Monographs in Electrochemistry
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Ángela Molina Joaquín González

Pulse Voltammetry in Physical Electrochemistry and Electroanalysis

Theory and Applications



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Pulse Voltammetry in Physical Electrochemistry and Electroanalysis

Monographs in Electrochemistry

Series Editor: Fritz Scholz, University of Greifswald, Germany

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Preface of the Editor

Pulse techniques have a long history. Eminent scientists have to be remembered along the pathways of development of modern pulse techniques that are now so frequently used in research and analytical laboratories: Frederick Gardner Cottrell (1877–1948), Mirko Kalousek (1915–1996), Geoffrey Cecil Barker (1915–2000), Robert Allen Osteryoung (1927–2004), to name but a few. Now there are so many different varieties of pulse techniques available that it is difficult to keep an overview and to choose the most appropriate for a certain problem. The authors of this monograph, Ángela Molina and Joaquín González from the Universidad de Murcia, Spain, have undertaken the titanic venture to present a comprehensive and at the same time clearly arranged and systematic survey of pulse techniques. Both authors were best prepared for this task as they have contributed numerous theoretical and experimental studies to this field of electrochemical measuring techniques. The result is the most up-to-date monograph on the theory and application of pulse techniques—a unique book as it has never been written before. I am sure that this monograph will become and remain a first-choice standard work for many years to come.

Greifswald, Germany March 2015 Fritz Scholz

Idealization comes first; only then can description follow

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Chapter 1 Some Fundamental Concepts

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1.1 Introduction

The main purpose of this opening chapter is to provide a brief review of different concepts involved in the study of the current-potential response of electrochemical processes. This is necessary for a better understanding of some aspects of the responses of the different electrochemical techniques analyzed in the following chapters.

The electrostatic aspects of electrochemical systems will be introduced first and the electrochemical potential as a key concept is presented (Sects. 1.2–1.4). The electrochemical equilibrium is discussed and Nernst's equation and standard and formal electrode potentials are introduced (Sect. 1.5). The study of electrochemical interfaces under equilibrium ends with the phenomenological and theoretical treatment of the electrical double layer (Sect. 1.6).

The analysis of the kinetics of the charge transfer is presented in Sect. 1.7 for the Butler–Volmer and Marcus–Hush formalisms, and in the latter, the extension to the Marcus–Hush–Chidsey model and a discussion on the adiabatic character of the charge transfer process are also included. The presence of mass transport and its influence on the current–potential response are discussed in Sect. 1.8.

Finally, some practical questions such as the three-electrode setup, the influence of the ohmic drop, the RC time constant, and a short discussion on the nomenclature of the potential perturbations used in this techniques are addressed in Sects. 1.9 and 1.10.

1.2 Outer, Surface, and Inner Potentials

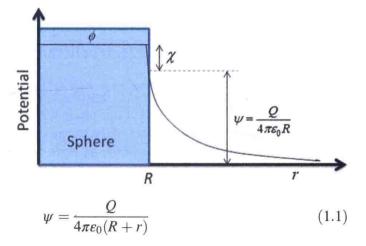
Electrochemistry deals with charged particles that have both electrical and chemical properties. Since electrochemical interfaces are usually referred as electrified interfaces, it is clear that potential differences, charge densities, dipole moments, and electric currents occur at these interfaces. The electrical properties of systems containing charged species are very important for understanding how they behave at interfaces. Therefore, it is important to have a precise definition of the electrostatic potential of a phase [1–6]. Note that what really matters in electrochemical systems is not the value of the potential but its difference at a given interface, although it is illustrative to discuss its main properties.

The potential of a charged species can be divided into different contributions to account for the different arrangements of charges (free charges, oriented dipoles, etc.) that can be found. In order to evaluate these different contributions, a thought experiment can be proposed in which a test charge located at the vacuum at an infinite distance from a given phase is brought inside this phase [3].

The outer or external potential, ψ , of an electrified material phase is defined as the energy required to move this unit test charge from the infinite to a point just outside the phase, with this energy being induced only by the free electrostatic charges, i.e., this potential is purely determined by the charge in the phase and is not influenced by the redistribution of the charge at the surface and the so-called image effects [3, 4, 7]. A distance of about 1 μ m fulfills the above requirement and at the same time is not too large to prevent the weakening of the interactions with the charges in the phase. Only the ψ potential and correspondingly $\Delta \psi$ can be experimentally measured [3].

For example, assuming that the phase is an isolated sphere of radius R, the potential experienced by a test positive charge Q is (see Fig. 1.1)

Fig. 1.1 Radial distribution of potential for a metal sphere of radius R carrying a positive charge Q, illustrating the contributions of the outer potential and the surface potential. The inner potential is constant inside the sphere



with ε_0 being the vacuum electric permittivity and r the coordinate that defines the movement of the charge.

The surface potential χ of a solid phase is defined as the energy required to move the unit test charge from the infinite toward the anisotropic zone resulting from the surface to the electronic gas which expands beyond the lattice and causes the formation of a dipolar layer although other explanations are possible. During this hypothetical experiment, the charge in the phase turns to zero. Therefore, the potential has nothing to do with the charge of the phase [3, 8].

In the case of a liquid phase, the χ potential is associated with the net preferential orientation of dipoles at the surface. This arrangement is equivalent to a charge separation and a potential difference occurs across the surface dipole layer. The estimation of χ remains unsolved [8].

The inner potential, ϕ , is the sum of the outer and surface potential:

$$\phi = \psi + \chi \tag{1.2}$$

and is related to the energy required to move the unit test charge to a point inside the phase (ϕ is related to the electric field strength E in the interior of the phase by $-\nabla \phi = E$ with ∇ being the gradient operator).

Concerning the potential differences, that corresponding to the outer potentials between two phases α and β is known as the Volta potential difference defined as

$$^{\alpha}\Delta^{\beta}\psi = \psi^{\beta} - \psi^{\alpha} \tag{1.3}$$

This is a measurable quantity which is usually called the contact potential difference [4, 6]. The equivalent potential difference for the inner potentials is known as the Galvani potential difference¹,

¹ It may be convenient to regard the Galvani potential difference between two phases in contact as being due to two effects: the orientation of dipoles in the interface between them and the separation of independently mobile charged species across the phase boundary in an analogous way to that discussed for the separation of ϕ into outer and surface potentials [5, 6].

$$^{\alpha}\Delta^{\beta}\phi = \phi^{\beta} - \phi^{\alpha} \tag{1.4}$$

1.3 Thermodynamics of Electrochemical Processes

The chemical potential of a species "i" in a phase with "m" species is defined as the derivative of the internal energy U of this phase with respect to the number of moles of species "i" (n_i) , at constant values of the extensive variables V, S, and the number of moles of the remaining species in the absence of electrical and magnetic fields,

$$\mu_{i} = \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial n_{i}}\right)_{V,S,n_{i\neq i}} \tag{1.5}$$

As the condition of constant entropy is difficult to achieve, it is more convenient to fix other variables.

The variation of internal energy can be written in a general way as

$$dU = -PdV + TdS + \sum_{i} \mu_{i} dn_{i}$$
 (1.6)

and the Gibbs and Helmholtz energies G and A, respectively, are given by

$$G = U + PV - TS \tag{1.7}$$

$$A = U - TS \tag{1.8}$$

By deriving Eqs. (1.7) and (1.8), and inserting into the result that corresponding to dU (Eq. (1.6)), the expression of the chemical potential given by Eq. (1.5) can be also written as

$$\mu_{i} = \left(\frac{\partial A}{\partial n_{i}}\right)_{T,V,n_{i\neq i}} \tag{1.9}$$

$$\mu_{\rm i} = \left(\frac{\partial G}{\partial n_{\rm i}}\right)_{T,P,n_{\rm i}\neq \rm i} \tag{1.10}$$

The chemical potential is defined as the change of energy of a phase when an additional mol of particles of species i is introduced at fixed V and S, T and V, or T and P. The most usual definition of the chemical potential is the necessary work to introduce one mole of species i from the infinite to a phase at fixed T and P (i.e., as given in Eq. (1.10)).