

# Using EXAFS for the structural characterization of MoO<sub>3</sub> rods and their synthesis

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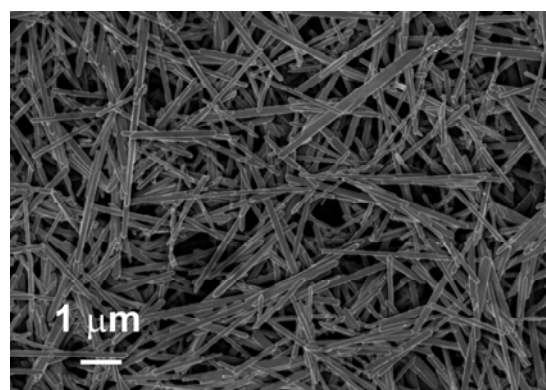
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The controlled synthesis of nanoparticles is interesting in a number of fields, such as nanotechnology and catalysis [1]. Among the multitude of newly generated nanomaterials, oxidic nanorods are especially valuable, because they combine a distinct anisotropic morphology with the manifold important properties of oxidic materials. In addition, materials like molybdenum oxides and mixed molybdenum oxides are well-known catalysts for reactions, such as methanol oxidation and selective oxidation of alkenes [2-4].

Recently, the solvothermal synthesis of MoO<sub>3</sub> nanorods has been studied and optimised. A convenient “one-pot-procedure” has been developed that gives controlled access to MoO<sub>3</sub> rods in gram-scale quantities. This experimental routine can be tuned by varying parameters such as solvent system and temperature in order to tailor the size and shape of the rod-shaped products. The crucial step during each procedure of rod formation is always the dehydration of the starting material, MoO<sub>3</sub>·2H<sub>2</sub>O, to give MoO<sub>3</sub>. Mechanistic investigations have been performed to gain further insights and control facilities, and the underlying reaction pathways of the tailor-made syntheses turned out to be both different from each other and from the dehydration mechanism observed under ambient conditions [5]. XAFS is an important tool because it monitors both the crystalline and amorphous phases in these systems. Some XAFS studies have recently been reported on the redox behaviour of MoO<sub>3</sub> and on the dehydration reactions of molybdenum trioxide hydrates [4,6]. Therefore, we have employed this technique to characterize several types of MoO<sub>3</sub> rods and the intermediates leading to them.

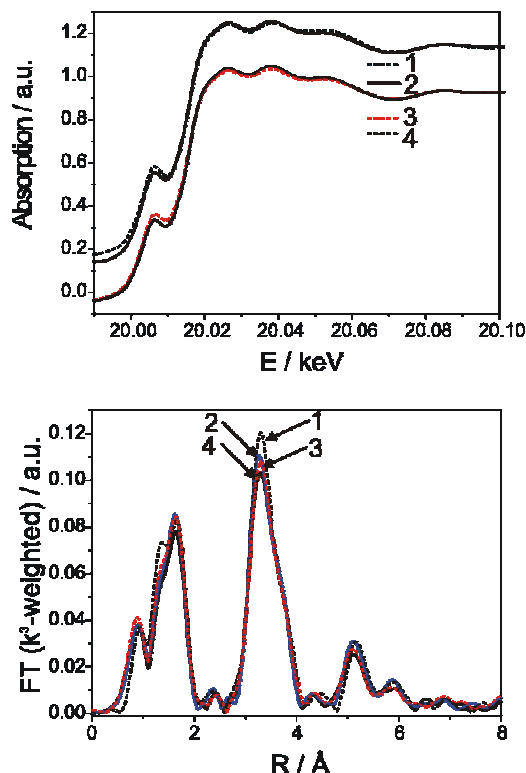
Mo K-edge EXAFS data were recorded in the transmission mode at station X1 (DORIS III operating at 4.4 GeV, injection current 140 mA, Si(311)-double-crystal monochromator). For this purpose ca. 40-80 mg of the samples were pressed to self-supporting wafers. Energy calibration was performed with a molybdenum foil (first inflection point at 20,000 eV). The spectra were energy corrected, background subtracted and normalized. After conversion into k-space the EXAFS signals were extracted and Fourier transformed.

The MoO<sub>3</sub> rods were prepared in the following way: In a standard procedure, the hydrothermal reaction of MoO<sub>3</sub>·2H<sub>2</sub>O was performed in an autoclave at 180°C for 2 – 6 d in the presence of diluted glacial acetic acid. Filtering and washing with ethanol and water resulted in the metallic-blue MoO<sub>3</sub> nanorod material. A typical SEM picture of MoO<sub>3</sub> nanorods is shown as an example in Figure 1. In the first part of the EXAFS studies, different MoO<sub>3</sub> nanonods were compared to references, such as MoO<sub>3</sub> and MoO<sub>3</sub>·2H<sub>2</sub>O. The results are shown in Figure 1. It is obvious that the structure is similar to MoO<sub>3</sub>. While the first shell at about 1.5 Å is due to Mo-O, the second shell at 3.5 Å can be contributed to molybdenum neighbours. The samples are thus completely dehydrated. Whereas the macrostructure is very different, the microstructure is quite similar. Small variations

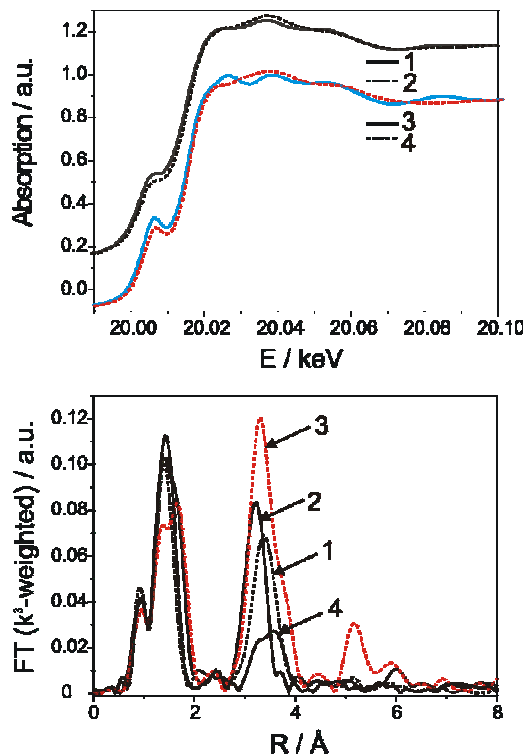


**Figure 1:** Representative SEM image of MoO<sub>3</sub> rods

can be found in the intensity of the Mo-O and Mo-Mo backscattering. These are probably due to small variations in the structure and could be caused by the thickness of the nanorods (decrease of the peaks leads to a decrease in the backscattering).



**Figure 2:** Mo K-EXAFS spectra and the corresponding Fourier transforms: (1) MoO<sub>3</sub> (2-4) nanorods with decreasing rod diameter (see text).



**Figure 3:** Mo K-EXAFS spectra and corresponding Fourier transforms: (1) α-MoO<sub>3</sub>·H<sub>2</sub>O, (2) MoO<sub>3</sub>·1/3H<sub>2</sub>O, (3) MoO<sub>3</sub> and (4) MoO<sub>3</sub>·2H<sub>2</sub>O

In the second part of the EXAFS studies samples were selected that correspond to intermediates of the synthesis: Both α-MoO<sub>3</sub>·H<sub>2</sub>O and MoO<sub>3</sub>·1/3H<sub>2</sub>O (phases were identified by X-ray diffraction) are compared to reference samples in Figure 3. The first Mo-O shell is significantly increased compared to MoO<sub>3</sub> and thus shows that the molybdenum is in similar coordination as in MoO<sub>3</sub>·2H<sub>2</sub>O. However, the backscattering of the second Mo-shell is significantly higher than in the layered MoO<sub>3</sub>·2H<sub>2</sub>O structure. The loss of interlayer water molecules from the MoO<sub>3</sub>·2H<sub>2</sub>O leads to layers of edge-sharing [MoO<sub>5</sub>(H<sub>2</sub>O)] octahedra connected by hydrogen bonds in α-MoO<sub>3</sub>·H<sub>2</sub>O [7]. MoO<sub>3</sub>·1/3H<sub>2</sub>O is made up of infinite planes of MoO<sub>3</sub> octahedra sharing their corners to form six-membered rings that are subsequently layered [5]. So the three-dimensional character of the Mo-O framework increases with decreasing water content and can be interpreted with respect to the changing Mo-O-Mo angle in these structures.

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