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1989

Selective electrocatalysis of anodic oxygen-transfer reactions at chemically modified, thin-film lead dioxide electrodes

Hsiangpin Chang *Iowa State University*

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Selective electrocatalysis of anodic oxygen-transfer reactions at chemically modified, thin-film lead dioxide electrodes

Chang, Hsiangpin, Ph.D.

Iowa State University, 1989

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Selective electrocatalysls of anodic oxygen-transfer reactions at chemically modified, thin-film lead dioxide electrodes

by

Hslangpln Chang

A Dissertation Submitted to the Graduate Faculty in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

> Department: Chemistry Major: Analytical Chemistry

Approved:

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For the Graduate College

Iowa State University Ames, Iowa

TABLE OF CONTENTS

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LIST OF MAJOR SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIATIONS

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DEDICATION

To my beloved parents and my dearest wife: Duan Qiongyin, Chang Qingshu, and Chang S. Suichu

I. GENERAL INTRODUCTION

A. Strategies to Modify Lead Dioxide Electrodes Selectively for Catalysis of Anodic Oxygen-Transfer Reactions

"The last word of 'analytical chemistry' Is chemistry." -Dennis C. Johnson

 \bar{z}

What are anodic oxygen-transfer reactions?

An anodic oxygen-transfer (0-t) reaction is defined as a reaction that involves the transfer of oxygen from the solvent $(H₂0)$ to the reactant R, which can be written in general as follows:

$$
R + H2O \xrightarrow{electrode} RO + 2 H+ + 2 e
$$
 [1]

This type of reaction differs from simple electron-transfer (e-t) reactions, e.g., $Fe^{2+} = Fe^{3+} + e$. The 0-t reactions are more complicated than e-t reactions because of the coupling of proton- and oxygen-transfer steps with the transfer of electrons. The 0-t reactions in acidic media are usually characterized by slow heterogeneous kinetics at conventional electrodes because of the additional process of activation of the oxygen from water. It has been concluded that, generally, anodic 0-t reactions can occur only via chemical participation of some electrode surface species, e.g., a labile, adsorbed hydroxyl radical generated during anodic surface oxide formation or water discharge (1). Unfortunately, these labile surface hydroxyl species are not readily available at the conventional solid electrodes commonly used as anodes. In order to use the anodic 0-t reactions efficiently for practical applications, e.g., in electroorganlc synthesis, fuel cells, and anodic amperometric detection, it is necessary to search for new electrode materials with selective, catalytic activity for 0-t reactions.

Some typical anodic 0-t reactions of practical importance are listed in Table 1. The production of perchlorate, benzoquinone, and anthroqulnone are significant for commercial electrosynthesls (2). The

$$
H_2O + SO_3^{2-} \rightarrow SO_4^{2-} + 2H^+ + 2e
$$

\n
$$
CO \rightarrow CO_2
$$

\n
$$
Cl^- \rightarrow ClO_3^- \rightarrow ClO_4^-
$$

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oxidation of Cr(III) to chromic acid, and Mn(II) to permanganate, are used in indirect oxidative electrolyses (3).

Throughout this research, the oxidation of dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) to dimethyl sulfone (DMSO₂) is used as the primary model 0-t reaction. It was chosen because it is a one-oxygen-transfer reaction with a simple oxidation product which is soluble in aqueous solution. The oxidation of $Mn(II)$ to MnO_L was chosen as a secondary model reaction because its product has intense color and so can be monitored easily with a spectrophotometric detector. The characteristic slow kinetics of anodic 0-t reactions is well represented by these two reactions in spite of their relatively low values of standard potential, 0.0 V and 1.35 V (4), respectively. Additional reactions from Table 1 were also studied. It was hoped that electrodes that tested positive for electrocatalysis with the model reactions would work virtually the same for other 0-t reactions because all anodic 0-t reactions share the same kinetic barrier.

Why do we need to modify lead dioxide electrodes?

Firstly, it has been a common perception that pure lead dioxide electrode lacks specific catalytic activities despite its wide use for anodic electrosynthesis (5). The common choice of PbO₂ as an anodic material for large-scale anodic electrosynthesis has been based, apparently, on the knowledge of the very large overpotential for oxygen evolution at pure PbO₂ and the impression that the accessibility of a large positive potential with minimal background current can adequately drive slow anodic reactions. Provided the above premise is correct, that anodic 0-t reactions are electrocatalyzed by mechanistic coupling

with the process of oxygen evolution, then the common strategy is seen to be without rational foundation. It is believed that properly modified $Pb0₂$ electrodes with specific catalytic activity can play an important role in many practical electrochemical processes.

Secondly, the initial screening of electrode materials indicated that lead dioxide might be particularly appropriate for 0-t reactions following modification of the bulk and/or surface structure of the oxide by incorporation of alternate metals for the lead. From previous studies of 0-t reactions at noble metal electrodes, e.g.. Au and Pt (1), it is known that the surfaces of metal oxides can be active participants in the electrocatalysis of anodic 0-t reaction. However, 0-t reactions at the noble metal electrodes lack long-term stability under constant-potential or constant-current conditions because of the passivation of the electrode surface which depresses the formation of the surface-bound state of active oxygen. It is anticipated that bulk oxide electrodes, e.g., $Pb0_2$, should be better electrodes for 0-transfer than the noble metals, because they are "oxygen-rich" at the surfaces (6). This is proved by the moderate catalytic activity of pure PbO $_2$ for the oxidation of some sulfur compounds (6a-c) and I^{\dagger} to IO_{Δ}^{\dagger} (7). It is also predicted that the catalytic activity of PbO₂ will be enhanced by proper chemical modification, specifically incorporation of foreign species as catalysts.

Thirdly, lead dioxide is believed to be readily suitable for chemical modification. It is a non-stoichiometric dioxide, with formulae of PbO_x (x - 1.9 - 2.0) (5). Thus, it should be possible to incorporate foreign ionic species into PbO₂ matrix by electrodeposition (6b-e).

The surface defects of $Pb0₂$ can also contribute to chemisorption and catalysis (8a). In addition, the surface structure of most metal oxides can be considered at atomic level as either terminated OH species or bridged 0 species (8b-d):

The actual picture undoubtedly is more complex, being some combination of both. In any case, some ion exchange or complexation ability of the oxide surface exists, which can be used to chemisorb ionic species as catalytic agents and thus to modify the surfaces of lead dioxide.

Finally, from practical points of view, lead dioxide was chosen because of its high electric conductivity, ease and low cost of preparation, chemical inertness to both acidic and alkaline media, stability at high temperatures, and high oxygen overpotential. The fundamental research of chemically modified electrodes has received great success in the last decade. However, the electrode materials tested have been mainly organic polymers and have not been accepted in large-scale electrolysis because of their lack of chemical inertness and stability. It is hopeful that the development of inorganic, modified $PbO₂$ electrodes will change this situation.

How to modify $Pb0₂$ electrodes selectively for catalysis of anodic 0-transfer reactions?

To answer this question, the mechanism of 0-t reaction is considered first in relation with that of anodic oxygen evolution. It is generally believed (9) that the first and rate-limiting step for the anodic evolution of oxygen is the discharge of water to yield the hydroxyl radical $(\cdot 0)$ which is adsorbed at the electrode (M) , as shown in Figure 1. The adsorbed hydroxyl radicals are further oxidized to give dioxygen and regenerate the M surface. If an oxidizable reactant R is present in the solution, the hydroxyl can be transferred to R to produce the oxidation product RO, which is indicated by the wide arrows in Figure 1.

It is, thus, clear that the electrocatalysis of 0-t reactions can be achieved by simultaneous promotion of the rate of hydroxyl generation and depression of the rate of oxygen evolution. This can be done by incorporation onto the PbO₂ surface of a material with a low oxygenevolution overpotential as catalyst in such a way that the catalytic sites are well separated from each other. Therefore, they serve as centers to generate the . OH species yet with a relatively low yield of oxygen gas. This strategy is illustrated schematically in Figure 2. Since PbO₂ (A) has a high oxygen overpotential and the coverage of the catalyst (B) on PbO₂ is low, the modified PbO₂ should have a similar, if not the same, low value of oxygen overpotential to that of the pure $Pb0₂$. Yet the activity for the anodic 0 -t reaction at the modified PbO₂ should be increased greatly without losing the advantages, e.g., low background signal, of the pure $PbO₂$ electrode. The resultant chemically modified

PbO₂ electrode can be regarded as a partially covered or a so-called "array" electrode (10). With appropriate surface coverage of the catalyst, the 0-t reaction at these electrodes should proceed quickly and under mass-transport control. However, it is expected that if the coverage is too high, the catalytic activity for the 0-t reaction will decrease because the catalysts at the electrode surface will no longer be separated from each other, so a high background signal for oxygen evolution will arise.

Selection of catalysts

The potential catalysts for PbO₂ modification should be the ones that have low values of oxygen overpotential. There has been a large body of literature on the studies of oxygen-evolution as a function of electrode materials. Most important to the present study is the work by Trassatti (11) and other workers who tried to correlate the oxygen overpotential to the enthalpy of the oxide transition. The corresponding plots have a peaked shape, with large overpotential for both small and large transition enthalpy, and a minimum overpotential for an intermediate transition enthalphy. Because of their cone shape, the plots have been referred to as "volcano plots." Based on this correlation, some doping agents can be selected initially to test (6d,e). However, the use of the volcano plot to anticipate potential catalysts has limitations. For instance, the values of heat of formation used for the plots are only for oxides of two oxidation states. Nevertheless, the catalysts incorporated into the PbO₂ may not necessarily exist in a pure oxide form or may not easily change in oxidation state. An additional

difficulty is that the metal ions chosen from the volcano plots might not be incorporated readily into or onto the $Pb0₂$ surface. Therefore, the selection of the catalysts in this study was done empirically. Attention was, however, paid to develop techniques to reduce the burden of repetitive work for the screening of catalysts out of a large number of candidates.

It was also hoped that more than one catalyst can be found, so the identity of the catalysts can be varied to yield information pertaining to the mechanism of the electrocatalysis.

Scope of research

The scope of this research is summarized as follows:

(1) Development of efficient methods for chemical modification of lead dioxide electrodes and selection of catalysts for electrocatalysis of anodic 0-t reactions;

(2) Characterization of the resultant catalytic electrode materials;

(3) Understanding of the kinetics and mechanism of the electrocatalysis.

Experimental configurations

Thin-film PbO₂ electrodes (ca. 10 - 50 μ m) electrodeposited on Au or other substrates were used throughout this study, primarily because of the convenience in electrode preparation. It will be proved that the actual behavior of the modified PbO₂ electrodes does not change with the thickness of the oxide films.

Most of the studies were done in acidic media, specifically

 $HClO_A$ solutions, because $HClO_A$ is a non-chelating acid.

The basic electrochemical techniques used are hydrodynamic voltammetry and chronoamperometry in conventional electrolysis cells. Exhaustive electrolysis at large-area screen electrodes was used for experimental upgrading. Flow-through systems, visible spectrophotometry, and gas chromatography with mass spectrometric detection were also used for special purposes. Some techniques for surface and structure analysis, e**.g..** X-ray diffraction (XRD), X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS), scanning electron microscopy (SEM), and X-ray energy-dispersive spectroscopy (EDS), were used to characterize the morphology, composition, and structure of the modified PbO₂ films.

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Figure 1. Schematic diagram for the mechanism of oxygen evolution and oxygen-transfer mediation

Figure 2. Schematic illustration for the strategy to modify $PbO₂$ electrode for selective electrocatalysis of oxygen-transfer reactions

- Region: (A) inert electrode material with high oxygen-evolution overpotential, (B) active electrode material with low
	- oxygen-evolution overpotential

II. KINETICS AND MECHANISM OF ELECTRODEPOSITION OF LEAD DIOXIDE IN ACIDIC MEDIA

A. Chronoamperometric and Voltammetric Studies of the Nucleation and Electrodeposition of **ß-Lead Dioxide** at a Rotated Gold Disc Electrode¹

"If it is possible to cut out a word, then always cut it out." -George Orwell,

"Politics and the English Language"

¹Published in Chang, H.; Johnson, D. C. J<u>. Electrochem. Soc.</u> 1989, 136, 17-22.

Abstract

The electrodeposition of B-PbO_2 from HClO₄ solutions of Pb(II) at a Au rotated disc electrode (RDE) was studied as a function of applied potential, rotational velocity, and the concentrations of $HClO_4$ and Pb(II). A long induction period (i.e., i \approx 0) is associated with high acidity, low concentration of Pb(II), and high rotational velocity. Following the induction period, the current rises to a steady-state value which is significantly lower than the mass transport-limited value for Pb(II). The steady-state value of electrode current decreases as rotational velocity is increased, contrary to expectations for a mass transport-controlled process at a RDE. The generation of a soluble intermediate species is proposed to account for these observations.

Repeated cycles of deposition and stripping of PbO₂ at the Au RDE results in a decreasing induction period for subsequent $PbO₂$ deposition. This is concluded to result because an ultra-thin Pb(II) film (possibly PbO) is formed which is stabilized by interaction with the Au substrate and is not dissolved following the negative potential scan to 0.3 V. The original state of the clean Au surface is regenerated by cathodic $H_2(g)$ evolution, chemical stripping with H_2O_2 or KMnO₄, or by mechanical abrasion.

Introduction

Recently in this laboratory, pure and extensively doped β -PbO₂ electrodes have been studied for their electrocatalytic properties in support of anodic oxidation reactions involving simultaneous transfer of oxygen from the H₂O solvent to the reaction products (1). These oxide

materials are electrochemically deposited onto Au or Pt rotated disc electrodes (RDEs) in acidic media ($pH < 1$). This work is part of a general search for unique anode materials with catalytic properties surpassing those of the more traditional anodes (i.e., C, Pt and Au) for use as amperometric transducers. Significance is projected also for larger-scale industrial processes. Lead dioxide was chosen as the host oxide in these experiments because of its relatively high electrical conductivity, low cost, ease of preparation, inertness in both acidic and alkaline solutions, and stability at high temperatures. Furthermore, this oxide is not a stoichiometric dioxide (i.e., PbO_x , 1.9 < x < 2.0) (2) and it was suspected that defect sites might exist on the electrode surface which can participate catalytically in anodic 0-transfer reactions,

Pure electrodeposited β -PbO₂ was demonstrated to exhibit a moderate electrocatalytic activity for supporting various anodic reactions in acidic media, especially for sulfur compounds. However, that activity can be increased greatly for numerous reactions by incorporation of group VA metals, especially bismuth, to form the mixed oxides (Ib-e). Since the anodic electrodeposition of PbO₂ from aqueous solutions of Pb(II) requires oxygen transfer, a clearer understanding of the deposition mechanism could provide valuable insight into the mechanisms of anodic 0 transfer reactions at the pure and mixed-oxide electrodes.

An intense interest in the $PbO₂-Pb(II)$ redox couple has existed because of the use of PbO₂ in lead-acid batteries $(2,3)$, as well as for anodes in electrosynthesis (4). Secondary interest in the redox couple

has resulted because the deposition of $PbO₂$ is a unique model for testing electrocrystallization theories (5,6). Summaries of the literature are cited (7). Most published studies of $Pb0₂$ have focused on physical properties (morphology, density, porosity, durability, and surface area) of the oxide deposited at high current densities and pH 3 - 7, and the discharge/recharge kinetics in H_2SO_4 media. Little work has been concerned with kinetics and mechanisms in acidic media other than H_2SO_4 . The anodic reaction has served also for preconcentration of Pb(II) in the electrogravimetric (8) and cathodic stripping determinations of trace levels of the metal ion in water (9).

Fleischman et al. (5) were the first to consider in depth the complexity of the mechanism for electrodeposition of PbO₂ from aqueous solutions of Pb(II). Their mechanism, summarized by [1-4], has received wide support (4a,9b,10).

$$
OH^- \leftarrow \rightarrow OH_{ads} + e
$$
 [1]

$$
Pb^{2+} + (OH)_{ads} + OH^- \longrightarrow Pb(OH)^{+}_{2,ads} \qquad (slow)
$$
 [2]

$$
Pb^{2+} + (OH)_{ads} + OH^* \longrightarrow Pb(OH)^{2+}{}_{2,ads} + e \quad (slow)
$$
 [3]

$$
Pb(OH)^{2+}{}_{2,ads} \iff PbO_2(s) + 2H^+ \tag{4}
$$

Alternately, the production of $Pb(OH)^{2+}$ _{2, ads} in [3] can be written based on the oxidation of $Pb(OH)^{+}_{2,ads}$ from [2]. The products of [2] and [3] were postulated to be insoluble and adsorbed on the substrate.

The majority of studies of $Pb0₂$ electrodeposition have been

performed in unstirred solutions, with only a few at hydrodynamic electrodes (9b,11). Application of the rotated disc electrode (RDE) is appropriate for mechanistic studies of multi-electron processes with coupled chemical reactions because of the large dynamic range for mass transfer available at this electrode. Here we describe chronoamperometric and voltammetric data for a Au RDE as a function of rotational velocity, deposition potential, and the concentrations of $HClO_A$ and Pb(II). We propose that a significant solubility exists for the intermediate products of the PbO₂ deposition process.

Experimental

Reagents Chemicals were Reagent Grade and water was distilled followed by purification in a Bamstead NANOpure-II system (Boston, MA). Lead(II) solutions were prepared by dissolution of PbO in $HClO_4$. In studies of the effect of HClO_{Λ} concentration, NaClO $_{\Lambda}$ was added to maintain constant ionic strength. The Cl" impurity in all solutions was $<$ 1 μ M, as calculated from impurity levels specified on the reagent bottles.

Instrumentation Disc electrodes were constructed from gold (44.7 mm 2), platinum (45.6 mm 2) and glassy carbon (19.1 mm 2) by Pine Instrument Co. (Grove City, PA). A PIR rotator and RDE4 potentiostat (Pine Instrument Co.) also were used. Electrode potentials were controlled vs. a saturated calomel electrode (SCE; Fischer Scientific, Inc.) contacting the electrolysis solution through a Luggin capillary. The Pt-wire counter electrode was located in a separate chamber filled with the

supporting electrolyte and contacting the electrolysis solution through a fritted glass membrane.

Procedures Disc electrodes were polished prior to every experiment with 0.05 - μ m alumina on microcloth (Buehler, Ltd.), except as noted. Solid PbO₂ deposits were removed electrolytically at 0.2 V, prior to removal of the RDE from the electrolysis solution, followed by chemical stripping of any oxide residue in a 1:1 mixture of acetic acid and hydrogen peroxide (30%). Amperometric data were obtained in triplicate and average values are reported.

Results and discussions

Analysis of transient current-time curves A typical chronoamperometric response (i-t) for PbO₂ deposition at the Au RDE in $HClO_A$ solution is shown in Figure 1. Recording of the i-t curve was started for the freshly polished RDE immediately following the first potential step from 0.2 V to 1.6 V. The transient curve shown is divided into four regions to facilitate discussion. The induction period (A), with a time period t^o_0 , corresponds to a relatively small electrode current (i \leq 0). Previous designations of t_o have been based on the first apparent departure of current from zero $(4a, 5, 6)$. That is a rather \cdot arbitrary and subjective definition depending on the current sensitivity of the recorder. Our designation of t^o is applied easily. The value of t_0 shown in Figure 1 is significantly longer than reported previously (4a,5a-b) for pH 2 - 5. This will be demonstrated to be the consequence of rotation of the RDE and lower pH.

Region B (Figure 1), with a time period designated t_1 , corresponds to rapid growth of $Pb0₂$ nuclei with a corresponding transition of the electrode current from virtually zero to a steady-state value (i_{ss}) . Historically, it is the early part of Region B (i.e., $0 < i < i_{ss}$) which has received the greatest attention in electrocrystallization studies (4a,5a,6,9-12). For two dimensional growth, which is assumed for the initial monolayer of oxide, the value of i is predicted to be proportional to $(t-t_{0})^{2}$, whereas for three-dimensional growth, i.e., bulk deposition, i is predicted to be proportional to $\left(\texttt{t-t}_{\textup{o}}\right)^3$ (12). However, for t-t_o \approx 0, it is difficult to discern between the second and third order dependencies, and a clear transition from two-dimensional to three-dimensional growth kinetics is difficult to determine. We shall use the value of t_1 and the estimated slope (S) of the i-t curve at i - $0.5i_{ss}$ (i.e., S = i_{ss}/t_1) to characterize Region B.

Region C (Figure 2-1) corresponds to the observation of a steadystate value of electrode current (i_{ss}) . The steady-state current has been proposed to be the mass-transport limited value (10); however, this clearly is not the case here. For $C_{Pb(II)}^b = 0.2$ M, the transportlimited steady-state current would be much in excess of values shown in Figure 1. Hence, the reaction is concluded to be under kinetic control.

Results of a typical study of the steady-state current as a function of rotational velocity (w) are shown as Region D of Figure 1. For a mass-transport limited, steady-state reaction, values of i_{ss} are expected to increase proportionally to $w^{1/2}$. Hence, the decrease of i_{ss} with increasing $w^{1/2}$ is concluded to be a significant indicator of the

mechanistic complexity of the deposition reaction. Observations in Region D are discussed further in a later section.

Variation of Pb(II) and $HClO_{\Lambda}$ concentrations The dependence of of t_o, t₁, S, and i_{ss} on C_{Pb}_(TT) was studied for 1.70 M HClO₄ at a rotation speed of 0 rev min^{-1} . Clearly, t_0 decreased with increasing $C_{\text{Pb(II)}}^{b}$, which is in agreement with the mechanism of [1-4]. The value of i_{ss} increased as a linear function of $C_{Pb(II)}^b$, which also is consistent with the pseudo-first order dependence of the deposition rate on $C_{\rm Pb(III)}^{\rm b}$ for the mechanism under consideration. It should be noted that for 0 rev, min^{-1} , a steady-state current was observed. This value of i_{ss} was much lower than the diffusion-limited current, i.e., the Cottrell current, which is, along with the observed absence of a time dependence in Region C, further evidence for the designation of total control of electrode current by the deposition kinetics. Hence, there is virtually no concentration polarization, and $C_{Pb(II)}^s \simeq C_{Pb(II)}^b$. The value of S increased with increasing $C_{Pb(II)}^b$ both because of the increase in i_{ss} and the decrease in t_1 .

The dependence of t_o , t_1 , S and i_{ss} on C_{HClO4}^b also was studied at 0 rev min⁻¹. Values of i_{ss} and S decreased substantially, and t_o and t₁ increased, as $C_{\text{HClO4}}^{\text{b}}$ was increased (pH decreased). This is consistent with the mechanism in $[1-4]$, since higher H^+ concentration should decrease the equilibrium surface activity of OH_{ads} in [1] for a constant electrode potential. However, the dependencies could not be linearized by resorting to customary plotting strategies, i.e., log-log, etc. Hence, estimation of reaction order was not possible.

Variation of rotational velocity Changes in t_0 , t_1 and S with increasing values of $w^{1/2}$ are shown in Figure 2. The positive linear t_o $w^{1/2}$ dependence is concluded to be the result of the solubility of one or both of the intermediate products of the induction period proposed in $[2,3]$, i.e., $Pb(OH)_{2}^{\dagger}$ and/or $Pb(OH)_{2}^{\dagger}$. These soluble intermediate products are transported away from the electrode, by the convectivediffusion mechanism, and nucleation as well as growth of existing nuclei is defeated in [4]. The decrease in S shown in Figure 2 is a result largely of the decrease in i_{ss} with increased $w^{1/2}$.

Further study of the dependence of $i_{\rm ss}$ on $w^{1/2}$ was made using two strategies. Method A: The value of $w^{1/2}$ desired for the measurement of i_{ss} in Period C - D was used also for Periods A and B. According to the standard procedure, the electrode surface was also cathodically stripped and mechanically polished preliminary to the application of each new value of w. Method B: A single low value of w was used for Periods A and B, and then the measurement of i_{ss} vs. w was performed in Periods C -D exactly as shown in Figure 1. This procedure was very rapid in comparison to Method A. Values of current from the two methods $(i_{ss,A})$ and $i_{ss,B}$ are shown in Figure 3. For fixed values of c_{HClO4}^{b} and $w^{1/2}$, i_{ss} increases with increasing $c_{Pb(II)}^b$, which is consistent with results of the study of $C_{Pb(II)}^b$ dependence. From Figure 3 it can be seen that $i_{ss,A}$ and $i_{ss,B}$ are very similar, provided that other conditions are the same. Whereas some increase in $i_{\rm ss}$ was seen for a slight increase of w above 0 rev min⁻¹ (Figure 3), generally the increase in $w^{1/2} > 20$ (rev \min^{-1})^{1/2} resulted in no change of i_{ss,A,B} values for small C_{HC104}.

However, a definite inverse dependence on $w^{1/2}$ was observed for large values of C_{HClO4}^b and $C_{Pb(II)}^b$. A similar phenomenon has been described briefly using electrogravimetry for a rotated Pt gauze electrode (8). However, the extent of the study apparently was limited and a detailed mechanistic interpretation of the observation was not offered. The decrease in i_{ss} for increasing $v^{1/2}$ is consistent with the conclusion of the finite solubility of the intermediate products during Periods C - D. We conclude the soluble products are generated throughout Regions A - D.

To minimize the number of figures showing $i_{\rm ss}$ - $\rm w^{1/2}$ plots, the dependencies of the i_{ss} - $v^{1/2}$ relationship on $C^{b}_{Pb(II)}$ and $C^{b}_{H C104}$ are summarized further in Figure 4 for $E_{dep} = 1.48 V$. Three distinct regions denoting the different characteristics of the deposition kinetics can be designated on the $C_{\rm Pb(II)}^{\rm b}$ - $C_{\rm HCl04}^{\rm b}$ plane. A linear dependence of ${\bf i_{_{SS}}}$ on $w^{1/2}$ characteristic of a transport-limited process was observed only in Region A (Figure 4). The value of i_{ss} decreases linearly with increasing $w^{1/2}$ in Region B (Figure 4). For the boundary region between A and B, the i_{ss}- $w^{1/2}$ dependence is irregular. For example, with $C_{Pb(II)}^b$ = 0.05 M and $C_{\text{HClO4}}^{\text{b}}$ = 0.4 M, i_{ss} increases with $w^{1/2}$ at low w values but decreases at higher $\text{w}^{1/2}$ values. This result is consistent with the conclusion of mixed kinetics-transport control.

Variation of deposition potential The dependencies of t_0 , t_1 , S and i_{ss} on E_{dep} are shown in Figure 5. These results are similar to others which are not shown which were obtained as a function of $C^b_{\rm Pb(III)}$ and $C_{\text{HClO4}}^{\text{b}}$. The values of t_o and t₁ decrease and values of S and i_{ss} increase with increasing E_{den} . The primary influence of E_{den} on the

deposition kinetics is expected to come by way of [1] which controls the surface activity of OH_{ads} in [2]. The tendency for i_{ss} values to decrease with increasing $w^{1/2}$ was observed for all values $E_{dep} = 1.440$ -1.560 V. For the values of E_{dep} used to obtain data in Figures 1 - 5, the contribution of $0₂$ production to i_{ss} was negligible.

Correlation between $Pb0_2$ deposition and 0_2 evolution It is noted that the initial step $[1]$ in the PbO₂ deposition mechanism is also the first step for the anodic evolution of O_2 at most metal-oxide electrodes (12). It has been proposed also that this is the first step in anodic surface-catalyzed 0-transfer reactions (5). It was expected, therefore, that a perceptible rate of nucleation and deposition of PbO₂ on the Au RDE, as well as for Ft and GC, might be observed only when there is a small simultaneous anodic generation of $0₂$. This is proved to be the case by the voltammetric data in Figure 6. The activation overpotential for 0_2 evolution (η) is significantly different for Au, Pt and GC (η_{GG}) $\eta_{\text{Au}} > \eta_{\text{Pt}}$). Hence, the minimum potential value appropriate to initiate an observable rate of $PbO₂$ deposition is different for the three materials $(E_{dep, GC} > E_{dep, Au} > E_{dep, Pt})$.

The observed differences in $0₂$ -evolution potential became negligible for the three substrates when their respective surfaces were covered with $Pb0₂$. Hence, for the negative potential scans in Figure 6, the apparent half-wave potential values are approximately the same for each curve. When the substrate of any individual electrode becomes covered with $PbO₂$, continued deposition of PbO_2 occurs only if E_{den} is appropriate for an appreciable rate of $0₂$ evolution on the Pb $0₂$ deposit. Consequently for

Pt, since η_{pt} is slightly less than for η_{pbo2} , the minimal potential required to initiate $Pb0₂$ deposition on Pt is slightly less than is sufficient to maintain a significant rate of continued $Pb0₂$ growth.

The relationship between 0_2 evolution and Pb 0_2 deposition was studied further by constant-potential chronoamperometry. The induction time (t_o) was determined as a function of E_{dep} for the different electrodes. The value of t^o was determined to be approximately inversely related to the residual current for $0₂$ evolution observed at that value of E_{den} . Since the 0_2 evolution rate is an exponential function of potential, the plot of log t_0 vs. E_{dep} was expected to be linear. Furthermore, for any given value of E_{dep} for the three electrodes, it was expected that $t_{o,GC} > t_{o, Au} > t_{o, Pt}$ since $\eta_{GC} > \eta_{Au} > \eta_{Pt}$. A plot of log t_0 vs. E_{dep} is shown in Figure 7. We propose that the induction time (t_{o}) is inversely related to the nucleation rate at the clean electrode surfaces and, therefore, the plot of log t_0 vs. E_{dep} corresponds to a Tafel plot for the deposition process. The slopes of these plots are approximately equivalent; however, the differences in intercept are large and are consistent with the difference in η for $0₂$ evolution at the three electrode materials. A linear plot of log t_0 vs. E_{dep} also was presented by Ramamurthy and Kuwana (4a), but without explanation.

Effects of added foreign anions The rate of electrodeposition of f_4-Fb0_2 is maximized, in general, by use of small w, low $c^b_{\rm HClO4}$ and large $C_{Pb(II)}^{b}$. The effect of added inert anions also was considered. Results show that co-existing NO_3^{\degree} and ClO_4^{\degree} of varied concentration and small amounts of ${SO_\text{L}}^{2}$, held to less than 10⁻⁵ M to prevent precipitation of

PbSO₄(s), do not have a significant effect on t_o . However, NO₃⁻ tends to increase and ClO_4 ["] slightly decreases the value of i_{ss}. It had been shown (le) that if the ${SO_4}^{2}$ concentration is comparable to $C^b_{\rm Pb(II)}$, t_o is shortened significantly and i_{ss} is increased. Since the standard potential of the PbO₂-PbSO₄ couple (1.69 V) is higher than that of the PbO₂-Pb(II) couple (1.47 V) (13), it does not appear likely that this effect can be explained well by the stabilization by SO_4^2 of soluble intermediates generated during the nucleation process. It was determined that addition of Cl⁻ impurity to ca. 10 M did not change the results reported here. The influence of high levels of Cl⁻ (> 100 μ M) is under study.

Effects of voltammetrlc electrode pretreatment Multiple cyclic scans of applied potential at noble metal electrodes have been demonstrated to cause enhancement of some electrode reactions, especially when the potential scans result in the alternate anodic/cathodic formation/dissolution of surface oxide. The observed effect has been attributed to the benefits of oxide-catalyzed oxidative removal of adsorbed impurities (lb), as well as to the increase of surface area by way of surface reconstruction (14).

The alternate anodic deposition and cathodic stripping of PbO₂ at Au and Pt RDEs was observed to decrease substantially the induction period (t_{o}) for the subsequent deposition. The phenomenon is demonstrated by changes in voltammetric response (i-E) shown in Figure 8 as a function of scan number. The rate of anodic PbO₂ deposition at $E_{\text{den}} > ca$. 1.5 V increases significantly with scan number for cyclic scans between the
limits 0.3 V and 1.8 V. The anodic current (i_a) at 1.8 V is shown plotted vs. scan number in the figure inset. The cathodic peak $(i_{p,c})$ for stripping of $Pb0₂$ on the negative scan at ca. 1.2 V increases in height and area with scan number, as expected when larger quantities of PbO₂ are deposited in the region 1.55 - 1.80 V due to the decrease of t_o with increasing cycle number. The cathodic peak at ca. 0.9 V corresponds to the reduction of gold oxide formed for $E > ca$. 1.0 V and remains relatively unchanged with cycle number.

On the basis of Figure 8, it is concluded that the increases in i_a and $i_{p,c}$ are the direct result of an increased number of nucleation sites at the electrode surface. This Increase cannot possibly be explained as the result of surface reconstruction (roughening) which might occur with repeated formation/dissolution of gold oxide because the area of the peak for gold oxide reduction remained unchanged. Furthermore, numerous cyclic scans between 0.3 V and 1.8 V prior to addition of Pb(II) to the electrolyte failed to produce the enhancement of deposition rates demonstrated in Figure 8. The return of i-E response from that for the 10th scan to that for the first scan in Figure 8 was achieved by any of the following processes: mechanical abrasion $(0.05 \mu m \text{ alumina})$, chemical treatment with H₂O₂ or KMnO₄, or cathodic evolution of H₂(g) at E << -0.3 V. It is concluded that an ultra-thin film of adsorbed Pb(II) is formed by the plating/stripping process and the adsorbed metal ions are rapidly oxidized to adsorbed PbO₂ which serve as nucleation sites for the subsequent deposition of bulk $PbO₂(s)$. The fractional surface coverage by adsorbed Pb(II) Increases with cycle number and becomes constant only

when a complete film is formed $(e.g., cycle number > 9)$. The presence of an adsorbed lead species on the Au surface following the voltammetric stripping of PbO₂(s) at 0.3 V was verified by X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS).

The peak areas in Figure 8 corresponding to the cathodic and anodic current were measured by the "cut-and-weigh" method. It was found that the stripping peak area was virtually the same (ca. 0,1%) as the anodic area and we conclude that all Fb(IV) formed during the anodic process is converted to Pb(II) during cathodic stripping. Therefore the adsorbed lead species cannot be Pb(IV). Following the experiment shown in Figure 8, the Au electrode was rinsed and put in a 1.0 M HClO_{Δ} blank solution and the potential was scanned from 1.3 to 1.8 and back to 1,3 V. A small but distinct PbO₂ deposition peak was observed which corresponded to the oxidation of the ultra-thin Pb(II) film at the anodic region. Hence, it can be concluded from Figure 8 that the number of nucleation sites increases with each cycle of $PbO₂(s)$ deposition/stripping. Chemical $(H_2O_2$ and KMnO₄) and electrochemical (H₂ evolution) removal of residual nucleation sites is very efficient. Although the ultra-thin film is stable in the region $1.1 > E > 0.3$ V, there was no evidence for underpotential deposition of lead at a clean Au surface during the positive scan for $0.3 < E < 1.1$ V.

The effect of the ultra-thin Pb(II) film on PbO₂ deposition also is demonstrated by the chronoamperometric curves shown in Figure 9, After the formation of a substantial deposit of PbO₂ at 1.48 V, the PbO₂ was stripped cathodically at 0.3 V. Then, PbO₂ was redeposited at 1.48 V

without further treatment of the electrode surface. From the redeposition current, it can be seen that t_0 has decreased nearly to zero and i_{gg} for deposition of PbO₂ is achieved quickly.

The effect of variation of C_{HClO4}^{b} on the first (A) and reproducible (B) i-E curves is shown in Figure 10 for potential scans in the range 0.3 - 1.8 V. As $C_{\text{HClO4}}^{\text{b}}$ is decreased, the anodic current at 1.7 V and anodic area of the wave for $E > 1.5$ V increases and, correspondingly, the height and area of the cathodic stripping peak in the region 1.3 - 1.1 V are increased. It is concluded that the number of nucleation sites generated on the first scan is inversely related to C^{b}_{HClO4} . Both the area and height of the deposition wave and stripping peak for curve d in Figures 10A & B (0.40 M HClO_A) change only slightly with cycle number. This is because for this pH, the entire surface of Au is covered by the ultra-thin Pb(II) film after a single cycle of deposition and stripping. These observations and conclusions are consistent with chronoamperometric data in Figures $2 - 5$. For the reproducible i-E curve (Figure 10B), the anodic current at 1.7 - 1.8 V is relatively independent of c_{HClO4}^b , as compared to the first scan (Figure lOA). Hence, the maximum number of nuclei which can be formed apparently is relatively independent of C_{HC104}. The shift of peak potential for the stripping process with change in pH (Figures 10A&B) indicates involvement of H^+ in the stripping process.

Optimization of electrodepositlon conditions One purpose of this research was the determination of optimal conditions for $PbO₂$ deposition. Based on the results of the kinetic and mechanistic studies of $PbO₂$

deposition at varied conditions as shown above, the following optimal conditions were chosen: 20 mM Pb(II), 0.1 M HClO₄, 400 rev min⁻¹, and an initial value $E_{\text{dep}} = 1.6 \text{ V}$ vs. SCE. When the current has reached its maximum value, e.g., ca. 5 sec, E_{dep} is decreased to 1.5 V for the remaining deposition period of $60 - 90$ sec. The PbO₂ film prepared in this way is smooth, very adhesive,, and highly reflective.

Conclusions

The mechanism of $PbO₂$ electrodeposition is concluded to involve the generation of a soluble intermediate product which can be transported away from the electrode surface by convective-diffusional processes. Hence, solution agitation can result in a significant barrier for deposition.

When $G_{\text{Pb}(II)}^{\text{b}}$ and $G_{\text{HClO4}}^{\text{b}}$ are large, deposition is under kinetic control and the rate of deposition decreases with increased rotation rate. Furthermore, the steady-state current for deposition is much less than the mass-transport limited value. The reaction is under masstransport control only when both $C_{\text{Pb(II)}}^{\text{b}}$ and $C_{\text{HClO4}}^{\text{b}}$ are low. In this case, the rate of deposition increases with increased rotational velocity. For medium values of $C_{Pb(II)}^b$ and C_{HClO4}^b , the deposition is under mixed control by kinetics and mass-transport. The rate of deposition is relatively independent of rotation rate at the RDE.

It is observed that, in general, the electrodeposition of PbO₂ on Au, Pt, GC, and on $PbO₂$ itself, occurs at a significant rate only for potential values corresponding to a finite rate for the simultaneous evolution of 0_2 . The mechanism of 0_2 evolution (12d) on oxides is

proposed to correspond to the rapid initial reaction

$$
H_2O \longrightarrow OH_{ads} + H^+ + e \quad (fast)
$$
 [5]

Hence, the OH_{ads} generated by the O₂-evolution reaction [5] can be consumed within the PbO₂ deposition mechanism, as shown in $[2]$. The rate of O₂ evolution for low anodic current densities at oxide-covered Pt, Au and Pb anodes increases with increase in pH by the amount 0.0591 pH and as an exponential function of applied potential (12d). Accordingly, it is observed that the rate of PbO₂ deposition increases as the values of pH and E_{dep} are increased.

Formation and stripping of PbO₂ during potential cycling produces an electrode surface bearing an ultra-thin film of a Fb(II). This ultrathin film is stable to 0.3 V vs. SCE, but can be stripped from the electrode by cathodic evolution of H_2 or chemical treatment with H_2O_2 or KMnO_{Λ}. The ultra-thin Pb(II) film is rapidly oxidized to PbO₂ at E > 1.3 V and serves to nucleate the further deposition of bulk $PbO_2(s)$. Further studies of the mechanism of ultra-thin film formation will be published elsewhere.

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Figure 1. A typical chronomamperometric transient (i-t) for $PbO₂$ deposition at a Au RDE

Conditions: 0.20 M Pb(II), and 1.70 M HClO₄

- Regions: (A) induction period (t^0) , (B) transition period $\begin{array}{l} \n(E_1), \\ \n(E_2) \n\end{array}$

(C) steady-state period $\begin{array}{l} \n(E_1) \n\end{array}$, (D) study of rotation speed dependence on i_{ss} Rotation velocity (rev min⁻¹): (a) 0, (b) 400, (c) 900,
	- (d) 1600, (e) 2500, (f) 3600, and (g) 4900

Figure 2. Plots of t_0 , t_1 , and S vs. $w^{1/2}$

Conditions: 0.20 M Pb(II), 1.30 M HClO₄, and 0.40 M NaClO $_{\Delta}$

Variables: **(e)** t_o/min , **(A)** t_1/min , **(a)** S/0.1 mA min⁻¹

Figure 3. Plots of i_{ss} vs. $w^{1/2}$ as a function of C_{HClO4}^b Conditions: 0.20 M Pb(II) Variable and $C_{\text{HClO4}}^{\text{D}}$: (\bullet) $i_{\text{ss},A}$ for 1.30 M, (A) $i_{ss,A} = 0.80 M$, (o) $i_{ss,B}^{ss,H}$ for 1.70 M, (Δ) iss, B for 1.30 M

Figure 4. Dependence of the i_{ss} - $w^{1/2}$ relation on $C_{Pb(II)}^b$ and C_{HC104}^b

If w is increased by 100%: (O) i_{ss} increases by 50 - 100%,

- (e) i_{ss} increases less than 10%,
- (Θ) i_{ss} increases at low w but decreases at high w,
- (a) i_{ss} decreases,
- (\circledcirc) i_{ss} increases by 10 50%

Regions: (A) mass transport control,

- (B) kinetic control,
- (C) mixed kinetic-transport control

Figure 5. Plots of t_o , t_1 , S and i_{ss} vs. E_{dep}

Conditions: 0.20 M Pb(II), 1.30 M HClO₄, 0.40 M NaClO₄, and 0 rev min^{-1}

Variables: **(0)**

(A) $t_o/2$ min, $t_1/2$ min, (\bullet) $\frac{1}{20.4}$ mA min⁻¹,

 \bf{u} $\bf{i}_{ss}/0.5$ mA

- Figure 6. Cyclic voltammograms (i-E) at rotated Au, Pt and GC disc electrodes
	- Conditions: 10 mM Pb(II), 1.0 M HClO₄, 400 rev min⁻¹;
scan initiated from E << 1.3 V; scan direction indicated by arrows; only first cyclic scan is shown

Figure 7. Plot of log t^{\prime} vs. E_{den} for the induction period at rotated Ft, Au and GC disc electrodes

10 mM Pb(II), 1.0 M HClO₄, 400 rev min⁻¹; electrodes freshly polished prior to experiment Conditions :

Figure 8. Cyclic voltanunograms (i-E) at a rotated Au disc electrode

Conditions: 0.010 M Pb(II), 1.70 M HClO₄, 40 mV s⁻¹, and 1000 rev min⁻¹

Curves: cycle number as marked

Inset: i_a and $i_{p,c}$ vs. cycle number

Figure 9. Chronoamperometric transients for PbO₂ deposition, stripping

and redeposition

Conditions: C_{Rb}^{b} CII) " $0.10 M, C_{HClO4}^{b}$ = 0.80 M, and 400 rev min⁻¹. E as marked

Figure 10A. Effect of pH on cyclic voltammograms: response for first cycle Conditions: 0.010 M Pb(II), 40 mV s⁻¹, and 0 rev min⁻¹ $C_{\text{HClO4}}^{\text{b}}$ (M): (a) 1.70, (b) 1.40, (c) 0.80, and (d) 0.40

Figure lOB. Effect of pH on cyclic voltanunograms: reproducible response after many cycles

Conditions: as given in Figure 10A

B. Detection of Soluble Intermediate Products during

Electrodeposition and Stripping

of β -Lead Dioxide at a Gold Electrode¹

"The search for intermediates in chemical reactions is like a detective story. The kineticist knows the actors, present at the beginning, and he sees the victims. He has to search for witnesses to reconstruct the course of the events. His witnesses are the intermediates. If he is lucky he can find some. Without such witnesses, his reasoning depends on circumstantial evidence and may often be quite erroneous. It is obvious, therefore, how important such intermediates are for the understanding of electrode reactions and how necessary it is to find the most direct evidence for their existence."

> -Heinz Gerischer, Farady Soc. Discus. 1973, 56, 7.

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Abstract

A Au rotated ring-disc electrode (RRDE) was applied for the detection of soluble intermediate products during the anodic electrodeposition and cathodic dissolution of $B-PbO₂$ in solutions of $HClO₄$. A soluble species which can only be reduced at the ring electrode is produced during the anodic nucleation and deposition processes for $Pb0₂(s)$ at the disc electrode. This soluble intermediate product is concluded to be Pb(IV) which is probably associated with oxygen, e.g., PbO²⁺ or Pb(OH)₂²⁺. The cathodic ring current from detection of the soluble Pb(IV) species was studied as a function of the concentrations of Pb(II) and $HClO_A$, and variation of electrode rotational velocity. The results are consistent with chronoamperometric data for $Pb0₂$ electrodeposition described previously. Soluble Pb(IV) and Pb(III), as well as Pb(II), are concluded to be products of the cathodic dissolution of $PbO₂$.

Introduction

The deposition of β -PbO₂ from solutions of HClO₄ containing Pb(II) is an example of an anodic reaction in which oxygen from H_2O is transferred to the reaction product. Recently, strong evidence was presented that this process is electrocatalyzed by the simultaneous evolution of 0_2 at the electrode surface (1). The deposition mechanism is suspected to involve transfer to Pb(IV) of hydroxyl species which are produced in the $0₂$ -evolution reaction. The production of a soluble intermediate species containing lead was suspected on the basis of the inverse dependence of the deposition current on rotational velocity for a

Au disc electrode (1) .

The reaction mechanisms of the $PbO_2/PbSO_4$ and $PbSO_4/Pb$ redox couples have long been of interest in H_2 SO_{$_4$} (2-4), as well as H_3PO_4/H_2 SO $_4$ (5-7), because of their significance for the lead-acid battery. It appears as a frequent assumption that intermediate states of lead produced in these redox processes have virtually no solubility and remain adsorbed at the electrode surface (1,8-10). Laitinen and Watkins (7) described direct evidence for a soluble intermediate in H_3PO_4/H_2SO_4 solutions; the chelating action of the phosphate presumably enhances the stability and solubility of intermediate oxidation states of lead. Others have studied the mechanism for cathodic reduction of PbO₂ in H₂SO₄ with attention given to the detection of soluble Pb(II) (11-14). The search for soluble intermediate products apparently has not been applied to other media.

Here we report on the application of Au rotated ring-disc electrodes (RRDE) to a study of the anodic deposition and cathodic dissolution of β - $Pb0₂$. Applicability of the RRDE for detection of intermediate products of electrochemical reactions is well known (15-17). To be detected at the ring electrode, the intermediate product of the disc reaction must have a half-life approximately equal to or greater than the average time for convective-diffusional transport from the disc to the ring of the RRDE.

Experimental

Chemicals All reagents have been described previously (1).

Instrumentation The Au RRDE was operated with a model PIR rotator, ASR speed controller, and RDE4 dual potentiostat (Fine Instrument, Grove City, PA). The three values of radii characterizing the geometry of the Au RRDE were 3.84, 4.01 and 4.19 mm. The collection efficiency (N) was 0.14, calculated according to (11). Voltammetric (i-E) data were recorded on a model 200 X-Y recorder (Houston Instrument Co.). Chronoamperometric (i-t) data were recorded on a series 5000 twopen, strip chart recorder (Fischer Scientific).

Procedures Electrodes were polished before each measurement as in (1), placed in the plating solution, and then connected with the potentiostat with the disc potential (E_d) set at 0.3 V. Scanning of E_d in voltammetric experiments was started from 0.3 V after ca. 30 sec.

Results and discussion

Voltammetrv Current-potential curves obtained at the disc electrode of the Au RRDE (i_d -E_d) are shown in Figure 1 for 1.70 M HClO₄ before (A) and after (B) addition of 10 mM Pb(II). In the presence or absence of Pb(II), anodic formation of surface gold oxide occurs on the positive scan for $E_d > 1.2$ V (Wave a) and cathodic dissolution of the gold oxide occurs on the negative scan for $E_d = 1.0 - 0.9$ V (Peak c). Production of O_2 by anodic discharge of H_2O occurs for $E_d > 1.7 V$ (Wave b). In the presence of Pb(II), anodic nucleatlon and deposition of PbO₂(s) occurs for $E_d > 1.6$ V (Wave d) and cathodic dissolution of PbO₂(s) occurs for the negative scan at E_d = ca. 1.0 - 0.85 V (Wave e). Additional description of these processes has been given in (1).

The i_r-E_d curves for the ring electrode at E_r = 0.2 V, obtained simultaneously with the i_d - E_d curves, are shown in Figure 1 before (B) and after (D) the addition of 10 mM Pb(II). In the absence of Pb(II), small anodic signals on the i_r-E_d curves are observed simultaneously with oxide formation (Peak a') and dissolution (Peak c') at the disc electrode which are attributed to soluble Au species, in accord with conclusions by Cadle and Bruckenstein for 0.2 M H_2SO_4 (16). Of major importance to this study are the additional ring Peaks d' and e' in the i_r-E_d curves in the presence of Pb(II). At $E_r = 0.2$ V, there is no reactivity of Pb(II) at the ring electrode. The possible conclusion that the Peaks d' and e' might be caused by detection of soluble $0₂$ is excluded by the fact that dissolved 0_2 in air-saturated solutions is not detected at 0.2 V. Hence, the cathodic ring currents in Figure ID corresponding to the disc electrode processes of anodic nucleation and deposition (ring Peak d'), and cathodic dissolution of deposited PbO₂(s) (ring Peak e'), are concluded to be the result of soluble species other than Pb(ll) produced at the disc electrode.

We have reported that the anodic disc current for $PbO₂(s)$ deposition at E_d - 1.6 V increases with cycle number, see Figure 7 of (1). This was concluded to be the beneficial effect of surface accumulation of an ultra-thin film of Pb(II), possibly PbO, which is not stripped from the electrode surface even for E_A - +0.3 V. Furthermore, this ultra-thin film is concluded to function as an array of nucleation sites, possibly in the form of PbO₂ following the change of E^A from 0.3 V to 1.6 V, with the result of a large decrease in the introduction period for the

subsequent deposition of bulk $PbO_2(s)$. It is noted from Figure 1 (C and D) that Peak d' for the ring electrode first increases and then decreases with scan number, whereas the corresponding disc signal (Wave d) increases steadily with scan number to a reproducible value. Hence, the data in Figure ID support the conclusion that a soluble intermediate product of the nucleation process at E_d = ca. 1.6 V is produced within the induction period and the amount of this intermediate product decreases substantially when the induction period is completed and the disc current increases to its maximum steady-state value.

Ring Peak d' in Figure ID increases with increased rotational velocity (w), as illustrated by the nearly linear plots of peak current vs. $w^{1/2}$ in Figure 2. The induction period (t_o) also increases for higher rotational velocity and the increased ring current is consistent with the conclusion that the species detected at the ring electrode is an intermediate product of the nucleation process at the disc. More evidence supporting this conclusion was obtained from chronoamperometric studies which are presented in the next section.

Chronoamperometrv Previous evidence for a soluble intermediate product during $PbO₂(s)$ deposition came from chronoamperometric studies at the Au RDE as a function of rotational velocity for a step of E_d from 0.3 V to 1.48 V, see Figure 1 of (1). Similar i_d -t data are shown in Figure 3a. In Figure 3b is shown i_r-t data obtained simultaneously for $E_r =$ 0.2 V. The cathodic value of i^r is maximum at the start of the induction period $(i_d \ll i_{d,ss})$ for the anodic deposition process at the disc electrode and decreases to a minimum when the induction period is

completed $(i_d - i_{d,ss})$. This is consistent with the voltammetric data for Waves d and d' presented in Figure 1.

Whereas $i_d \ll i_{d,ss}$ during the induction period, i_d is not zero, as is shown by the i_d -t curve in Figure 3c recorded at a high current sensitivity. For increasing small values of rotational velocity, the value of i_r observed during the induction period increases; however, the corresponding value i_d decreases and the induction period (t_o) increases. Hence, further reduction of the intermediate product at the disc surface is necessary to accumulate $PbO₂(s)$. For high rotational velocities, the value of the ratio $-i_r/i_d$ at the start of the induction period was determined to be ca. 0.14, which equals the theoretical collection efficiency (N) for the RRDE. Hence, under these conditions for $t \ll t_0$, $-i_r/Ni_d$ = ca. 1 and it is apparent that the majority of the product of Pb(II) oxidation at the disc electrode is soluble and is transported away from the disc electrode surface.

The rate of PbO₂(s) deposition at the disc electrode increases to a steady-state value at the end of the induction period (i.e., $i_d - i_{\dot{G},SS}$) and the value of i^r for detection of the soluble intermediate product decreases to a minimum (see Figure 3). The effect of change of rotational velocity on $i_{d,ss}$ and i_r (E_r - 0.2 V) was studied and typical results are included in Figure 3. The value of $i_{d, ss}$ is a maximum for 0 rev min and $i_r = 0$ A, as is expected. As the rotational velocity was increased, $i_{d,ss}$ decreased and the concurrent value of i_{r} increased. These results are consistent with the conclusion of a soluble intermediate product for deposition of PbO₂(s). Plots of i_r/N vs. $v^{1/2}$

are not linear with a zero intercept (Figure 4, Curve b). This is concluded to be indisputable proof of the convective-diffusional loss of a soluble intermediate product of the Pb(II) oxidation at the disc electrode. Note, however, for $i_d - i_{d,ss}$, that values of $-i_r/Ni_d$ are substantially below the unity value which would be expected if all of the product at the disc is soluble and electroactive (17). Hence, for $t \gg$ t_{0} , the majority of the Pb(II) oxidized at the disc is accumulated as $Pb0₂(s)$.

Effect of ring potential (E_r) The oxidation state of the soluble lead species can be deduced from i_r - E_d data obtained as a function of E_r and shown in Figure 5. Peak d' at the ring electrode decreases with increased E^r , and disappears for $E^r > 1.0$ V (see Figure 5A). Hence, the soluble species detected during nucleation and deposition of PbO₂ is reduced but cannot be oxidized and is concluded to be Pb(IV) and not Pb(III).

Peak e' at the ring electrode, obtained concurrently with cathodic dissolution of PbO₂(s) at the disc electrode, is cathodic for $E_r < 1.0 V$ and anodic for $E_r > 1.0 V$ (Figure 5A). For $E_r > ca$. 1.0 V, Peak e' appears to be the resultant of superimposed anodic and cathodic peaks ; see the illustration of component Peaks e_a' and e_c' in Figure 5C. This is evidence for a mixture of intermediate products and we conclude that both Pb(III) and Pb(IV) are soluble products of the cathodic dissolution of PbO₂(s). The detection of Pb(II) on the negative scan of E_d occurs at slightly more positive values of E_d than that of Pb(IV) when PbO₂(s) just begins to strip from the disc electrode. The cathodic signal for E^{P} <

1.0 V corresponds to reduction of both Pb(II) and Pb(IV) to Pb(II). Reduction of Pb(II) to Pb^o occurs for $E_r < c a$. 0.2 V. The peak currents for Peaks e_{a}' and e_{c}' are very small in comparison to Peak e at the disc electrode, and the amount of Pb(III) and Pb(IV) produced during cathodic dissolution of $PbO₂(s)$ is very small. This is consistent with the observation (1) that the areas of Peaks d and e at the disc electrode are virtually equivalent.

Effect of pH Depending on the concentrations of Pb(II) and $HClO_4$, the rate of PbO₂ deposition can be under transport control, kinetic control, or mixed control, as was illustrated in Figure 4 of (1). The i_r - E_d response was compared for the extreme conditions of kinetic and transport control and the results are shown in Figure 5. For 1.3 M HClO_{Λ}, (i.e., transport-controlled deposition), the ring current Peak d' in solution of increased pH (see Figure 5B) becomes peaklike even at the first scan and the peak height decreases and peak potential is shifted to slightly more negative potentials as compared with that in Figure 1. This is because the formation of PbO₂ is faster at higher pH (1) and the required induction period is completed within the time spent by E_d in the region 1.6 - 1.7 V during a single potential scan. Once the Au surface is covered with a PbO₂(s) layer, there is significantly less soluble Pb(IV) produced and the ring current decreases to produce a peak-shaped wave. The shape of the ring Peak e' changes significantly at higher pH. A broad anodic peak appears even at $E_r = 0.2$ V in 1.30 M HClO_{Δ} (see Figure 6B). This indicates that higher pH favors the formation of Pb(II) during cathodic stripping. We conclude also that $E_{\text{Pb(IV)}/\text{Pb(III)}}^{\text{o}} \ll E_{\text{Pb(IV)}/\text{Pb(II)}}^{\text{o}}.$

Not presented here is i^E_d data for 0.4 M and 0.8 M HClO₄. height of ring current Peak d' is even lower and the peak potential is shifted less positive as the HClO₄ concentration is decreased. This is consistent with the observation that as pH is increased the deposition kinetics pass from kinetic control to transport control, see data for a Au electrode in Figure 4 of (1).

Effect of Pb(II) concentration The effects of increasing the Pb(II) concentration in the range $0.01 - 0.15$ M on the i_r -E_d curves for E_r = 0.20 V are depicted in Figure 6. The rate of PbO₂ formation is increased for higher $C_{Pb(II)}^b$ (1), so the cathodic ring Peak d' becomes more peak-like and the peak potential shifts to more negative values. Compared with Figure 1D, it is noted for higher values of $C_{\text{Ph(TI)}}^{\text{b}}$ and pH that the height for Peak d' changes more quickly with scan number. It is noted also that whereas the disc Peak d increases for higher $C_{\text{Ph}(TT)}^{\text{b}}$, ring Peak d' is virtually unchanged. Thus, the relative amount of soluble Pb(IV) produced decreases with increased $C_{\text{Pb}(II)}^{\text{b}}$.

The shape of the ring current Peak e' obtained on the negative scan for E_d from 1.3 V to 1.0 V changes dramatically with a change in $C_{Pb(II)}^{b}$. The anodic peak component (Peak e_a') becomes higher, broader, and shifted to the negative side with higher concentration of Pb(II), as shown in Figure 7 for $E^{\text{F}} = 1.4$ V. However, no attempt should be made here to compare the heights of Peaks e_a' in Figure 7 because of the cathodic component e_c' . If Pb(III) is considered as the product of partial reduction of PbO₂(s) at the outermost layer of the oxide film, it

is understandable that for the thicker. PbO₂(s) film more Pb(III) species will be produced during stripping, as shown in Figure 7. Since $PbO₂(s)$ deposition occurs faster for higher values of $C^{b}_{Pb(II)}$ and pH, thicker $Pb0₂(s)$ layers are formed for the same time interval of deposition and more Pb(III) is detected.

Effect of scan interruption When the scan of E_d was stopped at 1.8 V, it was observed that the ring Peak d' immediately dropped to virtually zero, see Figure 1. For interruption of the positive scanning at 1.5 $V < E_d \ll 1.8 V$, the ring current dropped more slowly. Conversely, disc Wave d increased when the scan of E_d was interrupted at 1.8 V, which indicates an increasing rate of $PbO₂(s)$ formation. These observations are consistent with the conclusion that lesser quantities of the soluble intermediate are swept away from the disc electrode when the rate of $Pbo₂(s)$ deposition becomes fast under constant potential.

Effect of electrode material and electrode pretreatment The above results were all obtained after mechanical polishing of the Au RRDE. If the electrode was pretreated chemically in a 1:1 H_2O_2 /acetic acid mixture, or 0.1 M KMnO₄ solution, similar i_r -E_d curves were obtained. This is consistent with the general knowledge that these pretreatment methods can remove PbO₂(s) and the ultra-thin Pb(II) film to produce a clean Au surface (1).

The existence of soluble Pb(IV) detected during PbO₂(s) formation, and both soluble Pb(III) and Pb(IV) during PbO₂(s) stripping, were also apparent from i_r-E_d curves obtained at Pt ring-disc electrode. These

results were consistent with chronoamperometric data for the Pt-RDE.

Stability of the intermediate products The soluble Pb(IV) produced during $Pb0₂(s)$ nucleation and deposition is believed to be unstable in aqueous non-complexing media (5). However, the stability can be increased by addition of H_3PO_Δ . This has permitted the direct detection of electrochemically prepared Pb(IV) species with normal polarography (5). Similar results were observed in this work. DC polarography was applied for analysis of acidic solutions of Pb(II) following 20 - 30 cycles of deposition and dissolution at a large-area Pt-screen electrode. No polarographic wave for a reducible species other than Pb(II) was observed in the absence of H_3PO_Δ . However, a distinct cathodic wave, concluded to correspond to the result of reduction of Pb(IV), was observed preceding the cathodic wave for Pb(II) when H_3PO_Δ was present in the solution during the deposition/dissolution cycles.

It was of interest then to study the effect of a higher stability of the intermediate Pb(IV) on the nucleation and deposition of $PbO_2(s)$. Addition of H_3PO_Δ was determined to prevent the further anodic deposition of $Pbo_2(s)$, although already existent deposits were not chemically dissolved.

Accumulation of dissolution products on Teflon A dark brown film accumulated on the Teflon shroud of the electrode during multiple cycles of deposition (1.48 V) and stripping (0.3 V), as shown in Figure 8. The film was determined to be an electronic conductor and was found to contain lead, based on X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS). The film

appeared to be of approximately uniform thickness growing in a nearly concentric pin-wheel fashion with increasing cycle number. The radius of the accumulated film was Increased for the same number of deposition/dissolution cycles by increasing the rotational velocity of the RDE.

Accumulation of the film occurred only with alternate anodic deposition and cathodic dissolution of $Pb0₂(s)$ at constant potentials of 1.48 V and 0.3 V, respectively. No film was accumulated for continuous deposition at constant potential or under voltammetric control (i.e., cyclic scans of E_{d}) (see Figure 8A). There appear to be at least two possible explanations for the appearance of the film: i) Pb(III) and Pb(IV) produced during PbO₂(s) dissolution undergo fast hydrolysis reactions to produce insoluble PbO₂ which then is adsorbed at the Teflon surface, and ii) the rapid dissolution of $Pb0₂(s)$ following the potential step to 0.3 V results in undercutting of $PbO₂$ crystallites which then are transported radially along the surface of the RRDE and can adhere to the Teflon surface.

Conclusions

It is concluded that a soluble form of Pb(IV), probably associated with oxygen (e.g., PbO²⁺ or Pb(OH)₂²⁺), is an intermediate product of the anodic nucleation and deposition of $PbO₂(s)$ from solutions of Pb(II) in $HClO_A$. The quantity of Pb(IV) detected is greatest during the induction period (t < t_o), when $i_d \ge 0$ at freshly polished Au electrodes, and decreases substantially when the rate of deposition reaches a steadystate value $(i_d - i_{d,ss}).$

These observations are consistent with predictions made in (1) of a soluble intermediate to explain the effect of changes in rotational velocity on the induction period (t^o) at clean Au electrodes. Increased rotational velocity causes i_d to decrease, the quantity of soluble Pb(IV) detected to increase, and t_0 to be increased. For high rotational velocity in 1.7 M HClO_{Δ}, virtually all Pb(IV) formed at the disc electrode is lost from the electrode surface by convective-diffusional transport. The long induction period is explained because the residence time of the soluble Pb(IV) at the disc surface is too short. The quantity of Pb(IV) detected is at a minimum for Pb(II) concentrations > ca. 0.1 M and HCD_4 concentrations $<$ ca. 1 M, which correlates with conditions for a minimum value of t^o and the maximum rate of the deposition process (i.e., large $i_{d,ss}$).

It has been demonstrated (1) that evolution of $0₂$ is required to enable the anodic deposition of $Pb0₂(s)$. It was demonstrated also that the induction period was short for surfaces at which $PbO₂(s)$ had previously been deposited and then stripped. An ultra-thin film of Pb(II) was concluded (1) to remain at the Au electrode surface following dissolution of PbO₂(s) at 0.3 V which serves as an array of nucleation sites following oxidation to an ultra-thin film of Pb(IV) (probably PbO₂) with the step of potential from 0.3 V to the deposition value. Data obtained with the RRDE demonstrated a significantly lower quantity of soluble Pb(IV) being produced at the start of the induction period when the ultra-thin film was left intact following cathodic dissolution of bulk deposits of $PbO_2(s)$.

It also is concluded that very small quantities of soluble Pb(III) and Pb(IV) are produced with the onset of cathodic dissolution of $PbO₂(s)$ for a negative potential scan. Conditions which favor the rapid deposition of PbO₂(s) favor the production of soluble Pb(III) over Pb(IV) during the dissolution process.

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Figure 1. Comparison of Consecutive $i^F_{r^-}E_d$ and $i^F_{d^-}E_d$ curves

Conditions: $E^r = 0.2$ V, $\varnothing = 40$ mV s⁻¹, w - 900 rev min⁻¹, 1.70 M HClO₄ Curves: (A and B) blank solutions, (C and D) 0.010 M Pb(II); (A and C) i_d - E_d , (B and D) i^T_r -E_d

Scan number: indicated in figure

Figure 2, Effect of rotational velocity on the ring current peaks for Curve D in Figure 1

Conditions: 0.010 M Pb(II), 1.70 M HClO₄, others as given in Figure 1

- Curves: (a) Peak a' obtained at $E_d = 1.1 1.3$ V on positive scan, (b) Peak d' obtained at $E_d = 1.7 - 1.8$ V
	- on positive scan,
	- (c) Peak e' obtained at E_d 1.3 1.1 V on negative scan

Figure 3. Chronoamperometric response at RRDE

Curves: (a) i_d -t, (b) i_r -t, and (c) i_d -t at higher current sensitivity

Figure 4. Plots of i_r/N and $-i_r/Ni_d$ vs. $w^{1/2}$ Conditions: as given in Figure 3 Curves: (a) i_r/N , (b) $-i_r/Ni_d$

Figure 5. Effect of E^{\sim}_r and HClO₄ concentration on i^{\sim}_r -E_d curves Conditions: E^r as marked (V); others as given in Figure 1 $HClO_4$ concentration (M): (A) 1.70, (B) 1.30 Inset: Estimated components of Peak e'

Figure 6. Effect of Pb(II) concentration on i_{r} -E_d curves at $E_r = 0.2 \text{ V}$

Conditions: 1.70 M HClO₄, other as given in Figure 1 Pb(II) concentration (M): (A) 0.15, (B) 0.10, (C) 0.050

Figure 7. Effect of Pb(II) concentration on i_r -E_d curves at E_r = 1.4 V for E_d = 1.4 - 0.6 V

Conditions: 1.30 M HClO₄, 0.40 M NaClO₄, other as given in Figure 1^7

Pb(II) concentration (M): (A) 0.050, (B) 0,010, (C) 0,15

Figure 8. Photograph of $PbO₂$ film on the Au RDE

Deposition conditions: 0.010 M Pb(II), 10.8 M HClO₄, $w = 400$ rev min⁻¹ Preparation: (A) continuous deposition, (B) 15 cycles of deposition/stripping at constant potentials

III. IN-SITU ELECTROCATALYSIS AND CHARACTERIZATION OF PURE AND BISMUTH-MODIFIED LEAD DIOXIDE

A. Electrocatalysis During in-situ Electrodeposition of Pure and Bismuth-Modified Lead Dioxide in Acidic Media¹

"The study of chemically modified electrodes has expanded enormously since their disclosure twelve years ago. Despite the fascinating and novel results that have been obtained with them, no practical applications are in sight and will not be until their durability extends beyond the time necessary for writing another research grant application."

> -M. M. Baizer, Pure App. Chem. 1986, 58, 889.

 1 To be submitted to J. Electrochem. Soc.

Abstract

Oxidation of Mn^{2+} to MnO_4 ["] in strongly acidic media does not proceed readily at conventional anodes, e.g., Pt, Au, GC, and PbO₂, apparently due to the deposition of an electroinactive $MnO₂$ film. However, this reaction can occur under mass-transport control at the $Pb0₂$ deposited insitu in a solution containing both the Mn^{2+} and Pb $^{2+}$. The continuous deposition of PbO₂ not only produces an intermediate Pb(IV) species that has strong oxidizing power, but also constantly renews the electrode surface, thereby preventing the accumulation of $MnO₂$. Many other reactions also are catalyzed during the in-situ deposition of $PbO₂$. The interactions between the spontaneous electrolysis and electrodeposition also were studied.

Bismuth-doped PbO₂ also can be deposited in-situ in a sample solution containing Bi^{3+} and Pb^{2+} . Pure PbO₂ can be modified in-situ by Bi^{3+} added to the electrolysis solution. In both cases, the existence of Bi^{3+} in the solution prevents the deactivation of the oxide electrode and, thus, ensures the catalytic activity and stability.

Chronoamperometry, voltammetry, flow-injection analysis, visible spectrophotometry, and scanning electron microscopy were used to characterize the in-situ electrodeposited metal oxides and their electrocatalysis.

Introduction

Fouling of solid electrodes occurs frequently due to the adsorption of reactants and/or products, or the self-destruction of the surfacebonded catalysts (1,2). This phenomenon leads to short lifetime and low

reproducibility for the electrodes. Until now, enhancing the stability of the solid electrodes in both electrosynthetic and electroanalytical devices has been an unfinished battle. A recent effort is the so-called "in-situ electrodeposition of catalysts" for some cathodic processes (3- 4). By adding Ni^{2+} (3) or Cu²⁺ (4) to the electrolyte, the simultaneous deposition of Ni or Cu "leads to reproducible surfaces of defined structure and properties" (3). This scheme of surface renewal was applied for electrocatalytic hydrogénation of organic molecules at nickel (3), and reduction of carbon dioxide to methane and ethane at copper (4). In-situ deposition of catalyst on mercury by formation of amalgam also has been used for organic electroreduction (5-7). The electroreduction of dimethyl pyrrolidinium at mercury forms an insoluble amalgam which acts as a regenerable catalyst to reduce a variety of organic substances in the solution.

A similar concept has existed for anodic processes. For example, a nickel(III) oxide hydroxide electrode (NiOOH) is spontaneously formed during anodic polarization of a nickel electrode in alkaline media (8- 12). This electrode is widely used for many electrooxidation processes as reviewed in (13). It has been concluded that NiOOH is the electrocatalyst which is continuously formed at the electrode surface. The reactivity of the electrode is similar to that of nickel peroxide as a chemical oxidant in homogeneous solutions. Most of the organic oxidation reactions occur at the same potential corresponding to the anodic transition of Ni(II) \rightarrow Ni(III). The same also holds for silver(I/II) oxide (14-16) and cobalt(II/III) oxide electrodes (17). The in-situ formed nickel oxide electrodes also have been used as detectors for a variety of organic substances, e.g., carbohydrates, amino acids, and proteins (18-22). By adding a small amount of Ni^{2+} to the solution, the continuous deposition of nickel oxide not only renews the catalytic surface but also ensures the existence of high-oxldation-state nickel at the electrode surface. This detection technique has found applications in flow-injection analysis (FIA) and liquid chromatography with electrochemical detection (LC/EC). In-situ anodized PbO₂ formed from a lead electrode In sulfuric acid media also has been used in electrosynthesis (23-24).

In this paper, electrocatalytic phenomena are described for in-situ deposited pure and chemically modified PbO₂ electrodes. The purposes of this study are five-fold:

(1) It has been known from our previous work (25,26) that transient Fb(IV) species (both adsorbed and soluble), possibly associated with oxygen as PbO²⁺ or Pb(OH)₂²⁺, are generated during the nucleation and electrodepositlon of Pb0₂ from a Pb²⁺ solution. These unstable Pb(IV) species are concluded to have strong oxidizing power. Therefore, as with the other in-situ deposited metal oxide electrodes (8- 24), it is interesting and desirable to determine whether there is any catalytic enhancement of activity at in-situ electrodeposited PbO₂ in a solution containing both analyte and Pb^{2+} .

(2) The incorporation of an oxygen-transfer (0-t) mediator, e.g., Bi^{3+} , into electrodeposited PbO₂ results in Bi-doped PbO₂ (Bi-PbO₂) electrodes that selectively catalyze many anodic 0-t reactions (27-32). Thus, it is of more importance to test the catalytic activities of in-situ deposited Bi-PbO₂ by the presence of Bi³⁺ and Pb²⁺ simultaneously or Bi^{3+} alone at PbO₂ electrodes.

(3) When the reactant for electrolysis and the metal lon(s) for metal oxide deposition exist in the same solution, two kinds of interactions between their respective electrode processes may occur: the alteration of the rate of the electrodeposition of metal oxides by the co-existing analytes and the enhancement of the oxidation rate of analytes caused by the in-situ electrodeposition of metal oxides. These Interactions are also the subjects of study in this paper.

(4) It was observed that the $Bi-PbO₂$ electrode suffered from a short lifetime for the oxidation of Mn^{2+} to MnO_A . (33). Thus, maintaining the catalytic activity for the electrode becomes the key to its potential applications. It is hoped that the in-situ electrodeposited metal oxide electrodes have higher stability and longer lifetime caused by the continuous renewal of the surface catalytic sites. The cause for the fouling of the pre-deposited $Bi-Pb0₂$ electrodes is studied as well.

(5) Flow-injection techniques (34-36) have become very popular in recent years in chemical analysis because of their many unique characteristics, e.g., high sample throughput and small sample volume. Whereas flow-through electrochemical cells have become important to electroanalysis, electrochemical waste treatment, electrosynthesis, and electrowinning of metals (37-40), we have found no reports for application of flow-injection electrochemistry In electrocatalytlc research. Here, we describe an example of the application of flow-injection with electrochemical detector (FI-EC) to demonstrate the electrocatalysis for anodic 0-t reactions at the In-situ deposited $Pb0₂$.

Experimental

The apparatus for hydrodynamic voltammetry and chronoamperometry was described earlier (25).

The FI-EC system consisted of a model LDC mini-pump (flow rate: 9.6 ml min⁻¹), a 50-µ1 sample injector, and a home-made flow-through cell with a Au wire electrode (ca. 0.9 mm^2). A model 174A Polarographic Analyzer (EG&G Princeton Applied Research, Princeton, NJ) operated in the sampled dc mode (time constant: 0.5 sec) was used as the potentiostat. The pulsed potential waveform was generated by a model 175 Universal Programmer (EG&G Princeton Applied Research).

The flow-through spectrometric detector for electrolytic products consisted of a 30-ml electrolytic cell with a stirring bar, a Gilson Minipulse 2 peristalic pump, a 1.0-ml Fisher flow-through spectrophotometric cell (10 mm pathlength), and a Perkin-Elmer 320 UV-visible spectrophotometer. The dead volume between the two cells was ca. 6 ml. The flow rate was 6 ml min⁻¹. A Pt screen electrode was used as the substrate electrode for this experiment.

The scanning electron microscopy (SEM) and X-ray energy-dispersive spectroscopy (EDS) were taken with a model JSM-U3 microscope (JEOL). Detachable gold RDE for SEM was made by soldering a Au disc sheet onto a stainless steel tip. The deposition of metal oxides was done under the optimal conditions determined previously (25).

All chemicals were reagent grade and dissolved by deionized water. The Pb^{2+} and Bi^{3+} solutions were prepared from their nitrate salts. Solutions were prepared with 1.0 M HClO $_L$.

In-situ electrodeposition of PbO₂

Chronoamperometry Shown in Figure 1 are chronoamperograms for the oxidation of 10 mM Mn^{2+} at a PbO₂-coated Au RDE (Curve A), the deposition of PbO₂ on a Au RDE from 10 mM Pb²⁺ (Curve B), and the oxidation of 10 mM Mn^{2+} in the presence of 10 mM Pb²⁺ (Curve C). To facilitate the discussion, the values of the steady-state current for Curves A, B, C are symbolized as i_A , i_L , and i_{L+A} , respectively. The symbol i_{L+A} represents the current for the mixture of Pb^{2+} (L), and analyte (A) which is Mn^{2+} in this case; i_L represents the current for Pb²⁺ only; and i_A represents the current for analyte only. Furthermore, $\Delta i - i_{L+A} - i_L$ is defined as the net current for the oxidation of A in the presence of Pb^{2+} , based on the assumption that i_I is not changed by the addition of the analyte. The assumption is reasonable because i_L increases linearly with $v^{1/2}$ (see Figure B). Any additional current resulting from the addition of other substances (i.e., Δi) is concluded to be the result of the oxidation of the analyte.

The value of i_A for Mn²⁺ was virtually zero, as shown in Figure 1A, which means that the oxidation of Mn^{2+} is very slow at the pre-deposited PbO₂ electrode. This observation is consistent with the previous result (31). The addition of Pb^{2+} to the solution greatly enhanced the rate of Mn $^{2+}$ oxidation as shown by Δi \gg i $_{\rm A}$ in Figure 1C. $\,$ In this case, the solution became pink rapidly due to the color of the oxidation product MnO^". The value of I**L**+**A** in Figure IC increased with increased rotational velocity (w). After the correction for the $PbO₂$ deposition current, Δi also increased with increased $w^{1/2}$ as shown in Figure 2,

although the $\Delta i-w^{1/2}$ plot is not as linear as observed for the predeposited Bi-PbO₂ electrodes (32). It is concluded that that the oxidation of Mn^{2+} at in-situ deposited PbO₂ is under virtual masstransport control. The value of Δi also increased with increased Pb^{2+} concentration, i.e., faster rate of $Pb0₂$ deposition, as depicted in Figure 2. It is concluded that the oxidation rate at in-situ deposited Pb0₂ is proportional to the rate of Pb0₂ deposition.

Also studied were the effects of the co-existing Pb^{2+} ions on the oxidation of other substances. Figure 3 shows the $\Delta i-w^{1/2}$ plots for some compounds most of which have low reactivities at the pre-deposited $PbO₂$ electrodes. It is readily apparent that $\Delta i \gg 0$ for all compounds. The value of Δi increased linearly with $v^{1/2}$ for thiourea, thiocyanate, 2thiophene carboxylic acid (TPCA), and hydroqulnone, but not linearly for L-cysteine and 2-mercaptoethanesulfonic anion $(HSCH_2CH_2SO_3^*)$. As for Lcystine, Δi decreased slightly with $w^{1/2}$. No effects of co-existing $Pb²⁺$ were observed on the oxidation of chromium(III) and dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO), i.e., $\Delta i \simeq 0$.

It is concluded from the above results that the in-situ deposited PbO₂ has higher catalytic activity for some O-transfer reactions than the pre-deposited PbO₂. The catalytic activity of the PbO₂ electrode prepared from an analyte-containing solution, e.g., after the study in Figure 1C, was compared to that of the pre-deposited $PbO₂$. No difference was observed for a number of reactions, which indicates no activity enhancement at the in-situ deposited $PbO₂$ without co-existing $Pb²⁺$. Therefore, the enhanced catalytic activity as shown in Figure 1C

is not due to a unique surface structure of the in-situ deposited PbO₂. The SEM micrograph also showed that there was little difference in morphology between the pre-deposited PbO₂ and the in-situ deposited PbO₂.

Effects of co-existing analytes on the rate of $Pb0₂$ nucleation and electrodeposition Listed in Table 1 are the values of t_o , t_1 , and S (for definitions, see Ref. 25) for the deposition of PbO₂ at a freshly polished Au RDE from ${\tt Pb}^{2+}$ solutions with co-existing analytes. The coexistence of organic substances oxidizible at the in-situ deposited $Pb0₂$ greatly increased the values of t^o and t^1 , and decreased the values of S (except for hydroquinone), indicating a decreased rate of $Pb0₂$ nucleation and deposition. This is probably due to the consumption of the intermediate Pb(IV) species by the analyte during the nucleation process. A similar effect was observed for increased rates of mass transport at RDE (26). However, the existence of Mm^{2+} , Cr^{3+} or DMSO did not affect the i-t curves for the $Pb0₂$ deposition, as the data for Mn^{2+} is shown in Figure 1C. This is quite understandable for cr^{3+} and DMSO since they are not readily oxidizable at the in-situ deposited Pbo_2 .

Cyclic voltammetry The catalytic activity of the in-situ deposited $Pb0₂$ was demonstrated also by cyclic voltammetry, as shown in Figure 4. Compared with the current for $PbO₂$ deposition (Curve a), a large net current was observed when TPCA was present (Curve b), while TPCA did not show any i -E wave at the pre-deposited PbO₂. At the same current scale, the anodic current for Curve b in the positive scan arose at less positive potential values than for Curve a, indicating the

Table 1. Effects of Co-existing Analytes on the Kinetics of $PbO₂$ Deposition at Au RDE

Conditions: 10 mM Pb²⁺ and 10 mM analyte, 1.0 M HClO₄;

400 rev min^{-1} ; E = 1.7 V

catalytic effect of the initial $Pb0₂$ nuclei. This observation corresponds to the detection of the highest concentration of soluble Pb(IV) species in the induction period (26). In the 2nd scan, the Au RDE had already been covered by $Pb0₂$, so the current for TPCA arose at much less positive potential values and followed the trace for the reverse scan in the 1st cycle. A large difference existed between the steadystate i-E curves in the presence and absence of TPCA.

Also shown in Figure 4 is the i-E for DMSO (Curve c). Only a small current increase was observed at very high potential values (1.75 - 1.85 V), which is consistent with the chronoamperometric data.

Voltammograms similar to those for TPCA were obtained for oxidation of \texttt{Mn}^{2+} to $\texttt{MnO}_4^{\text{-}}$ at the in-situ deposited PbO₂ with different substrates, as shown in Figure 5. The dashed Curves A, B, C represent the deposition of PbO₂ at GC, Au and Pt, respectively (25). The i-E curves shifted to less positive potentials as a result of the addition of Mn^{2+} (solid lines), with generation of $MnO₄$ as indicated by the purple color. The magnitude of the shift in potential in the positive scan had the same order of oxygen-evolution overpotential and the potential for $Pb0₂$ deposition at the substrates, i.e., $GC > Au > Pt$. This result is concluded to be evidence for the correlation between the oxygen evolution and 0-transfer reaction (25). The current in the negative scans fell to zero in the same potential range for the three substrates, indicating the coverage of the substrate by PbO_2 . It is noticeable that the potential value at the same current in the negative scan for oxidation of Mn^{2+} in Figure 5 is virtually the same as that for TPCA in Figure 4, indicating

the same rate controlling step In the these anodic processes. The large potential difference between the solid and dashed curve In the positive scan, especially for GC, demonstrates again the catalytic activities of the in-situ deposited PbO₂ at a potential region in which no apparent deposition current Is monitored, yet a small amount of soluble intermediate Pb(IV) species is generated (26). Therefore, it is concluded that the catalytic activity of the in-situ deposited $Pb0₂$ electrode is the result of the formation of the intermediate Pb(IV) species.

Deposition of metal oxide-coated Au electrode in the flow-through $system$ The catalytic activities of the in-situ deposited PbO₂ electrode also can be demonstrated with a FI-EC system. The deposition of PbOg film in a flow-through cell was done either with continuous flow of a Pb^{2+} solution or with a series of injections of the solution. Both cases are illustrated by the 1-t curves in Figure 6. The shape of the it Curve A for continuous flow and the shape formed by the peaks of Curve B are similar to the chronoamperometric responses for $Pb0₂$ deposition at a RDE in a conventional cell (25). The increase of peak height in Figure 6B with the first 25 Injections clearly demonstrates the catalytic effect of PbO₂ deposit from the proceeding injection on the deposition current in the induction period. A similar phenomenon was observed by consecutive cyclic potential scans (25). It is concluded that the rate of PbO₂ deposition is faster on PbO₂ than on Au.

While it takes about 10-30 minutes to prepare a $PbO₂$ coated RDE in a conventional cell (30-32), it takes less than 3 minutes in the flow-

through system because of the smaller electrode area. The oxide films in the flow-through cell can be removed easily by electrochemical stripping or chemical flush without dismounting the cell.

Flow-iniection analysis with amperometric detection The activities of the oxide electrodes in the FI-EC system can be tested immediately following the preparation because of the convenience in medium switching. The oxidation current for some sulfur-compounds and ${\tt Mn}^{2+}$ at PbO $_2$ electrode are shown in Figure 7B as compared to those at bare Au electrode (Figure 7A). Clearly, the peak heights at the $Pbo₂$ are much higher than those at the Au, indicating the electrocatalysis of $Pb0₂$ to some 0-t reactions (29,30).

Shown in Figure 7C are the results when 10 mM Pb^{2+} is present in the 10 mM sample solutions. The peak heights in Figure 7C are larger than the sum of those in Figure 7B and the average value of maximum peak heights for 10 mM Pb^{2+} in Figure 6B. This is concluded to be due to the enhanced catalytic activity as a result of the co-existing Pb^{2+} . The reproducibility of the peak heights also was improved by the co-existing Pb^{2+} . As shown in Figure 7, the peak heights for TPCA decreased with injection number on both the Au and $PbO₂$ electrodes, but were relatively constant if Pb^{2+} was present in the solution.

An alternative way to use the in-situ deposited $PbO₂$ in the FI-EC system is to add a small amount of Pb^{2+} , e.g., 1 mM, in the eluent instead of the sample solution. A technique similar to pulsed amperometric detection (PAD) (29) was used to avoid the over-accumulation of PbO₂ on the Au. With a two-step potential waveform (1.6 V for 250

msec and 0.7 V for 200 msec), the electrode was subjected to alternate deposition and stripping, while the current was sampled during the deposition at 1.6 V. The results proved that the existence of Pb^{2+} in the eluent also increased the current for oxidation of many substances. The peak heights increased with the increased concentration of $HSCH_2CH_2SO_3$ from 0.4 to 2.0 mM.

Spectrophotometry The electrochemical methods have their limitations in studying electrocatalytic reactions at the in-situ deposited electrodes. For instance, when Δi was compared with i_A , a assumption was made that the co-existing analyte and its oxidation did not affect the i_L component of the i_{L+A} , which might not always be true. Therefore, a separate method is needed to monitor the rate of either $Pb0₂$ formation or analyte oxidation. Since MnO_A ^{*} has well-characterized and strong absorbance (A) of visible light $(\lambda_{\text{max}} - 525 \text{ nm})$, a spectrophotometer can be used to monitor the rate of $MnO₄$ " generation and the final MnO_A " concentration of the electrolysis process. The absorbance (A) can be measured either vs. wavelength (λ) or vs. time (t). A closed-cycle flow-through system was set up, consisting of an electrolytic cell and a spectrophotometric cell connected by a pump. The delaying time between the two cells was about 1 min, which is small enough compared with the time scale used for electrolysis.

In Figure 8A are the A-t curves recorded at λ - 525 nm (ε - 2200 cm/M) for five electrode/solution combinations. Curve e shows that no $MnO_A^"$ is produced at PbO₂-coated Pt electrode at 1.7 V in the electrolytic solution containing only Mn^{2+} . Some absorption was observed

following the electrolysis of Mn^{2+} at bare Pt (see Curve d); however, the color of the resultant solution appeared to be different from that of MnO_A . The increase of absorbance with time in this case lasted for less than 0.5 min, indicating rapid cessation of the electrode reaction, probably due to surface fouling. The meaning of these results will be discussed in a later section. When ${\rm Pb}^{2+}$ was present, the absorbance increased linearly and rapidly with time (Curve a and b). Disconnection of electrode potential stopped the growth of absorbance, indicating the stop of the $\texttt{MnO}_4^{\text{-}}$ production. The higher the Pb²⁺ concentration, the larger was the slope of the A-t curve, i.e., the faster is the ${MnO_A}^*$ generation. This is in accordance with previous chronoamperometric results (see Figure 2). Curve b in Figure 8A represents the generation of MnO_4 in the presence of both Pb²⁺ and Bi³⁺, as is discussed later.

Curve a in Figure 8B is the spectrum $(A-\lambda)$ for MnO_Λ " prepared by dissolution of KMD_A , which is consistent with the literature data (41). Curve b is the spectrum for the product solution after electrolysis of 10 mM Mn $^{2+}$ at an in-situ deposited PbO $_2$ electrode. From the resemblance of Curves a and b, it is concluded that the oxidation product for Mn^{2+} is indeed ${MnO_A}$. Curve d in Figure 8B is the spectrum for the product solution for Curve d in Figure SA. Thus, the oxidation product at the bare Pt electrode without co-existing Pb^{2+} is not totally MnO_A . It is suspected that $MnO₂(s)$ together with some Mn^{3+} and a very small amount of MnO_4 are produced in this case. Brown MnO_2 precipitate was observed at the electrode and on the inner wall of the electrolysis cell.

In-situ modification of PbO₂ with Bi^{3+}

 $\frac{1}{\text{Im-situ modification of Pb0}_2}$ with Bi^{3+} can be done in three ways, as discussed in the following sections. Comparison of the resultant Bimodified PbO₂ electrodes derived from these three methods is expected to give great insight into the mechanism of electrocatalysis at the Bimodified PbO₂.

Electrocatalysis with Bi^{3+} and Pb^{2+} co-existing in the solution Bismuth-doped Pbo_2 can be deposited in-situ from a sample solution containing Pb^{2+} and Bi^{3+} . The catalytic activity of such an electrode at a GC substrate was demonstrated by the cyclic voltammograms in Figure 9 obtained from a solution of 10 mM Mm^{2+} , 10 mM Pb^{2+} , and 9 mM Bi³⁺. Compared with those in Figure 4, an even higher current was observed for oxidation of Mn^{2+} to MnO_4 " when 9 mM Bi³⁺ was added in addition to 10 mM Pb^{2+} . Since the co-existing Bi^{3+} does not contribute directly to the total current (42), this increased current is concluded to be due to the further increased catalytic activity for Mn^{2+} oxidation as a result of the Bi^{3+} . Again, the catalytic current arose before the deposition current, which proves the catalytic activity of the initial Bi-doped PbO₂ nuclei. Voltammograms similar to those in Figure 9 also were obtained at Au and Pt electrodes for oxidation of TPCA.

The generation of MnO_{Λ} " from a solution containing 10 mM Mn^{2+} and a small amount of Pb^{2+} and Bi^{3+} also was shown by the A-t response (Curve c) in Figure 8A and the absorbance curve (c) in Figure SB. It was noticed that A increased with time for about 2 min and then stopped. Thus, fouling of the electrode is concluded still to occur at very low

concentration of co-existing Pb^{2+} and Bi^{3+} .

Electrocatalysis at Bi-doped PbO₂ with Bi³⁺ co-existing in the «M <u>solution</u> The oxidation of Mn^{2+} at the Bi-doped PbO₂ electrode was studied with chronoamperometry, as shown in Figure 10. A large current for $Mn^{2+} \rightarrow MnO_4$ " was observed immediately after the application of potential at a Bi -PbO₂ RDE without the presence of Pb^{2+} or Bi^{3+} (Curve a). This observation demonstrates the enhancement in catalytic activity by incorporation of Bi(III) into the $PbO₂$ matrix and is consistent with the previous results (31-32). However, this large current was not stable for longer than 3 min, after which the current fell gradually to zero. The transition time for the total loss of the electrode activity intended to increase slightly with the increased Bi/Pb ratio in the mixed oxide determined by the Bi^{3+} and Pb^{2+} concentration ratio in the deposition solution. Hence, it is concluded that the lifetime of Bi-doped PbO₂ electrodes for the electrolytic generation of MnO_A ^{*} in acidic media is not long enough for practical applications. However, the addition of Bi^{3+} to the solution greatly enhanced the stability of the current (Curve b and c). The lifetime of the electrode increased with increased Bi^{3+} concentration. In effect, when the amount of Bi^{3+} was high enough, the ultimate lifetime of the electrode was determined by the lifetime of MnO_4 " in the acidic solution. Decomposition of MnO_4 " occurs in acidic media to $MnO₂$ (41) that can precipitate at the electrode surface and foul the electrode. This phenomenon will be discussed further in the next section.

Also shown in Figure 10 is the oxidation of DMSO at the Bi-PbO₂

electrode (Curve d). It is apparent that the oxidation current is very stable even without the Bi^{3+} in the solution. Electrolysis in a DMSO solution at a pre-deposited $Bi-Pb0₂$ electrode did not result in electrode fouling during a 3-hr test period. It is, thus, concluded that the sole oxidation product of DMSO, dimethyl sulfone (DMSO₂) (25), does not foul the electrode.

Deactivation mechanism of Bi-PbO₂ for Mn²⁺ oxidation At first sight, the activity loss seemed to be related to the gradual dissolution of bismuth ions from the Bi-PbO₂, as a trace amount of Bi³⁺ was detected with differential pulse polarography in a Mn^{2+} solution after electrolysis at a Bi-PbO₂ electrode (36). However, this argument cannot explain the stable activity of the same electrode for DMSO.

During the electrolysis in the Mn^{2+} solution, the color of the Bi-PbO₂ film changed from gray/black (depending on the thickness) to brown, and some brown $MnO₂$ particles precipitated in the solution. These results suggested that the deposition of an electroinactive layer on the electrode might be the cause for the activity loss. This thinking is supported by further experiments. Firstly, a brown film with an anodic current was observed at Pt, Au, PbO₂, and Bi-PbO₂ electrodes after anodization at 1.4 - 1.7 V in a Mn^{2+} solution. The existence of Mn in the brown film was shown by the EDS Curves a and b in Figure 11, The chemical formula for this film is concluded to be $MnO₂$. The observed anodic current decreased rapidly with time (or cycle number) which indicates that the deposition of this $MnO₂$ film prevents the further oxidation of Mn^{2+} . Secondly, once the reactivity of the Bi-PbO₂

electrode was lost, it could not be resumed by adding Bi^{3+} to the solution. The fouled $Bi-Pb0₂$ electrodes also showed no reactivity for the oxidation of DMSO. When a Au electrode covered by a $MnO₂$ film was used as the substrate on which to deposit PbO₂ in a Pb²⁺ solution, the induction period was much longer than that at a freshly polished Au RDE. Therefore, this $MnO₂$ film also greatly decreases the rate of PbO₂ nucleation and deposition. Thirdly, it was observed that the brown $MnO₂$ film was dissolved in H_2O_2 solution faster than the PbO₂. Hence, it was possible to remove the $MnO₂$ film from the electrode surface without removing the inner Bi-PbO₂ layer by fast rinsing the electrode with a H₂O₂ solution. The reactivity of a fouled MnO₂-covered Bi-PbO₂ electrode was found to be resumed after this treatment, as determined by the oxidation of DMSO.

It is, therefore, concluded that the activity loss of the Bi-doped Pb0₂ electrode for electrolysis of Mn^{2+} is due to the formation of an inert $MnO₂$ film. This $MnO₂$ film can be developed by either direct oxidation of Mn^{2+} or chemical decomposition of MnO_A .

The above conclusion also explains the catalytic activities of the in-situ deposited PbO₂ electrode. The continuous renewal of the PbO₂ surface by the in-situ deposition prevents the precipitation of $MnO₂$. However, it is the catalytic effect of the intermediates formed at the in-situ deposited PbO₂ that makes the oxidation of Mn^{2+} to MnO_4 ⁻ possible, without which mixed $MnO₂$ and PbO₂ would be produced. This later point is reasonable because similar catalytic activity of the insitu deposited PbO₂ was observed also for the oxidation of TPCA. For

TPCA, fouling of the PbO₂ electrode by the oxidation product is unlikely, so the function of surface-renewal is less important.

Electrocatalysis at PbO₂ with Bi^{3+} co-existing in the solution Strong catalytic activity for oxidation of Mn^{2+} , TPCA, and DMSO was observed at a pure PbO₂ electrode with Bi^{3+} added to the solution. The result for Mn^{2+} is shown in Figure 12. With $[Bi^{3+}/[Mn^{2+}] - 1/250$, a well-defined voltammetric plateau appeared at 1.5 - 1.6 V, which was not obtained without the co-existing Bi^{3+} . This i-E plateau is similar to that obtained at the $Bi-Pb0₂$ electrode (42). Bismuth was detected at the Pb0₂ surface by EDS following the anodization in a Bi^{3+} -containing solution, which might be the key to understand the catalytic activity for this $Pb0₂$ electrode. Much more detailed studies on this subject for oxidation of DMSO and many other substances will be presented in Chapters IV-A and B.

Morphology of the anodized PbO₂ Shown in Figure 13 are the SEM micrographs of the normal PbO₂ film (A) and the PbO₂ films treated anodically in the blank electrolyte (B), and electrolyte containing Bi^{3+} (C) and Mn^{2+} (D). Compared with A, the oxide surfaces in B and C were condensed after the anodization treatment. The similarity between B and C indicates that the difference in catalytic activity between these two electrodes is not due to the morphology change. Pretreatment in Mn^{2+} containing solution resulted in a totally different morphology (D), which is concluded to be due to the deposition of $MnO₂$. No difference in morphology was observed between the $Bi-PbO₂$ electrodes prepared from predeposition and in-situ deposition.

Spectrophotometry The electrochemistry-spectrophotometry system described earlier also was used to monitor the rate of MnO_{Λ}" production at a PbO₂ electrode with Bi^{3+} present in the solution. The results are shown in Figure 14. When the Bi^{3+} concentration was < 0.02 μ M (Curve c), the absorbance first increased slowly with time for ca. 0.5 min and then became constant. The latter indicates that the reaction was stopped and the electrode was fouled. When more Bi³⁺ was present, the increase of **A** lasted much longer (Curves a and b). The slope (**AA**/At) of Curve a and b in Figure 14 is much greater than that of Curve a and b in Figure 8A, indicating faster rate of MnO_A " generation, i.e., stronger catalytic activity at the Bi-modified PbO₂ than at the in-situ deposited PbO₂. These results are consistent with the electrochemical experiments. Calculation from the maximum absorbance after long-term electrolysis indicates that, under certain conditions, the current efficiency for generation of Mon_{Λ}^{\bullet} from Man^{2+} in acidic media is close to 100%. Similar efficiency is expected also for oxidation of TPCA and DMSO.

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Figure 1. Chronoamperograms for oxidation of Mn^{2+}

Conditions: 1.0 M $HClO_4$, E - 1.70 V, $w^{1/2}$ (rev min⁻¹)^{1/2}: (a) 400, (b) 900, (c) 1600, (d) 2500, (e) 3600 Curves: (A) 10 mM Mn^{2+} on PbO₂/Au, (B) 10 mM Ph²⁺ on Au, and (C) 10 mM Mn^2 and 10 mM Pb²⁺ on Au

Figure 2. Plots of Δi ys. $w^{1/2}$ for Mn^{2+} oxidation at different Pb²⁺ concentrations Conditions: 10 mM Mm^{2+} , 1.0 M HClO₄, E - 1.70 V Pb^{2+} concentration: (a) 10 mM and (b) 1 mM

Figure 3. Plots of Δi vs. $w^{1/2}$

Conditions : 10 mM analyte and 10 mM in 1.0 M $HClO_4$, E - 1.70 V Curves: (#) thiourea, **(A)** SCN', «) hydroquinone, (x) TPCA, (O) EDTA, (Δ) HSCH₂CH₂SO₃⁻, (\blacktriangledown) L-cysteine, (\square) L-cystine

Figure 4. Cyclic voltammograms at in-situ electrodeposited $PbO₂$

Conditions: 400 rev min^{-1} , 20 mV s⁻¹, 10 mM analyte in 1.0 M HClO $_{\Lambda}$

Curves: (\ldots) regidual, (.....) residual,
(-----) Pb₂+ only, (a),

() Pb and TPCA, 1st scan, (b) , $(- \longrightarrow)^{Pb}^{2+}_{2+}$ and IPCA, Ist scan, (b),
 $(- \longrightarrow)^{Pb}^{2+}_{2+}$ and TPCA, 2nd scan, (b'), $(---)$ Pb²⁺ and DMSO, (c)
(---) Pb²⁺ and DMSO, (c)

Figure 5. Cyclic voltammograms at in-situ electrodeposited $PbO₂$

Figure 6. Preparation of PbO₂ coating on Au electrode in a flow-through systems

Conditions: 1.6 V electrode potential, 1.0 M HClO_A carrier stream, 10 mM Pb^{2+} sample solution

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Curves: (A) continuous flow of Pb^{2+} at 3 ml min⁻¹; (B) consecutive injections at 9.6 ml min⁻¹

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Figure 7. Flow-injection amperometric detection peaks

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The xn numbers indicate the increase of current scale

Figure 8A. Absorbance vs. time at λ - 525 nm

 \cdot Conditions: $E = 1.70$ V. The potentiostat was disconnected at the arrows for a and b

Curves: (a) 10 mM Mn^{2+} and 10 mM Pb²⁺ at PbO₂, (b) the same $as (a)$, (c) 10 mM Mn^{2+} , 10 μ M Pb²⁺ and $1 \mu M$ ^{Bi³⁺ at PbO₂,} (d) 10 mM mn^{2+}_{0} at Pt,

(e) 10 mM Mn^{2+} at PbO₂

Figure 8B. Spectroscopy for Mn²⁺ oxidation products

Curves: (a) $KMnO_4$ in 1.0 M HClO₄,

- (b) electrogenerated $Mn\ddot{O}_4$ from A(a),
- (c) electrogenerated MnO_A ["] from A(c),
- (d) product solution from A(d)

Figure 9. Cyclic voltammograms at in-situ electrodeposited $Bi-Pb0₂$ Conditions: 400 rev min^{-1} , 20 mV s⁻¹, glassy carbon RDE Curves: (a) residue, (b) 10 mM Pb^{2+} and $9.$ mM Bi³⁺, (c) the same as (b), plus 10 mM Mn^2

Figure 10. Chronoamperograms for oxidation of 10 mM Mn^{2+} and DMSO at Bi-PbO₂

Conditions: $E = 1.70$ V, 400 rev min⁻¹ Deposition conditions: $1 \text{ mM } Bi^{3+}$ and 10 mM Pb^{2+} Solutions: (a) 10 mM Mn^{2+}_{2+} , (b) 10 mM Mn_2^{2+} and 40 μ M Bi³⁺, (c) 10 mM Mn^{2+} and 60 μ M Bi³⁺, (d) 10 mM DMSO

Figure 11. EDS of different electrodes.

Conditions: Life time for EDS detection $= 100$ sec

Curves: (A) Au after anodizing in 10 mM Mn^{2+} . (B) PbO₂ after anodizing in 10 mM Mn^{2+} ,

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Figure 13A&B. Effect of anodization pretreatment on the morphology of PbOg

> SEM conditions; 25 keV beam energy, XIOOOO Pretreatment conditions: $E = 1.7$ V for 10 min Pictures: (A) $Pb0₂$ before anodization, (B) pretreated in 1.0 M HClO₄ blank,

Figure 13C&D. Effect of anodization pretreatment on the morphology of PbO

> Conditions: as given in Figure 13A&B Pictures: (C) 10 mM Bi^{3+} solution, (D) 10 mM Mn^{2+} solution

Figure 14. Absorbance vs. time in the flow-through system at λ = 525 nm

π

Conditions: $E = 1.70 V$, at PbO₂₅ coated Pt gauze electrode, 10 mM Mn^2

 Bi^{3+} concentration (µM): (a) 0.3, (b) 0.03, (c) 0.016, (d) 0

B. Electrodepositlon and Characterization of Bismuth-Doped Lead Dioxide

as Chemically Modified Electrode with

Bismuth as the Immobilized Oxygen-Transfer Mediator¹

"In our laboratory at the University of Kansas it was my fond hope to develop electrodes that would not undergo surface oxidation. We never really succeeded, but, Instead, found a very useful modification of carbon-the so-called carbon paste electrode."

> -R. N. Adams, cited from Ref. 1

 1 To be submitted to J. Electrochem. Soc.

Abstract

The kinetics and mechanisms of the nucleation and growth of Bi-doped PbO₂ (Bi-PbO₂) at rotated disc electrodes in 1.0 M HClO₄ were studied by voltammetry and chronoamperometry as a function of the concentration ratio $[Bi^{3+}]/[Pb^{2+}]$, rotational velocity, and electrode material. The formation of Bi-PbO₂ occurs by adsorption and/or inclusion of Bi³⁺ as an impurity at the surface of $Pb0₂$. The nucleation and growth rates of the oxide decrease with increased Bi^{3+} concentration, due to an apparent inhibition effect of Bi at the PbO₂ surface. However, the electrochemical stability of the resultant oxide increases with increased bismuth content. Partial oxidation of Bi^{3+} to Bi(V) occurs during the anodic deposition process.

The Bi-PbO₂ films with their electrocatalytic activities were characterized by electrochemical and spectroscopic methods and concluded to be special cases of the broader category of chemically modified electrodes. Voltammetric waves for the oxidation of Mn^{2+} to MnO_4 ^{*} and $(\text{CH}_3)_2$ SO to $(\text{CH}_3)_2$ SO₂ were obtained at the Bi-PbO₂ electrode, but not at conventional electrodes. A mechanism for the electrocatalysis was proposed with oxygen-transfer mediation, in which PbO₂ serves as a supporting matrix to immobilize the catalytic Bi ions at the electrode surface which function as oxygen-transfer mediators by promoting the localized production of hydroxyl radicals.

Introduction

Anodic applications of metal oxide electrodes and metal oxide filmcovered electrodes are inevitable in aqueous solutions because surface oxides are formed during anodization of all metals including Ft and Au. The fond hope to develop electrodes that would not undergo surface oxidation never really has succeeded (1). However, this effort has resulted in the development of electrochemistry at metal oxide electrodes (2), and the realization that surface metal oxides sometimes can be beneficial and desirable, due to their unique participation in many electrode processes, e.g., electrocatalysis (2,3).

In recent decades, the development of chemically modified electrodes (CME) has been one of the most intensive research fields within electrochemistry (4). This has resulted in useful techniques for electrode modification and new theories to explain mediated electrochemical reactions. Most of the work on CMEs has been related to organic polymers and polyelectrolytes as coating materials. A minor branch of CHE research has been devoted to inorganic coatings. The successful examples are inorganic polymers, e.g., Prussian blue (5), polymeric metal oxides, e.g., the Ni-metal-cyano complex (6) , OsO $_A$ and</sub> RuO₂ incorporated with Ru(CN)₆⁴⁻ (7), other catalyst-incorporated matrices, e**.g.,** zeolite and clay (8), and simple metal oxides, e**.g.**, RuOg and TiO₂ (2-3,9). These inorganic film-coated electrodes generally are more tolerant to high temperature, more resistant to strong acids and bases, and have higher mechanical strength and more stable reactivity than the organic CMEs, all of which lead the inorganic electrodes to be

more successful in both electrochemical reactors and electroanalytical devices.

Recently, catalytic metal oxide electrodes for anodic oxygentransfer (0-t) reactions have been the subject of research in this laboratory (10). A successful model is based on the incorporation of a small amount of Bi(III) into a PbO₂ matrix through electrochemical co-deposition (10b-e). Such Bi-doped Pb0₂ films (Bi-Pb0₂) showed strong reactivity for anodic oxidation of Mn^{2+} , phenol, and 2-thiophene acetic acid in acidic media (10c,d), all of which involve oxygen transfer.

Electrodeposited PbO₂ anodes have been widely used in many commercial and laboratory synthetic processes (11). Efforts have existed, especially in the industrial sector, to improve the behavior of pure PbO₂ anodes by enhancing their dimensional stability and electrochemical reactivity through addition of various other elements to the plating bath by a trial-and-error method (11). Rhees and Halker (12) discovered that Bi-containing PbO₂ anodes have higher current efficiencies than pure PbO₂ for electrosynthesis of chlorate, perchlorate, bromate, iodate, and periodate, all of which are 0-t reactions. There are at least two other patents (13) in which the addition of Bi^{3+} to the plating bath is claimed to produce better anodes for electrosynthesis. However, no further work has been published concerning the mechanism for the selective catalytic effect of incorporated Bi^{3+} on the anodic 0-t reactions. Initial attempts were made in our laboratory to understand how the $Bi-PbO₂$ electrodes work (10d,e) by determining their crystal structure and preferred orientation

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in correlation with O_2 evolution (10d,e), yet the mechanism and the function of bismuth in the electrocatalysis still are not clear. Therefore, for both practical and theoretical purposes, the mechanism of electrocatalysis at $Bi-Pb0₂$ electrodes deserves more intensive investigation.

In the present study, $Bi-Pb0₂$ electrodes are considered to be catalyst-incorporated metal oxide electrodes which are chemically modified specifically to promote faster anodic 0-t reactions. It is believed that the electrocatalytic benefits from surface oxide will be even greater if simple oxides are chemically and purposely modified. In addition, the kinetics and mechanisms for deposition of $Bi-Pb0₂$ also are studied since no research in this respect has been reported before.

Theory of oxygen-transfer mediation

It is well-known that slow electron-transfer (e-t) reactions can be catalyzed by e-t mediators. Most e-t mediators are transition metal ions which are immobilized and can exist in two oxidation states. These mediated electrochemical e-t reactions have been the subject of intensive studies (4). Similar concepts can be applied to 0-transfer (14). Among well-known mediated 0-transfer reactions is the oxidation of a variety of substances by dioxygen. Since $0₂$ is not in an appropriate energetic state, the oxidation is usually slow. Therefore, mediators are important to activate the dioxygen and, thereby, catalyze the reaction. Another typical example of mediated 0-transfer is the epoxide deoxygenation reaction mediated by metal ions in high oxidation state or by complexes in a homogeneous solution, as presented below (14d)

in which XO is the oxygen atom donor or oxygen atom-transfer reagent, e.g., amine N-oxides, iodosoarenes, peracids and hypochlorite; and M is the mediator, e.g., Cr(V), Mn(V), Fe(V), Ru(V), or their complexes. This mechanism, generally called "oxidation-reduction mechanism", also has been used to explain the catalytic effects of metal oxides in many gaseous 0-t processes, e.g., oxidation of carbon monooxide to carbon dioxide and methane to methanol (15,16). The mediated 0-t reactions have great importance in biological systems, too. Typical examples are the 0 t reactions catalyzed by oxygen-transfer enzymes (17).

Electrochemical 0-t reactions also can be mediated, in which the oxygen donor is usually water. Examples are the 1~-mediated oxidation of SO₂ to SO₄²⁻ (18) and Cr³⁺-mediated oxidation of toxic compounds (19). In these cases, the mediator is in the solution contacting the electrode surface. Heterogeneous, mediated 0-transfer occurs with the mediator immobilized at the electrode surface. Some known examples of such mediated 0-t reactions are the oxidation of As(III) and carbohydrates at noble metal electrodes $(3,10a,b)$, and the electrodeposition of PbO₂ (20a), as summarized below

$$
{}^{H_{2}O} \sqrt{\sum_{e + H^{+}}^{H_{1}} \sum_{M[.0H]}^{M[}} \sqrt{\sum_{R}^{RO + H^{+} + e}}
$$
 [2]

in which M is the electrode surface which also serves as the mediator for 0-transfer by generating the hydroxyl radical (.OH).

The strategy to modify $Pb0₂$ electrodes for selective electrocatalysis of 0-t reactions has been described in Chapter I-A. In this chapter, Bi in the Bi-PbO₂ is identified as an O-t mediator that is incorporated into the PbO₂ matrix by co-deposition. A parallel study with Bi^{3+} -adsorbed PbO₂ electrode is presented in Chapters IV-A and B.

Experimental

The apparatus for electrochemical experiments and the chemicals were described earlier (20a).

Scanning electron micrographs (SEM), X-ray energy dispersive spectroscopy (EDS), and elemental mappings were taken with a model JSM-840A (JEOL) electron microscope.

A model AEIS 200B (Kratos) X-ray photoelectron spectrometer (XPS) was used with an A1 X-ray source and a model 1180 (Nicolet) data acquisition system.

Bismuth(III)/lead(II) concentration ratio in the deposition solution is represented by $[Bi^{3+}]/[Pb^{2+}]$, as $[Pb^{2+}]$ - 10 mM.

Results and discussion

Cyclic voltammetric deposition and stripping of $Bi-Pb0₂$ It was observed that the voltammetric response for deposition and stripping of Bi-PbO₂ changed with variation of the Bi³⁺/Pb²⁺ concentration ratio (4c). However, no detailed study was made to explain these changes. Shown in Figure lA are the cyclic voltammograms (first scan) at a freshly polished Au RDE as a function of the $[\text{Bi}^{3+}]/[\text{Pb}^{2+}]$. As the $[\text{Bi}^{3+}]$ was increased at a constant $[{\rm Pb}^{2+}]$, the minimum potential for a noticeable rate of Bi- $Pb0₂$ deposition was shifted to more positive values. Thus, it is concluded that it is more difficult to nucleate the mixed oxide with higher $[Bi^{3+}]$. There are two possible explanations. First, adsorption of Bi^{3+} on the PbO₂ surface (20c,d) might inhibit or block the further deposition of PbO₂. Second, the Bi^{3+} ion in the solution might react with the deposition intermediates, e.g., OH_{ads} and $Pb(OH)_{2}^{2+}$, which slows down the nucleatlon process. The anodic i-E wave in the negative scan also shifted to more positive values with increased $[\text{Bi}^{3+}]/[\text{Pb}^{2+}]$, which means that the rate of further deposition of $Bi-Pb0₂$ on a Au electrode partially covered by Bi-PbO₂ changes with variation of $(Bi^{3+}]/[Pb^{2+}]$.

The cathodic stripping peak of the oxide in Figure lA shifted to less positive values with increased ${\rm [Bi}^{3+}{\rm]}$. It will be proved later that the Bi concentration in the resultant oxide film increases with increased $[Bi³⁺]$ in the deposition solution. Therefore, it is concluded that the electrochemical stability and the voltammetric potential window at the mixed oxide film increases with increased Bi concentration. The following experiment was done to determine whether the increased stability is of a kinetic or thermodynamic nature. For $[Bi^{3+}]/[Pb^{2+}]$ -0.7, the negative potential scan was stopped at 1.15 V, a value between the observed stripping peak potentials for pure PbO₂ and Bi-PbO₂. The Bi-PbO₂ film remained on the Au surface after ca. 30 min, so it is concluded that the increased stability for Bi-PbO₂ is of a thermodynamic rather than kinetic origin. The increased stability of $Bi-Pb0₂$ also was

evidenced by the observation that Bi-PbO₂ dissolved in H_2O_2 solution more slowly than pure PbO₂ did.

Causes for the increased stability of $Bi-Pb0₂$ The increased stability of $Bi-Pb0₂$ can be ascribed partially to the decreased alkalinity of the mixed oxide as compared to the pure $Pb0₂$. The stoichiometry for PbO₂ stripping is as follows

$$
Pb0_2 + 4H^+ + 2e = Pb^{2+} + 2H_2O
$$
 [3]

Since protons are consumed, the stripping peak potential for $Pb0₂$ shifts to less positive values as the solution pH is increased (20a). If the solution pH Is constant and the alkalinity of the oxide, i.e., its reactivity toward H^+ is increased, the stripping peak potential also should be decreased. It is generally agreed that bismuth oxide is less basic than lead oxide (21a). The alkalinity of the mixed oxide should increase with increased Bi concentration, as observed for other mixed oxides (21b). Therefore, $Bi-Pb0₂$ with higher Bi/Pb atomic ratio is reduced at less positive potential.

The change in cathodic stripping peak for the oxide differed for increasing pH and higher Bi concentration. First of all, the ratio of the stripping peak area to the deposition wave area in Figure lA decreased with increased $[\text{Bi}^{3+}]/[\text{Pb}^{2+}]$ as shown in Figure 1B, whereas this ratio was about unity for pure $PbO₂$ and did not change with increasing solution pH (20a). From this result, it is concluded that Bi-PbO₂ is only partially reducible and the reducible portion decreases with increasing Bi concentration. Secondly, the shape of the stripping peak

in Figure 1A changed with increasing Bi/Pb concentration ratio, whereas it did not change with increasing solution pH $(20a)$. At $0 <$ $[Bi^{3+}]/[Pb^{2+}] \leq 0.3$, the stripping i-E curves had two peaks, which indicates that there might exist two phases in the mixed oxide. At $[Bi^{3+}]/[Pb^{2+}] \ge 0.5$, a single, broad stripping peak appeared, which indicates a decreased reversibility of the stripping reaction.

A second explanation for the increased stability of $Bi-PbO₂$ came from the studies in literature on the redox stability of mixed oxides (22). It is generally agreed that the redox stability of one oxide increases with increasing amount of a second and inert oxide being incorporated with (22). As for Bi-PbO₂, Bi₃O₂ can be considered as an inert matrix for $Pb0₂$, which is not stripped electrochemically. Therefore, the electrochemical stability of $Bi-Pb0₂$ increases with Increased Bi concentration.

Constant-potential deposition of $Bi-Pb0₂$ Constant-potential chronoamperometry also was used to study the deposition of Bi-doped PbO₂, as shown in Figure 2. The change of the 1-t curves with electrode material for Bi-PbO₂ deposition is similar to that observed for PbO₂ (20a). The induction time (t^o) increased in the order of electrode substrate material: Pt < Au < GC, which indicates an Interrelationship between oxide deposition and oxygen evolution (20a).

Shown in Figure 3 are the dependencies of t_0 , t_1 , and S (for definitions, see Ref. 20a) on $[\text{Bi}^{3+}]/[\text{Pb}^{2+}]$ at a Au RDE. The values of t_0 and t_1 increased, and S decreased sharply with increased $[Bi^{3+}]/[Pb^{2+}]$, indicating decreased rates of nucleation and growth. This

conclusion is the same as that based on voltammetric data. When Bi^{3+} was added to a Pb^{2+} solution during the process of depositing PbO₂, the deposition was stopped immediately. A long induction period was needed to restart the deposition. The steady-state current $(i_{\alpha\alpha})$ first increased and then decreased with increased $[\text{Bi}^{3+}/[\text{Pb}^{2+}]$ as shown in Figure 4. This is even more obvious at higher rotational velocity (w). This type of relationship indicates the existence of two contradictory contributions of Bi^{3+} to the rate of $Pb0₂$ deposition. The i_{ss} value first increases with increased $[\text{Bi}^{3+}]$ due to partial oxidation of Bi^{3+} . However, when [Bi³⁺] is further increased, the blocking of PbO₂ deposition by adsorbed bismuth ions becomes the dominant factor, so the rate of deposition decreases with further increase in $[Bi^{3+}]$. The i_{gg} value hardly changed with variation of w at high $[Bi^{3+}]/[Pb^{2+}]$ values, which suggests that the deposition shifts from mass-transport control to kinetic control as $[Bi^{3+}]$ is increased.

The following conditions were determined to be optimal for deposition of Bi-PbO₂. Solution: 10 mM Pb²⁺ and 1 mM Bi³⁺ in 1.0 M HClO_{Λ}; potential/time: 1.9 V for 10-20 sec followed by a decrease to 1.8 **V** for ca. 20 min. For increased $[\text{Bi}^{3+}]$, the deposition potential values are increased accordingly.

Morphology and Bi distribution on Bi-PbO₂ It was shown by SEM that the crystalline size of $Bi-Pb0₂$ was greater than that of pure Pb0₂ (10c). More work in this respect was done with a larger variety of Bi/Pb concentration ratios. The results showed that the surface roughness of the electrodeposited mixed oxide was more a function of deposition

conditions than a function of the Bi/Pb concentration ratio. Therefore, changes in morphology following the incorporation of bismuth into Pb0 $_2$ are concluded not to result in enhancement in the electrocatalytic activity.

The Bi/Pb atomic ratio in Bi-PbO₂ was measured semi-quantitatively as a function of $[Bi^{3+}]/[Pb^{2+}]$ by both EDS and XPS, as shown in Figures 5. The Bi/Pb atomic ratios measured by these two techniques are representive of different depth in the mixed oxide because these techniques have largely different depth sensitivity.

The Bi/Pb atomic ratio within a depth of ca. 0.5 m was obtained by EDS (Curve b). As expected, the Bi/Pb atomic ratio in the mixed oxide increased with increased $[\text{Bi}^{3+}]/[\text{Pb}^{2+}]$. At low Bi/Pb concentration ratios, the slope of the plot is close to one, but the curve bends to the ordinate at higher $[\text{Bi}^{3+}]/[\text{Pb}^{2+}]$ values. It is concluded that at high Bi/Pb concentration ratios, the Bi/Pb atomic ratio in the oxide becomes smaller than that in the solution.

The elemental composition of the $Bi-Pb0₂$ at 20 - 200 atomic layer of the oxide surface was determined by XPS as shown by Curve a in Figure 5. Clearly, the Bi/Pb atomic ratio at the surface increased with increased $[Bi³⁺]/[Pb²⁺]$ more linearly than that in the bulk of the oxide as determined by EDS. Therefore, it is concluded that a depth gradient exists in the Bi/Pb atomic ratio in the $Bi-Pb0₂$.

The elemental distribution on the same region of a Bi-PbO₂ sample was imaged by EDS as shown in Figure 6A&B for Bi and Pb, respectively. Fewer spots appeared for Bi than for Pb, which represents the Bi/Pb

atomic ratio In the oxide. It is also concluded from Figure 6B that Bi is distributed evenly across the surface of the Bi-Pb02.

Catalytic activity of $Bi-Pb0₂$ electrodes The catalytic activity of the Bi-PbO₂ electrode has been characterized using chronoamperometry (10c,d). Voltammetrlc studies of this system can yield more information. In Figures 7 and 8 are the voltammetric responses at $Bi-PbO₂$ for oxidation of Mn^{2+} to MnO_4 ["] and dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) to dimethyl sulfone (DMSO₂), respectively. Since MnO₂ from the partial oxidation of Mn $^{2+}$ can foul the Bi-PbO $_{2}$ electrode (20b), the cyclic voltammograms in Figure 8 were for the first few cycles.

Both reactions were too slow to occur at pure PbO₂ and at Pt, Au, and C electrodes. However, both reactions were nearly under masstransport control at the $Bi-Pb0₂$ electrode, as shown by the dependence of the i-E waves on w in Figures 7 and 8. These two reactions are different in many respects. For example, DMSO reactant is organic and Mn^{2+} is inorganic; DMSO is a neutral molecule and Mn^{2+} is a metal cation; DMSO -> DMSO₂ is a 5-electron/4-oxygen transfer and $Mn^{2+} \rightarrow MnO_4$ is a 2electron/1-oxygen transfer; most Important of all, the standard potentials for the two reactions are far apart at 0.0 and 1.45 V vs. SCE, respectively (23). Despite these differences, their values of half-wave potential $(E_{1/2})$ are virtually the same (ca. 1.65 V) at Bi-PbO₂, which is a strong indication of mediated electrocatalysis with a common ratecontrolling step.

The catalytic activity of $Bi-Pb0₂$ is strongly dependent on the Bi/Pb atomic ratio in the oxide. As shown in Figure 9, the i-E curve shifted

to less positive values as Bl/Pb ratio Increased. At Bl/Fb atomic ratio <0,3, the l-E curve had a wave shape which Increased with increased Bl/Fb atomic ratio. The plateau shaped l-E curves were obtained only at Bi/Pb atomic ratios ≥ 0.5 . These results are consistent with that the measured kinetic current at the $Bi-Pb0₂$ increased with increased Bi/Pb atomic ratio under constant-potential conditions (10c).

<u>Partial oxidation of Bi^{3+} to Bi(V)</u> The height of the anodic plateau in Figure lA increased slightly but not as a linear function of $[Bi³⁺]$. Since the plateau is under mass-transport control, it is concluded that the additional current is due to the oxidation of some Bi^{3+} to Bi(V). Thus, the average oxidation state of Bi in the Bi-PbO₂ is somewhere between +3 and +5, which might be a function of depth in the mixed oxide. It is known that Bi^{5+} is unstable in aqueous solution. Direct oxidation of Bi^{3+} was not observed at Pt, Au, GC, PbO₂, or Bi-PbO₂ electrodes (20c,d). However, partial oxidation of Bi^{3+} is possible during in-situ deposition of PbO₂ (20b) as a result of the catalytic effect of $Pb0₂$ deposition intermediates and the stabilizing effect of the PbO₂ matrix on Bi⁵⁺. The stabilizing effect is based on a similar concept derived from studies on selective oxidation of catalysts in which stabilization of metal cations in high oxidation states is essential (15,16,24).

The existence of $Bi(V)$ on the surface of $Bi-Pb0₂$ was proved also by the observation of a very small amount of MnO_A " generated under opencircuit conditions at the surface of $Bi-Pb0₂$ contacting a Mn^{2+} solution. This phenomenon was not observed with pure PbO₂ or Bi³⁺-adsorbed PbO₂.

The only explanation for this chemical reaction is that Mn^{2+} can be oxidized directly by the highly oxidizing Bi(V) at the surface of Bi-Pb0₂. This reaction stopped abruptly, however, probably due to the rapid comsumption of $Bi(V)$. The rate of oxygen evolution at the $Bi-Pb0₂$ was observed to be slightly higher than that at the Bi^{3+} -adsorbed PbO₂, which might be caused by the existence of $Bi(V)$ at the surface of $Bi-Pb0₂$, but not at the Bi^{3+} -adsorbed PbO₂.

Residual voltammetric response at $Bi-Pb0₂$ in aqueous solution Shown in Figure 10 are the residual i-E curves of different electrodes in 1.0 M HClO_{Λ}. It is apparent that the residual current for bare Au, Pt, and smooth PbO₂ (Curve a) is virtually zero. The smooth PbO₂ electrode was deposited following optimized conditions (20a) and had a low surface roughness. The latter is concluded to be responsible for the low residual current. Lead dioxide film electrodes with high surface roughness were prepared by increasing the acidity and lowering the Pb^{2+} concentration in the deposition solution. The resultant PbO₂ films had larger residual currents, as shown by Curve b in Figure 10, which increased linearly with increased scan rate but did not change with increased w. This residual current also changed with variation of the preparation conditions which affect the surface roughness. Similar residual i-E was reported for organic polymer-covered electrodes (25), which were ascribed to charging current that is related to the surface porosity.

A high residual current was observed at $Bi-PbO₂$, as shown by Curve c in Figure 10. The height of the current in both positive and negative

scans Increased linearly with increased scan rate, but did not change with increased w. The current also increased with Increased Bi/Pb atomic ratio in the oxide and the thickness of the film. It is concluded that this large residual current is a capacitive current in nature, due to the increased surface roughness of the Bi-PbO₂ compared to that of pure PbO₂. The latter is related to the decreased rate of oxide deposition in the presence of Bi^{3+} . This conclusion is supported further by a study of the oxides with FTIR with photoacoustic detector. Although no distinguished fine IR structure was observed for pure and Bi-doped PbO₂ except in the 400 - 600 cm^{-1} range, the baseline for Bi-PbO₂ is much higher than that for PbO₂, especially in the high wave number range (1600 - 4000 cm⁻¹). This is explained by the stronger absorbance of $Bi-Pb0₂$ as a result of the higher surface roughness than that of $Pb0₂$. This result is also consistent with that obtained with diffuse reflectance detector.

Deposition of $Bi-Pb0₂$ with low surface roughness, and so low residual current can be achieved with careful selection of the deposition conditions. For instances, a pulsed potential waveform with a high initial potential value and a lower acidity are in phavor of decreasing the roughness.

Residual voltammetric response at $Bi-Pb0₂$ in acetonitrile Cyclic voltammograms at Bi-PbO₂ electrode also were obtained in non-aqueous solution with a much wider potential range than in the aqueous solution. The i-E curves in acetonitrile with 0.1 M tetra-n-butylammonia perchlorate (TBAP) as the supporting electrolyte are shown in Figure 11. Additional current in both positive and negative scans was observed at

the Bi-PbO₂, as compared to that at the pure PbO₂. Two peaks (I and II at 1.15 and 1.5 V, respectively) appeared at the Bi-doped PbO₂ in the negative scan, while there was only one at the PbO₂ (1.15 V). One anodic wave (III) appeared in the negative scan for both electrodes. Both curves increased with increased scan rate, but did not change with increased w. The dependence of the i-E curves at $Bi-Pb0₂$ on scan rate is shown in Figure 12. The cathodic Peak I increased with increased scan rate faster than Peak II. The i-E curves also changed with variation of the range of potential scan, especially the anodic limit. As shown in Figure 13A, another anodic peak in the positive scan appeared at ca. 1.28 V (Peak IV) if the scan was limited to 0,4 - 1.35 V. The height of Peak IV decreased with increased scan number, especially when the anodic potential exceeded 1.35 V. As shown by Curve b in Figure 13A, Peak IV disappeared even in the second scan, and was resumed after the electrode potential had been stopped at a lower potential, e.g., 0.4 V. The height of Peak IV also increased with increased scan rate as shown in Figure 13B. The peak potential of Peak IV shifted to more positive value with increased scan rate. No such current was observed at the pure $Pb0₂$ deposited on the same Au RDE as shown in Figure 13C. Therefore, Peak IV is not related to the surface oxide of gold substrate. It is concluded that Peak I and IV correspond to the conversion of $Bi(V) \rightarrow Bi(III)$ and $Bi(III) \rightarrow Bi(V)$, respectively.

Mechanism of electrocatalysis at $Bi-Pb0₂$ Despite the possible existence of the Bi(III)/Bi(V) redox couple in Bi-PbO₂, it has been shown with Bi^{3+} -adsorbed PbO₂ that the electrocatalysis at the Bi-modified PbO₂

does not occur by redox catalysis or e-t mediation (20c,d). Instead, it occurs via 0-t mediation as shown by Equation 2. In this mechanism, $Pb0₂$ serves as an inert substrate with high $0₂$ -evolution overpotential and the immobilized Bi ions with low $0₂$ -evolution overpotential serve as the 0-t mediator. Here, the assumption has been made that the bismuth sites have stronger affinity for the OH radicals than the lead sites, which are not changed by the oxidation state of the Bi. This assumption is based on a similar one suggested for electrocatalysis of O-t reactions at ad-atommodified metal electrodes (26) and at binary Pt alloys (27). It is also true that only the Bi ions on the surface of $Bi-PbO₂$ can function as catalytic sites. Based on this mechanism, the electrocatalytic activitiy of Bi-PbO₂ is dependent on the surface concentration of Bi ion, i.e., surface density of the catalytic sites. Therefore, the i-E curves observed in Figure 9 are as expected for "partially blocked" or "microarray" electrodes (28).

Oxygen evolution at $Pb0₂$ and Bi-PbO₂ electrodes The generation of OH radicals was proposed within the mechanism of mediated anodic 0 transfer. Since OH radicals are also intermediate products for 0_2 evolution (27), it was expected that incorporation of Bi ions into $PbO₂$ matrix would slightly decrease the $0₂$ overpotential. It was demonstrated (10d) that the rate of O_2 evolution at Bi-PbO₂ was faster than that at pure $Pb0₂$ at the same electrode potential and increased with increased Bi content in the mixed oxide from 0 to 0.5. No explanation was given in (lOd). Here, it is concluded that these results are further evidence in direct support of the 0-t mediation as Equation 2.

An attempt was made to detect the electrogenerated OH radicals at Bi-PbO₂ with a rotating ring-disc electrode (RRDE). It failed, however, probably because the RRDE technique is not sensitive enough to detect the small amount of OH radicals that decompose too fast once they leave the electrode surface by convective-diffusional transport.

Conclusions

Despite the clear evidence for the existence of a small amount of Bi(V) and the possible interconversion between Bi(III) and Bi(V) in the Bi-doped PbO₂, we conclude that the electrocatalytic reactions at the Bidoped PbO₂ do not take place by redox catalysis or e-t mediation, but rather by an 0-t mediation. Both Bi(III) and Bi(V) at the electrode surface can function as the 0-t mediator by promoting the generation of OH radical. Some similarities exist between the 0-t and e-t mediations, e.g., the independence and dependence of $E_{1/2}$ values on the identity of analytes and catalyst concentration, respectively.

The existence of Bi^{3+} in the Pb²⁺ solution decreases the rate of PbO₂ deposition and the existence of Bi in the PbO₂ decreases the rate of Pb0 $_2$ dissolution. Therefore, the Bi ions decrease the overall reversibility of the PbO_2-Pb^{2+} couple. Bismuth(III) ions can be adsorbed onto a PbO₂ surface and incorporated into a PbO₂ matrix as impurities along with the electrocrystallization of PbO₂. Thus, the Bi-doped PbO₂ is neither a binary oxide compound nor a solid solution of two oxides. As a result, the Bi-PbO₂ has the same rutile crystal structure as the pure PbO₂, as studied in (10c). The existence of adsorbed \texttt{Bi}^{3+} at the surface of PbO₂ makes the further crystallization of PbO₂ difficult.

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Figure 1A. Cyclic voltammograms at Au RDE in Bi^{3+} and Pb²⁺ mixture solutions

Conditions: 400 rev min^{-1} , 20 mV s⁻¹, 1.0 M HClO₄, 10 mM $[Bi^{3+}]/[Pb^{2+}]:$ **() 0.1.** () 0.3, $(- - - -) 0.5,$ $(-,-,-)$ 0.7

Figure IB. Plot of stripping/deposition peak area ratio in Figure lA vs. Bi/Pb concentration ratio

Figure 2. Chronoamperograms for $Bi-Pb0₂$ deposition Conditions: $E = 1.70 V$, $\frac{1}{7}$ mM Bi^{3+} , 10 mM Pb^{2+} , 400 rev min^{-1} Electrodes: (a) Pt, (b) Au, and (c) GC

Figure 3. Plots of t_0 , t_1 , and S vs. $[Bi^{3+}]/[Pb^{2+}]$ Conditions: 400 rev min^{-1} , E - 1.70 V Variables: **(O)** t_o/min , **(0)** t_1/min , and **(** Δ **)** S/5 mA/min

Figure 4. Plots of i_{ss} vs. $[Bi^{3+}]/[Pb^{2+}]$ Conditions: $E = 1.70$ V w (rev min^{-1}): (a) 400, (b) 900, (c) 1600, (d) 2500, (e) 3600

Figure 5. Plot of Bi/Pb peak area ratio for Bi-PbO₂ vs. Bi/Pb concentration ratio in the deposition solution

Curves: (\bullet) XPS data, (O) EDS data

Figure 6. Elemental maps for Pb and Bi on $Bi-Pb0₂$ surface Deposition conditions: $[Bi^{3+}]/[Pb^{2+}]$ - 0.1 Pictures: (A) Pb, (B) Bi SEM conditions: 25 keV beam energy, X2000

Figure 7, Voltanunetric response of 10 mM DMSO oxidation at Bi-PbO₂ electrode

> Conditions: 20 mV s⁻¹; 1.0 M HClO₄; electrode deposited from $[Bi^{3+}]/[Pb^{2+}] = 0.5$ solution

w (rev min^{-1}): (a) 400, (b) 900, (c) 1600, and (d) 2500

Figure 8. Voltammetric response of 10 mM Mn^{2+} oxidation at Bi-PbO₂ electrode

Solution: 1.0 M $HClO_4$; (...) blank

Electrode: $(-\frac{1}{2})$ PbO₂/Au; others: Bi-PbO₂ deposited from $[Bi^{3+}]/[Pb^{2+}] - 0.9$ solution;

Other conditions are as given in Figure 7

 w (rev min⁻¹): (a) 400, (b) 900, (c) 1600, and (d) 2500

Inset: plot of i at 1.7 V vs. $w^{1/2}$

Figure 9. Effect of Bi/Pb atomic ratio in the Bi-PbO₂ on the voltammetric response of 10 mM DMSO Conditions: 20 mV s^{-1} , 400 rev min⁻¹; 1.0 M HClO₄ Electrodes: $($ ---) Bi-PbO₂, $($) Au, $($ ----) PbO₂ $[Bi^{3+}]/[Pb^{2+}]$: (a) 0.1, (b) 0.3, (c) 0.5, (d) 0.9 Only positive scan is shown

Figure 10. Cyclic voltammograms at $Bi-Pb0₂$ in 1.0 M HClO₄ Conditions: 40 mV s⁻¹, 400 rev min⁻¹

Electrode: (a) Au, Pt or smooth $Pb0₂$, (b) rough $Pb0₂$, (c) $Bi-Pb0₂$

Figure 11. Cyclic voltammograms in acetonitrile

Conditions: 0.1 M TBAP; 200 mV s⁻¹, 0 rev min⁻¹ Electrodes: (--) Bi-PbO₂, from $[\text{Bi}^{3+}]/[\text{Pb}^{2+}] = 0.1$ solution
(----) pure PbO₂

Figure 12. Effect of scan rate on the i -E curves at Bi-PbO₂ in acetonitrile

Figure 13A. Cyclic voltammograms at Bi-PbO₂ in acetonitrile at different anodic potential limits Conditions: 80 mV s⁻¹, 0 rey min⁻¹; Bi-PbO₂ deposited from $[Bi^{3+}]/[Pb^{2+}] = 0.1$ solution Solid line: first scan; Dashed line: second scan

Positive potential limit (V) : (a) 1.6, (b) 1.4, (c) 1.3, (d) 1.2

Effect of scan rate $(mV s^{-1})$: (a) $5,$ (b) $20,$ (c) 80

 (C) PbO₂

Conditions: as given in Figure 13A.

IV. MODIFICATION OF LEAD DIOXIDE ELECTRODES BY ELECTROADSORPTION

A. Electrocatalytic Oxidation of Dimethyl Sulfoxide at Lead Dioxide Electrode Modified with Bismuth(III) by Electroadsorption¹

> "It is a capital mistake to theorize before one has data. Insensibly one begins to twist facts to suit theories, instead of theories to suit facts."

> > -Sir Arthur Conan Doyle, "A Study in Acarlet"

"It is also a good rule not to put too much confidence in experimental results until they have been confirmed by theory."

-Sir Arthur Eddington

 1 To be submitted to J. Electrochem. Soc.

Abstract

Anodic oxidation of dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) in 1.0 M HClO₄ does not occur at any conventional anode materials, but proceeds readily at PbO₂ electrode with a small amount of Bi^{3+} added to the solution as catalyst. This phenomenon was studied as a model of electrocatalytic oxygen-transfer reactions. Voltammetric and chronoamperometric data were obtained as a function of rotational velocity, DMSO and Bi^{3+} concentrations, potential scan rate, electrode potential, solution pH, properties of the $PbO₂$ film (structure, thickness, and porosity) and the substrate material. A well-defined i-E plateau was observed even for a $DMSO/Bi³⁺$ concentration ratio - 750. The height of this plateau increased linearly with increased DHSO concentration and the square root of rotational velocity. It is concluded that this catalytic reaction resulted from the surface modification of the PbO₂ electrode by electroadsorption of Bi^{3+} . The Bi^{3+} -adsorbed PbO₂ electrode showed better catalytic activity than the Bi-doped PbO₂ electrode prepared by CO-deposition. The initial rate of DMSO oxidation at a constant applied potential was proportional to the surface coverage by adsorbed Bi^{3+} for low fractional coverages. However, the oxidation rate decreased for high coverages, i.e., $[\text{Bi}^{3+}] > 0.01$ mM. These results are consistent with the mechanism of electrocatalytic 0-transfer in which the surface-immobilized ${\tt Bi}^{3+}$ functions as a spatially separated O-transfer mediator. The oxidation product of DMSO was identified with GC/MS as dimethyl sulfone $(DMSO₂)$.

Introduction

Incorporation of ionic catalysts into metal oxide matrices has been the subject of intensive research in our laboratory in recent years (1,2), The goal is to selectively promote the rate of anodic oxygentransfer (0-t) reactions by immobilization of 0-t mediators (2a) onto an inert support, e.g., PbO_2 . A successful early example was the incorporation (doping) of Bi^{3+} into PbO₂ by electrochemical codeposition, which has resulted in a fundamental study of the electrochemistry and applications of Bi-doped PbO₂ (Bi-PbO₂) electrodes.

One of the most interesting discoveries is that a pure $PbO₂$ electrode can have catalytic activity for 0-transfer, similar to that observed for Bi-PbO₂, if a small amount of Bi³⁺ is added to the solution containing the reactant (2b). Such a $Pb0₂$ electrode modified in-situ with Bi^{3+} has higher stability than the $Bi-PbO₂$ for oxidation of Mn^{2+} to MnO_A^{\dagger} , by preventing the fouling of the oxide through continuous renewal of the surface catalytic sites. Â more detailed study is described in the present report on the kinetics and mechanisms of electrocatalysis at a pure PbO₂ film electrode with Bi^{3+} co-existing in the solution.

The oxidation of DMSO was chosen as a model reaction in the present study, because of the assumption that the reaction stoichiometry is relatively simple (1 oxygen and 2 electron) and the product $DMSO₂$ does not deactivate the electrode surface.

 $(CH_3)_2$ SO + H₂O \longrightarrow $(CH_3)_2$ SO₂ + 2H⁺ + 2e

It is generally agreed that DMSO is anodically inert on most electrodes

due to a very high value of overpotential, despite the low value for the standard potential (0.0 V vs SCE) (3), Hence, the electrochemical oxidation of DMSO has not been studied in detail because of a lack of catalytic electrodes. There are a few papers in which electrochemical oxidation of pre-adsorbed DMSO on Pt were described (4), aiming at the possible effects of DMSO adsorption on other anodic processes when DMSO is used as a solvent. Since only adsorbed DMSO can be oxidized, the extent of oxidation is very limited. In contrary, the chemical oxidation of DMSO proceeds easily with a variety of oxidants (5-8), whose kinetics and mechanisms are summarized in the next section. Therefore, it is very desirable if a catalytic electrode can be found at which the oxidation of DMSO can proceed readily.

Kinetics and mechanism of chemical oxidation of DMSO

The oxidation of DMSO has been studied as a typical radical reaction with 0-transfer and as a model for oxidation of simple organic sulfur compounds (5-8). The mechanisms of DMSO oxidation are dependent on solution pH. In acidic media, the mechanisms also depend on the oxidant used: e.g., peroxyanions (5), halide and halide ions (6), and metal cations (7). In alkaline media, the mechanism seems independent of the oxidants (8). The four basic mechanisms are presented below.

In acidic media

Scheme 1 The direct oxygen-transfer from a peroxyanion (5).

0 slow 0 $(CH_3)_2S + ^\circ OOR \longrightarrow [(CH_3)_2S...0-0-R] \longrightarrow (CH_3)_2SO_2 + ^\circ OR$

in which $R = alkyl$, acyl, H_2SO_3 , H_3PO_4 , etc.

This reaction uses the high oxidizing power of various organic and inorganic peroxyanions. In most cases, the reaction is first order in DMSO and ROO".

Scheme 2 The nucleophilic attack of the S-atom followed by oxygen and proton transfer from H_2O (6).

$$
(CH_3)_2S + B = (CH_3)_2S...B \xrightarrow[slow]{O} (CH_3)_2S=OH \xrightarrow[slow]{O} (CH_3)_2SO_2 + BH
$$

in which $B = Br_2$, Br^{\dagger} , OBr^{\dagger} , Cl^{\dagger} , N-bromophthalimide, N-

bromobenzenesulfonamide, etc. In this case, the reaction is first order in both DMSO and B, but zeroth order in DMSO if B is a large molecule. The dissociation of the complex is the rate-determining step and it must occur before the attack of the S-atom by water. The $(\text{CH}_3)_2\text{S}(0)^+$ radical was detected by electron spin resonance spectroscopy (5a).

Scheme 3 Direct oxidation by metal cations followed by oxygen transfer from $H₂O$ (7).

$$
(CH_3)_2S=0 + M^h \longrightarrow (CH_3)_2S=0 + M^1 \xrightarrow{+ H_2O} (CH_3)_2SO_2 + 2H^+
$$

in which $M = Mn^{3+}$, Ce⁴⁺, Cr⁵⁺ and Pb⁴⁺. The superscripts (h and 1) specify the high and low oxidation state of the metal ions. For this mechanism, the reaction is first order in DMSO and M^h .

In alkaline media

Scheme 4 Catalytic oxidation (8).

In alkaline solutions, the direct oxidation of DMSO is slow and a catalyst must be used.

$$
(CH3)2S + cat-Mh \rightarrow (CH3)2S...cat-Mh \xrightarrow{+ H20 (CH3)2SO2 + cat-M
$$

+ oxidant (slow)

Typical oxidants are O_2 , BrO³⁻, IO³⁻, IO⁴⁻, H₂O₂, and S₂O₈²⁻. Typical catalysts (cat-M) are Ru(III), Os(VIII), $W0₄²$, Ag(I), and Cu(I). It can be seen in this mechanism that the oxidant is not used to oxidize DMSO directly, but to oxidize the catalyst M^1 . Therefore, the reaction is first order in the oxidant and catalyst, but zeroth order in DMSO.

Experimental

Experimental apparatus and chemicals have been described earlier (2), except otherwise stated below.

The PbO₂ films were deposited on a Au rotated disc electrode (RDE) following the optimal conditions described in (2c). Lead(II) and bismuth(III) solutions were prepared from their nitrate salts. A microsyringe was used to add Bi^{3+} stock solution to the electrolysis solution of constant volume to vary the Bi^{3+} concentration. A model 400 GC/MS system (Finnlgan) was used with a 13-m DBl capillary column $(thickness: 1 µm).$

A model SHS-200 flow-injection analysis system (Flatron, Milwaukee, WI) was used with a 25-µl sample injector. The flow rate was 3 ml min⁻¹.

Results and discussion

Cyclic voltammetry In Figure 1A are the cyclic voltammograms of 10 mM DMSO at bare and PbO₂-coated Au RDEs with and without Bi^{3+} coexisting in the solution. It is apparent that no DMSO oxidation occurs at Au whether or not Bi^{3+} is present. There is no reactivity also at bare Pt and glassy carbon (GC) (data not presented). The anodic current at PbO₂ was slightly higher than that at Au, indicating a very modest oxidation of DMSO at pure PbO₂ due to the native catalytic effect of pure Pb0₂ (1). Following the addition of 80 μ M Bi³⁺, a well-defined anodic plateau appeared. The height of this plateau (i_1) increased linearly with increased square root of rotational velocity $(w^{1/2})$, as shown in Figure 1B, and with increased DMSO concentration (C_{NMSO}) , as shown in Figures 2A,B. These results indicate that this current plateau is under the control of mass transport of DMSO.

As is shown in Figures 1B and 2B, the experimental i_1 values are very close to those calculated from Levich equation using number of electron transfer (n) = 2 eq mol⁻¹, diffusion coefficient for DMSO (D) = $1.0x10^{-5}$ cm² s⁻¹, and kinetic viscosity (v) - $1.0x10^{-2}$ cm² s⁻¹. A small difference exists between the theoretical and experimental values, probably due to error in the estimated values of D and v. In effect, the experimental curves in Figures 1 and 2 can be used to determine D and v, provided one of them can be measured by another independent method.

An increase in Bi $^{3+}$ concentration (C_{Ri}) up to 0.2 mM did not increase \mathbf{i}_1 at the positive scan, as shown by the unfolded voltammograms in Figure 3. This is concluded to indicate that the co-existing Bi^{3+}

does not undergo oxidation at the electrode but rather functions only as a catalyst. However, each time when Bi^{3+} was added to the DMSO solution, the i-E curve became distorted irregularly to anodic direction, even in the 1.3 - 1.55 V region where no oxidation current for DMSO was observed. This irregular current disappeared within the time scale of one full potential scan (ca. 2 min). Similar phenomena were observed also with chronoamperometry. This irregular current is a strong evidence for the interaction of Bi^{3+} ions with the surface of PbO₂.

Voltammetry at a $Pb0_2-Pb0_2$ rotated ring-disc electrode (RRDE) also was used to study the catalytic oxidation of DMSO. This electrode was prepared by depositing $Pb0₂$ onto the ring and disc of a Au-Au RRDE. The ring current (i_r) for DMSO oxidation at constant ring potential ($E_r = 1.7$ V) was monitored as a function of the disc potential (E_d) which was cycled between 0.9 and 1.7 V. The i^E_d voltammograms are shown in Figure 4. At $E_r = 1.7 V$, an anodic ring current was observed for oxidation of DMSO in the presence of Bi^{3+} . When E_d was scanned, a shielding effect was observed in i_r at $E_d > 1.5 V$, where anodic oxidation of DMSO occurs at the disc. The shielding effect was greater at higher w values.

Effects of \underline{Bi}^{3+} concentration and scan rate In Figures 1 and 2, the i-E curves for the positive and negative scans do not match. Hence, there can be two values of half-wave potential $(E_{1/2})$ for the current plateau, namely, one for positive scan $(E_{1/2, p})$ and one for negative scan $(E_{1/2,n})$. Unfolded voltammograms were used to separate the i-E curves for the positive and negative scans in order to clearly show their

differences. The relative values of $E_{1/2, p}$ and $E_{1/2, n}$ depended on C_{Bi} , as is shown in Figure 3. While $E_{1/2, p}$ was changed only slightly by increased C_{Bi} , $E_{1/2, n}$ was increased greatly. For instances, at C_{Bi} = 83 μ M in Figure 1A, $E_{1/2,n}$ was slightly smaller than $E_{1/2,p}$. However, at C_{B1} - 110 µM in Figure 2B, $E_{1/2,n}$ was greater than $E_{1/2,p}$. As shown by Figure 3, at certain C_{Bi} value (10 - 20 μ M), $E_{1/2,n}$ equaled $E_{1/2,p}$. At C_{R_i} > 30 µM, the i-E curve in the negative scan no longer had a plateau shape. Instead, the current dropped rapidly once it reached the plateau value and gave a peak-shaped i-E curve. At even higher $C_{\text{B}i}$ (> 0.5 mM), the current plateau in the forward scan also became a current peak. Also seen from this figure is the achievement of catalytic effect at a Bi/DMSO concentration ratio as small as 1/1000. The relationship between the i-E curves and the rotational velocity also was changed by C_{Bi}. As shown in Figures 5A, B, the current increased not linearly with increased $w^{1/2}$ at $C_{\text{B}i}$ = 150 µM, in contrary to the linear relation in Figure 1. It was noticed in the same figure that the $E_{1/2, p}$ shifted to more positive values with increased w at high $C_{R_i^+}$ value.

The effects of scan rate (0) on the i-E curves are depicted in Figure 6. As Ø was decreased, $E_{1/2, f}$ shifted to less positive values, $E_{1/2,n}$ to more positive values, and the slope of the current plateau increased. At 5 mV s^{-1} , a very steep i-E plateau was observed for the positive scan, but the current dropped rapidly upon scan reversal. The height of the current plateau for the positive scan was not changed by a change in Ø within 100 mV s^{-1} , especially for low C_{Rj} values.

The voltammograms for DMSO oxidation were very reproducible. When a

well-defined i-E plateau was obtained, continuous cycling of more than 50 times yielded less than 2% change in i_1 . This result means that the preceding potential cycle does not affect the succeeding 1-E curve. However, at high C_{R_i} values, the i-E curve tended to drop with cycle number, especially for the negative scan. The current as shown in Figure 6 did not remain constant when the potential scan was stopped in the range of 1.65 - 1.85 V. Rather, it dropped to zero at a rate depending on experimental conditions, especially on C_{R_i} . The current drop was slower for lower C_{R_i} . When a very low value of C_{R_i} was used (e.g., < 10 μ M), the current remained constant even if the potential scan was stopped.

Chronoamperometry and mechanism of electrocatalysis From the voltammetric data, it is difficult to argue whether the bismuth ion functions as a catalyst in the bulk solution, in the diffusion layer, or in a chemically-bonded form at the electrode surface. This question can be answered with chronoamperometry at a constant anodic potential (E) as the reaction rate (1) Is monitored with time (t).

The i-t response is shown in Figures 7, 8, 9, and 10, as a function of C_{DMSO} , w, C_{Bi} , and E, respectively. Newly prepared PbO₂ films were used to obtain each curve to avoid any influence from the preceding experiment. It is noticeable Immediately that an initial time period elapses before the current grows to a limiting value. This initial period was not observed for pre-deposited Bi-PbO₂ electrodes where Bi(III) is already on the surface of the electrode $(ld-f,2b)$. Thus, it is concluded that $Bi³⁺$ in the solution first must be adsorbed onto $Pb0₂$ surface to function as catalyst. This conclusion is consistent with the i-t behavior observed.

Presumably, the coverage by adsorbed Bi^{3+} on PbO₂ surface should increase with time until an equilibrium value is reached. Hence, the current for catalytic oxidation of DMSO at the Bi^{3+} -adsorbed PbO₂ (Bi³⁺/PbO₂) also should increase with time, assuming that the catalytic efficiency of the $Bi^{3+}/Pb0$ ₂ electrode increases with increasing Bi^{3+} coverage. The i-t curves in Figures 7-10 actually represent the adsorption isotherm curves for Bi^{3+} on PbO₂. The transition time (τ), as defined graphically in Figure 7, should be inversely proportional to the rate of Bi^{3+} adsorption on PbO₂. It is thus expected that the τ values would decrease with increasing C_{B_i} and E, but remain independent of C_{DMSO} . The τ value also should be independent of w at low C_{B_i} values, but increase with increased w at high C_{R_i} values. These are exactly the results obtained, as demonstrated in Figures 7-10.

Effect of \underline{Bi}^{3+} surface coverage The surface coverage by adsorbed Bi^{3+} on PbO₂ changes with the bulk concentration of Bi^{3+} , which plays an important role in the electrocatalysis at the modified $Pb0₂$. Thus, the change of i-t (Figure 9) and i-E (Figure 3) curves with C_{Bi} is further discussed below.

When C_{Bj} was < 2 μ M, the current in Figure 9 increased very slowly. At C_{Bi} = 4 - 8 µM, the current reached a limiting value quickly and remained constant. These results are consistent with the kinetic analysis at partially covered electrodes (9). However, if C_{Bi} was > 10 HM, the current reached a peak value and then dropped quickly. It is concluded that an optimal range of Bi^{3+} coverage exists for the $Bi^{3+}/Pb0₂$ electrode to obtain maximum catalytic activity. The same conclusion also

was drawn from the voltammetric data.

The optimal C_{B_1} range was independent of C_{DMSO} and w, but was different for constant-potential and potential-scan experiments. As seen in Figure 9, the maximum current for the i-t curves remained at a steadystate value for C_{B_i} values lower than needed to obtain reproducible i-E curves. For instance, whereas reproducible i-E curves were obtained at C_{Ri} = 83 µM in Figure 1, no steady-state current could be obtained at constant potential for C_{B_i} as low as 16 μ M. This result is concluded to be because the accumulation of adsorbed Bi^{3+} at Pb0₂ surface is different under constant-potential and potential-scanning conditions. For voltammetric experiments, desorption of adsorbed Bi^{3+} might occur when the potential is scanned to less positive values in the negative scan. Readsorption takes place in the next positive scan. Thus, Bi^{3+} ions are not accumulated continuously over time, so reproducible i-E curves are obtained. The occurrence of potential dependent adsorption and desorption of Bi^{3+} will be proved in the next section. Under constantpotential conditions, no desorption occurs at $E > 1.55$ V. Hence, the adsorbed Bi^{3+} accumulates continuously with time, which quickly leads to a high value of coverage and, as a result, a decrease in the catalytic current even at relatively low values of C_{B_1} .

The changes observed in i-E curves with variation of $C_{R,i}$ and \emptyset , as shown in Figures 3 and 6, respectively, also are a reflection of the change of Bi^{3+} surface coverage. The coverage by adsorbed Bi^{3+} is different at potential values along with the scan, which is further a function of C_{Bi} and 0, so the shape as well as $E_{1/2}$ values for the i-E

curves change with C_{R_i} and \emptyset .

As shown in Figure 7, the steady-state current did not increase linearly with increased $w^{1/2}$, which was especially true at high $c_{B\dot{1}}$ values. The dependence of the steady-state current on variation of w was studied also by variation of w at the plateau region of the i-t curves. The resultant $i-w^{1/2}$ relation was non-linear, too. A linear relationship between the current and $w^{1/2}$ was observed only within a limited range of C_{Rj} values (4 - 8 μ M) which is the same as the range to obtain steadystate currents as shown in Figure 9. Similar results were obtained in voltammetric experiments. It is concluded that the catalytic oxidation of DMSO is under mass-transport control only for an optimal surface coverage by adsorbed Bi^{3+} .

Electrocatalysis at PbO₂ pretreated with Bi³⁺ and effect of electrode potential The results described above were obtained in such a manner that the adsorption of Bi^{3+} on PbO₂ surface and the resultant catalytic oxidation of DMSO were simultaneous processes. In this section, experiments are described in which these two processes were separated.

An anodic current for 10 mM DMSO without co-existing Bi^{3+} was observed at a PbO₂-film electrode which was previously immersed in a 10 mM Bi³⁺ solution for 10 min followed by rinsing with distilled water and air drying (see Figure 11a). This observation directly proves the adsorption of Bi^{3+} on PbO₂ at open-circuit conditions. It is concluded that some of the adsorbed Bi^{3+} remain at the Pb0₂ surface throughout the rinsing and drying processes. However, it is expected that Bi^{3+} adsorbed on PbO₂ in this manner has only limited stability. Thus, the activity of

this $Bi^{3+}/Pb0₂$ electrode is low and does not persist very long, especially at rotated electrodes, as is shown by the decrease of current with cycle number.

Adsorption of Bi $^{3+}$ onto PbO $_2$ is much more effective under potentiostatic conditions. A voltammogram of 10 mM DHSO is shown in Figure llb for a PbO₂ electrode pre-anodized in a 10 mM Bi^{3+} solution at $E = 1.7$ V. An anodic wave for DMSO oxidation was observed, although it was not as well-defined a plateau as those in Figure 1 obtained with the co-existing Bi^{3+} . The i-E curve in Figure llb was much more reproducible than that in Figure 11a and did not change with repetitive potential cycles over the period of two hours. The activity of $Bi^{3+}/Pb0₂$ electrodes also was tested by constant-potential chronoamperometry and the results are shown in Figure 11c. The anodic current for 10 mM DMSG reached a maximum value immediately following the application of electrode potential, which is different from the response shown in Figures 7 - 10 with the presence of Bi^{3+} . This further reveals the existence of stable, adsorbed Bi^{3+} on the PbO₂ after anodic pretreatment in the Bi^{3+} solution.

The coverage by pre-adsorbed Bi^{3+} at PbO₂ is expected to be a function of adsorption potential (E_{ads}) and time for the adsorption (t_{ads}) . The current plateau for Figure llb increased with increased E_{ads} and t_{ads} . No catalytic current was observed for $E_{ads} < 1.4$ V. After a $Bi^{3+}/Pb0_2$ electrode was potentiostated at 1.3 V in 1.0 M HClO₄, the reactivity was partially lost, due to desorption of adsorbed Bi^{3+} at the low potential values.

If the limiting current as shown in Figure lib or c is plotted against E_{ads} , an i- E_{ads} wave similar to those in Figure 1 is expected. From this one might speculate that the $E_{1/2}$ value observed in Figures 1 and 2 is related to a critical value of electrode potential for Bi^{3+} adsorption. This is, however, shown not to be true since the same $E_{1/2}$ value was observed at electrodes where Bi^{3+} is present only at the electrode surface and not in the solution.

Flow-injection analysis The effect of co-existing Bi^{3+} on the catalytic activity of $Pb0₂$ also can be studied continuously and rapidly with a flow-injection system. The oxidation of DMSO at $Bi^{3+}/Pb0₂$ is shown by the amperometric detection peaks in Figure 12, in comparison with that at pure PbO₂ and Bi-PbO₂. The amperometric response was very small at Au (Curve a), and modest at pure PbO₂ without co-existing Bi^{3+} (Curve c). However, the response was much increased at the $Bi-Pb0₂$ (Curve e) and at pure PbO₂ with Bi³⁺ present in the sample solution (Curve d). The co-existing Bi^{3+} cannot be oxidized (Curve b), so Curve d represents the net oxidation current for DMSO. The increase of peak height in Curve d with the first three injections is similar to the increase of current with time in Figure 7, indicating the increase of Bi^{3+} coverage on PbO₂. The existence of Bi ions at the surface of PbO₂ after injections of the Bi^{3+} solution was demonstrated by Curve f for which no Bi^{3+} was present in the sample solution. The adsorbed Bi ions remained at the PbO₂ surface in a flow stream for a long time. The peak heights for Curve d and f are higher than those for Curve e, due to a higher Bi concentration at the surface of Bi^{3+} /PbO₂ than that of Bi-PbO₂.

The difference in peak height between Curve d and f is also due to the difference in Bi surface concentration. The maximum peak height in Figure 12d increased with DMSO concentration (10 - 50 mM) while $B1^{3+}$ concentration was kept constant, but did not change with flow rate in the range 1.5-3 ml/min.

Surface analysis of $Bi^{3+}/Pb0₂$ electrode and comparison with that
of $Bi^{-}Pb0₂$ The existence of Bi at a $Pb0₂$ electrode pretreated in $\frac{1}{2}$ The existence of Bi at a PbO₂ electrode pretreated in a $\overline{B1}^{3+}$ solution was demonstrated directly by X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS), as is shown in Figure 13. The Bi/Pb atomic ratio at the surface of $Bi^{3+}/Pb0₂$, as measured by the peak area ratio (0.25), is much higher than that at Bi-PbO₂ prepared from a $[\text{Bi}^{3+}]/[\text{Pb}^{2+}] = 0.1$ solution (0.13) (2a). Since the $Bi^{3+}/Pb0₂$ electrode in Figure 13 was obtained in a solution with high C_{R1} during a long t_{ads} , the PbO₂ surface probably was saturated with Bi^{3+} . It is speculated that the Bi/Pb peak area ratio in Figure 13 could increase with an increase of initial t_{ads} at low C_{R_i} value.

The same $E_{1/2}$ value was obtained for DMSO oxidation at these two electrodes with the optimal Bi/Pb atomic ratio (for the results at Bi-Pb0₂, see Ref. 2a). However, a high value of Bi^{3+} concentration comparable to that of Pb^{2+} was required to obtain a Bi-PbO₂ with optimal Bi/Pb atomic ratio, while a very small value of C_{B1} was needed for Bi^{3+}/Pbo_2 . This is because it is difficult to increase the Bi concentration on the surface of the Bi-PbO₂ simply by increasing the Bi³⁺ concentration in the plating bath, since most of the Bi ions are embedded into the PbO₂ matrix during the deposition of Bi-PbO₂, which cannot

function as catalyst. Besides, the bulk properties of the $Bi-Pb0₂$ are changed with increased Bi/Pb ratio, e.g., electronic structure, conductivity, adhesion, and mechanical strength. In contrast, all adsorbed Bi^{3+} ions stay at the surface of $Bi^{3+}/Pb0$ ₂ where the bulk Pb0₂ film remains chemically and physically unchanged.

One unanswered question regarding the mechanisms of electrocatalysis at the Bi-modified PbO₂ electrodes (2c) is whether a change in the oxidation state of bismuth is required to enable the catalysis. As discussed earlier, Bi^{3+} is not oxidized at Au, Pt, GC, or PbO₂. Thus, it is concluded that the oxidation state of Bi adsorbed on $PbO₂$ remains as +3 that is not necessarily changed during the catalytic process.

Effects of substrate and $Pb0₂$ property The i-E curves for DMSO oxidation were shifted to more positive potential values when the substrate was changed from Au to GC. This shift corresponds to a higher value of O_2 evolution overpotential at GC than at Au. There might be a difference in 0_2 overpotential values between PbO₂/Au and PbO₂/GC electrodes, because of the small thickness of the PbO₂ films. Therefore, the observed i-E curve shift as the substrate was changed is concluded to be caused by a higher value of $0₂$ evolution at the Pb0₂/GC than that at PbO₂/Au. This conclusion is consistent with the relationship between 0_2 evolution and oxygen-transfer reaction and the general mechanism for electrocatalytic oxygen-transfer.

With the same Au substrate used, the properties of PbO₂ film can be changed by varying the deposition conditions (2a,c). For instance, while α -PbO₂ is obtained in acidic solution, β -PbO₂ is obtained from alkaline

solution of Pb²⁺. Identical i-E curves were obtained at α - and B-PbO₂ film electrodes of different thickness and porosity, which further proves the independence of the electrocatalysis on the bulk structure of the PbO₂ film. Even ultra-thin PbO₂ films (<0.5 μ m) show the same activity as the thick $Pb0₂$ films (ca. 0.1 mm) (2d).

Mechanisms of Bi $^{3+}$ adsorption on PbO $_{2}$ Adsorption on metal oxides is a well-known phenomenon used in many practial processes, e.g., ion chromatography, catalysis, and waste treatment (10,11). Most of the adsorptions occur by ion exchange through the surface hydroxide species at the oxides which have been demonstrated by infrared spectroscopy (11). With the amphoteric property of the surface hydroxide, both cation and anion can be adsorbed onto metal oxides depending on the isoelectric point of the metal oxide and the solution pH. The most widely used examples of such metal oxides are Al_3O_2 , SiO_2 , and SnO_2 .

Although mechanism other than ion exchange is also possible for Bi^{3+} adsorption on PbO₂, e.g., physical adsorption as counter ions, the high stability of the adsorbed Bi^{3+} on PbO₂ strongly indicates the involvement of specific interaction between Bi^{3+} and the PbO₂ surface. An ion exchange capability is speculated to exist for $PbO₂$ based on its similarity to SnO₂ and SiO₂. An ion-exchange mechanism is, therefore, proposed for Bi^{3+} adsorption on Pbo_2 , as illustrated schematically in the following.

-0-Pb-0-Pb-0-Pb-0-
\n
$$
\begin{array}{ccccccc}\n1 & 1 & 1 & + & 2 & Bi^{3+} & - & 0 & -Pb-0-Pb-0-Pb-0- & + & 3 & H^{+} \\
0H & 0H & 0H & & & & & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
& & & & & & & \ddots & & \vdots \\
& & & & & & & Bi^{2+} & & Bi^{2+}\n\end{array}
$$

Similar mechanism should hold also for adsorption on $PbO₂$ of other species, e.g., $As(V)$, $Ag⁺$, and Cl⁻, which will be discussed in the following paper. Based on the occurrence of desorption of adsorbed Bi^{3+} , the adsorption is concluded to be quasi-reversible.

Untreated and Bi $^{3+}$ -adsorbed PbO₂ samples were studied by FTIR with both photoacoustic and diffuse reflectance detectors to determine the surface structure changes of the PbO₂ following the adsorption of Bi^{3+} . However, the results showed no difference in the IR spectra.

Oxygen evolution at $Bi^{3+}/Pb0_2$ electrode The Bi sites at the surface of $Bi^{3+}/Pb0₂$ can act as 0-transfer mediator by promoting the localized discharge of water to yield OH radicals (see Chapter I-A). One side effect of this reaction is expected to be the slight decrease in 0_2 evolution overpotential at high Bi coverage, because OH is also an intermediate product of $0₂$ evolution (2c). This was proved by the voltammograms in Figure 14, which were obtained in a blank solution of 1.0 M HClO₄ as a function of C_{Bi}. A high scan rate and a very sensitive current scale were used to exaggerate the appearance of small changes in the background current. It is apparent that the i-E peaks for both positive and negative scans increase for higher C_{Rj} . In comparison, the background current at a bare Au electrode under the same conditions did not change with addition of Bi^{3+} . Therefore, the additional current is

concluded to indicate an increased rate of $0₂$ evolution as a direct consequence of adsorbed Bi^{3+} at high coverages. This additional current is responsible also for the slight increase of the current with increased scan rate, as shown in Figure 6.

The increase in $0₂$ evolution current is, nevertheless, very small, especially at low C_{Rj} values. This is because the Bi sites at the surface of $Bi^{3+}/Pb0$ are spatially separated from each other. The second step for $0₂$ evolution has been speculated as requiring the joining of two neighboring hydroxyl species (12), which is difficult to achieve at the $Bi^{3+}/Pb0₂$ for low Bi coverage.

An unsuccessful attempt was made to detect the enhanced generation of OH radicals at the disc electrode of a PbO₂ disc-Au ring electrode in the presence of Bi^{3+} . However, it was found that the presence of Bi^{3+} in the solution increased the reduction of dissolved oxygen at Au electrode, which is a cathodic 0-t reaction catalyzed by the underpotential deposition of atomic Bi on Au.

Effect of pH and foreign substances The $E_{1/2}$ values for DMSO shifted to more negative values with an increase in solution pH, at ca. -60 mV/pH for pH 1 - 4. This is concluded to be due to the inclusion of two protons in the electrocatalytic reaction. No catalytic activity for co-existing Bi^{3+} was observed at pH > 11 , probably due to the hydrolysis of Bi^{3+} .

Also studied were the effects of co-existing dioxygen and many anions on the catalytic oxidation of DMSO. There was no effect from the presence of 0_2 , NO_3 ", ClO_4 " and HSO_4 ". Since Pb²⁺, Pb⁴⁺ and Bi³⁺ ions

can be chelated by EDTA, the effect of co-existing EDTA also was studied in a variety of pH (0 - 7), EDTA concentration, and the way in which EDTA was added (before the first scan or after several cycles, as the PbO₂ was free of Bi^{3+} and had adsorbed Bi^{3+} , respectively). The results show no effect.

Voltammograms were obtained in DHSO solution of a small amount of $B1^{3+}$ as a function of the concentration of added $\rm H_2O$. An anodic wave was obtained for oxidation of DMSO with H_2O as the limiting reagent, which might be used to detect water in DHSO. Further research in this aspect is still awaited.

Identification of DMSO oxidation product and reversibility of the catalytic oxidation A PbO₂-film deposited on a large-area Pt screen electrode was used for exhaustive electrolysis of 0.1 M DMSO. The number of electron transfer was estimated with coulometry as 2. The resultant product solution was extracted with ether and the organic phase was analyzed by a gas chromotograph system with mass spectrometric detector (GC/MS). The resulting GC trace and mass spectrum are shown in Figures 15A and 15B, respectively. Based on the simple product peak and a libary search on the peak, it is apparent that $DMSO₂$ is the only product.

The cyclic voltammetry of DMSO was studied at 0 rev min⁻¹ to determine whether there was a cathodic wave on the reverse scan. No cathodic peak was observed, as is shown in Figure 16. Therefore, the electrocatalytic oxidation of DMSO is concluded to be irreversible. The adsorbed Bi^{3+} ion only catalyzes the anodic process of O-transfer but not the reverse cathodic process. This result is consistent with the result

obtained at $Bi-Pb0₂$ electrode (1d).

The decrease of current with cycle number in Figure 16 is due to the depletion of DMSO in the diffusion layer and the loss of adsorbed Bi^{3+} , since supply of DMSO and Bi^{3+} is much slower at 0 rev min⁻¹ than that at 400 or higher rev min^{-1} .

Intermediate product for anodic oxidation of DMSO The adsorption of Bi^{3+} is highly possible at other oxide electrodes, e.g., MnO_2 , and surface oxide-covered Au and Pt. However, no current for oxidation of DMSO was observed at these electrodes in the presence of Bi^{3+} . Therefore, the lead sites at the surface of Bi-modified PbO₂ might play a unique role in the electrocatalysis.

From the literature review on chemical oxidation of DMSO, it can be seen that all the schemes of mechanism involve intermediate products in which the sulfur atom is activated. The same is believed to be true for electrode oxidation of DMSO. For Scheme 2-4, the formation of intermediates are followed by 0-transfer from H_2O to DMSO that is the same as the anodic oxidation of DMSO. Thus, an intermediate product similar to that in Schemes 2 and 4 is proposed for electrocatalytic oxidation of DMSO. This Intermediate is formed rapidly by an interaction between the S atom in DMSO and the Pb site at the electrode surface, which is followed by an oxidative 0-transfer step from a hydroxyl radical formed at a neighboring Bi site. Under certain conditions, the overall reaction is under the control of mass transport of DMSO.

Conclusions

Adsorption Is one of the four major methods for chemical modification of electrode surfaces (13). However, the adsorption method used thus far is confined to adsorption of organic species on metal and carbon surfaces. The adsorption of ionic species on metal oxide surfaces through ion exchange has long been recognized and subjected to intensive studies (10), but it has not been used to modify metal oxide electrodes. In this report, we have demonstrated that adsorption of simple inorganic ions from aqueous solution is more effective than the electrochemical codeposition as a method for modification of PbO₂ surface.

DMSO is a versatile solvent, well-known for its high polarity, essentially aprotic nature, and its high solvating ability (14). The chemical and electrochemical inertness of DHSO is also essential in its applications as solvent in electrochemistry at conventional electrodes (14b,c). Nevertheless, we have shown that DMSO can be oxidized to DMSO₂ at nearly 100% current efficiency at the $Bi^{3+}/Pb0₂$ electrode. One potential application of this catalytic reaction is for the electroanalytlcal determination of DMSO.

There are two possible explanations for the low catalytic activity observed for $Bi^{3+}/Pb0$ ₂ electrode with high Bi^{3+} coverage. First, the increase in 0_2 -evolution rate as a result of the higher Bi^{3+} coverage can reduce the rate of 0-transfer reaction, because the $0₂$ -evolution process is in competition for the hydroxyl radicals. Second, the surface of Bi³⁺/PbO₂ may be bi-functional; the Pb sites serve to interact with the S atom in DMSO, while the Bi sites serve to generate hydroxyl radicals. A

too high coverage of adsorbed Bi^{3+} will block the lead sites at the electrode surface, and, as a result reduce the rate of 0-transfer.

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Figure 1. Voltammograms of 10 mM DMSO at bare and $PbO₂$ -coated Au RDE (A) Effect of w (rev min⁻¹): (a-c) 400, (d) 900, (e) 1600,

Conditions: 1.0 M HClO₄; 20 mV s⁻¹; C_{Rj}/electrode: (a) 83 μ M at Au, (b) 0 μ M at PbO₂, (c-f) 83 μ M at PbO₂; Solid: forward scan; dashed: backward scan

(f) 2500

(B) Plot of i_1 in (A) vs. $w^{1/2}$

(#) Experimental values; **(O)** theoretical values

Figure 2. Voltammograms of DMSO at $PbO₂$ Coated Au RDE

(A) Effect of C_{DMSO} (mM): (a) 10, (b) 20, (c) 30, (d) 50, (e) 60, (f) 70

> Conditions: 20 mV s⁻¹, 10 μ M Bi³⁺, 400 rev min⁻¹. Solid: positve scan; Dashed: negative scan

(B) Plot of
$$
i_1
$$
 in (A) vs. C_{DMSO} .

(#) Experimental values; **(O)** theoretical values

Figure 3. Effects of C_{Rj} on the cyclic voltammograms of 10 mM DMSO at PbO_2 -coated Au RDE Conditions: 20 mV s⁻¹, 400 rev min⁻¹ C_{Bi} (μ M): (a) 10, (b) 20, (c) 30, (d) 40, (e) 100, (f) 200

Figure 4. Ring-disc voltammograms (i_r-E_d) of 10 mM DMSO at a PbO₂-PbO₂ RRDE

Conditions: $E_r = 1.7 \text{ V}; E_d$: scanned at 20 mV s ⁻¹			
w (rev min^{-1}): (a) 400, (b) 900, (c) 1600, (d) 2500			

Figure 5. Voltammograms of 10 mM DMSO at PbO₂/Au RDE at high c_{Bi} level (A) Effect of w (rev min⁻¹): (a) 400, (b) 900, (c) 2500, (d) 3600, (e) 4900, (f) 6400

Conditions: 20 mV s^{-1} , C_{Bi} = 150 μ M (B) Plot of peak current in (A) vs. $w^{1/2}$

Figure 6. Effects of scan rate on the cyclic voltammograms of 10 mM DMSO at $PbO₂$ coated Au RDE Conditions: $w = 400$ rev min⁻¹, $C_{\text{Bi}} = 40 \mu\text{M}$

 \emptyset (mV s⁻¹): (a) 5, (b) 100, (c) 200, (d) 300

Figure 7. Effects of DMSO concentration on the chronoamperograms of DMSO at $Pb0₂$ -coated Au RDE with co-existing Bi³ Conditions: $E = 1.7 V$, $w = 400$ rev min⁻¹, $C_{\text{B}i} = 0.1$ mM C_{DMSO} (mM): (a) 30, (b) 20, (c) 10, (d) 5

Figure 8. Effects of rotational velocity on the chronoamperograms. of 10 mM DMSO at PbO₂-coated Au RDE with co-existing Bi³⁺

Conditions: $E = 1.7 V$, $C_{\text{Bi}} = 10 \mu\text{M}$

 w (rev min⁻¹): (a) 2500, (b) 1600, (c) 900, (d) 400

Time

Figure 9. Effects of C_{R_i} on the chronoamperograms of 10 mM DMSO at PbO_2 coated Au RDE

Conditions: $E = 1.7 V$, $w = 400$ rev min⁻¹

(M): (a) 0, (b) 0.2, (c) 0.3, (f) 2, (g) 4, (h) 6, (i) ℓ (d) 0.5, (e) 0.75, 8, (j) 16, (k) 32

180

I min

Figure 10. Effects of potential on the chronoamperograms of 10 mM DMSO at PbO₂-coated Au RDE with co-existing $Bi³$ Conditions: 400 rev min⁻¹, 0.1 mM Bi^{3+} E (V): (a) 1.85, (b) 1.80, (c) 1.70, (d) 1.68, (e) 1.63, (f) 1.60

 \overline{a}

Figure 11. Effect of PbO₂ pretreatment in 10 mM Bi^{3+} solution on the oxidation of 10 mM DMSO in 1.0 M HClO $_{\Delta}$

- (a) Cyclic voltammograms at $Pb0₂₅$ coated Au RDE pre-immersed in 10 mM $B_1^{\frac{1}{3}}$ solution, for 10 min at open circuit. 20 mV/s, 400 rev min⁻¹
- (b) Cyclic voltammograms at PbO₂ film electrode pretreated at $E_{ads} = 1.7$ V for 10 min in 10 mM Bi^{3+} . Other conditions as given in (a)
- (c) i-t curve at the same electrode as in (b) at $E =$ 1.7 V. 400 rev min^{-1}

Figure 12. Flow-injection amperometric detection peaks for oxidation of DMSO

> Conditions : 1.7 V electrode potential, 1.0 M HClO_{μ} carrier stream at 3 ml min⁻¹

- Curves: (a) 1 (b) 1 10 mM DMSO and 0.1 mM Bi^{3+} , at Au, 1 mM Bi^{3+} , at PbO₂,
	- (c) 1 10 mM DMSO, at $Pb\overline{O}_2$,
	- **(d)** 10 mM DMSO and 0.1 mM Bi³⁺, at PbO₂,
	- (e) 1 10 _nM DMSO, at B_{i-}PbO₂ prepared from 10 mM
		- $Pb²⁺$ and 1 mM $Bi³⁺$ ₂, mixture,
	- (f) 10 mM DMSO, at $Bi^{3+}/PbO₂$ as in b

Figure 13. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy of pure PbO₂ (a) and $Bi^{3+}/Pbo₂$ (b)

Figure 14. Cyclic voltammograms at PbO₂ film electrode in 1_{2} 0 M \mathtt{HClO}_4 blank solution with different amount of \mathtt{Bi}^3

> Conditions: 300 mV s^{-1} , 400 rev min⁻¹ **Cgi (UM): (a) 55, (b) 73, (c) 91,** (d) 273, (e) 455, (f) 636

Figure 15A, GC/MS trace

Curves: (a) ether blank,

ù,

- (b) electrolysis sample extracted in ether,
- (c) standard $DMSO₂$ in acetone

Figure 15B. Mass spectrum for the second peak in Curve b in Figure 15A

Figure 16. Cyclic voltammograms of 10 mM DMSQ at $w = 0$ at PbO₂. coated Au RDE with co-existing Bi³

Conditions: 20 mV s^{-1} , $C_{\text{Bi}} = 0.1 \text{ mM}$

B. Modification of Lead Dioxide Electrodes by Electroadsorption of Ionic Catalysts: Effects of Analyte and Catalyst Identities¹

"Any time you think you have influence, try ordering around someone else's dog."

-The Cockle Bur

"Question authority, but raise your hand first."

-Bob Thaves

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Abstract

Many oxygen-transfer reactions are catalyzed and proceed readily at ${\tt Bi}^{3+}$ -adsorbed PbO₂ electrodes, in addition to the oxidation of dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) which has been described in the previous chapter. These include: oxidations of tetramethyl sulfoxide to tetramethyl sulfone, 2 thiophene carboxylic acid to an unknown product, chloride to hypochlorite, manganese(II) to manganese(VII), chromium(III) to chromium(VI), and benzene to benzoquinone. The same value of voltammetric half-wave potential $(E_{1/2}^+)$ was observed for all reactions in spite of their widely different standard potential values.

The adsorption method for modification of PbO₂ surface is fast and efficient for the purpose of screening new catalysts. High catalytic activity for oxidation of DMSO was found at $As(V)$ -adsorbed PbO₂, with a $E_{1/2}$ value similar to that obtained at Bi^{3+} -adsorbed PbO₂. Moderate catalytic activity also was found for PbO₂ modified by Cl⁻ and Ag⁺ in a potential region similar to that for PbO₂ modified by Bi^{3+} and As(V).

It is concluded that the $E_{1/2}$ value represents a common ratedetermining step for all anodic oxygen-transfer reactions. The $E_{1/2}$ value is independent of the identities of the analyte and catalyst, but dependent on the coverage of catalyst on the electrode surface.

Introduction

There are several questions which remain unanswered from the preceding paper (1) which described the electrocatalytic oxidation of dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) at PbO₂ electrodes chemically modified by adsorbed Bi^{3+} . For example, what is the meaning of the voltammetric

half-wave potential $(E_{1/2})$? Can a Bi³⁺-adsorbed PbO₂ electrode $(Bi^{3+}/Pb0₂)$ be used to catalyze any other oxygen-transfer (0-t) reactions? Is there any other species that can be adsorbed onto $PbO₂$ electrodes which can function as 0-t catalysts? How will the $E_{1/2}$ value change with variation of the identities of analyte and catalyst? These questions will be answered in the present report.

Experimental

Apparatus, chemicals, and procedures were described earlier (1), except as noted below.

The As(III) and As(V) solutions were prepared from As_2O_3 and As_2O_5 , respectively. The oxides were dissolved in concentrated NaOH solutions followed by acidification with $HClO_A$ to pH - ca. 0. Actually, the As species exist at this pH value as H_3 AsC₃ and H_3 AsO₄, respectively, since their pK_1 values are 9.23 and 2.25 (2). However, for simplicity, they are represented by As(III) and As(V) in this paper.

Results and discussion

Oxidation of tetramethvl sulfoxide and 2-thlophene carboxvlic acid The structure as well as many other properties of tetramethy1 sulfoxide (TMSO) are very similar to that of DMSO, e.g., solubility in aqueous solution and high oxidation overpotential. The oxidation of TMSO at a Pb0₂ electrode in the presence of Bi^{3+} was studied by voltammetry, as shown in Figure 1. A well-defined i-E plateau appeared only if a small amount of Bi^{3+} was present. The plateau current for both DMSO and TMSO increased linearly with increased square root of rotational velocity

 $(w^{1/2})$, indicating mass-transport control. The dependencies of the i-E curves for TMSO on variation of scan rate, and TMSO and Bi^{3+} concentrations are similar to those observed for DMSO (1). Similar i-t curves for the two compounds also were obtained by chronoamperometry at constant potential. Thus, it is concluded that the catalytic effects of Bi^{3+} for anodic oxidation of TMSO are due to the adsorption of Bi^{3+} onto $Pb0₂$ surface, as was concluded in the previous study of the oxidation of DMSO.

Another sulfur compound tested was 2-thiophene carboxylic acid (TPCA) which is water soluble and exists as a neutral molecule in highly acidic media. Oxidation of TPCA did not occur at pure PbO₂, but proceeded readily at Bi $^{3+}$ /PbO $_{\mathfrak{d}}$, as shown in Figure 2. The voltammetric curve is similar to those obtained for DMSO and TMSO, despite the obvious differences in their molecular structure. The number of electrons transferred was estimated as $8 - 10$ eq mol⁻¹ based on the height of the i-E plateau, assuming a complete mass-transport control. Therefore, a ring-opening reaction is probable. The oxidation product had a brownyellow color and was soluble in both water and ether.

Oxidation of chloride and chromium(III) An anodic wave for chloride anion was observed at PbO₂ in the presence of Bi³⁺, as shown in Figure 3. The i-E response for the positive scan became slightly peaklike at high w values, but the i-E curve in the negative scan always remained as a plateau. Since no gas bubble was observed at the electrode surface, it is unlikely that the oxidation product is chlorine. The estimated number of electron-transfer was ca. 2 eq mol⁻¹ and the

corresponding oxidation product is concluded to be CIO'.

Besides the reaction Mn(II) \Rightarrow Mn(VII), as described in Chapter III-A, another important oxidation reaction of a metal ion is Cr(III) -> Cr(VII), which was studied at ${\rm Bi}^{3+}/\rm PbO_2$ electrode. The voltammograms at Au, PbO₂, and Bi-adsorbed PbO₂ electrodes for 10 mM Cr(III) are shown in Figure 4a, b, and c, respectively. The oxidation potential measured at a constant current clearly shifted to less positive value by about 25 mV moving from the Au to PbO₂ electrodes. However, a further shift of 125 mV and a nearly plateau-shaped i-E curve were observed when $\texttt{Bi}^{\texttt{3+}}$ was added. This anodic wave for catalytic oxidation of Cr^{3+} to $\text{Cr0}_{\text{A}}^{2-}$ (Curve c) was observed only at elevated temperatures, which is consistent with the results from other work with unmodified $Pb0₂$ electrodes (3). The large decrease in overpotential for oxidation of cr^{3+} in the presence of Bi^{3+} is of great importance in practical applications of this reaction.

Oxidation of benzene The oxidation behavior of benzene at ${\tt Bi}^{3+}/{\tt Pb0}_2$ is quite different from that of others, as shown in Figure 5. The solution consisted of 45% 1 M HClO_{Λ}, 45% methanol, and 10% acetonitrile to enhance the solubility of benzene. The i-E curve for benzene was shifted about 150 mV less positive after the addition of a small amount of Bi^{3+} . This indicates that adsorbed Bi^{3+} indeed also catalyzes the oxidation of benzene. However, no current plateau was obtained and the current did not change with variation in w (Figure 5c). The absence of a limiting current plateau is probably due to the extremely high value of standard potential (E*) for oxidation of benzene. Studies by other researchers indicated that oxidation of benzene to

benzoquinone occurred only in the potential region of $0₂$ evolution (4).

Comparison of half-wave potential A half-wave potential value $(E_1/2)$ can be measured accurately for the catalytic oxidation reactions at Bi^{3+}/Pbo_2 (5,6). This E_{1/2} value is considered to be characteristic of the mechanism of electrocatalysis at the modified PbO₂ electrode.

Listed in Table 1 are the $E_{1/2}$ values in the positive scan $(E_{1/2, p})$ for oxidation of the above substances, DMSO (1), and Mn(II) (6) at the $Bi^{3+}/Pb0_2$ electrode. Since $E_{1/2, p}$ changes with variation of Bi^{3+} concentration (1), the least positive value for every substance was measured as Bi^{3+} concentration was changed. These substances varied from inorganic to organic, and from anions to neutral molecules and to cations. Also listed in Table 1 are the E° values for the corresponding oxidation reactions (7). These E° values vary over a large range from -0.1 V to 1.45 V. Despite all these differences, virtually an identical value of $E_{1/2, p}$ was obtained, indicating a single mechanism of 0transfer. The very small differences among the $E_{1/2,p}$ values may be the result of different experimental conditions, especially $C_{R,i}$ and temperature. The shape of the i-E curves for these substances is also similar to one another. Based on these results, it is concluded that the catalytic activity of Bi-modified PbO₂ for anodic O-t reactions is independent of the identity of analytes.

It should be pointed out that the standard potential values for these substances are all accessible at normal solid electrodes. However, no distinct oxidation wave for these substances was observed at $Pb0₂$ before the addition of Bi^{3+} , or at Au, Pt, and GC, with co-existing Bi^{3+} .

reactant ^a	product	E° (V vs. SCE)	$E_{1/2,p}$ (V)
(CH_3) ₂ SO	(CH_3) ₂ SO ₂	-0.004^{b}	1.68^{c}
(CH ₂) ₄ SO	$(CH_2)_{4}SO_2$	$-0.1d$	1.68
। └ऽ┴ॣऀऽ─० ^µ	unknown	1.0 ^d	1.71
Mn^{2+}	MnO ₄	1.268^{b}	1.65 ^e
cr^{3+}	Cro_{L}	1.138^{b}	1.69
$C1$ ⁻	$CIO-$	1.450 ^b	1.68
		1.6 ^d	

Table 1. Comparison of $E_{1/2,n}$ values for oxidation of different substances at Bi^{3+} -adsorbed PbO₂

 a For conditions, see Figures 1 - 5. $^{\text{b}}$ From Ref. 7. ®From Ref. 1. $d_{\texttt{Estimated value}}$. ®From Ref. 6.

Screening of new catalysts The conventional electrochemical codeposition method to produce modified $PbO₂$ is very time-consuming and tedious for selection of new catalysts out of large numbers of candidates (8). It is expected that the adsorption method of $PbO₂$ modification can be faster and more efficient for this purpose. By continuous recording of cyclic voltammograms in a 10 mM DMSO solution at PbO₂ while small amounts of varied candidate species are added, the catalytic effects of the added species can be monitored by changes in the i-E curve. This technique of catalyst screening is very effective because the electrode modification and activity testing are conducted in a single step. This technique also can be combined with a flow-Injection system with benefits of continuous operation and small volume.

Out of more than 30 different species tested with this adsorption method, catalytic activity enhancement was observed for As(III), As(V), Cl^* , and Ag^+ , which are discussed in the following sections.

Effect of As(III) Following the addition of As(III), a distinct voltammetric wave appeared for oxidation of DMSO at PbO₂, as shown in Figure 6. This wave Increased and shifted to less positive potential values as the concentration of As(III) was increased, until a welldefined 1-E plateau emerged. The height of this plateau Increased linearly with increased $w^{1/2}$, as shown in Figure 7, and DMSO concentration, but did not change with variation in scan rate. These results are similar to those obtained at $Bi^{3+}/Pb0₂$. Thus, it is concluded that arsenic ion also can be adsorbed onto $Pb0₂$ electrode surface and function as a catalyst for anodic 0-t reactions.

A difference exists in the redox property of Bi^{3+} and $As(III)$. Arsenic(III) can be oxidized to As(V) at oxide-covered solid electrodes (9), while Bi^{3+} cannot be oxidized to Bi^{5+} , partially because the E^O value for $As(V)/As(III)$ (0.32 V vs. SCE) is much smaller than that for Bi^{5+}/Bi^{3+} (ca. 1.8 V). A reproducible limiting voltammetric plateau for oxidation of As(III) was observed at pure PbO₂ at E > 1.3 V. If the concentration of As(III) is comparable to that of DMSO, the anodic DMSO wave is superimposed on the As(III) wave, as a current offset was observed as shown in Figure 8. The amplitude of the current offset increased linearly with increased As(III) concentration, but the net height of the plateau for DMSO remained unchanged. It is noticeable that the limiting i-E plateau is stable even at an As(III)/DMSO concentration ratio as high as 0.3, which was not observed for Bi^{3+}/PbO_2 electrode. Hence, the effect of coverage observed at $Bi^{3+}/Pb0_{2}$ does not exist at the As-adsorbed PbO₂, probably due to a difference in adsorption behavior of arsenic and bismuth ions on $Pb0₂$. It is expected that Bi ions are adsorbed more easily on $PbO₂$ than As ions by the ion-exchange mechanism (1), because of the similarity between Bi^{3+} and Pb⁴⁺ and the difference between As(III) (or As(V), as discussed later) and Pb^{4+} .

There appear to be two explanations for the steady oxidation of As (III) at PbO₂, which was not observed at Pt or Au. First, it is related to the power of PbO₂ to stoichiometrically oxize As(III). It was observed that for $[As(III)] > 1$ mM, the PbO₂ film was dissolved in the As(III) solution under open-circuit conditions. Secondly, the Asadsorbed PbO₂ can catalyze the further oxidation of As(III) which is also an 0-transfer reaction. Asorption of As ions does not occur at Pt or Au.

Effect of As*(V)* Since As(III) is oxidized easily to As(V) in the same potential region for oxidation of DMSO, it is interesting to know whether the adsorbed arsenic species exist in +3 or +5 oxidation state. This puzzle was solved by addition of As(V) instead of As(III). As a result, a voltammetric plateau for oxidation of DMSO also was obtained as shown in Figure 9. The shape and $E_{1/2}$ value of the plateau are very similar to those obtained with As(III). The i-E curves also changed with variation of w, 0, [DMSO], and [As(V)] similarly with those for As(III). Thus, it is concluded that As(V) can function as an 0-transfer mediator. Since As(III) is not stable at the surface of PbO₂ with a high positive potential, it is also concluded that As(III) is oxidized to As(V) before being adsorbed. However, it is not clear what is the form of the adsorbed As(V). From comparison between Figures 9A and 6, it is obvious that a higher As(V) concentration is required to achieve the same level of catalytic effect than As(III) concentration. This is probably because As(V) is adsorbed more easily following the oxidation from As(III) than directly from As(V) in the solution, due to the Interactions of As ions with the oxide surface, especially oxygen species during the oxidation.

Mechanism of electrocatalytic 0-transfer Since As(V) cannot be further oxidized, the results above also prove that a catalyst at the modified PbO₂ electrodes for O-t reactions does not have to undergo a change in oxidation state during the process of catalysis. This further proves that the mechanism of electrocatalysis at these electrodes is via

oxygen-transfer mediation Instead of the more commonly known electrontransfer mediation, as is illustrated in (1,4). In the 0-t mediation mechanism, $E_{1/2}$ represents the potential at which the promoted discharge of water takes place. Therefore, $E_{1/2}$ is independent of the identities of the analyte under certain catalyst coverages.

Effect of arsenic doping Arsenic also can be incorporated electrochemically into PbO₂ by adding As(III) to the Pb²⁺ deposition solution. However, the deposition of As-doped PbO₂ is much more difficult than that of Bi-doped PbO₂, since As(III) can react rapidly with PbO₂. Thus, As(III) was added to the solution only after a thin film of $Pb0₂$ had been deposited. Otherwise, the presence of As(III) made the nucleation period become indefinite. It is speculated that the average oxidation state of As in the As-doped PbO₂ is close to +5.

The catalytic effect of As-doped PbO₂ on DMSO oxidation is shown in Figure 10. An anodic i-E wave was observed, which increased with increased DMSO concentration. The i-E curves are not plateau-shaped and are very similar to those obtained for As-adsorbed $PbO₂$ with very low As (III) concentration (see Figure 6). This kind of similarity in the i-E curves also was observed between Bi-doped PbO₂ and Bi-adsorbed PbO₂ (4), which is concluded to be due to a lower surface concentration of the catalyst at the catalyst-doped $Pb0_2$ than at the catalyst-adsorbed $Pb0_2$.

Effect of and CI^* and Ag^* The addition of a small amount of CI^* also increased the anodic current for DMSO oxidation at Pbo_2 , as is shown in Figure 11. This additional anodic current is concluded not to be the

result of the direct oxidation of CI", based on two reasons. First, the direct oxidation of CI" in highly acidic media is very slow at noncatalytic electrodes like pure PbO₂, as demonstrated by the low current obtained at PbO₂ electrode for $[CI^-]$ much higher than used in Figure 11. Second, the concentration of Cl⁻ is much lower than that of DMSO. It is impossible for CI" to show this level of anodic current at such a low concentration.

After being washed and air-dried, the $PbO₂$ electrode used to produce the data in Figure 11 still exhibited catalytic activity in a new DMSO solution free of Cl⁻. Thus, it is concluded that Cl⁻ can be adsorbed onto the PbO₂ surface and the adsorbed chlorine species remains in the -1 oxidation state. The resultant Cl^- -adsorbed PbO₂ is catalytically active for anodic 0-transfer. However, the shape of the i-E curve in Figure 11 is different from those obtained at Bi^{3+} -adsorbed and As(V)-adsorbed PbO₂ electrodes. No limiting current plateau appeared in the case of Cl⁻ as was the case of Bi^{3+} and As(III). Hence, Cl⁻ is not as effective an Otransfer catalyst.

Two plating solutions were used to deposit PbO₂ electrodes for comparison: 10 mM Pb(NO₃)₂ in 1.0 M HClO₄ with [Cl⁻] < 1 μ M; and 10 mM PbCl₂ in 1.0 M HClO₄. Voltammograms of 10 mM DMSO at these two PbO₂ electrodes are shown in Figure 12. Clearly, the PbO₂ electrode deposited from Cl"-containing solution has some catalytic activity similar to that observed for Cl^* -adsorbed PbO₂. Thus, it is concluded that Cl^* also can be incorporated into $Pb0₂$ matrix by electrochemical co-deposition.

The catalytic effect of $Ag⁺$ is very similar to that of Cl", as

tested by both the co-deposition and adsorption methods. No i-E plateau was observed for DMSO, however, indicating only modest catalytic activity. However, the oxygen evolution background was increased much more rapidly with increased $[Ag^+]$ than with $[Bi^{3+}]$, $[As(III)]$, and $[CI^+]$.

Electrodeposition of $C1$ -doped PbO₂ In parallel to the studies on the Bi-doped PbO₂ (5), the kinetics and mechanism of electrodeposition of Cl -doped PbO₂ on Au was studied, as is described below.

Shown in Figure 13 are the i-t curves for deposition of PbO₂ on a Au RDE from solutions of varied $[CI^*]$ and constant $[Pb^{2+}]$. It is apparent that the i-t curve is not changed much for $[CI^-] \leq 0.01 \mu M$. However, with increased [Cl"], the induction time increased and the steady-state current decreased. Hence, the existence of Cl" in the plating bath decreases the rate of $PbO₂$ nucleation and growth, which is similar to the effect of Bi^{3+} on the electrodeposition of PbO₂ (5). The increase of induction time with increased [Cl"] is concluded to be due to the rapid dissolution of Au during anodization in Cl*-containing solution, as was observed in this study and in literature (10) . The higher is $[Cl^-]$, the faster is the dissolution rate; so the longer is the induction period for Pb0 $_2$ deposition on the top of Au. The decrease of steady-state current with increased [Cl"] is concluded to be due to the complication in the crystallization process by the adsorbed Cl^- at the PbO₂ surface. The incorporation of Cl^+ into PbO₂ matrix occurs via adsorption and inclusion of Cl⁻ as impurities on the surface of PbO₂, based on the conclusion for Bi-doped PbO₂ (5). Since Cl⁻ did not contribute directly to the anodic process, it is concluded that the chlorine species incorporated into $Pb0₂$

.201

matrix remains at -1 oxidation state.

Conclusions

We have clearly shown that the $E_{1/2}$ values obtained for numerous catalyzed 0-transfer reactions are independent of the identity of the reactants at the Bi^{3+} -adsorbed PbO₂ electrode. Therefore, a single mechanism of electrocatalysls for 0-transfer reaction is concluded to exist at the Bi-modified PbO₂ electrode.

It is also obvious that the $E_{1/2}$ values for oxidation of DMSO are virtually the same at the Bi^{3+} -adsorbed PbO₂ and As(V)-adsorbed PbO₂. Based on this result, it is concluded that the mechanism of electrocatalysis at the modified PbO₂ electrodes is independent of the identity of catalyst. This result sharply differs from the electrontransfer mediation and is a strong evidence for 0-transfer mediation. However, in comparison with PbO₂ modified by Bi^{3+} and As(V), different voltammetric behavior for oxidation of DMSO was observed at the $PbO₂$ electrodes modified by Cl^- and Ag^+ . This difference is concluded to be caused by the different adsorption or ion exchange affinity of Cl⁻ and $Ag⁺$ to PbO₂ as compared to that of Bi³⁺ and As(V), but not due to a different mechanism of electrocatalysls. This explanation is reasonable because despite the absence of i-E plateau, the anodic waves for DMSO at PbO₂ modified by Cl⁺ and Ag⁺ are located in the same potential region as those obtained at Bi-doped PbO₂ and As-doped PbO₂, and those obtained at ${\tt Bi}^{3+}$ -adsorbed PbO $_2$ and As(V)-adsorbed PbO $_2$ with low catalyst concentrations. This potential region is also close to that for anodic oxygen evolution at PbO₂. None of these O-transfer catalysts has been

identified before as electron-transfer mediator that are usually transition metal ions. In effect, these species do not meet the requirements for e-transfer mediation, so they can only serve as 0 transfer mediators.

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Figure 1. Cyclic voltammograms of 10 mM TMSO at PbO₂ coated Au RDE in the presence of Bi³

Conditions: C_{Bi} - 10 μ M, 1.0 M HClO₄, 20 mV s⁻¹; room temperature

w (rev min⁻¹): (a) 400, (b) 900, (c) 1600, (d) 2500 Solid line; positive scan; dashed line; negative scan

Figure 2. Voltanunograms of 10 mM 2-thiophene carboxylic acid

Conditions: as given in Figure 1 w (rev min⁻¹): (a) 400, (b) 900, (c) 1600, (d) 2500, (e) 3600

Figure 3. Voltammograms of 10 mM Cl^-

Conditions: 280 μ M Bi³⁺, others as given in Figure 1

Curves: (a) $0.1 \text{ mM } \beta_1^{3+}$ at Au, (b) 0 mM Bi^{3+} at PbO₂, (c) 0.1 mM Bi^{3+} at $Pb0_2$

Figure 5. Voltammograms of benzene

Solution: ca. 1% benzene, 45% 1.0 M HClO₄, 45% CH₃OH, and 9% acetonitrile **Cgi (HM): (a) 0; (b) 10** Other conditions: as given in Figure 1

Figure 6. Voltammograms of 10 mM DMSO at PbO₂ in the presence of As(III)

 $[As(III)] (µM)$: (a) 0, (b) 36, (c) 72, (d) 108, (e) 218, (f) 327

Conditions: 1.0 M $HClO_4$, 20 mV/s, 400 rev min⁻¹

Only the positive scan is shown. The i-E curve in the negative scan had the same pattern as the positive scan, but had slightly smaller values of current

Figure 7. Voltammograms of 10 mM DMSO at As-adsorbed $PbO₂$ Effects of w (rev min⁻¹): (a) 400, (b) 900, (c) 1600, (d) 2500

Conditions: 0.33 mM As(III), others as given in Figure 6

Figure 8. Voltammograms of 10 mM DMSO at As-adsorbed PbQ2

[As(III)] (mM): (a) 2.0, (b) 3.8, (c) 5.6, (d) 7.5 Conditions: as given in Figure 6

Figure 9A. Voltammograms of 10 mM DMSO at Pbo_2 in the presence of As(V) Effect of $[As(V)]$ (mM): (a) 0, (b) 0.54, (c) 1.8, (d) 3.6, (e) 10 Conditions: 20 mV s^{-1} , 400 rev min⁻¹, 1.0 M HClO₄

Figure 9B. Voltammograms of 10 mM DMSO at $PbO₂$ in the presence of As(V) Effect of w (rev min⁻¹): (a) 400, (b) 900, (c) 1600, (d)2500

Conditions: 10 mM As(V); others as given in Figure 9A

DMSO concentration (mM) : (a) 0, (b) 10, (c) 20, (d) 30, (e) 40, (f) 50

Figure 11. Voltammograms of 10 mM DMSO in 1.0 M $HClO_4$

Electrode: (a) Au, (b) $Pb0_2$, (c) $Pb0_2$ with 0.1 mM Cl⁻ Conditions: 20 mv s^{-1} , 400 rev min⁻¹

Figure 12. Voltammograms at Cl^- -doped PbO₂ in 10 mM DMSO and 1.0 M HClO₄

Electrode deposition condition:
 $(- - 20 \text{ mN Pb(NO}_3)_2, 0.1 \text{ M HClO}_4,$ $\frac{(-11)}{(-11)}$ 20 mM PbCl₂, 0.1 M HClO₄ w (rev min^{-1}): (a) 400, (b) 900, and (c) 1600

Time —•

Figure 13. Effect of co-existing Cl⁻ on constant-potential deposition of $Pb0₂$ at Au RDE. Solution: 10 mM $Pb(NO₃)₂$ and 1.0 M HClO₄ Conditions: 1.70 V, 400 rev min^{-1} , Cl⁻ concentration (mM): solid lines: (a) 0.01, (b) 0.21, (c) 0.41

dotted line: 0

- V. FORMATION AND CHARACTERIZATION OF ULTRA-THIN FILMS OF PURE AND MODIFIED LEAD DIOXIDE ON SOLID ELECTRODES
- A. Formation of Ultra-Thin Films of Lead Dioxide on Solid Electrodes by Consecutive Electrochemical Deposition and Stripping $^{\mathrm{1}}$

"Learning is an ornament in prosperity, a refuge in adversity."

-Aristotle

"The fewer the facts, the stronger the opinion."

-Arnold H. Glasow

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Abstract

An ultra-thin (0.01 - 0.5 μ m) film of lead oxide (PbO) remains on the surfaces of Au, Pt, Ti, and GC substrates after an electrodeposited lead dioxide (PbO₂) film (10 - 50 μ m) is stripped electrochemically from these surfaces in acidic media. This PbO film is converted to an ultrathin PbO₂ film by anodic recharging in a blank solution of electrolyte. As shown by electron microscopy, both ultra-thin films have microcracked surface structure that was not observed at the original PbO₂ films. Results from X-ray diffraction studies suggest that the PbO film has the same rutile crystal structure as the original, bulk beta-PbO₂. The ultra-thin PbO₂ films have similar anodic behavior as the normal, thicker Pb0₂ films, as indicated by the voltammetric stripping of Pb0₂ and the catalytic oxidation of DMSO at PbO₂ in the presence of Bi^{3+} .

The mechanism for the formation of the ultra-thin films also was studied. It is concluded that the films are formed by a reduction of the internal layers of thick PbO₂ films to undissolved PbO rather than Pb^{2+} due to the deficiency of H^+ at the substrate-oxide interface. This reaction takes place in the solid state and the resultant ultra-thin film is stabilized by interaction with the substrate. This mechanism is supported by the results of many experiments, including a study of the dependencies of the ultra-thin-film formation upon solution pH, thickness of the original PbO₂ film, and voltammetric stripping.

Introduction

Recently, it was discovered in our laboratory that a small amount of a Pb(II)-containing species could remain on the surface of a Au electrode

after cyclic electrodeposition and stripping of $Pb0₂$ in an acidic solution of Pb^{2+} (1). The adsorbed Pb(II) species formed after one deposition/stripping cycle can serve as nuclei for the deposition of $PbO₂$ in the next cycle. Hence, both the deposition and stripping currents increase with cycle number (1).

The above phenomena are studied further in the present paper. It is expected that a stable, ultra-thin film of $Pb0₂$ can be formed by anodic recharging of the Au electrode covered by the adsorbed Pb(II) species, which gives a new method to modify solid-electrode surface with metal oxides. Conditions to produce these ultra-thin PbO₂ films on varied solid electrodes are described. Many electrochemical and spectroscopic methods are used to characterize the electrode behavior, morphology, and structure of the resultant ultra-thin films, which are compared to those of the normal, thicker $Pb0₂$ films.

Experimental

The apparatus and reagents used in this study were described earlier (1), except as noted below.

The titanium rotated disc electrode (RDE) (31.2 mm^2) was constructed from a Ti rod (Titanium Metals Corporation of America, Henderson, Nevada) mounted on a stainless steel shaft. The side wall of the electrode was sealed with PTFE hydrophobic tape. Lead dioxide was deposited on Ti after polishing the Ti surface consecutively with sand paper and 0.05-um Alumina to remove the non-conductive titanium surface oxide layer.

A model D500 X-ray diffraction (XRD) machine (Siemens, West Germany) was used.

Results and discussion

Formation of a Pb-containing film by the stripping of a $PbO₂$ film on Au More evidence was obtained herein for the existence of an adsorbed Pb(II) species (probably PbO) on Au electrode surface after the cathodic dissolution of an electrodeposited PbO₂ film.

First, it was expected that the PbO film could be converted to a PbO₂ film by anodically recharging the PbO-covered Au electrode in a blank solution of the acid electrolyte. This expectation was varified by the current-time (i-t) curves obtained following a potential step to 1,7 V vs. SCE, as shown in Figure 1. Zero rotational velocity (w) was used to decrease the possible dissolution of lead species during the recharging (2). Clearly, a larger anodic current was observed at the PbO-covered Au in comparison with a freshly polished Au. This anodic signal is concluded to correspond to the conversion of Pb(II) to Pb(IV) at the Au surface. It will be proved later that this Pb(IV) species (probably $Pb0₂$) also remains on the Au surface.

Second, the formation of PbO₂ from PbO also was demonstrated by the consecutive voltammograms shown in Figure 2. To increase the formation rate of the PbO film, a higher Pb^{2+} concentration and a lower acidity (0.1 M) were used for the data in this Figure than for that in Figure 8 of (1). The positive scan limit in Figure 2 was adjusted to keep the charge for PbO₂ deposition relatively constant in each scan. Both the anodic deposition and the cathodic stripping currents increased with cycle number from 1 to 3. The potential at which the initial deposition current appeared shifted toward negative values with increasing cycle

number. A prewave or shoulder in the anodic current region was observed to be developed from the 3rd scan at a potential (1.45 V) less positive than that for PbO₂ deposition at the PbO₂-covered Au electrode (1.5 V). This prewave is concluded to result in part from the oxidation of a strongly adsorbed Pb(II) species formed in the previous cycle (3). If the anodic limit potential was kept at ca. 1.65 V as in the 1st cycle, an anodic limiting plateau appeared, instead of the current peak. However, the shape of the i-E curves in the negative scans was not changed by changing in the anodic limit potential. The prewave disappeared in the negative scan and the i-E curves in the negative scans were virtually independent of the cycle number. Therefore, it is concluded that the oxidation product corresponding to the prewave is the same as that in the 1st and 2nd scans, i.e., $Pb0₂$. The increase of the prewave indicates an increase in the amount of the adsorbed species and an increase in the nucleation rate of PbO₂ depositio with scan number.

Thickness and morphology of the film The thickness of the adsorbed PbO or PbO₂ films was measured with SEM. The result was 0.01 - 0.5μ m, depending on the conditions of preparation, but not affected by the anodic recharging. Therefore, the PbO and PbO₂ films will be called "ultra-thin films." If the ultra-thin PbO and PbO₂ films were thick enough $(> ca. 0.1 \mu m)$, they could be be seen by the naked eye. The ultra-thin film on Au electrodes looked slightly more reddish than the freshly polished Au substrate. The color of the film changed with the thickness and became slightly darker after anodic recharging. However, if the film was too thin $($ca. 0.1 \mu m$), the surface was hardly$

distinquishable with naked eye from a freshly polished Au.

The morphology of the ultra-thin films was observed also with SEM, as shown in Figure 3 in comparison to a normal $PbO₂$ film. A portion of the Au RDE was covered with Parafilm and the oxide film was deposited only on the uncovered side of the disc electrode. Figure 3A clearly shows that a film remains on the Au substrate after the stripping of PbO₂. The surface of this film had a microcracked structure which is totally different from that of the normal PbO₂ film as shown in Figure 3C. The cracks had an average width of about $0.5 \mu m$. The shapes of the cracks differed from spot to spot and from sample to sample. In Figure 3B is another SEM picture from a different region of the same sample as given in Figure 3A. The microcracked structure is very similar to that of thermally prepared $RuO₂/Ti$, known as a "dimensionally stable anode (DSA)" and used extensively for chlorine production (4). The microcracks of the films were not due to dehydration during storage of the samples, because the normal PbO₂ film, also stored in the air, did not show any crack (see Figure 3C).

The morphology of the ultra-thin PbO was not changed by recharging. Hence, no recrystallization or phase-change takes place during recharging.

The surfaces of the normal PbO₂ films and the ultra-thin films shown in Figure 3 are much smoother than those shown in the literature (5). This is because the PbO₂ films used in this study were prepared under the optimal conditions determined in Chapter 2 for obtaining smooth and reflective surfaces. Figure 3C depicts how smooth the $PbO₂$ surface is at

the microscopic level. The resultant ultra-thin films have similar surface smoothness.

The ultra-thin PbO₂ films can be deposited also onto other substrates, e.g., Pt, GC, and Ti. The morphology of a ultra-thin PbO film on Ti is shown in Figure 4. Again, microcracks were observed. The surface of the film (Figure 4A) was not as flat as those in Figures 3A,B, but, it was in the same pattern as the original PbO₂ film on Ti (Figure 4B) that had a high roughness due to a high roughness of the Ti substrate.

Factors affecting the formation of the ultra-thin films The thickness of the ultra-thin PbO films changed with the conditions of $PbO₂$ deposition and stripping. Studies in this respect can yield much information about the mechanism for the formation of the ultra-thin films.

It was observed that the amount of adsorbed PbO on Au depended on the solution pH for stripping and the thickness of the original $PbO₂$ film. The higher the pH, the easier was the formation of the ultra-thin PbO film. Generally, the thicker the original PbO₂ film, the thicker was the ultra-thin film. For very high acidity when generating ultra-thin PbO₂ film, the adsorbed PbO species was hardly observable by the naked eye.

The formation of PbO film also depended on the solution pH for $PbO₂$ deposition and the influence is the same as that of solution pH during stripping. The formation of PbO varied slightly with the rate of potential decrease for stripping. The slower the potential decrease from

1.7 to 0,3 V, the less PbO was formed and vice versa. However, if the scan rate was too high, e.g., a potential step from 1.7 V to 0.3 V, the entire PbO₂ film rapidly came off the Au surface, so no stable PbO film was formed.

It is concluded that any factor that increases the rate of $Pb0₂$ deposition or decreases the rate of $PbO₂$ stripping favors the formation of ultra-thin PbO films. In addition, the ultra-thin PbO₂ film prepared by multiple potential cycles was not very adhesive to the substrate and could be easily wiped off. Thus, the following optimal conditions were obtained to deposit ultra-thin PbO films on Au: deposition of PbO₂ at 1.6 V (1.7 V for the first 10 sec) in 0.1 M HClO₂ containing 20 mM Pb²⁺ for 70 - 90 sec; followed by gradual potential decrease (ca. 0.2 V/s) to 0.6 V for stripping. The formation of PbO film was not affected by the existence of Pb^{2+} in the stripping solution, so the stripping step could be done in the same solution as deposition. Similar conditions, except for the values of deposition and stripping potentials, also hold for production of ultra-thin PbO films on other electrode materials.

Crystal structure and elemental determination of the ultra-thin film Shown in Figure 5A are the XRD results for the Au substrate and three normal PbO₂ films of similar thickness. The diffraction patters for the normal PbO₂ films varied with the conditions of electrodeposition. The peaks were the widest for the $Pb0₂$ sample prepared under the optimal conditions for a smooth and reflective deposit (Curve a). It is concluded that this $Pb0₂$ sample has a smaller average crystalline size, due to an enhanced rate of deposition. As the rate of deposition was

increased from sample a to c, the sharpness of the diffraction peaks was increased. Clearly, the relative peak ratios also varied for the three pure $Pbo₂$ samples, yet their catalytic activity did not change. Therefore, the preferred surface orientation of the crystal structure is not the key factor in the electrocatalysis of anodic 0-transfer reactions.

In the region 20 - 20 - 40°, the diffraction pattern for PbO₂ is totally different from that for the Au substrate, so this region can be used to compare the XRD results for the ultra-thin FbO film and the normal, thicker PbO₂ film, as shown in Figure 5B. Despite the observed noise, it is clear that the PbO layer has the same crystal structure as the normal PbO₂ film.

The existence of both lead and oxygen in the ultra-thin film was demonstrated with X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy and the film is concluded to be PbO.

Mechanism for the formation of the ultra-thin film Based on the above results, the mechanism described below is proposed for the formation of the ultra-thin PbO film.

The cathodic stripping of $Pb0₂$ can be written as

$$
Pb0_2(s) + 4H^+ + 2e \Rightarrow Pb^{2+} + 2H_2O
$$
 [1]

Since four protons are consumed for each formulae of Pbo_2 , the stripping normally occurs only at the oxide-solution interface and the stripping rate is dependent on the mass-transport of H^+ from solution to the electrode surface. This is consistent with our observation that the

stripping of a thick PbO_2 film proceeded layer-by-layer. As the PbO_2 film gradually becomes thinner during constant-potential stripping, the apparent color of the film changed in the following order: black \rightarrow gray \rightarrow brown \rightarrow red \rightarrow yellow \rightarrow green, which is just the opposite to that observed during PbO₂ deposition. Thus, it is concluded that Equation 1 does not occur at the internal layers of the PbO₂ film before exposing to H^+ or H₂O. However, when the electrode potential is scanned to a value at which the internal PbO₂ layer is no longer thermodynamically stable, the following reduction reactions can occur at the substrate-oxide interface :

$$
\mathsf{or} \quad
$$

$$
\mathrm{PbO}_{2}(s) + \mathrm{H}_{2}0 + 2\mathrm{e} \Rightarrow \mathrm{PbO}(s) + 2\mathrm{OH}^{*}
$$
 [2]

which produces a PbO layer stabilized by and attached to the substrate. The H⁺ or H₂O used in this reaction exists inside the oxide film as trapped during the deposition of PbO₂. Since the process [2] can be regarded as an electrochemical reaction in the solid state, the crystal structure of the resultant PbO film is the same as that of the orginal PbO₂ film.

PbO₂(s) + 2H⁺ + 2e \rightarrow PbO(s) + H₂O

This mechanism explains the dependencies of the formation of ultrathin films on the experimental conditions. Naturally, the thicker the original $Pb0₂$ film and the lower the solution acidity, i.e., the slower the Reaction 1, the greater is the chance for Reaction 2 to occur and the greater is the amount of the resultant adsorbed PbO. Since the PbO₂ film deposited from solutions with higher H^+ concentration has higher H^+ content inside the oxide, the chance for Reaction 2 to occur is smaller for PbO₂ films from higher acidity than for those from lower acidity. The microcracks at the ultra-thin films are formed by contraction of the internal PbO $_2$ layer during the reduction in the solid phase under dehydrated conditions.

The mechanism also is supported by the following observation: When a piece of gold sheet was used as the substrate, the PbO_2 -covered Au sheet covered with a thin layer of solution was subjected first to a reductive potential for $Pb0₂$ stripping with most portion of the sheet lifted above the solution before the entire sheet was immersed in the solution. It was easier to form the ultra-thin PbO film at the portion of the Au sheet that had been lifted in the air than the portion that had not been. It is concluded that this pretreatment procedure forces the reduction of $PbO₂$ as Equation 2 at the Au-PbO₂ interface under difficiency of H^+ .

Cathodic stripping voltammetry of $PbO₂$ The above mechanism was proved further by the stripping voltammograms in Figures 6A,B as a function of PbO₂ thickness and solution pH. When the PbO₂ film was thin, a single stripping peak appeared as Peak I in Figure 6A. As the thickness of the PbO $_2$ increased, the stripping peak became more broadened. Peak I became a plateau and a second peak (II) appeared when the PbO₂ was even thicker. Peak I did not change with variation of rotational velocity as much as Peak II, indicating that the initial rate of PbO₂ stripping is a surface controlled process and independent of the mass-transport of H^+ . However, for a thick layer of PbO₂, the stripping

rate eventually became controlled by the mass-transport of H^+ due to the depletion of H^+ by reduction of the outer PbO₂ layers. Observable PbO species were formed only if the deposition time was equal or greater than 40 sec (Curve d) which corresponds to a transition point in the i-E curves in Figure 6A. It is believed that this transition represents the reduction of the internal PbO₂ layer as Reaction $[2]$.

As shown in Figure 6B, the stripping peak shifted to less positive and broadened as the solution pH was increased and the thickness of the film was kept constant. As a result, it was easier to form the adsorbed PbO film with increased pH.

It is noticed in Figure 6A that the stripping peak (III) for Au surface oxide is suppressed by the stripping peak of $Pb0₂$, as the peak potential of III shifted to the negative values with an increased thickness of $Pb0₂$. It is concluded from this observation that the reductions of Au surface oxide and $Pb0₂$ are independent of each other. Further experiments show that ultra-thin PbO films can be formed at stripping potential values equal, larger, or smaller than the value of reduction potential for Au surface oxide. Therefore, the reduction of Au surface oxide is not involved in the formation of the ultra-thin PbO film.

Chemical properties of the ultra-thin film The ultra-thin PbO film does not dissolve in acidic solution, while the chemical PbO does as follows :

$$
\text{Pb0(s)} + 2\text{H}^+ \Rightarrow \text{Pb}^{2+} + \text{H}_2\text{O} \tag{3}
$$

Both PbO and PbO₂ ultra-thin films can be removed from the Au surface by electrochemical H_2 evolution and by chemical stripping in a 1:1 mixture of hydrogen peroxide and acetic acid. The same is true for the normal, thicker PbO₂ deposits.

Voltammetric reduction of the ultra-thin PbO₂ film The ultrathin PbO₂ film formed after recharging a PbO film-covered Au electrode was characterized by linear sweep voltammetry in a blank solution of 1.0 M HClO₄, as shown in Figure 7. A scan rate (80 mV s⁻¹) higher than that for Figure 2 was used to increase the height of the stripping peak. A distinct stripping peak (a) was observed prior to the that for surface Au oxide (b). The peak potential of Peak a (1.24 V) is the same as that observed for stripping of normal PbO₂ film (1) . Hence, Peak a is concluded to correspond to the reduction of ultra-thin PbO₂ film. It also is concluded that the ultra-thin $PbO₂$ has the same reduction property as the normal PbO₂ film.

Following the first scan, consecutive cyclic voltammograms were recorded in the same solution as shown also in Figure 7. The i-E curve in the positive scan did not have any anodic wave between 0.7 - 1.0 V, so it is concluded that no metallic Pb is produced via underpotential deposition during the negative scan. Some anodic current appeared in the 1.5 - 1.7 V range, corresponding to the conversion (recharging) of PbO to PbO₂. However, the height of the anodic current in Figure 7 is much lower than those in Figure 2. The stripping Peak a decreased with cycle number dramatically. After ten cycles, the i-E curve becomes virtually the same as the i-E residue at Au. It is concluded that some $Pb0₂$ are

dissolved in each negative scan and the whole ultra-thin film is lost after several cycles of recharging and stripping. The loss is concluded to be partially caused by the dissolution of Au substrate in the surface oxide formation/stripping process (2,6).

Electrode behavior of the ultra-thin PbO₂ film It has been shown that dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) is readily oxidized at a PbO₂ electrode with Bi^{3+} co-existing in the solution, due to the adsorption of Bi^{3+} onto the PbO₂ surface (7). Using this experimental procedure, the properties of the ultra-thin PbO₂ film were compared to those of the normal PbO₂ film. As shown by the voltammograms in Figure 8A, a well-defined i-E plateau appeared at an ultra-thin PbO₂ film-covered Au electrode with a small amount of Bi^{3+} co-existing in the solution. The shape of the i-E curve and the value of half-wave potential are very similar to those obtained at the normal PbO₂ film electrodes (7). The height of the current plateau increased with increased $w^{1/2}$, as shown in Figure 8B, but not as linearly as those observed at the normal PbO₂ film probably because Au surface is covered only partially by the ultra-thin PbO₂ film due to the microcracked surface structure. The current plateau also increased with increased DMSO concentration, but did not change with variation of Bi^{3+} concentration in a large range (0.01 - 1 mM). The voltammograms also had similar dependence on scan rate as those at the normal PbO₂ film electrode. Similar chronoamperograms at constant potential also were obtained at these two kinds of $Pb0₂$ electrodes. Therefore, it is concluded that the ultra-thin PbO₂ film has very similar electrochemical properties as the normal PbO₂ film. It is also clear

that the catalytic oxidation of DMSO at the Bi^{3+} -adsorbed PbO₂ electrode is independent of the thickness of the PbO₂ film.

The above results were obtained at a Au substrate. Work also was done at ultra-thin $PbO₂$ film-covered Pt, Ti, and GC electrodes following the same procedures. Similar i-E curves for oxidation of DMSO were obtained at these substrates, except that the background current shew the characteristics of the substrate, obviously because some portion of the substrate is exposed to the solution through the microcracks.

Stability of the ultra-thin PbO_2 film The i-E curves in Figure 8A were very reproducible. It also was observed that the current under constant potenial for oxidation of 10 mM DMSO with 0.1 mM Bi^{3+} did not change for more than 2 hours at an ultra-thin PbO₂ film-covered Au RDE, which is similar to what was observed at the normal PbO₂ film-covered electrode. However, the reactivity of the ultra-thin PbO₂ film-covered Au electrode was lost if the electrode had been subjected to a treatment as shown in Figure 5, obviously due to the removal of the ultra-thin PbO₂ film by potential cycles in 1.7 - 1.0 V region. The same was true if the electrode had been treated with 1:1 mixture of acetic acid and hydrogen peroxide.

The chemical and electrochemical properties of the ultra-thin $PbO₂$ film was maintained after the electrolysis, but, the film became brown, powder-like and could be wiped off easily with tissues, indicating poor adherence to the Au substrate. The adherence of the ultra-thin film to the substrate surface depended on the roughness of the substrate. The rougher the substrate surface, the more adherent was the film.

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Figure 1. Chronoamperometric response in 1.0 M $HClO_4$

 $\overline{\mathbb{C}}$

Conditions: $E = 1.7 V$, 0 rev min⁻¹ Electrode; (a) PbO film covered Au,

(b) freshly polished Au

Figure 2. Consecutive i-E curves at freshly polished Au Solution: 20 mM Pb^{2+} , 0.1 M HClO₄ Conditions: 20 mV s⁻¹, 400 rev min⁻¹ Cycle numbers shown; scans originate at 0,7 V

Figures 3A, B. Electron micrographs of $PbO₂$ films at Au Solution for electrodeposition: 20 mM Pb^{2+} , 0.1 M HClO₄ Pictures: (A) ultra-thin PbO film at half covered Au, (B) the same as (A) at a different spot

Figure 3C. Electron micrograph of normal PbO^+_2 film

Deposition conditions: see context

 \mathbf{a}

Figure 4. Electron micrographs of $PbO₂$ films at Ti

Deposition solution: the same as give in Figure 3 Pictures: (A) ultra-thin PbO film (B) normal $PbO₂$ film.

Figure 5A. X-ray diffraction patterns

Curves: (a) Au, (b-d) normal PbO_2 film on Au

Deposition conditions:

- (b) 20 mM Pb^{2+} , 0.1 M HClO₄,
	- $E = 1.6$ (10 sec) \rightarrow 1.55 V (5 min), stirred
	- (c) Solution: the same as given in (b), $E = 1.5$ V (10 sec) \rightarrow 1.4 V (10 min), not stirred
	- (d) 10 mM Pb^{2+} , 1.0 M $HClO_4$, e 1.6 V for 1.5
		- hour, not stirred

Figure 5B. X-ray diffraction patterns

Curves: (a) normal $Pb0₂$ film on Au, (b) ultra-thin PbO film on Au

Figure 6A. Effect of film thickness on the stripping voltammograms of PbO₂ on Au RDE

Conditions: 20 mM Pb^{2+} , Q.1 M HClO₄, 20 mV s⁻¹, 400 rev $min⁻¹$

Deposition time at 1.6 V (sec): (a) 5 , (b) 10 , (c) 20 , (d) 30, (e) 40, (f) 60, (g) 90, (h) $110'$

Au RDE polished each time

Figure 6B. Effect of solution pH on the stripping voltammograms of $Pb0₂$ on Au

Deposition conditions: 1.6 V, 20 mM Pb^{2+} ,	0.1 M HClO _{Δ} , 400 rev min ⁻¹
	Stripping conditions: 20 mV s^{-1} , 400 rev min ⁻¹ , x M $HClO$.
x: (a) 1.7, (b) 1.4, (c) 0.8, (d) 0.4	

Figure 7. Cyclic voltammograms in 1.0 M HClO₄

Conditions: 80 mV s^{-1} , 0 rev min⁻¹

Electrode: ultra-thin PbO film covered Au RDE Anodized at 1.7 V for 1.5 min before the recording of the voltammograms

Peaks: (a) stripping peak of Pbo_2 , (b) stripping peak of surface Au oxide

Figure 8. Voltammetric responses of 10 mM DMSO at ultra-thin $PbO₂$ film covered Au RDE

(A) Effect of w (rev min⁻¹): (a) 400, (b) 900, (c) 1600, (d) 2500

Conditions: 0.1 mM Bi^{3+} , 20 mV s⁻¹

(B) Plot of the current at 1.825 V in (A) vs. $w^{1/2}$

B, Modification of Solid-Electrode Surfaces by Ultra-Thin Film

of Bismuth-Doped Lead Dioxide¹

"The ultimate criterion leading to the commercialization of an organic electrochemical process is that it provides the desired product at a lower overall cost (including costs of disposing properly of environmental pollutants) than any competitive process. It's that crass. Novelty, elegance, publishability and patentability are irrelevant factors."

> -M. M. Baizer, Pure **APPI**. Chem. **1986, 58, 889.**

 1 To be submitted to J. Electrochem. Soc.

Abstract

An ultra-thin (0.01 - 0.5 μ m) film of Bi-doped PbO₂ (Bi-PbO₂) remains at the surfaces of Au, Pt, Ti, and GC electrodes after the cathodic dissolution of a normal, thick Bi-PbO₂ film (10 - 50 μ m) followed by anodic recharging. The resultant solid electrodes have higher electrochemical stability and electrocatalytic activity for anodic oxygen-transfer reactions than the normal, thick $Bi-Pb0₂ film electrodes$ prepared from the same solution. This is concluded to result because the Bi/Pb atomic ratio at the surface of the ultra-thin film is higher than that of the normal $Bi-PbO₂$ films, as determined by X-ray photoelectron spectrscopy. The procedures to form the ultra-thin Bi-PbO₂ films represent a new method for chemical mofication of solid-electrode surfaces with metal oxides. The ultra-thin Bi-PbO₂ film was also determined to have a microcracked surface structure as was described in the previous paper for the ultra-thin pure $PbO₂$ films.

Introduction

Recently, anodic oxygen-transfer (0-t) reactions and their catalysis at metal oxide electrodes have been the subject of study in this laboratory (1-4). It has been shown that a variety of inorganic and organic oxidation reactions involving 0 -t from $H₂O$ to the oxidation products occur through catalytic participation of surface oxide as illustrated below (1-3):

$$
M[] + H2O \Rightarrow M[OH] + H+ + e
$$
 [1]

$$
M[OH] + R \rightarrow M[] + RO + H+ + e
$$
 [2]

net:
$$
R + H_2O \rightarrow RO + 2H^+ + 2e
$$
 [3]

where M is the metal, M[OH] represents the surface hydroxyl or semistable surface oxygen, R is the reactant (0-acceptor), and RO is the oxidation product. The efficiency of 0-t reactions can be enhanced greatly through selective electrocatalysis at the chemically modified metal oxide electrodes, e.g., Bi-doped PbO₂ (Bi-PbO₂) (2-3).

Conventional Bi-PbO₂ films are prepared by electrochemical codeposition on Au or Pt substrate from a mixture solution of Pb^{2+} and Bi^{3+} . The resultant Bi-PbO₂ films have a thickness of ca. 10 - 50 μ m. It was discovered that ultra-thin films of PbO or PbO₂ were formed on the surfaces of solid electrodes after electrolytic stripping of bulk $PbO₂$ films (4a,5). It is then interesting to see whether ultra-thin Bi-doped PbO or Bi-doped PbO_2 films can be obtained following the cathodic dissolution of the normal $Bi-Pb0₂$ films. If the answer is "yes," the catalytic reactivity and other properties of the ultra-thin $Bi-Pb0₂ films$ are studied in comparison with those of the normal $Bi-Pb0₂$ films and the procedure to produce the ultra-thin Bi-PbO₂ films will become a new method to modify solid-electrode surfaces with modified metal oxides.

Experimental

Apparatus for electrochemical experiments were described In (4a). The X-ray photoelectron spectrometer (XPS) and scanning electron microscope (SEM) were described in (4c).

Bismuth(III)/lead(II) concentration ratio in the solution is represented by $[Bi^{3+}]/[Pb^{2+}]$, as $[Pb^{2+}] - 10$ mM.

Results and discussion

Formation of ultra-thin Bi-PbO film As shown in Figure 1, the induction time for constant-potential deposition of $Bi-Pb0₂$ at a Au RDE in a solution containing Bi^{3+} and Pb^{2+} decreased with the number of consecutive deposition/stripping cycles. This is concluded to indicate the existence and accumulation of an adsorbed oxide species (probably Bicontaining PbO, indicated here as Bl-PbO) on the Au surface after each deposition/stripping cycle. After the 3rd cycle, the coverage of the adsorbed oxide on Au was sufficiently large so that the induction time became virtually zero (Curve 3 in Figure 1).

A similar conclusion can be obtained from inspection of the consecutive voltammograms in Figure 2. Both the anodic deposition current and the cathodlc stripping peak increased with cycle number from 1 to 3, indicating the effect of previous cycle on the i-E curves. An anodic prewave for conversion (recharging) of the adsorbed Bi-PbO to Bi-Pb0 $_2$ was observed at ca. 1.6 V for the 3rd and later positive scans. However, the current in these scans at the negative direction followed the same trace as that of the 2nd scan, which gives a reproducible i-E plateau with half-wave potential about 1.65 V. This is because the i-E

curve is no longer sensitive to the previous cycle when the electrode already is covered by a film of the oxide at constant thickness. The increase of the prewave with cycle number from 3 to 4 indicates the accumulation of the adsorbed Bi-PbO species. The anodic potential limit was lowered from 1.8 to 1.7 V for the 4th and 5th scans in order to obtain the stripping peaks for the $Bi-PbO₂$ converted from the adsorbed Bi-PbO. For the 2nd and 3rd scans, the i-E curves clearly had two stripping peaks, as shown in Figure 2. However, only one peak appeared in the 4th and 5th scans whose peak potential is the same as that of the first peak in the 2nd and 3rd scans.

Voltammetry at ultra-thin Bi-PbOg film electrode The existence of a Bi-PbO₂ film converted from a Bi-PbO film is further proved by the observance of a recharging current when Bi-PbO was subjected to a positive potential in a blank solution of electrolyte and a consequent voltammetric stripping peak. The latter is shown in Figure 3. The anodic recharging current for Bi-PbO (not presented) was smaller than that for PbO (see Figure 1 in the previous paper), probably because the Bi(III) species in the Bi-PbO does not contribute to the anodic process. Two voltammetric stripping peaks appeared in Figure 3. Peak a corresponds to the stripping of Bi-PbO₂ converted from Bi-PbO and Peak b corresponds to the stripping of surface gold oxide. The stripping peak potential for Peak a (1.05 V) in Figure 3 is about 200 mV less positive than that for pure PbO₂ (1.25 V, see Figure 5 in the previous paper), due to an increased stability of the Bi-doped PbO₂. This is consistent with the result obtained at the normal PbO₂ and Bi-PbO₂ film-covered

electrodes (4c).

Consecutive voltammograms were recorded following the first potential scan, as shown in Figure 3. Peak a disappeared in the 2nd and following cycles. However, Peak b did not retreat to the same level as the stripping peak at the freshly polished Au after ten cycles. This is also true in the anodic region $(1.5 - 1.7 V)$, as Wave c persisted for many cycles. It is concluded that there is always a thin film of lead oxide remaining on the surface after these potential cycles. This conclusion was supported further by results obtained in the testing of catalytic activities of the electrode, as discussed in a later section.

Thickness. morphology, and formation mechanism of the ultra-thin Bi-PbO₂ film The visual appearance of the adsorbed Bi-PbO films on Au was similar to that of the PbO films. The film looked slightly darker after the recharging treatment. The thickness as well as the apparent color of the Bi-PbO films depended on the conditions of preparation, e.g., solution pH and thickness of the original oxide film, in the same way as that of the PbO (5). It was easier to form the adsorbed Bi-PbO films with lower Bi^{3+}/Pb^{2+} concentration ratios. This is probably because the higher the Bi^{3+} concentration, the more difficult is the deposition of $Bi-Pb0₂$ and the more stable is the resultant metal oxide (4c).

The thickness and morphology of the Bi-PbO films at Au is visualized by the SEM micrograph in Figure 4. Figure 4A, obtained at a partially covered Au surface, clearly shows a Bi-PbO₂ film with a thickness of about 0.5 m. The thickness changed with variation of the deposition conditions, from 0.01 to 0.5 m. Therefore, these films are called

"ultra-thin" Bi-doped PbO and Bi-doped PbO₂ films.

Hicrocracked surface structure also was observed at the ultra-thin Bi-PbO and Bi-PbO₂ films, which is similar to that of the ultra-thin $PbO₂$ film except that the number of cracks per unit area is higher for the mixed oxide films. Thus, the surface area of Bi-PbO₂ film is expected to be higher than that of the normal oxide film. The surface roughness at the non-cracked portion of the Bi-PbO films is higher than that observed at the ultra-thin PbO films (5), which corresponds to the higher roughness of the original, normal Bi-PbO₂ film than that of the normal PbO₂ film (4a,5). The morphology of the ultra-thin Bi-PbO₂ films did not change much with $[Bi^{3+}]/[Pb^{2+}]$ in the deposition solution.

Ultra-thin Bi-PbO films also can be formed at Pt, GC, and Ti substrates, which indicates that the formation of the ultra-thin films is not specific to the substrate materials. The SEM micrograph of an ultrathin Bi-PbO₂ film on Ti is shown in Figure 5A as compared to that of a normal Bi-PbO₂ film on Ti in Figure 5B. Again, microcracks were observed in the ultra-thin film. However, the overall morphology of the ultrathin film is different from that in Figures 4A,B, but it follows the same pattern as the original normal oxide film on Ti.

It is apparent from the above that ultra-thin pure $PbO₂$ and Bi-doped PbO₂ films are formed very much in the same way and they have many similar electrochemical properties. Therefore, it is concluded that they are formed by the same mechanism as proposed and studied in Chapter V-A.

Catalytic activities of the ultra-thin Bi-PbO₂ film The cyclic voltammetric response of dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) at ultra-thin Bi-PbO₂ film-covered Au RDE is shown in Figures 6 and 7 as a function of rotational velocity (w) and DMSO concentration, respectively. An anodic plateau was obtained which was not observed for DMSO at the normal Bi-Pb0₂ film-covered Au (4c). Since no Bi³⁺ was added to the solution, the anodic plateau in Figure 6 proves the existence of bismuth ion in the ultra-thin films. The height of the current plateau increased linearly with increased $w^{1/2}$ and DMSO concentration. This is evidence for a reaction under mass-transport control.

The residual current at the ultra-thin $Bi-PbO₂$ film electrode shown in Figure 6 is larger than that obtained at the ultra-thin $PbO₂$ film electrodes (5). The residual current at the ultra-thin Bi-PbO₂ film changed with variation of scan rate as shown in Figure 8, which is similar to that obtained at the normal $Bi-Pb0₂ film electrode.$ Oscillation of the residual current was observed (Figure 9), the frequency of which depended on the rotational velocity and scan rate. At non-zero values of rotational velocity, the frequency of oscillation was inversely proportional to the scan rate. The oscillation is concluded tentatively to be caused by the motion of electrogenerated dioxygen bubbles trapped in the cracks at the electrode surface.

Change of the substrate from Au to Ft, Ti, and GC slightly changed the residual current and the values of half-wave potential $(E_{1/2})$ for DMSO oxidation. The $E_{1/2}$ values at these electrodes had the following order: Pt - Ti < Au << GC, which is the same as the order of oxygen

evolution overpotential at the substrate electrodes. Therefore, the substrate has an impact on the reactions at the ultra-thin $Bi-Pb0₂ film$ electrode, in contradiction to that at the normal $Bi-PbO₂ film electrodes$ (3b). This is because some portion of the substrate is exposed to the solution through the microcraks.

Considering the expense for large-scale electrolysis, Ti and GC will be the best choices for substrate. It was observed, however, that the electrode potential applied at the $Bi-Pb0₂$ covered GC could not exceed 1.9 V. Otherwise, a blue, non-conductive film developed between the GC and Bi-PbO₂. The Bi-PbO₂ could be removed by treating with 1:1 mixture of acetic acid and hydrogen peroxide; however, the blue interlayer could be removed only by polishing. The formation of this blue film with unknown composition caused electrode reactions to cease.

Stability of the ultra-thin $Bi-Pb0₂ film$ Similar i-E curves to those in Figure 6A were obtained after the ultra-thin Bi-PbO₂ filmcovered Au electrode was subjected to consecutive potential cycles as shown in Figure 3. This result clearly indicates the existence of an ultra-thin Bi-PbO₂ film after the consecutive reduction/recharging treatment. This was not the case for the ultra-thin $PbO₂$ films where were determined to be dissolved completely by repetitive cycles. Therefore, the ultra-thin Bi-PbO₂ film is more stable and adherent than the ultra-thin PbO₂ film, apparently as a direct consequence of the Bi ion in the oxide. That Peak b is located at the same potential as the stripping peak for Au surface oxide in Figure 3 suggests that the increased stability of the ultra-thin $Bi-Pb0₂$ film also might be caused

by an interaction with the substrate. The most beneficial aspect of the Increased stability is that a larger voltammetric potential window is available at the ultra-thin $Bi-Pb0₂$ electrode than that at the normal Bi-Pb0₂ electrode. The negative potential limit can be as low as 0.3 V in $1.0 M HClO₄$.

The stability of the ultra-thin $Bi-Pb0₂$ film also was examined at constant-potential conditions. It was observed that the anodic current for oxidation of 10 mM DMSO at 1.6 V and 400 rev min^{-1} did not change with time for more than 3 hours in a large volume cell. The ultra-thin Bi-PbO₂ film was determined not to be easily wiped off the substrate as compared to the ultra-thin PbO₂ film. Hence, the ultra-thin Bi-PbO₂ film obviously is more resistive to large-term electrolysis and has stronger adherence to the Au substrate. Complete removal of the $Bi-Pb0₂ film was$ achieved by treating the electrode with 1:1 mixture of acetic acid and hydrogen peroxide.

In conclusion, solid electrodes modified with the ultra-thin $Bi-Pb0₂$ films are judged to be excellent candidates as anodes for practical electrolysis.

Catalytic comparison of the ultra-thin $Bi-Pb0₂ film$ to other Bimodified Pbo_2 electrodes The catalytic activities of the ultra-thin $Bi-PbO₂ film electrode was compared to those of the normal Bi-PbO₂$ prepared from the solution with the same $[\text{Bi}^{3+}]/[\text{Pb}^{2+}]$ (4c) as well as Bi $^{3+}$ -adsorbed PbO $_2$ (4d), based on the voltammograms shown in Figure 10. The $E_{1/2}$ value at the ultra-thin Bi-PbO₂ film electrode was the least positive, which means that the ultra-thin $Bi-Pb0₂$ film has the lowest

overpotential for anodic oxygen-transfer reactions.

The activity of ultra-thin Bi-PbO₂ film was also compared to that of normal Bi-PbO₂ and Bi³⁺-adsorbed PbO₂ films with a very small thickness prepared by a very short time of deposition. It was seen that the 1-E Curves b and c in Figure 10 did not change with the thickness of the Bl-Pb0₂ or Pb0₂ film. Hence, the difference between the ultra-thin Bi-Pb0₂ film and the normal Bi-PbO₂ film is not simply a result of differences in thickness.

Elemental analysis of the ultra-thin Bi-PbO₂ films with XPS The Bi/Pb atomic ratio in the surface of the ultra-thin Bi-PbO₂ films was determined by measuring the Bi/Pb peak area ratio In the <XPS data, as plotted against $[\text{Bi}^{3+}]/[\text{Pb}^{2+}]$ in Figure 11a. The Bi/Pb atomic ratio in the ultra-thin film increased linearly with increased $[Bi³⁺]/[Pb²⁺]$ in the deposition solution, which is consistent with the results for the normal Bi-PbO₂ electrodes (Curve b) (4c). Clearly, the Bi/Pb atomic ratio in the ultra-thin film is higher than that in the normal film for the same value of $[\text{Bi}^{3+}]/[\text{Pb}^{2+}]$. There are two possible explanations. First, Pb ions in Bi-PbO₂ is more easily dissolved than the Bi ions by electrochemical reduction. Therefore, enrichment of Bi occurs at the surface of the ultra-thin film after the outer oxide layer is stripped off. This explanation is supported by that the Lines a and b in Figure 11 are parallel to one another. This explanation is also consistent with the mechanism for the formation of the ultra-thin films proposed previously (5) and the increased stability of Bi-doped over pure $PbO₂$ (4c). The Increased Bi/Pb atomic ratio is concluded to be responsible

for the enhanced catalytic activities and stability of the ultra-thin Bi-PbO₂ film. Also shown in Figure 11 is the Bi/Pb atomic ratio for the Bi^{3+} -adsorbed PbO₂. Obviously, the value of Bi/Pb atomic ratio at $[Bi³⁺]/[Pb²⁺] - 0.1$ is in the reverse order of $E_{1/2}$ values observed in Figure 10, i.e., the higher the Bi/Pb atomic ratio, the smaller is the $E_{1/2}$ value.

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 $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$

Figure 1. Chronoamperometric response for deposition of $Bi-PbO₂$ at Au Solution: 10 mM Pb^{2+} , 1 mM Bi^{3+} , 1.0 M HClO₄ Conditions: deposition potential = $1.7 V$, s w tripping potential $= 0.5 \text{ V}$, $=$ 400 rev min⁻¹

 ~ 100 km $^{-1}$

 ~ 10

 \sim

Number of deposition/stripping pretreatment shown

Figure 2. Consecutive cyclic voltammogram at freshly polished Au Solution: the same as given in Figure 1 Conditions: 20 mV s⁻¹, w - 400 rev min⁻¹ Anodic limit potential: $(-\rightarrow)$ 1.8 V; $(-\rightarrow)$ 1.7 V

 \mathcal{L}_{max} and \mathcal{L}_{max} . Then

Figure 3. Consecutive stripping voltammograms at a Au RDE covered by an ultra-thin film of Bi-PbO₂ in 1.0 M HClO₄

Conditions: 80 mV s^{-1} , 0 rev min⁻¹; the electrode was anodized at 1.7 V for 1 min before the scan

 (\ldots) response at Au

Figure 4A&B. Electron micrograph of ultra-thin Bi-PbO film on Au

(A) ultra-thin Bi-PbO film, sampled tilted for 51°, (B) ultra-thin Bi-PbO film, not tilted

Deposition solution: $[Bi^{3+}]/[Pb^{2+}] - 0.1$

Figure 4C. Electron micrograph of normal $Bi-Pb0₂$ film on Au substrate Deposition conditions: as given in Figure 4A&B

Figure 5. Electron micrographs of oxide films at Ti substrate

 \sim

(A) ultra-thin Bi-PbO film,

(B) normal $Bi-PbO₂ film$

Deposition solution: $[\text{Bi}^{3+}]/[\text{Pb}^{2+}]$ - 0.1

- Figure 6, Voltanunetric responses of 10 mM DMSO at a Au RDE covered by an ultra-thin film of $Bi-Pb0₂$
	- (A) Effect of w (rev min^{-1}): (a) 400, (b) 900, (c) 1600, (d) 2500
		- Conditions: 20 mV s⁻¹, 1.0 M HÇIO₄; electrode deposited from $[\text{Bi}^{3+}]/[\text{Pb}^{2+}] = 0.1$ solution
	- (B) Plot φf_{0} current height at the negative scan 1.7 V in (A) \sqrt{v} s. $w^{1/2}$

Figure 7. Voltammetric response electrode: effect of of DMSO at ultra-thin Bi-PbO₂ film DMSO concentration

> DMSO concentration (mM): (mM): (a) Q, (b) 10, (c) 20, (d) $30, (e)$ 40

Other conditions: as given in Figure 6

Figure 8. Effect of scan rate on the i-E curves of 10 mM DMSO at a Au RDE covered by an ultra-thin film of $Bi-Pb0₂$

Conditions: 400 rev min⁻¹, 1.0 M HClO₄; electrode deposited from $[\text{Bi}^{3+}]/[\text{Pb}^{2+}]$ solution

Scan rate $(mV s^{-1})$: (a) 20, (b) 100, (c) 200, (d) 300, (e) 400

Figure 9. Effect of scan rate on the residual voltammetric response at a Au RDE covered by an ultra-thin film of Bi-PbO₂

Conditions: as given in Figure 8 Scan rate $(mv s^{-1})$: (a) 20, (b) 100, (c) 200

Figure 10. Voltanunetric responses of 10 mM DMSO at varied electrodes

Conditions: 20 mV s^{-1} , 400 rev min⁻¹, 10 mM DMSO

Au RDE covered by:

- (a) $Pb0₂$ film,
- (b) PbO₂ film with 0.1 mM Bi³⁺ in the solution,
- (c) normal Bi-PbO» film; deposited from $[Bi^{3+}]/[Pb^{2+}]^2 = 0.1$ solution,
- (d) ultra-thin $Bi-PbO₂ film$; deposited from the same solution as given in (c)

Figure 11. Plot of Bi/Pb peak area ratio in the XPS data vs. Bi/Pb concentration ratio

Curves: (O) ultra-thin $Bi-Pb0₂$

- (\bullet) normal Bi-PbO₂
- (Δ) Bi³⁺-adsorbed PbO₂, prepared by treating PbO₂ electrode in 10 $m\overline{M}$ Bi³⁺ at 1.6 V for 10 min

VI. MISCELLANEOUS STUDIES

A. Electrolytic Conversion of Manganese(II) to Permanganate

in Acidic Media: An Ideal Reaction

for Demonstration of Electrocatalysis¹

"Our knowledge can be symbolically represented by the area in a circle; what we don't know can represented by the area outside the circle. When our knowledge expands, our frontier line to the unknown world also expands."

-Unknown

 1 To be submitted to J, of Chem. Ed.

Introduction

Electrocatalytlc reactions are of great importance in electrolysis, e.g., in the chloralkali and electrosynthesis industries, and as sensors in electroanalytical devices. However, electrocatalysis has not received much attention in chemical education in comparison with catalysis in general. No experiment or introduction article directly devoted to electrocatalysis has been published in This JOURNAL, while there have been an average of about six papers annually in recent years pertaining to chemical catalysis, e.g., Ref. 1.

Recently, electrocatalysis at chemically modified lead dioxide electrodes has been the subject of extensive research in our laboratory $(2,3)$. It was discovered that the electrolytic oxidation of Mn²⁺ to MnO_A^{\dagger} in acidic media proceeds readily by electrocatalysis at bismuthmodified $Pb0₂$ electrodes. We believe that this reaction is ideal for demonstration of electrocatalysis for several reasons. First, the reaction is too slow to occur at any conventional anodes Including Au, Pt, C, and pure $Pb0^2$. Therefore, the catalytic effect at Bi-modified $Pb0₂$ electrodes is quite obvious. Second, the product of the reaction MnO_A^{\dagger} has an intense purple color and gives a strong visual evidence of the reaction. Third, the required chemicals and apparatus for this demonstration are very simple and Inexpensive. Fourth, the oxidation product can be used as a strong oxidant (4) to illustrate the possible applications of electrocatalysis.

There are two types of Bi-modified PbO₂ electrodes: Bi-doped PbO₂ (2,3a) and Bi^{3+} -adsorbed PbO₂ (3d,c). In this article we describe the

procedures for electrolytic conversion of Mn^{2+} to MnO_4 ["] at Bi³⁺-adsorbed $Pb0₂$ electrodes as a demonstration experiment.

Experimental

Solutions The following stock solutions are required: 100 ml of 10 mM $Mn(NO_3)_2$ in 1.0 M HClO₄, 10 ml of 10 mM Bi(NO₃)₂ in 1.0 M HClO₄, 100 of ml 20 mM $Pb(NO_3)$ ₂ in 0.1 M HClO₄, and 100 ml of 1:1 mixture of $H₂O₂$ (30%) and CH₃COOH (glacial).

Apparatus Two graphite rod electrodes as the working electrode. Two Pt-wire counter electrodes. One saturated calomel electrode (SCE). Two 100-ml beakers as electrolysis cells. One potentiostat (can be substituted by battery). One 0.5-ml syringe.

Deposition of $Pb0₂$ The graphite electrodes are first cleaned by immersion in the H_2O_2 -CH₃COOH mixture, and then coated with PbO_2 by electrodeposition under these conditions (3a): $E = 1.6$ V vs. SCE in the 20 mM Pb^{2+} solution for 10 sec, then adjust to E = 1.55 V until the electrode is evenly covered by a PbO₂ film. Following completion of the experiment, the $Pb0₂$ coating can be removed by treating the electrode with the H_2O_2 -CH₃COOH solution.

Procedures

Add 50 ml of the colorless Mn^{2+} solution to each of the two cells. Put the working, counter, and reference electrodes into one of the cells and connect them to potentiostat at $E = 1.6$ V. Observe if there is any color change in the solution over a 5-min period. There should be only a very small evidence of MnO_A ⁻ and with some suspended $MnO₂$ particles.

Add 0.5 ml of 10 mM Bi^{3+} solution to the second cell. Connect the electrodes. The solution should turn to a purple color immediately, with the intensity of the color increasing with electrolysis time.

Discussion

The electrode reactions can be written as follows:

anode (Bi-modified PbO₂): Mn^{2+} + 4H₂O \longrightarrow MnO₄⁻ + 8H⁺ + 5e cathode: $2H_2O + 2e \longrightarrow H_2 + 2OH$

It is obvious that the concentration ratio of Bi^{3+} (catalyst) and $mn²⁺$ is 0.5:50 - 1:100 in the electrolysis solution. Hence, the amount of catalyst needed for this highly catalytic effect is very low. It has been proved that the bismuth ions must first be adsorbed onto the $PbO₂$ surface in order to function as a catalyst (3c,d), which is the reason for the name, Bi^{3+} -adsorbed PbO₂. It is also true that this reaction only occurs at PbO₂ electrode (3c,d).

Many further experiments can be conducted based on this electrocatalytic reaction. For instances, this reaction can be used in coulometric titration with electrogenerated MnO_A . The electrogenerated MnO_A can also be used as oxidant in waste treatment, and many inorganic and organic reactions. Since only catalytic amount of Mn^{2+} is used, the $\texttt{Mn}^{\texttt{2+}}$ waste can be kept minimum. The solubility of the $\texttt{MnO}_{\texttt{A}}^{\texttt{-}}$ ions in organic phases can be enhanced by usage of phase transfer reagents (5). This experiment is also suitable for demonstration with a projector.

It should be pointed out that this experiment requires the use of

 $Pb²⁺$ solution in the preparation procedure. Caution must be taken to handle the Pb^{2+} solution. The waste solution from the dissolution of used PbO₂ electrodes must not be drained through the sink. Special attention should also be paid to prepare the 1.0 M HClO $_{\Lambda}$ from concentrated $HClO_A$ (70%).

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B. Photocatalytlc Production of Manganese Dioxide

from Manganese(II) at Supported Lead Dioxide

"A philosopher is a person who knows less and less about more and more, until he knows nothing about everything; a scientist is a person who knows more and more about less and less, until he knows everything about nothing."

-Unknown

Introduction

Many metal oxides are semiconductors. This Is shown by the photocatalytlc and photoelectrochemlcal reactions at these metal oxides (1). Recently, pure and modified lead dioxides (PbO₂) are used as anode materials In this laboratory for electrocatalysls of oxygen-transfer reactions (2,3). In order to understand the mechanism of electrocatalysls at these electrodes, the photocatalytlc activities of these electrode materials are tested to determine whether these materials are semiconductors.

Experimental

A large area Pt screen was used as a support to the PbO₂ film which was electrodeposlted under the optimal conditions (3a). A 60-ml cell was placed In a sealed box. Two bulbs were used: a normal bulb (25 W) and an ultraviolet bulb (100 W). Electrolysis was conducted with a Pt wire counter electrode, a saturated calomel reference electrode (Fisher Scientific, Incorporated), a three-apartment cell, and a model RDE4 potentlostat (Pine Instruments, Grove City, Pennsylvania).

All chemicals were of reagent grade. Water was distilled followed by purification in a Barnstead NANOpure II system (Boston, Massachusetts).

Results and discussion

The model reaction studied is the oxidation of Mn^{2+} in 1.0 M HClO_{Λ} whose product can be MnO_2 or MnO_4^* depending on the efficiency of catalysis, as Indicated below

$$
Mn^{2+} \xrightarrow{[1]} MnO_2 \xrightarrow{[2]} MnO_4.
$$

Both reactions are very slow at conventional electrodes (3c,d). Therefore, the catalytic effects of the material modification and illumination can be monitored easily by the observation of the oxidation product, i.e., the brown $MnO₂$ particles or the purple $MnO₄$.

It was found that $MnO₂$ was produced at PbO₂ under open-circuit condition with illumination of light, which indicates the photocatalytic activity of pure PbO₂. The generation of MnO₂ was recorded as a function of the existence of Bi^{3+} in solution, material, light source, and heating effect. The results are listed in Table 1.

Addition of ${\tt Bi}^{3+}$ to the solution did not affect the photocatalytic reaction (compare No. 1 and No. 2 in Table 1). It is known from our previous experiment (3d) that Mn^{2+} is oxidized to $MnO₀$ " at Bi³⁺-adsorbed $Pb0₂$ electrode. The difference between the electrocatalysis and photocatalysis at Bi^{3+} -adsorbed PbO₂ surface suggests that the mechanisms for the catalysis are different.

The photocatalytic reaction was not affected by the change of light source from ultra-violet light to white light (see No. 2 and No. 3 in Table 1). More detailed work on the dependence of the photocatalysis on the wavelength requires the use of wavelenghth-selective light sources. Very few amount of MnO₂ was observed under the shining of room light (No. 4), which indicates that the intensity of light is a factor in the photocatalysis.

The illumination of light on the cell generated heat and increased

$$
277
$$

no.	$[Bi^{3+}]$	electrode	light	heating	generation of MnO ₂
1	10 μM	Pb0 ₂ /Pt	UV	resulted from the light	yes
$\mathbf{2}$	none	n	n	n	yes
3	$^{\bullet}$	\mathbf{u}	visible	n	yes
4	n	n	room light	none	\mathbf{a}
5	Ħ	$\pmb{\mathfrak{m}}$	none	direct heating	Ъ
6	n	Pt	UV	resulted from the light	no

Table 1. Generation of $MnQ₂$ generated by photocatalysis at supported PbO₂ in 10 mM Mn^{2+} , 1.0 M HClO₄

a_{Very} small amount.

 b Small amount.</sup>
the solution temperature, which might have an impact on the photocatalysis. It was observed that a small amount of $MnO₂$ was generated by direct heating of the Mn^{2+} solution in the presence of PbO₂ (No. 5 in Table 1), which did not occur without $Pb0₂$. This result suggests that heating can assist the generation of $MnO₂$, but is not solely responsible for the observed effect.

Removal of PbO₂ coating on the Pt resulted the loss of photocatalytic activity (see No. 6 in Table 1), which means that the photocatalytic reaction is related to the properties of $Pb0₂$.

A gaseous product also was observed at the PbO₂ surface during the photocatalytic production of $MnO₂$. Since it must be a cathodic process in opposition to the oxidation of Mn^{2+} , the gaseous product is concluded as hydrogen (H_2) produced by the reduction of water.

In summary of the above, it is concluded that $MnO₂$ is generated from Mn $^{2+}$ via a heat assisted photocatalytic reaction at PbO $_{\mathcal{O}}$ surface, which can be symbolized as follows:

$$
Mn^{2+} + 2H_{2}O \xrightarrow{mn0_{2(s)} + 4H^{+} + 2e}
$$

\n
$$
2H_{2}O + 2e \xrightarrow{h\nu} H_{2(g)} + 2OH^{-}
$$

\nnet:
$$
Mn^{2+} + 2H_{2}O \xrightarrow{h\nu} MnO_{2(s)} + H_{2(g)} + 2H^{+}
$$

This photocatalytic reaction can be explained by that PbO₂ is a degenerate semiconductor with a very small energy gap of ca. 0.4 eV (4). After the absorption of light, some potential differences are established at different positions of the PbO₂ surface, which yields local cells at

the surface. The low potential sites serve as the localized cathode for $H₂$ evolution and the sites with high potential serve as the anodes for MnO₂ production. The oxidation product is determined by the energy gap of the semiconductor. Since the energy gap is very small, the oxidation can only proceed to MnO₂ but not MnO₄⁻. For the same reason, this photocatalytic reaction can occur even under visible light.

It also was observed that the oxidation of Mn^{2+} at pure and modified Pb0₂ electrodes at 1.6 V was not affected by the shining of light. This result further proves that the mechanisms of electrocatalysis and photocatalysis at PbO₂ are different.

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VII. GENERAL SUMMARY

The major discoveries described in this dissertation are summarized below in correlation with the considerations in Chapter I-A.

Intermediate product for deposition and electrocatalvsis at In-situ deposited PbO₂

Soluble Pb(IV) species are concluded to be generated, along with adsorbed Pb(IV) species, as intermediate products during the electrodeposition of PbO₂ in acidic media $(1,2)$. The unstable Pb(IV) species, possibly associated with oxygen, can be used as an oxidation catalyst for some anodic oxygen-transfer reactions at in-situ deposited Pb0 $_2$ electrodes. The use of the in-situ deposited results in longer electrode lifetime than observed for pre-deposited PbO₂ (3).

Methods for chemical modification of PbO₂ surface

Modification of PbO₂ by co-deposition A number of inorganic anions and cations can be incorporated into the $Pb0₂$ matrix when they are present in the Pb²⁺ plating bath (4-5). This co-deposition, or electrochemical doping process, produces mixed-oxide films that behave differently from pure $Pb0₂$. Some catalytic activities for 0-t reactions were found at PbO₂ electrodes doped with Bi^{3+} , As(III), and Cl⁻.

The Bi ions exposed at the surface of the Bi-doped PbO₂ can function as catalytic sites which are evenly distributed and spatially separated, as shown by EDS elemental mapping (4). This result is consistent with the proposed mechanism as shown in Figure 2 in Chapter I-A. The Bi-doped PbO₂ has higher electrochemical stability and wider voltammetric window

than the pure $Pb0^2$, probably due to the decreased alkalinity of the mixed oxide.

Modification of PbO₂ by adsorption Several ionic species, e.g., Bi^{3+} , As(V) (or As(III)), and Cl⁻, can be adsorbed into the surface of PbO₂ as catalysts (5), because of the ion exchange or complexation ability of the PbO₂ surface. The adsorption method of modification has several advantages over the co-deposition method.

First, the adsorption method is more suitable for mechanistic studies. For instance, the surface concentration of Bi^{3+} at the surface of Bi^{3+} -adsorbed PbO₂ can be controlled easily by varying the bulk concentration of Bi^{3+} . A half-wave potential for the electrocatalytic oxidation reactions can be measured accurately at the Bi-adsorbed PbO $_2$.

Second, the co-deposition method has separate procedures for electrode preparation and testing, so is tedious and time-consuming for catalyst screening. The matter of screening is much improved with the adsorption method for which the two procedures are combined. Hence, a 'large number of species can be tested in a short period of time, especially if the flow-injection technique also is used (3,5b).

Mechanism of Electrocatalysis at Chemically Modified PbO₂

The mechanism of oxygen-transfer mediation described in Chapter I-A is supported by many experimental results.

Correlation between O-transfer reaction and oxygen evolution The relationship between anodic 0-transfer and oxygen evolution as illustrated by Figure 1 in Chapter I-A is supported by results of the

studies of anodic deposition of PbO₂ (1) and Bi-doped PbO₂ (4), and the electrocatalytic oxidation of Mn^{2+} at in-situ deposited PbO₂ (3). The deposition of the oxides occurs only in a potential region close to oxygen evolution. It is concluded that there must be enough OH species accumulated at the electrode surface, indicated by the oxygen-evolution background, to have perceptable rate of oxide nucleation.

The slight decrease of oxygen-evolution overpotential at the Bi-PbO₂ electrodes with increase in Bi coverage, as predicted in Chapter I-Â, was proved for both Bi-doped PbO₂ (4) and Bi^{3+} -adsorbed PbO₂ (5a).

Effect of catalyst coverage The catalytic current for the oxidation of DMSO at Bi^{3+} -adsorbed PbO₂ electrode increases first with [Bi³⁺] at low values (5a), which is consistent with the kinetic analysis for partially covered electrodes. The mass-transport-limited values of current can be maintained only in an optimal range of $[Bi³⁺]$. The current decreases if the $[Bi^{3+}]$ is above the optimal range due to a high value of Bi^{3+} surface coverage. This result is as predicted in Chapter 1

The catalytic activity of $As(V)$ -adsorbed PbO₂ electrode, however, does not decrease even if the [As(V)] or [As(III)] is very high, probably because the adsorption behavior of As(V) is different from that of Bi^{3+} (5b). It is speculated that Bi^{3+} can be adsorbed more easily on PbO₂ than As(V) because of the similarity between Bi^{3+} and Pb^{4+} , so a high coverage of Bi^{3+} at PbO₂ can be built up easily.

Variation of analytes Strong activity and high current efficiency at the modified PbO₂ electrodes were observed for many practically important electrolytic processes, besides the model reactions, e.g., oxidation of Cr(III) to chromic acid and of benzene to benzoquinone.

The same $E_{1/2}$ value was obtained at the $B1^{3+}$ -adsorbed PbO₂ electrode for a large variety of 0-t reactions (5b), despite the large difference in their standard potentials. This result is consistent with the prediction in Chapter I-A. It is concluded that this $E_{1/2}$ value is associated with the discharge of water to generate the adsorbed OH species at the catalytic sites of the modified electrode surface.

Variation of catalysts The $E_{1/2}$ values are almost the same for Bi^{3+} and As(V) (or As(III)), while the E° values for the Bi^{3+}/Bi^{5+} and As(III)/As(V) couples are far apart, at ca. 1.8 and 0.32 V vs. SCE, respectively. Therefore, it is concluded that the electrocatalysis at the modified PbO₂ electrodes does not occur via electron-transfer mediation but via oxygen-transfer mediation, and the catalyst at the electrode surface does not have to undergo any redox process. However, the electrocatalytic activity of Cl^- - and Ag^+ -modified PbO₂ electrodes are lower than that of the Bi^{3+} - and As(V)-modified PbO₂, which is concluded to be due to the difference in the affinity of the catalysts to hydroxide radicals.

Use of modified PbO₂ to modify other solid electrodes

Modified PbO₂ films can be used to modify other conventional, inert solid electrodes (6). Consecutive deposition and stripping of Bl-doped Pb0₂ at Au, Pt, GC, and Ti produced ultra-thin films of the mixed oxides on the substrates (6). The ultra-thin Bi-PbO₂ film-covered electrodes have higher electrochemical stability and catalytic activity than the thicker, normal film electrodes, due to an enhanced surface concentration of Bi.

Deposition of smooth, non-porous PbO₂ film with low residual signal

In order to use the pure and modified PbO₂ film electrodes in electroanalytical devices, the residual signal at the electrode should be as small as possible. A capacity residual current was observed to be proportional to the surface roughness or porosity of the PbO₂ film (4) . A smooth, reflective, and compact PbO₂ film can be deposited on Au and Pt substrates under the optimized conditions (1). Electron microgrph showed that the surface of this PbO₂ film was smooth on a micrometer scale (6a). The residual current at this PbO₂ film was very small (4) , which was also true after modification by Bi^{3+} adsorption (6a). As shown by XRD, the $PbO₂$ film deposited in this way has a small crystalline size (6b), due to a very fast rate of nucleation and growth.

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- 6. (a) Chang, H.; Johnson, D. C., in preparation; Chapter V-A, this Dissertation. (b) Chang, H.; Johnson, D. C., in preparation; Chapter V-B, this Dissertation.

VIII. SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDIES

Answers to the questions In the present research always lead to many new questions for studies In the future.

Applications of chemically modified $PbO₂$ electrodes

The most important application of the modified PbO₂ electrodes is predicted to be in the area of large-scale electrolysis, e **.g.,** electrosynthesis. Further studies are needed for up-scaling of the electrolytic processes already tested. Many more 0-t reactions also can be studied.

Another application will be in the area of electrochemical transducers. Substances whose oxidation reactions are too slow at conventional electrodes can be detected at these new catalytic electrodes.

Mechanism of oxygen-transfer mediation

The mechanism of electrocatalysis at the modified $PbO₂$ electrodes is of fundamental importance. To further prove the mechanism of 0-t mediation, some in-situ analytical methods, e.g., electron-spin resonance (ESR), infrared spectroscopy, scanning tunneling microscopy (STM), and Raman spectroscopy, can be used to monitor the changes of the electrode surface during the electrolysis. Kinetic analysis with digital simulation can be used to verify the mechanism with kinetic data.

Much information concerning the mechanism can also be obtained by a better understanding of the causes for the differences in catalytic activity among the Bi-doped, Bi-adsorbed, and Bi-doped ultra-thin-film

 $Pb0₂$ electrodes. It remains as a question whether the surface lead and oxygen species participate In the electrocatalysls.

Studies also can be conducted to understand more about the kinetics and mechanism of the adsorption of ionic species at the PbO_2 electrode, including a direct measurement of the surface concentration of the catalyst with surface analytical techniques.

Photocatalvsls

The photocatalytic phenomenon at the supported $PbO₂$ can be the subject of future study, including a quantitative measurement of the rate of the photocatalytic reaction and the conductivity of the PbO₂ film as a function of preparation conditions. More reactions can be studied beside the oxidation of Mn^{2+} to Mn0_2 . It is expected that the conductivity of the PbO₂ will be changed by doping with bismuth, so will the photocatalytic activity. Attention also can be paid to the photoelectrochemical reactions at the pure and modified PbO₂ electrodes. These results will.yield information for comparison of electrochemical and photocatalytic 0-t reactions.

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289