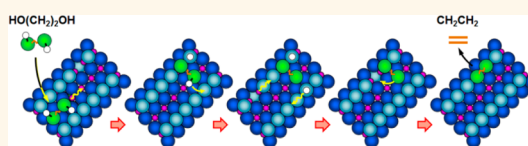


# Site-Specific Imaging of Elemental Steps in Dehydration of Diols on $\text{TiO}_2(110)$

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**ABSTRACT** Scanning tunneling microscopy is employed to follow elemental steps in conversion of ethylene glycol and 1,3-propylene glycol on partially reduced  $\text{TiO}_2(110)$  as a function of temperature. Mechanistic details about the observed processes are corroborated by density functional theory calculations. The use of these two diol reactants allows us to compare and contrast the chemistries of two



functionally similar molecules with different steric constraints, thereby allowing us to understand how molecular geometry may influence the observed chemical reactivity. We find that both glycols initially adsorb on Ti sites, where a dynamic equilibrium between molecularly bound and deprotonated species is observed. As the diols start to diffuse along the Ti rows above 230 K, they irreversibly dissociate upon encountering bridging oxygen vacancies. Surprisingly, two dissociation pathways, one *via* O–H and the other *via* C–O bond scission, are observed. Theoretical calculations suggest that the differences in the C–O/O–H bond breaking processes are the result of steric factors enforced upon the diols by the second Ti-bound OH group. Above  $\sim 400$  K, a new stable intermediate centered on the bridging oxygen ( $\text{O}_b$ ) row is observed. Combined experimental and theoretical evidence shows that this intermediate is most likely a new dioxo species. Further annealing leads to sequential C– $\text{O}_b$  bond cleavage and alkene desorption above  $\sim 500$  K. Simulations demonstrate that the sequential C– $\text{O}_b$  bond breaking process follows a homolytic diradical pathway, with the first C– $\text{O}_b$  bond breaking event accompanied with a nonadiabatic electron transfer within the  $\text{TiO}_2(110)$  substrate.

**KEYWORDS:** titanium dioxide · diols · scanning tunneling microscopy · adsorbate dynamics · dehydration

$\text{TiO}_2$  is well recognized as a highly versatile catalyst with applications in diverse areas including heterogeneous catalysis, photocatalysis, solar cells, gas sensors, white pigments in paints and cosmetic products, optical and antibacterial coatings, and others.<sup>1–3</sup> Additionally, it has been also widely employed in studies that focus on biomass conversion and utilization.<sup>4–12</sup> In this context  $\text{TiO}_2$  has shown promise both as the primary catalytic material and as the active support for metal and metal oxide clusters. Specifically, such systems have been shown to be effective in hydrogenation reactions of monosaccharides and biomass-derived carboxylic acids, oxidation of carbohydrates,<sup>4,5</sup> dehydroxylation of alcohols and polyols,<sup>6,7</sup> and thermal and photoelectrochemical production of hydrogen.<sup>8–12</sup> At a fundamental level, the bridging oxygen

vacancy defects on a rutile  $\text{TiO}_2(110)$  surface have proven to be an ideal model platform for the studies of catalytic reactions of reducible oxides where lattice oxygen directly takes part in the chemical transformations (Mars–van Krevelen type of reactions), such as dehydroxylation, that are critical in biomass processing.<sup>1–3,9,13</sup>

Due to a number of different functional groups present in biomass feedstock, its utilization is extremely complex and therefore hard to understand and optimize. As such, smaller molecules with prototypical functional groups are often used as surrogates to explore the mechanisms of catalytic deoxygenation reactions. In this context, the simplest polyols, such as ethylene glycol (EG), propylene glycols (PG), and glycerol, are often used as model probe molecules to understand the dehydroxylation,

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hydrogenation, and oxidation reactions that take place in biomass processing.<sup>14</sup>

While on single-crystalline oxide surfaces the reactivity of simple diols remains largely unexplored, EG has been studied extensively on single-crystalline metal surfaces.<sup>15–20</sup> On Ag(110), EG adsorbs reversibly but dissociates on a partially oxidized surface *via* O–H bond scission, forming ethylenedioxy ( $-\text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{O}-$ ) and water below room temperature.<sup>16</sup> The dissociated species undergo further decomposition *via* C–H bond cleavage, yielding glyoxal ( $(\text{CHO})_2$ ) and  $\text{H}_2$  at 380 K. On Mo(110), EG undergoes double C–O bond scission, forming ethylene gas at 350 K.<sup>18</sup> Using IR spectroscopy, two adsorption geometries (*i.e.*, monodentate ( $-\text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{OH}$ ) and bidentate ( $-\text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{O}-$ )) have been reported.<sup>18</sup> Most recently, a different bond breaking sequence was observed on Pt(111) and Ni/Pt(111) model catalysts.<sup>19</sup> On Pt(111), dissociation proceeds initially *via* O–H bond cleavage with subsequent scission of the C–H and second O–H bonds, whereas on the Ni/Pt surface, both O–H bonds are cleaved prior to C–H scission. Similarly on Rh(111) and Rh(100), both O–H bonds are cleaved and the ethylenedioxy species then further decomposes to CO and  $\text{H}_2$ .<sup>17,20</sup>

In contrast with metal surfaces, the thermal chemistry of glycols on oxide surfaces is not well understood.<sup>21–23</sup> In early work, EG was studied on stoichiometric and partially reduced  $\text{TiO}_2(110)$  using temperature-programmed desorption (TPD).<sup>21</sup> A stoichiometric surface was prepared by annealing the sample in an oxygen background pressure, and a reduced surface was created by electron beam irradiation. The observed products were EG, water, and ethylene. At higher temperatures, the main products were acetaldehyde, ethylene, and water with small amounts of ethanol and hydrogen also produced. Recently, we have also studied the coverage dependence of the reaction products from EG on a well-defined, partially reduced  $\text{TiO}_2(110)$ .<sup>23</sup> Ethylene and water were found to be the primary products for EG adsorbed both on bridging oxygen ( $\text{O}_b$ ) vacancy ( $\text{V}_\text{O}$ ) and 5-fold-coordinated Ti atoms ( $\text{Ti}_{5c}$ ) sites at low EG coverages ( $<0.2$  monolayer, ML). At higher EG coverages, a second reaction channel accounting for half of the reaction products, acetaldehyde and hydrogen, was also observed.

We have also employed scanning tunneling microscopy (STM) and density functional theory (DFT) to show that at very low coverages ( $<0.05$  ML) 1,3-propylene glycol (1,3-PG) preferentially dissociates at  $\text{V}_\text{O}$ 's at 300 K, forming nascent pairs of bridging hydroxy ( $\text{HO}_b$ ) and hydropropoxy ( $\text{O}_b(\text{CH}_2)_3\text{OH}$ ) species.<sup>24</sup> In these experiments we have also elucidated the rotational dynamics of the  $\text{O}_b(\text{CH}_2)_3\text{OH}$  species and the dissociation dynamics of the second  $\text{Ti}_{5c}$ -bound OH group.

EG was studied in detail on  $\text{CeO}_2(111)$  thin films.<sup>22</sup> On stoichiometric films, EG was found to dissociate *via*

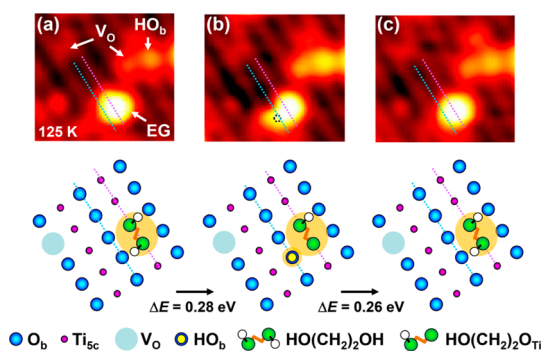
deprotonation of either one or both OH groups and form hydroxyethoxy/ethylenedioxy species and surface hydroxyls. After annealing, ethylenedioxy further decomposed into formate *via* C–C bond cleavage, ultimately yielding CO,  $\text{CO}_2$ , and  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  products in TPD. On the reduced surface, ethylenedioxy dehydrated *via* C–O bond cleavage to form enolate ( $\text{OCHCH}_2$ ), which ultimately yielded acetaldehyde, ethylene, and acetylene products.

In this study, we focus on following the complete sequence of elementary steps in the conversion of both EG and 1,3-PG with  $\text{TiO}_2(110)$  at low coverages, and as a function of temperature, using a combination of STM, TPD, and DFT. The use of these two diol reactants allows us to compare and contrast the chemistries of two functionally similar molecules with different steric constraints, thereby allowing us to understand how molecular geometry may influence the observed chemical reactivity. Our temperature-dependent studies provide evidence for O–H dissociation of  $\text{Ti}_{5c}$ -bound diols at temperatures as low as 125 K and diol diffusion to and dissociation in  $\text{V}_\text{O}$  sites *via* both C–O and O–H bond cleavage above  $\sim 230$  K; illustrate the dissociation dynamics of the second  $\text{Ti}_{5c}$ -bound OH group at 300 K; reveal the formation of a new high-temperature intermediate above  $\sim 400$  K; and identify alkenes and water as the only products (at low coverages) released into the gas phase. These studies clearly demonstrate that the simple dehydration reactions expected for these diols on  $\text{TiO}_2(110)$  proceed by an unexpectedly complex and rich series of reaction steps. These results provide an unprecedented level of quantitative, molecular-level detail on this hitherto poorly understood chemical reaction.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

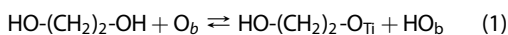
**Adsorption at Low Temperatures.** Figure 1 shows a time-lapse sequence of STM images of the same area after  $\text{TiO}_2(110)$  exposure to a small amount of EG at  $\sim 125$  K. The corresponding ball models displayed beneath the STM images illustrate the observed processes along with the energy barrier values,  $\Delta E$ , calculated using DFT. Typically, tunneling into empty states is employed to image  $\text{TiO}_2(110)$ .<sup>1,3,13</sup> In this mode, the rows of low-lying  $\text{Ti}_{5c}$  ions are imaged bright, whereas the rows of high-lying  $\text{O}_b$  ions are imaged dark, as seen in Figure 1. Further, the  $\text{V}_\text{O}$  defects (several labeled in Figure 1a) appear as faint protrusions on top of the dark  $\text{O}_b$  rows. A small amount of  $\text{HO}_b$  species is also generally observed as a result of water adsorption (from the chamber background) and dissociation on  $\text{V}_\text{O}$ 's,  $\text{H}_2\text{O}(\text{g}) + \text{V}_\text{O} + \text{O}_b \rightarrow 2\text{HO}_b$ .<sup>1,13</sup>

Subsequent to the EG dose at 125 K, large bright protrusions appeared in the STM images on the  $\text{Ti}_{5c}$  rows. One such feature is shown in Figure 1a (labeled EG). Although the thermodynamically preferred adsorption sites are  $\text{V}_\text{O}$ 's,<sup>24</sup> at low temperatures ( $<230$  K), under



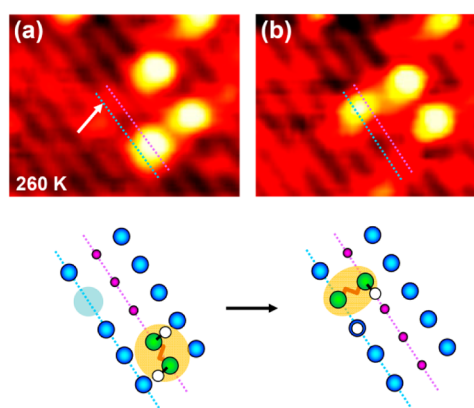
**Figure 1.** Time-lapse sequence of STM images of the same area on  $\text{TiO}_2(110)$  recorded 1 min apart after exposure to a small amount ( $\sim 0.01$  ML) of ethylene glycol (EG) at  $\sim 125$  K. The cyan and magenta dotted lines illustrate the positions of  $\text{O}_b$  and  $\text{Ti}_{5c}$  rows.  $\text{V}_o$ ,  $\text{HO}_b$ , and EG mark the positions of bridging oxygen vacancies, bridging hydroxyls, and ethylene glycol, respectively. Spacing of  $6.5 \text{ \AA}$  between the bright  $\text{Ti}_{5c}$  rows serves as a convenient scale in the images. Ball models below the images show the interpretation of the observed events. Yellow (white)-colored hydrogen atoms indicate that they are visible (invisible) in the STM. The energy barriers,  $\Delta E$ , for the observed processes were determined using DFT (see text for further details). An additional example is provided in the Supporting Information (SI) as Figure S4.

limited mobility conditions, the majority of EG molecules are found on  $\text{Ti}_{5c}$  rows, indicating that the abundant  $\text{Ti}_{5c}$  sites are the dominant initial adsorption sites. The sequence displayed in Figure 1 further shows that the  $\text{Ti}_{5c}$ -bound EG can easily dissociate *via* O–H bond cleavage, forming  $\text{Ti}_{5c}$ -bound hydroxyethoxy,  $\text{HO}-(\text{CH}_2)_2-\text{O}_{\text{Ti}}$  and bridging hydroxyl,  $\text{HO}_b$ , *via* the following reaction:



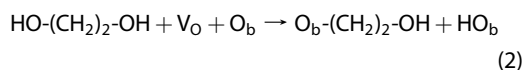
The STM of the observed  $\text{HO}-(\text{CH}_2)_2-\text{O}_{\text{Ti}} + \text{HO}_b$  pair is displayed in Figure 1b. In this image the originally symmetric EG molecule shows a new less bright feature on the lower left side of the original EG molecule. While the image in Figure 1b does not provide direct evidence for this particular reaction, prior studies (experimental and theoretical) of water,<sup>25,26</sup> alcohols,<sup>27</sup> and diols<sup>24,28</sup> convincingly demonstrated that the  $\text{Ti}_{5c}$ -bound O–H groups can easily dissociate *via* an acid/base reaction and hydrogen transfer to one of the neighboring  $\text{O}_b$  sites.<sup>13</sup> DFT calculations for EG further support this picture, as the value of the calculated dissociation barrier is only  $0.28 \text{ eV}$  with the dissociated state being practically identical in energy (higher by  $0.02 \text{ eV}$ ). The energetically close-to-degenerate nature of the molecular and dissociated state is further demonstrated by the last image (Figure 1c), which shows the re-formation of the EG molecule. Finally, DFT simulations find essentially identical energetics for the protonation/deprotonation barriers for 1,3-PG, indicating that the OH groups of both diols are influenced by adsorption on the  $\text{Ti}_{5c}$  by the same amount.

**Dissociation in Bridging Oxygen Vacancies.** To gain further insight into the dynamics of adsorbed species on  $\text{Ti}_{5c}$  rows, additional experiments were carried out at



**Figure 2.** Time-lapse sequence of STM images of the same area on  $\text{TiO}_2(110)$  after exposure to EG at  $\sim 260$  K. See Figure 1 for the legend. An additional example is provided in the SI as Figure S5.

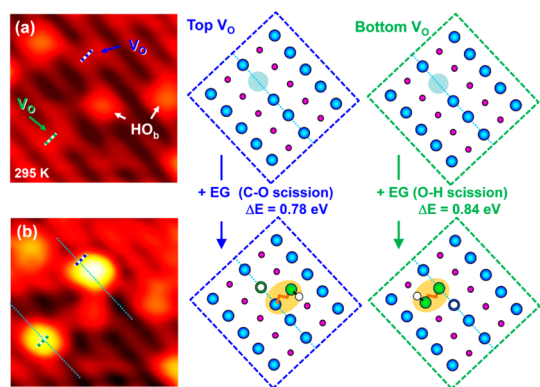
temperatures that allow for slow EG diffusion that is observable by STM. The onset of EG diffusion along the  $\text{Ti}_{5c}$  rows is observed at  $\sim 230$  K. Figure 2 shows a sequence of two STM images obtained at  $\sim 260$  K immediately after exposure to EG. Figure 2a exhibits three bright features due to EG molecules adsorbed on  $\text{Ti}_{5c}$  rows. The EG (bottom, center) on the marked  $\text{Ti}_{5c}$  row (dotted magenta line) is located adjacent to the  $\text{O}_b$  row (dotted cyan line) containing a  $\text{V}_o$  defect (white arrow). The subsequent STM image in Figure 2b shows that EG moved upward along the marked  $\text{Ti}_{5c}$  row and reacted on the  $\text{V}_o$  site. As demonstrated in our previous study of 1,3-PG on  $\text{TiO}_2(110)$  at  $300 \text{ K}$ ,<sup>24</sup> this reaction leads to irreversible O–H bond cleavage and formation of geminate pairs of hydroxyalkoxy,  $\text{O}_b-(\text{CH}_2)_n-\text{OH}$ , and hydroxy,  $\text{HO}_b$ , species on the same  $\text{O}_b$  row as shown in the ball model schematic for EG in Figure 2a. This reaction step can be summarized as follows:



Due to the lower brightness, the  $\text{HO}_b$  species cannot be observed next to the bright  $\text{O}_b-(\text{CH}_2)_2-\text{OH}$ , analogous to the case of  $\text{HO}_b$  next to the alkoxy species formed by the dissociation of larger aliphatic alcohols as reported previously.<sup>29,30</sup> It should be noted that in contrast with the  $\text{Ti}_{5c}$ -bound EG molecule (Figure 2a), which is positioned on top of the  $\text{Ti}_{5c}$  row, the  $\text{O}_b-(\text{CH}_2)_2-\text{OH}$  species is positioned between the  $\text{Ti}_{5c}$  and  $\text{O}_b$  rows. This is a consequence of strong binding of the second OH (in the  $\text{O}_b-(\text{CH}_2)_2-\text{OH}$ ) on the  $\text{Ti}_{5c}$  sites, as schematically shown in Figure 2b.

In addition to the dissociation of one EG, the image in Figure 2b also illustrates diffusion of the second EG (in the upper section of the image) downward by one lattice constant along the  $\text{Ti}_{5c}$  row.

In our prior studies of alcohols<sup>29–31</sup> we have shown that the initial alcohol dissociation on  $\text{V}_o$ 's occurs *via* O–H bond cleavage. Consequently, the bright alkoxy

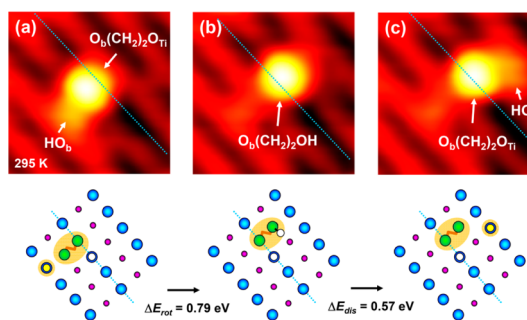


**Figure 3.** Room-temperature STM images of the same area on  $TiO_2(110)$  obtained (a) before and (b) after the exposure to EG at 295 K. The schematics on the right indicate the interpretation of the chemical processes observed in the images. The energy barriers,  $\Delta E$ , for the C–O and O–H dissociation processes were determined using DFT. See Figure 1 for the legend.

species containing the O atom from the alcohol molecule always appeared in the position of the original  $V_O$ . Similarly, we have reported for 1,3-PG dissociation that the majority (90%) of bright  $O_b-(CH_2)_3-OH$  features also appear in the positions of the original  $V_O$  sites, revealing that the dissociation occurs predominantly *via* O–H cleavage as well.<sup>24</sup>

Surprisingly, the situation is significantly different for EG, where only 40% of the bright  $O_b-(CH_2)_2-OH$  species are located on top of the original  $V_O$ 's. The remaining 60% appear on the neighboring  $O_b$ , as illustrated in Figure 3. Two  $O_b-(CH_2)_2-OH$  species are shown in Figure 3b following EG adsorption on clean  $TiO_2(110)$  (Figure 3a). While the bottom  $O_b-(CH_2)_2-OH$  (labeled green) is on top of the original  $V_O$ , the top  $O_b-(CH_2)_2-OH$  (blue) is displaced by one  $O_b$  along the  $O_b$  row. The interpretation presented in the blue schematics strongly suggests that on the blue  $V_O$  the EG molecule dissociated *via* C–O bond scission, forming the  $HO_b$  (not visible in the image) that contains the O atom from the molecule on top of the original  $V_O$  and the bright  $O_b-(CH_2)_2-OH$  displaced by one  $O_b$ . A closer comparison of the O–H bond (green) and C–O (blue) bond cleavage scenarios in the schematics reveals that the final surface intermediates (and the initial reactants) are the same for both cases, and therefore the reaction pathways are entirely controlled by the relative kinetic barriers for O–H and C–O bond scission. Our studies of alcohols and diols clearly show that the C–O scission is too high in energy to be accessed for alcohols, becomes a minority channel for 1,3-PG (~10%) and majority channel for EG, indicating that the proximity of the second OH in the molecule is critical.

To gain further understanding of the underlying dissociation mechanisms, we turn to theoretical simulations. The dissociation barriers for O–H and C–O bond scission are determined by DFT to be 0.84 and 0.78 eV for EG and 0.74 and 0.98 eV for 1,3-PG,

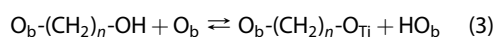


**Figure 4.** Time-lapse sequence of STM images of the same area on  $TiO_2(110)$  obtained after the exposure to EG at 295 K. The schematics below the images indicate the interpretation of the chemical processes observed in the images. The energy barriers for the  $O_b-(CH_2)_2-OH$  dissociation ( $\Delta E_{dis}$ ) and rotation ( $\Delta E_{rot}$ ) were determined using DFT (see text for further details). See Figure 1 for the legend. An additional example is provided in the SI as Figure S7.

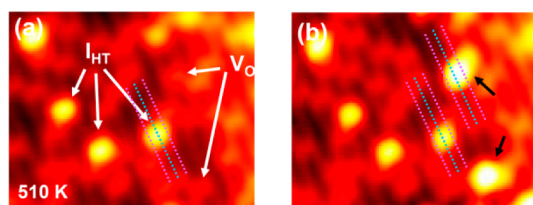
respectively. Both reactions lead to equivalent minima, which are lower in energy by 1.18 and 1.61 eV relative to EG and 1,3-PG chemisorbed on a  $Ti_{5c}$  row. These values are in agreement with the experimentally observed trends showing that for EG both C–O and O–H bond scission are kinetically similar, whereas for 1,3-PG O–H scission is expected to be the dominant pathway. Detailed analysis of the dissociation pathways shows that differences in the C–O scission for EG and 1,3-PG are primarily the result of geometric rather than electronic factors. While the longer 1,3-PG molecule can be bound with one OH group on the  $Ti_{5c}$  row and reach a  $V_O$  site with the other OH without inducing a significant strain, in the shorter EG, the C–O bond is being stretched and weakened as the  $V_O$  is reached. As a consequence, the barrier for C–O cleavage in EG is significantly lowered.

**Room-Temperature Dynamics of  $O_b-(CH_2)_n-OH$  Species.** In our previous room-temperature study of 1,3-PG we have shown that  $O_b-(CH_2)_3-OH$  exhibits a complex dynamics in terms of both the hindered rotational motion about its  $O_b$  anchor and the dissociation of its second  $Ti_{5c}$ -bound OH group.<sup>24</sup> The dynamics observed for  $O_b-(CH_2)_2-OH$  (formed by EG dissociation) are similar, and for completeness are summarized here in Figure 4.

The image in Figure 4a shows two features on two neighboring  $O_b$  rows,  $O_b-(CH_2)_2-O_{Ti}$  and  $HO_b$ . These features formed as a result of the dissociation of the  $Ti_{5c}$ -bound hydroxyl group of  $O_b-(CH_2)_2-OH$  species according to the following reaction:



This process is analogous to the OH dissociation of the  $Ti_{5c}$ -bound EG shown in Figure 1 and reaction 1. The DFT calculations show that the energy barriers for reaction 3 are 0.57 and 0.26 eV for  $O_b-(CH_2)_2-OH$  and  $O_b-(CH_2)_3-OH$ , respectively. The larger value for  $O_b-(CH_2)_2-OH$  is a consequence of the increased



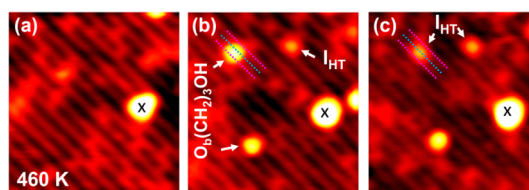
**Figure 5.** Room-temperature STM images of the same area on  $\text{TiO}_2(110)$  obtained (a) after the exposure to EG at 295 K and 2 min annealing at 510 K and (b) after an additional dose of EG ( $\sim 0.01$  ML) at 295 K.

distance between the OH group and the  $\text{O}_b$  row where hydrogen is being transferred to. While the second hydrogen from the geminate  $\text{HO}_b$  is not seen in the STM images in Figure 4, it is likely positioned on one of the  $\text{O}_b$ 's next to the  $\text{O}_b$  anchoring the  $\text{O}_b\text{-(CH}_2)_2\text{-OH}$  and/or  $\text{O}_b\text{-(CH}_2)_2\text{-O}_{\text{Ti}}$  species, as shown in the schematics of Figure 4.<sup>24</sup> Interestingly, in Figure 4b the  $\text{HO}_b$  disappears from the neighboring  $\text{O}_b$  row, indicating reformation of  $\text{O}_b\text{-(CH}_2)_2\text{-OH}$  species and demonstrating the dynamic equilibrium indicated in reaction 3. This event is subsequently followed by another dissociation process on a different  $\text{O}_b$  row, as illustrated in Figure 4c. The complete reaction sequence containing additional events was recorded as an STM movie, which is provided in the SI as Figure S6.

In addition to the dissociation of  $\text{O}_b\text{-(CH}_2)_2\text{-OH}$  species, the images in Figure 4a and b also illustrate the rotation of the  $\text{HO-(CH}_2)_2\text{-O}_b$  about the anchoring  $\text{O}_b$  site. In this process the alkyl chain with the  $\text{Ti}_{5c}$ -bound OH group rotates between the two equivalent  $\text{Ti}_{5c}$  rows that are neighboring the anchoring  $\text{O}_b$  row (dotted cyan line in Figure 4). The theoretically determined values for the rotational barriers for  $\text{O}_b\text{-(CH}_2)_2\text{-OH}$  and  $\text{O}_b\text{-(CH}_2)_3\text{-OH}$  are 0.79 and 0.95 eV. The lower rotational barrier for the  $\text{O}_b\text{-(CH}_2)_2\text{-OH}$  species is caused by a shorter chain length, which allows only for the formation of a weaker bond between the OH oxygen and  $\text{Ti}_{5c}$  site. The DFT studies further show that the cross-row rotations of  $\text{O}_b\text{-(CH}_2)_2\text{-O}_{\text{Ti}}$  and  $\text{O}_b\text{-(CH}_2)_3\text{-O}_{\text{Ti}}$  are much higher in energy, with barriers on the order of 2.5 eV in both cases.

**High-Temperature Intermediate.** To further understand the transformations that the  $\text{O}_b\text{-(CH}_2)_n\text{-OH}$  and  $\text{O}_b\text{-(CH}_2)_n\text{-O}_{\text{Ti}}$  intermediates undergo at higher temperatures ( $>400$  K), we have carried room temperature imaging following the annealing to elevated temperatures as well as a direct high temperature imaging during the dose.

The results of the imaging after annealing the preadsorbed EG at 510 K are shown in Figure 5a. The image shows three bright features marked as high-temperature intermediate,  $\text{I}_{\text{HT}}$ . The appearance of the  $\text{I}_{\text{HT}}$  in the images is significantly different from the  $\text{O}_b\text{-(CH}_2)_2\text{-OH}$  and  $\text{O}_b\text{-(CH}_2)_2\text{-O}_{\text{Ti}}$  species that are observed directly after adsorption between 230 and 300 K. While the  $\text{O}_b\text{-(CH}_2)_2\text{-OH}$  and  $\text{O}_b\text{-(CH}_2)_2\text{-O}_{\text{Ti}}$  species are



**Figure 6.** Time-lapse sequence of STM images of the same area on  $\text{TiO}_2(110)$  obtained at 460 K: (a) clean surface, (b) surface after 1,3-PG adsorption, and (c) after an additional 6 min of scanning. The large feature (possibly a  $\text{TiO}_x$  cluster) labeled with  $\times$  was used to track the same area at high temperatures. An additional example is provided in the SI as Figure S9.

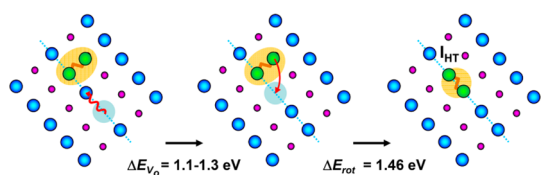
centered between the  $\text{O}_b$  and  $\text{Ti}_{5c}$  row (see Figures 3 and 4), the  $\text{I}_{\text{HT}}$ 's are centered on top of the  $\text{O}_b$  row. This can be clearly seen on the feature that is overlaid with the position of the  $\text{O}_b$  (cyan dotted line) and neighboring  $\text{Ti}_{5c}$  (magenta) rows.

To further evaluate the differences in the appearance of  $\text{I}_{\text{HT}}$  and  $\text{O}_b\text{-(CH}_2)_2\text{-OH/O}_b\text{-(CH}_2)_2\text{-O}_{\text{Ti}}$  features, we have imaged the same area after an additional EG dose at 295 K. Two new  $\text{O}_b\text{-(CH}_2)_2\text{-OH}$  features appear in Figure 5b (marked by black arrows) as a result of EG dissociation in the  $\text{V}_\text{O}$ 's (labeled in Figure 5a). The direct comparison in the same image further demonstrates that the  $\text{O}_b\text{-(CH}_2)_2\text{-OH}$  species are brighter and larger in size.

Similar conclusions to those presented above can be drawn based on the direct high-temperature imaging during 1,3-PG dosing at 460 K (Figure 6). A time-lapse video from the same area is provided in the SI as Figure S8. Three images presented in Figure 6 illustrate the dissociation of 1,3-PG on  $\text{V}_\text{O}$ 's (Figure 6b) with subsequent conversion of the  $\text{O}_b\text{-(CH}_2)_3\text{-OH/O}_b\text{-(CH}_2)_3\text{-O}_{\text{Ti}}$  species to the  $\text{I}_{\text{HT}}$  intermediate (Figure 6c). In addition to the  $\text{I}_{\text{HT}}$  formation, the high-temperature imaging also shows that  $\text{O}_b\text{-(CH}_2)_3\text{-OH/O}_b\text{-(CH}_2)_3\text{-O}_{\text{Ti}}$  and  $\text{I}_{\text{HT}}$  species do not diffuse at 460 K. The facile motion of  $\text{V}_\text{O}$ 's (as well as  $\text{HO}_b$  hydrogen) can be seen in the time-lapse video (Figures S8), in agreement with our previous quantitative studies of their diffusion.<sup>32,33</sup>

The time-lapse video also shows a lack of rotational motion for extended periods of time, indicating that the observed species are mostly in the form of  $\text{O}_b\text{-(CH}_2)_3\text{-O}_{\text{Ti}}$  and not  $\text{O}_b\text{-(CH}_2)_3\text{-OH}$  species. This is not surprising considering the ease of  $\text{O}_b\text{-(CH}_2)_3\text{-OH}$  dissociation according to reaction 3 demonstrated at lower temperatures (230–295 K) and the high mobility of the  $\text{HO}_b$  hydrogen, allowing for its spatial separation from the  $\text{O}_b\text{-(CH}_2)_3\text{-O}_{\text{Ti}}$  species. Occasional cross- $\text{O}_b$  row rotation is observed as a result of the  $\text{O}_b\text{-(CH}_2)_3\text{-O}_{\text{Ti}}$  reaction with fast moving  $\text{HO}_b$  hydrogen, leading to rotationally active  $\text{O}_b\text{-(CH}_2)_3\text{-OH}$  species.

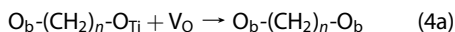
While the experiments do not allow us to determine the chemical identity of the  $\text{I}_{\text{HT}}$  species, they clearly indicate their high stability and long lifetime. Using the observations presented here and our prior studies



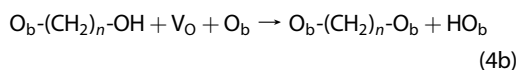
**Figure 7.** Proposed identity and mechanism of the formation for the  $I_{HT}$  intermediate. The energy barriers for  $V_O$  diffusion ( $\Delta E_{V_O}$ ) and  $O_b-(CH_2)_2-O_{Ti}$  rotation ( $\Delta E_{rot}$ ) were determined using DFT (see text for further details). See Figure 1 for the legend.

of  $V_O$  diffusion<sup>32</sup> as well as  $V_O$ -assisted alkoxy diffusion,<sup>34</sup> we propose that the formation of  $I_{HT}$  is assisted by  $V_O$ 's as illustrated in Figure 7. In the proposed mechanism, the first step is  $V_O$  diffusion toward the  $O_b-(CH_2)_2-O_{Ti}$  species (Figure 7a). We have determined previously (both experimentally and theoretically) that the barrier for  $V_O$  diffusion along the  $O_b$  row is 1.1–1.3 eV, allowing for fast diffusion above  $\sim 400$  K. This can be clearly observed in the time-lapse video in Figure S8.

The second step in the mechanism is the rotation of the  $Ti_{5c}$ -bound dioxo group about the  $O_b$  anchor into the empty  $O_b$  site created by the diffusing  $V_O$ , as schematically shown in Figure 7b. This results in the formation of a new dioxo intermediate that is bound to two neighboring  $O_b$  sites (Figure 7c). This process can be summarized by the following reaction:

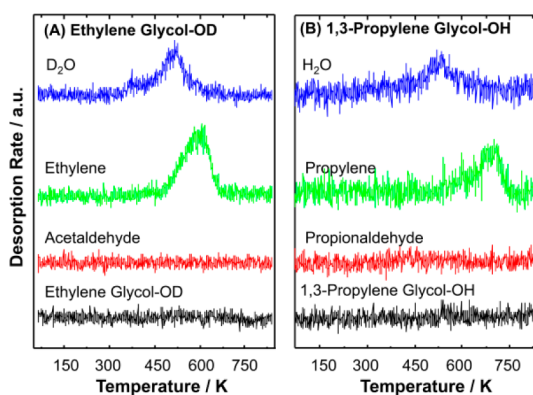


Alternatively, the  $O_b-(CH_2)_n-O_{Ti}$  intermediate can react with a diffusing hydrogen atom to form  $O_b-(CH_2)_n-OH$  according to reverse reaction 3, and the  $O_b-(CH_2)_n-OH$  species can subsequently rotate and fill the neighboring  $V_O$ :



The energetics of the reaction pathways summarized in reactions 4a and 4b were further studied *via* DFT. The  $V_O$  migration toward the bound glycol was found to have activation energy barriers of 1.1–1.3 eV (depending on where the excess electrons associated with the  $V_O$  site were located), in accord with our previous studies.<sup>32,34</sup> The activation energy barriers for  $O_b-(CH_2)_2-O_{Ti}$  and  $O_b-(CH_2)_2-OH$  rotation into the neighboring  $V_O$  were found to be 1.46 and 0.52 eV, respectively. Analogously, for  $O_b-(CH_2)_3-O_{Ti}$  and  $O_b-(CH_2)_3-OH$  the barriers are 1.18 and 0.68 eV, respectively, indicating that all these processes can indeed be facile around 500 K.

It should be noted that while the barriers for the reaction of oxohydroxo species,  $O_b-(CH_2)_n-OH$ , into  $V_O$  are very low, the reaction is in fact a three-body process ( $O_b-(CH_2)_2-O_{Ti} + V_O + HO_b$ ), and as such, the rates for this reaction will be fairly low.

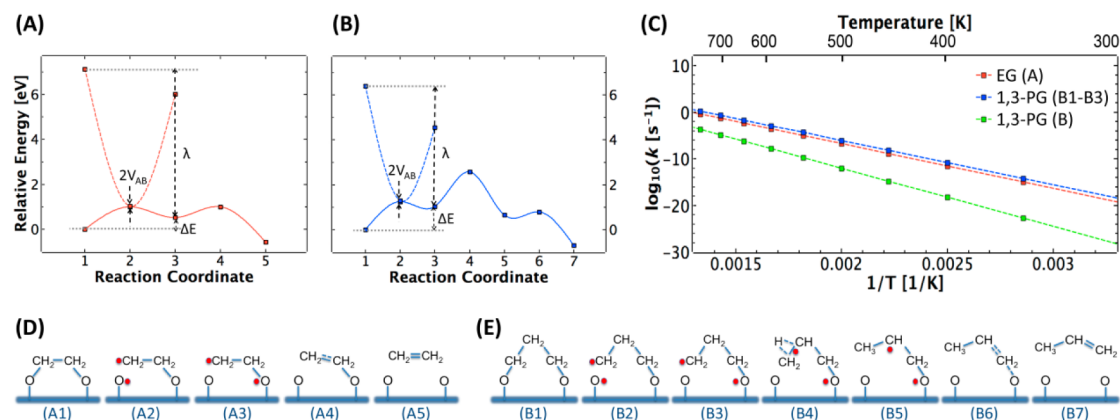


**Figure 8.** TPD spectra of the desorbing species observed following the 0.05 ML dose of (A) ethylene glycol-OD and (B) propylene glycol-OH at 90 K. The desorption of EG-OD was monitored at 32 amu, which is the most intense cracking fragment. Desorption of  $D_2O$  at 20 amu, ethylene ( $CH_2CH_2$ ) at 27 amu, and acetaldehyde ( $CH_3CHO$ ) at 29 amu.<sup>23</sup> The desorption of 1,3-PG-OH was monitored at 31 amu, which is the most intense cracking fragment. Desorption of  $H_2O$  at 18 amu, propylene ( $CH_2CHCH_3$ ) at 41 amu, and propionaldehyde ( $CH_3CH_2CHO$ ) at 58 amu.

**Gas Phase Products.** The final step in the conversion of  $EG^{23}$  and 1,3-PG at low coverages is the formation and liberation of gas phase products from the  $O_b-(CH_2)_n-O_b$  species. To follow the product desorption, we employed TPD. As shown in Figure 8, the only products observed for coverages that correspond to saturation of  $V_O$ 's by EG and/or 1,3-PG are water and ethylene and/or water and propylene, respectively. Water is the first product observed between 450 and 550 K. This temperature range is below the alkene evolution temperature and is the same as the temperature for the recombinative desorption of  $H_2O$  from two  $HO_b$  species,  $2HO_b \rightarrow H_2O(g) + V_O$ .<sup>35,36</sup> The origin of hydrogen atoms in water that formed is further revealed by experiments with deuterium-labeled hydroxyl groups in EG,  $DO-(CH_2)_2-OD$ , as shown in Figure 8a. The experiments clearly show only  $D_2O$  formation (not  $H_2O$ ), which demonstrates that hydrogen originates from the cleavage of the glycol hydroxyl groups and not CH groups. This is also supported by our STM observation of the EG and 1,3-PG OH group dissociation and  $HO_b$  formation at lower temperatures presented in Figures 1–4.

The only observed carbon-containing products are ethylene and propylene from EG and 1,3-PG, respectively. While ethylene desorption peaks at  $\sim 600$  K (Figure 8a), propylene is observed at  $\sim 700$  K (Figure 8b).

Theoretically, we first describe the simpler results for the product formation from EG. We observe that the desorption of ethylene from the  $O_b$ -bound dioxo,  $O_b-(CH_2)_2-O_b$ , species has an extremely high barrier ( $>4.0$  eV) when both C–O bounds are broken simultaneously. This is in accord with the fact that this process is essentially a 2+2 cycloaddition and is symmetry forbidden based on Woodward–Hoffmann rules.<sup>37</sup>



**Figure 9.** Desorption energy profile of EG (A) and 1,3-PG (B) including an excited state potential energy surface for the first step. The desorption rates shown in (C) include nonadiabatic coupling for EG (blue) and 1,3-PG (red) along with the overall desorption rate of 1,3-PG (green) obtained from TST. Parameters from Marcus theory used to estimate the rates of electron transfer processes (indicated in the figure) are estimated by charge-constrained DFT simulations (see SI for further discussion). Schematics illustrating desorption mechanisms for EG and 1,3-PG are shown in (D) and (E).

On the other hand, sequential homolytic cleavage of C–O bonds exhibits a barrier on the order of only 1.0 eV, as shown in Figure 9A. On the basis of a transition state theory (TST) estimate of the reaction rate, this energy barrier would yield a desorption temperature of  $\sim 360$  K, which is appreciably lower than  $\sim 600$  K observed experimentally. This discrepancy can be resolved by noting that the first C–O<sub>b</sub> bond scission results in unpaired electron density on the O<sub>b</sub> (Figure 9D, panel A2), which would correspond to a localized radical state or hole state. In order to facilitate the second CO bond cleavage event, the hole state needs to migrate to the adjacent O<sub>b</sub> site *via* a charge transfer event (A2  $\rightarrow$  A3), which shifts the localized unpaired electron density onto the O<sub>b</sub> site where the second (as yet undissociated) C–O<sub>b</sub> bond resides. As noted previously,<sup>38</sup> the hole migration processes of this geometrical arrangement in rutile TiO<sub>2</sub> are nonadiabatic in nature and thus are kinetically hindering. Indeed this observation is supported by the current calculations, which find a close lying excited state (*i.e.*, within 0.1 eV) at the transition state of the first CO bond cleavage event, which would also imply a strong nonadiabatic component to the reaction kinetics.<sup>39</sup>

These observations lead us to propose a coupled C–O bond breaking/electron transfer reaction as one of the steps in the formation of both ethylene and propylene. As described, ethylene desorption mechanistically occurs by two sequential C–O bond breaking steps where only the first one exhibits a small separation between the ground and excited state at the transition state and hence is anticipated to have a large nonadiabatic component to the reaction rate.

To evaluate the kinetic parameters for the proposed mechanism (Figure 9D), we employed Marcus theory for describing the nonadiabatic charge transfer steps and TST for the adiabatic steps (see SI for further discussion). For the first C–O bond breaking step, two

different adiabatic pathways can be defined by monitoring the position of the resulting radical electron on O<sub>b</sub> sites yielding two adiabatic surfaces as illustrated in Figure 9A. The nonadiabatic reaction rate for the electron transfer estimated from Marcus theory is shown in Figure 9C (red). The determination of the required parameters, namely, the reaction energy,  $\Delta E$ ; reorganization energy,  $\lambda$  (calculated from constrained DFT); and electron coupling,  $V_{AB}$  (calculated from both constrained DFT and time-dependent density functional theory with the time-dependent fast Fourier transform), is described in the SI. Generally, typical values of the rate constants in TPD at the peak desorption temperature are on the order of 0.1 ML/s. Factoring in the nonadiabatic effects on the reaction kinetics, the rate constant for EG (Figure 9C, red) reaches 0.1 ML/s at  $\sim 700$  K in reasonable agreement with the experiment.

For 1,3-PG, the overall mechanism is slightly more complex (Figure 9B and E) compared to EG, as it involves an additional H transfer step (Figure 9E, B3  $\rightarrow$  B5). The initial steps (B1  $\rightarrow$  B3), which include the first C–O bond cleavage and e<sup>−</sup> transfer, are identical with that for EG and yield a similar rate constant (Figure 9C, blue). We note, however, that the H transfer step represents an overall rate-limiting step (distinct from EG) hindered by an additional 1.5 eV barrier that has to be surmounted before propylene desorption. Using TST we estimate that the rate constant from this sequential C–O bond breaking and H-transfer process (Figure 9C, green) is on the order of 0.1 ML/s around 750–800 K. A higher desorption temperature as compared to ethylene is in agreement with our TPD measurements, where EG is observed at 600 K and PG at 700 K.

## CONCLUSIONS

In summary, our study provides the first examination of diol dehydration on metal oxide surfaces with a detailed quantitative mechanistic evaluation of the

individual underlying molecular-level steps. In contrast to alcohols, where previous work has shown a simple concerted heterolytic C–O bond breaking/ $\beta$ -H proton transfer step to produce alkenes,<sup>40,41</sup> the formation of alkenes from diols proceeds *via* a relatively complex series of correlated reaction steps. We show that Ti<sub>5c</sub> site bound O–H groups of both molecularly adsorbed glycols and dissociated oxohydroxo intermediates can easily dissociate and re-form, thus forming a dynamic equilibrium. The irreversible dissociation of molecularly bound glycols that occurs in bridging oxygen vacancies is found to proceed *via* two competitive channels involving C–O and/or O–H bond scission. The comparison of EG and 1,3-PG yields a

molecular-level understanding of how steric effects introduced by the second, Ti<sub>5c</sub>-bound OH can weaken the C–O bond and thereby facilitate its cleavage. At elevated temperatures (>400 K), formation of a new intermediate is observed and interpreted to be a result of the reaction of diffusing V<sub>O</sub> with the Ti<sub>5c</sub>-bound oxygen of the dioxo/oxohydroxo species. The final step, the formation of alkenes, as the only C-containing gas phase products is found to proceed *via* sequential homolytic C–O bond cleavage accompanied by nonadiabatic electron transfer. As such, the observed behavior points to an extremely rich and heretofore unanticipated chemistry of glycols on oxides.

## METHODS

**Experimental Details.** The experiments were performed in two separate ultrahigh-vacuum (UHV) systems: (1) a scanning tunneling microscopy system for spatially resolved imaging and (2) a molecular beam system for TPD studies. The systems are briefly described below.

The STM experiments were carried out in a UHV chamber (base pressure  $\leq 1 \times 10^{-10}$  Torr) equipped with an Omicron variable-temperature STM. Well-ordered, partially reduced rutile TiO<sub>2</sub>(110)-(1  $\times$  1) surfaces were prepared by repeated cycles of Ne<sup>+</sup> sputtering and 900 K annealing of the single-crystalline TiO<sub>2</sub> sample (10  $\times$  2  $\times$  0.5 mm<sup>3</sup>, Princeton Scientific). The surface order and cleanliness were checked using low-energy electron diffraction (LEED) and Auger electron spectroscopy (AES). Electrochemically etched and UHV-annealed tungsten tips were used for imaging. All STM images were recorded in constant-current mode at a positive sample bias of 1.2–1.6 V and tunneling currents of 5–80 pA and processed using WSxM software (Nanotech, freeware).<sup>42</sup> The concentration of V<sub>O</sub>'s on the samples ranged from 0.03 to 0.09 monolayer. Ethylene glycol (Sigma-Aldrich,  $\geq 99.8\%$ ) and 1,3-propylene glycol (Sigma-Aldrich,  $\geq 97\%$ ) were purified by several freeze–pump–thaw cycles using liquid nitrogen and dosed on TiO<sub>2</sub>(110) in the STM stage *via* a retractable tube doser. In all STM experiments, the EG coverage was kept very low ( $\sim 0.01$  ML) to keep the observed molecules isolated.

The TPD experiments were conducted in a UHV molecular beam surface scattering apparatus (base pressure  $< 1 \times 10^{-10}$  Torr) equipped with AES, LEED, X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS), a quartz crystal microbalance (QCM, XTM/2-Inficon), and a quadrupole mass spectrometer (QMS, UTI-100C) for TPD studies. The rutile TiO<sub>2</sub>(110)-1  $\times$  1 crystal (10  $\times$  10  $\times$  1 mm<sup>3</sup>, Princeton Scientific) was bonded with ceramic glue (Aremco Ultra-Temp 516) onto a Ta plate as described in our earlier publication.<sup>43</sup> The temperature (70–900 K) was measured using a thermocouple glued to the edge of the crystal. The TPD spectra (90–800 K, 1.0 K/s) were taken with the crystal in a line-of-sight geometry with the QMS. The initial surface cleaning procedure comprised cycles of Ne<sup>+</sup> sputtering (1.5 kV, 10  $\mu$ A) at 300 K and subsequent annealing at 850–900 K for 5–10 min until a clean and ordered TiO<sub>2</sub>(110)-1  $\times$  1 surface was obtained based on AES, XPS, and LEED. To maintain the clean surface, a brief, 3 min sputtering at 300 K followed by 5 min of annealing at 850 K was used on a daily basis. Reproducibility of the surface structure was further confirmed using the H<sub>2</sub>O TPD line shape.<sup>44</sup> The V<sub>O</sub> concentration of  $\sim 5\%$  was determined based on the ratio of water recombination desorption peak area at  $\sim 500$  K to the monolayer desorption peak at 284 K.<sup>44,45</sup> Ethylene glycols (ethylene glycol 99.8%, ethylene glycol-(OD)<sub>2</sub>, ethylene-D<sub>4</sub> glycol 98%) and 1,3-propylene glycol ( $\geq 97\%$ ) were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich and transferred into round-bottom flasks with baked molecular sieves (to remove water). Before introducing

into the chamber, the diols were pumped at room temperature to further minimize the effect of water and then stabilized in a water bath (318 K) for  $\sim 2$  h. The gas lines were heated to avoid the condensation of the molecules. The molecules were dosed onto the substrate using an effusive molecular beam; the fluxes of the molecules were constant as measured by a QCM and determined by the TPD experiment, allowing us to precisely control the dose.<sup>45</sup>

**Computational Details.** Calculations were carried out employing DFT with a gradient-corrected functional for exchange and correlation<sup>46</sup> as implemented in the CP2K package.<sup>47,48</sup> Core electrons are modeled as norm-conserving pseudopotentials.<sup>49</sup> The wave functions were expanded in a molecularly optimized double- $\zeta$  Gaussian basis set to minimize basis set superposition errors.<sup>50</sup> An additional auxiliary plane wave basis of 300 Ry energy cutoff was used for the calculation of the electrostatic energy terms. Dispersion forces, typically not well modeled by gradient-corrected functionals, are included by the DFT-D method of Grimme,<sup>51</sup> which we have shown previously to provide a good description for the conformational structure and dynamics for alkyl chains of octoxy species on TiO<sub>2</sub>(110).<sup>30</sup> All surface reactions were modeled on a (6  $\times$  3) rutile-TiO<sub>2</sub>(110) surface slab of 4 TiO<sub>2</sub> trilayers' depth and a 12 Å thick vacuum layer to minimize electrostatic interactions between periodic images in the direction of the surface normal. Finally, the  $\Gamma$ -point approximation was employed for Brillouin zone integration. The energies of selected reaction steps were checked for convergence with respect to TiO<sub>2</sub> slab thickness and DFT-D description and were found to be converged within 0.1 eV. For an accurate description of excess electrons associated with the V<sub>O</sub>, DFT+U theory<sup>52</sup> is used with effective  $U = 4.1$  eV applied to the Ti 3d electrons within a local spin density approximation. This value of  $U$  is adopted, as it was found to adequately reproduce the work function,  $W = 4.9$  eV,<sup>53</sup> and location of defect states at 0.8 eV below the conduction band.<sup>54</sup> See extended discussion of the choice of  $U$  parameter included in the SI.

Calculation of all reaction coordinates was performed using the climbing image nudged-elastic-band method (CI-NEB)<sup>55,56</sup> employing 12 replicas. Minimization of our CI-NEB was performed by *ab initio* molecular dynamics, where each replica of the NEB is given an initial temperature of 500 K and annealed to 0 K over a time scale of 1–2 ps, leading to a residual maximum component to the forces on the atoms of less than  $1 \times 10^{-3}$  atomic units. This approach allows us to explore the nearby configurations in phase space to obtain a path that may be substantially different (and lower in energy) than our initial conditions but does not guarantee that we have the absolute lowest energy path connecting two intermediates.

For the consideration of the impact of the nonadiabatic dynamics associated with the charge transfer processes we employ a Marcus theory<sup>39,57,58</sup> description for the estimation of



reaction rate constants. Within this theory, the reaction rate includes nonadiabatic coupling charge transfer processes such as found for the first C–O bond scission leading to the formation of ethylene and propylene. Within this approach, the reaction rate can be obtained by the formula

$$k = \frac{2\pi}{\hbar} |V_{AB}| \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi\lambda k_B T}} \exp\left[\frac{-(\Delta E + \lambda)^2}{4\lambda k_B T}\right]$$

where  $V_{AB}$  is the electronic coupling,  $\Delta E$  is the energy difference of two states, and  $\lambda$  is the reorganization energy. In order to obtain these parameters introduced in the Marcus formula, time-dependent density functional theory (TDDFT)<sup>59,60</sup> with the time-dependent fast Fourier transform (TDDFT) and constraint DFT (cDFT)<sup>61,62</sup> calculations are performed. A detailed discussion of the performance of the two approaches is given in the SI.

**Conflict of Interest:** The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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**Supporting Information Available:** Selection of  $U$  parameter used in DFT+ $U$  calculations; determination of desorption parameters from nonadiabatic Marcus theory; STM movies illustrating the dissociation and rotation of the  $O_b-(CH_2)_2-OH$  species and formation of the high-temperature  $O_b-(CH_2)_2-O_b$  intermediate; additional examples of processes illustrated in Figures 1, 2, 4, and 6; Cartesian coordinates of all intermediates and transition states obtained via DFT. This material is available free of charge via the Internet at <http://pubs.acs.org>.

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