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Operando analysis of Ag₂O nanocubes electrosynthesis by scanning electrochemical microscopy

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Abstract

The strategy proposed herein employs the scanning electrochemical microscope in a generation collection like mode to depict the mechanism implied in the electrosynthesis of metal oxides nanoparticles, NPs. It offers a simultaneous generation of the NPs precursors and a single NP-level electroanalysis by nanoimpact coulometry. The former process is operated under controlled fluxes within the wide field of precursor diffusion in the inter-MEs gap thus forming a tunable reaction layer allowing the growth of NPs size gradient within this gap. The latter process exploits the much slower diffusion of NPs, spatially frozen, in the near field of a collecting microelectrode. It then allows to dynamically and *in situ* monitor the modes of growth of NPs without perturbing their synthesis. As a proof of concept, the synthesis of Ag₂O nanocubes, NCs, is described, using an Ag microelectrode to generate Ag⁺ ions while a facing Au microelectrode both electrogenerates HO⁻ and collect the as-synthesized Ag₂O NCs. The dynamic analysis of the NCs reductive electrochemical impacts, allows getting insights in their growth and stability. Particularly it suggests a two steps growth mechanism starting from a quasi-instantaneous nucleation of a >260 nm nucleus followed by a mass-transfer driven crystallization over the nuclei.

1 Introduction

Metal oxides nanoparticles (MeOx NPs) are used in many applications ranging from bio- and nano-medicine, optics, electronics, electrocatalysis, or sensing [1,2]. Different synthetic routes are now available, allowing to get highly mono-disperse MeOx NPs with well controlled size and geometry [3,4]. However, most of the existing studies to control their synthesis rely on trials and errors, which is time and cost consuming. Therefore, it appears relevant to elaborate *operando* strategies allowing a fast screening of the experimental conditions for the MeOx NPs synthesis and their characterization during their formation.

In this respect, electrochemical strategies are particularly promising. On the one hand, one can design electrosynthetic routes in which an electrode delivers at controlled fluxes the NP synthetic precursors, thus enabling a rapid screening of many experimental parameters [5]. MeOx NPs can be electrosynthesized by employing a sacrificial anode as a metallic precursor source, frequently facing a second electrode used to increase the pH of the solution, for example by triggering the water splitting reaction [6].

On the other hand, single entity electrochemistry provides a high temporal resolution *operando* characterization of NPs. It was used to monitor *operando* the formation of metallic [7], multi-metallic [8], metal organic framework [9], inorganic material [10], and core shell NPs [11,12]. Meanwhile, the electrochemical nanoimpacts strategy, relying on the analysis of the current fluctuations associated with the reaction of single NPs with a polarized micro- to nano-sized interface, is now a mature electrochemical method for detecting and characterizing NPs in solution. The predominant strategies usually employ the catalytic amplification of current by NPs at an electrode [13], or a liquid/liquid interface [14], the partial hindrance by NPs of the electrode diffusion layer [15,16], or the coulometry of the direct transformation of NPs at an electrode [17–19].

Herein, both synthetic and analytical strategies are combined to inspect MeOx NPs synthesis. For this purpose, the scanning electrochemical microscope (SECM) [20] is employed in a generation/collection-like configuration allowing the simultaneous electrochemical generation and collection of MeOx NPs, a configuration close to that used to collect Ag^+ ions released from the oxidative nanoimpact of Ag NPs [21]. As a proof of concept, the nucleation and growth of silver oxide nanocubes (Ag_2O NCs), known to be synthesizable electrochemically [22], is studied, owing to their interest as antimicrobials [23], in rechargeable alkaline batteries [24] or photo-catalysis [25].

2 Materials and Methods

2.1 Chemicals and Materials

Potassium nitrate (KNO_3) and sulfuric acid (H_2SO_4 95%) were obtained from Prolabo and VWR respectively. All solutions were prepared using ultrapure water (resistivity $> 18.2 \text{ M}\Omega\cdot\text{cm}$). Ultramicroelectrodes (UMEs) were fabricated using $25 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$ diameter Ag wires (99.99%, Goodfellow Cambridge Ltd), sealed in $1.0 \text{ mm}/0.5 \text{ mm}$ (outer/inner diameter) borosilicate glass capillaries (Sutter Instruments) using a P2000 laser puller (Sutter Instruments). Before use, the UMEs were polished on aluminum oxide tape ($3 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$, Precision Surfaces International, Houston, Texas), washed with ultra-pure water and technical grade ethanol and then sonicated whereas a homemade $500 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$ diameter Au microelectrode (ME) was cleaned by electrochemical restructuring by cycling between -0.8 and 1.4 V vs Ag QRCE for 5 min in a H_2SO_4 50 mM solution.

2.2 Scanning electron microscopy (SEM)

SEM images were recorded with a SEM-FEG SUPRA 40 from Zeiss.

2.3 SECM experiments

A CHI-910B (CH-Instruments) was used in a Faraday cage to perform the SECM experiments with a bipotentiostat in a 3-electrode configuration and a 1mm diameter silver wire as a quasi-reference/counter (QRCE) electrode. The distance between the Ag UME and the Au Me was evaluated from approach curves [20] by applying -1.0 V at the Ag UME to trigger the hydrogen evolution reaction. The methodology consists in retracting the UME ($R_g \sim 10$) of $150 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$ after it has touched the generator surface. The physical contact is attested when a current plateau is reached on the approach curves. The electrochemical impact transients were acquired at a frequency of 250 Hz and were analyzed by a homemade Matlab routine in which events detection corresponds to a signal-to-noise ratio higher than 5.

3 Results and discussion

3.1 Principle of Ag₂O NCs electrosynthesis and SEM characterization

Ag₂O NCs are electrosynthesized in a 0.1 M KNO₃ aqueous solution from two working electrodes facing each other and separated by 150 μm as illustrated in Figure 1a. In this configuration, a 25 μm diameter Ag sacrificial UME is used to produce Ag⁺ precursor through the application of a sufficiently anodic potential (1). Meanwhile, the facing Au 500 μm ME is biased at a cathodic potential promoting the oxygen reduction reaction (ORR), leading to the formation of HO⁻ via a 2 to 4-electron transfer (2a-2b) [26] and consequently a local pH increase. The precipitation of HO⁻ and Ag⁺ generates colloidal Ag₂O NCs in the inter-ME gap (3). Simultaneously, the generated Ag₂O NCs can be collected at the Au ME by (4) their reductive electrochemical (EC) impacts conversion into Ag (Figure 1a).



A typical SECM experiment consists in recording current-time transients simultaneously at the Au ME and Ag UME while triggering respectively the ORR ($E_{\text{Au}} = -0.4$ V determined from cyclic voltammetry, CV, shown in Figure SI1 of the supplementary information) and the release of Ag⁺ ($E_{\text{Ag}} = +0.3$ V). The typical EC responses recorded at both MEs are shown in Figure 1b. The CA at the Au ME (bottom of Figure 1b) shows stochastic reductive current spikes > 50s after the onset of the experiment. An example of the current spike zoomed is shown in Figure SI2. These spikes, characteristic of EC impact events [17,18], are attributed to the reduction of Ag₂O NCs. In such experimental configuration, the Au ME then acts simultaneously as a HO⁻ source and as a NCs collector. A NC edge length, a_{NC} , was inferred from the charge of each current spike, Q , assuming a complete 2-electron reduction of the Ag₂O NCs which was already evidenced during the electrochemical reduction of AgX NPs [18,27,28]:

$$a_{\text{NC,m}} = \sqrt[3]{\frac{QV_{\text{m,Ag}_2\text{O}}}{2F}} \quad (5)$$

where F is the Faraday constant and $V_{\text{m,Ag}_2\text{O}} \approx 33 \text{ cm}^3/\text{mol}$ is the molar volume of Ag₂O. The ensemble spikes provides a distribution NC size shown in Figure 1c, is centered at $a_{\text{NC,m}} \sim 400\text{-nm}$.

$$D_{\text{NC}} = \frac{k_B T}{6\pi\eta a_{\text{NC}} \sqrt[3]{\frac{3}{4\pi}}} \quad (6)$$

$D_{\text{NC}} \sim 0.6 \pm 0.2 \mu\text{m}^2/\text{s}$ with $\eta = 0.89 \text{ mPa}\cdot\text{s}$ and $\sqrt[3]{\frac{3}{4\pi}}$ is the term considering the cubic shape of the NPs. During the $t \sim 100 \text{ s}$ duration of the CA the collected NCs have at best travelled by diffusion to the ME from $d_{\text{coll}} \sim \sqrt{D_{\text{NC}} t} < 10 \mu\text{m}$. Therefore, since the NCs diffuse >3 orders of magnitudes more slowly than their ionic precursors, the collecting Au ME probes a limited sample within the NCs population ($<10\%$ considering their growth in all the area within the inter-ME gap according to the SEM), minimizing the perturbation of the NC synthesis.

3.2 Influence of the Ag^+ production rate studied by EC impact experiments

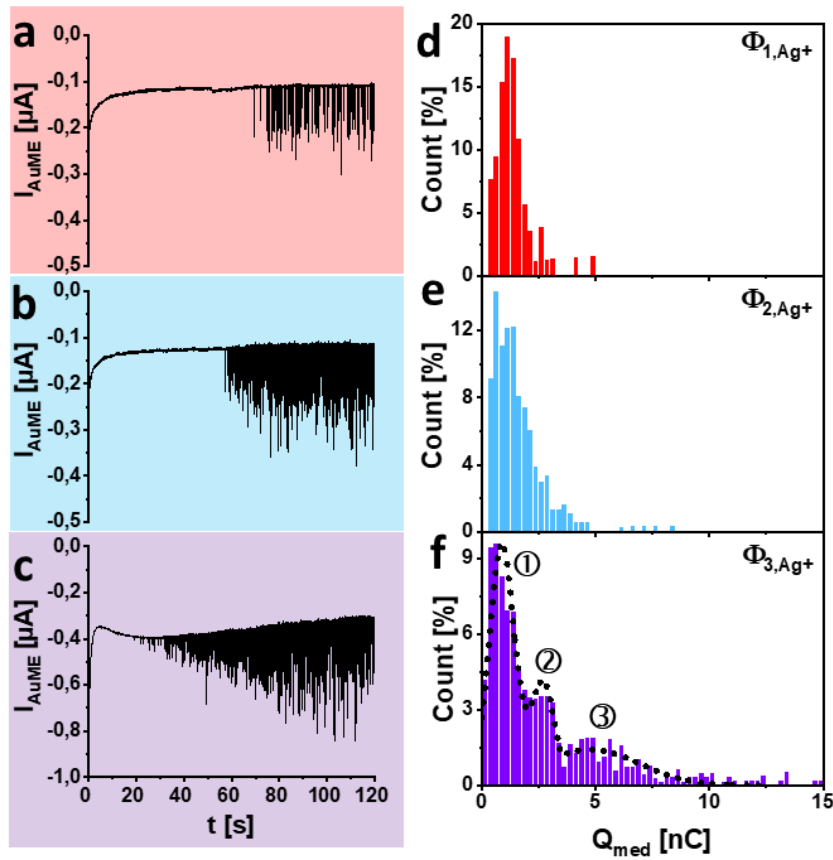


Figure 2. Current-time transients measured at the gold ME ($E_{\text{Au}} = -0.4 \text{ V}$) for various Ag^+ production rates generated from a sacrificial $25 \mu\text{m}$ diameter Ag UME ($\phi_{1,\text{Ag}^+} \approx 280 \text{ fmol}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ (a), $\phi_{2,\text{Ag}^+} \approx 530 \text{ fmol}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ (b) and $\phi_{3,\text{Ag}^+} \approx 3950 \text{ fmol}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ (c)) and their corresponding peak charge distribution histogram (d), (e), (f) for ϕ_{1,Ag^+} , ϕ_{2,Ag^+} and ϕ_{3,Ag^+} , respectively.

To further illustrate the relevance of our approach, the effect of the amount of precursors generated at the electrodes on the resulting Ag_2O NCs was studied. Only the concentration of Ag^+ is modulated here, but the same methodology can be employed to study the effect of HO^- concentration or the inter-ME gap. The production rate of Ag^+ ions electrogenerated at the Ag UME, ϕ_{Ag^+} , is estimated from its steady-state current, i , according to

$$\phi_{\text{Ag}^+} = \frac{i}{F} \quad (7)$$

from which the concentration $C_{\text{Ag}^+}^0 = \frac{\phi_{\text{Ag}}}{4D_{\text{Ag}}}$ at the UME is evaluated with $D_{\text{Ag}} = 1.6 \cdot 10^{-5} \text{ cm}^2 \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ the Ag^+ diffusion coefficient [29] and $a_{\text{Ag}} = 12.5 \text{ } \mu\text{m}$ the radius of the Ag part of the UME. Noteworthy, this production rate also provides an estimate of Ag^+ at distance r from the UME. By a first flux conservation approximation, Ag^+ is expected to expand hemispherically and

$$C_{\text{Ag}^+}(r) \sim \frac{a}{r} C_{\text{Ag}^+}^0 = \frac{\phi_{\text{Ag}}}{4D_{\text{Ag}}r}. \quad (8)$$

Current transients were recorded at the Au ME by generating three different Ag^+ production rates at the Ag UME ($\phi_{1,\text{Ag}^+} \approx 280$, $\phi_{2,\text{Ag}^+} \approx 530$ and $\phi_{3,\text{Ag}^+} \approx 3950 \text{ fmol} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ extracted from the corresponding transients in Figure SI4 by applying $E_{1,\text{Ag}^+} = 0.23 \text{ V}$, $E_{2,\text{Ag}^+} = 0.25 \text{ V}$ and $E_{3,\text{Ag}^+} = 0.30 \text{ V}$ respectively), while maintaining constant the current at the Au ME ($E_{\text{Au}} = -0.4 \text{ V}$, i.e. a same rate of HO^- production $\phi_{\text{HO}^-} \approx 1100 \text{ fmol} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ considering (7) extracted from Figure 2a or b). The transients are shown in Figure 2a, b and c, respectively. Noteworthy, the apparent current recorded at the AuME at high Ag^+ production rate is higher than at lower flux, which can be attributed to the direct electrodeposition of Ag^+ at the Au ME. The corresponding concentrations of Ag^+ can be estimated from equation 8 as $C_{1,\text{Ag}^+} = 0.30$, $C_{2,\text{Ag}^+} = 0.55$ and $C_{3,\text{Ag}^+} = 4.1 \text{ mM}$ with $r = 150 \text{ } \mu\text{m}$ and assuming their negligible consumption to form nanocubes, whereas C_{HO^-} generated at the Au ME is within the 0.2 to 0.4 mM range considering either a 2 or a 4-electron reduction (equations 2a and 2b):

$$C_{\text{HO}^-} = \frac{I}{4nFD_{\text{O}_2}a_{\text{Au}}} \quad (9)$$

where $a_{\text{Au}} = 250 \text{ } \mu\text{m}$ is the radius of the Au part of the Au ME, $D_{\text{O}_2} = 2 \times 10^{-5} \text{ cm}^2 \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ [30] and $I \sim 0.13 \text{ } \mu\text{A}$ the steady state current of Figure 2a and b.

Figure 2d, e and f provide the charge distributions extracted from the transients recorded for ϕ_{1,Ag^+} , ϕ_{2,Ag^+} and ϕ_{3,Ag^+} respectively. The charge distributions corresponding to ϕ_{1,Ag^+} and ϕ_{2,Ag^+} (Figures 2d and e) are similar, whereas the average impact frequency, f , traducing the number of NPs impacting the Au ME over time, and therefore the local NC concentration increases ($f_{1,\text{Ag}^+} \approx 2.1 \text{ Hz}$, $f_{2,\text{Ag}^+} \approx 8.3 \text{ Hz}$). It shows that doubling the Ag^+ production rate increases the NCs concentration without much changing their size, in the vicinity of the Au ME. However, as observed in Figure 2f, for >10 times increase of the Ag^+ production rate (ϕ_{3,Ag^+}), in addition to the increase of the NC concentration (impact frequency, $f_{3,\text{Ag}^+} \approx 11.3 \text{ Hz}$), the size distribution is also broadened. This distribution actually presents three populations of NCs, which were fitted by three Gaussians noted ①, ② and ③ in Figure 2f. Interestingly, the predominant population ①, is similar to the population observed at lower Ag^+ production rate ϕ_{1,Ag^+} and ϕ_{2,Ag^+} , characterized by an equivalent median charge ($Q_{1,\text{med}} = 1.14 \text{ nC}$, $Q_{2,\text{med}} = 1.14 \text{ nC}$, $Q_{3,\text{med}①} = 1 \text{ nC}$ for ϕ_{1,Ag^+} , ϕ_{2,Ag^+} and ϕ_{3,Ag^+} respectively). It suggests that the NCs median edge length is mainly independent of the Ag^+ production rate. On the other hand, the populations ② and ③ in Figure 2f most likely reflect the agglomeration of NCs of median edge length 0.7 and 1 μm respectively. It also suggests that the critical concentration needed to avoid the agglomeration is exceeded, revealing the importance of controlling the precursor concentration during the electro-synthesis of NPs in the absence of capping agent.

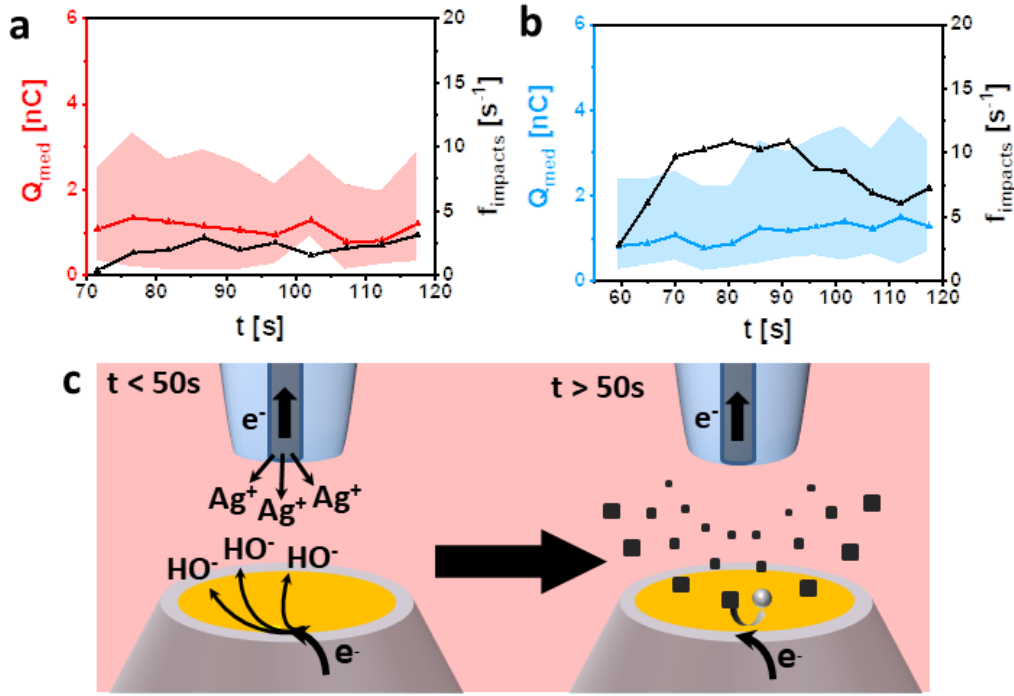


Figure 3. Median peak charge (Q_{med}) and frequency evolution as a function of time for (a) ϕ_{1,Ag^+} and (b) ϕ_{2,Ag^+} . The shaded areas correspond to the 1st and 3rd quartiles of the median peak charge. c) Illustration of the instantaneous NCs formation/collection corresponding to ϕ_{1,Ag^+} OR ϕ_{2,Ag^+} .

A closer analysis of the Au ME current transients reveals a decrease of the time of the first impact with the Ag^+ production rate, from ~ 70 s in Figure 2a to ~ 50 s in Figure 2b and to < 20 s in Figure 2c. Noteworthy, this cannot be attributed to the limit of detection which for a SNR ~ 2 would correspond to a current spike of 3nA amplitude and 10ms duration (the minimum duration extracted from the distributions in Figure SI5), i.e. a 15 pC charge for the reduction of $a \sim 130$ nm NC. The charge of the first impact detected in the transients of Figures 2a and b, 1.4 and 0.4 nC respectively are much larger than the LOD.

A further dynamic dissection of the transients of Figure 2a and Figure 2b was realized by repeating the charge and frequency analysis, but within a short time interval ($\Delta t = 5$ s) to study the evolution of both NCs edge lengths (charge) and their concentration (impact frequency) with time. The median charge and the first and third quartiles, as well as the frequency within Δt all along the transients were computed and are depicted in Figures 3a, b for ϕ_{1,Ag^+} and ϕ_{2,Ag^+} respectively. The average spike charge and the frequency remain mostly constant during the whole transient, suggesting that NCs are continuously produced at the same limited size and concentration from the onset of their detection. Typically, when they impact the Au ME they have a median size $a_{NC,med} \sim 550$ nm. The collection of such large NCs is consistent with the SEM image in Figure 1d showing that the largest NCs are located farther from the Ag wire. This suggests instantaneous and limited NCs growth, at least compared to the characteristic electrochemical collection time. One can notice that < 1 s growth of Ag_2O NPs of comparable size was evidenced previously [22]. Such fast growth could be possible if the concentration of Ag^+ and HO^- reach supersaturation conditions allowing to trigger the fast crystallization of Ag_2O as illustrated in Figure 3c. Indeed such a supersaturation condition is most likely as $C_{Ag^+} > 0.3mM$ at the Au UME meaning that the supersaturation $S = \frac{C_{HO^-} - C_{Ag^+}}{K_s} > 5$ where $K_s = 2 \times 10^{-8} M^2$ is the solubility product [31].

Considering such a mechanism, the delay between the beginning of the precursors generation and the collection of the NCs could correspond to the induction time, which can vary between 1 ms and 6000 s and is known to decrease with an increase of S [10,32]. This is qualitatively in line with the decrease of the time of first impact with the increase of S observed from ϕ_{1,Ag^+} to ϕ_{3,Ag^+} .

For the highest Ag^+ production rate, a smaller NC, $a_{NC} = 260$ nm, is first detected in Figure 2c and the dynamic analysis in Figure 4a reveals that the median NC size increases with time from $a_{NC,med} \sim 300$ nm at the first time-period Δt until it reaches, at longer times, $a_{NC,med} \sim 600$ nm similar to the limiting sizes observed for the low production rate conditions (Figure 4c).

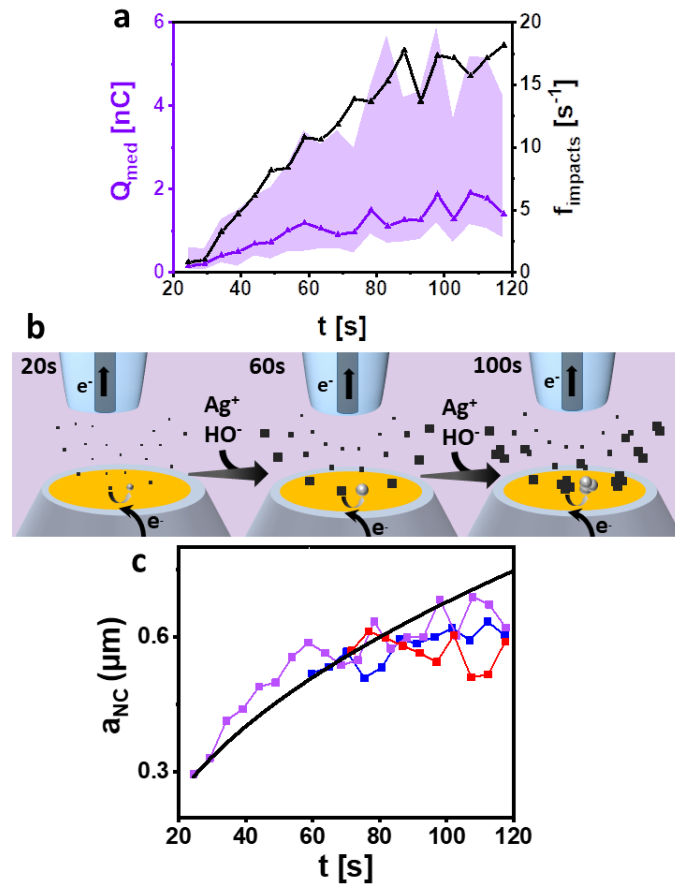


Figure 4. (a) Median peak charge (Q_{med}) and frequency evolution as a function of time for ϕ_{3,Ag^+} . The shaded areas correspond to the 1st and 3rd quartiles of the median peak charge. b) Mechanism of instantaneous formation/collection followed by overgrowth of NCs corresponding to ϕ_{3,Ag^+} . (c) Ag₂O NCs edge length extracted from Q_{med} for ϕ_{1,Ag^+} (red), ϕ_{2,Ag^+} (blue), ϕ_{3,Ag^+} (purple) and the NCs growth theoretical fit (black) using $\kappa = 0.02 \mu m^2.s^{-1}$.

The formation of smaller NCs at higher concentration is consistent with the distance effect on the NC size: the closer from the Ag^+ source, the higher the Ag^+ concentration and the smaller the NC. It is indeed expected that higher precursor concentration (higher supersaturation or Ag^+ local concentration) could produce smaller NCs [33].

On the other hand, the frequency of impact, f , also increases steadily with the electrosynthesis time from 1Hz at the first instants to ca. 17 Hz 100s later, revealing a continuous generation of new NCs. Interestingly, populations ② and ③ of NCs pointed in Figure 2f actually appear

when the frequency $f > 10$ Hz suggesting that the agglomeration phenomenon starts above this limiting frequency as illustrated in Figure 4b.

Finally, apart from the aggregates formed, the continuous increase of the median NCs size is attributed to the continuous arrival of Ag^+ and HO^- precursors allowing to feed the existing NCs through an overgrowth mechanism (Figure 4b). The dynamics of such NCs overgrowth is dynamically probed here. Assuming that the NCs overgrowth is limited by the reactants mass transfer, an apparent overgrowth rate constant κ was assessed by fitting the evolution of $a_{\text{NC},\text{med}}$ by:

$$a_{\text{NC}}(t) = a_{\text{NC},0} \sqrt{1 + \frac{\kappa}{2\pi(\sqrt[3]{\frac{3}{4\pi}}a_{\text{NC},0})^2}(t - t_0)} \quad (10)$$

with $a_{\text{NC},0} \sim 300$ nm the initial NC size estimated at $t_0 = 25$ s.

As shown in Figure 4c, the best fit is obtained with $\kappa = 0.02 \pm 0.01 \mu\text{m}^2 \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$, a value close to those obtained recently during the optical monitoring of metallic Ag NCs growth [34,35].

4 Conclusion

The SECM in a generation/collection like mode is an interesting tool to explore the mechanisms of NPs electrosynthesis. It combines a simultaneous generation of the NPs precursors and a single NP-level electroanalysis by nanoimpact coulometry. The former process is operated under controlled fluxes within the wide field of precursor diffusion in the inter-MEs gap thus forming a tunable reaction layer allowing the growth of NPs having a size gradient within this gap. The latter process exploits the much slower diffusion of NPs, in the near field of the collecting ME allowing to probe a small fraction of the NCs (<10%) and synthesized close to it. The EC impact then allows to dynamically and *in situ* monitor the modes of growth of NPs without perturbation of their synthesis, while the SEM, as a complementary technique, provides a distance effect but at a given time. It is illustrated herein for the electrosynthesis of Ag_2O NCs through the analysis of the effect of Ag^+ precursor electrogenerated rate on their growth mode. It is shown that the NC formation proceeds by an instantaneous crystallization of unexpectedly large (>260nm) nuclei-NCs whose size or concentration is dictated by the Ag^+ local concentration, suggesting a growth controlled by a supersaturation mechanism. At higher Ag^+ production rate, both the NCs size and concentration increase along the electrosynthesis time. The NC size increase is assigned to a mass-transfer driven crystallization over the nuclei-NCs. At high NC concentration the aggregation of NC into $\sim 1\mu\text{m}$ aggregates. This preliminary *operando* methodology shows how electrochemical impacts strategy in SECM can be used to reveal the NPs growth mechanism and could be extended to apprehend many other (oxide) NP electrosynthesis.

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