

Cite this: *Catal. Sci. Technol.*, 2020,
10, 1739

Enhanced propane dehydrogenation to propylene over zinc-promoted chromium catalysts

Jie Liu,^{†abc} Yong Liu,^{†ab} Youming Ni,^{id}^{ab} Hongchao Liu,^{ab}
Wenliang Zhu^{*ab} and Zhongmin Liu^{id}^{*ab}

Direct propane dehydrogenation (PDH) is an attractive technology for propylene production. We show here that propane conversion is significantly enhanced by the addition of ZnO to Cr₂O₃. Furthermore, its activity is strongly dependent on the Zn/Cr molar ratio and one with Zn/Cr = 0.3 gives the highest propane conversion and propylene selectivity among the studied Zn_xCr catalysts (x denoting the molar ratio, 0–0.5). Characterization with X-ray diffraction, nitrogen physisorption, X-ray fluorescence spectroscopy, temperature-programmed reduction, temperature-programmed desorption, transmission electron microscopy, and X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy indicates that addition of zinc to Cr₂O₃ leads to formation of a spinel phase and reduction of the particle size, and hence forms more defect sites. The Arrhenius plots suggest that the apparent activation energy of the PDH reaction is significantly lowered over Zn_{0.3}Cr.

Received 23rd September 2019,
Accepted 15th January 2020

DOI: 10.1039/c9cy01921a

rsc.li/catalysis

Introduction

Propylene is an important and basic building block in the chemical industry, and is employed for the production of polymers, oxygenates and other chemical compounds.^{1–3} Currently, propylene is commercially manufactured by steam cracking, fluid catalytic cracking (FCC) and the methanol-to-olefin (MTO) process.^{4–6} With the rapidly growing demand for propylene and the availability of large reserves of shale gas, direct propane dehydrogenation (PDH) to propylene has become an attractive alternative process for production of propylene.^{7,8}

Cr-Based catalysts have been extensively studied for the PDH reaction since the first report by Frey and Huppke.⁹ A wide range of Cr-based catalysts have been examined including Cr/Al₂O₃, Cr/SiO₂, and Cr/ZrO₂.^{10–12} De Rossi *et al.* reported highly selective Cr/Al₂O₃ and Cr/SiO₂ catalysts for PDH in the temperature range of 723–823 K. However, these catalysts underwent a deactivation process with time on stream and their activity was still low.¹¹ For the most frequently studied Cr/Al₂O₃ catalyst, its selectivity needs to be improved due to the side reactions such as cracking and coking over the surface acid sites of Al₂O₃, hence leading to reduced propane conversion and propylene selectivity. Therefore, great efforts have been

made to improve the performance of the Cr/Al₂O₃ catalyst by use of different promoters, preparation methods and support materials.^{13,14} Furdala *et al.* synthesized Cr/Si/Al/O and Cr/Si/Zr/O catalysts *via* a cothermolysis method capable of exhibiting propane conversion above 35% and propylene selectivity greater than 95% at 723 K in the PDH reaction.¹³ In the typical CATOFIN process, γ -Al₂O₃-supported catalysts contained 18–20 wt% CrO_x promoted by 1–2 wt% Na or K.¹⁵ In addition, other catalysts based on V, Ga, Zr and Zn have also been investigated for the PDH reaction.^{16–19} Among them, Zn-based catalysts were thought to be promising due to their low cost and high catalytic performance in PDH.²⁰ Chen *et al.* reported that small ZnO nanoclusters supported on a dealuminated β zeolite showed high catalytic activity and propylene selectivity in the PDH reaction.²⁰ Schweitzer *et al.* found that coordinatively unsaturated Zn²⁺ supported on silica exhibited Lewis acid properties and could catalyze the PDH reaction with a high propylene selectivity of more than 95%.²¹ Therefore, the issue whether zinc oxide is an effective promoter for Cr-based catalysts in the PDH reaction is worthy to be explored.

Zn–Cr based oxides are typical methanol synthesis catalysts from syngas derived from coal, natural gas and biomass at relatively high reaction temperature and are also employed for other reactions. Tian *et al.* reported a Zn–Cr catalyst with a Zn/Cr element ratio of 1:1 exhibited an outstanding isobutanol synthesis activity from syngas.²² Al-Wadaani *et al.* studied Zn–Cr catalysts with a wide range of Zn/Cr ratios (20/1–1/30) for dehydroisomerisation of α -pinene to *p*-cymene and one with a Zn/Cr ratio of 1:1 showed the highest yield.²³ According to X-ray diffraction (XRD)

^a National Engineering Laboratory for Methanol to Olefins, Dalian Institute of Chemical Physics, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Dalian 116023, China.

E-mail: wlzhu@dicp.ac.cn, liuzm@dicp.ac.cn

^b Dalian National Laboratory for Clean Energy, Dalian Institute of Chemical Physics, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Dalian 116023, China

^c University of Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing 100049, China

[†] These authors contributed equally to this work.

measurements of Zn–Cr mixed oxides used in these reactions, the catalysts have a Zn–Cr spinel phase with an excess of Zn²⁺ cations. Bertoldi *et al.* proposed that the excess Zn²⁺ located at the octahedral sites, which were coordinatively unsaturated, had a remarkable adsorptive capacity towards CO and other molecules, resulting in high catalytic performance.²⁴ However, little research has been done on Zn–Cr mixed oxides with excess Cr³⁺ and Zn–Cr based oxides were not yet studied for the PDH reaction.

Therefore, we prepared a series of Zn–Cr mixed oxides with different Zn/Cr molar ratios (0–0.5) as catalysts for the PDH reaction. Interestingly, these bi-component oxides are active in the PDH reaction and the catalyst Zn_{0.3}Cr shows the highest activity with 31.3% propane conversion and around 94% propylene selectivity. Detailed characterization studies were carried out and revealed that the excellent performance of Zn–Cr mixed oxides in the PDH reaction could be attributed to the formation of a small-size Zn–Cr spinel with defect sites.

Experimental

Catalyst preparation

Zn_xCr oxides ($x = 0.1, 0.3, 0.5$) were prepared by a coprecipitation method, with x standing for the molar ratio of Zn/Cr. Taking the Zn_{0.3}Cr sample as an example, the following synthesis procedure was used. 0.03 mol Zn(NO₃)₂·6H₂O and 0.10 mol Cr(NO₃)₃·9H₂O were dissolved in a certain amount of deionized water to form a solution having a concentration of 1 mol L⁻¹. A 200 ml aqueous solution with 0.2 mol (NH₄)₂CO₃ was used as a precipitant. The aforementioned solutions were simultaneously added into a beaker containing 200 ml deionized water under stirring at 70 °C. During the process, the pH of the suspension was controlled between 7.0 and 7.1. The suspension was then aged for 3 h at 70 °C under stirring, followed by filtration and washing with deionized water three times. The resulting sample was dried at 100 °C for 12 h and then calcined at 500 °C in air for 4 h. ZnO, Cr₂O₃ and other Zn_xCr samples were prepared by following the same procedure under the same conditions.

For comparison, CrO_x/Al₂O₃ was prepared by incipient wetness impregnation of Al₂O₃ with a Cr(NO₃)₃·9H₂O aqueous solution.²⁵ After impregnation, the sample was dried at 120 °C overnight and then calcined at 550 °C in air for 4 h. The actual concentration of Cr₂O₃ in the prepared catalyst is 17 wt%.

Catalyst characterization

The BET surface areas were obtained by nitrogen physisorption on a Micromeritics ASAP 2020 system at 77 K. Prior to measurements, the samples were degassed at 625 K for 4 h. The chemical composition of all the samples was determined by XRF on a Philips Magix-601 XRF spectrometer.

The crystal phases of the samples were characterized by XRD, which was performed on a PANalytical X'Pert PRO X-ray diffractometer with Cu K α radiation. The crystallite sizes were calculated by the Scherrer equation. The particle size was also estimated by TEM, which was performed on a JEM-

2100 microscope operating at 200 kV. Energy dispersive spectroscopy (EDS) spectra were obtained on a JEM-2100F microscope operating at 200 kV.

XPS was performed on an ESCALAB 250Xi spectrometer with monochromatized Al K α as the exciting radiation. The binding energy of contaminant carbon C1s at 284.8 eV was used as a reference. *In situ* XPS was performed on a SPECS EnviroESCA spectrometer. 10 mbar 5% C₃H₈/Ar was introduced into the sample at 480 °C, before and after which the XPS spectra of the sample were measured.

The reducibility was characterized by H₂-TPR, which was performed on a Micromeritics AutoChem 2920 analyzer. The samples were firstly treated in flowing Ar at 150 °C for 1 h before the test. After that, the samples were reduced in 10% H₂/Ar flow at a heating rate of 10 °C min⁻¹. NH₃-TPD was also carried out on the Micromeritics AutoChem 2920 analyzer. Before the measurement, the sample was firstly treated in flowing He at 450 °C for 1 h. Then, 10% NH₃/He was introduced into the sample at 100 °C for 30 min followed by flushing with He. Subsequently, the sample was heated in He at a rate of 10 °C min⁻¹ while NH₃ desorption was monitored using a TCD detector.

Catalytic activity measurement

PDH reactions were performed in a fixed-bed stainless steel reactor fitted with a quartz lining. 0.3 g of the catalyst was loaded and heated to 400 °C for 1 h and 480 °C for 30 min in N₂ (30 ml min⁻¹). A mixture of 5% C₃H₈ and 95% Ar was fed into the reactor at a flow rate of 25 ml min⁻¹. The reaction was monitored after 5 min from the start and was allowed to proceed for 5 h. Effluents were analysed with an on-line Agilent 7890B gas chromatograph, which was equipped with a thermal conductivity detector (TCD) and a flame ionization detector (FID). Propane conversion ($X_{C_3H_8}$) and propylene selectivity ($S_{C_3H_6}$) were calculated on a carbon atom basis and were expressed as the following:

$$X_{C_3H_8} = \frac{\sum F_i \times A_i}{\sum F_i \times A_i + F_{C_3H_8} \times A_{C_3H_8}}$$

$$S_{C_3H_6} = \frac{F_i \times A_i}{\sum F_i \times A_i}$$

$$F_i = f_i \times n_i,$$

Among these, f_i stands for the molar correction factor of the product i , n_i is the carbon number of the product i , and A_i refers to the peak area of the product i measured by FID.

Results and discussion

The performance of all the catalysts for the PDH reaction was evaluated at 480 °C, 0.1 MPa, 5% C₃H₈/Ar and a space velocity of 5000 ml h⁻¹ g_{cat}⁻¹. Upon addition of Zn, the activity improves obviously. However, there appears to be an

optimum range of Zn addition. Among all the catalysts tested, $\text{Zn}_{0.3}\text{Cr}$ exhibits the optimal activity. As shown in Fig. 1, an initial conversion of 21% over $\text{Zn}_{0.3}\text{Cr}$ is obtained and further increases to 31.3% with time on stream, which is much higher than that of 7% over $\text{Zn}_{0.1}\text{Cr}$ and 11% over $\text{Zn}_{0.5}\text{Cr}$. Meanwhile, the $\text{Zn}_{0.3}\text{Cr}$ catalyst also exhibits the

highest selectivity to propylene, with $S_{\text{C}_3\text{H}_6}$ maintaining around 94% along time on stream up to 300 min. Methane and C_4 hydrocarbons are the main by-products for $\text{Zn}_{0.3}\text{Cr}$ with very little ethylene and ethane (Fig. 1c). For comparison, the single components Cr_2O_3 and ZnO were used as catalysts for the PDH reaction under the same reaction conditions. Fig. 1a shows that Cr_2O_3 gives a propane conversion of about 10% initially and drops rather quickly to around 5% and then levels off with a propylene selectivity of around 88%, which is lower than $\text{Zn}_{0.3}\text{Cr}$. By contrast, ZnO is much less active, with $X_{\text{C}_3\text{H}_6}$ lower than 2%, demonstrating the weak ability of ZnO to activate propane. In addition, $\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_3/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$, which has been frequently studied, was synthesized for comparison. The impregnation method was employed and the Cr_2O_3 loading was 17 wt%. Fig. 1d shows that its PDH activity under the same conditions is much lower than the $\text{Zn}_{0.3}\text{Cr}$ catalyst as its propane conversion is only 9% after reaching steady state.

To understand the origin of the high activity of $\text{Zn}_{0.3}\text{Cr}$, we prepared a physically mixed $\text{ZnO}-\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_3$ catalyst with single components ZnO and Cr_2O_3 with the same molar ratio of $\text{Zn}/\text{Cr} = 0.3$ (denoted as $\text{ZnO}-\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_3$). One sees that $X_{\text{C}_3\text{H}_6}$ is only 3%, which is similar to that obtained over ZnO , lower than that obtained over Cr_2O_3 , and one order of magnitude lower than that on $\text{Zn}_{0.3}\text{Cr}$ (Fig. 1d). These results suggest that the high activity of the $\text{Zn}_{0.3}\text{Cr}$ catalyst could not be solely attributed to the coexisting ZnO and Cr_2O_3 . Therefore, we turned to understanding the physicochemical properties of the Zn_xCr catalysts in comparison to references ZnO and Cr_2O_3 .

XRD was carried out in order to identify the crystal phase structure of the catalysts and the results are shown in Fig. 2a.

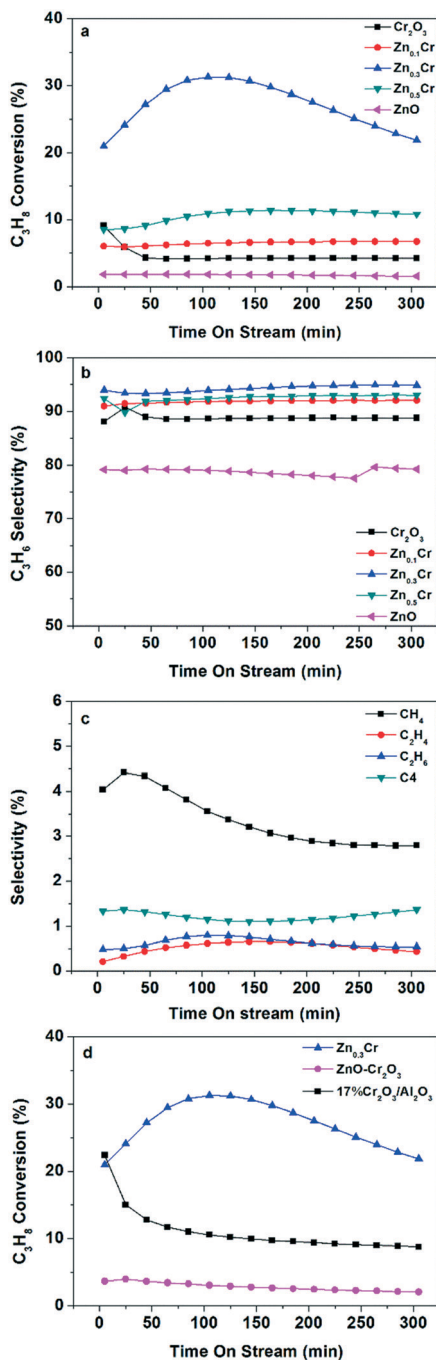


Fig. 1 Catalytic performance of different catalysts in the propane dehydrogenation reaction. (a) Propane conversion; (b) selectivity to propylene; (c) selectivity to by-products for $\text{Zn}_{0.3}\text{Cr}$; (d) the activity of $\text{Zn}_{0.3}\text{Cr}$ in comparison with a physical mixture of $\text{ZnO}-\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_3$ and 17% $\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_3/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$. Reaction conditions: $T = 480\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, $P = 0.1\text{ MPa}$, $\text{GHSV} = 5000\text{ ml h}^{-1}\text{ g}_{\text{cat}}^{-1}$, $\text{C}_3\text{H}_8/\text{Ar} = 5/95$.

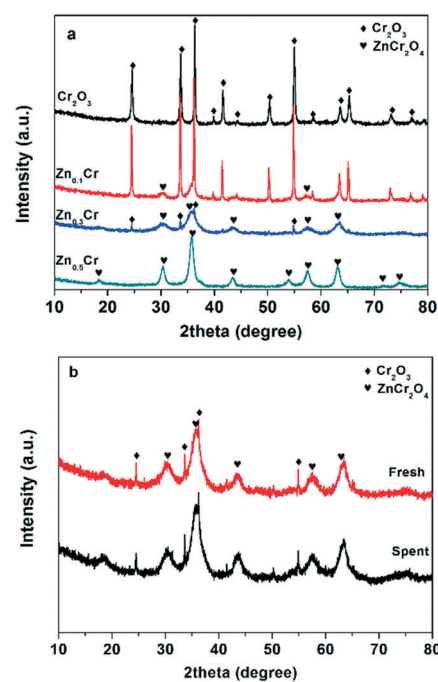


Fig. 2 XRD patterns of the (a) Cr-containing catalysts and (b) $\text{Zn}_{0.3}\text{Cr}$ sample before and after the reaction.

The single component catalyst Cr_2O_3 exhibits only the crystal phase of Cr_2O_3 with an average crystal size of 32.8 nm, estimated according to the Scherrer equation, as listed in Table 1. With the addition of Zn to Cr_2O_3 at Zn/Cr = 0.1, the diffraction peaks of ZnCr_2O_4 appear in addition to those of Cr_2O_3 and the crystal size of ZnCr_2O_4 is estimated to be 7.9 nm. At Zn/Cr = 0.3, the intensity of Cr_2O_3 reduces further and the diffraction peaks of the ZnCr_2O_4 phase become more prominent but still rather broad. Interestingly, the estimated crystal size of the ZnCr_2O_4 phase becomes smaller (4.8 nm) with respect to that over $\text{Zn}_{0.1}\text{Cr}$, but the remaining Cr_2O_3 crystals still retain a large size. At Zn/Cr = 0.5, there is only the ZnCr_2O_4 spinel phase detected and its crystal size increases to 8.8 nm compared to $\text{Zn}_{0.3}\text{Cr}$. It is noted that the crystal structure does not change after the reaction, as evidenced by the XRD pattern of the spent $\text{Zn}_{0.3}\text{Cr}$ catalyst (Fig. 2b).

Smaller particles generally result in a higher surface area, as evidenced by the textural properties of these catalysts (Table 1). The specific surface areas and pore volumes of the bi-component catalysts Zn_xCr are much higher. They are $43.0 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ and $0.11 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ g}^{-1}$ for $\text{Zn}_{0.1}\text{Cr}$, and $148.4 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ and $0.29 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ g}^{-1}$ for $\text{Zn}_{0.3}\text{Cr}$. However, further increasing the Zn/Cr ratio to 0.5 leads to a reduced specific surface area and pore volume ($85.0 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ and $0.19 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ g}^{-1}$), consistent with the crystal size.

Further characterization with HRTEM (Fig. 3) shows that the particle size of the Cr_2O_3 catalyst is not uniform, with an average size of around 75.7 nm. The $\text{Zn}_{0.1}\text{Cr}$ and $\text{Zn}_{0.3}\text{Cr}$ catalysts show two different phases, *i.e.* Cr_2O_3 and ZnCr_2O_4 , consistent with the XRD results. Interestingly, the particle size of the ZnCr_2O_4 phase is rather uniform being around 7.3 nm, whereas the Cr_2O_3 phase is composed of large particles around 100 nm for $\text{Zn}_{0.1}\text{Cr}$. The particle size of ZnCr_2O_4 decreases to 6.2 nm for $\text{Zn}_{0.3}\text{Cr}$. There are only few Cr_2O_3 particles observed. In comparison, HRTEM validates that $\text{Zn}_{0.5}\text{Cr}$ merely exhibits the ZnCr_2O_4 crystal phase and the particles are rather uniform but the size increases further to around 11.6 nm with respect to $\text{Zn}_{0.3}\text{Cr}$. The above results indicate that the addition of zinc to Cr_2O_3 leads to the formation of a ZnCr_2O_4 spinel phase with particle size lower than 10 nm, whereas the Cr_2O_3 phase in the bi-component catalysts Zn_xCr still retains a bulky particle size larger than 50 nm. Among them, the ZnCr_2O_4 phase in $\text{Zn}_{0.3}\text{Cr}$ has the smallest size being 4.8 nm. Generally, smaller particles give a higher surface area, and thus it is understandable that

$\text{Zn}_{0.3}\text{Cr}$ exhibits the highest surface area. Furthermore, the EDS mappings of the ZnCr_2O_4 phase in the $\text{Zn}_{0.3}\text{Cr}$ catalyst in Fig. 4 show that the Zn and Cr elements are evenly distributed. Besides, the Zn/Cr molar ratio is 0.32 measured by EDS analysis, in agreement with the value measured by XRF (0.29). Therefore, the remarkably enhanced PDH activity is likely related to the formation of small sized Zn–Cr spinel species because smaller particles are frequently accompanied by defects.

Defect sites on oxides usually exhibit Lewis acidic properties and NH_3 -TPD is frequently employed to characterize the properties.^{18,26} It is generally accepted that the position and area of the ammonia desorption peak are directly associated with the acid strength and the acid amount, respectively.²⁶ As shown in Fig. 5a, there are several NH_3 desorption peaks for Zn_xCr mixed oxides, implying the presence of multiple types of defect sites with different binding strengths to NH_3 . These peaks fall in a similar temperature range for the three Zn_xCr samples. It appears that the $\text{Zn}_{0.3}\text{Cr}$ sample has another strong peak emerging beyond 400 °C. A blank temperature programmed experiment in He under the same conditions suggests that the decomposition of the catalyst itself has some contribution to the signal after 500 °C since it was calcined at 500 °C, as shown in Fig. 5b. NH_3 -TPD further shows that the amount of NH_3 desorbed from $\text{Zn}_{0.3}\text{Cr}$ is considerably higher than that from the other two, as listed in Table 2. Tian *et al.* studied Zn–Cr spinel catalysts with excessive Zn ($\text{Zn}_{0.8}\text{Cr}$ and $\text{Zn}_{1.2}\text{Cr}$) for isobutanol synthesis from syngas and they pointed out that the acidic character over these Zn–Cr spinel catalysts characterized by NH_3 -TPD was closely related to their surface properties. The higher peak area reflects the presence of more defect sites.^{27,28} Although non-stoichiometric spinels with excessive Zn have been widely studied for methanol and higher alcohol synthesis,^{24,27,28} Zn-deficient spinels were rarely studied. Elucidation of the actual structures of these defects will require more sophisticated experimental and theoretical studies.

Gao *et al.* reported that the metastable structure of non-stoichiometric Zn–Cr spinels with cation disorder and many defects could be stabilized by hydroxyl groups.²⁹ Therefore, we studied the surface hydroxyl by XPS. As shown in Fig. 6, the signal at a low binding energy of 530.3–530.7 eV is assigned to lattice oxygen (labeled as O_{latt}) and the signal at a higher binding energy of 531.9–532.2 eV is derived from surface hydroxyl groups (labeled as O_{OH}), as reported previously.^{29,30} The ratio of $(\text{O}_{\text{OH}})/(\text{O}_{\text{latt}} + \text{O}_{\text{OH}})$ is estimated and summarized

Table 1 Textural properties of different catalysts

Catalysts	Zn/Cr atomic ratio ^a	BET surface area ($\text{m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$)	Pore volume ($\text{cm}^3 \text{ g}^{-1}$)	Average diameter ^b (nm)		Average diameter ^c (nm)	
				Cr_2O_3	ZnCr_2O_4	Cr_2O_3	ZnCr_2O_4
Cr_2O_3	—	9.5	0.03	32.8	—	75.7	—
$\text{Zn}_{0.1}\text{Cr}$	0.11	43.0	0.11	53.6	7.9	104.0	7.3
$\text{Zn}_{0.3}\text{Cr}$	0.29	148.4	0.29	61.7	4.8	—	6.2
$\text{Zn}_{0.5}\text{Cr}$	0.54	85.0	0.19	—	8.8	—	11.6
ZnO	—	11.8	0.03	—	—	—	—

^a Zn/Cr atomic ratio was measured by XRF. ^b Crystallite size was calculated by the Scherrer equation based on XRD. ^c Average particle size was determined by TEM.

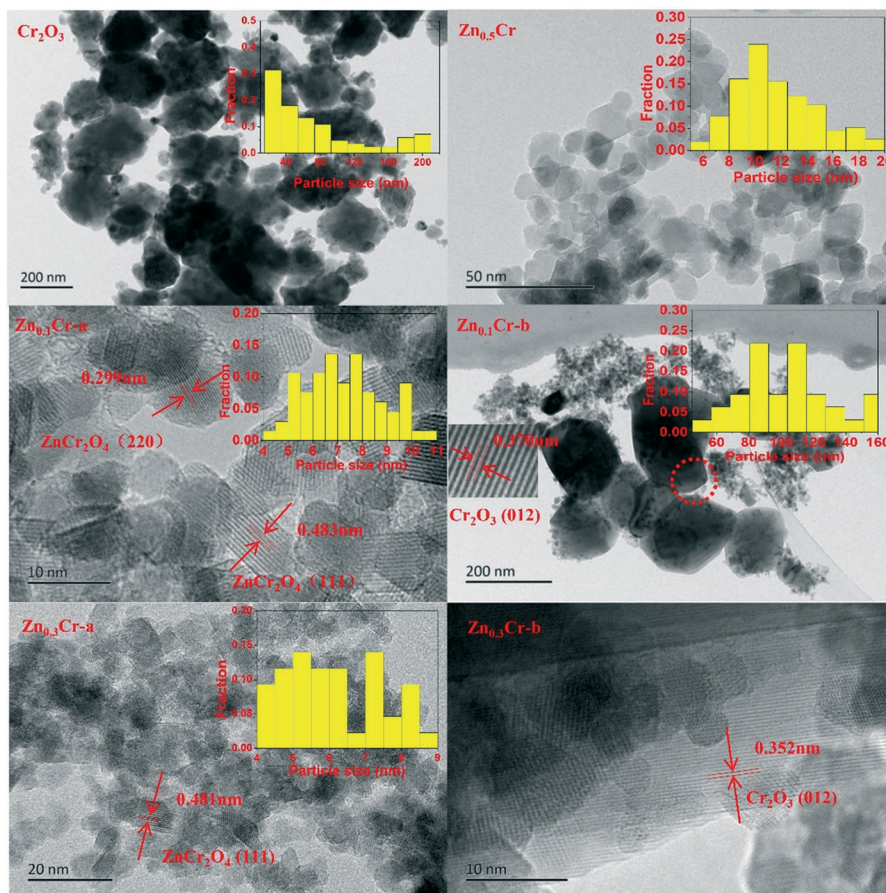


Fig. 3 TEM images of the Cr-containing catalysts with the images labelled a referring to the ZnCr_2O_4 phase and images labelled b referring to the Cr_2O_3 phase.

in Table 2. For the Zn–Cr oxides, the ratio of $(\text{O}_{\text{OH}})/(\text{O}_{\text{latt}} + \text{O}_{\text{OH}})$ increases from 27.6% to 33.9% when the Zn/Cr molar ratio increases from 0.1 to 0.3, and then decreases to 29.6% when the Zn/Cr molar ratio further increases to 0.5. These data further validate the presence of more defect sites in the small-size Zn–Cr spinel of the $\text{Zn}_{0.3}\text{Cr}$ catalyst.

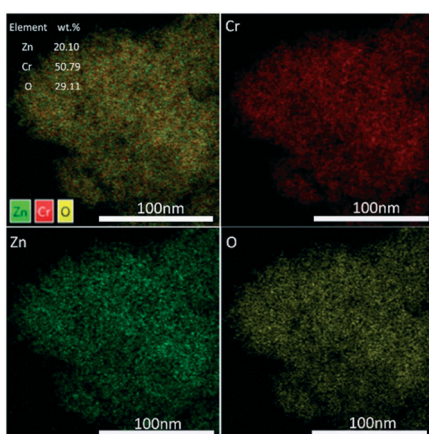


Fig. 4 EDS mappings of the Zn–Cr spinel phase in the $\text{Zn}_{0.3}\text{Cr}$ catalyst.

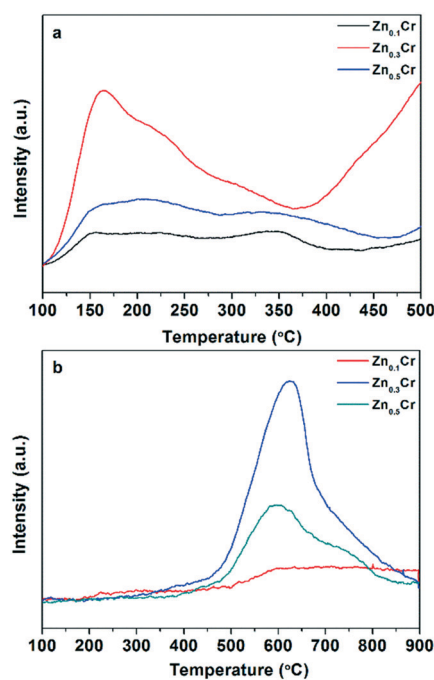


Fig. 5 Temperature-programmed desorption profiles of catalysts with different Zn/Cr molar ratios. (a) NH_3 -TPD; (b) blank experiment.

Table 2 The results of NH₃-TPD and the O species composition of the Zn_xCr catalysts

Catalysts	Peaks of acid sites (°C)	Amount of acid sites (mmol g ⁻¹)	Total acidity (mmol g ⁻¹)	O _{OH} /(O _{latt} + O _{OH})
Zn _{0.1} Cr	222, 342	0.07, 0.06	0.13	27.6%
Zn _{0.3} Cr	163	0.36	0.36	33.9%
Zn _{0.5} Cr	203, 234	0.14, 0.11	0.25	29.6%

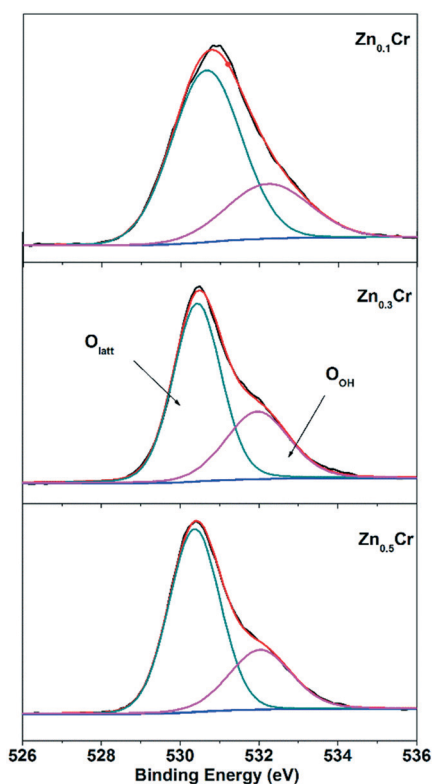
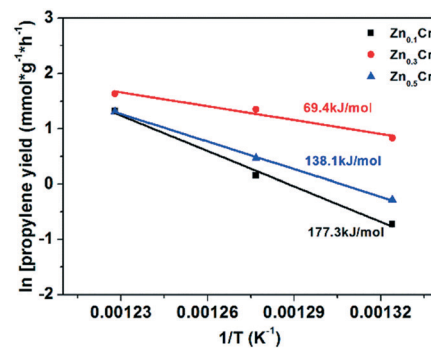
In order to further understand the promotion effect of zinc on Cr-based catalysts for the PDH reaction, the apparent activation energy over Zn_xCr catalysts is estimated according to the formation rate of propylene in a temperature range between 480–540 °C. As shown in Fig. 7, the Zn_{0.3}Cr catalyst exhibits a much lower apparent activation energy than the other two catalysts. It indicates that the addition of zinc to Cr₂O₃ promotes the active sites in addition to generating the ZnCr₂O₄ spinel phase and reducing the particle size.

H₂-TPR was conducted to investigate the reducibility of the catalysts and the profiles of the Zn_xCr catalysts are shown in Fig. 8. For comparison, the H₂-TPR profiles of the single component Cr₂O₃ and ZnO catalysts are also presented. The results show that no obvious reduction peak is observed for ZnO below 650 °C. There is an obvious reduction peak at around 441 °C for Cr₂O₃. It was reported that there existed a small amount of Cr⁶⁺ species over the freshly calcined Cr₂O₃ oxides.³¹ The reduction peak around 441 °C over Cr₂O₃ was likely attributed to the reduction of Cr⁶⁺ to Cr³⁺, as reported by Akula *et al.*³² Interestingly, there are two reduction peaks observed for the Zn_xCr oxides and the reduction temperatures (<361 °C) are much lower than for the single component

Cr₂O₃. This implies the presence of more than one type of chromium species over Zn_xCr oxides. For Zn_{0.1}Cr, there are two reduction peaks observed at around 252 and 361 °C, which could be assigned to the reduction of Cr⁶⁺, from the Zn–Cr spinel phase or partially oxidized Cr₂O₃ phase, to Cr³⁺ as reported by Simard *et al.*³³ The Zn and Cr cations within the stoichiometric Zn–Cr spinel (normally ZnCr₂O₄) are very difficult to reduce.³⁴ Therefore, the broad reduction peak in the temperature range of 100–350 °C for Zn_{0.3}Cr and the reduction peaks at around 256 and 300 °C for Zn_{0.5}Cr could be assigned to the surface Cr₂O₃ species and/or Zn–Cr spinel phase with defects.³⁴ Interestingly, the Zn_{0.3}Cr catalyst exhibits the highest hydrogen consumption among all the Zn_xCr catalysts, which is consistent with its highest concentration of defect site Cr³⁺.²² Lin *et al.* stated that there was a direct relationship between catalytic activity and the reducibility of a catalyst, *i.e.* the higher the reducibility of supported chromium oxide catalysts, the higher the catalytic activity in the dehydrogenation of C₂H₆ to C₂H₄.³⁵ Consequently, it is understandable that the Zn_{0.3}Cr catalyst exhibits the highest PDH activity among the studied catalysts.

The Zn_{0.3}Cr catalyst was further characterized by *in situ* XPS. The spectra were taken before propane was fed in and after the reaction had been allowed for 5 and 30 min, respectively. As shown in Fig. 9a, the peaks at 1021.4 and 1044.6 eV are attributed to Zn²⁺,³⁶ which did not change during the reaction.

The spectra of Cr 2p are shown in Fig. 9b. Deconvolution of the Cr 2p_{3/2} spectrum indicates the presence of both Cr⁶⁺ and Cr³⁺ species over the catalyst before the reaction, represented by the signals at binding energies of 576.8 and 579.3 eV, respectively.³⁷ However, after the reaction for 5 min at 480 °C, the surface Cr⁶⁺ species disappear and there are only Cr³⁺ species left. The Cr 2p spectrum of Zn_{0.3}Cr after the

**Fig. 6** O 1s XPS spectra of Zn_xCr with different Zn/Cr molar ratios.**Fig. 7** Arrhenius plots for estimating the apparent activation energy of the PDH reaction over Zn/Cr catalysts with different ratios.

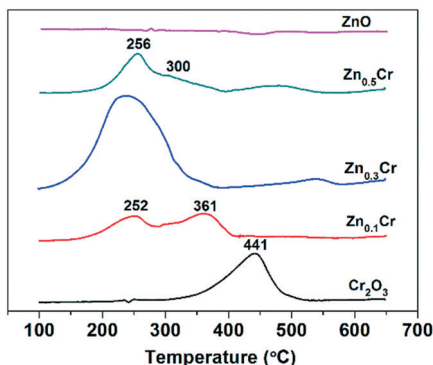


Fig. 8 H_2 -TPR profiles of Zn_xCr along with those of single component catalysts.

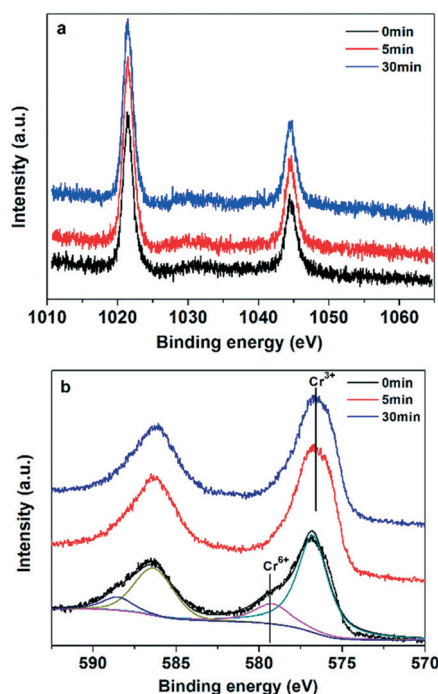


Fig. 9 *In situ* XPS spectra taken before propane was fed in (0 min) and after the reaction had been allowed for 5 and 30 min: (a) Zn 2p; (b) Cr 2p.

reaction for 30 min exhibits a similar feature and there is not much change with respect to that for 5 min. These results indicate that some Cr^{6+} species on the fresh catalyst surface are reduced to Cr^{3+} during the initial stage of the PDH reaction and remain as Cr^{3+} during the reaction. The reduction of Cr^{6+} to Cr^{3+} species during the initial stage of the PDH reaction was also observed by *in situ* XANES and UV-vis spectroscopy previously.^{38,39} De Rossi *et al.* reported a correlation of the concentration of the coordinatively unsaturated Cr^{3+} species with the PDH activity over Cr/Al_2O_3 and Cr/SiO_2 catalysts.¹¹ They further concluded that the most active Cr^{3+} species were those with two coordinative vacancies, according to the IR studies of CO and NO adsorption on Cr/SiO_2 .¹¹ In this work, we observe some reducible Cr^{6+} species on the surface. However, the presence of coordinatively unsaturated Cr^{3+} on the defect sites of

Cr_2O_3 and small particles of $ZnCr_2O_4$, and even their interfaces cannot be excluded completely. These may have led to a lower apparent activation energy for $Zn_{0.3}Cr$ than the other two catalysts, and hence enhanced its PDH activity.

Conclusions

We report here that Cr_2O_3 promoted with zinc has remarkably enhanced its catalytic activity in the PDH reaction. Furthermore, this enhancement is dependent on the molar ratio of Zn/Cr and $Zn_{0.3}Cr$ exhibits the highest activity and selectivity to propylene. For instance, propane conversion reaches 31.3% and propylene selectivity is 94% under reaction conditions of 480 °C, 0.1 MPa, 5% C_3H_8/Ar and a space velocity of $5000 \text{ ml h}^{-1} \text{ g}_{cat}^{-1}$. In comparison, propane conversion is only 7% and propylene selectivity is 92% over $Zn_{0.1}Cr$ and 11% and 93% over $Zn_{0.5}Cr$, respectively. All are higher than those over the single component catalysts Cr_2O_3 and ZnO. XRD, TEM, NH_3 -TPD, XPS and H_2 -TPR indicate that $Zn_{0.3}Cr$ contains small spinel particles, which could lead to formation of more defect sites around $ZnCr_2O_4$ particles and/or their interfaces with Cr_2O_3 though the latter phase still retains a large particle size. Furthermore, the lowest apparent activation energy over $Zn_{0.3}Cr$ implies that the Zn additive may have also modified the properties of the active sites.

Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts to declare.

Notes and references

- 1 F. Zhang, R. Wu, Y. Yue, W. Yang, S. Gu, C. Miao, W. Hua and Z. Gao, *Microporous Mesoporous Mater.*, 2011, **145**, 194–199.
- 2 L. Li, W. Zhu, L. Shi, Y. Liu, H. Liu, Y. Ni, S. Liu, H. Zhou and Z. Liu, *Chin. J. Catal.*, 2016, **37**, 359–366.
- 3 Y. Ren, F. Zhang, W. Hua, Y. Yue and Z. Gao, *Catal. Today*, 2009, **148**, 316–322.
- 4 L. Deng, T. Shishido, K. Teramura and T. Tanaka, *Catal. Today*, 2014, **232**, 33–39.
- 5 N. Zeeshan, *Rev. Chem. Eng.*, 2015, **31**, 413–436.
- 6 P. Tian, Y. Wei, M. Ye and Z. Liu, *ACS Catal.*, 2015, **5**, 1922–1938.
- 7 T. Otroschchenko, S. Sokolov, M. Stoyanova, V. A. Kondratenko, U. Rodemerck, D. Linke and E. V. Kondratenko, *Angew. Chem., Int. Ed.*, 2015, **54**, 15880–15883.
- 8 G. Wang, H. Zhang, H. Wang, Q. Zhu, C. Li and H. Shan, *J. Catal.*, 2016, **344**, 606–608.
- 9 F. E. Frey and W. F. Huppke, *Ind. Eng. Chem. Res.*, 1933, **25**, 54–59.
- 10 B. M. Weckhuysen and R. A. Schoonheydt, *Catal. Today*, 1999, **51**, 223–232.
- 11 S. De Rossi, G. Ferraris, S. Fremiotti, E. Garrone, G. Ghiotti, M. C. Campa and V. Indovina, *J. Catal.*, 1994, **148**, 36–46.
- 12 S. De Rossi, G. Ferraris, S. Fremiotti, A. Cimino and V. Indovina, *Appl. Catal., A*, 1992, **81**, 113–132.

- 13 K. L. Fajdala and T. D. Tilley, *J. Catal.*, 2003, **218**, 123–134.
- 14 A. Węgrzyniak, A. Rokicińska, E. Hędrzak, B. Michorczyk, K. Zeńczak-Tomera, P. Kuśtrowski and P. Michorczyk, *Catal. Sci. Technol.*, 2017, **7**, 6059–6068.
- 15 J. Sattler, J. Ruiz-Martinez, E. Santillan-Jimenez and B. M. Weckhuysen, *Chem. Rev.*, 2014, **114**, 10613–10653.
- 16 S. Sokolov, M. Stoyanova, U. Rodemerck, D. Linke and E. V. Kondratenko, *Catal. Sci. Technol.*, 2014, **4**, 1323–1332.
- 17 M. W. Schreiber, C. P. Plaisance, M. Baumgartl, K. Reuter, A. Jentys, R. Bermejo-Deval and J. A. Lercher, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.*, 2018, **140**, 4849–4859.
- 18 T. P. Otroshchenko, V. A. Kondratenko, U. Rodemerck, D. Linke and E. V. Kondratenko, *Catal. Sci. Technol.*, 2017, **7**, 4499–4510.
- 19 C. Chen, M. Sun, Z. Hu, J. Ren, S. Zhang and Z. Y. Yuan, *Catal. Sci. Technol.*, 2019, **9**, 1979–1988.
- 20 C. Chen, Z. Hu, J. Ren, S. Zhang, Z. Wang and Z. Y. Yuan, *ChemCatChem*, 2019, **11**, 868–877.
- 21 N. M. Schweitzer, B. Hu, U. Das, H. Kim, J. Greeley, L. A. Curtiss, P. C. Stair, J. T. Miller and A. S. Hock, *ACS Catal.*, 2014, **4**, 1091–1098.
- 22 S. Tian, Y. Wu, K. Li, H. Xie, H. Ren, Y. Zhao, Z. Miao and Y. Tan, *Energy Technol.*, 2018, **6**, 1805–1812.
- 23 F. Al-Wadaani, E. F. Kozhevnikova and I. V. Kozhevnikov, *Appl. Catal., A*, 2009, **363**, 153–156.
- 24 M. Bertoldi, B. Fubini and E. Giamello, *J. Chem. Soc., Faraday Trans.*, 1988, **84**, 1405–1421.
- 25 X. Q. Gao, W. D. Lu, S. Z. Hu, W. C. Li and A. H. Lu, *Chin. J. Catal.*, 2019, **40**, 184–191.
- 26 C. Fang, D. Zhang, S. Cai, L. Zhang, L. Huang, H. Li, P. Maitarad, L. Shi, R. Gao and J. Zhang, *Nanoscale*, 2013, **5**, 9199–9207.
- 27 S. Tian, Y. Wu, H. Ren, H. Xie, Y. Zhao, Q. Ma, Z. Miao and Y. Tan, *Fuel Process. Technol.*, 2019, **193**, 53–62.
- 28 S. Tian, S. Wang, Y. Wu, J. Gao, Y. Bai, P. Wang, H. Xie, Y. Han and Y. Tan, *J. Mol. Catal. A: Chem.*, 2015, **404–405**, 139–147.
- 29 X. Gao, Y. Wu, G. Yang, T. Zhang, X. Li, H. Xie, J. Pan and Y. Tan, *Appl. Catal., A*, 2017, **547**, 1–11.
- 30 S. A. Hosseini, M. C. Alvarez-Galvan, J. L. G. Fierro, A. Niaei and D. Salari, *Ceram. Int.*, 2013, **39**, 9253–9261.
- 31 B. Grzybowska, J. Słoczyński, R. Grabowski, K. Weisło, A. Kozłowska, J. Stoch and J. Zieliński, *J. Catal.*, 1998, **178**, 687–700.
- 32 V. Akula, R. Sarkari, A. Chatla, K. Vankudoth and K. K. Mandari, *Appl. Catal., A*, 2012, **441–442**, 108–118.
- 33 F. Simard, U. A. Sedran, J. Sepúlveda, N. S. Figoli and H. I. de Lasa, *Appl. Catal., A*, 1995, **125**, 81–98.
- 34 X. Gao, Y. Wu, T. Zhang, L. Wang, X. Li, H. Xi and Y. Tan, *Catal. Sci. Technol.*, 2018, **8**, 2975–2986.
- 35 H. Yang, L. Xu, D. Ji, Q. Wang and L. Lin, *Catal. Lett.*, 2002, **76**, 151–159.
- 36 W. Huang, W. Zha, D. Zhao and S. Feng, *Solid State Sci.*, 2019, **87**, 49–52.
- 37 V. Z. Fridman, R. Xing and M. Severance, *Appl. Catal., A*, 2016, **523**, 39–53.
- 38 M. S. Kumar, N. Hammer, M. Ronning, A. Holmen, D. Chen, J. Walmsley and G. Oye, *J. Catal.*, 2009, **261**, 116–128.
- 39 P. Michorczyk, J. Ogonowski and K. Zeńczak, *J. Mol. Catal. A: Chem.*, 2011, **349**, 1–12.