Voltammetry (Chapter 25)

Electrochemistry techniques based on current (i) measurement as function of voltage  $(E_{appl})$ 



# Why not use 2 electrodes?

OK in potentiometry - very small currents.

Now, want to measure current (larger=better) but

- potential drops when current is taken from electrode (IR drop)
- must minimize current withdrawn from reference electrode surface

Potentiostat (voltage source) drives cell

• supplies whatever voltage needed between working and counter electrodes to maintain specific voltage between working and reference electrode

# NOTE:

- Almost all current carried between working and counter electrodes
- Voltage measured between working and reference electrodes
- Analyte dissolved in cell not at electrode surface!

# **Excitation signals** (Fig 25-2)



#### Microelectrodes

C, Au, Pt, Hg each useful in certain solutions/voltage ranges



At -ve limit, oxidation of water

 $2H_2O = 4H^+ + O_2(g) + 4e^-$ 

At +ve limit, reduction of water

$$2H_2O + 2e^- H_2 + 2OH^-$$

Varies with material/solution due to different overpotentials

# **Overpotential** always reduces theoretical cell potential when current is flowing

 $= E_{current} - E_{equilibrium}$ 

Overpotential (overvoltage) develops as a result of electrode polarization:

- concentration polarization mass transport limited
- adsorption/desorption polarization rate of surface attach/detachment
- charge-transfer polarization rate of redox reaction
- reaction polarization rate of redox reaction of intermediate in redox reaction

Overpotential means must apply greater potential before redox chemistry occurs

Hg particularly useful

(i) high overpotential at -ve limit

(ii) easy to prepare clean surface

Hg Microelectrodes: (Fig 25-3)



**Voltammograms** (voltammetric waves) are graphs of current (i) vs. applied voltage (E<sub>appl</sub>)



Hg microelectrode is cathode -ve terminal in above

 $A + ne^{-}$  P  $E^{0} = -0.26$  V

Increase in current at potential at which A can be reduced (reaction demands electrons, supplied by potentiostat)

# Two important points

• Half wave potential  $(E_{1/2})$  is close to  $E^0$  for reduction reaction

$$E_{1/2} = E^0 - E_{ref}$$
  
-0.50 =  $E^0 - 0.24$  for SCE  
 $E^0 = -0.26 \text{ V}$ 

• Limiting current (i<sub>1</sub>) proportional to analyte concentration (really, activity)

$$i_1 = k c_A$$

Current is just measure of rate at which species can be brought to electrode surface

Two methods:

Stirred - hydrodynamic voltammetry

Unstirred - polarography (dropping Hg electrode)

Hydrodynamic Voltammetry

In stirred solution, diffusion layer (Nernst layer 0.1-0.01 mm) forms near electrode (Fig 25-9)



• Three transport mechanisms (i) migration (ii) convection (iii) diffusion

In general

A + ne<sup>-</sup> P  

$$E_{cell} = E_A^0 - \frac{0.0592}{n} \log \frac{c_P}{c_A} - E_{ref}$$

but what are  $c_P$  and  $c_A$  near electrode surface  $(c_P^0 \text{ and } c_A^0)$ ?



Fig 25-10

Convection dominates in stirred solution

Current is a measure of how fast A is brought to electrode surface

$$i = nFAD_A \underbrace{\frac{c_A}{x}}_{rate of change}$$

Faraday (C·mol-1)

Electrode Area (cm<sup>2</sup>)

Diffusion Coefficient (cm<sup>2</sup>·s<sup>-1</sup>)

Rate can be rewritten

$$i = \frac{nFAD_A}{c_A - c_A^0} \left( c_A - c_A^0 \right)$$
$$= k_A \left( c_A - c_A^0 \right)$$

At maximum current,  $c_A^0 = 0$  so

$$i_1 = k_A c_A$$

# Applications of Hydrodynamic Voltammetry

Single voltammogram can quantitatively record many species provided enough separation between waves (Fig 25-11)



Problems with dissolved O<sub>2</sub> - must purge (sparge) solutions



Fig 25-13

# Polarography

First voltammetric technique Differs from hydrodynamic

- unstirred (diffusion dominates)
- dropping Hg electrode (DME) is used as working electrode current varies as drop grows then falls off



Linear Scan Polarography:

Fig 25-23



$$i_{ave} = \frac{6}{7} i_{max}$$

Curve A:  $Cd^{2+} + 2e^{-} + Hg$  Cd(Hg)Curve B:  $2H^{+}(aq) + 2e^{-}$   $H_{2}(g)$ 

#### Unstirred - only diffusion - currents smaller

# Diffusion Current (Ilkovic Equation)

$$i_{d \text{ max}} = 706 \text{ nD}^{1/2} \underbrace{\text{m}^{2/3} t^{1/6}}_{\text{electrode}} c_{A}$$

number of electrons

analyte conc (mM)

diffusion coefficient ( $cm^2 \cdot s^{-1}$ )

drop time (s)

flow rate of Hg (mg/s)

# **Residual Current**

- redox reactions of impurities in solution
- charging of Hg drop

(non-faradaic current/non-redox current)

Advantages of DME (compared to planar electrodes):

- clean surface generated
- rapid achievement of constant current during drop growth
- remixing of solution when drop falls
- high Hg overvoltage means even metals with high -ve  $E^0$  can be measured without H<sub>2</sub> formation

Disadvantages of DME:

• Hg easily oxidized, limited use as anode (E < +0.4 V)

 $. 2Hg + 2Cl^{-} Hg_2Cl_2 + 2e^{-}$ 

- nonfaradaic residual currents limit detection to >10-5 M
- cumbersome to use (toxic mercury)
- sometimes produce current maxima for unclear reasons (use maxima suppressor) (Fig 25-25)

Current Sampled Polarography

- Drop knocker used to detach drop slightly before natural drop time for reproducible drop times
- Near end of drop life, current is measured (sampled)
- Current held at this value until next drop
- Sampled polarogram consists of short steps with less fluctuation than "raw" polarogram



Pulse Polarography: Differential Pulse Polarography

Conventional polarography somewhat limited by nonfaradaic currents

DPP relies on two measurements when difference between faradaic and nonfaradaic currents are largest

Detection limits 10-7-10-8 M (compare with 25-27)

- Small, short voltage pulses applied to linear ramp near end of drop lifetime
- Initial V rise, causes Hg drop to charge up (non faradaic current) but quickly returns to zero
- In presence of reducible species, faradaic current also present (decays less slowly)
- Past reduction potential, small voltage pulse doesn't make much difference, already at diffusion limit

