



# On the design of Pt based catalysts. Combining porous architecture with surface modification by Sn for electrocatalytic activity enhancement



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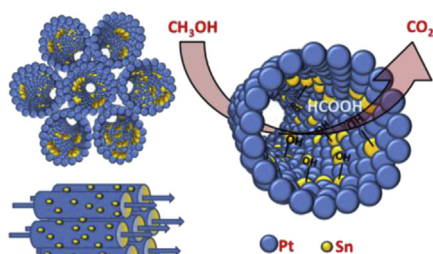
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## HIGHLIGHTS

- Mesoporous Pt material (MPPt) was successfully modified by Sn adatoms (MPPt/Sn).
- The CO tolerance was evaluated at MPPT, MPPt/Sn and commercial Pt<sub>3</sub>Sn/C catalysts.
- The catalytic activity toward methanol oxidation for all electrodes was evaluated.
- CO and methanol oxidation reactions were studied at 25 and 60 °C by DEMS.
- Energy conversion efficiency from methanol to CO<sub>2</sub> for all catalysts was calculated.

## GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT



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## ABSTRACT

Metallic mesoporous (MP) catalysts with large surface area can be obtained *in-situ*, in a single step, by electrochemical reduction. In this work, the electrochemical behavior of MPPt and Sn modified mesoporous Pt (MPPt/Sn) was studied and compared with commercial carbon supported PtSn alloy (3:1). The electrochemical activity toward carbon monoxide and methanol oxidation reactions were evaluated by cyclic voltammetry and chronoamperometry, whereas X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy was used to determine the surface composition and oxidation state of the atoms in the top layers of the catalysts. The analysis of methanol conversion to CO<sub>2</sub> was performed with aid of differential electrochemical mass spectrometry (DEMS). Results reveal a better performance of the MPPt/Sn, which shows higher current density and energy conversion efficiency of fuel to CO<sub>2</sub> than conventional carbon supported PtSn alloy (3:1).

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## 1. Introduction

Direct methanol fuel cells (DMFC) are devices that produce energy from an electrochemical reaction. Main differences

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between DMFC and conventional batteries are the use of a liquid combustible, continuous operating capability and high thermodynamic efficiency limit [1]. Thus, DMFC have been proposed as suitable power devices for mobile applications. All the advantages mentioned before, allows envisage the DMFC technology like a suitable transition to a completely clean energy generation [2–4].

Conversely, some serious weaknesses delay the commercial utilization of DMFC. One of the most important difficulties is the cost of the novel metal required for the electrocatalytic process used at both electrodes (mainly Pt and some of its alloys) [5–8]. Also kinetic restrictions must be overcome for a better metal utilization at the cathode (oxygen reduction reaction, ORR) [9–11]. Additionally, a better performance of the anode becomes necessary. With these purposes, the use of lower noble metal loading with high surface accessibility and low poisoning of the active sites by reaction intermediates (i.e. CO, HCHO, HCOOH) is required [12].

The economic problem associated to the catalysts production is an important reason, but not the only one, for build-up nanostructured electrodes. Since electrochemical processes are almost of superficial nature, the fabrication of nanostructured catalysts presents the most powerful approach for the production of small electrodes with high surface area and low metal loading [13,14]. However, this approach introduces some intrinsic difficulties like metallic surface stability in the nanometer scale, and mass transport requirements for reactants and products [15].

There are different ways to prepare practical catalysts for DMFC [16,17]. Generally catalysts utilized as electrodes in PEM fuel cells comprise noble metal nanoparticles supported on high surface carbon (e.g. Pt/C, Pt–Ru/C, etc.). The most widespread route to synthesize this kind of catalysts involves the chemical reduction of the precious metal after its impregnation onto the catalyst support [16–21]. While various synthetic approaches were intended, the design of well-defined mesoporous catalysts persist as one of the most promising objectives [16].

During the last decade, some publications have focused on the study of unsupported electrodes (e.g. mesoporous metal catalysts) [22–25]. In this context, metallic mesoporous (MP) catalysts are interesting because they can be obtained *in-situ* by chemical or electrochemical reduction of the metal cations present in the aqueous phase of a liquid crystalline solution. Usually, this single process renders thin electrodes with high surface area, with the additional advantage that their architecture can be easily tuned by adjusting of the synthesis parameters (i.e. the porous radio can be adjusted by the choice of the appropriated surfactant, and additional porosity can be introduced by the selection of the applied potential). The resulting catalysts possess an extremely concave mesoporous surface, and this characteristic may, by itself, affect the CO electrooxidation reaction [26].

On the other hand, the search for more active surfaces has led to surface modification by adatoms (Pt/M) of diverse nature. Consequently, the Pt surface has been broadly modified by spontaneous deposition of metal [23,26–28]. This approach is even more interesting when combined with mesoporous Pt surface.

For this reasons, in the present work MPPT surfaces were modified by Sn adatoms (MPPT/Sn) and employed in order to understand the effect of mesoporous surface modification by oxophilic atoms toward the methanol electrooxidation reaction. Consequently, the electrochemical properties of the synthesized MPPT/Sn electrodes were examined by the CO and methanol oxidation reactions and compared with a commercial catalyst (Pt<sub>3</sub>Sn/C, E-TEK). In addition, *in situ* differential electrochemical mass spectroscopy (DEMS) measurements were carried out with the aim to quantify the CH<sub>3</sub>OH conversion to CO<sub>2</sub>.

## 2. Experimental

### 2.1. Physicochemical characterization

The XPS characterization of the samples was performed in a UHV chamber (base pressure <  $5 \times 10^{-9}$  mbar), equipped with a double anode X-ray source (Omicron) and a hemispherical electronanalyzer (VG Scienta). All XPS measurements were performed at room temperature, using non-monochromatic Mg–K radiation ( $h = 1253.6$  eV) and a pass energy of 50 eV and 20 eV for the survey and high-resolution spectra, respectively.

### 2.2. Electrochemical measurements

A thermostated three electrodes electrochemical cell was used to realize the analysis at 25 and 60 °C. This electrochemical cell allows solution exchange holding the potential control on the working electrode. For the study of CO tolerance a 0.5 M H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> solution was used, while that for the methanol oxidation reaction a 0.5 M H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> + 0.1 M CH<sub>3</sub>OH solution was utilized at both temperatures. The cell includes a carbon as counter electrode and a reference hydrogen electrode (RHE) in the electrolyte. All potentials in this work are given against the RHE. Electrochemical measurements were performed with a PC Autolab potentiostat-galvanostat. All reagents were analytical grade. Argon (N50) was bubbled through the solution to avoid dissolved oxygen. CO (N47) was employed for the adsorption experiences. In this work, currents are expressed as current densities  $J$  (A cm<sup>-2</sup>), calculated from the measured current  $I$  (A) and the real electroactive area  $S$ . The electroactive area  $S$  was estimated from the CO stripping experiences. With this purpose, CO was bubbled for 10 min at 0.2 V vs. RHE and subsequently argon for 30 min was used to degas the solution during 30 min. After that, the potential was scanned from the adsorption potential down to 0.05 V (so the hydrogen adsorption region can be checked) and then up to 0.90 V, and three consecutive cycles were recorded at 0.005 V s<sup>-1</sup>. First cycle corresponds to the CO<sub>ads</sub> electrooxidation, while the second and third cycles show the background voltammogram, indicating that all adsorbed carbon monoxide was completely removed from the catalyst surface.

### 2.3. DEMS setup

The gaseous species produced on the electro-active surface can be followed on-line by mass spectrometry. For detection of the ion current during mass spectrometric measurement, Quadstar™ 422-software (Pfeiffer-vacumm Thermostar) was used. The setup allows the detection of the ion current for each  $m/z$  separately. A conventional electrochemical cell was used and the meniscus configuration was adopted. The working electrode surface is placed very close (~micrometers) to a Teflon capillary, which is connected directly to the vacuum of the mass spectrometer. Details of the setup can be found elsewhere [29].

### 2.4. DEMS calibration

The calculation of the efficiency for methanol conversion to CO<sub>2</sub> by DEMS requires a previous determination of the  $m/z = 44$  calibration constant ( $K^{CO_2}$ ). This constant correlates the number of CO<sub>2</sub> molecules generated on the electrode surface (through the faradaic charge) with the portion of this molecules captured by the mass spectrometer (proportional to  $m/z = 44$  ion current).  $K^{CO_2}$  has to be determined before each experiment because it depends of several variables (membrane-electrode gap, flow rate, temperature and pressure in the mass vacuum line). The calibration constant is calculated as follow: faradaic ( $Q_f^{CO_2}$ ) and ionic  $m/z = 44$  ( $Q_i^{CO_2}$ )

charges were calculated from CO stripping and related according to equation:

$$K^{CO_2} = 2 \frac{Q_i^{CO_2}}{Q_f^{CO_2}} \quad (1)$$

Then, the current efficiency  $E$  for methanol electrooxidation to  $CO_2$  is determined from the subsequent equation:

$$E^{CO_2} = \frac{6 * Q_i^{CO_2}}{K^{CO_2} * Q_f^T} \quad (2)$$

where  $Q_f^T$  is the charge associated to all faradaic processes at the surface.

Cyclic voltammograms (CVs) and mass spectrometry cyclic voltammograms (MSCVs) for  $CO_{ads}$  and methanol at MP electrodes in sulphuric acid were recorded at 5 and 2  $mV s^{-1}$ . Current transients (CTs) and mass spectrometry current transients (MSCTs) for methanol oxidation at MP electrodes in sulphuric acid were recorded at 0.55 and 0.65 V.

### 2.5. Working electrode preparation

Mesoporous Pt electrodes were obtained by electrochemical reduction of a mixture of aqueous hexachloroplatinic acid (8%) and octaethylene glycol monohexadecyl ether ( $C_{16}EO_8$ ) (50% weight fraction) onto a DEMS Au disk electrode ( $\varnothing = 1$  mm) at 60 °C and 0.15 V. Typically, after 10 min of  $Pt^{+4}$  reduction a charge of 724  $mC cm^{-2}$  was deposited onto Au substrate, resulting in a mesoporous Pt layer containing  $1.94 \times 10^{-4}$  g of Pt (assuming 75% efficiency). Then, the electrode was leaved in distilled water for 48 h, to let the surfactant be completely removed from the porous structure. The surface modification by Sn adatoms was obtained in the following way: an MP Pt electrode was immersed in 0.5 mM  $SnSO_4/0.5$  M  $H_2SO_4$  fresh solution for 5 min. This last step facilitates the Sn dispersion inside the porous structure. After that, the electrode was rinsed with water, and finally transferred to an electrochemical cell containing 0.5 M  $H_2SO_4$ . Finally, the electrode was cycled between 0.05 and 0.50 V to reduce the adsorbed Sn precursor to metallic Sn. The last procedure was repeated as many times necessary.

For studies of the carbon-supported  $Pt_3Sn/C$  E-TEK catalyst, the working electrode consists of a certain amount of the  $Pt_3Sn/C$  powder (20 wt. % metal supported on Vulcan XC-72, ETEK) deposited as a thin layer over a glassy carbon disc ( $\varnothing = 7$  mm). For this purpose, an aqueous suspension of 1.0  $mg mL^{-1}$  of the  $Pt_3Sn/C$  catalyst was prepared by ultrasonic dispersion of 2.0 mg of the  $Pt_3Sn/C$  catalyst in 15  $\mu L$  of Nafion (5 wt. % Aldrich) and pure water (0.5 mL). An aliquot (10  $\mu L$ ) of the dispersed suspension was pipetted on a glassy carbon surface (7 mm diameter) and dried at ambient temperature under Ar atmosphere.

## 3. Results and discussion

### 3.1. MPt catalyst modified by Sn adatoms

Fig. 1 shows the variation of the hydrogen adsorption/desorption area and the Sn coverage degree for different Sn adsorption times (in several exposition steps, the time is expressed cumulatively). Each step involves the introduction of the MPt working electrode into a Sn solution for 5 min and a subsequent electrochemical reduction. The degree of Sn coverage was calculated using the following equation [30–34].

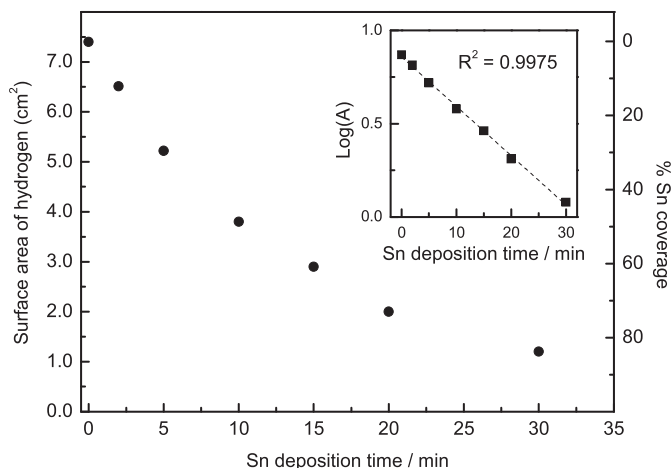


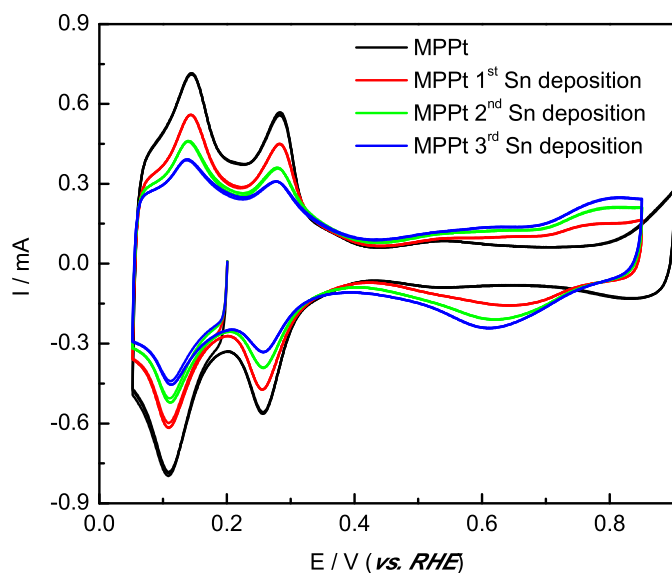
Fig. 1. Pt surface area calculated from the hydrogen adsorption/desorption region (left Y-axis), and Sn coverage percentage at different adsorption times (right Y-axis) vs adsorption time. Inset: Logarithmic behavior of the deposition current.

$$\theta_{Sn} = \frac{Q_H^b - Q_H^a}{Q_H^b} \quad (3)$$

$Q_H^a$  is the electrical charge for the MPt/Sn, evaluated from cyclic voltammetry in the potential region between 0.05 and 0.40  $V_{HRE}$ , and  $Q_H^b$  is the electric charge for the MPt at the same potential region. A close inspection of Fig. 1 reveals that the most significant change in the Sn coverage occurs between 5 and 15 min. The inset graph shows that the Sn deposition process follows an exponential behavior. The slope points out that, for each Sn deposition step, the available (Sn-free) Pt surface is reduced about 20%. Additionally, no substantial increment in the charge is observed for longer Sn deposition time, indicating that the process operates self-poisoning the Pt surface, as was early reported by Gupta et al. [35]. Considering that in the present case only a small change occurs for more than three deposition steps, the study is limited to 15 min that corresponds to  $\theta_{Sn} = 0.60$ . In this sense, it was reported high activity towards methanol oxidation with similar nominal value of Sn modified Pt catalysts in acidic media [36].

The cyclic voltammograms for MPt and MPt/Sn electrodes in sulphuric acid solution are given in Fig. 2. The black line corresponds to the current response for the unmodified MPt material, in which is well visible the hydrogen adsorption/desorption ( $H_a/H_d$ ) region between 0.05 and 0.4 V. At potentials above 0.4 V, a non-faradaic process is observed along the double layer region (between 0.4 and 0.8 V). Finally, the slight increment of the anodic current at  $E > 0.8$  V indicates the formation of oxygenated species onto the Pt surface, i.e. the onset potential for Pt oxides formation. The effect of the Sn adatoms on the MPt surface (red, green and blue lines) is noticeable by the charge fall in the  $H_a/H_d$  region, especially in the sites related with (100) and (110) surface orientations [37]. Additionally, it is observed a new contribution at ca. 0.73 V, corresponding to the onset for the Sn oxidation process. Also, it can be discerned that as the Sn coverage rises with the successive exposition steps, the Sn oxide redox couple around 0.75 and 0.62 V is notoriously increased. As was described above, the surface blocking effect by Sn adatoms in the  $H_a/H_d$  region will be used later to estimate the Sn coverage ( $\theta_{Sn}$ ) [34,35].

All these results are consistent with those reported previously by other authors for PtSn alloys [19], carbon supported PtSn nanoparticles [20] and Pt single crystal structures modified by Sn [21,34]. The double layer broadening has usually been attributed to



**Fig. 2.** Cyclic voltammograms obtained for MPt and MPt/Sn catalysts in 0.5 M H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> solution at a scan rate of 100 mV s<sup>-1</sup> and 25 °C.

H<sub>2</sub>O activation on Sn and/or SnO<sub>2</sub> species, while the anodic peak around 0.7 V is associated to Sn oxide (SnO<sub>2</sub>) formation from the dissociation of H<sub>2</sub>O on the metallic surface [30–32,35].

The application of techniques as Energy Dispersive X-Ray Spectroscopy (EDX) or X-Ray Diffraction (XRD) for the detection of Sn in the sample is not possible as the amount of Sn is very small (the surface is covered only by ad-atoms of Sn) and it is not present in a crystalline form. For this reason, the surface constituent phase of the MPt and MPt/Sn ( $\theta_{\text{Sn}} = 0.60$ ) materials were further studied by XPS analysis which is more appropriated as a surface sensitive technique. Fig. 3A displays the Pt 4f XPS spectra that contain two peaks corresponding to the Pt 4f<sub>7/2</sub> and Pt 4f<sub>5/2</sub> states. Each peak was deconvoluted and associated to three different Pt oxidation states (Pt<sup>0</sup>, Pt<sup>2+</sup> and a small contribution of Pt<sup>4+</sup>).

MPt develops a 4f<sub>7/2</sub> signal that can be correlated to three curves peaked at 71.0, 72.1 and 73.3 eV, which are attributed to Pt<sup>0</sup>, Pt<sup>2+</sup> (PtO and Pt(OH)<sub>2</sub>-like species) and Pt<sup>4+</sup>, respectively [39,40]. On the other hand, MPt/Sn spectra (Fig. 3B) shows similar signals than MPt, but at small shift of B.E. toward higher values can be discerned, i.e. Pt<sup>0</sup>, Pt<sup>2+</sup> and Pt<sup>4+</sup> curves appear centered at 71.0, 72.5 and 73.8 eV, respectively. However, the most important finding is the change in their relative area that is associated to the amount of the species in the catalyst surface (Table 1). The Sn 3d signal of the MPt/Sn was also deconvoluted into two distinguishable doublets (Fig. 3C) with different intensities. In this context, the 3d<sub>5/2</sub> peaks at 484.6 and 486.5 eV are attributed to metallic Sn<sup>0</sup> and SnO<sub>2</sub> species [30,40].

Table 1 shows that MPt/Sn catalyst surface is almost composed by Sn and Pt species in the oxide (SnO<sub>2</sub>) and metallic (Pt<sup>0</sup>) states, respectively. The last is caused by electronegativity differences between Pt and Sn, leading to a charge transfer from the less electronegative Sn to the more electronegative Pt.

Furthermore, the spectra developed by the modified material after three Sn deposition steps reveals a surface atomic ratio of Pt:Sn of 40:60, which is in total agreement with the calculated by the charge decrease in the hydrogen adsorption/desorption potential region. In this context, it is important to remind that both XPS and cyclic voltammetry are surface sensitive techniques, and this is the reason for the excellent correlation.

Therefore, it can be extracted from these results that the catalyst

surface is mainly formed by metallic Pt and SnO<sub>2</sub> located mainly on Pt sites with (110) and (100) orientations, in addition to rather similar mass percent composition of both elements [40].

### 3.2. CO stripping

The oxidative desorption of a CO monolayer adsorbed on a catalyst surface (denoted here as CO stripping) is an important tool for surface characterization. Since adsorbed CO is a strong catalyst poison and it is a reaction intermediate during, for example, the methanol and formic acid electrooxidation reaction, its removal is a key factor to be investigated [23,24]. Furthermore, the CO stripping is a powerful technique for the study of the surface morphology and structure. In addition, CO stripping is a convenient method to obtain an accurate estimation of the electroactive surface area [26,41].

The left side of Fig. 4 (panels denoted as A, C and E) shows CO stripping experiments for MPt, MPt/Sn ( $\theta_{\text{Sn}} = 0.60$ ) and commercial Pt<sub>3</sub>Sn/C E-TEK electrodes recorded at two different temperatures (25 and 60 °C) in 0.5 M H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> at 5 mV s<sup>-1</sup>. It is observed that for all catalysts the onset and peak potentials for CO oxidation reaction shift toward more negative values with the increment of the temperature. However, some differences between them can be found. MPt material develops an onset potential at ca. 0.45 V<sub>RHE</sub> and a smooth anodic wave (or pre-peak) centered at ca. 0.55 V<sub>RHE</sub> that is followed by a sharp anodic peak at 0.7 V<sub>RHE</sub> at 25 °C. The rise of the temperature shifts all these features about 0.1 V towards more negative potentials.

In contrast, MPt/Sn catalyst with  $\theta_{\text{Sn}} = 0.60$  presents the onset potential for the CO stripping at much lower values (0.23 V<sub>RHE</sub>) than MPt at 25 °C. Additionally, the CO stripping profile recorded at 25 °C for MPt/Sn electrode develops two well-defined anodic peaks centered at ca. 0.4 (denoted as I) and 0.67 V<sub>RHE</sub> (denoted as II). These results are consistent with those reported by other authors in the literature [30–36,38], in which a Sn promoter effect was observed. In fact, Sn is capable to promote the oxidation of adsorbed CO [42,43] with the aid of adsorbed oxygenated species (i.e. OH species), which are produced at lower potentials than Pt. The increasing of the temperature to 60 °C does not shift the onset and peak potential developed at 0.4 V (I) but increases the faradaic charge in this potential region. Additionally, it is observed a current charge diminution and a shift to lower potentials of the second anodic peak (II) with the rise of the temperature. These results indicate the existence of sites with different catalytic activity towards the CO oxidation reaction at MPt/Sn, and suggest a CO surface diffusion from the least (II) to the most (I) active sites, which increases with the temperature [44].

On the other hand, CO<sub>ad</sub> oxidation on commercial Pt<sub>3</sub>Sn/C electrode shows a broad anodic peak with an onset and peak potential at ca. 0.25 and 0.75 V, respectively. It is noticeable the higher value of the CO peak potential developed by the commercial Pt<sub>3</sub>Sn/C catalyst in comparison with the MPt and MPt/Sn materials. Similar to the observed for both MP electrodes, the CO peak potential for the Pt<sub>3</sub>Sn/C shifts negatively with the increment of the temperature.

Results are consistent with an enhancement of the water activation process (adsorbed oxygenated species formation) due to the introduction of Sn and the rise of the temperature, which affect the CO electrooxidation by means of the bi-functional mechanism [31–36,42]. Nevertheless, small contribution from electronic effect cannot be discarded.

The recorded mass spectrometric cyclic voltammograms (MSCVs) related to CO<sub>2</sub> formation ( $m/z = 44$ ) for each material are given at the right side of Fig. 4 (panels denoted as B, D and F). This figure clearly shows a close correlation between faradaic and ionic

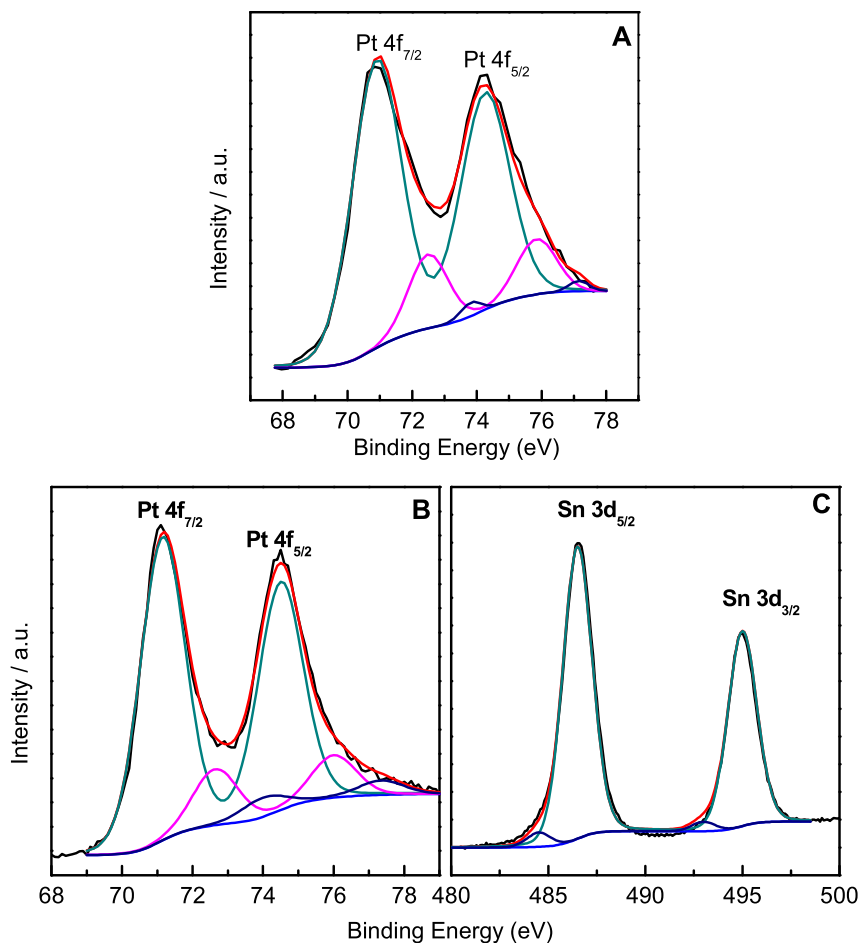


Fig. 3. Pt 4f XPS spectra for MPPt (A) and MPPt/Sn ( $\theta_{\text{Sn}} = 0.60$ ) (B). Sn 3d XPS spectra for MPPt/Sn ( $\theta_{\text{Sn}} = 0.60$ ) (C).

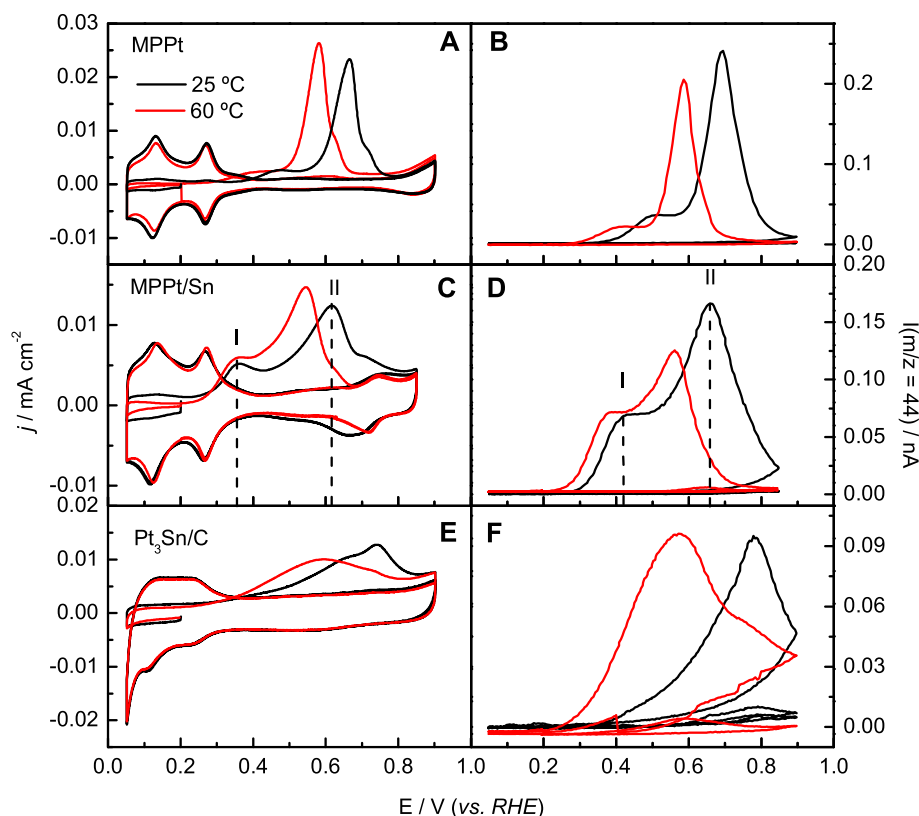
**Table 1**  
XPS results for MPPt/Sn electrode.

Catalyst	Pt <sub>species</sub>	Pt 4f <sub>7/2</sub> /eV (%at.)	Sn <sub>species</sub>	Sn 3d <sub>5/2</sub> /eV	Pt:Sn (%at.)	Pt:Sn (%wt.)
MPPt	Pt(0)	70.9 (67)	Sn(0)	—	—	—
	Pt(II)	71.9 (26)	Sn(IV)	—	—	—
	Pt(IV)	73.1 (7)				
MPPt/Sn ( $\theta_{\text{Sn}} = 0.60$ )	Pt(0)	71.0 (80)	Sn(0)	484.4 (4)	40:60	51:49
	Pt(II)	72.5 (14)	Sn(IV)	486.3 (96)		
	Pt(IV)	73.8 (5)				

currents, pointing out that the  $\text{CO}_{\text{ad}}$  oxidation reaction occurs in the 0.2–0.95  $V_{\text{RHE}}$  potential range. Even more, due to the absence of interference associated to the double layer charging, oxide formation or other reaction different to  $\text{CO}_2$  formation, the MSCV allows a better determination of the onset potential for the  $\text{CO}_{\text{ad}}$  oxidation reaction. In this context, the ionic current signal  $m/z = 44$  rises at more negative potentials (a shift close to 0.06 V can be discerned) than that observed for the faradaic current. Moreover, by means of MSCV, the onset potential for the  $\text{CO}_2$  production at MPPt/Sn electrode is detected at 0.2  $V_{\text{RHE}}$ . The last value is lower than that observed by *in-situ* FTIRS utilized in a potentiostatic mode [45]. Furthermore, it is observed that the CO tolerance increases in the following way: MPPt  $\ll$  Pt<sub>3</sub>Sn/C < MPPt/Sn. This order is not only confirmed by the onset potential for  $\text{CO}_{\text{ad}}$  oxidation reaction, but also by the increment of the  $m/z = 44$  signal at more negative potentials. In other words, ionic current developed at 0.4 V is higher

on MPPt/Sn than on Pt<sub>3</sub>Sn/C material. In this context, Sn oxides deposited on mesoporous metallic Pt sites appear to be relevant for an enhanced activity towards the CO oxidation reaction.

On the other hand, a clear anodic peak (I) appears for the CO oxidation onto MPPt/Sn, which is absent for carbon supported PtSn, while the anodic contribution (II) occurs at more negative potentials for MPPt/Sn catalyst in comparison with the commercial catalyst. The first anodic peak (I) is related to high abundance of reactive sites. In this sense, low-coordinated Sn atoms, which can be presented as kink or step on the Pt surface, are reactive sites that may promote the formation of oxygenated species onto the surface (Sn–OH and  $\text{SnO}_2$ ) at lower potentials than conventional PtSn alloys [45,46]. In this sense, it is well documented that CO stripping on Pt basal planes is more reactive on open than close-packed surfaces in acidic media [37], i.e. surface sites with (110) and (100) orientations are more reactive than that with (111) sites. Therefore, the higher CO tolerance can be associated to facile water dissociation on Pt open surfaces. As was discussed above and observed at Fig. 2, Sn adatoms as  $\text{SnO}_2$  species (see XPS analysis at Table 1) are mainly deposited on MPPt sites with (110) and (100) orientations. Moreover, CO does not adsorb on Sn surfaces and consequently the formation of adsorbed oxygenated species (OH) is assured. The last does not occur on Ru-based materials (e.g. PtRu), in which  $\text{CO}_{\text{ad}}$  and water dissociation ( $\text{OH}_{\text{ad}}$  formation) compete for the same adsorption sites. For all the exposed reasons, the onset potential for CO stripping on MPPt/Sn is located at more negative potential when is compared with those experiments performed at



**Fig. 4.** CVs (left panels) and MSCVs (right panels) for  $\text{CO}_{\text{ad}}$  oxidation on MPt (A, B); MPt/Sn ( $\theta_{\text{Sn}} = 0.60$ ) (C,D) and commercial  $\text{Pt}_3\text{Sn}/\text{C}$  (E, F) in 0.5 M  $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$ . Scan rate  $5 \text{ mV s}^{-1}$ ;  $T = 25$  and  $60 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ .

MPtRu, MPt/Ru and PtRu/C materials [23,24].

### 3.3. Methanol oxidation on MPt and MPt/Sn ( $\theta_{\text{Sn}} = 0.60$ ) catalysts

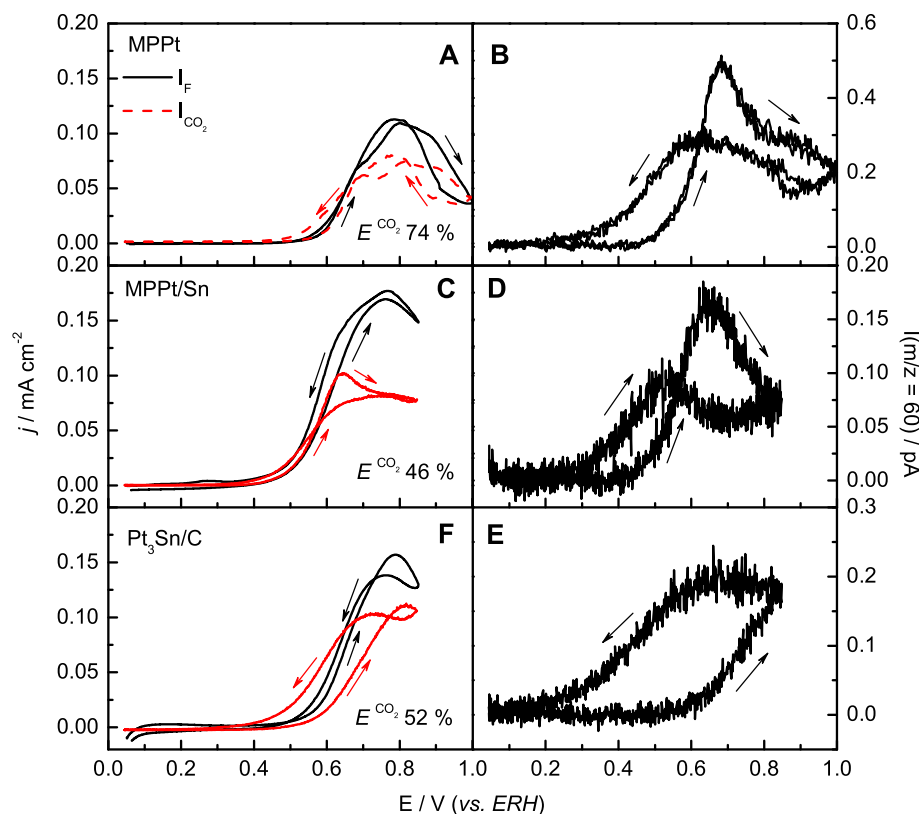
The potentiodynamic oxidation of methanol on MPt (top panel), MPt/Sn (middle panel) and  $\text{Pt}_3\text{Sn}/\text{C}$  E-TEK (bottom panel) recorded by cyclic voltammetry and DEMS can be seen in Fig. 5. Theoretical faradaic currents calculated from the  $m/z = 44$  signals after the calibration procedure were included (left panels, red lines). Note that the difference in area between experimental (black curve) and theoretical (red curve) faradaic currents is the extra charge associated with the formation of different products than  $\text{CO}_2$  (e.g. formaldehyde and formic acid), and therefore, the  $\text{CO}_2$  conversion efficiency can be estimated. Additionally, the ionic current related to methyl formate ( $m/z = 60$ ) that is produced by the condensation reaction of methanol and formic acid, is depicted in the right panels of Fig. 5. Thus, formic acid production can be followed through this signal.

Interestingly, the onset potentials for faradaic current and formic acid formation are similar for both MPt and MPt/Sn. However, the peak potential for formic acid production (right panels) appears at more negative potentials than those observed for the faradaic current (black lines, left panels) at these electrodes. The last indicates that a by-side product such as formaldehyde is favored at high potentials at mesoporous electrodes. In this sense, it is difficult to distinguish between methanol and formaldehyde ionic signals, since both molecules develop the same  $m/z$  signals. On the other hand, the  $m/z = 60$  signal for the carbon-supported material develops a completely different profile which can be explained assuming the slow diffusion of formic acid out of the

porous structure of the carbon (this diffusion is favored in the mesoporous materials respect to the carbon supported ones as previously shown in Ref. [24]). The current efficiency to  $\text{CO}_2$  (as average of the forward and backward scans) is higher for the MPt (74%) than for the MPt/Sn materials (46%). Indeed, the  $\text{CO}_2$  conversion efficiency increases in the following way: MPt/Sn <  $\text{Pt}_3\text{Sn}/\text{C}$  < MPt (Table 2), although the experimental faradaic current density shows the opposite trend.

As stated above, the incomplete oxidation of methanol produces by-side reaction products, such as formaldehyde, formic acid and adsorbed reaction intermediates (mainly  $\text{CO}_{\text{ad}}$ ). In fact, the decrease in the formation of these soluble side products produces a subsequent increase of the  $\text{CO}_2$  conversion current efficiency, but this effect is not necessary accompanied by an increase in the recorded faradaic current density. Thus, the commercial  $\text{Pt}_3\text{Sn}/\text{C}$  catalyst develops lower faradaic current density than the MPt/Sn electrode but higher  $\text{CO}_2$  conversion efficiency. Therefore the lower current density can be associated to surface poisoning (blocking effect) by adsorbed species (e.g. adsorbed CO, formaldehyde or formic acid) that further oxidize to carbon dioxide, causing the rise of the energy conversion efficiency. In the same sense, thin catalytic MPt/Sn films produce higher current densities and lower  $\text{CO}_2$  formation than thick films (not shown), as faster diffusion is favored for the former avoiding further reaction of side products on the catalyst surface. Conversely, MPt catalyst presents the highest  $\text{CO}_2$  efficiency and also the most intense signal for formic acid. As will be shown later, this result can only be explained assuming a low production of formaldehyde at this electrode.

The influence of the morphology on the catalytic activity was confirmed comparing the results for the MPt material with a Pt electrode prepared by electrodeposition following the same



**Fig. 5.** CVs and MSCVs for methanol oxidation on MPt (top panels), MPt/Sn ( $\theta_{\text{Sn}} = 0.60$ ) (middle panels) and Pt<sub>3</sub>Sn/C (bottom panels) catalysts in 0.1 M CH<sub>3</sub>OH + 0.5 M H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> at 25 °C. Scan rate = 2 mV s<sup>-1</sup>. Left panels: experimental (black line) and theoretical (from  $m/z = 44$ , red line) faradaic currents. Right panels: HCOOCH<sub>3</sub> ( $m/z = 60$ ) formed by the condensation reaction of methanol and formic acid. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

**Table 2**  
Efficiency conversion from methanol to CO<sub>2</sub> at 25 and 60 °C.

E (mV)	MPt		MPt/Sn		PtSn/C	
	Efficiency to CO <sub>2</sub> conversion					
	25 °C	60 °C	25 °C	60 °C	25 °C	60 °C
550 <sup>a</sup>	95	100	100	84	96	73
650 <sup>a</sup>	65	71	78	68	71	50
E <sub>total</sub>	74	54	46	59	52	59

E<sub>total</sub>: Efficiency conversion to CO<sub>2</sub> calculated from CVs.

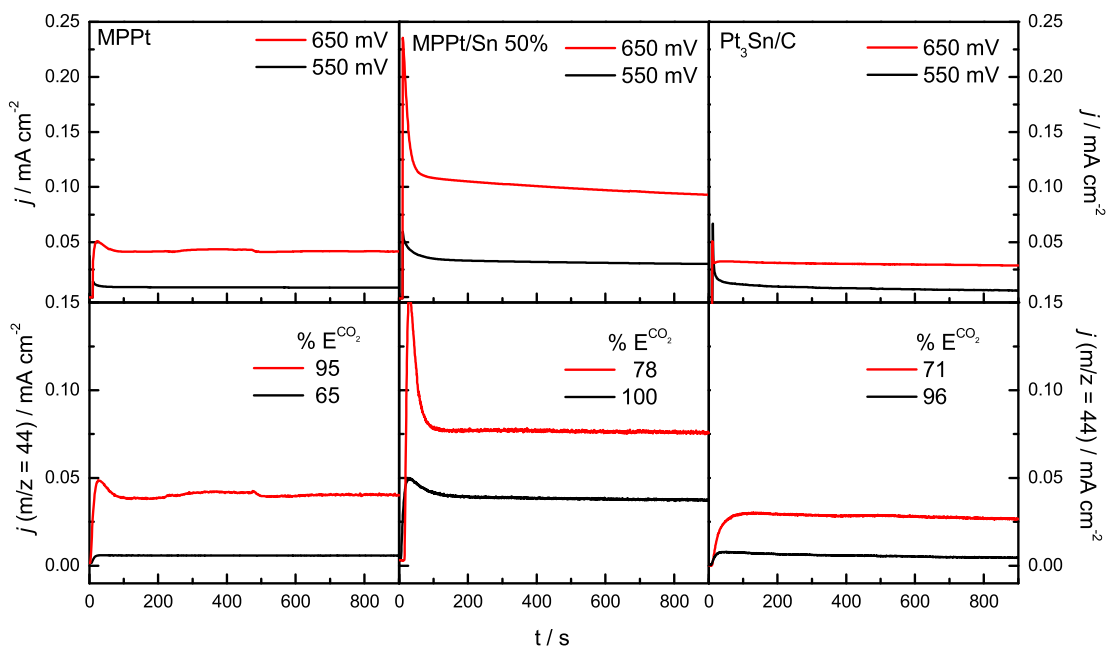
<sup>a</sup> Efficiency conversion to CO<sub>2</sub> calculated from chronoamperometry.

procedure used for the MPt but in the absence of surfactant. The cyclic voltammograms (see Supporting Information, Figs. 1S and 2S) show that higher current densities are obtained with the MPt, concluding that higher activity can be achieved with the mesoporous structure. In concordance with results from Fig. 5 previously discussed, the lower current densities for the electrodeposited Pt are accompanied with a higher efficiency to CO<sub>2</sub> (80% for the electrodeposited Pt in the absence of surfactant and 74% for MPt at 25 °C).

On the other hand, the chemical nature of the catalytic material appears as an important factor for both, the energy conversion efficiency and the current density. Left panels of Fig. 5 show that the onset potential for methanol oxidation on MPt/Sn and MPt electrodes is located at 0.4 and 0.5 V respectively. Both electrodes are smooth surfaces, in which reaction products diffuse in a similar way. However, Sn significantly improves the methanol oxidation reaction but not the CO<sub>2</sub> conversion efficiency at high potentials. Therefore, diverse pathways during the methanol oxidation

reaction are operating at both mesoporous surfaces depending on the applied potentials. Actually, Sn deposition on Pt sites with (110) and (100) orientations enhances the CO tolerance and decreases the overpotential needed for the methanol oxidation reaction. Additionally, low production of formic acid is observed on Sn-containing electrodes. Consequently, the low CO<sub>2</sub> conversion efficiency and the high current delivered at  $E > 0.60$  V for MPt/Sn are associated to soluble formaldehyde formation.

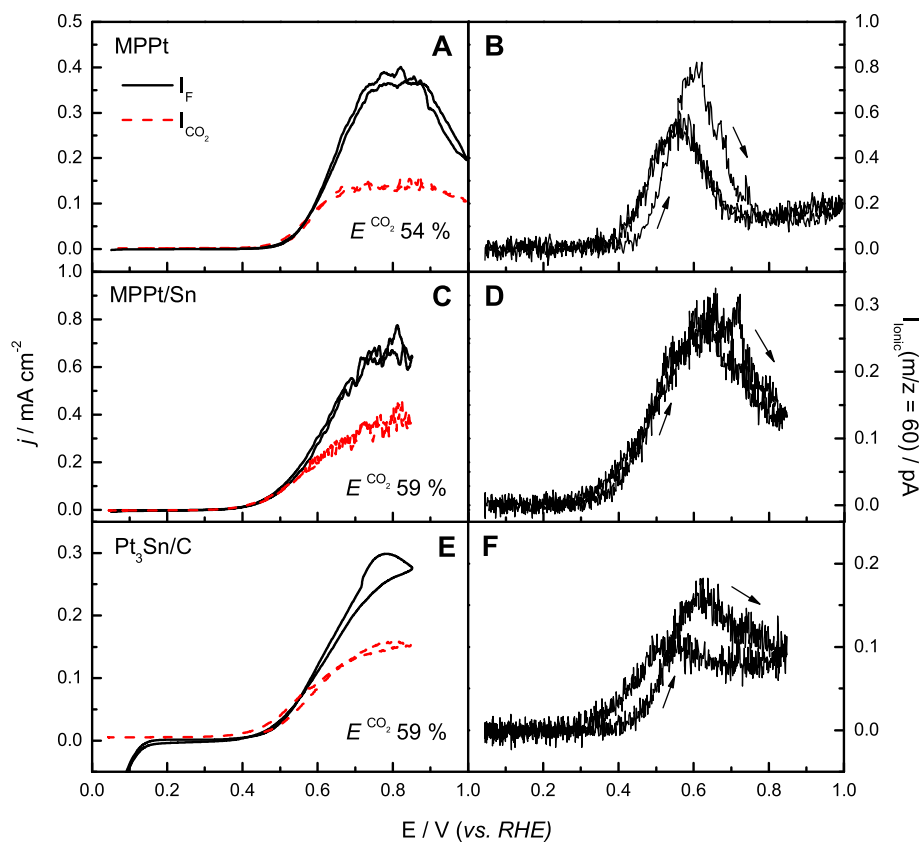
Fig. 6 depicts the experimental (top panels) and theoretical (bottom panels) faradaic currents calculated from the CO<sub>2</sub> signal  $m/z = 44$  and recorded at 0.55 and 0.65 V (25 °C). It is observed that the experimental faradaic current depends on the catalytic nature of the electrode and increases in the following way: Pt<sub>3</sub>Sn/C < MPt << MPt/Sn, in good agreement with that observed in the potentiodynamic experiments (Fig. 5). Additionally, methanol conversion to CO<sub>2</sub> is almost complete for Pt–Sn catalysts at 0.55 V (Table 2), but decreases at 0.65 V, whereas the faradaic current increases. In this sense, Fig. 5 also displays a CO<sub>2</sub> conversion drop at potentials higher than 0.60 V. Opposite, for MPt the current density increases with the applied potential and also does the current efficiency for CO<sub>2</sub> production. These results indicate, firstly, that the full methanol oxidation to CO<sub>2</sub> occurs not only through the adsorbed carbon monoxide path: MPt increases the efficiency to CO<sub>2</sub> with the applied potential whereas decreases at Pt–Sn materials, being the former less tolerant to CO according to Fig. 4. In fact, the formic acid path, presumably by adsorbed formate, contributes also to carbon dioxide formation. The latter is in agreement with infrared results previously published [47–49]. Secondly, considering that formic acid also contributes to CO<sub>2</sub> formation, methanol conversion drop to CO<sub>2</sub> at Pt–Sn materials should be then associated to formaldehyde production instead of formic acid at 0.65 V.



**Fig. 6.** Current transients for methanol electrooxidation at MPPt (left panels), MPPt/Sn ( $\theta_{Sn} = 0.60$ ) (middle panels) and  $Pt_3Sn/C$  (right panels) at 0.55 (red line) and 0.65 V (black line) in 0.1 M  $CH_3OH + 0.5$  M  $H_2SO_4$  at 25 °C. Experimental (top panels) and theoretical (bottom panels) faradaic currents. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

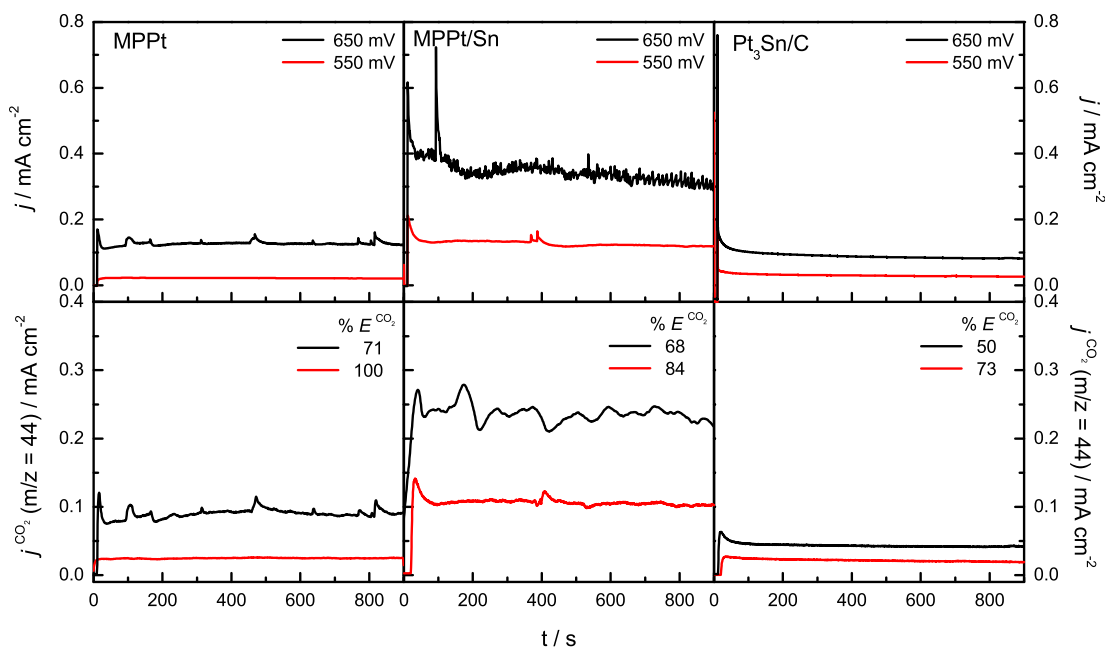
The effect of the increment of the temperature up to 60 °C can be seen in Figs. 7 and 8. The curves in Fig. 7 show a raise of the current density for all catalysts with the temperature, being especially

noticeable for MPPt/Sn. The onset potential for methanol oxidation at 60 °C remains with a similar trend to that observed at 25 °C, i.e.  $MPPt/Sn < Pt_3Sn/C < MPPt$ . Interestingly, the  $CO_2$  conversion



**Fig. 7.** CVs and MSCVs for methanol oxidation on MPPt (top panels), MPPt/Sn ( $\theta_{Sn} = 0.60$ ) (middle panels) and  $Pt_3Sn/C$  (bottom panels) catalysts in 0.1 M  $CH_3OH + 0.5$  M  $H_2SO_4$  at 60 °C. Scan rate = 2  $mV s^{-1}$ . Left panels: experimental (black solid line) and theoretical faradaic (red dash line) currents. Right panels:  $HCOOCH_3$  ( $m/z = 60$ ) formed by the condensation reaction of methanol and formic acid. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)





**Fig. 8.** Current transients for methanol electrooxidation at MPPt (left panels), MPPt/Sn ( $\theta_{\text{Sn}} = 0.60$ ) (middle panels) and Pt<sub>3</sub>Sn/C (right panels) at 0.55 (red line) and 0.65 V (black line) in 0.1 M CH<sub>3</sub>OH + 0.5 M H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> at 60 °C. Experimental (top panels) and theoretical (bottom panels) faradaic currents. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

efficiency diminishes for MPPt and grows for both electrodes containing Sn with the rise of the temperature (Table 2). Moreover, at 60 °C the intensity for the  $m/z = 60$  signal increases notoriously, so the growth in the faradaic current is mainly related to the activation of the formic acid production pathway. It is observed that both ionic peak potentials for this signal (forward and backward scans) become similar in intensities and potential range, especially for the MPPt/Sn catalyst. This effect is explained by the enhancement of the water activation reaction with the rise of the temperature, increasing the kinetic and reversibility of the metallic oxide formation/reduction reaction.

Potentiostatic measurements at 0.55 and 0.65 V for methanol oxidation on all catalysts at 60 °C are depicted in Fig. 8. It can be established the following trend for recorded faradaic currents (upper panels): Pt<sub>3</sub>Sn/C < MPPt << MPPt/Sn which also increase with the rise of the temperature, in concordance with the results in the CVs (Fig. 7). As explained before, the increment of the temperature facilitates the water dissociation onto metallic surfaces, and thereby, the CO tolerance. The higher CO<sub>2</sub> conversion occurs at 0.55 V, since the onset for formic acid production shifts to more negative potentials notoriously at 60 °C. Additionally, the presence of Sn onto the mesoporous electrode decreases the onset potential for the  $m/z = 60$  signal associated to formic acid formation. Theoretical curves in Fig. 8 (bottom panels) show that at 60 °C the energy conversion efficiency from methanol to carbon dioxide at both applied potentials increases in the following way: Pt<sub>3</sub>Sn/C << MPPt/Sn ≤ MPPt. However, the highest delivered current by the MPPt/Sn suggests that this material presents the best performance toward methanol oxidation reaction. Indeed, it is expected for this catalyst high current density with elevated energy conversion efficiency at lower potentials (e.g. 0.45 V), in which low temperature fuel cells are operative.

Summarizing, the rise of the temperature promotes the water dissociation on metallic surfaces, thus producing an enhancement of both the CO and methanol oxidation reactions. The kinetic of methanol deprotonation process increases with the temperature and the applied potential, and then the formic acid formation is

favorable, although the current efficiency to CO<sub>2</sub> decreases. Adsorbed CO oxidation reaction is also favored with the temperature by the increment of the water activation process, and it is expected to liberate the surface for a fast methanol replacement. In this context, Sn does not adsorb CO but increases the rate of carbon monoxide removal, appearing as a better promoter than Ru for Pt-based materials. All these parameters (high activity and conversion efficiency to CO<sub>2</sub>) suggest a good performance toward methanol oxidation on Pt–Sn based materials at high temperatures and low overpotentials. In this context, Sn atoms adsorbed onto Pt open structures (MPPt/Sn) present higher tolerance than Pt–Sn alloys toward CO.

On the other hand, product (carbon dioxide, formaldehyde and formic acid) diffusion away from the active site is fast on well-structured mesoporous surfaces, and consequently, the turnover rate of methanol at these surfaces is high. Thus, mesoporous electrodes exhibit high faradaic currents during the methanol oxidation reaction; meanwhile the introduction of Sn improves the conversion efficiency to CO<sub>2</sub> [50]. Thus, commercial Pt<sub>3</sub>Sn/C catalyst develops elevated conversion efficiency but small current density, which is associated with a low turnover rate of methanol inside the carbon support structure.

#### 4. Conclusions

Methanol oxidation on mesoporous Pt (MPPt) and Sn modified MPPt (MPPt/Sn) with 60% of Sn coverage ( $\theta_{\text{Sn}} = 0.60$ ) was studied and compared with commercial carbon supported Pt<sub>3</sub>Sn alloy at 25 and 60 °C in acidic media. Reaction intermediates and energy conversion efficiency from methanol to CO<sub>2</sub> were also investigated using a new configuration of the cell differential electrochemical mass spectrometry (DEMS). This setup allowed the use of a conventional electrochemical cell and a meniscus configuration can be adopted [29].

The presence of Sn onto the MPPt surface enhances the CO and methanol electrooxidation at low overpotentials due to the presence of Sn oxophilic atoms situated on an open surface structure. Sn

promotes the water dissociation but does not adsorb CO, and therefore the turnover rate of the fuel is accurate. Consequently, the bifunctional mechanism appears to be operative, i.e. oxygenated tin species are able to supply oxygenated species (OH) at lower potentials than Pt, resulting in an enhancement of CO and methanol electrooxidation reactions.

The rate of the electrocatalytic process increases with the temperature and the applied potential. Thus, best performance is obtained with MPt/Sn catalyst at low potentials and high temperatures. High potentials produce high faradaic currents due to formation of side products mainly as formaldehyde, with the subsequent decrease of the conversion efficiency to CO<sub>2</sub>.

Mesoporous structures appear as suitable electrodes to replace carbon supported material in low temperature fuel cells. This appreciation arises from carbon corrosion that produces catalyst dissolution and agglomeration, and consequently loss of fuel cell performance. However, mesoporous materials are stable and possess high electronic conductivity in acidic media. Moreover, the porous structure facilitates the diffusion of soluble products away of the catalysts site, increasing in this way the turnover rate and consequently allowing catalyst active sites reutilization.

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## Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data related to this article can be found at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jpowsour.2015.02.018>.

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