

# Oxygen-Nonstoichiometric $\text{YBaCo}_4\text{O}_{7+\delta}$ as a Catalyst in $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ Oxidation of Cyclohexene

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**Abstract** Here we present oxygen-nonstoichiometric transition metal oxides as highly prominent candidates to catalyze the industrially important oxidation reactions of hydrocarbons when hydrogen peroxide is employed as an environmentally benign oxidant. The proof-of-concept data are revealed for the complex cobalt oxide,  $\text{YBaCo}_4\text{O}_{7+\delta}$  ( $0 < \delta < 1.5$ ), in the oxidation process of cyclohexene. In the 2-h reaction experiments  $\text{YBaCo}_4\text{O}_{7+\delta}$  was found to be significantly more active (>60 % conversion) than the commercial  $\text{TiO}_2$  catalyst (<20 %) even though its surface area was less than one tenth of that of  $\text{TiO}_2$ . In the 7-h experiments with  $\text{YBaCo}_4\text{O}_{7+\delta}$ , 100 % conversion of cyclohexene was achieved. Immersion calorimetry measurements showed that the high catalytic activity may be ascribed to the exceptional ability of  $\text{YBaCo}_4\text{O}_{7+\delta}$  to dissociate  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  and release active oxygen to the oxidation reaction.

**Keywords** Nonstoichiometric oxide · Catalyst · Hydrocarbon oxidation ·  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  oxidant

## 1 Introduction

Catalytic oxidation of alcohols and hydrocarbons is an important industrial process in both environmental

chemistry (e.g. removal of VOCs) and fine chemical industry [1–3]. These oxidation processes involve the conversion of the corresponding chemicals into intermediates (e.g. epoxides, alcohols, etc.) and/or into carbon dioxide and water as a final product. In particular—from the economical point of view—partial oxidation of alkenes to produce epoxides is one of the momentous industrial reactions since epoxides are synthetic precursors for numerous fine chemicals and polymer syntheses [4], e.g. production of propylene oxide via epoxidation of propylene using *tert*-butyl hydroperoxide [5]. The epoxide intermediates are catalytically produced from the corresponding alkenes via oxygen transfer reactions using a peroxy acid as an oxidant and a transition metal compound as a catalyst [6, 7]. The role of the active metal in such oxidation reactions is to activate the oxygen–oxygen bond in the peroxy acid ( $\eta^2$ -coordinated peroxide) in order to supply electrophilic oxygen able to react with the alkene molecule [6, 8]. Among the different transition metal catalysts, Ti-based systems have been the most widely investigated. Besides the Shell catalyst based on  $\text{Ti(IV)-SiO}_2$ , there have been numerous efforts to design variously substituted  $\text{Ti(IV)}$ -framework materials, e.g. TS-1, Ti-MCM41, etc., with excellent catalytic performance in the aforementioned peroxy-acid oxidized reactions [9–12]. X-ray absorption spectroscopy analysis has revealed that four-coordinated  $\text{Ti(IV)}$  centers indeed are the active sites for the oxidation reactions [13].

While peroxy acids are by far the most commonly employed oxidants in the epoxidation reactions, there are certain drawbacks commonly associated with their use such as a low reaction rate and the large amounts of these acids typically remaining as an unwanted residue in the product. Hence, alternative strong and green oxidants such as hydrogen peroxide are urgently searched for. Hydrogen peroxide is easy to handle and it yields an environmentally

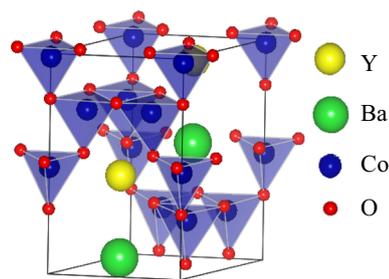
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benign by-product, i.e. water. Unfortunately, aqueous  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  exhibits a poor catalytic performance on Ti(IV) centers supported on mesoporous silica due to the competitive adsorption between  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  and  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  on the hydrophilic Ti(IV) sites. Consequently, new catalytic systems are desired which would efficiently decompose  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  and yield active electrophilic oxygen.

Besides titanium, other transition metals such as cobalt have also been investigated as potential catalysts in the oxidation of alkenes [14–16]. Interestingly, partial substitution of tetrahedrally-coordinated Al(III) and P(V) in aluminophosphates by Co(III) and Ti(IV) resulted in excellent catalysts for the oxidation of olefins when acetyl peroxyborate was used as the oxidant [15]. The redox-active cobalt centers apparently provided the location for the initiation and generation of free-radical intermediates for the catalytic oxidation. Unfortunately, these Co-based catalysts were found inactive when  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  was used as the oxidant [16].

In recent years several families of oxygen-nonstoichiometric transition metal oxide materials have been intensively investigated—largely due to their intrinsic redox properties—for a variety of modern materials technologies ranging from superconducting, thermo-electric, ferroelectric and magnetic devices to batteries, fuel cells, sensors and oxygen-storage devices. These materials have however remained rather unexplored in catalysis. Cerium oxide is the most widely-used oxygen-storage material; it is also known to be an active catalyst in various reactions [17]. Recently it was also shown to be active in epoxidation reactions [18]. Here our hypothesis is that in addition to ceria, other oxygen-nonstoichiometric and thereby redox-active transition metal oxides would be highly potential material candidates for next-generation catalyst systems involving the catalytic oxidation of hydrocarbons with  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ . As the first candidate material to be investigated we selected the complex cobalt oxide,  $\text{YBaCo}_4\text{O}_{7+\delta}$  ( $0 < \delta < 1.5$ ). It has a significantly larger oxygen-storage capacity (2,600  $\mu\text{molO/g}$  [19]) than the best ceria derivative  $\text{CeO}_2\text{-ZrO}_2$  (1,500  $\mu\text{molO/g}$  [20]). In addition,  $\text{YBaCo}_4\text{O}_{7+\delta}$  releases all the stored oxygen in air at appreciably low temperatures below 400 °C whereas ceria requires a harsh reducing atmosphere and a much higher temperature for the oxygen release. As shown in Fig. 1, the crystal structure of  $\text{YBaCo}_4\text{O}_{7+\delta}$  contains corner-sharing  $\text{CoO}_4$  tetrahedra of mixed-valent Co(II/III) [21]. Despite its unique properties—the large low-temperature oxygen mobility, the wide range of oxygen-nonstoichiometry and the presence of tetrahedrally coordinated Co(II/III) centers [19, 22–26]—and the fact that it has already been considered as a promising oxygen buffer in various other applications (for a review, see [27]), the  $\text{YBaCo}_4\text{O}_{7+\delta}$  phase has not yet been exploited in heterogeneous catalysis. Here we



**Fig. 1** Schematic illustration of the crystal structure of  $\text{YBaCo}_4\text{O}_{7+\delta}$

will report our highly promising results on the catalytic performance of  $\text{YBaCo}_4\text{O}_{7+\delta}$  in the oxidation of cyclohexene in combination with  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  as the green oxidant. The performance is discussed in comparison to those of a simple binary cobalt oxide powder and commercial titanium oxide (P25) powder.

## 2 Experimental

### 2.1 Catalyst Sample Preparation

The  $\text{YBaCo}_4\text{O}_{7+\delta}$  sample was prepared through a solid state synthesis route from appropriate amounts of the starting material powders,  $\text{Y}_2\text{O}_3$  (99.9 %),  $\text{BaCO}_3$  (>99 %) and  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$  (99.7 %), thoroughly ground with ethanol and calcined in air at 900 °C for 12 h. The calcined sample powder was pressed into a pellet of  $\sim 1$  g and fired in air at 1,150 °C for 30 h, followed by furnace-cooling down to room temperature. After the synthesis the sample was pulverized, and the oxygen content of the powder was adjusted to  $\delta \approx 0$  by annealing it in a tube furnace in an Ar gas flow at 500 °C for 10 h after which the furnace was slowly cooled down.

Additionally a simple binary cobalt oxide sample was prepared for reference by heat-treating 1 g of commercial cobalt oxide ( $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ , 99.7 %, Merck) at 1,150 °C in air for 15 h. For the sake of comparison the catalytic activity of a commercial titanium oxide material (P25, Aldrich) was investigated too.

### 2.2 Basic Characterization of Sample Powders

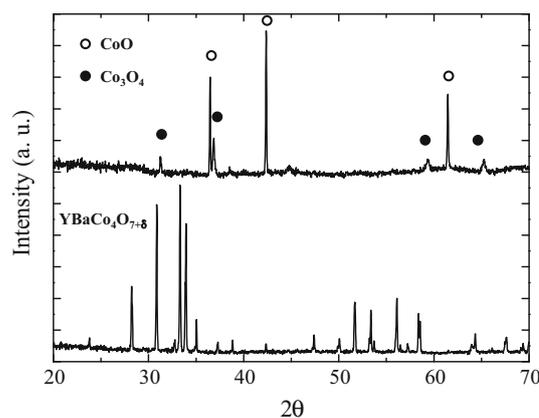
Phase purity/composition of the samples was confirmed by X-ray powder diffraction (XRD; Panalytical X'Pert Pro MPD,  $\text{CuK}\alpha_1$  radiation, PixCel detector) measurements. Specific surface area was determined for the sample powders through the BET equation from the  $\text{N}_2$  adsorption data obtained at  $-196$  °C using an in-house designed and developed volumetric equipment. Before the adsorption experiments the samples were degassed at 250 °C for 4 h.

The precise oxygen content of the  $\text{YBaCo}_4\text{O}_{7+\delta}$  powder was analyzed by iodometric titration [28]. About 20 mg of finely ground sample powder was dissolved in oxygen-free 1 M HCl in an air-tight cell under constant  $\text{N}_2$  gas (99.999 %) bubbling, aided with a significant excess of potassium iodide (ca. 1.5 g). The iodine formed in the redox reaction between trivalent cobalt and iodide was titrated with standard 0.010 M  $\text{Na}_2\text{SO}_3$  solution (Merck) in the presence of starch indicator. The experiment was repeated three times with an excellent reproducibility. The oxygen content of the cobalt oxide reference powder could not be determined by titration because the material was insoluble in 1 M HCl. For this reason, the precise stoichiometry of our binary cobalt oxide sample was investigated by thermogravimetric (TG; Pyris 1 TGA) reduction. A sample specimen of ca. 20 mg was heated to 800 °C with a heating rate of 5 °C/min in an  $\text{H}_2$  (5 %)/Ar gas flow. During this reductive TG run the oxide is reduced to Co metal, and the initial amount of oxygen in the sample can be calculated from the overall weight loss. The same thermobalance was used to confirm the oxygen absorption/desorption characteristics of the  $\text{YBaCo}_4\text{O}_{7.05}$  sample powder in  $\text{O}_2$  gas flow. In these experiments a sample specimen of ~20 mg was slowly (1 °C/min) heated from room temperature to 500 °C in an  $\text{O}_2$  gas flow (40 ml/min).

The chemical state of the catalyst surface was investigated by X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS; VG-Microtech Multilab 3000 spectrometer, hemispherical electron analyzer, Mg- $\text{K}_\alpha$  ( $h = 1,253.6$  eV;  $1$  eV =  $1.6302 \times 10^{-19}$  J) 300-W X-ray source). The sample powder was pressed into a small Inox cylinder and mounted on a sample rod placed in a pretreatment chamber before being transferred to the analysis chamber. Before recording the spectrum, the sample was maintained in the analysis chamber until a residual pressure of ca.  $5 \times 10^{-7}$  N/m<sup>2</sup> was reached. The spectra were collected at pass energy of 50 eV. All binding energies were referenced to the C 1s line at 284.6 eV, which provided binding energy values with an accuracy of  $\pm 0.2$  eV.

### 2.3 Catalytic Evaluation

Catalytic studies were performed using cyclohexene (99 %, Aldrich) as the substrate and hydrogen peroxide as the primary oxidant. In a typical reaction, 2 mmol of cyclohexene, 2 mmol of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  (30 wt% in water, Aldrich), 40 mg of the catalyst powder, 0.25 ml of octane as an internal standard and 1-propanol as a solvent up to 5.8 ml final volume were added to a 50 ml round-bottom flask fitted with a reflux condenser. The reaction mixture was stirred at 70 °C for 2 h (in some experiments also for a longer period of time). The reaction was terminated by quenching with water. The catalyst was separated by filtration and the reaction products were analyzed by on-line



**Fig. 2** XRD patterns for the  $\text{YBaCo}_4\text{O}_{7+\delta}$  sample and the cobalt-oxide reference powder

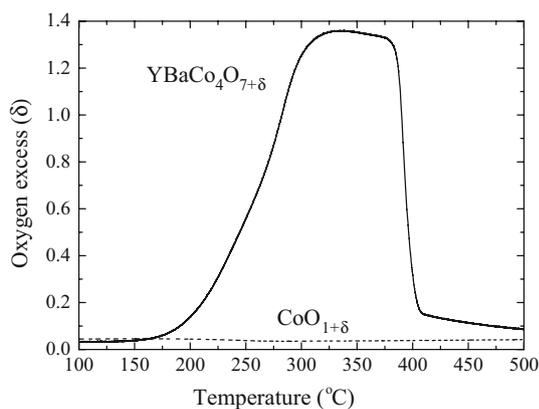
gas-chromatography (Shimadzu GC-2010, flame ionization detector FID) and a capillary column HP-5. Blank experiments were performed using the same experimental conditions without a catalyst.

To understand the nature of the catalytic reaction, immersion calorimetry measurements into  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  (30 wt% in water, Aldrich) were performed in a Setaram Tian-Calvet C80D calorimeter working at 30 °C. Prior to the experiment, the sample specimen was degassed in glass-made vacuum equipment down to  $10^{-3}$  Pa at 250 °C for 4 h. After degassing, the glass bulb containing the sample was sealed into vacuum and inserted into the calorimetric chamber containing the immersion liquid. Once thermal equilibrium is reached, the brittle tip of the glass bulb is broken and the heat of interaction is recorded as a function of time. The total enthalpy of immersion ( $-\Delta H_{\text{imm}}$ ) is obtained by integration of the signal, after appropriate corrections for the breaking of the tip (exothermic) and the heat of evaporation of the immersion liquid necessary to fill the empty volume of the bulb with the vapor at the corresponding vapor pressure (endothermic).

## 3 Results and Discussion

### 3.1 Chemical Characteristics of the Catalyst Powders

Figure 2 shows XRD patterns for the two cobalt-oxide powders investigated. The binary cobalt oxide reference sample is a mixture of two phases, CoO as the main phase and  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$  with a lesser amount [29, 30]. The average oxygen content of the sample was determined to be  $\text{CoO}_{1.04}$  on the basis of TG analysis. For the  $\text{YBaCo}_4\text{O}_{7+\delta}$  sample, XRD confirms the presence of a single phase. The lattice parameters were readily refined from the XRD



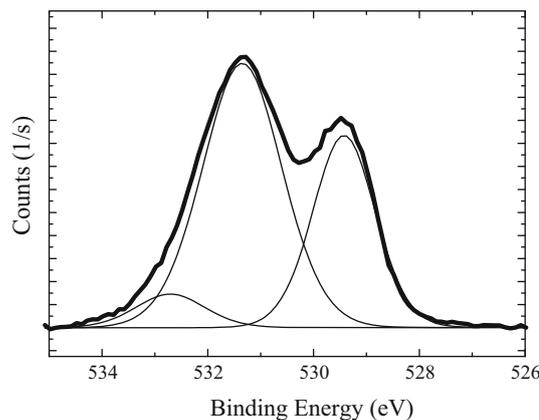
**Fig. 3** TG curves for the  $\text{YBaCo}_4\text{O}_{7+\delta}$  sample and the cobalt-oxide reference powder recorded in an  $\text{O}_2$  gas flow (heating rate  $1^\circ\text{C}/\text{min}$ )

pattern in space group  $P6_3mc$ , with  $a = 6.3033 \text{ \AA}$  and  $c = 10.2414 \text{ \AA}$ , as expected from our previous work [19]. Iodometric titration experiments gave the oxygen content for the  $\text{YBaCo}_4\text{O}_{7+\delta}$  sample at  $\delta = 0.05$ . Hence, in both of our cobalt-oxide samples cobalt exists with a mixed II/III valence.

Figure 3 shows the TG curves recorded for the  $\text{YBaCo}_4\text{O}_{7.05}$  sample and also for the  $\text{CoO}_{1.04}$  reference upon heating in an  $\text{O}_2$  gas flow up to  $500^\circ\text{C}$ . For the reference cobalt oxide no oxygen absorption/desorption is seen in this temperature range. The oxygen content of  $\text{YBaCo}_4\text{O}_{7.05}$  also remains unchanged upon heating up to ca.  $200^\circ\text{C}$ , but above this temperature the material exhibits a sudden weight increase, indicating a substantial increase in the oxygen content up to  $\delta \approx 1.4$ , followed by a weight/oxygen loss upon further heating around  $400^\circ\text{C}$ . Hence our  $\text{YBaCo}_4\text{O}_{7+\delta}$  sample indeed possesses the remarkable oxygen absorption/desorption or redox capability as expected from previous works [19, 22–27].

The surface area of the  $\text{YBaCo}_4\text{O}_{7.05}$  sample powder was determined by the BET method to be very low ( $\sim 2 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$ ) as the sample was synthesized through solid-state synthesis at the relatively high temperature of  $1150^\circ\text{C}$ . For comparison, the surface area of the commercial  $\text{TiO}_2$  reference powder is  $\sim 50 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$ .

The chemical nature of the surface species in the  $\text{YBaCo}_4\text{O}_{7.05}$  sample was evaluated by XPS; the O 1s core level spectrum is presented in Fig. 4. There are three spectral components found at  $529.4 \text{ eV}$  (33 % of total O),  $531.4 \text{ eV}$  (59 %) and  $532.7 \text{ eV}$  (6.6 %). The pattern corresponds to a typical transition metal oxide surface like that of  $\text{NiO}$  [31],  $\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_3$  [32] or  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$  [33]. Only the first peak at  $529.4 \text{ eV}$  is probably due to the lattice oxygen. The major peak in the middle has been proposed to be due to defective sites within the crystal, adsorbed oxygen or



**Fig. 4** O 1s core level spectra for  $\text{YBaCo}_4\text{O}_{7.05}$ . The measured data are presented with the thick black line and the convoluted peaks are presented with thinner lines

hydroxide [34]. The smallest peak at the highest energy (which could probably be convoluted into several smaller peaks) is most likely due to traces of organic compounds (alcohols, esters etc.) or adsorbed water [34]. The binding energy values are somewhat lower than those of the binary  $\text{Co(II,III)}$  oxide  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$  ( $530.0\text{--}530.8\text{--}532.7$ ) [33], which is consistent with the fact that the other cation species (Y and Ba) in this lattice are much more electropositive than cobalt. Corresponding values for lattice O 1s in  $\text{Y}_2\text{O}_3$  and  $\text{BaO}$  are  $529.0 \text{ eV}$  [35] and  $528.2 \text{ eV}$  [36], respectively. Actually, for mixed oxides containing different metal species somewhat average binding energy values are expected from those for the individual binary oxides [36].

The XPS spectrum for Y 3d was found to have two peaks corresponding to the spin orbital splitting of  $3d_{5/2}$  ( $156.7 \text{ eV}$ ) and  $3d_{3/2}$  ( $158.7 \text{ eV}$ ): the binding energy values are similar to those reported for Y(III) [37]. For samples containing both Co and Ba, XPS is not the optimal analysis tool due to the overlap of Co 2p and Ba 3d spectra in the energy range of  $770\text{--}800 \text{ eV}$  [38, 39]. Luckily, from the oxygen content analysis we know that in the  $\text{YBaCo}_4\text{O}_{7.05}$  sample and also in the  $\text{CoO}_{1.04}$  reference cobalt exists with a mixed II/III valence.

### 3.2 Catalytic Activity

The catalytic behavior was studied for the two cobalt-oxide powders,  $\text{YBaCo}_4\text{O}_{7.05}$  and  $\text{CoO}_{1.04}$ , in the oxidation process of cyclohexene with the  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  oxidant. The epoxidation of cyclohexene is a well-known reaction with two different reaction mechanisms, the radical route giving rise to 2-cyclohexen-1-ol and cyclohexene oxide via allylic oxidation through cyclohexenyl hydroperoxide, and the direct oxidation pathway to cyclohexene oxide and 1,2-cyclohexane-diol, after a subsequent ring-opening by

**Table 1** Product distribution for the catalytic oxidation of cyclohexene

Sample	Product distribution %				
	Epoxide	Ketone	Ether	Alcohol	Diol
YBaCo <sub>4</sub> O <sub>7+δ</sub>	71.1	5.0	10.9	0	12.9
P25	26.7	1.3	27.1	1.9	42.9
CoO <sub>1+δ</sub>	0	0	32.2	27.1	40.7

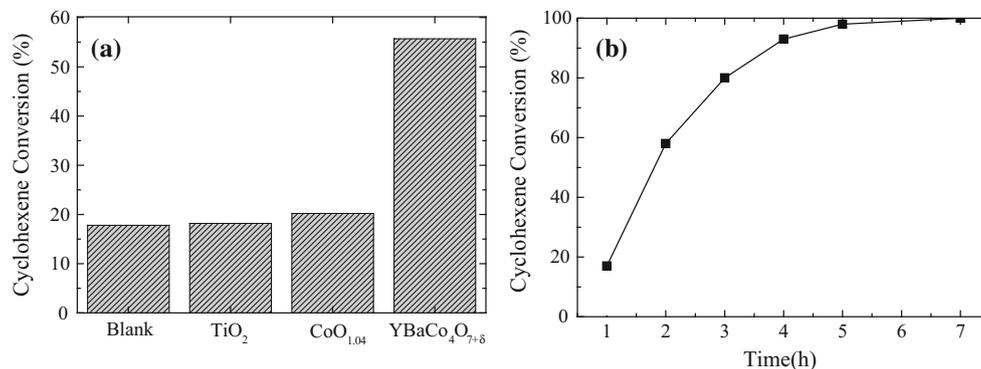
H<sub>2</sub>O present in the reaction media. For both the cobalt-oxide catalysts, the main reaction products were 2-cyclohexen-1-ol (alcohol), 2-cyclohexene-1-one (ketone), 1,2-cyclohexane-diol (diol) and its corresponding mono ether (ether), and cyclohexene oxide (epoxide), although the relative amounts of these components somewhat varied depending on the catalyst material and the catalytic conditions (reaction temperature and time). In Table 1, we summarize the composition of the reaction product for selected representative experiments.

The product distribution obtained for the different catalysts evaluated in the oxidation of cyclohexene suggests that the direct epoxidation mechanism must prevail over the radical mechanism, except for the CoO<sub>1+δ</sub> catalyst where the large proportion of 2-cyclohexen-1-ol suggests some contribution from the radical mechanism. Concerning the selectivity to the most valuable reaction product, the epoxide, YBaCo<sub>4</sub>O<sub>7+δ</sub> catalyst exhibits an exceptional behavior with a selectivity value as high as 71 %. This selectivity achieved using 1-propanol as a solvent and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> as an oxidant highly overpasses the selectivity for the reference sample, P25, with a value around 25 % and that of CoO<sub>1+δ</sub> with a value close to 0. The poor selectivity of the last two catalysts must be attributed to their high ability to hydrolyze the epoxide into the diol (high selectivity to 1,2-cyclohexane-diol), a process assisted by H<sub>2</sub>O introduced into the reaction media by aqueous 30 % H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>

solution and the decomposition of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. Apparently, allylic oxidation and ring-opening of the epoxide, the two major side reactions in the epoxidation of cyclohexene that are responsible for the low selectivity to the epoxide, are inhibited in the presence of the YBaCo<sub>4</sub>O<sub>7+δ</sub> catalyst.

To evaluate the catalytic performance of the different catalysts, Fig. 5a compares the catalytic conversion for the cyclohexene oxidation at 70 °C after a reaction time of 2 h. As it can be observed, not only the conventional transition-metal catalyst TiO<sub>2</sub> but also the binary cobalt-oxide CoO<sub>1.04</sub> exhibit a poor catalytic conversion efficiency (not much enhanced compared to the blank experiment). This is most likely due to the difficulties of these systems to activate/dissociate the O–O bond in H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, like also observed earlier with similar binary oxides [16]. Quite remarkably, for our complex cobalt oxide, YBaCo<sub>4</sub>O<sub>7+δ</sub>, a nearly three-fold increase in the catalytic conversion efficiency from 20 % to nearly 60 % was achieved. Moreover, as it can be observed in Fig. 5b, completely conversion of cyclohexene was achieved for YBaCo<sub>4</sub>O<sub>7+δ</sub> in 7 h. From these results it can be envisaged that YBaCo<sub>4</sub>O<sub>7+δ</sub> is an extraordinarily active catalyst for cyclohexene oxidation, and apparently even when H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> is used as the oxidant, with comparable values in terms of conversion and selectivity towards the epoxide to the best catalysts reported in the literature for transition metal based catalysts [40–42].

To further confirm the exceptional behavior of YBaCo<sub>4</sub>O<sub>7+δ</sub> as an oxidation catalyst, and more specifically in the activation of the H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> molecule, immersion calorimetry measurements were performed. Immersion calorimetry is a powerful technique to estimate the enthalpy of immersion of a liquid molecule on a solid surface; it depends on the surface area available to the liquid, the porosity of the solid and the specific interactions of the liquid molecule with the solid surface [43]. Taking into account that in heterogeneous catalysis the degree of the interaction between the reactants and the active sites determines the catalytic behavior, e.g. the activation of the oxidant [44], immersion

**Fig. 5** Cyclohexene conversion **a** for the different catalysts evaluated at 70 °C and after 2-h reaction time, and **b** for the YBaCo<sub>4</sub>O<sub>7+δ</sub> catalyst with increasing reaction time

**Table 2** Enthalpy of immersion for H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> on the different oxide catalysts evaluated

Sample	$-\Delta H_{\text{imm}}$ (J/g)
TiO <sub>2</sub>	17
CoO <sub>1.04</sub>	213
YBaCo <sub>4</sub> O <sub>7.05</sub>	>3137

calorimetry measurements into H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> were considered highly useful.

Our immersion calorimetric measurement data summarized in Table 2 show that commercial TiO<sub>2</sub> exhibits a small enthalpy of immersion into H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, thus suggesting a rather physisorption phenomena without specific liquid–solid interactions. The binary cobalt-oxide powder synthesized as a reference material exhibits a little higher enthalpy of immersion, thus reflecting the presence of specific interactions between H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> and the Co(II/III) species, in close agreement with the better catalytic behavior of Co versus Ti in oxidation reactions when using H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> as an oxidant. Most interestingly, for the complex cobalt oxide YBaCo<sub>4</sub>O<sub>7+δ</sub> the enthalpy of immersion exhibits a dramatic increase above the detection limit of the system. This extremely high enthalpy value clearly reflects the presence of associated reaction processes during the calorimetric analysis. At this point it is also important to mention that hydrogen peroxide decomposition measurements performed outside the calorimetric chamber confirmed the aforementioned findings: whereas the CoO<sub>1.04</sub> oxide produced essentially no reaction in the presence of hydrogen peroxide, incorporation of a small amount of YBaCo<sub>4</sub>O<sub>7+δ</sub> resulted in a vigorous exothermic reaction with a large oxygen evolution. After the reaction, the YBaCo<sub>4</sub>O<sub>7+δ</sub> powder was dried and measured with XRD to verify that it had not decomposed in the process. Moreover, the same catalyst powder sample was also repeatedly made in contact with a fresh batch of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> which resulted in a similar formation of gas and heat as in the initial experiment; this confirmed the reusability of YBaCo<sub>4</sub>O<sub>7+δ</sub> as a catalyst in the oxidation process.

#### 4 Conclusion

We have successfully demonstrated that the complex cobalt oxide, YBaCo<sub>4</sub>O<sub>7+δ</sub>, that is currently strongly emerging as a low-temperature oxygen-storage material works also as an exceptionally efficient catalyst in the oxidation of cyclohexene when hydrogen peroxide is employed as the oxidant. There would be several advantages related with environmental concerns if the commonly used peroxy acid oxidants could be replaced by the green hydrogen peroxide. Our results revealed that compared to e.g. the commercial TiO<sub>2</sub> catalyst, remarkably enhanced

catalytic activity was achieved with YBaCo<sub>4</sub>O<sub>7+δ</sub> for the oxidation process of cyclohexene with H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. In the 2-h reaction experiments it was three times more active (60 % conversion) than TiO<sub>2</sub> (<20 %), despite its much smaller surface area, and in the longer experiments essentially complete conversion of cyclohexene to reaction products was achieved with a high selectivity to the epoxide. Immersion calorimetry measurements showed that the high catalytic activity may be ascribed to the exceptional ability of YBaCo<sub>4</sub>O<sub>7+δ</sub> to activate H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> such that electrophilic oxygen is efficiently released; this active oxygen then provides the excellent oxidation capacity for hydrocarbons.

Most importantly, we foresee that our concept to employ an oxygen-nonstoichiometric redox-active transition-metal oxide as a catalyst in the environmentally benign oxidation reactions of hydrocarbons with hydrogen peroxide should be applicable to a range of nonstoichiometric transition metal oxide materials, thus opening new horizons in the science and technology of catalytic hydrocarbon oxidation processes.

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