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Study of the Local Structure and Oxidation State of Iron in Complex Oxide Catalysts for Propylene Ammoxidation

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Iron molybdate plays crucial role in the complex oxide catalysts used for selective oxidation and ammoxidation of hydrocarbons but its structural and electronic properties, and their changes in the process of the reaction are poorly understood. A combined use of Raman, X-ray absorption, and UV-visible spectroscopies was applied to investigate a commercial catalyst as a function of the reaction time.

The results show that an iron-containing compound has existed as predominantly ferric molybdate in the fresh catalyst, which reduced progressively in the process of reaction and formed predominantly ferrous molybdate. The irreversible transformation from Fe\textsubscript{2}(MoO\textsubscript{4})\textsubscript{3} toward FeMoO\textsubscript{4} was accompanied by formation of small amount of Fe\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{3}. These two processes observed in our experiment shed light on the deactivation mechanism of this complex catalyst because they have negative effect on the selectivity and activity. Specifically, they are responsible for the deterioration of the redox couple, blocking the transmission of lattice oxygen, and irreversibly changing the catalyst structure. Based on the results of the combined techniques, a refined procedure has been proposed to develop more stable and efficient selective oxidation catalyst.

1. Introduction

Selective catalytic oxidation and ammoxidation of hydrocarbons are used in approximately one quarter of the most important industrial chemicals and basic intermediates produced by all catalytic processes worldwide.\textsuperscript{1} Molecular-level understanding of catalytic behaviors in these processes is important for advancing the general knowledge of catalytic mechanisms and forming a basis for rational design of new catalysts and processes. A major breakthrough in the development of catalysts for oxidation and ammoxidation of olefins was the discovery of the promoting action of iron in the bismuth phosphomolybdate catalyst.\textsuperscript{2,3} Although a number of other elements such as Ni, Co, Cr, Mn, and K were later introduced to form the most efficient multicomponent molybdate (MCM) catalyst,\textsuperscript{4} iron continued to be an important promoter in both molybdenum- and antimony-based catalysts.\textsuperscript{5} Different chemical forms of iron in molybdate catalysts and its role as a promoter has become subjects of intense research.\textsuperscript{6} Early studies by Annenkova, et al\textsuperscript{7} revealed that Bi\textsubscript{2}(MoO\textsubscript{4})\textsubscript{3}, Fe\textsubscript{2}(MoO\textsubscript{4})\textsubscript{3}, and Bi\textsubscript{2}Fe\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{4} are the main components in a Fe-Mo-Bi ternary system. Batist, et al\textsuperscript{8} reported the formation of Bi\textsubscript{2}FeMo\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{12} in another Fe-Mo-Bi type system. Wolf and Matsura concluded that maximum activity and selectivity of the Mg\textsubscript{17}Fe\textsubscript{13}Mo\textsubscript{6}Bi\textsubscript{4}O\textsubscript{41} (0 ≤ x ≤ 4) catalyst is displayed when x = 2.5 but did not explain the significance of this optimum iron concentration.\textsuperscript{9} Van Oeffelen arrived at the conclusion that the role of iron in the same system is to maintain Bi in oxidized state, by functioning as a redox couple and to account for the optimum iron level at x = 2.5.\textsuperscript{10} Consequently, an equation of Bi\textsuperscript{4+} + 3Fe\textsuperscript{3+} → Bi\textsuperscript{3+} + 3Fe\textsuperscript{2+} was proposed. The role of iron as redox Fe\textsuperscript{14+}/Fe\textsuperscript{13+} couple was again discussed by Batist.\textsuperscript{11} Apart from functioning as redox couple, iron could also be involved in the formation of other important compounds (as in the case of bismuth molybdate) which can display good activity, selectivity and stability by stabilizing the structure of catalysts.\textsuperscript{12}

The time-dependent changes in the catalyst’s composition offer a possible clue towards the explanation of the deterioration of its catalytic activity. Deactivation of MCM catalyst was attributed to the structural transformation of iron-molybdate due to the loss of MoO\textsubscript{4} by volatilization.\textsuperscript{13} MoO\textsubscript{3} is mainly formed by reduction of Fe\textsubscript{2}(MoO\textsubscript{4})\textsubscript{3} in the redox catalytic process according to the equation: Fe\textsubscript{2}(MoO\textsubscript{4})\textsubscript{3} → 2FeMoO\textsubscript{4} + MoO\textsubscript{3} + [O\textsubscript{16}]\textsubscript{2}, which was evidenced by the presence of a mixture of Fe\textsubscript{2}(MoO\textsubscript{4})\textsubscript{3} and FeO\textsubscript{3} in similar catalysts.\textsuperscript{14} The iron oxide formed by oxidation of the ferrous molybdate promotes propylene deep oxidation, deterioration of catalyst activity, target product degradation and is responsible for the reddish-brown color of the spent MCM catalysts. Additionally, the increasing loss of reversible Fe\textsuperscript{14+}/Fe\textsuperscript{13+} redox couple or Fe\textsubscript{2}(MoO\textsubscript{4})\textsubscript{3} structure collapse can also lead to other adverse consequences, such as the increasing pressure drop in the catalytic bed, degradation of the catalyst mechanical resistance, and the decreasing residual activity of MCM.\textsuperscript{15}

It is evident from the prior results that the main challenge towards better understanding the role of iron in this important class of catalysts is the heterogeneity of the chemical states of iron, the coordination environments around iron atoms, as well as their changes during the reaction. This complexity presents...
significant challenges for their structural and chemical analyses due to the ensemble-average nature of most characterization techniques. In this work, we report a combined use of X-ray absorption fine structure (XAFS) spectroscopy, Raman spectroscopy and diffuse reflectance UV-visible light (DR-UV-vis) spectroscopy, for determining the dominant chemical states and functional forms of Fe, and their change during the reaction process in a representative commercial catalyst. The methods used in our work were found to be useful for multi-technique studies of complex catalysts. XAFS is known for its excellent sensitivity to chemistry and coordination environments of iron complexes, and it is used extensively for analysis of degradation in MCM catalysts. Similar to other ensemble-average techniques such as XRD, XAFS is not sensitive to minority species because it is a volume-average method. Raman spectroscopy, on another hand, is capable of detecting such species due to various selection rules. For example, small amounts of MoO$_3$ mixed into a ferric molybdate-rich phase may not be detectable by XAFS or XRD, but would be detectable by Raman spectroscopy which is used extensively for studying structure of molybdates. In addition, the fact that the reduction form of iron molybdate, iron oxide, has no significant contribution to the weak Raman scatter and is sensitive to DR-UV-vis spectroscopy, should also be taken into consideration.

Another important aspect of catalysis investigations that this work helps resolve is the issue of heterogeneity of different chemical forms of the same element in the sample. Average techniques such as XAFS, used alone, cannot discriminate between the different models: 1) changes in the chemical states of Fe occur uniformly throughout the entire sample or 2) the sample has a mixture of the same two or more states of Fe at all times, and the volume fraction of each state changes with time.

Our work shows that correlating the results of these techniques is required in order to resolve this challenge and propose a specific model of chemical and structural transformation in iron species and shed light on the mechanism of the catalyst deactivation.

2. Experimental

2.1 Catalyst preparation and catalytic tests

The catalyst in this study is a member of family Bi$_{0.5-x}$Fe$_{2-x}$Mo$_{12-4x}$O$_{40-5x}$, (denoted hereafter as Fe-Mo-Bi) from Shanghai Research Institute of Petrochemical Technology (SRIPT), which shows high activity and acrylonitrile selectivity at $380\text{--}450\,$°C. $X_n$ stands for other elements such as Cr, Co, Ni, Mg, Mn and K. The catalyst was synthesized using co-precipitation method, it was then spray dried and calcined in the rotating furnace at the temperature of $\sim600\,$°C. Catalytic ammoxidation processes were studied at the Commercial Fluidized Bed Reactor (CFBR) in SRIPT. After 5 to 10 days of its use during the ammoxidation reaction in CFBR, the catalytic activity reached a stable state. Then the catalyst was studied at the accelerating activity-test facilities that employs the Laboratory-scale Fluidized Bed Reactor (LFBR). Using the LFBR, the samples were studied for different times of reaction: fresh (unused), 5 days, 8 days, 11 days, 16 days and 48 days from the beginning of the reaction. The corresponding samples are denoted as S0, S5, S8, S11, S16 and S48, respectively.

2.2 Raman Spectroscopy

The metal oxide phase present in the MCM catalyst samples was examined using Jobin-Yvon LabRam 1B Raman spectrometer. Before measurement the spectrometer was calibrated using a silicon wafer to a wavelength accuracy of ±1 cm$^{-1}$. The Raman spectra of the fresh and spent catalysts with different reaction times were then collected under ambient conditions using a 632.8 nm excitation line of He-Ne laser source, equipped with a confocal Olympus microscope (BX-30). The laser power was kept below 0.5 mW at the sample so as to minimize any laser-induced alterations of the sample.

2.3 Diffuse Reflectance UV-vis Spectroscopy

Diffuse reflectance UV-visible spectra of selected samples were carried out (from 12500 to 50000 cm$^{-1}$) using a Perkin Elmer 555 double beam spectrophotometer at SRIPT. BaSO$_4$ was used as reference, and slit width was set to 2.0 nm.

2.4 X-ray Absorption Spectroscopy

Fe K-edge X-ray absorption spectroscopy (XAS) data were performed in transmission mode at the beamline X-19A at National Synchrotron Light Source at Brookhaven National Laboratory in New York, USA. Double crystal Si (111) monochromator was detuned 30% to minimize harmonics. Gas-filled ionization chamber detectors were used for measuring incident and transmitted beam intensities. In addition, a third ionization chamber was used to detect the beam through a reference Fe foil, for energy calibration and data alignment purposes. The XAS specimens were made by depositing the catalyst powders onto adhesive tapes and folding the tape several times for homogeneity. The edge steps of the X-ray absorption coefficient at Fe K-edge energy varied between 0.3 and 0.4 for all samples.

Initial data processing was performed by Athena$^{23}$ software from IFEFFIT data analysis package. Several consecutive measurements of the same sample, were aligned and averaged to minimize statistical noise in the data. To directly compare X-ray Absorption Near Edge Structure (XANES) data of different samples, the same procedure of pre-edge line fitting, post-edge curve fitting, and edge-step normalization was applied to all samples. Quantitative data analysis was done using PCA software.$^{24,25}$

3. Results

3.1. Raman spectroscopy

The spectra corresponding to different reaction times are shown in Figure 1. The spectra feature symmetric stretching mode, $v_1$, of the MoO$_3$ tetrahedron at 955 cm$^{-1}$, asymmetric stretching mode, at 890 cm$^{-1}$ and/or 835 cm$^{-1}$, bending modes in plane and out of plane at 430 and 360 cm$^{-1}$, and rotation of the entire tetrahedron at 240 cm$^{-1}$. These observations are in good agreement with literature.$^{26-29}$ Similar spectra have been found in β-CoMoO$_4$ (at $v_1$=945 cm$^{-1}$), Ni/Mo alloys (at $v_1$=940 cm$^{-1}$),$^{28}$ in β-HgMoO$_4$ (at $v_1$=970 cm$^{-1}$), in α-MnMoO$_4$ (at $v_1$=940 cm$^{-1}$), in NiMoO$_4$ (at $v_1$=960 cm$^{-1}$)$^{27}$. Vibrational modes of MoO$_3$ have been
reported at 700-900 cm\(^{-1}\) and its bending at 300–400 cm\(^{-1}\).\(^28\) The spectra shown in Figure 1 also reveal the presence of Fe\(_2\)(MoO\(_4\))\(_3\) in our catalyst, which has a characteristic, high intensity, and well isolated band at 783 cm\(^{-1}\). This in good agreement with reported data for Fe\(_2\)(MoO\(_4\))\(_3\) that feature major bands at 960, 780, and 350 cm\(^{-1}\).\(^{20,29}\) Qualitatively, the 783 cm\(^{-1}\) peak intensity can thus be used for estimating the amount of Fe\(_2\)(MoO\(_4\))\(_3\) in our catalysts. Figure 1 demonstrates that this compound has exhibited gradual decrease in its quantity with reaction time. Therefore, our Raman measurements, in agreement with previous reports,\(^30\) indicate that the major presence of iron exists in the form of Fe\(_2\)(MoO\(_4\))\(_3\) in fresh catalysts (also short service time catalysts) and as its reduction to FeMoO\(_4\) after long-time use. This result is only a partial picture of composition and structure of Fe-Mo phase in the catalyst because other Fe phases that are not Raman-active may also be present.

Figure 1 Raman spectra of Fe-Mo-Bi catalysts corresponding to different times after the beginning of the reaction (0, 5, 8, 11, 16, 48 days). Arrow indicates a peak corresponding to the Fe\(_2\)(MoO\(_4\))\(_3\) complex

As demonstrated in Figure 1, Fe\(_2\)(MoO\(_4\))\(_3\) shows abundant load in S0, then decreases monotonically in S5 through S48. For semiquantitative purposes, the intensity ratio was calculated between the strongest bands from MMoO\(_4\) (M=Co, Ni, Mn) and Fe\(_2\)(MoO\(_4\))\(_3\) appearing at ~950 cm\(^{-1}\) and 783 cm\(^{-1}\) respectively, if we assume the majority MMoO\(_4\) phases don’t change significantly. The values of 0.56, 0.39, 0.35, 0.28, 0.20 and 0.20 for S0, S5, S8, S11, S16 and S48, respectively, demonstrate that Fe\(_2\)(MoO\(_4\))\(_3\) phase has been decomposing during the reaction process, from the highest catalytic activity S0 in the very beginning to the most deactivated sample S48 with the longest service time. We will discuss the reason for this decomposition in greater detail below.

As for the MoO\(_2\) discussed above, it has its characteristic band at 817 cm\(^{-1}\) which is clearly missing from the data in Figure 1.\(^{31}\) The absence of MoO\(_2\) phase from all samples S0 through S48 is quite reasonable due to their prolonged (5 to 10 days) treatment in CFBR and high volatility of MoO\(_2\) during the reaction process.\(^{13}\) As discussed in the Raman characterization section, the amount of Fe\(_2\)(MoO\(_4\))\(_3\) was gradually decreasing with reaction time, but what exactly happened to Fe\(_2\)(MoO\(_4\))\(_3\) remains unclear. The next section will address this question.

### 3.2. X-ray Absorption Near Edge Structure

Figure 2 shows Fe K-edge XANES spectra collected in the Fe-Mo-Bi catalysts. The spectra for all samples, from S0 to S48, exhibit gradual shift towards lower energy with the increase of reaction time. By comparing our data with those previously reported,\(^32,33\) we can firmly believe that this trend is consistent with the change in average oxidation state of Fe from +3 towards +2.

![Figure 2](image-url) Fe K-edge XANES of Fe-Mo-Bi catalysts with different reaction time, and reference compounds Fe\(_2\)(MoO\(_4\))\(_3\), Li\(_2\)Fe\(_2\)(MoO\(_4\))\(_3\), FeO\(_2\), and FeO. Arrows show presence of quasi-isosbestic points indicating both the one-step transformation within the catalysts from S0 towards S48 and their agreement with the two standards (Fe\(_2\)(MoO\(_4\))\(_3\) and Li\(_2\)Fe\(_2\)(MoO\(_4\))\(_3\)).

Figure 2 and its inset show dramatic changes in the Fe K-edge XAS data for different stage catalysts, and reference compounds Fe\(_2\)(MoO\(_4\))\(_3\), Li\(_2\)Fe\(_2\)(MoO\(_4\))\(_3\), FeO\(_2\), and FeO. The catalyst data and the Fe\(_2\)(MoO\(_4\))\(_3\), Li\(_2\)Fe\(_2\)(MoO\(_4\))\(_3\), and FeO\(_2\) references were obtained in two different experiments (the reference compounds were measured by Shirakawa, et al\(^32\)). In order to directly compare them, all data were first aligned in absolute energy using reference data of Fe foil (in the case of the catalyst samples) and FeO\(_2\) (in the case of Fe\(_2\)(MoO\(_4\))\(_3\)) and Li\(_2\)Fe\(_2\)(MoO\(_4\))\(_3\) data measured simultaneously with all the samples. By measuring the XAFS data in Fe foil and FeO\(_2\) in the same transmission experiment we obtained the relative shifts needed to apply for all data sets to share the same X-ray energy origin.

Nearly perfect agreement between the starting sample, S0, and Fe\(_2\)(MoO\(_4\))\(_3\) demonstrate that: 1) the charge state of Fe ion was +3 in the fresh catalyst, and 2) its Fe phase was predominantly Fe\(_2\)(MoO\(_4\))\(_3\). The absorption edge positions are defined as the main absorption peak maxima throughout this article. For the Fe\(_2\)(MoO\(_4\))\(_3\) and S0 data, the Fe K-edge positions were at 7131.8 eV and 7131.5 eV, respectively. Upon catalytic reaction for some period of time, the spectra shift to lower energies, towards the reduced form of the iron molybdate, FeMoO\(_4\), with the charge state of Fe to +2. Instead of measuring FeMoO\(_4\), we compare our data with another Fe\(^{3+}\) compound of Li\(_2\)Fe\(_2\)(MoO\(_4\))\(_3\), which has the same local structure around Fe as in the FeMoO\(_4\).\(^35\) As shown
in Table 1, not only the distributions of the first shell Fe-O distances and the second shell Fe-Mo distances around Fe, but also the coordination environment in these two compounds are very similar. Hence, the use of the Li$_2$Fe$_2$(MoO$_4$)$_3$ for comparing with experimental data in the Fe-Mo-Bi catalysts is justified.

### Table 1 Relevant Structure Parameters of FeMoO$_4$ and Li$_2$Fe$_2$(MoO$_4$)$_3$

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fe environment</th>
<th>FeMoO$_4$</th>
<th>Li$_2$Fe$_2$(MoO$_4$)$_3$</th>
<th>difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Charge valence</td>
<td>+2</td>
<td>+2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fe-O coordination number</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fe-Mo coordination number</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average Fe-O distance (Å)</td>
<td>2.14</td>
<td>2.12</td>
<td>&lt; 1 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average Fe-Mo distance (Å)</td>
<td>3.61</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>&lt; 2 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the spectra of the last sample, S48, its Fe K-edge energy (7129 eV) was higher than that of Li$_2$Fe$_2$(MoO$_4$)$_3$ (7127 eV), as shown in Figure 2. Hence, the average charge state of Fe in the last sample is not equal to, but approaching the value of +2. As evidenced by the presence of quasi-isosbestic points in Figure 2, Fe ions in all samples undergo transformation from ferric molybdate to ferrous molybdate other than iron oxide FeO, since its spectroscopic features are different from both S0 and S48.

One possible method of quantitative analysis of these XANES spectra is by linear combination analysis. In this method, data are represented as a linear combination of two or more standard compounds and their mixing fractions correspond to the volume fractions of the corresponding iron species in the sample. The problem with this method is that, it does not offer a model-independent determination of the number of independent species. Principal Component Analysis (PCA) is a superior method for that purpose, because it allows to 1) find the number of independent species mixed together in the sample at all reaction times and 2) obtain their unique identities.25-36

Figure 3 (a) shows the “scree test”, demonstrating that the number of principal components required to reproduce all 6 experimental spectra is equal to 2, as evidenced by the negligible Eigenvalue (0.005) there. The standard compounds of Fe$_2$(MoO$_4$)$_3$ and Li$_2$Fe$_2$(MoO$_4$)$_3$ were well reproduced by the combination of the two principal components and the target transform was performed from the basis of abstract components to the basis corresponding to the two standards. The mixing fraction of the Fe +3 and Fe +2 states was obtained using linear combination fit that was using the PCA software package.37 Data reproduction of the experimental spectra and two standards is shown in Fig. 3 (b) as an example.

We have also tested a three-species model against our experimental data, using Fe$_2$O$_3$ as a possible standard, in addition to the previous two-species standards as described above. The best fit values of the mixing fractions, corresponding to species after the target transform procedure, had large negative values, which is non-physical. Hence, our XANES data give no evidence for formation of Fe$_2$O$_3$, within the accuracy of the PCA method used.
Figure 4: Fractions of $\text{Fe}_2(\text{MoO}_4)_3$ in the samples S0 through S48 obtained using two different characterization methods, Raman and XANES, exhibit similar trends. The two measurements indicate that the amount of $\text{Fe}_2(\text{MoO}_4)_3$ has decreased with reaction time.

Guided by the PCA results, we treat the changes of Fe oxidation state in the catalyst during the reaction as a one-step transformation from Fe$^{3+}$ to Fe$^{2+}$, and summarize the quantitative information about the rate of this transformation in Figure 4. The best fit results for samples 0, 5, 8, 11, 16 and 48 show gradual and monotonic decrease of the fraction of $\text{Fe}_2(\text{MoO}_4)_3$ from 99% to 37%. According to these results, the average Fe charge states in all samples as varying from +3 at S0 to +2.37 in S48. This result demonstrates that the average Fe oxidation state in all spent catalysts, even for the longest reaction time, is still much higher than +2 which is the oxidation state of Fe in FeMoO$_4$.

Due to the ensemble-averaging nature of XAFS, there are two models that can be used to interpret the PCA results: 1) A "homogeneous transformation", in which every Fe atom changes its charge state from +3 towards +2.37 for sample S0 towards sample S48, and 2) "Heterogeneous transformation", where Fe atoms are divided in two groups at all times, with charge states +3 and +2, with volume fractions $x$ and 1-$x$, respectively. The volume fraction of Fe$^{3+}$ changes from 99% to 37% for samples S0 to S48, respectively. Both models will give identical XANES trends and identical results in linear combination analysis. Hence, within the results of just one technique, XANES, it is impossible to differentiate between the two models. However, Raman spectra show that Fe$^{3+}$, in particular, $\text{Fe}_2(\text{MoO}_4)_3$ remains in all the samples through different reaction stages, not only in the fresh catalyst S0 but also in the last one S48. That observation is consistent with model 2) and inconsistent with model 1). Thus, the combination of XAFS and Raman measurements is required to validate a hypothesis of partial $\text{Fe}_2(\text{MoO}_4)_3$ transformation, specifically $\text{Fe}_2(\text{MoO}_4)_3 \rightarrow \text{FeMoO}_4$ during the selective ammoxidation process. This transformation will be discussed in greater detail below.

3.3. UV-vis diffuse reflectance spectroscopy

Figure 5 shows the DR-UV-vis spectra of selected samples from Fe-Mo-Bi catalysts with different reaction times. All the spectra exhibit a characteristic absorption band of $\text{Fe}_2(\text{MoO}_4)_3$ at ~460 nm. The broad absorption in the UV region is ascribed to the presence of both tetrahedral and octahedral oxomolybdate groups, whereas the one in visual region is attributed to Fe$_2$O$_3$. This iron oxide becomes increasingly abundant, accompanied by catalyst sample showing red-brown color characteristic of the fresh Fe$_2$O$_3$, with longer reaction times according to either or both of these mechanisms:

$$3\text{FeMoO}_4 + 3/2 \text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{Fe}_2(\text{MoO}_4)_3 + 1/2 \text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3 \quad (1)$$

$$2\text{FeMoO}_4 + 1/2 \text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3 + 2\text{MoO}_3 \quad (2)$$

Taking into account the different crystal structures of $\alpha$- and $\beta$-FeMoO$_4$ phases ($\text{Mo}^{6+}$ coordination is octahedral in $\alpha$ and tetrahedral in $\beta$), it is reasonable to conclude that the mechanism (1) occurs preferentially for $\beta$ phase and (2) for $\alpha$ phase, as $\text{Mo}^{6+}$ coordination is tetrahedral in $\text{Fe}_2(\text{MoO}_4)_3$ but octahedral in MoO$_3$. Given that no MoO$_3$ was detected in the Raman spectra from S0 through S48, one can further conclude that Eq. 1 is the main reoxidation path during the entire catalytic process. As a result, Eq. 1 will lead to more stable catalytic activities than Eq. 2, due to the regeneration of $\text{Fe}_2(\text{MoO}_4)_3$. As for the increasingly accumulating Fe$_2$O$_3$, as evidenced by the UV-Vis spectra (Fig. 5), its absence in Raman spectra and in the Fe K-edge XANES spectra indicates that it is present in the sample as a minority Fe species whose volume fraction does not exceed ca. 5%, which is the uncertainty in the Fe speciation by Principal Component Analysis of XANES spectra.

4. Discussion

As well documented elsewhere, propylene ammoxidation obeys Mars-Krevelen mechanism and is a six-electron redox process. Iron molybdate, both ferric- and ferrous-one, is a good example for efficient redox couple. It can promote air dioxygen dissociation on Fe$^{3+}$ into lattice oxygen [O]$\text{L}$, and its transfer to the active site using Fe$^{3+}$. The latter, in turn, will reoxidize the...
It is evident from these examples that iron molybdate is an active species throughout the entire catalytic reaction and has played crucial roles in the ammoxidation process. For the sake of high performance on Fe-Mo-Bi catalyst, the balance between Fe\(^{3+}\) and Fe\(^{2+}\) should be kept close to that in the initial state, which is known to have the highest catalytic activity and selectivity.\(^{45}\) Our experiment demonstrated (Figure 1), that the initial state of the iron molybdate, Fe\(_2\)(MoO\(_4\))\(_3\), has decomposed significantly for all catalyst samples from S5 through S48. The rate of decomposition was the fastest during the first 16 days catalytic process.

XAS results not only have illuminated the time-dependent decomposition of the iron molybdate during the reaction, but also have revealed that iron-containing phase in fresh sample S0 is predominantly Fe\(_2\)(MoO\(_4\))\(_3\). In addition, the combined use of Raman and XAS helped us to propose the deactivation mechanism for Fe\(_2\)(MoO\(_4\))\(_3\), which follows the Fe\(_2\)(MoO\(_4\))\(_3\) $\rightarrow$ FeMoO\(_4\) step. Another important result emerging from this work is that Fe\(^{3+}\) directly transforming towards Fe\(^{2+}\), without any intermediate phase. During this transformation, the volume fraction of Fe\(^{3+}\) changes from 100 to 37\% for samples S0 to S48 respectively, and the volume fraction of Fe\(^{3+}\) increases accordingly. While speciation of chemical states of iron has been made possible by XAS in earlier works,\(^{48,49}\) it is due to the complementarity of XAS and Raman experiments that such conclusion can be made in the present case. Each technique, taken alone, will only show an incomplete picture.

We now turn our attention to the possible origins of decomposition of Fe\(_2\)(MoO\(_4\))\(_3\). The following equation is a plausible description of the process:

\[
\text{Fe}_2\text{(MoO}_4\text{)}_3 \rightleftharpoons 2\text{FeMoO}_4 + \text{MoO}_3 + 1/2\text{O}_2 \quad (4)
\]

For an ideal catalyst, iron molybdate could strike a balance between its ferric and ferrous forms during the catalytic process, and the balance should be fully reversible. In that case, the catalytic activity of the spent catalyst, e.g., conversion of propylene, will be same as the fresh one. However, due to the loss of MoO\(_3\) via volatilization and much easier sublimation of MoO\(_2\)(OH\(_2\)) after combination with resulting H\(_2\)O (Eq. 3),\(^{50}\) Eq. 4 loses its reversibility. Therefore, ferrous molybdate can only partially get oxidized and restored back to Fe\(_2\)(MoO\(_4\))\(_3\) incompletely, resulting in increasing amount of resultant FeMoO\(_4\). We propose that Eq. 1 is the likely oxidation route because no MoO\(_3\) was detected by Raman spectra (Figure 1) and it is accompanied by small amount of Fe\(_2\)O\(_3\) which was detected by DR-UV-Vis (Figure 5). The presence of a minute amount of iron oxide is not in contradiction with our XAS results because the uncertainties in the LCA- derived error bars on mixing fractions allow for 5\% of another iron species in the sample (\textit{vide supra}), and UV-vis is highly sensitive to Fe\(_2\)O\(_3\). Hence, role of the UV-vis measurement was very important here because, without it, the presence of Fe\(_2\)O\(_3\) could not have been detected.

In conclusion of all the observations described above, we find that continuously increasing accumulation of FeMoO\(_4\) and depletion of Fe\(_2\)(MoO\(_4\))\(_3\) is inevitable with the increased reaction time, provided that no additional MoO\(_3\) is added to the reaction mixture to reverse the Eq. 4 towards the Fe\(_2\)(MoO\(_4\))\(_3\) direction. As a result, the catalytic performance of Fe-Mo-Bi catalyst, will degrade with reaction time.

Two recommendations for rationally designing better ammoxidation catalysts emerge from our findings. First, it is important to maintain a sufficient number of Fe\(^{3+}\) sites in an overall reducing atmosphere (propylene ammoxidation to acrylonitrile), it is necessary to stabilize the Fe\(^{3+}\) state structurally and/or functionally. One candidate for such stabilizer is the Cr\(^{3+}/\text{Cr}^{2+}\) redox couple. It is, generally more effective at higher temperature than iron couple,\(^{43}\) in addition, it acts as a structural diluents to iron and booster of the Fe\(^{3+}\) state in Fe-Mo-Bi matrix. Relevant tests are presently under way in our group and will be reported elsewhere. Second, it is important to replenish the MoO\(_3\) into the reacting mixture, to compensate for its loss through volatilization or sublimation as to slowing down the collapse of ferric molybdate. The MoO\(_3\) may come from a separate component compound or some other compound as suggested elsewhere.\(^{5,6}\)

Based on the discussion stated above, we conclude that ideal Fe-Mo-Bi catalysts for AN ammoxidation should be both functionally and structurally stable. The former requires, using iron molybdate as a key component and an example, that its functional form be kept the same as in the fresh catalyst. Based on our results, and the work of others, a revised feasible model for highly active and long-term stable Fe-Mo-Bi catalyst may be proposed, as illustrated in Figure 6. In this catalyst the Fe\(^{3+}/\text{Fe}^{2+}\) redox couple is crucial, both composing reversible redox processes and stabilizing the main structure of catalysts by suppressing its deformation, due to active component decomposition.

**Figure 6** Schematic model for Fe-Mo-Bi catalyst, shows the role of Fe\(^{3+}/\text{Fe}^{2+}\) redox couple during the propylene catalytic ammoxidation process. Propylene C\(_3\)H\(_6\) are converted into target compound C\(_3\)H\(_6\)N on bismuth molybdate through H-abstraction and lattice O-incorporation,
while iron molybdate (including ferric- and ferrous-) acts as dioxygen 
dissociation and lattice oxygen transfer. Two highlighted strategies 
proposed here, are the introduction of Cr$^{3+}$/Cr$^{6+}$ redox couple in the 
catalyst preparation, and replenishment of MoO$_3$ via separate 
component or compound during the reaction process.

5. Summary and conclusions

In our Fe-Mo-Bi catalysts, an iron molybdate phase identified 
as Fe$_2$(MoO$_4$)$_3$ has undergone dramatic partial (more than 60%) 
decomposition with reaction time. This decomposition was a one-
step transformation from the Fe$^{3+}$ into another form of iron 
molybdate, namely FeMoO$_4$ with the iron charge state of +2. 
These results were obtained by a combination of Raman 
spectroscopy and XANES spectroscopy studies of the fresh and 
spent catalysts at different reaction times. DR-UV-vis 
measurements revealed a small fraction (less than 5 volume %) of 
Fe$_2$O$_3$ during the reaction process. The combination of these 
measurements allowed us to propose mechanism of 
transformation of iron molybdate and its role in the propylene 
ammoxidation process. This work highlights the critical role of 
Fe$^{3+}$ species for the stable and efficient conversion of propylene 
acrylonitrile in the selective ammoxidation. A modification of 
the Fe-Mo-Bi catalyst that will help stabilize Fe$^{3+}$ ions is 
proposed.

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Notes and references

Combination of X-ray absorption, Raman and UV-visible spectroscopies reveals competing redox reactions during deactivation of Fe-based complex catalysts.