

Potential-Dependent and Face Orientation-Dependent Electrochemical Oxidative Desorption Behavior of Sulfur Species Adsorbed on Platinum Single-Crystal Surfaces

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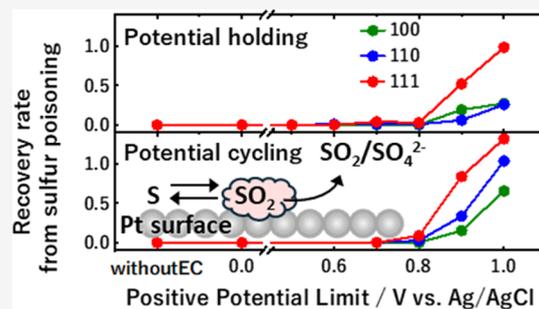
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ABSTRACT: We investigated the effect of surface atomic arrangements of electrodes on electrochemical oxidative desorption behavior of sulfur species at Pt single-crystal electrodes with face orientations of (111), (110), and (100) by electrochemical measurements, X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS), and density functional theory (DFT) calculations. Upon the adsorption of elemental sulfur, electrochemical responses characteristic to Pt(111), Pt(110), and Pt(100) electrodes in aqueous electrolytes such as adsorption/desorption of hydrogen and hydroxyl species completely disappeared, and S 2p peaks attributed to the adsorbed sulfur appeared in XPS at each electrode. Those surface-structure-dependent electrochemical responses gradually recovered, simultaneously with the decrease of S 2p peaks, by cycling to or holding at positive potentials due to the oxidative desorption of adsorbed sulfur. The recovery of the electrochemically active surface area (ECSA) was promoted by keeping the potential more positive for a longer period. Among the three different face orientations, the oxidative desorption of sulfur started from the least positive potential at the Pt(111) electrode in both experiments, showing that the atomic arrangement of the Pt(111) electrode is most advantageous for the recovery of ECSA from sulfur poisoning. In the potential holding experiment, the oxidative desorption of sulfur occurred at less positive potential at the Pt(111), Pt(100), and Pt(110) electrodes in that order. One of the mechanistic reasons is explained with the DFT calculations, which evidenced that the adsorption energies of SO₂ at the Pt(111), Pt(100), and Pt(110) electrodes are in the same order. This correlation suggests that the desorption of SO₂ formed by the oxidation of the adsorbed sulfur is an important step. In the potential cycling experiment, however, the oxidative desorption of sulfur more easily occurred at the Pt(111), Pt(110), and Pt(100) electrodes in that order. Once the adsorbed sulfur is oxidized to SO₂, SO₂ desorbs from the surface or remains at the surface to be subsequently reduced to elemental sulfur in the negative potential scan. Since the reduction of SO₂ to elemental sulfur more easily occurs at Pt(100) than at the other two electrodes, the recovery of ECSA at the Pt(100) electrode became slower in the potential cycling experiment. Thus, the fate of SO₂ formed by the oxidation of sulfur is one of the important factors affecting the recovery rate of ECSA from sulfur poisoning.

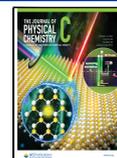


1. INTRODUCTION

Polymer electrolyte membrane fuel cells (PEMFCs) are a promising technology to convert chemical energy to electrical energy with very high theoretical efficiency.¹ In PEMFCs, supplied hydrogen is oxidized in the anode, while oxygen from the air is reduced in the cathode, and these multielectron transfer reactions occur at the surface of the platinum (Pt) electrocatalyst.^{2,3} However, the cell performance of PEMFCs is severely degraded by the adsorption of pollutants and impurities present in air and hydrogen fuel gas.⁴ Because sulfur species such as elemental S, H₂S, C₂S, COS, and SO₂ strongly adsorb on the surface of Pt electrocatalysts to suppress or rather enhance the electrochemical processes,^{1,5–12} understanding and control of adsorption/desorption behavior of sulfur species at Pt surfaces are especially important to sustain the inherent cell performance of PEMFCs.

In the 1980s and 1990s, the structures of sulfur adlayer with less than a monolayer (ML) coverage at Pt single-crystal surfaces have been studied on an atomic scale from the fundamental point of view.^{13–17} These studies determined well-ordered atomic arrangements of adsorbed sulfur, such as ($\sqrt{3} \times \sqrt{3}$)-R30° (0.3 ML) at the Pt(111),^{13,16,17} $p(4 \times 4)$ (0.8 ML) at the Pt(110),¹⁴ and ($\sqrt{2} \times \sqrt{2}$)-R45° (0.5 ML) at the Pt(100) surfaces,^{13,15} by various surface characterization techniques

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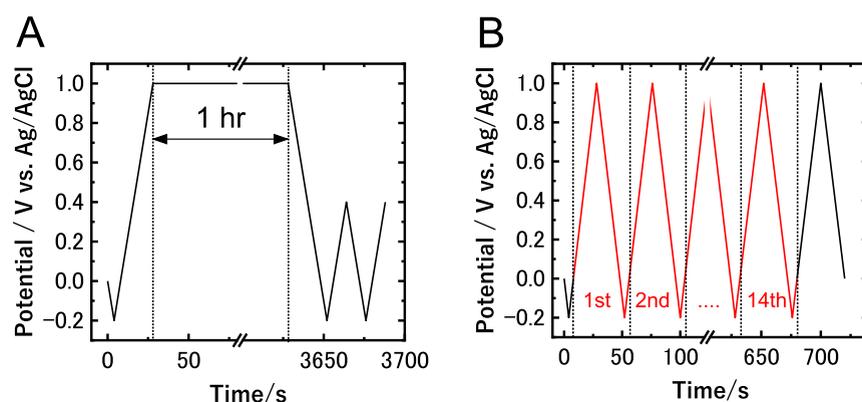


Figure 1. Potential regulation for (A) potential holding and (B) potential cycling experiments (corresponding to the case where the positive potential limit is set to 1.0 V).

including low-energy electron diffraction^{13,14} and scanning tunneling microscopy.^{15–17}

Afterward, the electro-oxidation behavior of sulfur at Pt surfaces has been extensively studied by using Pt nanoparticles supported on carbon electrodes, from a perspective of mitigation of sulfur poisoning in PEMFCs.^{8,9,18–23} However, the surfaces of Pt nanoparticles are mostly composed of (111) and (100) facets together with their steps/kinks/ledges under thermodynamic equilibria, and thus, averaged information for a variety of reaction active sites can be obtained from electrochemical and spectroscopic analyses using Pt nanoparticles.

Recently, to understand the site-dependent electro-oxidation mechanism of sulfur, a few groups have revisited the fundamental electrochemical properties of Pt single-crystal electrodes with different face orientations in the presence of sulfur species.^{13,24–27} The adsorption of sulfur on the Pt(111) surface caused the almost complete disappearance of characteristic current responses in sulfuric acid corresponding to the adsorption/desorption of hydrogen and hydroxyl species, while the oxidative desorption of sulfur by the electrochemical potential cycling in the range of -0.28 to $+0.82$ V vs Ag/AgCl led to the recovery of those current responses.^{24,25} It should be noted that although the adsorbed structures of sulfur on each of the Pt(111), Pt(110), and Pt(100) single-crystal surfaces were fully determined on an atomic scale,^{13–17,24,25} their effects on the oxidative desorption behavior are not fully understood.

In the present work, we further systematically studied the potential-dependent and face orientation-dependent adsorption/desorption behavior of sulfur at the Pt(111), Pt(110), and Pt(100) single-crystal electrodes by electrochemical measurements in perchloric acid, X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS), surface X-ray diffraction (SXRD), and density functional theory (DFT) calculations to explicitly clarify the oxidative desorption mechanism about PEMFCs.

2. METHODS

2.1. Materials. The Pt(111), Pt(110), and Pt(100) single-crystal disks (99.99%, diameter: 10 mm, thickness: 5 mm) were purchased from the Surface Preparation Laboratory. Ultrapure reagent-grade HClO₄ (60%) and reagent-grade Na₂S (98.0%) were purchased from Wako Pure Chemicals, and first-grade 5% SO₂ aqueous solution purchased from Sigma-Aldrich was used without further purification. Water was purified using a Milli-Q system (ELGA LabWater). Ultrapure Ar (99.999%)/H₂ (99.999%) mixed gases (95:5) were purchased from Suzuki Shokan.

2.2. Sample Preparation. Prior to each measurement, the Pt single-crystal electrodes were annealed using an induction heater at 1600 °C for more than 1 h under the flowing Ar/H₂ mixed gas.^{28–31} After cooling under the flowing Ar/H₂ mixed gas for 7 min, the clean Pt single-crystal electrodes were immersed in a 1 mM Na₂S aqueous solution under the flowing Ar/H₂ mixed gas for 1 h to form S-adsorbed Pt single-crystal electrodes. After being rinsed with water, those S-adsorbed Pt single-crystal electrodes were transferred to the electrochemical cell filled with an S-free 0.1 M HClO₄ aqueous electrolyte solution, with a droplet of water kept on the surface to avoid any surface contamination.

2.3. Electrochemical Measurements. Electrochemical measurements were performed at room temperature by using a three-electrode electrochemical cell in the hanging-meniscus configuration. An Ag/AgCl electrode (saturated NaCl, +0.200 V vs RHE),^{32,33} Pt wire, and the Pt single-crystal electrodes were used as a reference, counter, and working electrode, respectively. The potential of the working electrode was controlled by a potentiostat (Hokuto Denko, HAB-151A). Potential-dependent current responses were recorded by using a data logger (Graphtec, GL900). Cyclic voltammetry (CV) measurements of the Pt single-crystal electrodes were carried out in an S-free 0.1 M HClO₄ aqueous electrolyte solution deaerated by ultrapure Ar gas, unless otherwise specified. To clarify the mechanism of oxidative desorption, the electrode potential was regulated in two ways: (1) potential holding at “positive potential limit” for 1 h followed by cycling to the less positive potential and (2) potential cycling to the positive potential limit, for both of which the negative potential limit was set to -0.2 V (Figure 1).

2.4. XPS Measurements. XPS measurements were performed using AXIS-NOVA (Shimadzu Kratos) equipped with a monochromatic Al K α source at an operating X-ray power of 300 W without charge neutralization. The photoelectron takeoff angle was fixed at 90°. The analysis area was a spot with a diameter of 110 μ m, and the energy of the photoelectrons passing through the analyzer (pass energy) was 80 eV. The vacuum pressure in the analysis chamber was $\sim 1.5 \times 10^{-8}$ Torr. The position of the Pt 4f_{7/2} peak was calibrated to 71.2 eV, and the intensity of the S 2p peak was normalized by dividing by that of the Pt 4f peak of the same sample.

2.5. SXRD Measurements. The SXRD measurements were carried out using a spectroelectrochemical cell as previously reported.^{31,34} The electrode potential was controlled with a potentiostat/galvanostat (Hokuto Denko, HA-151), and an

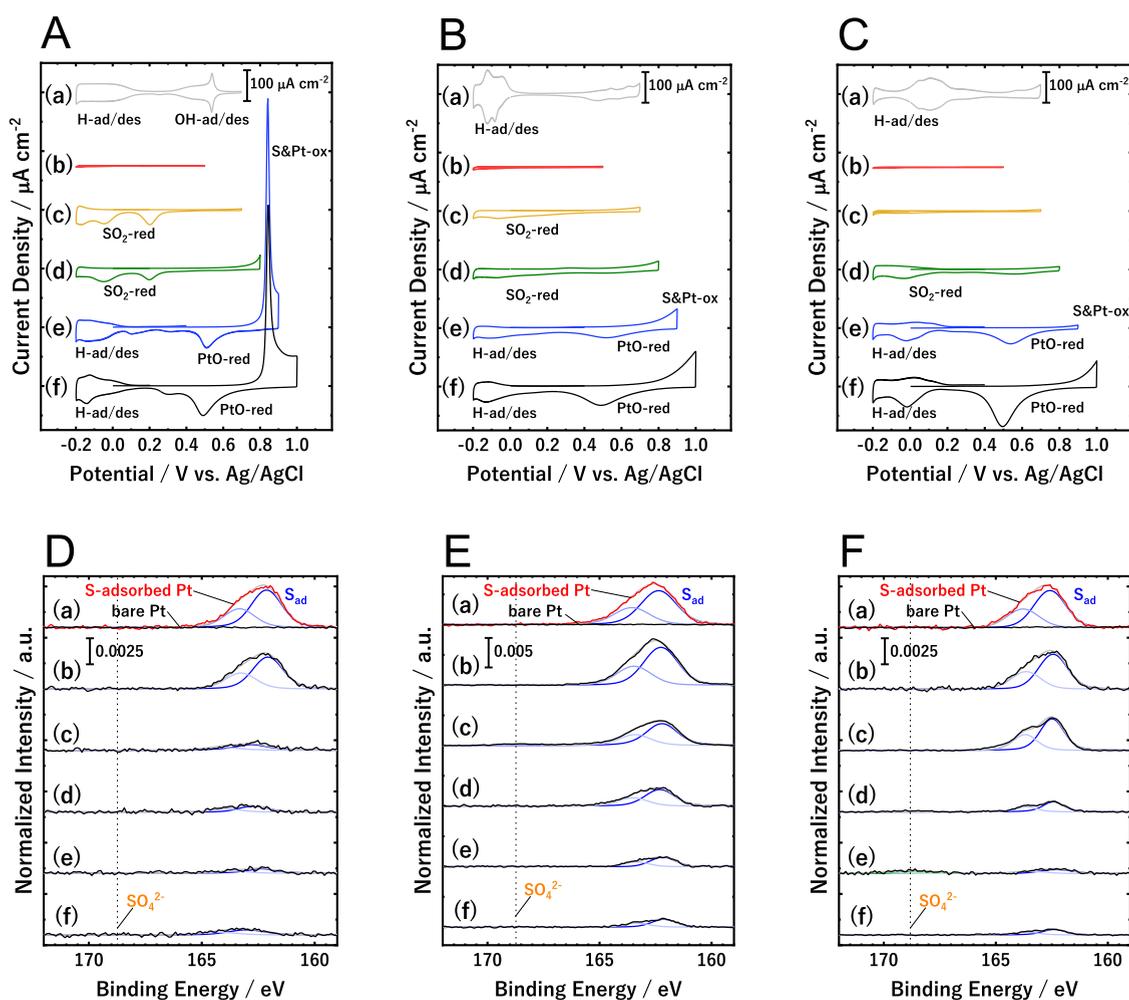


Figure 2. Cyclic voltammograms of (a) bare and S-adsorbed (A) Pt(111), (B) Pt(110), and (C) Pt(100) electrodes measured in a 0.1 M HClO₄ aqueous solution with a scan rate of 50 mV s⁻¹ accompanied by preceding potential holding at (b) 0.5, (c) 0.7, (d) 0.8, (e) 0.9, and (f) 1.0 V for 1 h. Photoelectron spectra in the S 2p region of (a) bare and S-adsorbed (D) Pt(111), (E) Pt(110), and (F) Pt(100) electrodes obtained (a) before and after the CV measurements accompanied by preceding potential holding at (b) 0.5, (c) 0.7, (d) 0.8, (e) 0.9, and (f) 1.0 V.

external potential was provided by a function generator (Hokuto Denko, HB-111). A Pt wire and Ag/AgCl (saturated NaCl, +0.200 V vs RHE)^{32,33} electrode were used as a counter and reference electrode, respectively. The spectroelectrochemical cell was set on a four-circle diffractometer (HUBER, type 5020) installed in an undulator beamline BL3A at the Photon Factory. The intensity of the incident X-rays was measured by an ion chamber, which was placed in front of the sample, to normalize the intensity of diffracted X-rays. The incident X-ray energy of 11.27 keV (wavelength: 1.10 Å) was selected to avoid any fluorescence background from the Pt electrode. An energy-sensitive silicon drift detector was used to detect diffracted X-rays. For the SXRD measurements, hexagonal, square, and rectangular coordinate systems in which H and K are parallel to the surface and L is normal to the surface were used at (111), (100), and (110) surfaces. The SXRD profiles were measured at $L = 0.2$ (incident angle: ca. 0.3–0.6°).

2.6. Computational Details. The Pt(111), Pt(110), and Pt(100) surfaces were constructed from the bulk Pt. The lattice constants of the Pt bulk were optimized with the DFT. This procedure gives the lattice constant of 3.92 Å, which is in good agreement with the experimental value (3.91 Å).³⁵ For the lateral directions, a 3 × 3 supercell was taken for Pt(111), while a 2 × 2 supercell was taken for Pt(110) and Pt(100). Eight atomic

layers were taken for all surfaces. The number of Pt atoms was 72, 32, and 32 for Pt(111), Pt(110), and Pt(100). For these surface models, the lower two atomic layers were fixed during the geometry optimization, and other layers were fixed to mimic the bulk behavior. The adsorption site of SO₂ is determined according to the previous theoretical study.³⁶

In the DFT calculations, the core electrons were represented by the projector augmented-wave method,³⁷ and the valence electrons were expanded by the plane wave basis set up to a cutoff energy of 500 eV. Several exchange–correlation functions were examined in this work: PBE,³⁸ PBE-D3 with Becke–Johnson damping,^{38,39} vdW-DFT,⁴⁰ BEEF-vdW,⁴¹ and opt-PBE functionals,⁴² as these functionals are relatively more accurate than the standard generalized gradient approximation functionals. The optimization of bulk Pt was done with the PBEsol functional.⁴³ The first-order Methfessel–Paxton scheme with $\sigma = 0.01$ was used for smearing the electron occupation near the Fermi level. The convergence thresholds for the electronic state calculation and geometry optimization were set to 1.0×10^{-5} eV and 0.03 eV/Å in energy and force, respectively (in the bulk Pt optimization, the convergence threshold of ion relaxation was set to 1.0×10^{-6} eV in energy). Integration in the reciprocal lattice space was performed by numerical integration using k -points, which were placed such that the spacing between them

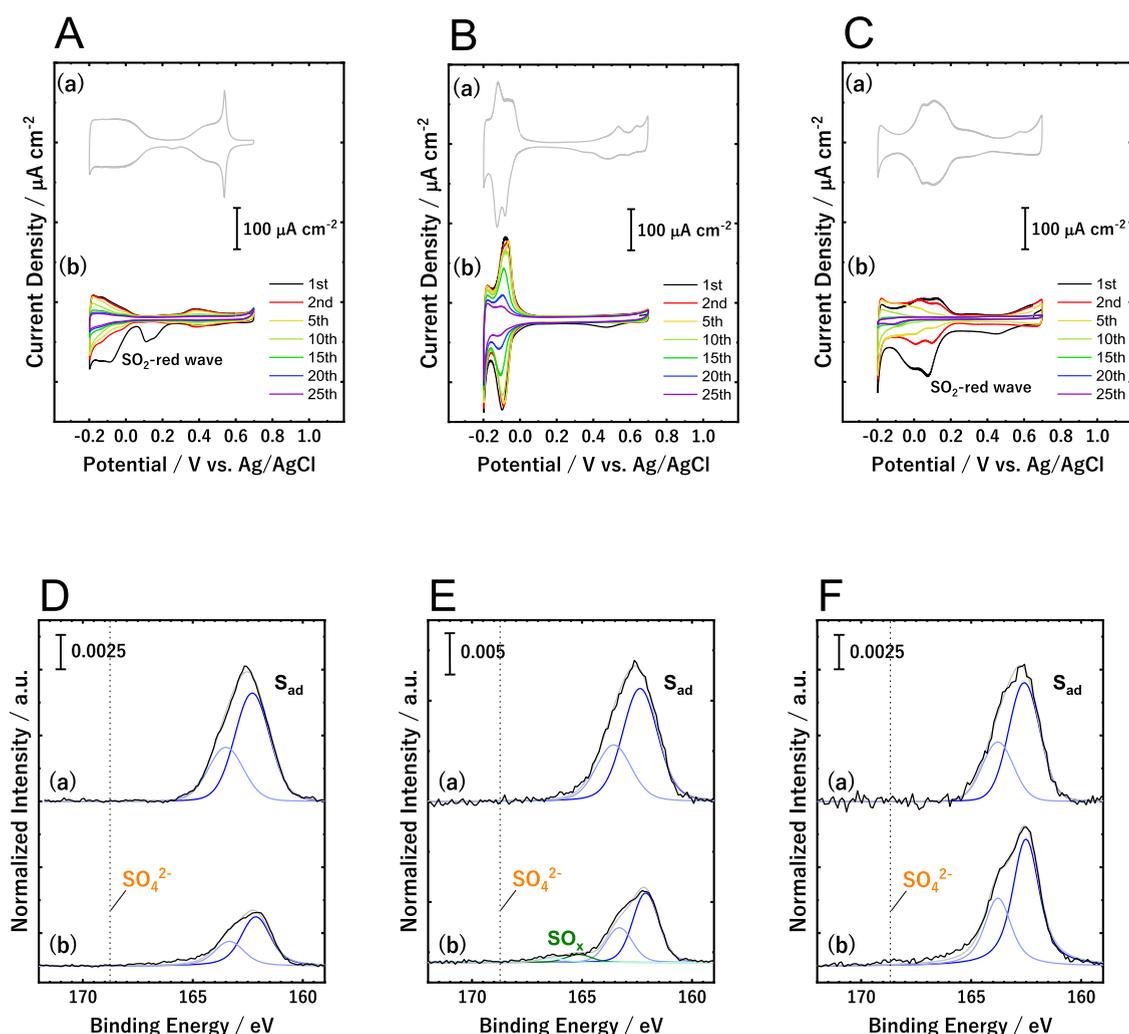


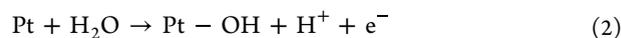
Figure 3. Cyclic voltammograms of S-free bare (A) Pt(111), (B) Pt(110), and (C) Pt(100) electrodes measured in a 0.1 M HClO₄ aqueous solution (a) without and (b) with 1 mM SO₂ with a scan rate of 50 mV s⁻¹. For the cyclic voltammograms measured in a 1 mM SO₂-containing solution, 1st (black), 2nd (red), 5th (yellow), 10th (light green), 15th (green), 20th (blue), and 25th cycles (purple) were shown. Photoelectron spectra in the S 2p region of (D) Pt(111), (E) Pt(110), and (F) Pt(100) electrodes obtained after (a) immersing in a 1 mM Na₂S aqueous solution under the flowing Ar/H₂ mixed gas for 1 h and (b) potential cycling in a 0.1 M HClO₄ aqueous solution containing 1 mM SO₂ with the positive potential limit of 0.7 V for 25 times.

was 0.3 Å⁻¹, while in the bulk Pt optimization, the spacing was set to 0.1 Å⁻¹. The gamma point was always included. For an isolated molecule, i.e., SO₂ calculation, a single *k*-point was placed on the gamma point. A vacuum layer with a thickness of 12 Å was placed between the slabs, and a dipole correction in the *z*-direction was introduced to remove the artificial interaction between the slabs. All the calculations were performed with the Vienna ab initio simulation package (VASP) version 5.4.^{44,45} The visualization of the molecular or surface structures was made with VESTA software.⁴⁶

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

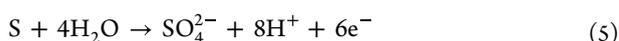
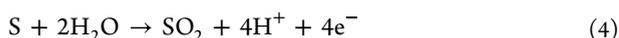
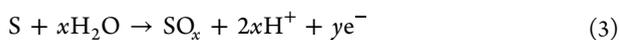
3.1. Electrochemical Properties of Bare and S-Adsorbed Pt Surfaces and Potential Holding Experiment. Figure 2A–C shows cyclic voltammograms of bare and S-adsorbed Pt(111), Pt(110), and Pt(100) electrodes in a 0.1 M HClO₄ aqueous solution obtained after keeping the potential at the various positive potential limits for 1 h. The cyclic voltammogram of the bare Pt(111) electrode (Figure 2A(a), gray) showed characteristic current responses attributed to

adsorption/desorption of hydrogen (−0.20 to +0.15 V, reaction 1) and hydroxyl species (+0.30 to +0.60 V, reaction 2).^{29,47} The cyclic voltammograms of bare Pt(110) (Figure 2B(a), gray) and Pt(100) electrodes (Figure 2C(a), gray) were also identical to those of the literature.^{29,47}



After the treatment with Na₂S solution, those characteristic current responses in cyclic voltammograms completely disappeared at each electrode (Figure 2A–C(b), red), indicating the blocking of adsorption/desorption of hydrogen and hydroxyl species due to the presence of adsorbed sulfur. Corresponding to these changes in cyclic voltammograms, a doublet peak assignable to the elemental sulfur adsorbed on Pt appeared at 162.4 and 163.6 eV in the S 2p region of photoelectron spectra for all of Pt(111), Pt(100), and Pt(110) electrodes (Figure 2D–F(a), red).^{48–50} The normalized peak intensity of adsorbed sulfur at the Pt(110) electrode (Figure 2E(a), red) was somewhat larger than those at (nearly twice

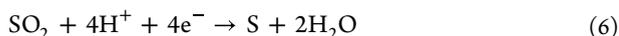
those of) the Pt(111) (Figure 2D(a), red) and Pt(100) electrodes (Figure 2F(a), red). This is in reasonable agreement with the coverages of sulfur, i.e., the ratios of the number of surface S and Pt atoms, 0.3 ML at the Pt(111) electrode with the $(\sqrt{3} \times \sqrt{3})\text{-R}30^\circ$ structure,^{13,16,17} 0.8 ML at the Pt(110) electrode with the $p(4 \times 4)$ structure,¹⁴ and 0.5 ML at the Pt(100) electrode with the $(\sqrt{2} \times \sqrt{2})\text{-R}45^\circ$ structure,^{13,15} as summarized in Table S1 in the Supporting Information. It is noted that the intensities and positions of S 2p peaks shown in Figure 2D–F were calibrated by those of Pt 4f peaks of the same samples. In addition, the adsorbed structures of sulfur, $(\sqrt{3} \times \sqrt{3})\text{-R}30^\circ$ at the Pt(111) and $(\sqrt{2} \times \sqrt{2})\text{-R}45^\circ$ at the Pt(100) electrodes, were evident by the SXRD peaks at $(0\ 2/\sqrt{3}\ 0.2)$ and $(0\ 1/\sqrt{2}\ 0.2)$ reciprocal lattice points, respectively, as shown in Figure S1 in the Supporting Information.



The potential holding at 0.5 V did not cause much change in the cyclic voltammograms (Figure 2A–C(b), red) and photoelectron spectra of the S 2p region (Figure 2D–F(b)). When the holding potential became more positive, however, the oxidation current started to flow at around 0.6 V at the Pt(111), Pt(110), and Pt(100) electrodes (the cyclic voltammograms shown in Figure 2A–C(d–f) are magnified in Figure S2A–C in the Supporting Information). These oxidation currents should be due to the electrochemical oxidative desorption of adsorbed sulfur (reactions 3–5)²³ because the intensities of S 2p peaks substantially decreased after the potential holding at 0.7 V or more positive (Figure 2D–F(c–f), yellow to black).

The oxygen source for the oxidation of elemental sulfur is considered to be oxygen species adsorbed on the Pt surfaces, such as hydroxyl species and water molecules. The adsorbed amounts of oxygen species at “bare” Pt(111), Pt(110), and Pt(100) single-crystal electrodes after electrochemical treatments at various electrode potentials were systematically studied by electrochemical-XPS.⁵¹ The electrochemical-XPS showed that, at all the face orientations, adsorbed OH and/or H₂O was detected after the electrochemical treatment at 0.5 V vs RHE (~ 0.3 V vs Ag/AgCl) or more positive. In the present study, the Pt(111), Pt(110), and Pt(100) surfaces were covered by the adsorbed sulfur before the electrochemical measurements in $(\sqrt{3} \times \sqrt{3})\text{-R}30^\circ$ with a coverage of 0.3 ML,^{13,16,17} $p(4 \times 4)$ with a coverage of 0.8 ML,¹⁴ and $(\sqrt{2} \times \sqrt{2})\text{-R}45^\circ$ with a coverage of 0.5 ML,^{13,15} respectively. According to the adsorbed structure of sulfur at each surface (Figure S1), however, there are still sufficient vacant adsorption sites for oxygen species.

Moreover, current waves (-0.1 to $+0.3$ V) attributable to the reduction of SO₂ to elemental sulfur or sulfur interacting with Pt (see below in Figure 3, reaction 6)⁵² were clearly observed in the negative going scan after the potential holding at 0.7 V (Figure 2A–C(c), yellow), especially at the Pt(111) electrode (Figure 2A(c), yellow).



These results show that the adsorbed sulfur is oxidized to SO₂ and/or SO₄²⁻ at 0.7 V or more positive, and then some of those oxidized sulfur species desorb from the Pt surface and diffuse into the bulk solution, while the remaining SO₂ at the Pt surface is reduced to the adsorbed sulfur.

After holding the potential at 0.7 V for 1 h, where the oxidation currents were barely observed at the S-adsorbed Pt(111) electrode (Figure 2A(c), yellow and magnified in Figure S2A), the S 2p peaks almost disappeared at the Pt(111) electrode (Figure 2D(c)). When the positive potential limit, i.e., holding potential, was extended to 0.9 V or more positive at the Pt(111) electrode (Figure 2A(e,f), blue and black), a sharp oxidation peak was observed at around 0.84 V in the positive going scan, and a broad reduction peak of Pt oxide was observed at around 0.5 V in the negative going scan, as well as the recovered current waves due to the adsorption/desorption of hydrogen and hydroxyl species. This confirms that the above-mentioned sharp peak is due to the oxidation of sulfur and the Pt electrode, which brings about the recovery of the electrochemically active surface area (ECSA). The difference between the charge integration of the sharp sulfur oxidation peak at 0.84 V, 423 $\mu\text{C cm}^{-2}$, and that of the broad Pt oxide reduction peak at 0.5 V, 58 $\mu\text{C cm}^{-2}$, was in reasonable agreement with the theoretical charge density of four-electron oxidation of sulfur adsorbed on the Pt(111) surface in the $(\sqrt{3} \times \sqrt{3})\text{-R}30^\circ$ structure, 322 $\mu\text{C cm}^{-2}$, implying that the major oxidation product is SO₂ (reaction 4).

The oxidative desorption of sulfur at the Pt(110) and Pt(100) electrodes occurred at a more positive potential than at the Pt(111) electrode. After holding the potential of the S-adsorbed Pt(110) electrode at 0.7 V, current wave due to the SO₂ reduction appeared in the CV (Figure 2B(c), yellow) and S 2p peaks substantially decreased (Figure 2E(c)). In the case of the S-adsorbed Pt(100) electrode, the SO₂ reduction current and the decrease of S 2p peaks were barely observed after holding the potential at 0.7 V [Figure 2C(c), yellow and Figure 2F(c)] but more pronounced at 0.8 V [Figure 2C(d), green and Figure 2F(d)]. The oxidative desorption of sulfur at the Pt(110) and Pt(100) electrodes was almost completed by holding the potential at 1.0 V [Figure 2E(f)] and 0.9 V [Figure 2F(e)] for 1 h, respectively.

It is noted that, after the potential holding at 0.9 V or more positive [Figure 2A–C(e,f), blue and black], the shape of current waves due to the adsorption/desorption of hydrogen and hydroxyl species were substantially different from those of original bare electrodes because the original surface atomic arrangements of the Pt(111), Pt(110), and Pt(100) electrodes were severely compromised due to the oxidation and successive reduction.^{51,53–56}

3.2. Electrochemical Reduction of SO₂ to Elemental Sulfur at Bare Pt Surfaces. Figure 3A–C shows cyclic voltammograms of S-free bare Pt(111), Pt(110), and Pt(100) electrodes in a 0.1 M HClO₄ aqueous solution containing 1 mM SO₂, together with those without 1 mM SO₂ for comparison. At the Pt(111) electrode, current waves attributed to the reduction of SO₂ were certainly observed in the potential range of -0.1 to $+0.3$ V in the negative going scan of the first cycle (Figure 3A(b), black),⁵² together with hydrogen adsorption/desorption waves (-0.2 to $+0.15$ V). In the second cycle (Figure 3A(b), red), the SO₂ reduction waves significantly decreased, while the hydrogen adsorption/desorption waves remained. Increasing the number of potential cycling between -0.2 and $+0.7$ V (Figure 3A(b), yellow to purple), however, the hydrogen adsorption–desorption waves gradually decreased. Figure 3D–F shows the XPS results of the relevant specimens. After the potential cycling for 25 times, a doublet peak due to the adsorbed elemental sulfur, not oxidized sulfur species such as SO₂, SO₃, and SO₄²⁻, was observed in the S 2p region of the photoelectron spectrum

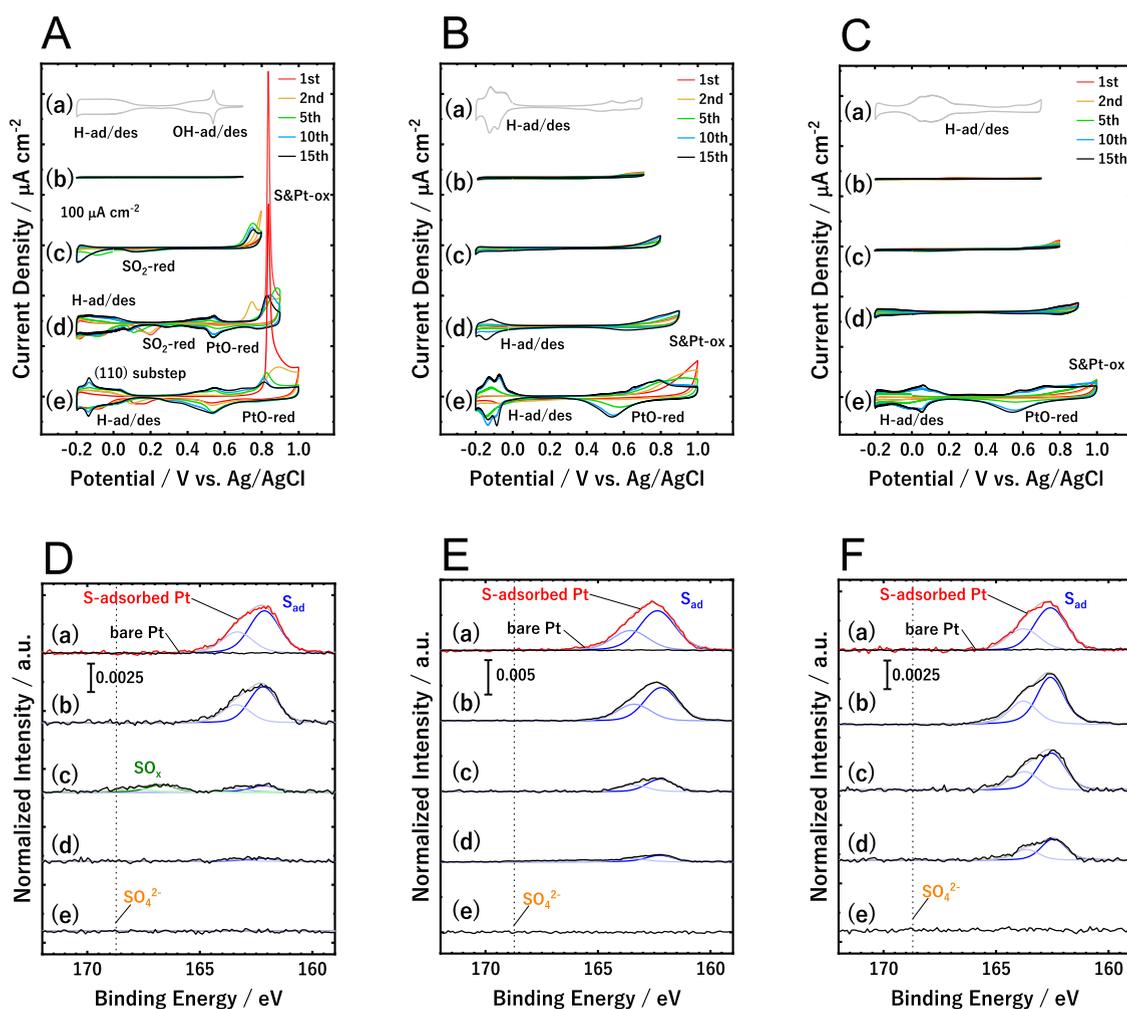


Figure 4. Cyclic voltammograms of (a) bare and S-adsorbed (A) Pt(111), (B) Pt(110), and (C) Pt(100) electrodes measured in a 0.1 M HClO₄ aqueous solution with a scan rate of 50 mV s⁻¹, with the positive potential limits of (b) 0.7, (c) 0.8, (d) 0.9, and (e) 1.0 V. For the cyclic voltammograms of S-adsorbed Pt electrodes, 1st (red), 2nd (yellow), 5th (green), 10th (blue), and 15th cycles (black) were shown. Photoelectron spectra in the S 2p region of (a) bare and S-adsorbed (D) Pt(111), (E) Pt(110), and (F) Pt(100) electrodes obtained (a) before and after the potential cycling with the positive potential limit of (b) 0.7, (c) 0.8, (d) 0.9, and (e) 1.0 V for 14 times.

[Figure 3D(b)]. Although the SO₂ reduction waves in cyclic voltammograms at the Pt(110) [Figure 3B(b), black] and Pt(100) electrodes [Figure 3C(b), black] were not as clear as that at the Pt(111) electrode [Figure 3A(b), black], S 2p peaks originating from the adsorbed elemental sulfur were observed in the photoelectron spectra of the Pt(110) [Figure 3E(b)] and Pt(100) electrodes [Figure 3F(b)] after the potential cycling for 25 times. These results confirm that some of the oxidatively formed SO₂ can be reduced to adsorbed sulfur in the negative going scan.

At the Pt(111) [Figure 3D(b)] and Pt(110) electrodes [Figure 3E(b)], the intensities of S 2p peaks, i.e., the adsorbed amount of sulfur after the potential cycling in the SO₂-containing solution, were somewhat smaller than those at the Pt(111) [Figure 3D(a)] and Pt(110) electrodes [Figure 3E(a)] immersed in a 1 mM Na₂S aqueous solution, respectively. In contrast, the intensities of S 2p peaks at the Pt(100) electrodes after immersion in a 1 mM Na₂S aqueous solution [Figure 3F(a)] and the potential cycling in the SO₂-containing solution [Figure 3F(b)] were almost the same as each other. These results suggest that the SO₂ reduction and resulting readsorption

of sulfur are more likely to occur at the Pt(100) electrode than at the Pt(111) and Pt(110) electrodes.

3.3. Electrochemical Properties of Bare and S-Adsorbed Pt Surfaces and Potential Cycling Experiment.

Figure 4 shows cyclic voltammograms of bare and S-adsorbed Pt(111), Pt(110), and Pt(100) electrodes in a 0.1 M HClO₄ aqueous solution in the various potential ranges (A–C) with the related XPS results (D–F). As is the case of the potential holding experiment (Figure 2), current responses characteristic to the bare Pt(111), Pt(110), and Pt(100) electrodes [Figure 4A–C(a), gray] completely disappeared after the adsorption of sulfur [Figure 4A–C(b), black], and a doublet peak corresponding to the adsorbed sulfur appeared in the S 2p region of photoelectron spectra [Figure 4D–F(a)]. The potential cycling for 15 times with a positive potential limit of 0.7 V did not change the cyclic voltammograms [Figure 4A–C(b), red to black] and photoelectron spectra of the S 2p region [Figure 4D–F(b)], confirming the blocking of adsorption/desorption of hydrogen and hydroxyl species by the adsorbed sulfur. It is noted that, in the potential cycling experiment (Figure 4A–C), the oxidative desorption of sulfur and recovery of electrochemical current responses occurred with more positive potential limits than in

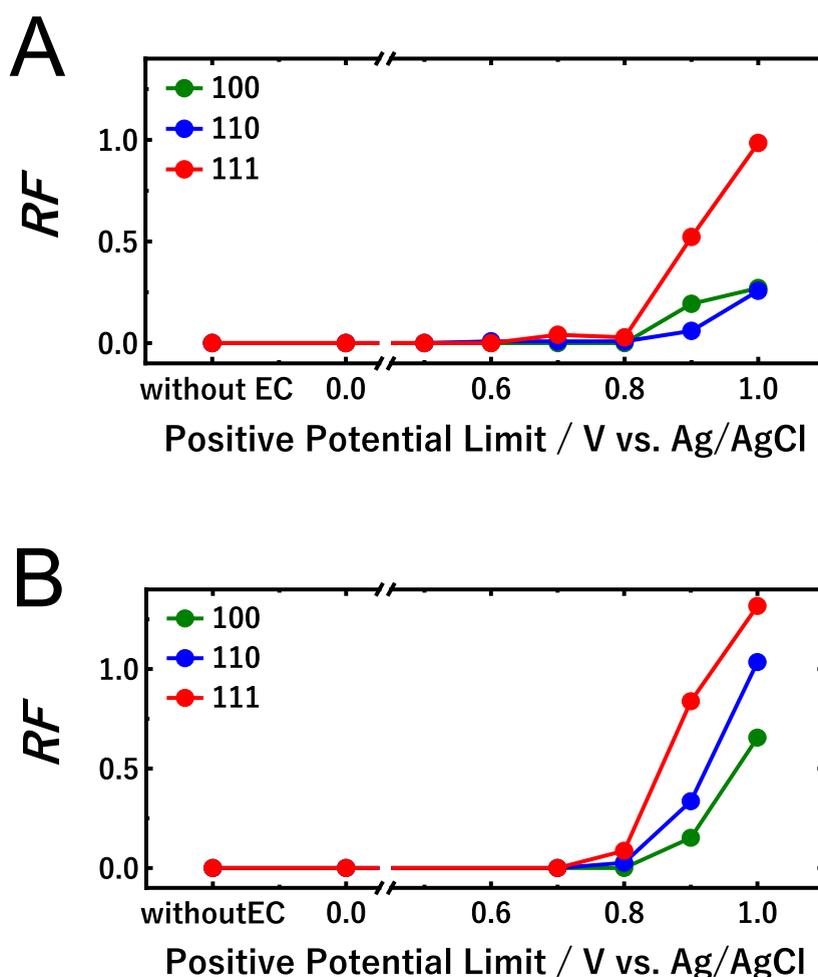


Figure 5. Recovery factor, RF, for (A) potential holding and (B) potential cycling experiments of the S-adsorbed Pt(111), Pt(110), and Pt(100) electrodes with respect to the positive potential limit.

the potential holding experiment (Figure 2A–C) because the potential holding experiment kept the potential at the positive limit for a longer period than the potential cycling experiment, as shown in Figure 1.

After the potential cycling with the positive limit of 0.8 V for 15 times [Figure 4A–C(c), red to black], the S 2p peaks decreased significantly at the Pt(111) [Figure 4D(c)] and Pt(110) electrodes [Figure 4E(c)] and slightly at the Pt(100) electrode [Figure 4F(c)]. Only at the Pt(111) electrode after the potential cycling up to 0.8 V for 15 times, a new S 2p peak appeared at 166.7 eV [Figure 4D(c)], assignable to the oxidatively formed sulfur oxides such as SO₂ and SO₃, which can specifically adsorb on the Pt surfaces.⁵⁷ As the positive potential limit became 0.9 V or more positive, the current responses due to the adsorption/desorption of hydrogen and hydroxyl species gradually recovered with the number of cycles [Figure 4A–C(d,e), red to black]. Thus, the increase of the current responses, i.e., recovery of ECSA, and decrease of the S 2p peak intensity, i.e., desorption of sulfur, became more pronounced as the number of cycles increased and/or the positive potential limit became more positive. After the potential cycling up to 1.0 V for 15 times [Figure 4A–C(e), red to black], the increase of ECSA and changes in cyclic voltammograms from those of original bare Pt(111), Pt(110), and Pt(100) electrodes due to the change in their atomic arrangement were more significant than those of the potential holding experiment

[Figure 2A–C(f), black]. Especially, a new reversible peak appeared at around –0.15 V at the Pt(111) electrode [Figure 4A(e), black] due to the formation of the (110) substep.^{58–60} These results show that the roughening of Pt surfaces was accelerated by repeating place-exchange of oxygen and Pt accompanying oxidation/reduction cycles when the potential was swept up to the potential range where Pt oxide was formed.⁶¹

One may be concerned that the surface roughening affects the oxidative desorption of sulfur at the Pt surfaces because the created defect sites can alter the adsorption behavior of sulfur and oxygen species. This effect can be discussed by using the cyclic voltammograms of the Pt(111) electrode with the positive potential limit of 1.0 V [Figure 4A(e)] as an example. The current peak due to the reduction of Pt oxide at 0.5 V was very small in the first potential cycling up to 1.0 V [Figure 4A(e), red], showing that the Pt oxide formation was rather suppressed by the adsorbed sulfur. In addition, the hydrogen adsorption/desorption current recovered up to ~60% in the second potential cycling [Figure 4A(e), yellow] while maintaining the characteristic shape of hydrogen adsorption/desorption waves at the Pt(111) electrode. Thus, the oxidative desorption of sulfur occurs prior to the surface roughening caused by repeating the Pt oxide formation and reduction. Furthermore, it was reported that S species rather preferentially adsorb on the flat terrace.⁶²

Accordingly, the effect of surface roughening is considered to be not significant.

3.4. Recovery from the Sulfur Poisoning and Their Face Orientation Dependence at Pt Surfaces. Due to the significant importance of the oxidative desorption of sulfur from Pt(111), Pt(110), and Pt(100), which can be varied with different electrochemical treatments (i.e., potential holding or cycling, positive potential limit), for the use of Pt electrodes in the fuel cells, the recovery factor (RF) is defined as follows (equation 7) based on the electrochemical charge integrations of hydrogen desorption at the Pt electrodes (Figure S3 in the Supporting Information).

$$\text{RF} = \frac{C_{\text{S-adsorbed},X}}{C_{\text{bare}}} \quad (7)$$

Here, $C_{\text{S-adsorbed},X}$ and C_{bare} are the charge integrations of hydrogen desorption current at the S-adsorbed Pt electrodes after the potential holding/cycling with the certain potential limit, X , and bare Pt electrodes with the corresponding face orientation, respectively.

RF was plotted with respect to the positive potential limit, as shown in Figure 5. Both the potential holding and cycling experiments show that, among the three different face orientations, RF is highest at the Pt(111) electrode throughout the potential range of 0.8–1.0 V, showing that oxidative desorption of sulfur and recovery of ECSA occur at less positive potential than at the Pt(110) and Pt(100) electrodes.

The RFs in Figure 5 show that the recovery from sulfur poisoning is faster at Pt(111) than at Pt(110) and Pt(100) electrodes. To elucidate this difference, theoretical calculations using the DFT were carried out. It is known that the key species for the sulfur oxidation at the Pt surface is SO_2 ; for example, the DFT study by Yeh and Ho has shown that the activation barriers for $\text{S} + \text{O} \rightarrow \text{SO}$ and $\text{SO} + \text{O} \rightarrow \text{SO}_2$ are 0.44 and 0.41 eV, respectively.⁶³ These values are much smaller than the desorption energy of SO_2 , as will be shown later. In addition, the SO_2 molecule is experimentally observed in our work; thus, it should be considered as the stable species during the sulfur oxidation on Pt surfaces. Considering this, the desorption of SO_2 from Pt surfaces can be assumed to be a thermodynamical bottleneck. Based on the above assumption, the values of adsorption energy (E_{ad}) of SO_2 were calculated with the DFT on Pt(111), Pt(110), and Pt(100); the results are summarized in Table 1. The surface–adsorbate structures are shown in Figure

Table 1. DFT-Calculated Values of Adsorption Energy (E_{ad} , in eV) of SO_2 on the Pt(111), Pt(110), and Pt(100) Surfaces Estimated by Several Exchange–Correlation Functionals

surface	E_{ad}/eV				
	PBE	PBE + D3	vdw-dft	BEEF	optPBE
(111)	−1.16	−1.81	−0.58	−1.04	−0.92
(110)	−1.64	−2.22	−1.09	−1.57	−1.41
(100)	−1.64	−2.22	−0.87	−1.36	−1.35

6. The calculated values of E_{ad} clearly show that the adsorption of SO_2 on Pt(111) is weaker than that at the other two surfaces; the values of E_{ad} are −0.92, −1.41, and −1.35 eV on Pt(111), Pt(110), and Pt(100) (with the optPBE functional), respectively. Although the absolute values of E_{ad} depend on the exchange–correlation functional, the SO_2 adsorption strength is in the order of $\text{Pt}(110) \approx \text{Pt}(100) \gg \text{Pt}(111)$ in all the

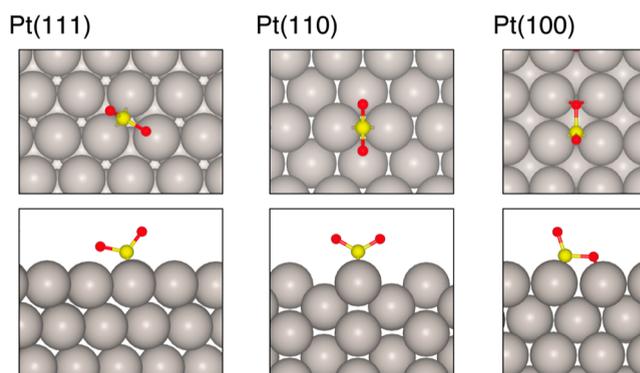


Figure 6. Optimized structures (with the optPBE functional) of SO_2 molecules adsorbed on Pt(111), Pt(110), and Pt(100) (from left to right) surfaces. The top and bottom panels show the top and side views, respectively.

functionals. The weakest SO_2 adsorption on Pt(111) means that the desorption from the surface is favorable on Pt(111), which has been shown by an experimental RF value in Figure 5. Previously, the values of E_{ad} of elemental sulfur on Pt(111), Pt(110), and Pt(100) surfaces were calculated to be −4.63, −4.37, and −5.16 eV, respectively.⁶⁴ This order is in contradiction to the experimental observation that the RF value is highest at Pt(111), suggesting that the values of E_{ad} of elemental sulfur are unlikely to be the dominant factor.

RFs of the Pt(110) and Pt(100) surfaces were almost identical to each other but slightly higher at the Pt(100) surface in the potential holding experiment, while their trend was opposite in the potential cycling experiment. This contradiction should be due to the SO_2 reduction capability of the Pt(100) electrode being higher than those of the Pt(111) and Pt(110) electrodes, as discussed in Figure 3. According to the potential holding experiment (Figure 2), intrinsic sulfur oxidative desorption capabilities were higher at the Pt(111), Pt(100), and Pt(110) electrodes in that order, which is consistent with the adsorption energy of SO_2 . In the potential cycling experiment (Figure 4), however, some of the SO_2 oxidatively formed during the positive going scan can be reduced to elemental sulfur (or sulfur interacting with Pt) before further oxidation or diffusion in the bulk solution during the negative going scan. This cycle is more likely to occur at the Pt(100) electrode than at the Pt(111) and Pt(110) electrodes because of its higher SO_2 reduction capability (Figure 3), resulting in the slower cycling recovery of ECSA at the Pt(100) electrode in the potential cycling experiment.

4. CONCLUSIONS

The adsorbed sulfur significantly inhibits the electrochemical responses characteristic to each of the Pt(111), Pt(110), and Pt(100) electrodes, originating from the surface-sensitive processes such as adsorption/desorption of hydrogen and hydroxyl species. The ECSA, which is an important parameter in considering the use of Pt electrodes for fuel cells, gradually recovers by keeping the potential more positive for a longer period because of the oxidative desorption of sulfur species. The adsorbed sulfur is oxidized mainly to SO_2 at 0.7 V vs Ag/AgCl or more positive. Then, some of the SO_2 is further oxidized and/or desorbs from the surface to diffuse into the bulk solution, while the remaining SO_2 can be reverted to the reduced form, i.e., elemental sulfur or sulfur interacting with Pt, at the surface in the negative going scan. Among the elementary steps of the oxidative desorption process of adsorbed sulfur, the desorption

of SO₂ from the surface is a very important one that significantly affects the overall rate of the process as well as the oxidation reaction of elemental sulfur and adsorption of oxygen species as an oxygen source. The atomic arrangement of the Pt(111) electrode that has the smallest adsorption energy of SO₂ is the most advantageous for recovery from sulfur poisoning because the desorption of SO₂ formed by the oxidation of elemental sulfur occurs more easily. This makes the recovery of ECSA at a less positive potential as compared to those of Pt(110) and Pt(100) electrodes. Thus, the electrochemical oxidative desorption of sulfur at Pt surfaces was studied using single-crystal electrodes to develop the mitigation materials/techniques against sulfur poisoning, and it was found that (111)-rich and (110)/(100)-poor Pt electrocatalysts can be highly tolerant to sulfur poisoning.

■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

SI Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acs.jpcc.4c03227>.

Quantitative analysis based on XPS shown in Fig. 2D-F and the theoretical number of atoms and coverage of elemental sulfur at the S-adsorbed Pt(111), Pt(110), and Pt(100) surfaces; SXR measurements; magnified cyclic voltammograms of Fig. 2 A-C for observing the onset of sulfur oxidation current; and charge integrations of hydrogen desorption current at the S-adsorbed Pt(111), Pt(110), and Pt(100) surfaces after the potential holding/cycling experiment, together with those of bare (PDF)

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Notes

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