BISMUTH AND LEAD UNDERPOTENTIAL DEPOSITION ON BISMUTH TELLURIDE: NEW INSIGHTS INTO THE ELECTROCHEMICAL SYNTHESIS OF BISMUTH TELLURIDE AND EVALUATION OF REAL SURFACE AREA

A. S. BAKAVETS, Y. M. ANISKEVICH, G. A. RAGOISHA, E. A. STRELTSOV

Belarusian State University, Niezaliežnasci Avenue, 4, 220030, Minsk, Belarus
Institute for Physical Chemical Problems of the Belarusian State University, Lieninhradskaja Street, 14, 220006, Minsk, Belarus

Corresponding author: G. A. Ragoisha (ragoishag@bsu.by)

The underpotential deposition (UPD) processes of lead and bismuth on bismuth telluride (Bi₂Te₃) have been discovered with the underpotential shifts 0.3 V for Pb UPD and 0.1 V for Bi UPD. The Pb UPD was shown to be helpful for bismuth telluride real surface area evaluation. Potentiodynamic profiles of Pb UPD differ significantly on bismuth telluride and tellurium substrates, which helps to control purity of bismuth telluride electrodeposit. Bismuth telluride films were deposited from acidic solution of TeO₂ and bismuth salt on steel substrates using potential pulse electrodeposition and cyclic voltammetry (CV). The CV has proved that the stoichiometric bismuth telluride deposition proceeds in the potential range of metallic bismuth anodic oxidation, which excludes metallic Bi as a required intermediate in the sustained electrodeposition of Bi₂Te₃. Bismuth adatoms are much more stable than metallic (bulk) Bi on Bi₂Te₃ and they are very likely to be involved in the electrodeposition mechanism. The potentials of pulsed electrodeposition were optimized taking into account the UPD of Bi. The absence of Te and Bi phases in electrodeposited Bi₂Te₃ was proved by XRD and CV.

Authors:
Aliaksei Bakavets, student at the faculty of chemistry.
alexelbokovets@gmail.com
Yauhen Aniskevich, student at the faculty of chemistry.
aniskevich.y.m@gmail.com
Genady Ragoisha, PhD (chemistry), docent; leading researcher.
ragoishag@bsu.by
Eugene Streltsov, doctor of science (chemistry), full professor; head of the department of electrochemistry, faculty of chemistry.
streltea@bsu.by
The third form of Bi\(^0\) with oxidation potential intermediate between those of bulk Bi\(^0\) (first form) and Bi adlayer (second form) has been discovered in the electrodeposition with the excess of Bi\(^{3+}\) in electrolyte and attributed to Bi atoms intercalated in Van der Waals planes of bismuth telluride. The effect of Bi intercalation is of interest as a means of loosening the interlayer interactions in the layered structure of bismuth telluride for its further application in exfoliation procedures.

**Key words:** bismuth telluride; electrodeposition; underpotential deposition; UPD.

**Introduction**

Bismuth telluride Bi\(_2\)Te\(_3\) is one of the most promising thermoelectric materials [1]. Thermoelectric devices convert temperature difference to voltage (Seebeck effect), or transfer heat from one side of the device to the other, thus producing spatially separated cooling and heating by the applied voltage (Peltier effect). The operation of thermoelectric device involves no movable actuating parts. This remarkable advantage of the thermoelectric coolers over conventional refrigerators enables production of highly durable and energy efficient heat sinks which can be easily built into various instruments. The potential of a thermoelectric material application depends on its «figure of merit» \(ZT\); the latter approaches 1.0 for the advanced materials on the market and has to be further doubled to expand fundamentally the application areas.

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ZT = a^2\sigma T/\kappa, 
\]

where \(a\) is the Seebeck coefficient; \(\sigma\) is electrical conductivity; \(T\) is absolute temperature; \(\kappa\) is the sum of electronic and lattice contributions to the total thermal conductivity. The thermoelectric parameters are intimately interrelated via carrier concentration, which makes the improvement of \(ZT\) to be a large challenge to the materials science. Two main strategies have been adopted to improve \(ZT\). One is to maximize \(a^2\sigma\) through semiconductor energy band engineering. The other is to reduce the thermal conductivity. The reduction of \(\kappa\) is normally coupled with the reduction of \(\sigma\); therefore nontrivial methods of thermal conductivity control are required. Nanostructuring and heterostructuring of Bi\(_2\)Te\(_3\) with tellurides of other metals are the basic routes in the second strategy [2]. Both strategies critically depend on methods of controllable growth of heterostructures of bismuth telluride with tellurides or selenides of other metals.
Electrodeposition is one of the most efficient means to progress in the thermoelectric heterostructure synthesis for several reasons. First, the electrodeposition gives a great variety of semiconductor materials and nanostructures at room or moderately elevated temperature. Unlike the trivial control of a reaction by temperature which affects the whole system, the electrode potential controls the reaction by affecting just the electron subsystem, which provides diverse redox transformations in mild conditions without heating the object. Advanced methods combine application of different potentials in a single electrodeposition procedure to control deposition composition and morphology [3; 4]. Second, the electrochemical route of telluride synthesis can favour from the unique opportunity of nanoelectronics on the atomic scale through UPD of atomic layers of metals and chalcogens [5–9]. The UPD is the deposition of adatoms and adlayers above the corresponding reversible potential of the electrodeposition of the same metal (or nonmetal) as bulk material. Nanoengineering of layered structures through electrochemically generated atomic layers is of special interest due to theoretical prediction of high ZT in quantum confined 2D quantum well systems [10]. The decoupling of thermal and electric conductivity in 2D quantum confined Bi₂Te₃-based heterostructures can result from the enhanced phonon scattering at heterointerfaces. This kind of layered systems is also becoming a hot topic in investigations of topological insulators [11; 12]. Third, the electrodeposition can proceed on electrodes with complex shape and can be combined with electrochemical assembly of heterostructures, so the preparation of a complex semiconductor thermoelectric material can be arranged in a single electrochemical procedure.

The UPD of bismuth [13–16] and tellurium [8; 17; 18] on metals, as well as bismuth UPD on tellurium [19] were extensively investigated, but the UPD of metals on bismuth telluride needed clarification, as well as the possible role of Bi UPD on Bi₂Te₃ in the electrodeposition of bismuth telluride. Underpotential deposition of lead on bismuth telluride was expected to proceed similar to Pb UPD on PbTe [20], and the electrochemically controllable deposition of Pb atomic layer on the tellurides is of interest as a route to preparation of Pb-containing chalcogenide quantum-dot superlattices which were shown to give ZT up to 1.6 [21].

The UPD is also the most efficient means of the real surface area measurement of metal [22] and metal chalcogenide [23] electrodes. The surface area is an important parameter which controls thermoelectric properties jointly with the composition and structure. In this work we used the discovered UPD of lead on bismuth telluride electrodes to evaluate their real surface area, which was required for comparing electrochemical activity of electrodes with different surface topology. Underpotential deposition and also intercalation of metals into bismuth telluride is also of interest in view of the search of exfoliation routes [24] to produce low-dimensional structures from bulk layered chalcogenides, e.g. lithium intercalation can cause exfoliation of layered chalcogenide materials [25; 26]. Our results obtained in this work suggest another way for possible separation of layered fragments of bismuth telluride – introduction of a metal into the layered structure already in the course of electrodeposition. The discrimination of metal adlayers located on the outer surface of a crystal from atoms of the same metal located in Van der Waals planes inside the crystal is required to progress in the electrochemical investigation of intercalation and exfoliation. We have found that electrochemical characterization was powerful enough to distinguish at least three forms of bismuth which were observed during bismuth telluride electrodeposition – bismuth as a separate phase, bismuth adlayer on bismuth telluride, and the third form with oxidation potential intermediate between the one of metallic Bi and Bi adlayer. Unlike bismuth adlayer which was limited in amount by the surface area, the third form which was attributed to bismuth located in Van der Waals planes inside the crystal can be generated in much higher amount at certain electrodeposition conditions.

Experimental

Stainless steel electrodes were used as conducting substrates for bismuth telluride electrodeposition and subsequent UPD of bismuth and tellurium on the electrodeposited bismuth telluride. The advantage of stainless steel over gold and platinum which are more commonly used in investigations of electrodeposition mechanisms results from its inability to stabilize adlayers of bismuth and tellurium, so the UPD of Bi and Te did not proceed on bare support and did not hide the processes related to bismuth telluride. Stainless steel has been already used in the investigation of Bi₂Te₃ electrodeposition mechanisms [27], but the authors of [27] did not distinguish various forms of Bi in Bi₂Te₃ and on Bi₂Te₃; therefore their conclusion of bismuth telluride electrodeposition proceeding via bismuth electrodeposition was inexact. In fact, the electrodeposition of stoichiometric Bi₂Te₃ proceeds in the potential range of metallic bismuth anodic oxidation, so metallic bismuth can hardly be a required intermediate of Bi₂Te₃ electrodeposition, though the deposition of Bi₂Te₃ is often accompanied by the deposition of metallic bismuth, when the process is conducted in the potential range of the both processes for higher deposition rate.

In this work, pulsed potentiostatic electrodeposition was used to deposit stoichiometric Bi₂Te₃ at acceptable deposition rate. The potential of the electrode was first kept in the range of Bi₂Te₃ deposition slightly above the potential of bismuth bulk phase formation for 100 ms with the subsequent switching for 900 ms at 1 Hz
frequency into the higher potential region just above the anodic peak of Bi oxidation, where the metallic bismuth was thermodynamically unstable and the stationary Bi$_2$Te$_3$ deposition rate approached zero. The lower and upper potentials in the pulses depended on the electrolyte composition and were 40 and 180 mV for the deposition from the solution with 2 : 3 Bi : Te atomic ratio. All potentials are presented vs. Ag/AgCl reference electrode with saturated KCl solution, the latter was separated from working solutions by salt bridge with glass tap.

Stainless steel electrodes were etched in concentrated nitric acid and polished by 1.0 and 0.05 μm alumina in series. The working part of the electrode (from 15 to 25 mm$^2$) was afterwards separated from the rest of the electrode by covering the latter with water resistant varnish, this procedure helped to control the surface area and the uniformity of electrodeposition conditions on the working part of the electrode surface. Finally, the electrode was subjected to 10 potential cycles between –0.4 and 0.8 V at 50 mV/s in 3 mol/L nitric acid to provide reproducible electrochemical behaviour in the further electrodeposition experiments. The electrodeposition was performed in three-electrode electrochemical cell with Pt counter electrode. All electrolyte solutions were deaerated with nitrogen.

Gamry series G300 potentiostat was used in pulsed potentiostatic and cyclic voltammetry (CV) experiments. Potentiodynamic electrochemical impedance spectrums (PDEIS) were obtained with a home built spectrometer [28; 15]. PDEIS spectra were analysed by methods discussed in [29; 30]. Empyrean X-ray diffractometer (PANalytical, Netherlands) was used for structural characterization of Bi$_2$Te$_3$. The XRD analysis was combined with energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy to prove the deposit composition, as the similarity of the most intensive diffraction peaks of Bi$_2$Te$_3$ and Te complicated their accurate distinguishability by the mere XRD, especially in early stages of the electrodeposition when X-ray diffraction was dependent on the deposit particle sizes.

Results and Discussion

Figure 1 shows the CV data for Bi, Te and Bi$_2$Te$_3$ electrodeposition on steel. All three electrodeposition processes proceed with high nucleation overpotentials, and the overpotentials decrease strongly in the reverse scan and in subsequent potential cycles. Initially, the overpotential of tellurium nucleation on steel is much higher than that of bismuth nucleation, so the initiation of Bi$_2$Te$_3$ via bismuth electrodeposition suggested in [27] appears to be probable; however, the relative rates of Bi and Te deposition invert already in the reverse scan of the first CV cycle. After initiation, tellurium deposition becomes possible even in the potential region of metallic bismuth anodic oxidation (fig. 1, a) and the deposition of tellurium keeps preference over bismuth deposition during sustained cycling at equimolar concentrations of the electrolytes (fig. 1, b) and at Bi : Te atomic ratio that corresponds to Bi$_2$Te$_3$ stoichiometry (fig. 2). The anodic oxidation of Bi$_2$Te$_3$ shows up in the anodic scan 0.1 V before tellurium anodic oxidation (fig. 1 and 2). The important conclusion which follows from fig. 1 and 2 is that Bi$_2$Te$_3$ electrodeposition continues above the anodic oxidation peak of metallic bismuth. This is especially evident when comparing the CV obtained at «stoichiometric» Bi : Te atomic ratio in the solution (fig. 2). Thus, bulk bismuth nucleation is not required in the sustained electrodeposition of Bi$_2$Te$_3$.

The pulsed potentiostatic electrodeposition combines the high rate of the cathodic reaction in the low-potential phase of the applied rectangular periodic waveform with the stay above the oxidation peak of metallic bismuth which helps to keep the stoichiometric composition of the deposit. The lower limit of the periodic waveform was chosen so that the potential was sufficient to boost the initially small cathodic current in subsequent pulses as shown in inset to fig. 1, a. Much smaller anodic current which also increases in the initial stage of the pulsed deposition provides removal of superfluous bismuth and keeps compact the structure of the deposit.

Figure 3 shows the X-ray diffractogram of thus deposited Bi$_2$Te$_3$ in comparison with XRD of tellurium [31]. Both materials give few similar intensive diffraction peaks. XRD discriminates them reliably only at sufficiently high amount of the deposit, when the less intensive peaks can be compared.

Figure 4 presents a rather compact structure of the pulsed deposited Bi$_2$Te$_3$ by SEM images.

The increase above Bi : Te «stoichiometric» atomic ratio in the solution resulted in the additional wide anodic peak at 0.2 V, i.e. approximation 0.2 V above the potential of bulk bismuth anodic oxidation (fig. 5, a). The effect of the continuous cycling in that solution avoiding bismuth telluride oxidation is shown in fig. 5, b.

The anodic peak $A_1$ increases with a shift to lower potential and finally transforms into anodic peak $A_2$. The cathodic peak $C_1$ which is formed in the second cycle increases slowly in subsequent cycles and attains regular shape. Also a new cathodic peak $C_2$ grows with the cycling. When the reversal potential in the cycling is shifted to the potential of the cathodic current minimum between $C_1$ and $C_2$ (approximation 0 V), the CV shows the cathodic peak in the range of $C_1$ and the anodic peak in the range of $A_2$ but with a smaller current than the original $A_1$ (inset in fig. 5, b). The peak currents in the latter range have shown no evolution, when
the reversal potential was kept positive to the potential range of the cathodic peak $C_1$. The cathodic and anodic peaks shown in the inset in fig. 5, $b$, gave a hint of a surface limited reaction contributing to the electrodeposition of bismuth telluride, presumably bismuth underpotential deposition. In order to check the bismuth telluride capability of taking up metal adlayers above Nernst potential, we have examined the early stages of bismuth and lead cathodic deposition from solutions of their salts in the absence of $\text{TeO}_2$.

Figure 6 shows the two-stage cathodic reduction and anodic oxidation of lead on the pulsed deposited $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3$. The potential of the left pair of cathodic and anodic peaks corresponds to the reversible Nernst potential of metallic $\text{Pb} E(\text{Pb}^{2+}/\text{Pb}_{\text{bulk}})$, while the pair of peaks at much higher potential reveals the underpotential deposition of Pb adlayer and its anodic oxidation.

*Fig. 1. Cyclic voltammograms of steel electrode in 12 mmol/L $\text{Bi(NO}_3)_3$, plus 18 mmol/L $\text{TeO}_2$ (solid), 30 mmol/L $\text{TeO}_2$ (dash-dotted), and 30 mmol/L $\text{Bi(NO}_3)_3$ (dashed) with 3 mol/L HNO$_3$ supporting electrolyte: $a$ – first cycle; $b$ – third cycle, $\frac{dE}{dt} = 50 \text{ mV} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$. Dotted curve corresponds to 3 mol/L HNO$_3$ electrolyte (blank). Insets show the potential and current profiles in the beginning and in the sustained state of $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3$ pulsed electrodeposition.*
The UPD of lead on bismuth telluride shows much similarity with lead underpotential deposition processes on lead telluride [20] and on tellurium [20; 8]. Figure 7, a, compares Pb UPD on Bi₂Te₃ with the UPD on tellurium at sustained cycling. The two-humped cathodic peak in lead UPD on tellurium results from superposition of Pb UPD on Te (the left hump of the peak) and Pb UPD on PbTe inclusions that are formed by Pb adatoms interaction with tellurium at prolonged cycling (the right hump of the peak) [20]. Lead UPD proceeds on bismuth telluride in the intermediate potential range between the two UPD processes. The regular shape of the cathodic peak of Pb UPD on Bi₂Te₃ is the indication of Bi₂Te₃ purity (the deposit contains no elementary tellurium).

The potentials of Pb adlayer cathodic deposition on Bi₂Te₃ and anodic stripping from Bi₂Te₃ are a little bit lower than those of Pb ad on PbTe, which is the indication of a slightly weaker Pbₐd – Bi₂Te₃ interaction compared to that of Pbₐd – PbTe. The cathodic and anodic peaks in Pb UPD on Bi₂Te₃ do not overlap, which
indicates the adsorption capacitance absence in the faradaic branch of equivalent electric circuit [30] in Pb UPD on Bi$_2$Te$_3$. In fact, our analysis of PDEIS spectra of Pb UPD on Bi$_2$Te$_3$ has revealed a Randles type equivalent circuit which is characteristic of significantly irreversible electrochemical adsorption. The inverse charge transfer resistance dependence on electrode potential derived for this underpotential deposition process from its potentiodynamic electrochemical impedance spectrum (fig. 7, b) shows a characteristic peak similar to those observed in other irreversible UPD processes.

The surface limited character of the UPD allows relating the UPD charge $Q$ to real surface area $A$ of the substrate [22]:

$$A = \frac{Q}{q},$$

where $q$ is the charge required to form the full adlayer on 1 cm$^2$ of a substrate. The UPD charge for Pb UPD on tellurium $q = 400 \mu$C · cm$^{-2}$ [20]. This charge approximately corresponds to a reduction of a closely packed layer of Pb atoms. In principle, $q$ may vary slightly with a change of the substrate but is assumed to be a constant for the same supporting material with variable morphology. In the investigations of surface roughness variation, the actual value of $q$ is in fact not very important and can be assumed to be the same for Te and Bi$_2$Te$_3$ substrates in Pb UPD. The current in fig. 7, a, was normalized for real surface area with this assumption to provide the further evaluation of the variable electrode surface area at variable conditions of Bi$_2$Te$_3$ electrodeposition.
Figure 8 compares Pb and Bi UPD on Bi$_2$Te$_3$ electrode deposits of different morphology. The solid curves in fig. 8 are potentiodynamic profiles of Bi UPD on Bi$_2$Te$_3$. The cathodic peak shows up 0.1 V above the starting potential of bulk bismuth electrodeposition. The latter proceeds below 0 V and the deposited metallic Bi gives the anodic peak far below the anodic peak of Bi adlayer on Bi$_2$Te$_3$ (fig. 8, b).

We make a note of the similarity of the part of the potentiodynamic profile which relates to Bi adlayer deposition and stripping and the CV in fig. 5, b, inset, which confirms the Bi UPD in the conditions of Bi$_2$Te$_3$ electrodeposition. Bismuth telluride deposits obtained by potential cycling with excess bismuth and by pulsed electrodeposition from «stoichiometric» solution give similar potentiodynamic profiles of Bi UPD, but the current and the corresponding UPD charge varies strongly with the electrodeposition condition, because of the variation of the real surface area (table). The explanation of the much higher roughness of the bismuth-rich deposit can be obtained from the potentiodynamic profiles of the electrodeposition shown in fig. 5, b.
The excessive bismuth which gives the anodic peak A₂ oxidizes above the potential of bulk metallic Bi though below the potential of Bi adlayer anodic oxidation. This type of Bi can correspond to Bi⁰ intercalated in Van der Waals planes of Bi₂Te₃ crystal, where Bi – Bi₂Te₃ interaction should be relatively low. In fact, this «intercalated» bismuth is deposited during the electrodeposition of Bi₂Te₃. As the interactions in the Van der Waals planes are weak, this excessive bismuth produces no change of the chemical identity of the host material, therefore we observed no change in Bi UPD potential with the variation of the deposition conditions. The intercalation can be of interest as the means of loosening the interlayer interactions in the layered structure of bismuth telluride for its further application in exfoliation procedures.

Our results provide also some new insight into the mechanisms of bismuth telluride electrodeposition. We exclude any significant role of bulk bismuth in the sustained stage of Bi₂Te₃ electrodeposition in the potential range above the oxidation peak of bulk Bi typically used in the electrodeposition procedures. Bismuth adlayers contrary to bulk Bi, are much more resistant to anodic oxidation and their participation in Bi₂Te₃ crystal growth is very likely in the range of Bi UPD. The kinetic prevention of tellurium electrodeposition from Bi-free electrolyte on steel in the typical potential ranges of bismuth telluride electrodeposition should be not considered as a strong argument for elementary tellurium exclusion from electrodeposition mechanisms. Thermodynamically tellurium electrodeposition can proceed in this range and actually proceeds after overcoming the nucleation barrier. In view of Bi UPD similarity on Bi₂Te₃ and Te, those tellurium nuclei, if they are formed by induced codeposition, are expected to attract bismuth adatoms and thus be drawn into the telluride crystal growth. More likely for this reason, rather than because of tellurium deposition prevention, Bi₂Te₃ electrodeposits can be obtained free of tellurium inclusions.

**Conclusion**

The UPD of metals on chalcogenides is of great interest as a means of the electrochemical surface characterization. The UPD processes of lead and bismuth on bismuth telluride (Bi₂Te₃) have been discovered with the underpotential shifts 0.3 V for Pb UPD and 0.1 V for Bi UPD. The Pb UPD was shown to be helpful for bismuth telluride real surface area evaluation. Pb UPD proceeds significantly different on bismuth telluride and tellurium substrates, which helps to control purity of bismuth telluride electrodeposit.
In order to study Pb and Bi UPD, bismuth telluride films were deposited from acidic solution of TeO₂ and bismuth salt on steel substrates using potential pulse electrodeposition and cyclic voltammetry. The CV has proved that the stoichiometric bismuth telluride electrodeposition proceeds in the potential range of metallic bismuth anodic oxidation which excludes metallic Bi as a required intermediate in the sustained electrodeposition of Bi₂Te₃. Bismuth adatoms are much more stable than metallic Bi on Bi₂Te₃, and they are very likely to be involved in the electrodeposition mechanisms at potentials above \( E(Bi^{3+}/Bi^{2+}) \). The potentials of pulsed electrodeposition were optimized using the information on Bi UPD. The electrodeposited Bi₂Te₃ purity from Te and Bi phases was proved by XRD and potentiodynamic profile of Pb UPD.

The Bi₂Te₃ electrodeposition from electrolyte with significant excess of Bi³⁺ over TeO₂ can proceed with formation of the Bi²⁺ form with oxidation potential intermediate between those of metallic Bi and Bi adlayer that was attributed to Bi atoms intercalated in Van der Waals planes of bismuth telluride. The effect of Bi intercalation is of interest as a means of loosening the interlayer interactions in the layered structure of bismuth telluride for its further application in exfoliation procedures.

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