

Enhancement of activity of PtRh nanoparticles towards oxidation of ethanol through modification with molybdenum oxide or tungsten oxide

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Abstract Electrocatalytic systems utilizing carbon (Vulcan)-supported PtRh nanoparticles (PtRh/Vulcan) admixed with either molybdenum oxide or tungsten oxide were tested and compared during electrooxidation of ethanol. The systems' performance was diagnosed using electrochemical techniques such as voltammetry and chronoamperometry. The proposed electrocatalytic materials were also characterized with X-ray diffraction (XRD), transmission and scanning electron microscopies (TEM and SEM), as well as SEM-coupled energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (SEM-EDX). For both systems containing molybdenum and tungsten oxides, enhancements in catalytic activities (relative to the behavior observed at bare PtRh/Vulcan nanoparticles) were found during ethanol electrooxidation at room temperature (22 °C). Further, it was from chronoamperometric current (density)–time responses that anodic electrocatalytic currents measured at 0.3 V (vs. RHE) were more than 20% higher in the case of the MoO₃-containing PtRh/Vulcan system relative to that utilizing WO₃. The diagnostic “CO-stripping” experiments were consistent with the view that addition of molybdenum oxide or tungsten oxide to PtRh/Vulcan tended to shift potential for the oxidation of inhibiting CO-adsorbate ca. 80 or 40 mV towards less negative values in comparison to the analogous but oxide-free system. The fact that carbon (Vulcan)-supported PtRu nanoparticles exhibited higher electrocatalytic reactivity observed phenomena may be attributed to specific interactions between noble metal centers and the oxides in addition to chemical

reactivity of metal oxo groups in the vicinity of PtRh/Vulcan at the electrocatalytic interface.

Keywords Bimetallic PtRh nanoparticles · Molybdenum oxide · Tungsten oxide · Ethanol oxidation · Electrocatalysis

Introduction

Fuel cell technology has become increasingly significant during recent years because of growing industrialization and related energy consumption, problems with environmental protection as well as limited resources of fossil fuels. Hence, it is important to find new energy sources that are thermally efficient and environmentally friendly. In this context, fuel cells are an alternative to conventional energy devices because of their potentially high thermodynamic efficiency and environmentally benign products [1, 2].

Many organic compounds have been used as fuels for polymer electrolyte membrane fuel cells, but usually methanol [3, 4] and, more recently, ethanol are considered [5–10]. In the latter case, the complete oxidation of ethanol produces as many as 12 electrons, but relative to methanol, the oxidation process is a fairly complex reaction because it requires dissociation of the C–C bond. The literature data show that, at present, the platinum-based catalysts are the most effective systems for adsorptive activation and dissociation of organic molecules [11–13]. However, the activity of Pt for the electrooxidation of ethanol is poor because the reaction rate on Pt is slow and the main products are not CO₂ but rather acetaldehyde and acetic acid [14, 15]. In other words, the bare Pt catalyst has effectively no sufficient ability to break the C–C bond. It is reasonable to expect that fabrication of Pt-based multicomponent systems, by appropriate alloying of interfacial modification, may lead to the

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improvement of electrocatalytic activity during the electrooxidation of ethanol.

Previous studies indicate that the presence of a second transition metal such as Ru, Rh, Ir, Sn, Pd, Zr, Mo, W, or Pb [4, 9, 10, 16–22] into Pt led to the electrooxidation of ethanol at lower potentials than on pure platinum. The sizeable enhancement was observed in the case of carbon-supported or intentionally decorated Pt–Sn catalysts [9, 10, 23–25], but in all cases, the main products formed were still acetic acid and acetaldehyde [26–28]. A report by Souza's group [11] showed that the presence of small amounts of Rh in Pt-based catalysts played an important role in improving the C–C bond cutting, and it tended to increase the ratio of CO₂ to acetaldehyde in the oxidation products. On the other hand, the obtained electrocatalyst was not highly efficient for the electrooxidation of ethanol. More recently, Kowal et al. [8, 29] have described a ternary electrocatalyst utilizing PtRh within carbon-supported SnO₂; the system has yielded promising results for the electrooxidation of ethanol. On the whole, it seems that a combination of three components (Pt, Rh, and SnO₂) tends to improve the oxidation reaction rate [8, 29]. From another point of view, SnO₂ seems to provide a good environment for PtRh nanoparticles. What is even more important, bimetallic PtRh nanostructured catalysts seem to be less prone to oxidative degradation than PtSn or even PtRu ones.

Historically, in the case of methanol electrooxidation, the activity of the electrocatalyst was improved by the addition of molybdenum or tungsten in various forms (elements or metal oxides) as a second or third constituent [30–33]. Molybdenum oxide and tungsten oxide have been demonstrated to show a promoting effect on Pt-based catalysts towards the oxidation of CO, thereby mitigating CO poisoning [34–36] that also constitutes a limiting factor during oxidation of methanol [37–39]. The improvement of catalytic activities of systems containing molybdenum and tungsten oxide for CO electrooxidation was also confirmed by theoretical studies [40, 41]. When it comes to oxidation of ethanol, modification of PtSn nanoparticles with polymolybdates or polytungstates [9, 42–44], with tungsten oxide [10] or molybdenum oxide [31], has also resulted in the enhancement of the system's electrocatalytic properties.

It has been recently postulated that metal oxide species stabilize noble metal nanoparticle dispersions [10, 45], and they have the ability to produce OH[−] surface groups (from electrodisassociation of water) that facilitate the CO electrooxidation process [46, 47]. The latter point is important in the context of electrooxidation of small organic molecules.

In this work, the electrocatalytic activity of carbon-supported PtRh nanoparticles (PtRh/C), that have been intentionally modified or admixed with metal oxide species such as MoO₃ or WO₃, is investigated for the electrooxidation of ethanol. In addition, general physicochemical properties of the proposed catalysts are described.

Experimental

All chemicals obtained were commercial materials of analytical grade purity. The PtRh/Vulcan nanoparticles (20% on Vulcan XC-72, Pt/Rh–4:1) were from BASF Fuel Cell Inc. Solutions were prepared using doubly distilled and subsequently de-ionized (Millipore Milli-Q) water. Argon was used to de-aerate the solutions and to keep an oxygen-free atmosphere over the solution during the measurements. Morphology of the catalytic particles was monitored using a LIBRA 120 transmission electron microscope (TEM) operating at 120 kV. Samples for TEM measurements were prepared by placing a drop (1–2 μl) of the solution of carbon-supported nanoparticles onto Fromvar film grids (Agar Scientific) and, later, by subjecting them to drying on 400-mesh Cu. Moreover, the morphology and the composition of catalytic films were assessed using a Nova 200 NanoSEM high-resolution scanning electron microscope equipped with energy dispersive X-ray spectrometry (EDS, Genesis XM4) analyzer. X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns of the catalysts were obtained with a Bruker D8 Discover system operated with a Cu lamp (1.54 Å) and Vantec (linear) detector ($k=1.5406$ Å).

All electrochemical measurements were performed using CH Instruments 750 A workstations in a three-electrode configuration. The reference electrode was a K₂SO₄ saturated mercury/mercury sulfate electrode (Hg/Hg₂SO₄), and a carbon rod was the counter electrode. All potentials in the present work were recalculated and expressed versus the reversible hydrogen electrode (RHE). As a rule, glassy carbon electrode was the base for the working electrode (geometric area, 0.071 cm²). The catalyst layer was fabricated through the modification of the glassy carbon by immobilization of PtRh/Vulcan nanoparticles. To prepare the solution of tungstic acid or molybdic acid, the suitable aqueous solution of 0.05 mol dm^{−3} Na₂WO₄ or Na₂MoO₄ was passed through a proton exchange resin, Dowex 50 WX2-200. The suspension of Vulcan-supported PtRh nanoparticles (PtRh/Vulcan) was prepared as follows: a known amount (10 mg) of PtRh/Vulcan nanoparticles was dispersed in 2 cm³ of 0.05 mol dm^{−3} aqueous solution of tungstic acid or molybdic acid. The suspension was mixed using magnetic stirring for 24 h and centrifuged. Then the supernatant solution was replaced with water, and a stable suspension of WO₃ or MoO₃-modified PtRh/Vulcan nanoparticles were produced. In the final suspension, the approximate molar ratio of Pt to tungsten oxide or molybdenum oxide (dehydrated) was 1 to 1. To immobilize catalytic nanoparticles, a 5-μl aliquot of the suspension was dropped using a micropipette on the glassy carbon electrode surface. The resulting layer was air-dried for 30 min at room temperature (22 °C). Then 2 μl of Nafion (0.02% alcoholic solution) was dropped on top of the modified glassy carbon

electrode. The Nafion film was sufficiently stable to fix the modified and unmodified catalytic nanoparticles on the electrode substrate in the supporting electrolyte. As a rule, the catalytic electrodes were conditioned through the application of 25 complete oxidation/reduction cycles at 50 mV s^{-1} between 0 and 0.8 V in $0.5 \text{ mol dm}^{-3} \text{ H}_2\text{SO}_4$. The total loading of PtRh nanoparticles was approximately $160 \mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$.

The CO-stripping measurements were performed in $0.5 \text{ mol dm}^{-3} \text{ H}_2\text{SO}_4$ electrolyte using the glassy carbon substrate onto which surface the appropriate catalyst was introduced. The electrolyte was first de-oxygenated by purging argon for 30 min. Subsequently, a few consecutive voltammetric scans (at 50 mV s^{-1}) were recorded in the potential range from 0.0 to 0.8 V. To saturate the solution with CO gas, pure CO (from Air Liquide) was bubbled through the electrolyte for 10 min. The actual CO-adsorption step (on the surface of catalytic Pt nanocenters) was achieved upon application of the potential of 0.1 V for 5 min after which the electrolyte was purged with argon for 30 min under open-circuit conditions to remove dissolved CO. As a rule, three cyclic voltammetric scans (at 10 mV s^{-1}) were recorded in the potential range from 0.0 to 0.9 V. Most of the experiments using these catalysts were performed two to three times with freshly prepared electrodes to ensure the reproducibility of electrode preparation and performance.

Results and discussion

Structure and morphology PtRh/Vulcan catalysts

To get some insight into the structure and morphology of the PtRh/Vulcan nanoparticles modified with molybdenum and tungsten oxides, the samples were examined by XRD (Fig. 1). The first broad diffraction peak at 25.0° , which appeared in all the XRD patterns, corresponded to the hexagonal carbon support [48]. In the case of unmodified PtRh/Vulcan nanoparticles (Fig. 1a), three characteristic diffraction peaks appear, which are all clearly broadened, indicating a very small average particle size [49, 50]. Moreover, for all samples, we had no direct evidence for the presence of diffraction peaks that could be attributed to rhodium (PCPDF 05-0685) because they are characterized by diffraction peak positions and crystalline structures [29, 51] similar to platinum (PCPDF 04-0802). These XRD data do not allow clear identification of the phase composition of the metal. The diffractogram of the MoO_3 -modified PtRh/Vulcan electrocatalyst (Fig. 1b) showed three peaks that appeared almost at the same position as for unmodified PtRh/Vulcan nanoparticles, but no diffraction peaks characteristic of MoO_3 were observed (PCPDF 5-0508). Indeed, the pattern of the MoO_3 /Vulcan sample that had been prepared in the same way showed only the broad

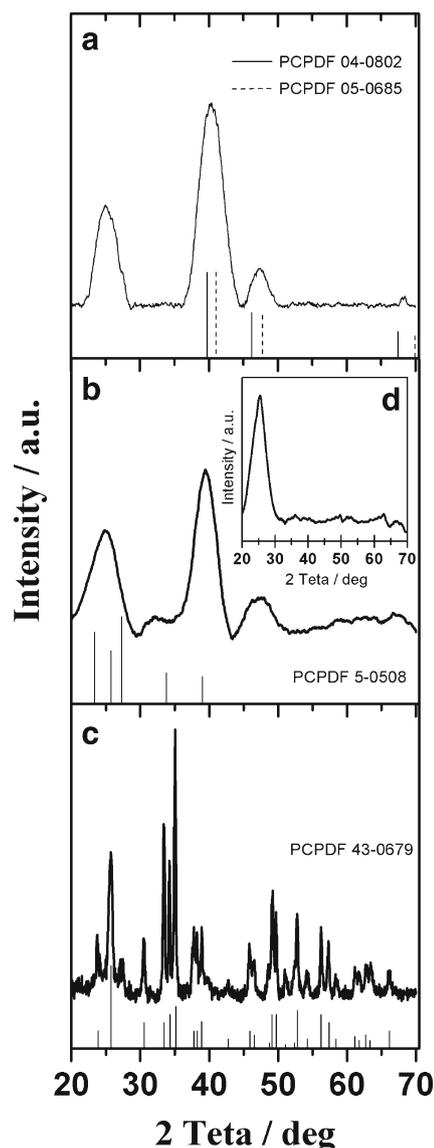


Fig. 1 XRD images of PtRh/Vulcan (a), MoO_3 -modified PtRh/Vulcan (b), WO_3 -modified PtRh/Vulcan (c), and MoO_3 -modified Vulcan (d)

diffraction peaks corresponding to the carbon support materials (Fig. 1, inset D). It is reasonable to expect that, in both cases, molybdenum species did not form crystalline aggregates [52]. In the case of WO_3 -modified PtRh/Vulcan catalysts, the signals characteristic of WO_3 were clearly visible in the XRD pattern (Fig. 1c) (PCPDF 43-0679). The WO_3 phase had characteristic peaks attributable to monoclinic WO_3 . The observation is in accord with earlier reports [53, 54]. The diffraction peaks in the WO_3 -modified PtRh/Vulcan nanoparticles (Fig. 1c) were narrower in contrast to those in the unmodified and MoO_3 -modified PtRh/Vulcan electrocatalyst where the diffraction peaks (Fig. 1a and b) were broadened.

In order to get more information about the particle size and the distribution of nanoparticles on the carbon material, TEM analysis was performed. Figure 2 shows the TEM images for

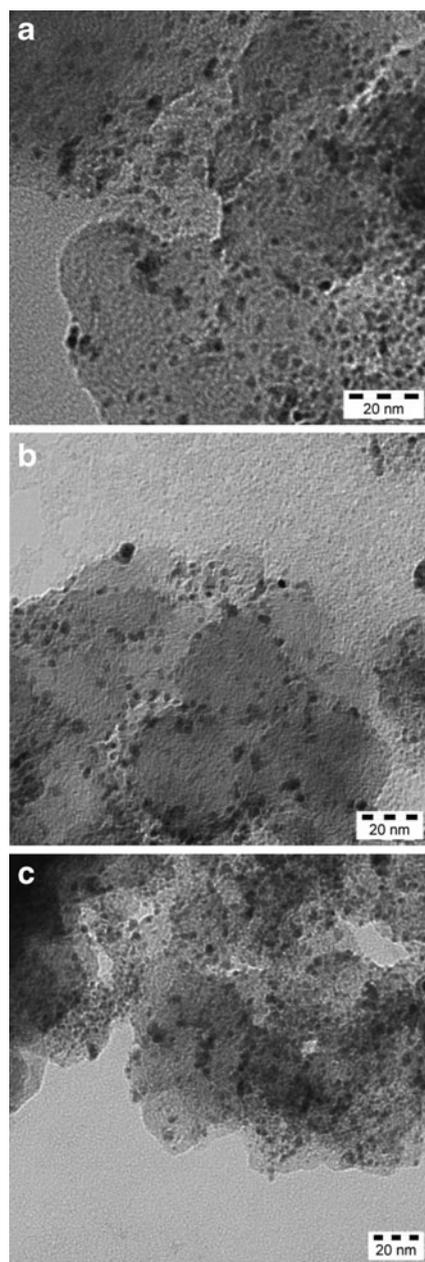


Fig. 2 Low-magnification TEM images of PtRh/Vulcan (a), MoO₃-modified PtRh/Vulcan (b), and WO₃-modified PtRh/Vulcan (c) nanoparticles

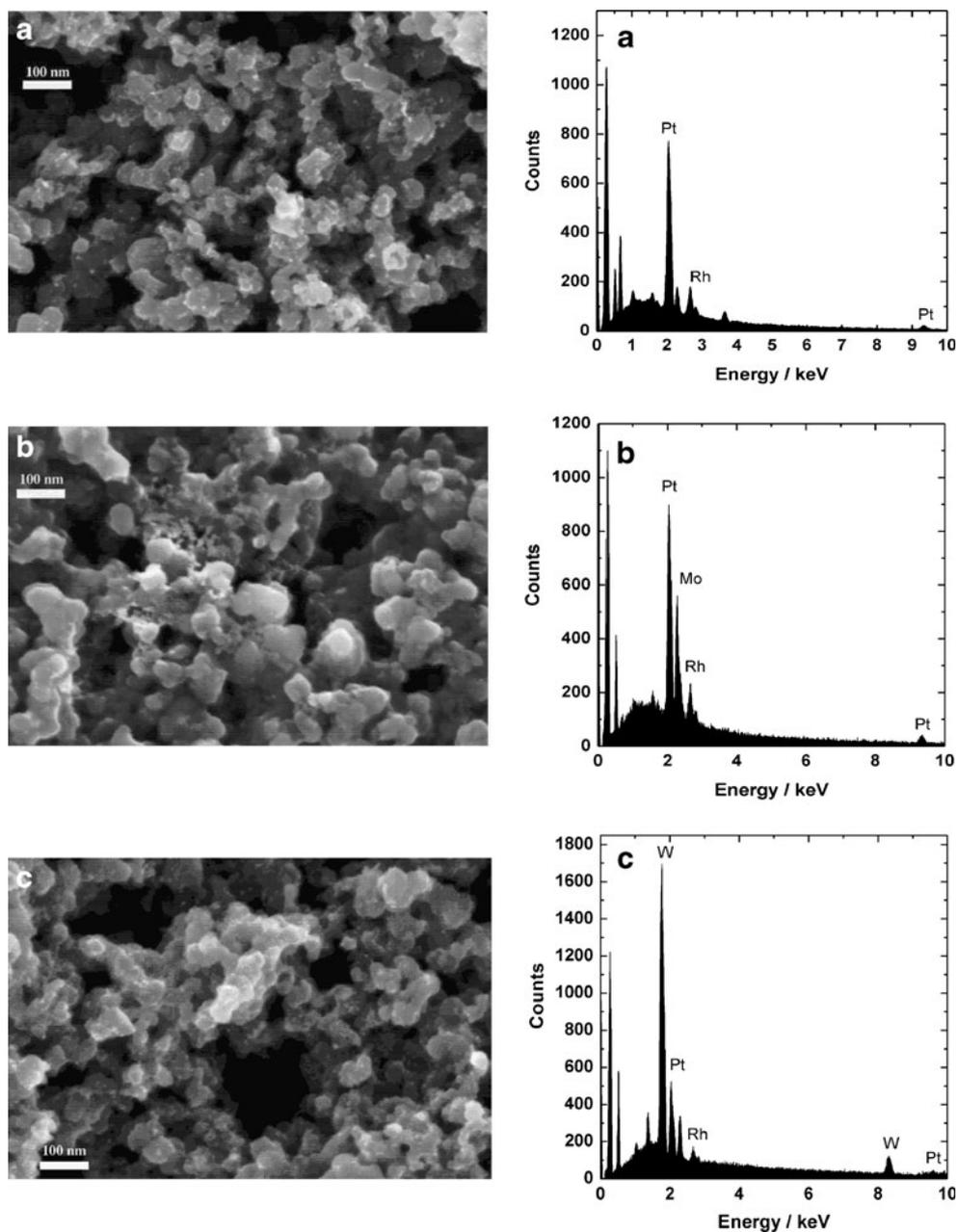
PtRh/Vulcan, MoO₃-modified PtRh/Vulcan, and WO₃-modified PtRh/Vulcan nanoparticles. Low-magnification images show that approximately spherical bimetallic nanoparticles are in all cases uniformly dispersed on the surface of carbon (Vulcan XC-72R) supports, and the distribution lies in a narrow particle size range. Histograms of the particle size distribution (not shown), which reflect analyses of several different portions of the catalysts, are also consistent with a uniform distribution of these catalysts. As can be seen in Fig. 2, both the obtained materials have small particle sizes narrowly distributed in the range ca. 2–6 nm.

Figure 3 shows SEM images and EDS spectra of the electrocatalytic materials (a) PtRh/Vulcan, (b) MoO₃-modified PtRh/Vulcan, and (c) WO₃-modified PtRh/Vulcan nanoparticles following deposition on glassy carbon substrates and finally covered by the thin layer of Nafion. In all cases, the particles are primarily distributed in the range 50 to 100 nm, which is attributed to Vulcan (carbon) support; the white small spots (diameters below 10 nm) originate from PtRh nanoparticles, which are approximately spherical and uniformly distributed. The SEM measurements are in good agreement with TEM results. Figure 3 also shows the EDS for which peaks are assigned to W, Pt, Rh, and Mo. It is clear that W and Mo exist in the metal oxide-modified catalytic material at approximately 3 at% and 4 at% levels, respectively. To validate our EDS-based estimations, molar contents of metal oxides (MoO₃, WO₃) have been addressed by using Raman spectrometry with an internal standard (KNO₃) as proposed by Hercules [55]. The obtained results allow me to state with a large degree of certainty that, in both cases, the molar contents MoO₃ and WO₃ (relative to Pt/Rh) have not been larger than 10%.

Electrochemical behavior in the absence and presence of ethanol

Typical cyclic voltammograms obtained for the PtRh/Vulcan, MoO₃-modified PtRh/Vulcan, and WO₃-modified PtRh/Vulcan nanoparticles deposited on glassy carbon electrode from 0.5 mol dm⁻³ sulfuric acid are shown in Fig. 4. The voltammograms for unmodified PtRh/Vulcan display prominent single peaks in the hydrogen adsorption region (0.0–0.4 V vs. RHE) [56]. These are probably related to hydrogen adsorption/desorption on an intermetallic alloy phase. The currents in the double-layer region between 0.4 and 0.8 V vs. RHE are significant. This behavior is characteristic of carbon-supported binary electrocatalysts containing transition metals [57]. Cyclic voltammetry of the MoO₃-modified PtRh/Vulcan system shows similar behavior to that described above for both hydrogen absorption/desorption and for currents in the double-layer region between 0.5 and 0.8 V. However, in the potential range from 0.3 to 0.5 V, an additional peak appears (Fig. 4; A, curve b). For comparison, the cyclic voltammogram of MoO₃-modified Vulcan support materials introduced onto the glassy carbon surface is also provided (Fig. 4, B). It is interesting to note that the peaks are at about 0.4 V (Fig. 4; A, curve b) for MoO₃-modified PtRh/Vulcan, i.e., at potentials less negative than the analogous peak current observed on bare MoO₃/Vulcan (Fig. 4, B). The peak, which is observed at about 0.4 V (Fig. 4; A, curve b), is in agreement with earlier reports describing redox processes involving Mo(V) and Mo(VI) [40, 58–61]. Moreover, the presence of MoO₃ leads to an increase in the voltammetric peaks for hydrogen

Fig. 3 Scanning electron microscopy and EDS analysis of **a** PtRh/Vulcan, **b** MoO₃-modified PtRh/Vulcan, and **c** WO₃-modified PtRh/Vulcan nanoparticles



adsorption and desorption, which are presumably due to the hydrogen spillover effect within the hydrogen molybdenum bronze. This phenomenon has been attributed to the interaction between the platinum active sites and molybdenum oxides [37]. By comparing the results of PtRh/Vulcan (Fig. 4; A, curve a) to those of WO₃-modified PtRh/Vulcan materials (Fig. 4; A, curve c), one can observe that the modification by WO₃ results in the development of two peaks in the hydrogen adsorption/desorption region. The new peak appears at a higher potential. It perhaps originates from the adsorption of tungsten oxide (WO₃), but this conjecture is not readily confirmed by voltammetry because the formation of hydrogen tungsten bronze and the reversal of WO₃ overlap the hydrogen absorption and desorption peaks.

A clear distinction between these two catalytic systems is that the hydrogen adsorption/desorption region is higher for WO₃-modified PtRh/Vulcan than that for the PtRh/Vulcan catalyst.

The stability of both obtained catalytic materials has been studied under 1-h chronoamperometric and repetitive (50 cycles) voltammetric measurements in the presence of ethanol (for simplicity, not shown here). The results are consistent with the view that PtRh/Vulcan nanoparticles exhibit good stability (8%) in the 0–900-mV (vs. RHE) potential range. Consequently, this potential range has been further utilized during electrochemical measurements for WO₃- or MoO₃-modified PtRh/Vulcan nanoparticles. The potential practical problem concerns the limited stability of MoO₃ in

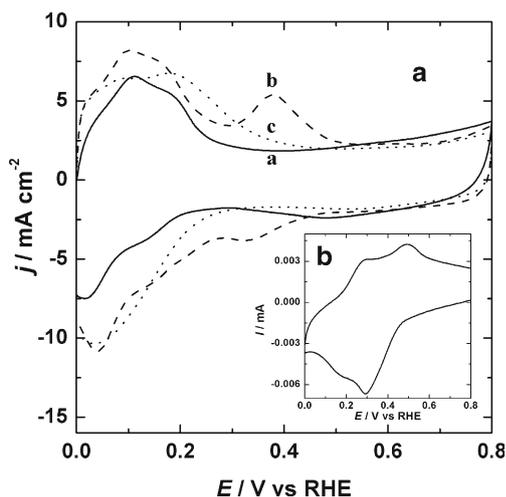


Fig. 4 *A* Cyclic voltammograms of PtRh/Vulcan (*a*), MoO₃-modified PtRh/Vulcan (*b*), and WO₃-modified PtRh/Vulcan (*c*) catalytic systems. *B* Cyclic voltammograms of MoO₃-modified Vulcan. Electrolyte, 0.5 mol dm⁻³ H₂SO₄. Scan rate, 10 mV s⁻¹

the proposed electrocatalytic system due to possible dissolution of the MoO₃ from the surface of carbon-supported PtRh nanoparticles. In the literature, the stability of MoO₃ is still controversial [62–67]. However, we have not observed any time-dependent deactivation effect that may imply dissolution of MoO₃. In the case of WO₃-modified PtRh/Vulcan nanoparticles, no dissolution of the metal oxide is expected. During chronoamperometric measurements pursued for 1 h, effective decreases of steady-state catalytic currents have never exceeded 12% in the case of both tungsten and molybdenum oxides. At this stage, practical stability of the system is rather low, but the present data have fundamental importance. Knowing the possibility of forming more robust WO₃ structures at temperatures exceeding 100 °C, further research along this line is necessary.

Figure 5 shows representative cyclic voltammograms obtained in the presence of 0.5 M ethanol at a glassy carbon electrode modified with PtRh/Vulcan (Fig. 5; A, curve a), MoO₃-modified PtRh/Vulcan (Fig. 5; A, curve b), and WO₃-modified PtRh/Vulcan (Fig. 5; A, curve c). The shapes of curves are typical for the electrooxidation reactions of organic alcohols; specifically, there are two peaks in both forward and reverse scans as reported in the literature [56, 68–70]. Most likely, the first (least positive) anodic peak reflects primarily the oxidation of ethanol to CO₂; in a given scan, there may be some contribution to this current from incompletely oxidized carbonaceous species formed during the prior cycle. What is more important is that the onset potential for ethanol electrooxidation is decreased in comparison to that at bare PtRh/Vulcan by modification of the catalyst with MoO₃ or WO₃ by ca. 100 or 70 mV (Fig. 5, A), respectively. In both cases, the current densities are higher

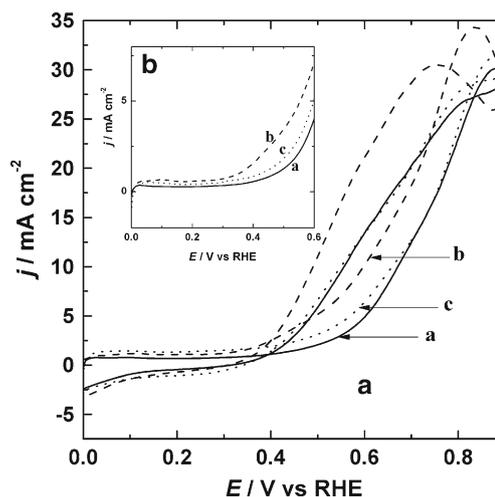


Fig. 5 *A* Cyclic voltammograms for oxidation of 0.5 mol dm⁻³ ethanol at PtRh/Vulcan (*a*), MoO₃-modified PtRh/Vulcan (*b*), and WO₃-modified PtRh/Vulcan (*c*) catalysts. *B* LSV responses for the oxidation of 0.5 mol dm⁻³ ethanol at PtRh/Vulcan (*a*), MoO₃-modified PtRh/Vulcan (*b*), and WO₃-modified PtRh/Vulcan (*c*) catalyst. Electrolyte, 0.5 mol dm⁻³ H₂SO₄. Scan rate, 10 mV s⁻¹

over the entire potential range, confirming the beneficial effect of these metal oxides on the electrocatalytic oxidation of ethanol. The observation can be interpreted in terms of the activation role of either MoO₃ or WO₃ on the interfacial water molecules at potentials lower than those expected for unmodified PtRh/Vulcan electrocatalysts [10]. In other words, the presence of MoO₃ or WO₃ on PtRh/Vulcan nanoparticles tends to enhance electrooxidation of ethanol in comparison to unmodified PtRh/Vulcan electrocatalysts.

The inset to Fig. 5 (Fig. 5, B) illustrates background-subtracted linear scan voltammograms (LSVs) for 0.5 M ethanol in 0.5 M H₂SO₄ at glassy carbon electrodes modified with PtRh/Vulcan (Fig. 5; B, curve a), MoO₃-modified PtRh/Vulcan (Fig. 5; B, curve b), and WO₃-modified PtRh/Vulcan (Fig. 5; B, curve c). The voltammograms show well-defined peaks for the anodic processes, thereby allowing refinement of the values of the potentials for the onset of ethanol oxidation. The onset potentials at bare PtRh/Vulcan nanoparticles and at MoO₃-modified and WO₃-modified PtRh/Vulcan nanoparticles were 0.41, 0.36, and 0.30 V, respectively, which again illustrates the enhancement of the catalytic activity for the MoO₃ system even in comparison to the WO₃-modified system and, particularly, to unmodified nanoparticles.

Activities of these electrodes towards the electrocatalytic oxidation of ethanol were compared by chronoamperometry at two applied potentials and with current densities recorded using the geometric areas of the electrodes (Fig. 6). In agreement with the cyclic voltammetry described above, the catalytic current density obtained, when the PtRh/Vulcan nanoparticles were modified with MoO₃, was increased at both 0.3 and 0.4 V in comparison to WO₃-modified and unmodified

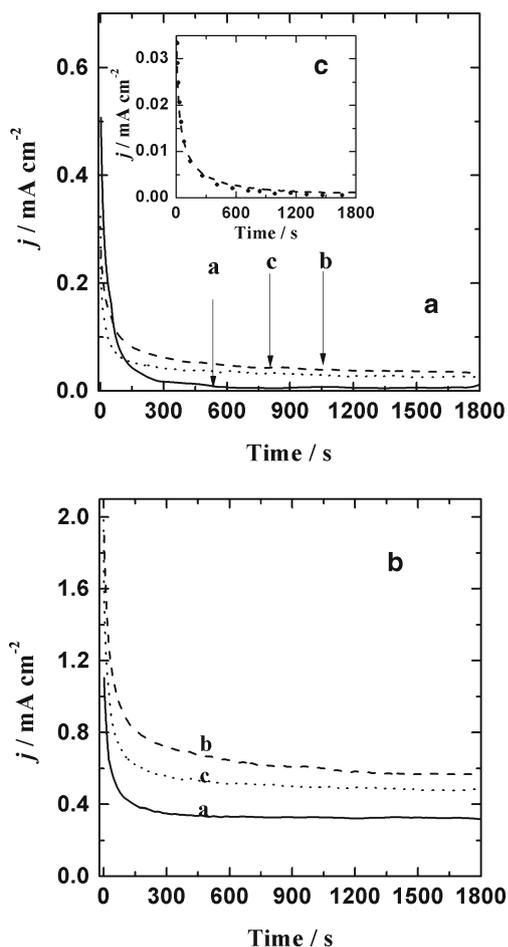


Fig. 6 Current–time responses at 0.3 V (a) and 0.4 V (b) for the oxidation of 0.5 mol dm⁻³ ethanol at bare PtRh/Vulcan (a), MoO₃-modified PtRh/Vulcan (b), and WO₃-modified PtRh/Vulcan (c) catalysts. Insert (C) chronoamperometric profiles of the prepared WO₃ and MoO₃ catalysts for ethanol oxidation recorded at 0.3 V. Electrolyte, 0.5 mol dm⁻³ H₂SO₄

electrocatalysts. At 0.3 V, the current was only developed when a metal oxide was present, which is consistent with the onset potential observed during the cyclic voltammetric oxidation of ethanol. At 0.4 V, all three electrode systems yielded current with the sensitivities in the order MoO₃-modified > WO₃-modified > unmodified PtRh/Vulcan nanoparticles. In all cases, at 0.4 V, steady-state currents were developed in the range 5–10 min. It seems that the presence of metal (Mo or W) oxo species in the vicinity of PtRh nanoparticles does not preclude the ethanol adsorption (activation) step. Further, the appearance of steady-state amperometric currents implies the existence of a balance between the rates of liberation of the active sites by oxidative desorption of intermediate species that otherwise poison these sites (e.g., CO, CH_x, CH₃CHO, and CH₃COOH) and the adsorption of ethanol at these catalytic sites. It is known [34, 38, 71–73] that the metal oxide (MoO₃ or WO₃)-containing environment at the electrocatalytic interface activates interfacial water at a lower potential (provide –OH groups on the

oxide surface). This process is likely responsible for facilitating the electrooxidation of the surface poisoning intermediate species, especially CO, which frees these sites for the oxidation of new ethanol molecules.

CO-stripping diagnostic experiments

To get some insight into the systems' abilities to remove (through oxidation) CO adsorbates, CO-stripping voltammetric experiments were performed at glassy carbon electrodes modified with PtRh/Vulcan, MoO₃-modified PtRh/

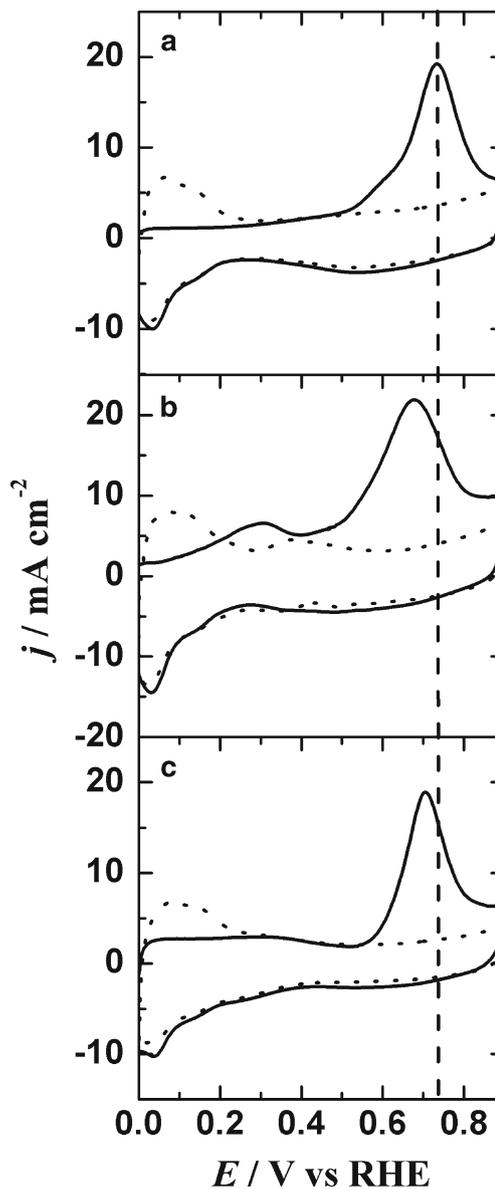


Fig. 7 CO stripping voltammograms recorded at 10 mV s⁻¹ in 0.5 mol dm⁻³ H₂SO₄ for the PtRh/Vulcan (a), MoO₃-modified PtRh/Vulcan (b), and WO₃-modified PtRh/Vulcan (c) catalysts. CO adsorption was done at 0.1 V. The solid curve shows the first cycles, and the dotted curve shows the second cycles

Vulcan, and WO_3 -modified PtRh/Vulcan catalysts (Fig. 7). The upper potential limit was chosen to avoid the over-oxidation of the surface and irreversible damage to the electrocatalyst structure. As shown in Fig. 7, significant differences in the onset potentials and peak potentials for CO oxidation during the first anodic cycles recorded using the MoO_3 -modified system in relation to the WO_3 -modified and unmodified catalysts were observed. Moreover, in all cases, CO blocks the hydrogen adsorption–desorption region which confirms that the surface is fully covered by CO. The position of the main CO-stripping (oxidation) peak for MoO_3 -modified PtRh/Vulcan and WO_3 -modified PtRh/Vulcan catalysts appeared at 0.66 and 0.70 V, respectively. The fact that the peak was only observed during the first anodic cycle implied that all adsorbed CO was oxidized and removed from the surface under such conditions. At the MoO_3 -modified system, in comparison to the WO_3 -modified catalyst, the CO-oxidation peak shifted negatively by 80 and 40 mV, respectively, versus the main CO_{ads} electro-oxidation peak ($E=0.74$ V), appearing at the bare PtRh/Vulcan catalyst. The obtained results were in agreement with previous observations concerning enhancement of activities of Pt and PtSn catalysts by modification or admixing with selected transition metal oxides [31, 73–75].

The electrochemically active surface area (S_A) was calculated assuming a monolayer of adsorbed CO on the modified PtRh/Vulcan catalysts and measuring the charge required to oxidize this monolayer. The latter value was calculated by integrating CO-stripping peaks and assuming that the coulombic charge was $420 \mu\text{C cm}^{-2}$ [41, 75]. The S_A values for the catalysts were 45, 44, and $42 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ for bare PtRh/Vulcan, MoO_3 -modified PtRh/Vulcan, and WO_3 -modified PtRh/Vulcan, respectively. CO-stripping voltammetric investigations show that metal oxide species block only a small fraction of the electrochemically active PtRh particle surface area.

Conclusions

We have demonstrated an improvement in carbon-supported PtRh nanoparticles for the electrocatalytic oxidation of ethanol by adsorption of metal oxides (MoO_3 or WO_3) thereon. The existence these metal oxide layers on PtRh/Vulcan nanoparticles yields higher catalytic currents for the oxidation of ethanol under voltammetric and chronoamperometric conditions and a lower potential for the onset for this process. The increased catalytic efficiency shall be related to improved removal of poisoning species such as CO_{ads} from the active sites. So far, there is no evidence for enhanced C–C bond splitting necessary for the oxidation of ethanol. The activation effect may also involve direct specific interactions (chemical or electronic) between metal oxides and Pt or Rh

sites. It cannot be excluded that interactions between platinum or rhodium and molybdenum oxide or tungsten oxide may result in changes in the surface electronic structures and thus in changes in the adsorption energies of carbon monoxide or even ethanol on these surfaces [9]. Further research is along this line.

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