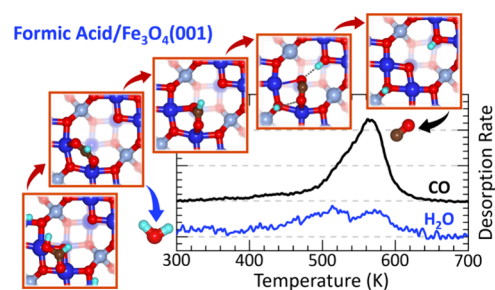


The Role of Surface Hydroxyls in Dehydration and Dehydrogenation of Formic Acid on Fe₃O₄(001)

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ABSTRACT: Understanding the role of surface structure and hydroxylation in catalytic reactions on metal oxide surfaces is important for developing a mechanistic insight into the complex interface processes. Here, we investigate the reactivity of formic acid on reconstructed Fe₃O₄(001) using a combination of X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy, infrared reflection absorption spectroscopy, temperature-programmed reaction spectroscopy, low energy electron diffraction, and electronic structure calculations. We find that formic acid initially dissociates at low temperatures (<80 K) into bidentate formate and a hydroxyl up to an initial dosed coverage of two HCOOH per Fe₃O₄(001) unit cell. At higher temperatures (>450 K), formate largely decomposes along the dehydration pathway, producing CO and H₂O, with dehydrogenation to CO₂ being a minority side reaction. As a first step, water formation leads to surface oxygen extraction via the Mars-van Krevelen mechanism. Computational studies reveal formate embedded in oxygen vacancies as a key intermediate in the CO formation mechanism. CO formation proceeds via two reaction pathways with desorption that peaks at 530 K on the hydroxyl-rich surface and 560 K on the hydroxyl-deficient surface. Atomic hydrogen coadsorption experiments and *ab initio* calculations reveal that the presence of surface hydroxyls reduces the CO formation barrier. These results highlight the complex interactions between substrate and intermediate species occurring during reactions on metal oxide surfaces.



1. INTRODUCTION

Understanding the interactions of organic molecules with metal oxide surfaces is essential for developing an insight into processes occurring in a broad range of areas, such as corrosion, geochemistry, and catalysis. For catalysis, fundamental surface science studies are critical to advance our mechanistic understanding of chemical processes and reaction pathways on well-defined model surfaces. One such surface, the $(\sqrt{2} \times \sqrt{2})R45^\circ$ reconstructed Fe₃O₄(001), has gained significant interest due to its ability to stabilize single transition metal atoms at elevated temperatures.^{1–9} In catalysis, magnetite is utilized as oxide support for the water–gas shift (WGS)^{10–12} and Fischer–Tropsch^{13–16} reactions. In the WGS reaction, formate (HCOO[–]) is considered an important intermediate, while formic acid (HCOOH) is a desirable product of carbon dioxide (CO₂) hydrogenation reactions.^{12,17–19} As such, studies of formic acid conversion on magnetite Fe₃O₄ surfaces are of fundamental interest for characterizing the mechanisms, energetics, and kinetics of elementary reaction steps on bare oxide surfaces and supported active metal sites.^{20,21}

Formic acid, as the simplest carboxylic acid, is also widely used as a probe molecule for the interaction of carboxylic groups with well-defined catalytic surfaces and has been used to probe acid/base and redox properties^{20,22} of surface sites on many oxides, including ZnO,^{23–26} MgO,^{27–33} TiO₂,^{34–44} NiO,^{45–47} CeO₂,^{48–50} UO₂,^{51,52} Fe₃O₄,^{53–56} SnO₂,⁵⁷ and ZrO₂.⁵⁸ Formic acid adsorption on metal oxides can be either molecular or dissociative, depending on the relative acid–base strength of exposed cation–anion pairs. Dissociative adsorption is initiated through the abstraction of an acidic proton by a surface oxygen anion to form a surface hydroxyl. At the same time, the conjugate base (formate, HCOO[–]) binds to the metal cation. Often, the acid–base properties of these acid–base pairs are defined by the selective formic acid

decomposition through either dehydration ($\text{HCOOH} \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{CO}$, stoichiometric) or dehydrogenation ($\text{HCOOH} \rightarrow \text{H}_2 + \text{CO}_2$, stoichiometric, or $\text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{CO}_2$, nonstoichiometric) pathways.^{59,60} These pathways can, therefore, be used to indicate the degree of redox activity of an oxide.

As studied here, formic acid on $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4(001)$ adsorbs at low temperatures (70 K) both dissociatively and molecularly.⁵³ Experimental and theoretical studies have demonstrated that formate binds by bridging two surface octahedral Fe atoms with the transfer of acidic formic acid hydrogen, forming a lattice-oxygen-bound hydrogen (hydroxyl).^{53,54,56,61} However, the complete mechanism for converting formic acid and formate on $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4(001)$ to products has yet to be studied.

In vacuum, the $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4(001)$ surface restructures to form the $(\sqrt{2} \times \sqrt{2})R45^\circ$ reconstruction which is depicted in Figure 1.

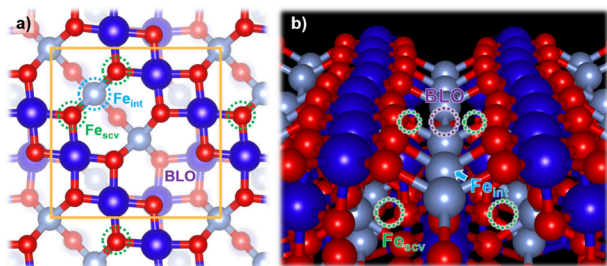


Figure 1. (a) The top-down and (b) the side-on views of the $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4(001)$ surface. Oxygen atoms are displayed as red, Fe octahedral (Fe_{oct}) as blue, and Fe tetrahedral (Fe_{tet}) as gray. The Fe interstitial (Fe_{int}) is circled in light blue, the bulk-like open site (BLO) is labeled in purple, and the subsurface cation Fe vacancies (Fe_{scv}), located beneath surface oxygen atoms, are circled in green. The unit cell is highlighted by a yellow square. A side view of the mirrored slab, Fe oxidation state, and spin orientations is included in the SI, Figure S1.

Here, two subsurface Fe octahedral (Fe_{oct}) atoms migrate to form two subsurface cation vacancies (SCVs). One Fe_{oct} occupies a tetrahedral site at the surface, forming an interstitial Fe (Fe_{int}) atom, while the second Fe atom diffuses into the bulk. Previous experimental work demonstrated the lifting of the SCV reconstruction following the adsorption of atomic hydrogen⁶² and formic acid.⁵³ In these studies, low energy electron diffraction (LEED) showed the disappearance of diffraction spots associated with the presence of Fe_{int} . Subsequent experimental and theoretical studies demonstrated that the Fe_{int} atom and a bulk Fe atom fill the subsurface vacancies and lift the reconstruction when the surface is exposed to formic acid.^{54,56}

In this study, we use a combination of X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS), infrared reflection absorption spectroscopy (IRRAS), temperature-programmed reaction spectroscopy (TPRS), LEED, and density functional theory (DFT) calculations to study formic acid adsorption and reaction on $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4(001)$. We follow the thermal stability of surface intermediates, determine structural changes on the initially reconstructed surface, and identify the reaction products. We find that formic acid primarily decomposes along the dehydration pathway, producing CO through two high-temperature (HT) reaction channels at 530 K (HT1) and 560 K (HT2). The HT2 CO formation channel is also accompanied by minor CO_2 formation ($\sim 15\%$).

We show that hydroxyls play essential roles in the CO formation mechanism. First, via water formation, hydroxyls

enable the formation of oxygen vacancies through a Mars-van Krevelen (MvK) mechanism.^{53,63–65} Formate species subsequently react with the vacancies, yielding a new type of formate with one of the formate oxygens embedded in the surface lattice. These embedded formate species have a significantly lower C–H bond cleavage and CO formation barrier. Second, the selectivity toward one of the two CO formation channels depends on surface hydroxyl proximity whereby neighboring hydroxyls facilitate formate decomposition along the lower temperature HT1 CO formation pathway by assisting the C–H cleavage step and stabilizing a bent O–C–O transition state.

2. METHODS

The experiments were conducted in two different ultrahigh vacuum (UHV) systems with base pressures of $< 1 \times 10^{-10}$ Torr. The details of the first experimental chamber have been described in previous publications.^{66–70} Briefly, the UHV system is equipped with several instruments, including a quadrupole mass spectrometer (QMS, Hiden), an X-ray source and hemispherical analyzer (Omicron), a quartz crystal microbalance (QCM, Inficon), and a low energy electron diffraction optics (LEED, Physical Electronics). Sample preparation capabilities include an ion sputter gun (LK Technologies), an auxiliary chamber for producing molecular beams, and a custom hot tungsten–tungsten-filament atomic-hydrogen tube doser.

A natural $10 \times 10 \times 1 \text{ mm}^3$ $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4(001)$ single crystal (SurfaceNet) is sandwiched between a Ta sample plate and retaining ring. The sample holder assembly is secured together with Mo screws, the tops of which are spot-welded to Ta foil tabs to prevent loosening. A 0.127 mm thick Au foil is compressed between the holder and the back of the crystal to enhance the thermal contact. The sample holder assembly is mounted on a manipulator. The sample can be resistively heated up to 1100 K and cooled to below 60 K via a closed-cycle He cryostat (APD Cryogenics). The temperature was monitored with a K-type thermocouple spot-welded to the back of the sample plate and calibrated via H_2O and CO_2 TPDs. The sample was cleaned through multiple cycles of Ne^+ sputtering (1 kV, Matheson) at a 30° incidence to the sample normal, followed by alternating cycles of annealing at 975 K in UHV and 1×10^{-6} Torr O_2 (Norlab). This procedure is sufficient for restoring the pristine $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4(001)$ ($\sqrt{2} \times \sqrt{2}$) reconstruction and offsets the surface reduction caused by sputtering, noted by the clarity of the LEED pattern and minimization of defect features seen in CO and CO_2 TPDs. Between consecutive TPRS experiments, flashing the sample to 850 K before dosing the surface was sufficient to remove residual adsorbates while retaining the surface reconstruction.

Formic acid and other adsorbate molecules were dosed onto the sample surface via a molecular beam doser of known flux rates calibrated via QCM. The formic acid utilized included regular HCOOH (Alfa Aesar, $> 97\%$) as well as isotopically labeled H^{13}COOH (Cambridge Isotopes, $> 98\%$) and DCOOD (Cambridge Isotopes, $> 98\%$). The formic acid was cleaned before experimentation by repeated freeze–pump–thaw cycles, and a small amount of CaSO_4 desiccant pellets (Drierite) was added to the vacuum flasks to remove residual water, which cannot be removed during the freeze–pump–thaw cycles.

The masses monitored during the H^{13}COOH TPRS included $m/z = 2$ (H_2), 18 (H_2O), 29 (^{13}CO), 30 and 31

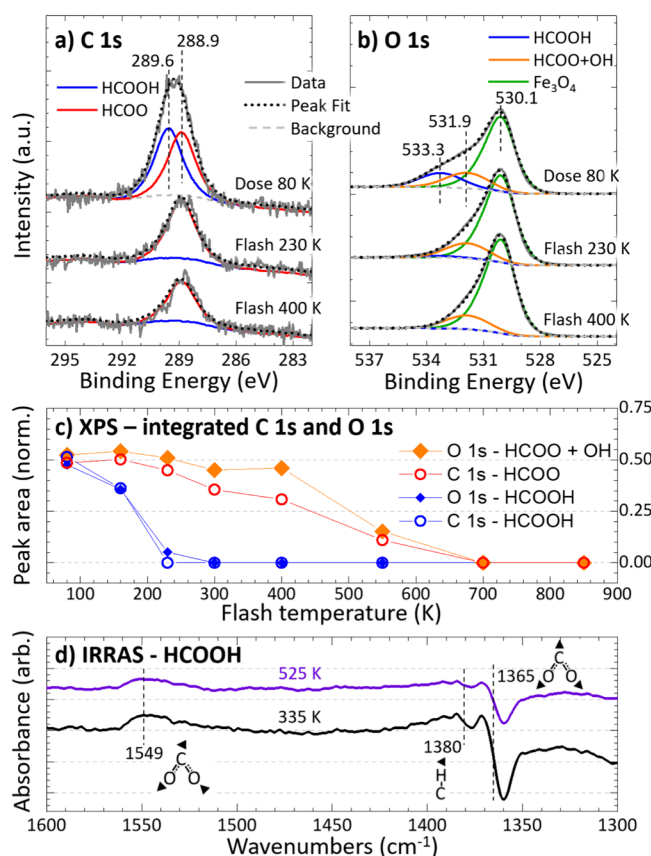


Figure 2. The deprotonation of formic acid on Fe₃O₄(001). (a) C 1s and (b) O 1s XPS data (gray lines) after dosing 5 HCOOH/u.c. on Fe₃O₄(001) at 80 K and ramping to various temperatures at 2 K/s. XPS data were collected at 80 K for ramp temperatures below 300 K and at 300 K for ramp temperatures 300 K and higher. The spectra are fit with two components, one for molecularly bound formic acid (HCOOH, blue) and the other for deprotonated formate (HCOO red and HCOO + OH, orange). Fe₃O₄(001) lattice O 1s fit (b) is shown in green. Panel c shows the integrated peak intensities for HCOOH and HCOO species for both C 1s and O 1s spectra for the full range from 80 to 700 K. The complete set of C 1s and O 1s spectra and the details of the fitting procedure are presented in Figure S2. (d) IRRAS data for 2.7 L of formic acid dosed at 335 K (black) and after ramping to 525 K (purple).

(H₂¹³CO), 45 (¹³CO₂), and 47 and 48 (H¹³COOH). These masses were appropriately changed when using isotopic H¹²COOH and H¹²COOD. Each *m/z* in the TPRS was subtracted by the corresponding *m/z* in a TPRS blank performed after the initial TPRS to remove background contributions to the signals. To account for the convolution of molecular species contributing to the same monitored *m/z* channel (e.g., *m/z* = 28 from CO, CO₂, and HCOOH), cracking patterns of potential products (CO, CO₂, and HCOOH) were obtained by dosing each respective molecule directly into the QMS. The *m/z* ratios obtained from the cracking patterns were used to deconvolute the TPRS data into signals attributed to individual species. The conversion factors for converting measured signals to molecules·u.c.⁻¹s⁻¹ desorption rates were calibrated via TPD coverage progression experiments of each respective molecule. The measured CO (from HCOOH) desorption intensity was significantly higher due to the narrowing of the product desorption distribution. A correction factor was determined by comparing the QMS signal of CO from HCOOH and CO from a normal TPRS (sample in-line of the site and normal to the QMS) versus TPRS when the sample is facing away from the QMS. TPRS

measurements were collected using a ramp rate of 1 K/s. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) measurements were carried out using Al K α X-rays with an electron collection angle of 60° relative to the sample normal and an electron pass energy of 50 eV.

The IRRAS measurements were carried out in a second UHV apparatus containing a FTIR spectrometer (Bruker, VERTEX 80v) in a PREVAC UHV system as described in ref.⁷¹ This UHV system is dedicated to IR investigations including both IRRAS at grazing incidence on oxide single crystals and transmission IR measurements on oxide powders.^{72–74} IRRAS measurements were conducted at grazing incidence (80°) with a detection limit of $\Delta R/R = \sim 1 \times 10^{-5}$. The base pressure of the measurement chamber is better than 1×10^{-10} mbar and the sample temperature could be varied between ~ 70 K (cooling by flowing liquid helium) and 1000 K by resistive heating. Formic acid was dosed by backfilling through a leak valve and exposures are given in units of Langmuir (L) ($1 \text{ L} = 1.33 \times 10^{-6} \text{ mbar}\cdot\text{s}$).

The DFT calculations were done with the CP2K software package⁷⁵ using the PBE exchange-correlation functional⁷⁶ augmented with an effective Hubbard U interaction⁷⁷ and

norm-conserving pseudopotentials for the core-level electron interactions.⁷⁸ The effective Coulomb repulsion parameter for the Fe 3d states of magnetite was set to 4.0 eV, commonly used for Fe₃O₄(001) surface.^{62,79,80} This value has been shown to reproduce the structure, band gap, and magnetic moments of bulk magnetite and its surfaces.^{3,81,82} Molecularly optimized double- ζ Gaussian MOLOPT basis sets⁸³ were employed for the Kohn–Sham orbital expansion, with a plane-wave cutoff of 450 Ry for the electrostatics terms. Geometry optimization was performed using the limited memory BFGS method.⁸⁴ A symmetric slab model composed of 2×2 unit cells in the surface plane and a depth of 8 layers of O and octahedral Fe ions, and 7 layers of tetrahedral Fe ions. The top and bottom layers were ($\sqrt{2} \times \sqrt{2}$) R45° reconstructed based on the Blum et al. model.⁸⁵ The simulation cell includes a 25 Å thick vacuum layer. The unit cell parameters were 17.046×17.046 Å² as obtained from the optimization of a $2 \times 2 \times 2$ bulk Fe₃O₄ super cell (cubic symmetry, $a = 17.046$ Å). The three outermost layers of O and octahedral Fe ions and two outermost layers of tetrahedral Fe ions were allowed to relax in all calculations with adsorbates. The initial spin states of the Fe atoms were biased toward the high-spin state of their respective oxidation levels based on the Blum et al.⁸⁵ model ($\pm 5/2$ for Fe³⁺ state and $+2$ for Fe²⁺) with the tetrahedral sites antiferromagnetically coupled to the octahedral sites. The resulting total magnetization of the simulation cell is 201. Reducing the spin state of iron results in higher energy configuration. All calculations are done at 3/8 monolayer (ML) coverage, i.e., 0.75 formic acid/u.c., to properly capture the lateral interaction of formic acid adsorbed on Fe_{oct} rows and the reaction of formic acid near the BLO. Because of the 2×2 choice of the simulation cell, our calculations sampled four points of the surface Brillouin zone of the unit cell: (0,0), (1/2,0), (0,1/2), and (1/2, 1/2). CP2k does not support the Hubbard U model with explicit multiple k -points. We have compared the adsorption energies for different cell sizes and found that it changes negligibly when going from 2×2 to 4×4 simulations cell sizes.

To determine the lowest energy adsorbate configurations, all geometry optimizations were minimized until the forces fell below 0.001 hartree/Bohr, the lowest energy configuration was further minimized to 0.00045 hartree/Bohr and verified to have no imaginary frequencies. Additionally, the energy and configuration of each minimum were repeated twice, starting from different initial wave functions to verify that the minima were independent of the initial wave function. Minimization for different adsorbate sites and configurations was initiated from the same wave function for faster convergence and consistency. This was done to ensure that adsorbate binding energies are not obfuscated by convergence to different local energetic minima which result from variations in the charge density of Fe within the bulk of the slab. Activation energies were calculated using the climbing-image nudged elastic band method (CI-NEB).⁸⁶ The initial and final states of the NEB calculations are optimized as described above. Six images were used between the initial and the final state for all NEB calculations. NEB calculations were minimized until the force was below 0.00045 hartree/Bohr and transition states were confirmed to have only one imaginary frequency. All energies include zero-point energy (ZPE) correction.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1. The Deprotonation of Adsorbed Formic Acid. We performed temperature-dependent XPS measurements to assess the nature and stability of formic acid-derived surface species adsorbed on Fe₃O₄(001). We dosed 5 HCOOH/u.c. (u.c. = $8.34 \text{ \AA} \times 8.34 \text{ \AA} = 69.6 \text{ \AA}^2 = 6.96 \times 10^{-15} \text{ cm}^2$) onto the reconstructed Fe₃O₄(001) surface at 80 K and ramped the surface (ramp rate 2 K/s) to increasingly higher temperatures (Figure 2 and Figure S2). XPS measurements were taken consecutively after cooling to 80 K (for annealing temperatures up to 300 K) or 300 K (annealing above 300 K) to determine the identity and stability of surface intermediates present during the reactions. Before HCOOH adsorption, C 1s and O 1s spectra were collected on the freshly prepared surface and used as a reference. After the initial formic acid dose, the C 1s spectra (Figure 2a) exhibit a broad peak shape that can be fit with two equivalent Gaussian–Lorentzian peak line shapes centered at 289.6 and 288.9 eV. As observed in previous studies, these peaks correlate well with molecular formic acid (blue) and deprotonated surface-bound formate (red).^{53,56} Similarly, the O 1s spectra (Figure 2b) are fit with three Gaussian–Lorentzian product peaks centered at 533.3, 531.9, and 530.1 eV identified previously as molecular formic acid (blue), formate, surface hydroxyls (red), and bulk oxygen of Fe₃O₄ (green), respectively. We note that the peak positions for formate and surface hydroxyls overlap and cannot be decoupled, as demonstrated by the XPS data of hydroxyls prepared by atomic hydrogen deposition as shown in Figure S3.

As the sample is heated to 230 K, the area of the HCOOH-related C 1s and O 1s components drops to zero (Figure 2c, blue) while the area of formate (red) remains constant. This is consistent with the expected initial desorption of more weakly bound molecular formic acid. Ramping to 300 and 400 K leads to a slight coverage decrease ($\sim 20\%$) of the formate species (red), indicating recombinative desorption of formic acid in this temperature range. This is confirmed by TPRS experiments described below in Figure 3. The formate signal drops dramatically after the annealing to 550 K and becomes zero at 700 K. No shifts in binding energy are observed across the entire range of annealing temperatures. The Fe 2p spectra in Figure S2 further indicate a minor reduction of the surface as the formate and hydroxyls are converted to products between 500 and 700 K. The ~ 711 eV region (Fe(III) cations) decreases slightly, while the ~ 709 eV region (Fe(II) cations) concomitantly increases.^{62,87}

Nonpolarized IRRAS was also performed to assess the evolution of formic acid surface intermediates, Figure 2d and Figure S2d. After dosing 2.7 Langmuir of HCOOH at 335 K (Figure 2d black), peaks appear at 1365, 1380, and 1549 cm⁻¹ which are similar to those seen by Gamba et al.⁵³ The IR bands at 1365 and 1549 cm⁻¹ are attributed to the symmetric $\nu_s(\text{OCO})$ and asymmetric $\nu_{as}(\text{OCO})$ carboxylate stretching vibrations, respectively. Interestingly, the $\nu_s(\text{OCO})$ vibration centered at 1365 cm⁻¹ exhibits an asymmetric line shape with a maximum at 1371 and a minimum at 1360 cm⁻¹. In earlier work on this system this line shape has been related to a Fano-like behavior originating from a coupling to the conduction electron in this semimetal substrate.⁵¹ We note, however, that this is more likely to result from the so-called polarization-dependent splitting of vibrational modes on semiconductor surfaces.^{26,45,46,50,58} The extent of the splitting depends on the

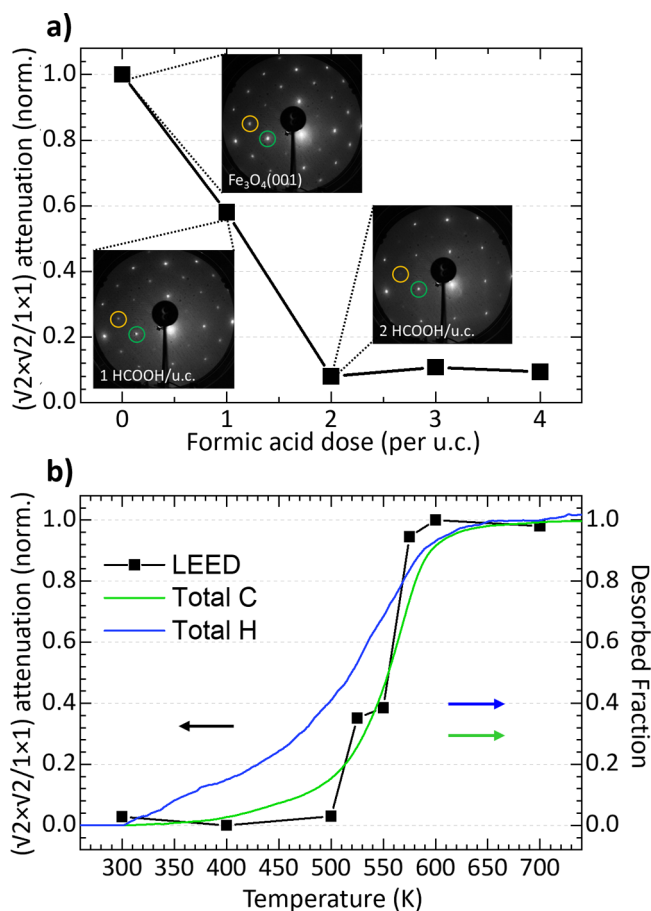


Figure 3. Normalized ratio of $(\sqrt{2} \times \sqrt{2})$ and (1×1) $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4(001)$ LEED spot intensities (black squares) as a function of (a) HCOOH dose at 300 K and (b) annealing temperature for saturation dose of 2 HCOOH/u.c. All data was acquired at 300 K with a beam energy of 66.7 eV, and each image was taken at a different sample location to minimize beam damage. The sample was annealed at the same rate as the TPRS (1 K/s). The yellow and green circles in the LEED images in (a) represent the $(\sqrt{2} \times \sqrt{2})$ and (1×1) LEED spots, respectively. Additional LEED images are displayed in Figures S4 and S5. Green and blue lines in panel (b) are the fractional TPRS product yields of carbon and hydrogen-containing products from 2 HCOOH/u.c. presented in Figure 4.

magnitude of the vibrational transition dipole moment, as analyzed in more detail in previous work.⁸⁸ The weak signals at 1380 and 2850 cm^{-1} (Figure S2d) are characteristic of the C–H deformation and stretching vibrations, respectively. The IR features are consistent with those observed for formate species on other oxide surfaces.^{26,45,46,50,58} The reversed signs of the $\nu_s(\text{OCO})$ and $\nu_{as}(\text{OCO})$ bands indicate the formation of bidentate formate with a nearly upright geometry on the $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4(001)$ surface (for a detailed analysis, see ref.⁷² No vibrational modes associated with $\nu(\text{C}=\text{O})$ ($\sim 1600\text{--}1800$ cm^{-1}) were observed, demonstrating that no molecular formic acid is present at 335 K.

The 335 K preadsorbed surface was subsequently ramped to 525 K (Figure 2d purple) to monitor changes in intermediate species at desorption temperatures. However, no noticeable changes in peak shape or position were observed, with only a reduction in peak intensity. This indicates that the observed formate intermediate directly leads to the reaction products or if a second intermediate exists, it is short-lived and rapidly

converts to reaction products and thus is not observed in the IR spectra.

3.2. The Stability of $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4(001)$ Reconstruction Following Formic Acid Adsorption. We carried out LEED studies to understand structural changes of the $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4(001)$ surface resulting from formic acid adsorption and reaction. Pristine $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4(001)$ exhibits a $(\sqrt{2} \times \sqrt{2})\text{R}45^\circ$ LEED pattern due to the formation of the SCV reconstruction and formation of the interstitial Fe (Fe_{int}) as described in Figure 1.^{85,89–91} When the reconstruction is lifted, the pattern reverts to a (1×1) periodicity as the Fe_{int} occupies one of the subsurface cation vacancies.⁹² Prior results demonstrated that with increasing formic acid and hydroxyl coverages, the bulk terminated surface becomes more thermodynamically stable, filling the subsurface cation vacancies by the Fe_{int} and a bulk Fe atom.^{53,54,56,62,63}

Figure 3a shows that the intensity of the $(\sqrt{2} \times \sqrt{2})\text{R}45^\circ$ spots decreases linearly as the HCOOH/u.c. coverage is increased to saturation. This is surprising since the critical coverage of hydroxyls required to lift the reconstruction was determined to be 2 H/u.c.,⁶² which is only reached at 2 HCOOH/u.c. This may be due to the clustering of the HCOO (and OH) surface species, as indicated by the prior STM results on $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4(001)$.⁵³ Similar clustering was observed on rutile $\text{TiO}_2(110)$ and anatase $\text{TiO}_2(101)$ surfaces.^{43,93} As such, clustering would create high-density domains where the reconstruction is lifted, even at lower coverages, resulting in an overall linear decrease of the $(\sqrt{2} \times \sqrt{2})\text{R}45^\circ$ spot intensities.

Figure 3b (black squares) shows the return of the $(\sqrt{2} \times \sqrt{2})\text{R}45^\circ$ reconstruction on the surface covered with 2 HCOOH/u.c., following ramping to different temperatures. The recovery of the normalized $(\sqrt{2} \times \sqrt{2})\text{R}45^\circ$ LEED spot intensities (black squares) between 500 and 600 K coincides with the product desorption and restoration of the clean surface. This can be seen from the comparison with the running integrals of the desorbed fraction of hydrogen (blue) and carbon (green) containing species from the identically prepared surface, as seen in Figure 4. As discussed previously, the H-containing products begin to desorb at temperatures 25–50 K lower than those of the C-containing products. Surprisingly, the recovery of the $(\sqrt{2} \times \sqrt{2})$ LEED spots aligns more closely with the desorption of C-containing products than H-containing products.

This finding suggests that surface formate species also hinder the recovery of the $(\sqrt{2} \times \sqrt{2})\text{R}45^\circ$ reconstruction. This is further supported by two additional LEED experiments, which show a partial return of the $(\sqrt{2} \times \sqrt{2})$ LEED spot intensities with e^- -beam exposure on the HCOOH saturated surface, but no return in spot intensity for an atomic D* dosed surface, as shown in Figure S6. Further, a recent DFT study demonstrated formate stabilization of the bulk-truncated surface and facile diffusion of Fe_{int} into a subsurface cation vacancy.⁵⁴

3.3. The Formation of Reaction Products. The coverage-dependent TPRS spectra collected following H^{13}COOH doses at 120 K on a newly prepared $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4(001)$ sample are shown in Figure 4a. The desorption of unreacted H^{13}COOH and produced ^{13}CO , $^{13}\text{CO}_2$, and H_2O is observed with no measurable quantities of H_2 or H_2CO . Analogous H^{13}COOH TPRS spectra obtained on an aged $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4(001)$ used in Rh single-atom experiments⁸ exhibit only minor differences, as shown in Figure S7a. The reported absolute formic acid coverages were determined using a flux-calibrated

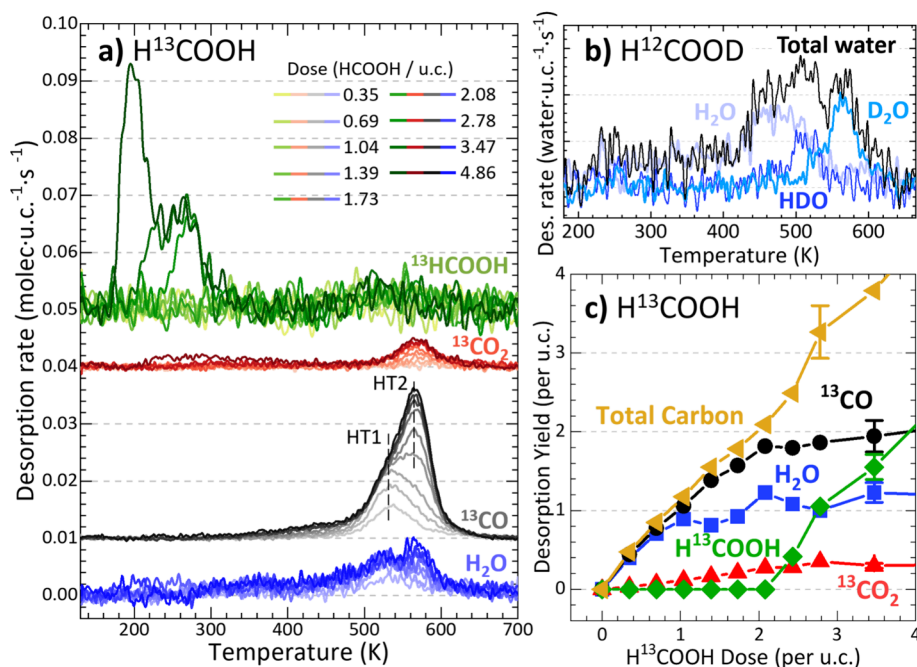


Figure 4. Coverage-dependent TPRS spectra from formic acid (H^{13}COOH) adsorbed on $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4(001)$ at 120 K. (a) The desorption spectra of H^{13}COOH reactant and ^{13}CO , $^{13}\text{CO}_2$, and H_2O products. Details of the data processing are described in [Methods](#). (b) Water desorption products from a 2.8 $\text{D}^{12}\text{COOH/u.c.}$ TPRS. (c) Integrated desorption yield of the products versus the formic acid dose (via flux-calibrated molecular beam). Integration ranges for the TPRS traces in panel (a) are as follows: H_2O (400–650 K), ^{13}CO (325–650 K), $^{13}\text{CO}_2$ (460–650 K), and H^{13}COOH (150–350 K). The error bars were determined by comparison of the integrated C-containing products to dosed H^{13}COOH coverage. The higher doses showing the formation of HCOOH multilayers are shown in [Figure S8](#).

molecular beam and coverage-dependent sticking coefficient measurements. The sticking coefficient measurements were performed using the King and Wells method⁹⁴ and determined to be unity within the error of repeat experiments ($\sim 3\%$, data not shown).

3.3.1. Desorption of Formic Acid. The desorption of H^{13}COOH is only observed for coverages above 2 $\text{H}^{13}\text{COO/u.c.}$, which corresponds to the saturation of formate species. This indicates that most formate species undergo further conversion to other products. At higher coverages, two peaks emerge at 190 and 230 K, [Figure 4a-top](#). The peak at 230 K appears first at 2.0–2.5 doses of $\text{H}^{13}\text{COOH/u.c.}$, and is subsequently followed by the development of the peak at 190 K. Since the XPS data ([Figure 2c](#)) shows that no molecularly adsorbed formic acid is stable on the surface after heating to 230 K, the 230 K peak likely represents recombinative desorption of bidentate formate with surface hydroxyl. Upon full saturation ($\sim 4 \text{ H}^{13}\text{COOH/u.c.}$), this peak contains $\sim 0.4 \text{ H}^{13}\text{COOH/u.c.}$ The molecular desorption peak at 190 K develops between ~ 2.5 and 4 HCOOH/u.c. doses where it saturates the peak signal. This peak is followed by the emergence of HCOOH multilayers at higher doses. The formic acid multilayer peak begins to desorb at $\sim 170 \text{ K}$ with typical zero-order desorption kinetics ([Figure S8](#)). This multilayer

peak is easily distinguishable from the monolayer peak as it contains mass fragment 48 (mass 47 is H^{13}COOH parent mass) and is likely a consequence of the desorption of dimerized formic acid molecules.^{43,95}

As indicated above, small differences are observed on the aged $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4(001)$ sample ([Figure S7](#), top), where a small amount of formic acid ($\sim 0.3 \text{ H}^{13}\text{COOH/u.c.}$) desorbs between 400 and 600 K. Since only formate is present in the XPS and IRRAS data ([Figure 2c,d](#)) above $\sim 230 \text{ K}$, we attribute this feature to the recombinative desorption of formate with hydroxyl hydrogen.

3.3.2. Carbon Monoxide Formation. The primary carbon-containing reaction product is found to be CO ([Figure 4a](#) black). The ^{13}CO desorption initially develops as a single broad feature centered between 480 and 600 K that saturates at $\sim 1 \text{ H}^{13}\text{COOH/u.c.}$ As the processes described below are common to ^{13}C labeled and ^{12}C dominated unlabeled formic acid, we omit ^{13}C labeling in the text below. The peak desorption temperature shifts from the initial $\sim 538 \text{ K}$ at low coverages ($\sim 0.35 \text{ HCOOH/u.c.}$) to 530 K, where it saturates at $\sim 1 \text{ HCOOH/u.c.}$ and exhibits an apparent second-order desorption kinetics. We further refer to this feature as the CO HT1 peak. The 530 K feature is followed by the second peak at somewhat higher temperatures (540–600 K), which saturates

at ~ 2 HCOOH/u.c. and peaks at 560 K (further referred to as CO HT2). In contrast to the CO HT1 peak, the CO HT2 peak has a constant coverage-dependent peak temperature of 560 K and exhibits characteristics of a first-order desorption process. In the 1–2 HCOOH/u.c. coverage range, a broad low-temperature shoulder also populates between 300 and 450 K. A notable difference between the new Fe₃O₄(001) (Figure 4a, black) and aged Fe₃O₄(001) surfaces (Figure S7, black) is an increased CO HT2 yield (~ 0.4 HCOOH/u.c.) that coincides with a drop in the yield of CO₂ formation and the recombinative desorption of HCOOH. The second difference is the emergence of a high-temperature shoulder at ~ 650 K for the aged Fe₃O₄(001) (Figure S7, black). These differences likely arise from the increased defect site density (step edges, Fe adatoms, etc.)⁹⁶ due to prior metal deposition or extended thermal cycling of the Fe₃O₄(001) single crystal.

3.3.3. Carbon Dioxide Formation. The second minority carbon-containing product observed following the HCOOH exposure is CO₂ (Figure 4a red). CO₂ desorbs as a single peak centered at ~ 570 K and grows steadily with formate coverages up to 2 HCOOH/u.c. The similar desorption temperature for CO₂ and the HT2 CO desorption peak suggests competing decomposition processes occurring likely on the same reaction sites. Further, the lack of CO₂ formation along the HT1 CO desorption channel indicates that this process significantly differs from the HT2 channel in that it is highly selective to CO formation. At higher doses of formic acid (>2 HCOOH/u.c.), broad CO and CO₂ features are observed starting at ~ 200 K and tailing off at 300 K. As their appearance coincides with the growth of the HCOOH low-temperature desorption peaks, we attribute these features to the reaction of formic acid on hot surfaces of the mass spectrometer ionizer as has been seen in other studies.^{39,46}

3.3.4. Water Formation via Mars-van Krevelen Mechanism. The only observed carbon-free desorption product is water (Figure 4a blue). H₂O desorbs over a broad temperature range (~ 400 – 650 K), with most water desorbing from a peak initially located at 530 K, reaching a peak maximum at ~ 2 HCOOH/u.c. The desorption of water in this temperature range is consistent with surface hydroxyl recombination to water via the Mars-van Krevelen mechanism and oxygen vacancy formation.^{64,92,97}

To understand the relationship between the initial deprotonation of HCOOH and subsequent C–H bond cleavage leading to CO and CO₂ products, TPRS measurements with D¹²COOH were performed. The resulting desorption spectra of H₂O, HDO, and D₂O products are shown in Figure 4b. The first water product to desorb is H₂O, which appears at ~ 400 K, peaks at ~ 460 K, and ceases at ~ 550 K. The next product, HDO, desorbs between ~ 450 and 550 K (peak at ~ 500 K), and the last product, D₂O, desorbs between 540 and 610 K (peak at ~ 560 K). The first water species (H₂O) originates from the initial deprotonation of D¹²COOH. The initial HDO shoulder (~ 470 K) coincides with the HT1 CO desorption shoulder and results from the C–D cleavage step required for CO formation, leaving behind D and O atoms on the surface. The H₂O and HDO traces simultaneously recede around 530 K, indicating a decrease in OH coverage through water desorption. As formate decomposition to CO proceeds along the HT1 CO channel, new surface OD species are formed, and D₂O desorption increases while H₂O and HDO desorption decrease. The D₂O desorption parallels the transition from the HT1 CO to the HT2 CO channel.

3.3.5. Formic Acid Reaction Mechanism from TPRS. Total product yields obtained by integrating the TPRS traces in Figure 4a as a function of formic acid dose are shown in Figure 4c. Generally, up to a saturation coverage of 2 H¹³COOH/u.c., all product yields (¹³CO, ¹³CO₂, H₂O) increase monotonically and approximately linearly with increasing dose. Above this coverage, the desorption of reaction products plateaus, and only the low-temperature H¹³COOH desorption continues to increase linearly. This shows that all formic acid directly bound on Fe_{oct} sites^{53–56} as bidentate formate and hydroxyls are converted to the reaction products.

On the new sample, these are only CO and CO₂, while on the aged sample, a small amount ($<15\%$) desorbs recombinatively as H¹³COOH (see Figure S7). The desorption product yields in Figure 4c demonstrate that carbon desorbing in carbon-containing products equals the carbon dosed as formic acid. CO dominates the distribution and accounts for ~ 70 – 87% of desorbing carbon. Both CO₂ and HCOOH account for ~ 12 – 30% .

A somewhat worse agreement is obtained for H-containing products (H₂O and HCOOH), where the yield of desorbing hydrogen accounts only for $\sim 50\%$ of that expected based on the formic acid (FA) dose (Figure 4c blue and green). The origin of this discrepancy may be due to the difficulty of collecting a small and broad water desorption signal. A similar discrepancy has also been reported on other metal oxides.^{29,49,57,98} The TPRS data in Figure 4 shows that the selective HCOOH decomposition on the Fe₃O₄(001) surface heavily favors the dehydration pathway, producing approximately 4.5–6 times more CO than CO₂, depending on sample age and surface defect concentration.

The coverage-dependence of CO TPRS spectra (Figure 4c black) with two maxima that are filling in from the lower-temperature HT1 peak (~ 530 K) at low coverages (0–1 FA/u.c.) to the higher-temperature HT2 peak (~ 560 K) at high coverages (1–2 FA/u.c.) is puzzling. At low coverage, the lower-temperature regime demonstrates the availability of a lower energy HT1 reaction pathway not utilized by all adsorbed formate species when the starting coverages are high. Several factors can contribute to the two-channel dehydration mechanism. The early concurrent desorption of H₂O and CO indicates that hydroxyls may play an important role in differentiating these two CO pathways. The formation of oxygen vacancies via water formation could yield different formate species (e.g., via the reaction of bidentate formate with the oxygen vacancy). Additionally, the differences in the activity of the Fe_{oct} binding sites (e.g., with or without the OH neighbors) can be important. Further, Fe₃O₄(001) reconstruction is lifted upon formic acid adsorption and subsequently reformed by 623 K,⁶² introducing another possibility that surface restructuring also plays an important role in directing low/high channels and CO versus CO₂ formation. Further experiments designed to test these suppositions are discussed in the following sections.

3.4. The Effect of Surface Hydroxyls on the Kinetics of Formate Conversion to CO. To test whether the two CO reaction channels (TPRS peaks HT1 and HT2 in Figure 4) result from the formate being immobilized and reacting on two different sites, we carried out experiments using isotopically labeled HCOOH species. Figure 5a shows ¹³CO (blue) and ¹³CO₂ (purple) TPRS reference spectra following 2 H¹³COOH/u.c. adsorption (analogous to those shown in Figure 4a).

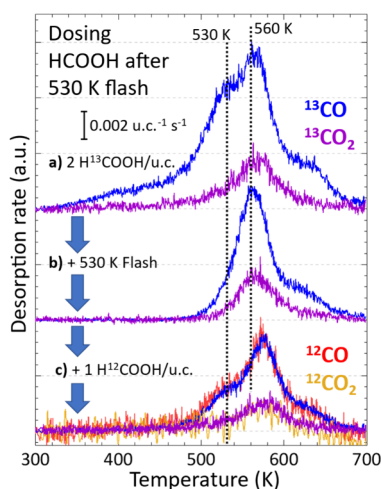


Figure 5. Set of CO (blue and red) and CO₂ (purple and orange) TPRS experiments following the dose of isotopically labeled HCOOH at 300 K. (a) TPRS after 2 H¹³COOH/u.c. dose. (b) TPRS after 2 H¹³COOH/u.c. dose, ramp to 530 K, and cooling to 300 K. (c) TPRS after 2 H¹³COOH/u.c. dose, ramp to 530 K, cooling to 300 K, and 1 H¹²COOH/u.c. dose. The TPRS spectra are offset to illustrate changes resulting from each preparation step. Vertical dashed lines at 530 and 560 K are added to highlight the CO reaction channels HT1 and HT2, respectively.

Figure 5b, shows TPRS spectra following the adsorption of 2 H¹³COOH/u.c., ramping to 530 K, and subsequently cooling to 300 K. The resulting TPRS (Figure 5b) only exhibits the HT2 ¹³CO (blue) peak at 560 K and ¹³CO₂ (purple) peak at 570 K. This experiment demonstrates that the C-containing surface-intermediate/active-site configuration that yields ¹³CO product via HT1 peak cannot be regenerated from the remaining C-containing surface intermediates (~1 intermediate/u.c.). It should be noted that the surface with the remaining formate that desorbs via HT2 is practically free of hydroxyl species produced by formic acid deprotonation as they desorbed as water at lower temperatures within the HT1 region (see Figure 4b).

To assess whether the lack of the conversion of remaining formate via HT1 is a result of the limited mobility, we took the surface prepared in Figure 5b (~1 HCOO/u.c. is still on the surface) and dosed a second isotope 1 H¹²COOH/u.c. The resulting TPRS in Figure 5c shows a complete mixing of ¹²C and ¹³C HCOOH isotopes. This demonstrates that the first-dosed isotope (here ¹³C) can be completely redistributed and desorbed via the HT1 TPRS channel with the same probability as the ¹²C isotope. This redistribution excludes the possibility that the 530 K annealing has induced the formation of a new surface intermediate which is less reactive than the one being converted via the HT1 channel. A separate TPRS experiment involving the subsequent dose of 1 H¹³COOH/u.c. and 1 HCOOH/u.c. (without annealing between the doses) also shows a complete mixing of the formate species (see Figure S9).

We considered two possibilities:

- (1) High local HCOO coverage is required to enable the low-temperature conversion via HT1, possibly via lifting of the reconstruction, as shown in Figure 3a. This supposition would be consistent with the clustering of the formate species observed in a prior STM study,⁹⁶ but inconsistent with the annealing-dependent recovery of

the reconstruction on formic acid-covered surfaces shown in Figure 3b. There, annealing to 530 K does not lift the reconstruction completely, indicating the presence of some high-density domains despite the absence of CO formation via the HT1 channel.

- (2) The presence of surface hydroxyl species is critical for the HT1 reaction channel. The initially high coverage of hydroxyls was achieved by the deprotonation of 2 HCOOH/u.c. leads to 2 OH/u.c. surface coverage. This coverage has been shown to lift the surface reconstruction⁶² However, as already discussed in (1), the reconstruction alone cannot be the reason for the presence of two observed HT1 and HT2 channels. The TPRS experiments with DCOOH having isotopically labeled hydrogen positions (Figure 4b), demonstrate that all water derived from surface hydroxyls (OH) originates from formic acid deprotonation (H) and desorbs by 530–550 K. Therefore, any hydroxyls that form via C–D bond cleavage at higher temperatures will recombine immediately as they are not limited by slow kinetics of water formation. Therefore, TPRS features HT1 as operating in the abundance of surface hydroxyl species while HT2 operates mostly in their absence.

To determine whether surface hydroxyls affect fractioning into HT1 and HT2 CO formation pathways, TPRS spectra were taken after increasing the surface hydroxyl coverage by dosing atomic hydrogen. The same preparation procedure was adopted, which led to the TPRS spectra shown in Figure 5b. The reference TPRS from 2 H¹³COOH/u.c. is shown in Figure 6a. Figure 6b, shows the TPRS from the surface prepared as in Figure 6a after ramping to 530 K and cooling to 300 K. The surface prepared as in Figure 6b is then modified by dosing a 50% saturation dose of atomic D, as calibrated with LEED and XPS and detailed in Figure S3. The resulting TPRS, Figure 6c, shows that the leading edge and peak of the CO

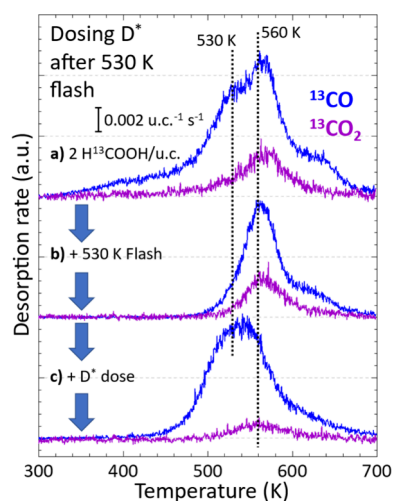


Figure 6. 2 H¹³COOH/u.c. TPRS highlighting the effects of rehydrogenation after ramping to 530 K. (a) 2 H¹³COOH/u.c. dosed at 300 K. (b) After ramping the surface to 530 K. (c) After dosing a 530 K ramped surface with 50% of the saturation coverage of atomic hydrogen. The TPRS spectra have not been calibrated to a desorption rate as in Figure 2 due to uncertainty in how the atomic hydrogen dosing affects the angular desorption of the CO product. Vertical dashed lines at 530 and 560 K are added to highlight the CO reaction channels HT1 and HT2, respectively.

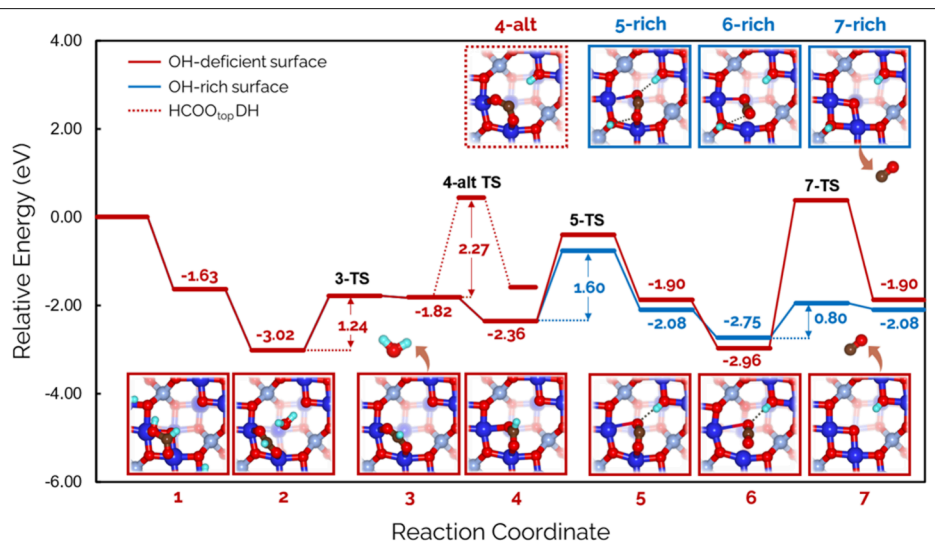


Figure 7. Energy diagram of HCOOH decomposition to CO on hydroxyl-deficient (red) and hydroxyl-rich (blue) ($\sqrt{2} \times \sqrt{2}$)R45° reconstructed Fe₃O₄ (001). All energies are corrected with ZPE and referenced to a clean reconstructed Fe₃O₄ (001) surface and three noninteracting gas-phase formic acid molecules. Inserts of the minima configurations for the hydroxyl-deficient paths are framed in red, and the hydroxyl-rich surface is shown in blue (labeled as 5, 6, 7-rich). A dotted red line shows a direct C–H bond cleavage of the bidentate formate step (4-alt). The Fe_{oct}, Fe_{tet}, C, O, and H atoms are represented as blue, light blue-gray, brown, red, and teal spheres. The hydroxyl-deficient/rich surfaces refer to the location of the OH relative to the BLO. The number of H present is consistent for all calculations. Additional molecular figures highlighting the oxygens from the reactant are included in the SI (Figure S15).

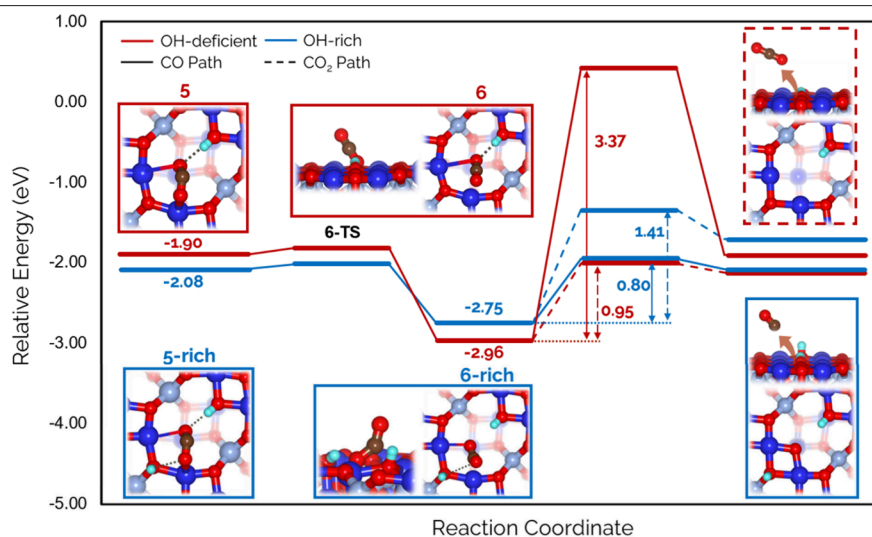


Figure 8. The comparison of different pathways yielding OCO configurations (steps 5 and 6 in Figure 7) on the ($\sqrt{2} \times \sqrt{2}$)R45° reconstructed Fe₃O₄ (001) surface. The energies are referenced to a clean surface with three noninteracting gaseous formic acid molecules. The differences in the final states are due to the differences in energy of the OH-deficient and OH-rich surfaces. The Fe_{oct}, Fe_{tet}, C, O, and H atoms are represented as blue, light blue-gray, brown, red, and teal spheres, respectively. Energies are references to the final state of step 5 (embedded OCO). From step 6 on both surfaces, the CO production pathway energetics are denoted with a solid line, and the CO₂ production pathway energetics are denoted with a dashed line.

desorption have downshifted considerably to the temperature range of the HT1 reaction channel. Further, the area of CO desorbing from the surface increased by 54%, while CO₂ decreased by 58% compared to the hydroxyl-free TPRS (Figure 6b).

3.5. Formic Acid Decomposition Mechanisms Based on DFT Calculations. DFT calculations were used to investigate the possible effects of surface conditions on the reaction pathways for CO and CO₂ formation, i.e. oxygen

vacancy (O_{vac}) formation, the proximity of hydroxyl to the reacting formate, and the lifting of the surface reconstruction.

3.5.1. Mars-van Krevelen Mediated Water and Oxygen Vacancy Formation. The energetics of the proposed reaction mechanism of HCOOH decomposition to CO on reconstructed Fe₃O₄ (001) at 3/8 ML formic acid coverage is shown in Figure 7. This coverage is selected to account for the lateral interactions between the adsorbates during the reaction (for adsorbate configurations and interactions, see Section 10 of the

supplement and Figures S10 and S11). Adsorption of three HCOOH molecules on reconstructed Fe₃O₄ (001) (step 1, Figure 7) is downhill (exoergic) in energy by 1.63 eV, corresponding to the adsorption energy of 0.54 eV per HCOOH molecule, in agreement with previous results on other metal oxides.^{47,99} The deprotonation of HCOOH to formate and hydroxyl, followed by the formation of surface-bound water with the second surface hydroxyl near the BLO (step 2, Figure 7), is further downhill by 1.39 eV. The subsequent desorption of water via the MvK mechanism requires 1.24 eV and leads to the formation of O_{vac} (steps 3-TS and 3, Figure 7). The favorability of O_{vac} formation at the BLO (versus other oxygens) is discussed further in Section 11 of the supplement and Figures S12 and S13. The estimate of the energetics of water formation from TPRS (Figure 4b) using the first-order desorption kinetics, prefactor of 10¹³ s⁻¹, and the observed water desorption rate of 0.002 H₂O/u.c./s at ~400 K yields a desorption energy of ~1.1 eV,¹⁰⁰ consistent with our TPRS spectra.

The subsequent C–H bond cleavage of the formate shown in step 3 is very high (~2.27 eV, step 4-alt TS, Figure 7) and, therefore, unlikely. In contrast with this high barrier pathway, the formation of O_{vac} enables a distinct reaction pathway where one of the formate oxygens fills the O_{vac}, forming a formate embedded in the surface (step 4, Figure 7). The C–H bond cleavage of this embedded formate is significantly easier, as discussed in the next section.

3.5.2. The Influence of Hydroxyl Species on CO and CO₂ Formation. To understand the experimentally observed effect of surface hydroxyls on the formation of CO and CO₂, we carried out calculations with hydroxyl-deficient (red) and hydroxyl-rich (blue) surfaces for the reaction steps following the formation of embedded formate (steps 5–7, Figure 7, Figure S14, and Table S1). Hydroxyl-deficient and hydroxyl-rich refers to the amount of OH near the BLO but the total number of OH are kept consistent for the deficient and rich calculations. The reaction pathway for the hydroxyl-rich surface (shown in blue and figure inserts labeled 5-, 6-, and 7-rich) is represented by a slab with the OH bound to two Fe_{oct} at the BLO and across from the embedded formate. The addition of OH near the embedded HCOO lowers the activation barrier for the C–H bond cleavage (step 5-TS, Figure 7) from 1.96 eV on the hydroxyl-deficient surface to 1.60 eV on the hydroxyl-rich surface. More importantly, it affects the subsequent barrier of C–O bond scission (step 7-TS, Figure 7), which is necessary to form CO. The nearby OH decreases this barrier from 3.37 eV (step 7-TS, red) to 0.80 eV (step 7-TS, blue).

The effects of the OH are shown on Figure 8 which depicts the reaction and activation energies for CO and CO₂ formation with and without hydroxyl. On the hydroxyl-rich surface, a bent (activated) OCO configuration is stabilized after the formate C–H bond cleavage through the interactions with the OH (step 6-rich, Figure 8). In contrast, a deactivated, linear OCO configuration forms on the hydrogen-deficient surface (step 6, Figure 8). The reaction path from the bent configuration (hydroxyl-rich) has a lower activation barrier to release CO (blue solid line, 0.80 eV) than CO₂ (blue dashed line, 1.41 eV). In contrast, for the linear OCO configuration (hydroxyl-deficient), the CO₂ formation (red dashed line, 0.95 eV) is more favorable than C–O bond cleavage and CO formation (red solid line, 3.37 eV). This may explain why,

experimentally, CO₂ is primarily observed on the hydroxyl-deficient surface.

A proximal OH stabilizes the bent OCO configuration via hydrogen bonding, and the subsequent C–O bond-breaking step becomes more facile, favoring CO production. Mulliken charge analysis indicates that hydroxyls reduce the charges of neighboring Fe_{oct} atoms. The decrease in the oxidation state of the Fe_{oct} strengthens the interaction between the Fe_{oct} and OCO, which inhibits CO₂ desorption and favors C–O bond scission to CO.

3.5.3. The Influence of Lifting of the Fe₃O₄(001) Reconstruction on Reaction Kinetics. The LEED images of Figure 3a suggest that the decomposition of HCOO may occur on a surface where the reconstruction is lifted, which can affect the decomposition pathway. The structure of a slab where the reconstruction is locally lifted is described in the SI (Figure S11), and the energetics of HCOOH decomposition on this locally lifted surface are shown in Figure S16. Overall, the pathway for HCOOH decomposition to CO at low OH coverage on the locally lifted surface (Figure S16, OH-deficient) shares similar mechanistic behavior as that on the reconstructed surface for reaction steps at low OH coverage (Figure 7, OH-deficient). However, with high OH coverage (Figure S16, OH-rich), very little change is observed compared to the OH-deficient surface. This result contrasts with what was observed for the reconstructed surface, where a hydroxyl-rich surface significantly reduced the barrier for the C–O cleavage step and CO formation (Figure 7, OH-rich). The stabilization effect of the hydroxyls on the embedded OCO intermediate for this locally lifted surface is minimal, mainly due to the orientation of the hydroxyl near the interstitial vacancy (Figure S17, panels D), which is oriented toward the vacancy (created when the Fe_{int} diffuses to a SCV). This inhibits interaction with the OCO intermediate, leading to the formation of a linear OCO despite the presence of OH. As a result, adding hydroxyl on the locally lifted surface does not show any significant effects on the energetics pathway, and the production of CO is not favored, as observed on the reconstructed surface.

As mentioned earlier, in the TPRS and LEED data (Figure 4 and Figure 3) taken during the formic acid adsorption and reaction, the recovery of the ($\sqrt{2} \times \sqrt{2}$)R45° pattern coincides more closely with the desorption of CO or CO₂ rather than H₂O desorption. This suggests that the return of the ($\sqrt{2} \times \sqrt{2}$)R45° reconstruction occurs after the vacancy formation by water desorption and subsequent embedment of HCOO into the vacancy. The increase in Fe_{oct}–O bond length of the embedded formate on the locally lifted surface (2.25 Å, lower-right panel Figure S18) compared to the bidentate formate (2.01 Å, upper-middle panel Figure S18) suggests weaker interactions. This weakening in the chemisorption of embedded formate may induce recovery of the local reconstruction, i.e., the return of sublayer Fe_{oct} to the Fe_{int} position.^{53,54,56,62,91} The reformation of Fe_{int} at 500–600 K is very facile due to the low energy barrier of 0.05 eV for the diffusion of Fe_{oct} from the sublayer into the interstitial site.⁵⁴ Based on this, we speculate that the lifting of the reconstruction is reversed after the surface vacancy formation and embedment of HCOO into the surface. The reappearance of the Fe_{int} reintroduces the effect of OH near the reactive site, where the OCO is stabilized in a bent configuration, favoring CO production.

3.6. Summary of the Reaction Mechanism. The behavior of formic acid on the $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4(001)$ is surprisingly complex. This is a consequence of the structural changes that occur during the formic acid adsorption and subsequent product formation. Below, we summarize the above-discussed structural factors that include lifting of the surface reconstruction, presence of the surface hydroxyls, and formation of the oxygen vacancies on the observed catalytic chemistry, and the two CO formation channels (HT1 and HT2).

3.6.1. Formation of Bidentate Formate Species. The deprotonation of formic acid is well established, supported by our XPS, IRRAS, and DFT results in Figure 2 and Figure 7. Since there are no shifts in C 1s and O 1s XPS peak positions and no changes in the observed IR frequencies along the TPRS ramp, bidentate formate is found to be the only stable, long-lived intermediate before product formation.

The LEED results presented in Figure 4 further show that upon formic acid deprotonation at 300 K, the total area of the surface that is reconstructed decreases linearly with increasing coverage. This linear decrease suggests the presence of unreconstructed regions (at least several nm in size) that become larger as the coverage increases. This finding is consistent with the previous LEED and STM study.⁵³ Further, the studies of H atom adsorption⁶² concluded that hydroxyl coverage of 2H/u.c. is required to lift the surface reconstruction. This surface hydroxyl coverage can only be reached if formic acid clusters on the surface. Furthermore, STM studies at lower than saturation coverages (2 formic acid/u.c.) suggested clustering of the formate species.⁵³

3.6.2. Water Formation via the Mars-van Krevelen Mechanism. The fact that water desorption in TPRS precedes CO desorption indicates that lattice oxygen participates in the water formation process. Past studies of formic acid on metal oxide surfaces have stressed the importance of hydroxyl recombination to water and oxygen vacancy formation in CO formation.^{29,35,36,39,41,43,48,49,58,101} Here, two adjacent hydroxyls react to form water. The fact that the water desorption precedes the formation of carbon-containing products, as shown in Figure 4b (blue line), clearly indicates that oxygen is being abstracted from the lattice, creating an oxygen vacancy.

3.6.3. The Thermal Stability of Bidentate Formate Intermediate. The findings presented in Figure 2 argue against forming a second stable formate species that would form along the TPRS ramp. In particular, we expect the bidentate formate to react with oxygen vacancies above ~ 400 K due to recombinative water formation from surface hydroxyls.^{64,92,97} Our DFT results (Figure 7) demonstrate that such a barrierless reaction creates a surface-embedded formate, with one formate oxygen integrated into the surface and coordinating with three iron atoms. Studies on other oxides have demonstrated the importance of oxygen vacancies in the formate decomposition pathway to CO.^{29,35,36,39,41,43,48,49,58,101} The minimum energy pathway under hydroxyl-rich conditions (HT1) suggests the embedded formate is stable, with subsequent C–H cleavage being the rate-limiting step (Figure 7). The lack of this embedded formate species observed in IRRAS indicates this species exists as a minority and, after its formation, quickly reacts to CO or CO_2 .

3.6.4. Recovery of the Surface Reconstruction during Product Formation. The LEED results in Figure 3b show that the $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4(001)$ reconstruction reforms as the reaction

products desorb during the TPRS ramp (500–600 K). The reappearance of the reconstruction correlates more closely with the annealing-induced CO product formation rather than H_2O formation. This suggests that formate species stabilize the lifting of the reconstruction, similar to the presence of surface hydroxyls. Our DFT work demonstrates that energy barriers are prohibitively high for the C–O bond cleavage step to release CO on the locally lifted surface (even when it is hydroxyl-rich) compared to the reconstructed surface. The Fe_{int} on the reconstructed surface promotes hydroxyl interaction with the OCO intermediate, reducing the barrier toward CO formation. The continued yield of CO then indicates that at some point along this reaction pathway, the reconstruction is locally restored. In agreement, the TPRS and LEED data (Figure 3 and 4) shows the recovery of the $(\sqrt{2} \times \sqrt{2})\text{R}45^\circ$ pattern coincides more closely with the desorption of CO or CO_2 rather than H_2O desorption.

3.6.5. Surface Hydroxyls and Two Reaction Channels in CO Formation. The presence and absence of surface hydroxyls during the HT1 and HT2 CO desorption (Figure 4a), respectively, are the only evident characteristics that we could identify as a distinguishing factor for these two desorption channels. The liberation of formate trapped in the HT2 channel after atomic hydrogen adsorption, Figure 6, provides compelling evidence that hydroxyls present during the decomposition to CO lower the energy barrier for the rate-limiting step, resulting in the HT1 desorption peak.

DFT calculations suggest that an adjacent surface hydroxyl promotes CO production by stabilizing an OCO bent configuration through hydrogen bonding to the hydroxyl. Furthermore, hydroxyls reduce the neighboring Fe_{oct} atom, increasing the $\text{Fe}_{\text{oct}}-\text{O}$ interaction and stabilizing the OCO bent configuration. Additionally, the OCO–OH and $\text{Fe}_{\text{oct}}-\text{O}$ interactions weaken the OCO interaction with the OH across the BLO, preventing rearrangement to a linear OCO configuration. These effects promote the production of CO on the hydroxyl-rich surface observed in the HT1 channel.

3.6.6. CO_2 Formation. The desorption temperature range of CO_2 peak within TPRS coincides with that of HT2 CO, suggesting a common surface intermediate (Figure 4). Our DFT calculations indicate that CO_2 can react along two pathways through a bidentate or embedded bidentate intermediate. The bidentate pathway has a steep barrier to CO_2 formation, making it unlikely (Figure 7). Under hydroxyl-deficient conditions, the conversion of embedded formate is favored due to its lower reaction barrier (Figure 8). Under the hydroxyl-rich conditions of the HT1 channel, CO_2 formation is inaccessible, making CO the only carbon-containing product. Under the HT2 hydroxyl-deficient regime, the lack of hydroxyls favors CO_2 formation. However, the formation of surface hydroxyls, which causes formate to react along the CO pathway preferentially, limits the overall CO_2 production. This is consistent with the TPRS data, where the CO to CO_2 yield is 4:1 within the HT2 channel.

4. CONCLUSIONS

Our mechanistic studies of the formic acid reactions on the reconstructed $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4(001)$ surface reveal how the dynamic changes in the surface structure and the level of hydroxylation of the oxide surface during the reaction affect the reaction pathways. We have shown that the reaction proceeds at low temperatures via formic acid deprotonation on the pristine oxide, yielding formate and hydroxyl species adsorbed on the

surface. Two reaction channels are observed for the carbon-containing products at 530 and 560 K. The 530 K channel only shows the formation of CO, which closely follows water production via the Mars-van Krevelen mediated mechanism. Theoretical calculations show that the bidentate formate readily reacts with the resulting oxygen vacancy to yield a new formate species with one of its oxygens embedded in the surface. The 560 K channel yields both CO and CO₂ products. The lower activation barrier of the first reaction channel is facilitated by the presence of hydroxyls that originate from the deprotonation of the formic acid. DFT calculations show that hydroxyls stabilize the bent OCO intermediate, leading to preferential CO formation. The lack of hydroxyls in the 560 K channel yields a linear OCO intermediate, which leads to CO₂ formation. Since hydroxyls are also created during the C–H bond cleavage in the 560 K channel, CO is also produced.

Our findings demonstrate the importance of hydroxyls in influencing the reaction barriers and selective promotion of reaction products on oxide surfaces. Ultimately, these results illustrate the dynamic nature of the iron-oxide surface during the reaction and demonstrate how changes in the concentration of surface intermediates, such as hydroxyls, heavily influence surface activity and reaction kinetics.

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