

PhotoElectroChemistry for Corrosion

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Introduction

Photoelectrochemical techniques have been shown to be useful tools for characterizing oxidation layers.

Interdisciplinary theoretical underpinnings were built [1–5] such as the Gärtner-Butler model [6, 7] which has been proven to be a simple and robust model for the photocurrent generation.

Technical progresses were achieved, allowing to study oxide layers at macroscopic, mesoscopic, and microscopic scales [8, 9], or in-situ in high temperature corrosion conditions [10, 11].

Hypotheses

Several hypotheses are needed in order to apply the theoretical concepts:

- ▶ semiconductors are considered to be ideal i.e. crystallized and homogeneous
- ▶ the dielectric constant of the semiconductor is independent of the light wavelength
- ▶ the capacity of the Helmholtz layer is greater than the capacitance of the space charge capacitance
- ▶ the potential drop in the Helmholtz layer is independent of the applied potential and is negligible

Warning

The hypotheses are rarely fully respected in the case of oxides or passive films formed on industrial alloys. Nonetheless, the literature shows that the developed models can be applied to non-ideal systems such as oxides and passive films.

Band Model I

Solids: conductors, semiconductors and insulators.

Valence and conduction bands correspond to allowed energy states for the electrons.

E_c is the lowest energy level of the conduction band.

E_v is the highest energy level of the valence band.

E_g is the band gap with no allowed energy states.

E_F is the Fermi level which describes the distribution of the electrons among both bands. It represents the highest energy state that can be occupied at 0K. It is equivalent to the electrochemical potential in solid phases.

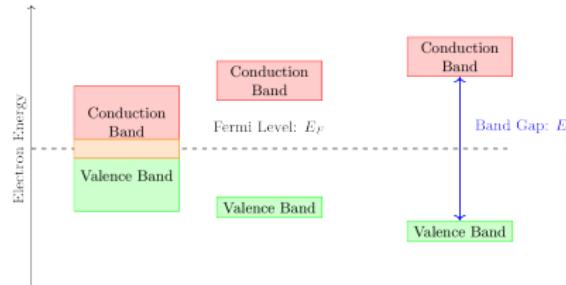
Band Model II

The electronic conduction is the movement of electrons and/or holes in conduction/valence band.

The conduction depends on the number of available charge carriers in the conduction band and in the valence band.

In conductors: overlap of the conduction and the valence bands occurs.

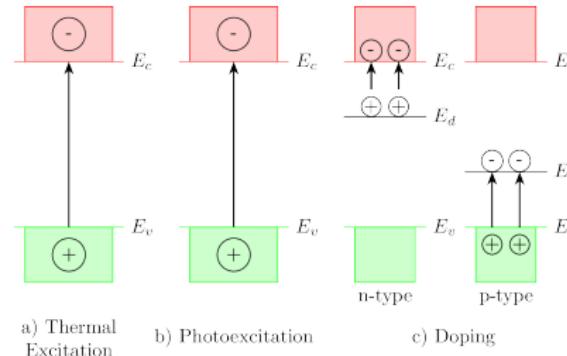
In semiconductor and insulator: the conduction depends on the band gap and the energy provided by the environment to the electrons from the valence band in order to jump into the conduction band.



Excitation carrier

In semiconductors, charge carriers can be generated by three mechanisms:

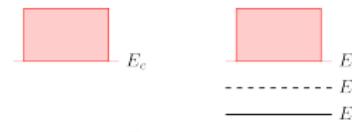
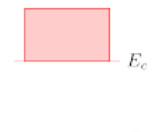
- ▶ thermal excitation: in the case of very low band gaps, it can be enough in order to eject an electron from E_v to E_c .
- ▶ photoexcitation: ejects electrons from E_v to E_c band when an incident photon ($h\nu > E_g$) is absorbed.
- ▶ doping: introduces additional energy level located in between E_v and E_c .



Fermi Level Position

The Fermi level E_F in intrinsic semiconductors is located at the mid-gap.

The n-type and p-type doping shift the Fermi level towards band edges E_c and E_v .



a) Intrinsic

b) n-type

b) p-type

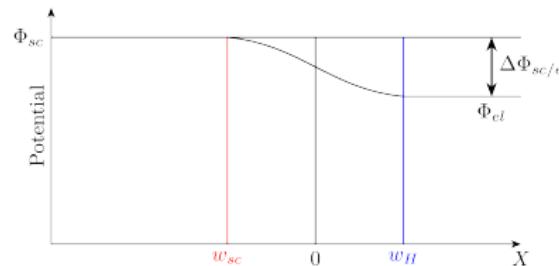
Band Bending I

A potential gradient occurs when a semiconductor comes into contact with an electrolyte.

Φ_{sc} and Φ_{el} correspond to the potentials of the semiconductor and the electrolyte, respectively.

$\Delta\Phi_{sc/el}$ corresponds to the potential difference between the semiconductor and the electrolyte.

w_{sc} and w_H correspond to the widths of the space charge and the electrical double layer, respectively.



Band Bending II

The position of the Fermi level in the electrolyte with respect to the conduction and valence band edges leads to three different situations after a transient charge transfer:

- ▶ flat band
- ▶ depletion
- ▶ accumulation

The flat band situation occurs when the Fermi level in the electrolyte matches the Fermi level in the semiconductor.

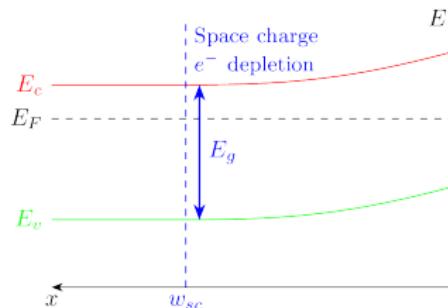
Consequently, there is no potential gradient in the semiconductor.

In a case of Fermi level mismatch, a band bending occurs in the semiconductor near the semiconductor/electrolyte interface.

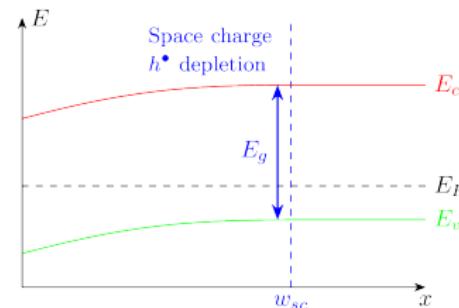
Band Bending III

The band bending leads to either depletion or accumulation of majority charge carriers near the semiconductor/electrolyte interface.

The spatial extension of the depletion/accumulation zone is called space charge.



a) n-type



b) p-type

Band Bending IV

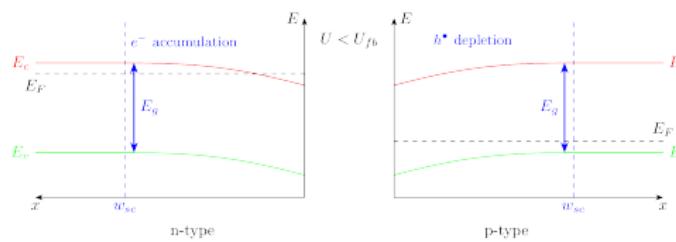
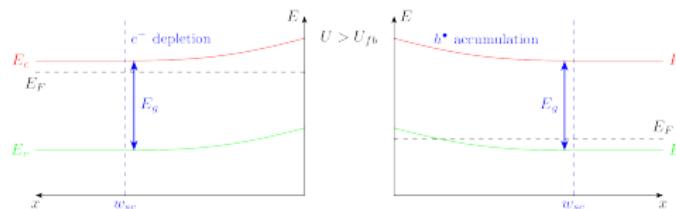
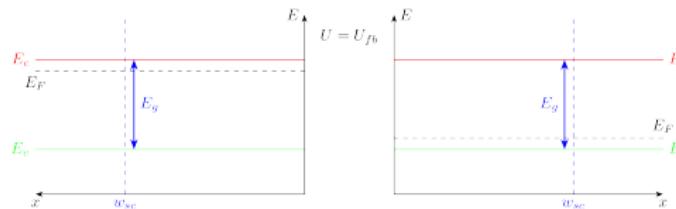
Depletion and accumulation as well as band bending can be obtained by polarizing the semiconductor.

Depending on the applied potential, U , with respect to the flat band potential, U_{fb} , three different situations will occur:

- ▶ $U = U_{fb}$: flat band situation no matter the semiconductor type
- ▶ $U > U_{fb}$: depletion (accumulation) in a case of n-type (p-type) semiconductor
- ▶ $U < U_{fb}$: accumulation (depletion) in a case of n-type (p-type) semiconductor

Semiconductor/electrolyte interface in dark condition

Band Bending V



Band Bending VI

Without illumination, cathodic (anodic) currents are favored in a case of accumulation of electrons (holes) for an n-type (p-type) semiconductor.

In fact, the majority charge carriers of n-type (p-type) semiconductors are electrons (holes).

Reciprocally, anodic (cathodic) currents are not favored in a case of depletion of electrons (holes) for an n-type (p-type) semiconductor.

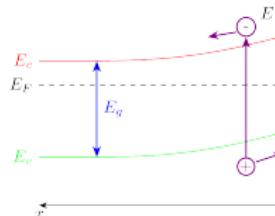
The junction between a semiconductor and an electrolyte acts like a Schottky diode.

Electron/hole pairs I

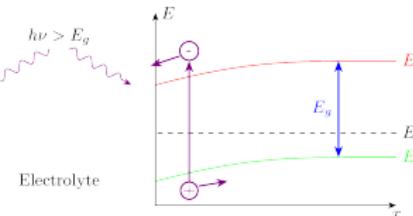
The illumination of the semiconductor/electrolyte interface, with photons having an energy greater than the band gap, E_g , creates electron/hole pairs in the semiconductor.

By applying the adequate potential the pairs can be separated.

As a consequence, the majority charge carriers are attracted to the semiconductor bulk whereas the minority charge carriers are drawn to the semiconductor/electrolyte interface where they can be transferred to a RedOx species creating an additional current called photocurrent.



a) n-type



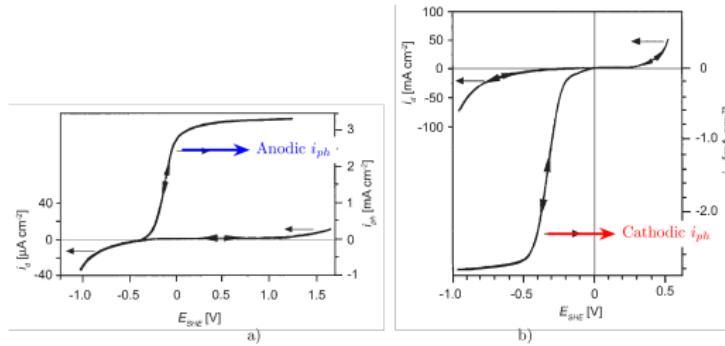
b) p-type

Electron/hole pairs II

The photocurrent is significant when the semiconductor/electrolyte junction is in depletion.

n-type (p-type) semiconductors generate anodic (cathodic) photocurrents where the electrons (holes) move towards the external circuit whereas the holes (electrons) move towards the interface.

The applied potential on n-type (p-type) semiconductors is greater (lower) than the flat band potential.



Gärtner-Butler Model I

Gärtner [6] and Butler [7] proposed a simple and robust model for describing the photocurrent.

The photocurrent depends on:

- ▶ w_{sc} : space charge width
- ▶ α : absorption coefficient
- ▶ L_{cc} : the average diffusion length of the minority charge carriers

$$I_{ph} = \phi_0 \left[1 - \frac{\exp(-\alpha_{sc} \cdot w_{sc})}{1 + \alpha_{sc} \cdot L_{cc}} \right] \quad (1)$$

When $\alpha_{sc} \cdot w_{sc} \ll 1$ and $\alpha \cdot L_{cc} \ll 1$, the photocurrent is approximated by the equation 2.

$$I_{ph} = \phi_0 \cdot \alpha \cdot w_{sc} \quad (2)$$

Gärtner-Butler Model II

Space charge width w_{sc} in depletion depends on:

- ▶ N_{cc} : number of majority charge carriers (\sim doping)
- ▶ e : elementary charge of an electron
- ▶ U, U_{fb} : applied, flat band potentials
- ▶ ϵ, ϵ_0 : relative, vacuum permittivity

$$w_{sc} = \sqrt{\frac{2\epsilon\epsilon_0}{eN_{cc}}(U - U_{fb} - \frac{kT}{e})} \quad (3)$$

The absorption coefficient α_{sc} depends on $h\nu$ (light energy) and n (band-band transition type).

$$\alpha_{sc} = \text{const} \frac{(h\nu - E_g)^n}{h\nu} \quad (4)$$

Gärtner-Butler Model III

The photocurrent is therefore given by the equation 5.

$$I_{ph} = \phi_0 \cdot \text{const} \frac{(h\nu - E_g)^n}{h\nu} \cdot \sqrt{\frac{2\epsilon\epsilon_0}{eN_{cc}}(U - U_{fb} - \frac{kT}{e})} \quad (5)$$

The linear transform with respect to the energy is used for determining the band gaps.

$$\left[\frac{I_{ph} \cdot h\nu}{\phi_0} \right]^{1/n} = \text{const} \cdot (h\nu - E_g) \quad (6)$$

The linear transform with respect to the potential is used for determining the semiconducting type, the flat band potential, and the number of majority charge carrier.

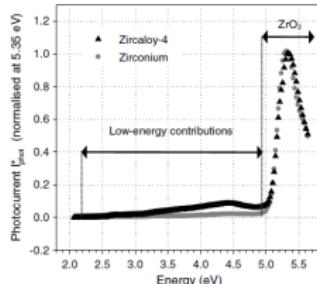
$$I_{ph}^2 = \text{const} \cdot (U - U_{fb} - \frac{kT}{e}) \quad (7)$$

Identification of minor oxides

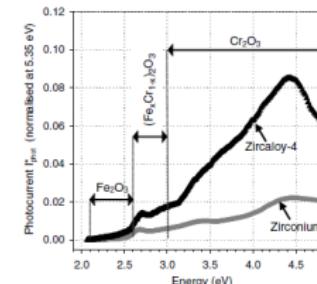
Benaboud et al. [8] showed that the photoelectrochemical characterization is robust for detecting the presence of minor oxides.

The strong photocurrent observed at around 5 eV reveals the major oxide i.e. monoclinic zirconia. The photocurrent $h\nu < 5\text{eV}$ reveals the presence of minor oxides even in “pure” zirconium.

The slope changes provided an estimation of the band gaps: hematite, chromia and a solid solution of $(\text{Fe}_x \text{Cr}_{1-x})\text{O}_3$.



(a)



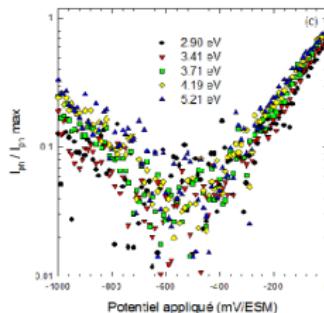
(b)

Semiconducting type

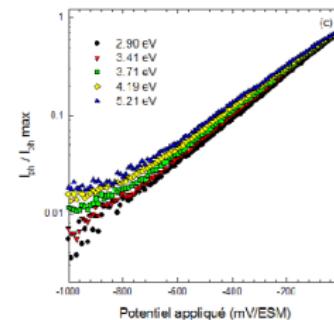
Loucif et al. [12] showed the effect of hydrogen pressure on the semiconduction type on Ni-based alloy 600 oxidized in simulated PWR.

The “V-shape” of the normalized photocurrent reveals an isolating behavior of the oxide layer at high hydrogen pressure.

The monotonous increase of the normalized photocurrent towards more anodic potentials reveals n-type semiconduction.



(a)



(b)

High temperature PEC I

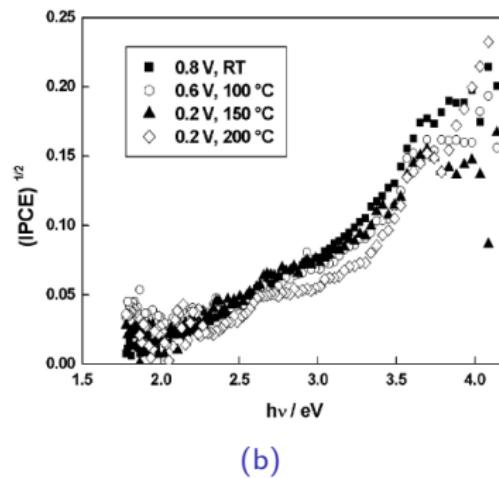
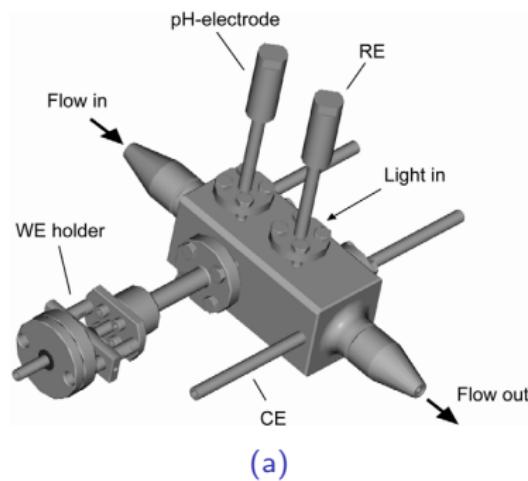
The majority of photoelectrochemical characterizations are performed at room temperature in simple glass/Plexiglas cells where the signal/noise ratio is very good.

High temperature photoelectrochemical characterizations require sophisticated metallic cells and transparent windows able to withstand the harsh environment.

Despite the need to improve the signal/noise ratio, the feasibility of the in-situ photoelectrochemical characterizations was demonstrated by Bojinov et al. [10] in 2002 and more recently by Skocic [11] in 2015

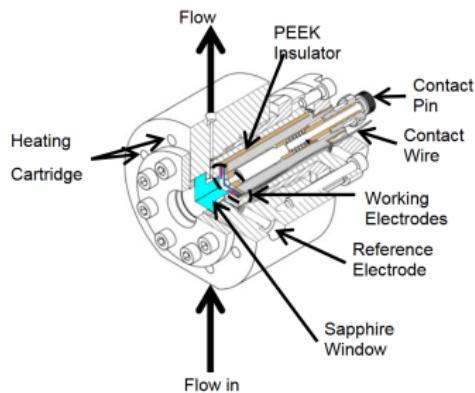
High temperature PEC

High temperature PEC II

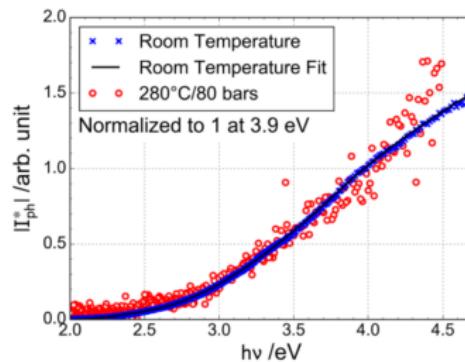


High temperature PEC

High temperature PEC III



(a)



(b)

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