

Plenary Paper— Catalysis

RECENT DEVELOPMENTS IN CATALYSIS BY ZEOLITES

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INTRODUCTION

The catalysis of hydrocarbon cracking, isomerisation, alkylation, hydrogen transfer and related reactions, by zeolites has been extensively studied during the last two decades. Much of the work in this area has been carried out on faujasite and mordenite-type zeolites in their acidic forms. As a result of the enormous number of studies devoted to this subject a fair understanding of acid-catalysis by zeolites has resulted. Recently several excellent reports have reviewed the subject [1-7]. A characteristic feature of zeolites is their promoting effect in bimolecular reactions and their selectivity due to the shape of the channels. The shape-selectivity has also been reviewed recently [8-10].

More recently among the many branches of zeolite chemistry three topics have attracted the attention i.e.

i) Since the discovery of a new class of zeolites called ZSM-5 or "pentasil" at Mobil Laboratories interest has been refocussed on shape selectivity catalysis by small pore zeolites of the mordenite or pentasil-type.

ii) "Heterogeneized" homogeneous catalysts have received increasing study. The use of zeolite to attach soluble catalysts appears very promising and has resulted in a new class of catalysis by zeolites.

iii) Well dispersed metal catalysts have been obtained on zeolite carriers. Some unexpected catalytic properties have been unveiled. Furthermore H-form zeolite supported metal showed interesting bi-functional catalytic properties.

In this report we will consider these three topics. Much of the discussion which follows will be related to the more recent available data.

SHAPE-SELECTIVE ZEOLITES. Factor influencing the activity and selectivity.

Since the pioneer work of Weisz and Frilette [11], shape-selective zeolites have been studied intensively and the great interest of this aspect of catalysis by zeolites recognised. Recently Csicsery has reviewed the most important features of shape selectivity [10]. In heterogeneous catalysis the reaction proceeds through several steps: diffusion and adsorption of the reactant, formation of the activated intermediate, reaction and finally desorption and diffusion of the product. The shape-selectivity principle is based on these different steps and results in three major types of shape-selectivity.

i) Since the active centres are located within the zeolite cavities or channels, the reactant should diffuse within the channels through the zeolite pores. Therefore only molecules which size is small enough will penetrate the cavities and thus will interact with the active site. This type of selectivity is due to the sieving properties of zeolites. For sample as a result n-paraffins are selectively cracked in the presence of branched paraffins.

ii) When the catalytic reaction within the pores or channels produces large or bulky molecules the slow diffusion of the product out of the small zeolite pores might hinder the reaction. Indeed this low diffusion will increase the contact time which either will allow a further transformation of the product into a less bulky one or will degrade it totally and the residue acts then as a poison for the active centre. This type of shape-selectivity has been called "Reverse molecular size selectivity" [10].

iii) The intermediate species might not be formed due to a lack of space within the channel or cavity. This also gives rise to shape-selectivity. At low conversion, the isomerisation of methylethylbenzene to trialkylbenzene in H-mordenite is inhibited because the formation of the diphenylmethane intermediate will require more space than available in the mordenite channel [12].

The above outline suggests that the selectivity can be controlled by selecting the zeolite having adequate pore size.

The faujasite-type zeolite framework is composed by a system of cavities. The largest cavity "supercage" has a free diameter of about 1.2 nm and a 12-oxygen window of 0.72 nm. In general these relatively large pore zeolites do not show shape-selective properties.

The most interesting shape-selective behaviour were found with small pore zeolites such as mordenite and recent Mobil ZSM-5 zeolites. These zeolites have channels which are interconnected. The channels, in the mordenite framework, are parallel to the $|001|$ and $|010|$ axes. These channels are straight and the dimensions of their 12- and 8- oxygen windows are respectively 0.67 x 0.7 nm and 0.29 x 0.57 nm. The structure of the ZSM-5 zeolite has been described recently [13]. Typical chemical composition is $\text{Na}_x \text{Al}_x \text{Si}_{96-x} \text{O}_{192}$ [14], where x varies in the range 3-27. The crystal structure consists of an arrangement of tetrahedra forming five-membered rings (pentasil). One unit consists of eight pentasil rings. These units are linked through edges forming chains, and the chains connected to form sheets and finally the three dimensional structure is obtained by linking sheets. This arrangement results in a system of channels straight and parallel to the $|010|$ direction, these 10-oxygen channels having dimensions of 0.54 x 0.56 nm. They are interconnected by channels of 0.51 x 0.55 nm sinusoidal in

the $|001|$ direction.

Therefore the molecular sieve properties of the mordenite and ZSM-5 zeolites should be attributed to the system of interconnected channels. The important difference existing between these two materials is certainly the fact that in mordenite the molecules will diffuse only in one direction, that corresponding to the 0.67×0.7 nm while, in ZSM-5 they will diffuse along two directions. Thus for molecules whose critical diameters are in the range of the channel dimensions, mordenite would act as one dimensional molecular sieve, while ZSM-5 would act as a two-dimensional molecular sieve.

This family of materials exhibits interesting catalytic properties for hydrocarbon conversion. Disproportionation of alkylbenzene over H-form mordenite has shown that 1-methyl-2 ethylbenzene is disproportionated without the formation of the symmetrical trialkylbenzene [15] while one should expect that at equilibrium the symmetrical trialkylbenzene will be the main component. The 12-membered ring of H-mordenite is larger than the value given for Na-form. The cross sections of various alkyl aromatics have been determined [15] and it appears from these values that the symmetrical trialkylbenzenes have a minimum cross section of about 0.86 nm. Hence these molecules when formed inside the channels cannot diffuse out of the 12-membered window. The other trialkylbenzene isomers with a minimum cross section of less than 0.82 nm are able to diffuse out of the pores, the selectivity for the formation of unsymmetrical trialkylbenzene isomers thus increases. This concept of shape-selectivity was further completed by the so-called "shape-selective non-intermediate formation" which is mainly due to the small space available in the mordenite channels [16]. The absence of 1,3,5-trialkylbenzene in the products of dialkylbenzene disproportionation would result from the impossible formation of the large 1,1-diphenylalkane-type intermediate in the small space available in the mordenite channels [16]. These shape-selectivity concepts were further illustrated by the study of the xylene-disproportionation over H-form mordenite exchanged by various cations [17]. The catalytic disproportionation of xylenes is expected to give an equilibrium mixture of the three trimethylbenzene. It was found that over H-mordenite the selectivity for 1,2,4 trimethylbenzene is low. The selectivity was increased by a further exchange of H-form with Mg, Ni, Co, Zn, Cu ions. Simultaneously the fraction of 1,3,5 trimethylbenzene decreases. It was concluded that the cations affect the selectivity by reducing the pore size, which lowers the diffusion of the symmetrical isomer out of the channels, and by decreasing the space available in the channels so that the formation of the transition state 1,1 diphenylalkane intermediate is partially inhibited. Shape selective adsorption has also provided an elegant means for separation of hydrocarbon mixtures. Normal paraffins are separated from the other paraffins by a selective adsorption on Ca-A zeolite [18]. Recently complete separation of 2-methylpentane and 2,2 dimethylbutane mixture was achieved by means of shape-selective adsorption on modified mordenite [19]. H-mordenite partially exchanged with Sr^{2+} or Ca^{2+} allowed complete separation of 2-methylpentane and 2,2 dimethylbutane. According to the authors [19] H-ZSM-5 exhibited the same shape-selective adsorptive properties for 2-methylpentane and 2,2 dimethylbutane.

In the above discussion no discrimination between large and narrow channel zeolites has been considered. Next we will refocus the discussion on the new zeolites ZSM-5, 11, 21 that Mobil has developed. The catalytic properties which have been studied much more extensively and

which are of the utmost practical importance, are concerned with methanol conversion to aliphatic and aromatic compounds | 20-26 |, selective production of paraxylene |27-28| , olefin aromatisation |29| and hydrode-waxing |30|. The ZSM-5 new type synthetic zeolites have been the subject of several characterization during the last few years, and their properties compared to those of more conventional zeolites. The hydrophobic character of ZSM-5 has been well established and this hydrophobic character is parallel to the hydrophobic property of dealuminated mordenite |31| and silicalite |32|. All Mobil patents concerning these materials point out the high steam stability of ZSM-5. It is also known that mordenites have a relatively good steam stability. The acid strength of the H-form ZSM-5 was investigated by several techniques |33-34|. The infrared results have shown a very close similarity between the acidic OH groups present on H-ZSM-5 and H-mordenite. Furthermore the heats of NH_3 adsorption on H-ZSM-5 and H-mordenite are very close for both samples which indicates that almost similar acid strength characterizes the two catalysts. Cracking of n-hexane has been used as a test reaction for acid catalysts. Quantitative comparison between various acidic cracking catalysts was attained by evaluating the relative first order rate constants for disappearance of n-hexane . This so called " α test" applied to various H-ZSM-5 zeolites differentiated by various $\text{SiO}_2/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ ratios showed that the n-hexane cracking rate constant increases as $\text{SiO}_2/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ decreases |35|. Furthermore it was shown that both H-ZSM-5 and H-mordenite have a high α value in comparison with H-Y zeolite. One can conclude that the acidity of H-mordenite and H-ZSM-5 does not differ considerably. The major difference between these two materials is reflected by the rapid aging of H-mordenite in contrast with the high catalytic stability of H-ZSM-5 |35|. This point will be further discussed.

The shape selectivity of the zeolite is directly related to the size of the channels. Further insights into the relationship existing between shape-selectivity and pore dimension are obtained by examining the relative adsorptive properties of zeolites for various hydrocarbons having different critical dimensions. The relative adsorptive capacity showed by various "Pentasil" like-structure materials is found to depend on the $\text{SiO}_2/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ ratio. Indeed K (n-hexane adsorbed/cyclohexane adsorbed) is found equal to 4.5 for silicalite |32| (trace of aluminium ions), 5.93 and 5.55 for Na ZSM-5 |35| ($\text{SiO}_2/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ respectively 122 and 60), 2.25 |26| and 3.35 |35| for Na ZSM-5 ($\text{SiO}_2/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ between 30 and 40). The constraint index (C.I. = $\log k_{\text{n-hexane conversion}} / \log k_{\text{3 methyl pentane conversion}}$) is also an interesting parameter to differentiate the various catalysts. Constraint index has been determined for several zeolites |26|. The results are given in the following table.

Zeolites	Erionite	ZSM-5	Offretite	H-mordenite	ReY
Membered oxygen-ring	8	10	12	12	12
dimension of the ring in nm	0.52x0.38	0.54x0.56	0.64	0.67x0.7	0.7
C.I.	38	8.3	3.7	0.5	0.4

These results show that n-hexane is selectively cracked over Erionite and ZSM-5 while the other zeolites exhibited no shape-selective properties for a mixture of n-hexane and 3-methylpentane. Cracking experiments were extended to other hydrocarbons. For example the conversion of a ternary mixture of n-hexane, 3-methylpentane and 2,3-dimethylbutane was studied [36]. The results were expressed in terms of $\log k_{n\text{-hexane}}/\log k_{3\text{MP}}$ and $\log k_{3\text{MP}}/\log k_{2,3\text{DMB}}$. The data confirmed that amorphous silica-alumina cracking catalyst as well as exchanged Y zeolite exhibit no shape-selectivity for the conversion of n-hexane isomers while erionite and to a lesser extent ZSM-5 are highly shape-selective. The interesting feature of this work is the decrease of the shape selectivity as the temperature of the reaction increases. Over ZSM-5, and below 370°C, n-hexane is cracked about 10 times faster than 3-methylpentane and 100 times faster than 2,3-dimethylbutane while at 500°C the three hexane isomers are cracked at approximately the same rate. The cracking of heptane isomers was also studied [36]. It appears that, "cage effect" was not found in ZSM-5 since the relative rate constants are respectively $n\text{-C}_7 > n\text{-C}_6 > n\text{-C}_5$ as expected; furthermore it is possible to differentiate hydrocarbons having a straight chain, a methyl or a dimethyl substitution and finally branched hydrocarbons which diffusion is activated [36]. The sieving effect of H-ZSM-5 was also illustrated by the rates of benzene and toluene alkylation [36]. While intrinsically toluene is alkylated more easily than benzene over H-ZSM-5 catalysts the inverse was found. Since both benzene and toluene are readily adsorbed on ZSM-5 zeolite, the authors concluded that alkylbenzene should diffuse much more slowly than benzene, although both molecules have a critical diameter of about 0.63 nm, hence the rate of toluene alkylation being lower than that of benzene alkylation. It was also found that this new class of zeolites promoted the production of paraxylenes with respect to the o- and m-isomers in the catalytic alkylation of toluene. Alkylation of toluene by methanol produced a mixture of the three xylene isomers containing 92% of paraxylene [27].

Recently ZSM-5 zeolites were used to convert methanol into gasoline. Since the work performed at Mobil Laboratories, several reports were published, attempting to approach the mechanism of the methanol conversion into aliphatics and aromatics [20-26]. It is generally agreed that the high performance of H-ZSM-5 in the methanol conversion is attributed to its high acidity and to the very peculiar shape, arrangement and dimension of the channels. In this section we do not intend to discuss the various mechanisms already proposed but rather to report the major features which distinguish ZSM-5 from other zeolites in the catalytic conversion of hydrocarbons. We have already pointed out the great similarity existing between the acidity of H-ZSM-5 and that of H-mordenite for example, thus these two materials should act similarly in the methanol conversion. Indeed it has been shown [37] that methanol was readily converted over acidic mordenite. Similarly H-Nu-1 converted methanol into products having the same composition as those obtained over H-ZSM-5 [38]. The major difference between these materials was reflected by the rapid aging of all zeolites used except the series of ZSM-5 which exhibited an exceptionally high stability [20]. The very low aging of ZSM-5 was also observed during the alkylation of aromatics and the cracking of paraffins [36]. It has been suggested previously that one of the major causes of zeolite deactivation which occurred during the alkylation of benzene over ReY was the formation of polyalkyl aromatics within the cavities [39]. These bulky aromatic

compounds are too large to diffuse out of the 12-oxygen-rings and lead to carbonaceous deposits. Radio-tracer studies with faujasite and mordenite have confirmed the direct role played by aromatics in the coke formation. These studies were further extended to other zeolites. The coke yield on several zeolites such as Y, L, mordenite, ferrierite and erionite was measured and compared to their selectivities in the conversion of n-hexane and 3-methylpentane [40]. Zeolites, showing a high $k_{n\text{-hexane}}/k_{3\text{MP}}$ ratio, such as ferrierite, erionite, produced less coke than large-pore zeolites (Y, L, mordenite) characterized by a low $k_{n\text{-hexane}}/k_{3\text{MP}}$ ratio. It is therefore suggested that there is a direct correlation between the tendency of coke formation and the structure and/or pore dimension of the channels. Coke yield, using the radio tracer technique, was found two orders of magnitude higher on mordenite than on ZSM-5 [41]. We have seen that the compositions of the products from methanol conversion over mordenite, Nu-1 and H-ZSM-5 in the first minutes of the reaction are very similar, but that mordenite and Nu-1 deactivate rapidly for the selective formation of aliphatics and aromatics. This deactivation may be regarded as the result of coke formation from poly-alkyl aromatics produced during the methanol conversion. In contrast the low aging rate of H-ZSM-5 is due to the fact that in the restricted space available within the channels, polyalkyl aromatics cannot be formed which limits the coke yield. The great interest of these studies is to have shown distinctly the close relationship existing between shape selectivity and coke formation. Such information is especially valuable because it has allowed a better understanding of the function of small pore zeolites in shape-selective catalysis. Further effort should be devoted to this area. Keeping in mind the fact that restricted space in the channels should limit the formation of coke, further advances in shape-selective catalysis may perhaps be attained by selectively modifying the pore dimensions of zeolites.

CATALYSIS BY TRANSITION METAL IONS EXCHANGED ZEOLITES

It is well established that zeolites are capable of effecting a broad range of catalytic reactions. Although the major applications of zeolites in hydrocarbon transformations are based on acid-form zeolites, a fairly important body of studies on non carbonium ion type reactions catalyzed by cation exchanged zeolites have been carried out, the exchangeable cations themselves being involved in the reaction pathways. The unique and attractive feature of zeolites is that their structures offer the possibility of introducing in the lattice exchangeable cations, isolated from one another, strongly associated with the lattice and still possessing available coordination sites potentially active. In recent years there has been renewed interest in transition metal ions exchanged zeolites for catalytic applications. This appears to be the consequence of : i) the large amount of studies which demonstrate that the chemistry of the exchanged transition metal ions is generally similar to that of the analogous cations in solution, ii) the recent developments in the catalysis by "immobilized" transition metal catalysts, the use of zeolites to anchor metal complexes appearing very promising. However in many cases the critical dimension of the organometallic complex which has to be immobilized within the zeolite cavity is too large to diffuse through the 10-or 12-membered-rings. This restriction was overcome by synthesizing the metal complexes

directly within the cavities. In this section we will treat several recent aspects of these reactions.

The homogeneous catalytic formation of imines by addition of primary aliphatic amines to acetylenes in the presence of zinc acetate is feasible only at high pressure [42]. Recently Zn(II) exchanged Y zeolite was found active for the addition of methylamine to methylacetylene at atmospheric pressure. N-isopropylidene methylamine resulted following $\text{CH}_3\text{NH}_2 + \text{CH}_3\text{C}\equiv\text{CH} \rightarrow (\text{CH}_3)_2\text{C} = \text{NCH}_3$ [43] Y zeolite exchanged by Ni, Pd, Pt, Hg and Cu (I) which is isoelectronic with Zn(II) failed to catalyze the amine-acetylene condensation; it was suggested that the rapid reduction of the cation is responsible for the lack of activity [43]. Acetylene trimerisation to form benzene [44] was catalyzed by Ni (II) exchanged Y zeolite. Similarly X-type zeolites containing zinc, cadmium, copper or silver catalyze the hydration of acetylene to acetaldehyde [45]. The dependence of the reaction conversion on the sodium exchange level indicates that the exchangeable cation was directly involved in the reaction.

Transition metal ions exchanged Y zeolites were found active for selective oxidation of hydrocarbons. The close similarity between exchanged zeolites and homogeneous catalysts is illustrated by the selective oxidation of ethylene to acetaldehyde catalyzed by $\text{Pd}^{2+}/\text{Cu}^{2+}$ complexes. It is widely accepted that the reaction pathway involves the reduction of Pd(II) to Pd(0) by the olefin, the role of Cu(II) is to oxidize Pd(0) to Pd(II). Heterogeneous catalysts for the vapor phase oxidation of ethylene to acetaldehyde were obtained by introducing in NaY zeolite both Cu(II) and Pd(II) cations [46]. Pd(II) Y and Cu(II) Y zeolites are poor catalysts for the oxidation of ethylene. Furthermore these two catalysts deactivate rapidly. By contrast, Pd-Cu Y zeolite shows an activity for acetaldehyde formation two orders of magnitude higher than that of PdY or CuY. Furthermore the Pd-Cu Y zeolite activity remains constant over a long period of time. Thus the reaction is promoted by the copper ions as in solution. In the absence of Cu(II), Pd(0) is slowly reoxidized to Pd(II) by oxygen, while Cu(II) present in Pd Cu Y would reoxidize Pd(0) according to an electron transfer mechanism $\text{Pd}(0) + \text{Cu}(\text{II}) \rightarrow \text{Pd}(\text{II}) + \text{Cu}(0)$ and then would be oxidized readily by O_2 in the presence of H_2O . The efficiency of the catalyst obviously increases with the number of Pd(II) present but also with the amount of Cu(II) ions. From the published data [46] it appears that the highest efficiency is attained for a Cu(II)/Pd(II) ratio equal to about 6.

It should be noted that the yield of acetaldehyde decreased at reaction temperatures higher than 115°C , probably as the result of the reduction of Pd(II) ions into palladium metal crystallites. Over Pd-Cu Y zeolites propene and butenes are selectively oxidized into ketones [46]. Benzyl alcohol was selectively oxidized into benzaldehyde over Cu(II) exchanged Y zeolites [47]. Although several experimental evidences on the participation of Cu(II) do exist, the role of the acidity of the zeolite and the effect of CO reduction, on the activity and selectivity are not well established. In yet unpublished investigation [48] it was shown contrary to earlier reports [49] that Cu(II) Y zeolite is active in the oxidation of propylene to acrolein selectively. This is more in agreement with the well known selectivity towards acrolein of copper oxide. It is also shown [48] that Cu(II) is partly reduced to Cu(I) indicating that the oxidation process involves a Redox behaviour of copper ions. Also the Cu(I)/Cu(II) appeared to be drastically

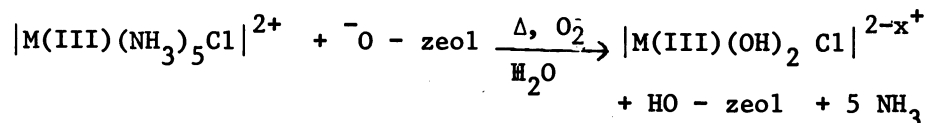
affected by a number of parameters including the flow composition and the acidity of the zeolite and that this ratio predominantly determines the product distribution. In particular increased acidity of the matrix favoured an oxidative attack on the double bond rather than the allylic protons thus producing more acetaldehyde and CH_2O and eventually CO_2 at the expense of acroleine. Also it was confirmed that Cu(II) Pd(II) zeolite effectively catalyzes the oxidation of ethylene to acetaldehyde and eventually acetic acid, however EPR measurements showed that reduction of Pd(II) into Pd(I) rather than Pd(0) occurred and reoxidation was indeed favoured by the presence of Cu(II) ions. Again the influence of the matrix appeared clearly as reoxidation was made even easier in the H Cu Pd zeolite system as compared to the Na Cu Pd zeolite, concomitantly the former showed a remarkable stability in its activity and a higher selectivity compared to the latter [48].

Group VIII transition metal ions are usually active for a large variety of olefin reactions such as hydrogenation isomerisation, dimerisation, hydroformylation; carbonylation of methanol to acetic acid, which is of considerable industrial importance was found to be catalyzed by cobalt, rhodium, iridium complexes in both homogeneous and heterogeneous media. Since it is now well established that transition metal ions in zeolites behave similarly to their solution analogues, interesting heterogeneous catalysts active for a series of olefin reactions have been designed by exchanging sodium ions to transition metal ions. In this section our discussion will be limited to some recent results obtained on rhodium and iridium exchanged NaY zeolites.

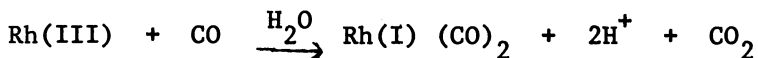
Dimerisation of ethylene is known to be catalyzed by rhodium complexes in solution [50]. A detailed study of this reaction has suggested that monovalent rhodium is the active species. Because the activity was enhanced by HCl it was suggested that the reaction proceeds via an oxidative addition reaction. Later it was found that ethylene is selectively dimerized over nickel or rhodium exchanged Y zeolites [51]. The products formed were 1- and 2-butenes, trans-2-butene being favoured with respect to cis-2-butene. Since the highest activity was achieved by heat treatment in vacuo at 400°C of the catalyst while H_2 -reduction at 500°C lowered drastically the activity it was concluded that atomic rhodium is the active site for the ethylene dimerization. However the authors [51] have not considered that following the thermal treatments Rh(I) may form and might be the active center. Indeed it is well known, that in solution, Rh(III) chloride is rapidly reduced to Rh(I) by ethylene [52]. Similarly using ESCA and infrared spectroscopy it has been shown that Rh(III) within the zeolite cavity is also easily reduced to Rh(I) by CO [53]. Very recently dimerization of ethylene on rhodium (III) exchanged Y zeolite was reinvestigated [54]. The authors have used X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy to follow the oxidation state of rhodium. It was shown that the thermal activation of Rh(III) Y is accompanied by a substantial reduction of Rh(III) to Rh(I). Further reduction resulted in the formation of Rh(0) followed by aggregation mechanism to form rhodium metal. Both Rh(I) and metallic rhodium were found active for ethylene hydrogenation while only Rh(I) was active in the dimerization of ethylene. In addition, similarly to what was observed with soluble rhodium (I) catalysts, HCl enhanced the rate of ethylene dimerization on rhodium zeolite. These results clearly show the very similar behaviour of the

homogeneous and heterogeneous catalysts.

Recent studies in the field of supported transition metal complexes suggest that the activity and/or selectivity of the soluble catalysts was retained when bonded to a solid carrier. Several recent investigations were devoted to immobilize soluble transition metal complexes within the zeolite cavities. This may be accomplished in two different ways : a direct synthesis of the desired complex within the zeolite cavities or insertion of the transition metal complex within the pores. Thus starting from NaY exchanged with $[\text{Rh}(\text{NH}_3)_5\text{Cl}]^{2+}$ [53] or with $[\text{Ir}(\text{NH}_3)_5\text{Cl}]^{2+}$ [55] metal carbonyl complexes have been prepared. The decomposition of the rhodium and iridium pentammine complexes was followed by monitoring the infrared band around 1350 cm^{-1} assigned to NH_3 ligands. The removal of these molecules according to the reaction scheme :



produced chlorohydroxo complexes entrapped within the zeolite cavities. The dehydration of the hydroxo complex might result in the formation of oxide clusters and/or isolated ions. In the presence of carbon monoxide metal carbonyl species were formed and identified using XPS and IR spectroscopy. From these studies it was concluded that, as in solution, Rh(III) ions in Y zeolite are converted by CO into a Rh(I) dicarbonyl complex (ν_{CO} at 2100 and 2040 cm^{-1}) following [54]



Ir(III) ions in Y zeolite are also reduced by CO to Ir(I) but only around 170°C [55]. Quantitative volumetric measurements, as well as infrared studies indicated the formation of CO_2 and suggested the reduction of iridium (III) to iridium (I) along with the subsequent carbonylation of iridium (I) as indicated by the appearance of two ν_{CO} bands at 2089 and 2001 cm^{-1} . Analysis of the IR spectrum observed following the use of an equimolecular mixture of ^{13}CO - ^{12}CO led to the conclusion that an Ir(I) $(\text{CO})_3$ complex was formed within the zeolite cavities [55].

Rhodium and iridium carbonyl clusters such as $\text{Rh}_6(\text{CO})_{16}$, $\text{Rh}_4(\text{CO})_{12}$, $\text{Ir}_6(\text{CO})_{16}$, $\text{Ir}_4(\text{CO})_{12}$ are potentially active catalysts for reactions such as hydrogenation of olefins and aromatics, CO reduction by H_2 , hydroformylation of olefins etc... Immobilization of these clusters on a carrier is expected to increase their stability toward aggregation. The procedure used in [56] was to exchange NaY zeolite with $\text{Rh}^{3+}(\text{NH}_3)_6$ and then to carry out the reduction of Rh(III) in the presence of CO. Infrared studies showed the existence of two strong carbonyl bands at 2095 and 1765 cm^{-1} when the rhodium exchanged zeolite was reacted with CO : H_2 equimolecular mixture at 130°C under a pressure of 80 atmosphere. It was suggested that $\text{Rh}_6(\text{CO})_{16}$ cluster was formed and entrapped within the zeolite cavity. By contrast treatment of Rh(III)Y with an equimolecular mixture of CO : H_2 at 130°C but only at atmospheric pressure led almost exclusively to the formation of Rh(I) $(\text{CO})_2$ complex [57].

Supported or entrapped $\text{Rh}_6(\text{CO})_{16}$ could be easily decarbonylated and recarbonylated without significant loss of its molecular structure [57]. Thus when sublimed onto the zeolite, $\text{Rh}_6(\text{CO})_{16}$ due to its large size, sits on the zeolite external surface. Upon decarbonylation by oxygen, the rhodium cluster might migrate into the zeolite cavity. At this stage the decarbonylated rhodium species

are easily recarbonylated by CO at atmospheric pressure. The rhodium cluster entrapped within the zeolite identified by two infrared bands at 2095 and 1764 cm^{-1} [57] is identical to that formed by high pressure carbonylation of Rh(III) exchanged zeolite [56]. $\text{Ir}_4(\text{CO})_{12}$ $\text{Ir}_6(\text{CO})_{16}$ have also been synthesized within Y zeolite by reducing Ir(III) exchanged Y zeolite with a H_2 : CO mixture at 170°C at atmospheric pressure [58]. These known rhodium and iridium carbonyl compounds entrapped within the zeolites exhibited interesting catalytic properties. $\text{Rh}_6(\text{CO})_{16}$ -Y zeolite was tested for the hydroformylation of 1-hexene [56]. When 1-hexene was reacted with CO and H_2 over rhodium exchanged Y zeolite at 80°C and a pressure of carbon monoxide and hydrogen higher than 50 atmospheres, a high conversion to aldehydes is obtained. Similarly to homogeneous catalysts, RhY catalyst yields a normal/iso aldehyde ratio of about 1. The isomer distribution of aldehydes was 51 % 1-heptanal, 41 % 2-methylhexanal and 8 % 2-ethyl pentanal.

The carbonylation of methanol to acetic acid is a reaction of considerable industrial importance. The patent developed by Monsanto for the liquid phase methanol carbonylation used rhodium based catalysts in the presence of an iodide based promoter. It is now recognized that the reaction pathways starting from Rh(III) halides include CO reduction of Rh(III) to Rh(I) forming a $\text{Rh}(\text{CO})_2$ complex which subsequently, with excess halide, gives the $[\text{Rh}(\text{CO})_2\text{X}_2]^-$ species. The reaction of the promoter CH_3I with the active species gives $[\text{CH}_3\text{Rh}(\text{CO})_2\text{I X}_2]$ complex which then undergoes a rapid methyl migration to form the acyl moiety : $[(\text{CH}_3\text{CO})\text{Rh}(\text{CO})\text{I X}_2]^-$. Methanolysis or hydrolysis of the complex generates methylacetate or acetic acid [59]. In homogeneous liquid phase the reaction was found first order in CH_3I and zero order in methanol and carbon monoxide [60]. Rhodium or iridium exchanged zeolites exhibited interesting catalytic properties for low pressure vapor phase carbonylation of methanol. Sodium X zeolites exchanged with an aqueous solution of rhodium chloride exhibited a high activity and selectivity for the carbonylation of methanol [61-62]. As in homogeneous systems the reaction started only in the presence of a halide promoter such as CH_3I . The kinetics of the carbonylation reaction on Rh X have shown a first order in CH_3I for low CH_3I partial pressure, and zero order in CH_3OH and CO [62]. The observed activation energy of methanol carbonylation on Rh X was identical to that previously measured in homogeneous systems (14 kcal/mole). Infrared and ESCA were used to characterize the active species and the intermediates in the carbonylation of methanol on Rh X [63]. Dicarboxyl rhodium (I) species were identified when CO reacted with Rh X at 100-160°C. However it appeared that only a very small fraction of the total rhodium was involved. It is obvious that the method of ion exchange employed by the authors is not appropriate to obtain the highest rhodium ion dispersion within the zeolite. The reaction of Rh X with a mixture of CO: CH_3I resulted in the formation of an acetyl rhodium species which after an extended period of time is converted to acetic acid by a hydrolysis reaction. Carbonylation of methanol over Rh Y zeolites was also investigated [64-66]. In these studies it is also recognized that the formation of a Rh(I) carbonyl complex capable of oxidative addition of methyl iodide is the rate determining step. Rhodium Y zeolites appeared much more active than rhodium supported on other conventional supports. It seems that in Y zeolite each rhodium cation is accessible to the reactants. However this is only true for low rhodium content. Indeed as the rhodium loading increased a drastic

decrease of the activity was observed. Kinetic studies again indicated that the rate of the methanol carbonylation was first order in CH_3I and zero order in CH_3OH and Co [65-66]. Furthermore infrared studies showed that Rh(I)(CO)_2 readily absorbed CH_3I to give the rhodium carbonyl acetyl species $|\text{Rh(CO)(CH}_3\text{CO)}|^+$. Comparison of these results with the well established homogeneous process indicated similar behaviour of the soluble and zeolite supported rhodium based catalysts. Similarly iridium exchanged zeolite and iridium based homogeneous catalysts exhibited identical catalytic properties in the methanol carbonylation. The liquid phase carbonylation of methanol catalyzed by a soluble iridium complex in the presence of methyl iodide was found first order in methanol and zero order in both methyl iodide and carbon monoxide [67]. Similar kinetics were obtained for the vapor phase reaction on Ir Y [66]. Infrared studies [66] suggest that the active species are the tricarbonyl iridium(I) species formed by the reaction of CO on Ir(III) ; CH_3I undergoes on this carbonyl species a dissociative addition to form the $|\text{CH}_3 \text{Ir I}_2(\text{CO})_3|$ or $|\text{CH}_3 \text{Ir I}(\text{CO})_3|^+$ species; in these complexes no methyl migration was observed. To account for the observed first order with respect to methanol the authors suggested that one possible pathway for the reaction is the attack of the methyl iridium carbonyl species by a CH_3OH molecule to form the methoxy group $|\text{(CH}_3)_2 \text{Ir I}_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{COOCH}_3)|$. Another route may be that in the presence of methanol the methyl group in the $|\text{(CH}_3)_3 \text{Ir I}_2(\text{CO})_3|^-$ species undergoes a rapid migration to form the iridium acetyl species. Methyl acetate was then formed by hydrolysis of either the methoxy or the acetyl moiety [66].

The work reported in this part is sufficient to show that a large number of reactions catalyzed by soluble metal complexes can be carried out, in the vapor phase, by zeolites exchanged with the analogous metal ions. In general the zeolite matrix affords the highest metal ion dispersion in comparison with other supports. In addition, in several cases, on zeolites, the reaction can be carried out at much lower pressures than those required by other homogeneous or heterogeneous catalysts. The applicability of the zeolites containing transition metal ions is still far from being exhausted.

ZEOLITE-SUPPORTED METAL CATALYSTS.

Hydrocracking conversion of heavy feed stock into low boiling hydrocarbons is an important process in petroleum industry. For many years hydrocracking catalysts preparation involved the dispersion of a metal possessing dehydrogenating properties on an acidic support which was HF-treated montmorillonite, acid-treated clays or amorphous silica-alumina. However these conventional hydrocracking catalysts were very sensitive to nitrogen and sulfur compounds. More recently hydrocracking catalysts based on acidic zeolites have been developed. The great advantage of these new catalysts is their high resistance against nitrogen and sulfur poisoning and also the very high dispersion of the incorporated metallic component. The specific feature of zeolite-supported metal is certainly that very small metal particles can be stabilized within the framework which affords interesting materials to study metal-support interaction, particle size effects. Well documented reviews have been published recently [68]. In this section we will be concerned with some relevant aspects of zeolite-supported metals.

Zeolite-supported group VIII transition metals were generally prepared by ion exchange technique with a solution of ammine complex such

as $[\text{Pd}(\text{NH}_3)_4]^{2+}$, $[\text{Pt}(\text{NH}_3)_4]^+$, $[\text{Ru}(\text{NH}_3)_6]^{3+}$, $[\text{Rh}(\text{NH}_3)_5\text{Cl}]^{2+}$, $[\text{Ir}(\text{NH}_3)_5\text{Cl}]^{2+}$. These cationic ammine complexes are generally stable in solution over a wide pH range and thus suitable for cation exchange technique. In some cases aqueous solutions of the metal chloride have been used. In our opinion this method should be avoided since it is well known that a rapid hydrolysis of the chloride occurs with the subsequent formation of hydroanionic metal complexes. Thus this method would lead to heterogeneous samples containing the active metal precursor both on the external and internal zeolite surface. The exchanged zeolite is then thermally treated in various atmospheres and subsequently reduced in hydrogen at elevated temperatures. From the published results it appears that the metal dispersion depends on the pretreatment of the exchanged zeolite before the hydrogen reduction. Extensive work in this area has been performed. It was found that $\text{Pt}^{2+}(\text{NH}_3)_4 - \text{Y}$ reduced in H_2 at 350°C without a pretreatment gave very large metal particles while samples thermally treated in oxygen before H_2 -reduction led to metal particles of less than 1 nm in diameter [69]. The authors suggested that direct reduction of $\text{Pt}^{2+}(\text{NH}_3)_4$ by H_2 forms a neutral highly mobile platinum hydride such as $\text{H}_2\text{Pt}(\text{NH}_3)_2$, which results in a very rapid particle growth. By contrast in the oxidized samples Pt^{2+} cations are strongly held on the zeolite surface thus the particle growth is hindered. The effect of the oxygen treatment on the platinum dispersion was reinvestigated [70]. The location of the Pt^{2+} ions before H_2 -reduction was determined by the X-ray method and correlated to the metal dispersion determined by electron microscopy, X-ray line broadening and hydrogen adsorption. It has been shown that the platinum dispersion depended strongly on the location of the Pt^{2+} ions before the hydrogen reduction [70]. Pt^{2+} located in the supercage as determined by X-ray, led to particles of about 1 nm in diameter entrapped within the large cavities, while Pt^{2+} ions located in the sodalite cages give upon H_2 -reduction atomically dispersed platinum atoms and 2 nm diameter crystallites embedded within the zeolite. It was suggested that during the metal aggregation which occurred in the large cavities, part of the zeolite framework around the crystallite was destroyed which would enlarge the supercage in order to accommodate easily these large size particles. Thus platinum particles up to 2 nm diameter might grow [70-71] within the zeolite framework. The use of zeolites as carriers has been proposed for several other noble metals such as palladium [70], rhodium [72], iridium [73], ruthenium [74-75-76-77]. The wide spread use of supported ruthenium catalysts for $\text{CO} + \text{H}_2$ reaction and the suggested effect of the support and the particle size have led several authors to develop the study of zeolite-supported ruthenium catalysts. In general the ruthenium metal precursor was introduced in NaY zeolite by ionic exchange with $\text{Ru}^{3+}(\text{NH}_3)_6$. Most of the authors agreed that during the thermal decomposition of $\text{Ru}^{3+}(\text{NH}_3)_6$ in vacuo, the reduction of Ru^{3+} to ruthenium metal occurred [75-77]. According to these studies [75-77] the reduction should be connected with the presence of NH_3 or H_2O during the thermal decomposition. Furthermore it was concluded from ESCA, X-ray diffraction electron microscopy and selective adsorption of H_2 , O_2 , CO that the ruthenium metal particles resulting from the vacuum thermal decomposition are located in the supercages and their size estimated to about 1 nm. Calcination in oxygen following reduction was accompanied by the sintering of the metal particle. In a recent publication it was shown that water affected considerably the size and the distribution of the ruthenium particles [77].

Thus bi-dispersed Ru particles were obtained when the reduction was carried out in the presence of water, the binodal distribution being controlled by the amount of water present during the reduction process. It was suggested that water destroyed, by hydrolysis, part of the zeolite lattice, thus creating holes. Ruthenium particles previously located in the supercages might migrate in these holes and grow to a diameter limited by the size of the holes. These interesting results suggest that it would be possible to control the size and the accessibility of the particles by monitoring the temperature and the water vapor pressure.

The use of zeolites as carriers for metal catalysts is of interest since these supports offer, in catalysis by metals, several approaches to the study of i) particle size effect, ii) metal support interaction iii) bifunctional catalysis.

Small platinum particles in Y zeolites have shown a high resistance toward sulfur poisoning [78]. This important property was attributed to the fact that, in zeolite, platinum was almost atomically dispersed, Pt atoms in this state would bind less strongly to sulfur [78]. Another suggestion was that small Pt metal particles in zeolites would be electron deficient which would lead to weakly adsorbed sulfur [69]. There is wide agreement that the hydrogenating properties of zeolite-supported platinum were enhanced with respect to silica-supported platinum [69-71-79]. It was suggested that electron deficient platinum particles in zeolite behave like iridium [69]. However a different interpretation was put forward [79]: the direct effect of the acidity and electro-static field of the zeolite was considered to affect the reactants rather than the platinum [71]. Recently the conversion of neopentane and neohexane on zeolite-supported platinum has been investigated [8]. The results were interpreted in terms of electron deficient platinum, the extent of electron transfer between the metal and the zeolite support being greater for La Y than for Na Y support. However contrary to what has been reported for Pt-zeolite systems, it is claimed that the zeolitic support plays no role in the hydrogenation of benzene over ruthenium zeolite [74]. Hence the nature of the metal-support interaction is not clear yet as well as the parameters which determine the nature and the extent of this interaction. Certainly further effort is needed to achieve a better understanding of the support effects on supported metals in order to predict the modifications of the catalytic behaviour of metals determined by the carrier.

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