-	1114	-	1.17
0.4Pd8.6V	168; 306	0.18; 0.33	136	0.15	0.66

<sup>a</sup> Pd content of the sample is 0,39 wt% (38  $\mu\text{mol/g}$ ); H<sub>2</sub> consumption 17  $\mu\text{mol/g}$ , i. e., H<sub>2</sub>/Pd = 0.46