

## Chapter 30

### **Characterizing the surface chemistry of oxides with X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy: Assessment regarding surface oxygen valence charge and acid–base properties**

*M. Ding and B.H.W.S. de Jong*

*For Titus*

#### **Abstract**

Variations in valence charge of surficial O (Oxygen) atoms in a compound may be calculated from shifts in the O1s binding energies. Using the National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST) photoelectron database, a consistent set of charges for O atoms in oxides can be made. It uses as reference frame a theoretical chemical procedure that incorporates a spherical potential around an O atom to account for the field generated by the surrounding atoms in a compound. The complete database indicates no strong correlations between calculated surface O charges and electronegativity, bulk or surface acid–base properties, points of zero charge or refractive index. To account for the large differences in surface acid–base properties, a detailed partitioning of charge on the O atom isolated from the surrounding atoms, a so-called atom in molecule assignment, rather than overall charge transfer must be invoked. It implies that the electron density associated with the O atomic orbitals in a molecular orbital must be partitioned between a bonded and a non-bonded part. The ratio between these two parts of the overall electron density varies, depending on the nature of the interaction between a specific metal atom and the O atoms in its coordination sphere. For silicates, this ratio is reasonably well established. Quantifying it from first principles for other metal–oxide moieties requires additional molecular orbital calculations.

### 30.1. Introduction

For many decades, structure, reactivity and properties of oxide materials have been studied in a variety of fields, including material science, inorganic chemistry, heterogeneous catalysis, glass and ceramic science, geochemistry, and environmental chemistry. In all these interdisciplinary research activities, much effort has been directed toward characterizing and predicting the surface reactivity of oxides, and in particular their acidic or basic character.

In aqueous solution, the acid–base concept is well defined and is fundamental to all chemistry. However, for solids it is not always obvious how acid–base concepts propagate in the different domains of chemistry. Thus in glass and ceramic science alkali and alkaline earth oxides are basic whereas silica is acidic. In heterogeneous catalysis, an acidic surface is defined as a proton-releasing surface as inferred from colorimetric titration with a basic indicator. In adsorption studies a surplus or deficit of surface protons is associated with a positive or negative surface charge. All these assignments suppose as basic ingredient a charge transfer from an electron source to an electron sink. It is the degree to which this transfer takes place that governs the adhesive and cohesive properties of a substance.

Donating or accepting electrons of elements that make up a substance have been at the root of all chemistry since the introduction of the concept of electronegativity by Berzelius in 1811. Though conceptually easy, it has been difficult to apply quantitatively to chemical processes. This manifests itself by the still in general insurmountable difficulties associated with the prediction of crystal structures from their chemical formulas only, as noted by Maddox (1988). Despite substantial efforts to remedy this, as he calls it, scandal in the physical sciences the issue is by no means settled yet. Sometimes the deficiency is obvious, for instance when using two rather than three body potentials in tetrahedral coordinated solids, more often it is not.

Though already difficult for solids for which accurate crystal structures are known, the problem is compounded for surfaces for which most geometric arrangements have to be inferred indirectly and are always model dependent (Marians and Burdett, 1990). The uneasy feeling prevails that there is a gap in our grasp on the cohesive energy of solids or in the nucleation and growth processes associated with their formation.

Many attempts have been made to systematize charge transfer in solids. Thus, Pauling's second valence rule, in which O atoms function as electron sinks, has in its modern parametric form been applied successfully in systematizing charge transfer between atoms in solids (Brese and

O’Keeffe, 1991; de Jong et al., 2000). Dietzel’s cationic field strength and the 15 other different electronegativity scales have been used with varying success in systematizing properties of oxide materials (e.g. Burdett, 1995, 1997). Ketelaar-van Arkel diagrams have been used to assign intuitively the degree of charge transfer in solids (Allen et al., 1993; Jensen, 1995; Mori-Sanchez et al., 2002). Hard-soft acid–base theory and its precursor, Goldschmidt’s (1923) atmophile, siderophile, lithophile, and chalcophile classification have rationalized the occurrence of elemental combinations in solids by combining charge transfer with polarizability of the constituent atoms. All these ways of systematizing charge transfer were conceived during the 1920s.

The arrival of computational theoretical chemistry in the 1960s allowed to look with new eyes at charge transfer in solids by examining the atomic orbitals that make up the orthogonal set of molecular orbitals of the system. Isolating characteristic moieties and inspecting the atomic orbital contributions to the overall molecular orbital structure enables testing of the interatomic charge transfer (e.g. Popelier, 2000; Gillespie and Popelier, 2001). It is this atom in a molecule approach, in which one ponders the variation in O atomic orbital coefficients in the molecular orbitals of a molecule, which we shall consider in the following, focusing on O in a surrounding crystalline field. We shall test if, with this notion, at least some part of the gap in our knowledge concerning charge transfer can be bridged.

In some recent studies (Ding et al., 2000, 2005), we looked into the absorbance of atoms and molecules on a ferric oxyhydroxide substrate and attempted to characterize the charge transfer from such substrate to different cations and anions using O1s photoelectron spectroscopy. This spectroscopic technique samples the surficial O layers. Shifts in this O1s spectral line may be correlated with variations of electron density in the valence band as shown in Fig. 30.1. The focus on the O1s core level, with its single or double peak, is advantageous because its spectral interpretation is substantially less complicated and more unequivocal than that of the valence band, which commonly consists of six or more peaks. We concluded from our studies that a solid surface is surrounded by a membrane of O atoms, a two-dimensional O coating on the mineral surface, that varies in charge depending on the nature of the incoming ion. It enabled rationalizations of charge transfer between substrate and adduct in terms of highest occupied (HOMO), which consists primarily of O 2p atomic orbitals, and lowest unoccupied (LUMO) molecular orbitals.

Given the promising nature of these studies we wanted to test if these rationalizations based qualitatively on first principle notions would apply to all oxides and hydroxides for which O1s photoelectron spectra have

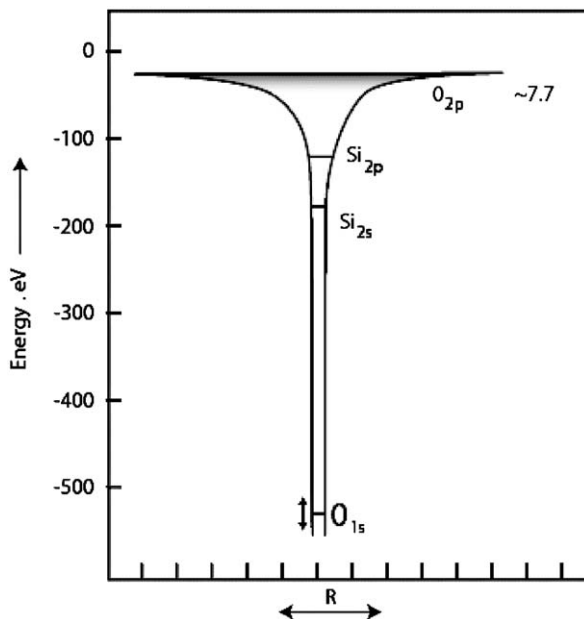


Figure 30.1. The electronic structure of O in silicates. The O1s level varies maximally by about 30 eV according to Bagus and Bauschlicher (1980). The direct gap, i.e. the difference of occupied states on top of the valence band and the continuum is about 7.7 eV for SiO<sub>2</sub> (de Jong, 1989). The top of the valence band consists primarily of O 2p states (de Jong and Brown, 1980).

been recorded; thus that one parameter would suffice to order all acid–base properties of solids and surfaces. We shall show that such parameter does not exist for this close to complete database; that observed surface O charges do not correlate with the standard chemical rationalizations invoking electronegativity variations, and we shall argue that interpretation of surface acid–base properties must include non-bonded electron densities on the O atom. Rather than whole number lone pairs, i.e. two electrons per pair, partially filled lone pairs in Lewis octets coincide with this molecular orbital derived non-bonded electron density concept.

### 30.2. Method

The overall charge on surface O atom can be ascertained from O1s photoelectron spectroscopy. Bagus and Bauschlicher (1980) calculated the shift in energy of the O1s core level as a function of O valence, i.e. variation in valence electron density, their calculated shifts invalidating

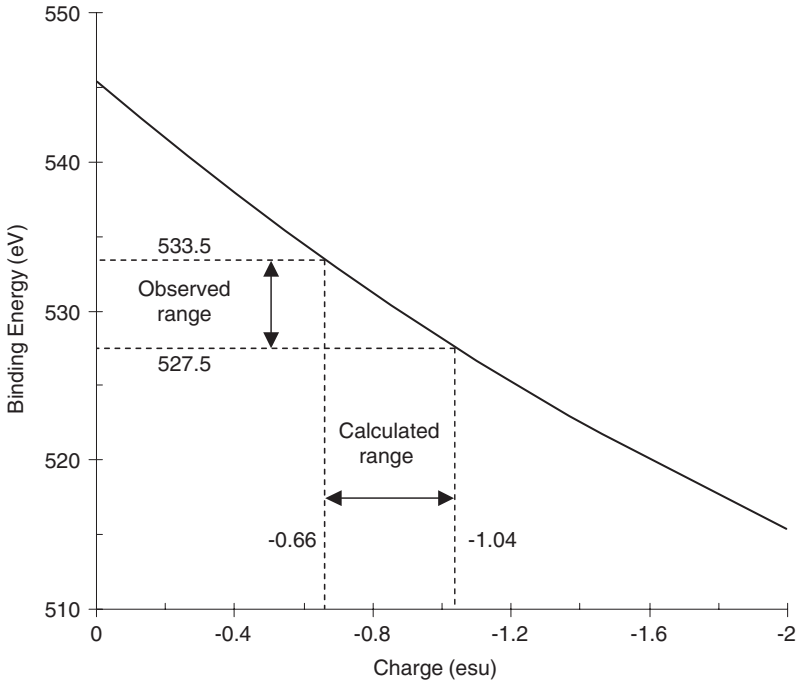


Figure 30.2. O1s core level binding energy versus charge according to Eq. (1) (Ding et al., 2000).

Koopman's theorem which states that the core levels of an atom remain fixed in energy when placed in a compound. Their result is illustrated in Fig. 30.2 and can be couched in the following formula (Ding et al., 2000):

$$Q_{\text{O}} = -4.372 + ((385.023 - 8.976 \times (545.509 - O_{(1s)}\text{BE}))^{\frac{1}{2}})/4.488 \quad (1)$$

where  $Q_{\text{O}}$  is the valence charge on the O atom in electrostatic units (esu) and  $O_{(1s)}\text{BE}$  the experimentally determined binding energy in electron Volts (eV).

Some confidence as to the reality of these charges may be inferred from the close correspondence between the one observed for O in  $\text{SiO}_2$  and the observed Mulliken charge density for O in state of the art calculations on the  $\text{H}_6\text{Si}_2\text{O}_7$  molecule (Burkhard et al., 1991).

We have used this equation to calculate the O charge for the O1s entries of primarily oxides and hydroxides in the NIST XPS database including also some measurements from elsewhere for comparison (de Jong et al., 1994; Barr et al., 1996; Stoecker, 1996). Our results reveal that the variation in O1s core level for oxide materials vary between  $\text{Cs}_2\text{O}$  at

527.5 eV and  $\text{Na}_2\text{B}_4\text{O}_7$  at 533.5 eV corresponding to a valence charge difference of 0.38 esu. The absolute values of these core level shifts are not always well determined and especially insulators as  $\text{SiO}_2$  show according to the entries in the NIST XPS database a substantial spread in peak position (for  $\text{SiO}_2$ : 2.3 eV) which may be attributed among others to the well known charging effects of the sample in the absence of a flood gun as for instance pointed out recently by Gijzeman et al. (2003). We have collected the average O charge values for all tabulated inorganic oxides, and hydroxides in Table 30.1. To highlight some of the results, the least negative O charges in this table are the network-forming oxides and hydroxides  $\text{SiO}_2$  (-0.698),  $\text{B}_2\text{O}_3$  (-0.686),  $\text{B}(\text{OH})_3$  (-0.668), and  $\text{P}_2\text{O}_5$  (-0.662); the most negative ones  $\text{Cs}_2\text{O}$  (-1.042),  $\text{PbO}_2$  (-0.982),  $\text{PrO}_2$  (-0.969),  $\text{Pb}_3\text{O}_4$  (-0.949), and  $\text{BaO}$  (-0.949).

### 30.3. Discussion

Previously, we have used O1s surface charges and their variations upon adsorbance of pollutants from aqueous solutions successfully to delineate the charge transfer on ferric oxyhydroxides (Ding et al., 2000, 2005). Here we want to test if this method can be extended to all oxide and hydroxide substrates, and if inter comparison between oxides is possible despite the, in general, lower coordination of surface O atoms relative to bulk ones and the concomitant damped charge difference (El Shafei, 1996).

We shall start this discussion to test if there exists a relation between XPS-derived surface O charge and two bulk solid properties: electronegativity and the difference between solid acids and bases as used in the ceramics and glass industry. Next we shall look if these O surface charges scale with two surface properties of solids: (i) solid acids and bases as proton donors and acceptors respectively, used in heterogeneous catalysis and (ii) points of zero charge variations of solids in contact with aqueous solutions. Finally, we shall discuss the nature of the O charge in terms of bonding and non-bonding electron density by assessing in detail the electronic structure of the valence band of O.

#### 30.3.1. Oxygen charges and electronegativities

The first issue is if the calculated charges can be correlated with observed electron negativity differences between O and the metal atoms in oxides. Of all the available electronegativity scales we did use the one of Allen (1989, 1992) and Murphy et al., (2000) calculated from the valence shell s and p electrons in the ground-state free atoms. This of course leaves out

Table 30.1. O(1s) Binding energy (eV) and calculated O charge Q (esu) for oxides and hydroxides arranged alphabetically

Oxides	O <sub>(1s)</sub> BE (eV)	Q <sub>O</sub> (esu)	Oxides	O <sub>(1s)</sub> BE (eV)	Q <sub>O</sub> (esu)	Oxides	O <sub>(1s)</sub> BE (eV)	Q <sub>O</sub> (esu)
AgO	529.1	-0.936	Fe <sub>3</sub> O <sub>4</sub>	529.7	-0.898	Pb <sub>3</sub> O <sub>4</sub>	528.9	-0.949
Ag <sub>2</sub> O	529.6	-0.904	FeOOH	530.8	-0.828	PdO	529.4	-0.917
Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	531.0	-0.815	Fe(OH) <sub>3</sub>	531.3	-0.797	PrO <sub>2</sub>	528.6	-0.969
As <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	531.9	-0.759	Ga <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	530.9	-0.822	Pr <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	529.2	-0.930
As <sub>2</sub> O <sub>5</sub>	531.7	-0.772	Gd <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	531.1	-0.809	PtO <sub>2</sub>	531.7	-0.772
B <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	533.1	-0.686	GeO <sub>2</sub>	532.1	-0.747	Pt(OH) <sub>2</sub> O	531.1	-0.809
B(OH) <sub>3</sub>	533.4	-0.668	H <sub>2</sub> MoO <sub>4</sub>	530.7	-0.834	Pt(OH) <sub>4</sub>	531.3	-0.797
BaO	528.9	-0.949	H <sub>2</sub> WO <sub>4</sub>	530.5	-0.847	ReO <sub>2</sub>	530.1	-0.872
Ba(OH) <sub>2</sub>	531.2	-0.803	HfO <sub>2</sub>	530.2	-0.866	ReO <sub>3</sub>	531.9	-0.759
BeO	531.7	-0.772	HgO	529.9	-0.885	Rh <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	530.6	-0.841
Bi <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	530.0	-0.879	HoO <sub>3</sub>	530.6	-0.841	RuO <sub>2</sub>	529.4	-0.917
CaO	530.3	-0.859	In <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	530.6	-0.841	RuO <sub>3</sub>	530.7	-0.834
Ca(OH) <sub>2</sub>	531.2	-0.803	In(OH) <sub>3</sub>	531.8	-0.766	Sb <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	530.0	-0.879
CdO	529.6	-0.904	K(OH)	531.7	-0.772	Sc <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	529.7	-0.898
CdO <sub>2</sub>	530.5	-0.847	La <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	530.0	-0.879	SiO <sub>2</sub>	532.9	-0.698
Cd(OH) <sub>2</sub>	531.7	-0.772	Li <sub>2</sub> O	531.3	-0.797	Sm <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	530.4	-0.853
CeO <sub>2</sub>	529.2	-0.930	Li(OH)	531.2	-0.803	SnO	529.9	-0.885
Ce <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	529.7	-0.898	Lu <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	530.3	-0.859	SnO <sub>2</sub>	530.6	-0.841
Ce <sub>3</sub> O <sub>4</sub>	530.3	-0.859	MgO	530.7	-0.834	SrO	530.4	-0.853
CoO	529.8	-0.891	Mg(OH) <sub>2</sub>	530.9	-0.822	Ta <sub>2</sub> O <sub>5</sub>	530.3	-0.859
Co <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	530.1	-0.872	MnO	529.8	-0.891	Tb <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	529.7	-0.898
Co <sub>3</sub> O <sub>4</sub>	530.0	-0.879	MnO <sub>2</sub>	529.6	-0.904	TeO <sub>2</sub>	530.4	-0.853
Co(OH) <sub>2</sub>	531.3	-0.797	Mn <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	529.5	-0.911	ThO <sub>2</sub>	530.3	-0.859
CoOOH	530.5	-0.847	Mn <sub>3</sub> O <sub>4</sub>	529.5	-0.911	TiO <sub>2</sub>	530.2	-0.866
CrO <sub>2</sub>	529.3	-0.924	Molec. siev	530.5	-0.847	Ti <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	529.6	-0.904
CrO <sub>3</sub>	530.1	-0.872	MoO	530.5	-0.847	Tm <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	531.2	-0.803
Cr <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	530.2	-0.866	MoO <sub>2</sub>	530.5	-0.847	UO <sub>2</sub>	530.3	-0.859

Table 30.1. (Continued)

Oxides	O <sub>(1s)</sub> BE (eV)	Q <sub>o</sub> (esu)	Oxides	O <sub>(1s)</sub> BE (eV)	Q <sub>o</sub> (esu)	Oxides	O <sub>(1s)</sub> BE (eV)	Q <sub>o</sub> (esu)
CrOOH	531.2	-0.803	MoO <sub>3</sub>	530.6	-0.841	UO <sub>3</sub>	530.4	-0.853
Cr(OH) <sub>3</sub>	531.2	-0.803	Na <sub>2</sub> O	529.7	-0.898	U <sub>3</sub> O <sub>7</sub>	529.9	-0.885
Cs <sub>2</sub> O	527.5	-1.042	NaOH	532.8	-0.704	VO <sub>2</sub>	530.0	-0.879
Cs <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub>	530.5	-0.847	Nb <sub>2</sub> O <sub>5</sub>	530.4	-0.853	V <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	530.4	-0.853
CuO	529.8	-0.891	Nb <sub>2</sub> O <sub>5</sub> ·OH	530.7	-0.834	V <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub>	530.4	-0.853
Cu <sub>2</sub> O	530.5	-0.847	Nd <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	530.1	-0.872	V <sub>2</sub> O <sub>5</sub>	530.2	-0.866
Cu(OH) <sub>2</sub>	531.1	-0.809	NiO	529.6	-0.904	WO <sub>2</sub>	530.7	-0.834
Dy <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	530.6	-0.841	Ni <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	531.6	-0.778	WO <sub>3</sub>	530.5	-0.847
Er <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	530.8	-0.828	Ni(OH) <sub>2</sub>	531.3	-0.797	Y <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	530.0	-0.879
Eu <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	530.8	-0.828	P <sub>2</sub> O <sub>5</sub>	533.5	-0.662	Yb <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	530.7	-0.834
FeO	530.0	-0.879	PbO	529.4	-0.917	ZnO	530.4	-0.853
Fe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	529.9	-0.885	PbO <sub>2</sub>	528.4	-0.982	ZrO <sub>2</sub>	530.7	-0.834



all the transition metal compounds. Inspection of Table 30.1 shows that electronegativity values do not exist on Allen's scale for compounds with an O charge more negative than  $-0.9$  esu. We have collected the remaining variations in electronegativity in Table 30.2 and ordered them in decreasing metal–O ratio.

Inspection of this table shows that the correlation between charge and electronegativity difference is not very strong. For instance in the  $XO_2$  sequence silica, germania, telluria, all metal atoms are four-fold O coordinated,  $TeO_2$  being somewhat exceptional because of its bipyramidal O coordination with four O atoms and one lone-pair located on Te. The O atom in the Te–O bond is expected to be the least negative based on the O–Te electronegativity difference, whereas of the three oxides it has the most negative calculated charge. Electronegativity or parameters that scale with it such as cationic field strength, reflect bulk properties of elements in solids and apparently tend not to scale with surface properties such as the XPS-derived charges.

Table 30.2. Electronegativity differences,  $\Delta$ , for selected metal–O linkages using Allen's (1989) electronegativity scale in comparison to calculated O valence charge ordered according to metal–O ratio

Compound	Bond	$\Delta$	Charge
$X_2O_5$			
$P_2O_5$	O–P	1.36	$-0.662$
$XO_2$			
$SiO_2$	O–Si	1.69	$-0.698$
$GeO_2$	O–Ge	1.62	$-0.747$
$TeO_2$	O–Te	1.45	$-0.853$
$X_2O_3$			
$B_2O_3$	O–B	1.56	$-0.686$
$Al_2O_3$	O–Al	2.00	$-0.815$
$Ga_2O_3$	O–Ga	1.85	$-0.822$
$As_2O_3$	O–As	1.40	$-0.759$
$In_2O_3$	O–In	1.95	$-0.841$
$Sb_2O_3$	O–Sb	1.63	$-0.879$
$XO$			
$BeO$	O–Be	2.03	$-0.772$
$MgO$	O–Mg	2.32	$-0.834$
$CaO$	O–Ca	2.58	$-0.859$
$SrO$	O–Sr	2.65	$-0.853$
$SnO$	O–Sn	1.79	$-0.885$
$X_2O$			
$Li_2O$	O–Li	2.69	$-0.797$
$Na_2O$	O–Na	2.74	$-0.898$

### 30.3.2. Oxygen charge and acid–base characteristics of bulk solids

Electronegativity and acidity and basicity are intimately related to one another (e.g. Huheey et al., 1993). For solids two ways exist to distinguish between acids and bases based on the principal species exchanged in acid–base reactions. This is the proton in the Brönsted (1923) theory focusing on its exchange with solid surfaces, and the O atom in the Flood and Forland (1947) and Flood et al. (1947) theory for non-protonic systems, primarily ceramics (e.g. de Jong et al., 1989), for bulk solids. Though our XPS-derived charges tend to reflect only the first three or four O layers of a surface, we tested if these charges scale with the solid acidity parameters for acidic-basic and amphoteric oxides derived by Smith (1987) based on the Flood and Forland (1947) theory. Our results are collected in Table 30.3; Cs<sub>2</sub>O with the most negative value, being the most basic oxide; the intermediate negative values being basic or amphoteric oxides,

Table 30.3. Selected values of basic (most negative) and acidity parameters for selected bulk oxides according to Smith (1987) based on the Flood and Forland (1947) concept

Oxide	Parameter acidity	O charge (esu)
Cs <sub>2</sub> O	−15.5	−1.042
Na <sub>2</sub> O	−12.5	−0.898
BaO	−10.8	−0.949
SrO	−9.4	−0.853
Li <sub>2</sub> O	−9.2	−0.797
CaO	−7.5	−0.859
MnO	−4.8	−0.891
MgO	−4.5	−0.834
ThO <sub>2</sub>	−3.8	−0.859
CoO	−3.8	−0.891
FeO	−3.4	−0.879
ZnO	−3.2	−0.853
NiO	−2.4	−0.904
BeO	−2.2	−0.772
Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	−2.0	−0.815
Fe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	−1.7	−0.885
Cu <sub>2</sub> O	−1.0	−0.847
H <sub>2</sub> O	0.0	
ZrO <sub>2</sub>	0.1	−0.834
TiO <sub>2</sub>	0.7	−0.866
SiO <sub>2</sub>	0.9	−0.698
B <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	1.5	−0.686
V <sub>2</sub> O <sub>5</sub>	3.0	−0.866
WO <sub>3</sub>	4.7	−0.847
MoO <sub>3</sub>	5.2	−0.841
P <sub>4</sub> O <sub>10</sub>	7.5	−0.662

and the slight negative or positive values being acidic oxides according to Smith (1987). In solution chemistry clearly not all assignments coincide with this classification as inspection of the paper by Rich (1985) concerning the periodicity in acid–base behavior of oxides and hydroxides shows. For example  $\text{TiO}_2$  is only soluble in acid and therefore a basic oxide,  $\text{ZrO}_2$  and  $\text{V}_2\text{O}_5$  show a minimum in their solubility as a function of pH and are therefore amphoteric oxides.

Inspection of this table shows that there is no relation between the bulk basicity of a material and the XPS-derived surface charge on the O atom.

### ***30.3.3. Oxygen charge and acid–base properties of oxide surfaces in heterogeneous catalysis***

For solid acids and bases used in heterogeneous catalysis acid/base assignments are based on proton exchange between the surface and basic or acidic indicators (Tanabe, 1970) with concomitant color change. This release of protons and associated acid nature of the surface is of significant industrial importance (Izumi et al., 1992; Tanabe and Holderich, 1999). We tabulated those solids collated in Tanabe's book as acid or base and looked at our XPS-derived surface charges including entries besides oxides and hydroxides in the NIST database, and collected the results in Table 30.4.

Inspection of table indicates some global relation between XPS-derived charges and the acidic (proton donor) and basic nature of the surface. Thus, the O charges on the acidic surface tend to be less negative and thus release adsorbed protons easier or accept electron pairs more readily than basic surfaces. Still among acids there are exceptions,  $\text{MoO}_3$ ,  $\text{TiO}_2$ ,  $\text{V}_2\text{O}_5$ ,  $\text{ZnO}$ , and  $\text{CeO}_2$ , which are according to Tanabe's criterion acids even though they have an O charge more akin to that observed for basic solid oxides.

### ***30.3.4. Acid–base properties of oxide surfaces in aqueous solutions***

Finally, a measure of the acid–base character of a surface in aqueous solutions is the point of zero charge. It can be determined either with a zeta potential meter, potentiometric titration or inferred from the minimum in solubility of a compound in aqueous solutions, or the minimum in rate of dissolution (e.g. Kamiya and Shimokata, 1974) as a function of pH. Three solubility behaviors exist: acidic oxides are soluble in base, basic oxides in acids, and amphoteric oxides show a minimum in solubility usually associated with a change in coordination of the dissolved species as for instance observed for alumina (de Jong et al., 1983). Based

Table 30.4. Acid/base characteristics of solid surfaces and the XPS-derived surface charges

Acids	O charge (esu)	Bases	O charge (esu)
CaCO <sub>3</sub>	-0.797	BaCO <sub>3</sub>	-0.803
Al <sub>2</sub> (SO <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>3</sub>	-0.729	CaCO <sub>3</sub>	-0.797
BaSO <sub>4</sub>	-0.741	Na <sub>2</sub> CO <sub>3</sub>	-0.772
CaSO <sub>4</sub>	-0.735	SrCO <sub>3</sub>	-0.809
Cr(SO <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>3</sub>	-0.747	Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	-0.815
CuSO <sub>4</sub>	-0.772	CaO	-0.859
FeSO <sub>4</sub>	-0.735	Cr <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	-0.866
Fe <sub>2</sub> (SO <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>3</sub>	-0.759	MgO	-0.834
K <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>4</sub>	-0.803	SrO	-0.853
MnSO <sub>4</sub>	-0.729	ZnO	-0.853
SrSO <sub>4</sub>	-0.747	BaO	-0.949
ZnSO <sub>4</sub>	-0.723	BeO	-0.770
AlPO <sub>4</sub>	-0.704	SiO <sub>2</sub>	-0.698
Ca(NO <sub>3</sub> ) <sub>2</sub>	-0.656		
MoO <sub>3</sub>	-0.841		
TiO <sub>2</sub>	-0.866		
V <sub>2</sub> O <sub>5</sub>	-0.866		
CeO <sub>2</sub>	-0.930		
ZnO	-0.853		
As <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	-0.759		
SiO <sub>2</sub>	-0.698		

on the data of Baes and Mesmer (1976) and Kragten (1978), Rich (1985) has collated a substantial number of these solubility behaviors from which for the amphoteric elements the point of zero charge can be estimated from their minimum in solubility. The scatter in the PZC data is substantial as inspection of the values quoted by Morrison (1985), de Jong (1989), Blesa et al. (1994), Boldyrev (1996), El Shafei (1996), Kosmulski (1997, 2004), and Sposito (2004) show. Some values, such as in particular that for SiO<sub>2</sub> and even Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> (Kosmulski, 2003) are open to continuing debate. In Table 30.5, we have collected the pertinent points of zero charge, designated PPZC by Kosmulski (1997), the pristine point of zero charge, versus O charge, the entries coming from the critically assessed canonical set proposed by him. They are arranged in decreasing metal O ratio in accordance with the already by Parks (1965) observed trends in PPZC as a function of this ratio.

Inspection of these PPZC that fulfill tight criteria with respect to their veracity show that they do not correlate with the calculated XPS charges.

Clearly, there seems to be no or only some tentative relation between the various acidity indices and the XPS calculated O charges. Sources of error in the latter may be at the base of this lack of correlation as mentioned previously, because calculating O charges from XPS requires

Table 30.5. O charge and pristine point of zero charge (PPZC) for various oxides (Kosmulski, 1997, 2002a,b)

Compound	PPZC (pH)	O Charge (esu)
$X_2O_5$		
Nb <sub>2</sub> O <sub>5</sub>	4.1	-0.853
Ta <sub>2</sub> O <sub>5</sub>	5.2	-0.859
$XO_2$		
RuO <sub>2</sub>	5.4	-0.917
TiO <sub>2</sub>	5.8	-0.866
ZrO <sub>2</sub>	7.8	-0.834
CeO <sub>2</sub>	8.1	-0.930
HfO <sub>2</sub>	7.6	-0.866
$X_2O_3$		
Fe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	9.8	-0.885
Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	9.1	-0.815
Y <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	9.1	-0.879
Ga <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	9.0	-0.822
In <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	8.7	-0.841
$XO$		
ZnO	9.2	-0.853
MgO	12.0	-0.834

Table 30.6. Monoxides with the NaCl structure, their density (gr/cc), refractive index,  $n$ (sodium D line), and XPS-derived surface charge(esu)

Compound	Structure	Symmetry	Density (gr cc-1)	$n$	O charge (esu)
MgO	NaCl	Cubic	3.56	1.737	-0.834
CaO	NaCl	Cubic	3.32	1.837	-0.859
SrO	NaCl	Cubic	4.75	1.870	-0.853
BaO	NaCl	Cubic	5.72	1.980	-0.949
FeO	NaCl	Cubic	5.50	2.320	-0.879
NiO	NaCl	Cubic	6.80	2.270	-0.904

confidence in the absolute value of the O1s energies. However, one may wonder if the overall charge on O is that what determines the interaction of the electron density of this atom with adducting atoms and molecules.

### 30.3.5. Oxygen charge and the refractive indices of oxides

To assess if something else affects the interaction of O charge density with adducts we have looked at the refractive indices of oxides. As has been well known since Lorentz these refractive indices scale with the number density and dipole oscillator strength of the O atoms in a compound. In Table 3.6, we have collected some oxides with the NaCl structure, their

density, refractive indices (Winchell and Winchell, 1964), and XPS-derived surface charge.

The choice for one structure type presupposes that the surface O atoms in contact with a solvent have a similar O coordination. The XPS-derived O charges are indeed quite similar, even though the bulk refractive indices show large variations, suggesting a very large difference in charge transfer between cation and anion, as may be ascertained from their variation in refractive index, amounting to a maximum variation in light velocity of  $43.440 \text{ km sec}^{-1}$  between MgO and FeO.

One may wonder why no clear relation exists between variation in overall O charge and any of the material properties of oxides mentioned above. Overall O charge seems not to be the panacea with which to account for a variety of properties, and it may be that the build up of this charge on an O atom in the valence band is what needs to be considered.

### *30.3.6. Non-bonded electron density on oxygen atoms*

The absence of discrete molecules in silicate chemistry in contrast to carbon chemistry was already noted among others by Friedel in the 1870s as one of the principal difficulties in making silicon analogues after carbon-containing molecules. This discreteness of organic molecules made theoretical calculations straightforward in comparison to the extended networks commonly encountered for silicates. It translated in the seventies of the last century in how to calculate an essential silicate moiety embedded in a surrounding, the overall fragment being uncharged. A satisfactory result to account for the spectroscopic properties of silica turned out to be the  $\text{H}_6\text{Si}_2\text{O}_7$  molecule (de Jong and Brown, 1980). Isolating the atomic orbitals associated with the Si–O–Si linkage in the overall set of molecular orbitals gave an adequate description of the electronic spectra of quartz, the observed angle bond length variations, as well as charge density on the bridging O atom. Our results indicated that, though the overall O charge remained approximately constant, there was substantial difference in the distribution of this electron density, the top of the valence band containing molecular orbitals that nearly completely consisted of O atomic orbitals only. This charge density was designated the non-bonded O electron density as depicted in Fig. 30.3. It implies that the surface reactivity of oxides hinges on that part of the overall O electron density that is free to react. It is associated with molecular orbitals with the least negative energy, i.e. those orbitals that represent the top of the valence band.

Non-bonded electron density varied as a function of Si–O–Si angle from about four electrons at an Si–O–Si angle of 180 degrees to about 3.5

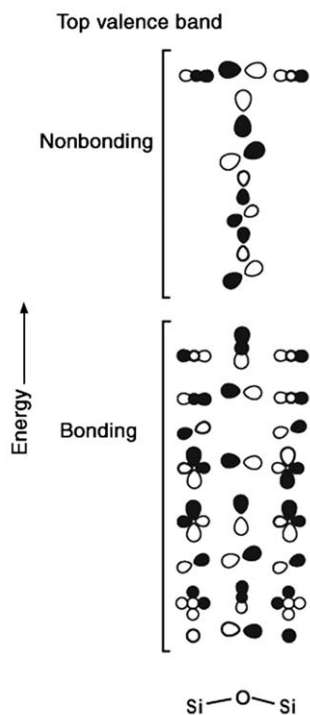


Figure 30.3. Linear combination of atomic orbitals across an Si–O–Si linkage in the  $\text{H}_6\text{Si}_2\text{O}_7$  molecule (de Jong, 1989). The overall electron density on the O atom may be partitioned in a bonding and a non-bonding part. Note that the top of the valence band, the highest occupied molecular orbital consists of O 2p states only.

at an angle of 140 degrees, the total number of valence electrons staying about constant around 6.7 electrons, i.e. a valence charge of about  $-0.7$  esu. The four non-bonded electrons on the bridging O correspond to two lone pairs and the rationalization of the virtually always bend Si–O–Si angle in silicates (Liebau, 1985) could readily be rationalized by the Gillespie-Nyholm VSEPR theorem (Gillespie and Popelier, 2001).

Generalizing these results to oxide materials suggests that ionicity or covalency of the constituent bonds in an oxide do not depend on overall charge transfer between O and the atoms in its first coordination sphere. This charge barely varies for surface O as we have demonstrated here. The overall O charge must be partitioned in a part associated with bond formation with atoms in the coordination sphere surrounding the O atoms versus a part on the O atom that is localized on it and free to react and act as an atom in a molecule. It may well be that electronegativity

scales might be used to assess this partitioning into non-bonded and bonded electron density but are likely too crude to account for the variation observed in the complete database. To calibrate this charge transfer additional molecular orbital calculations on different oxide moieties must be carried out to test the variation in O non-bonded electron density for characteristic oxides and hydroxides.

The need for such calculations can be illustrated by examining the electronic structure of two SiO<sub>2</sub> polymorphs: Quartz with <sup>IV</sup>Si, each O atom connected to two Si atoms, for which a Lewis octet structure can readily be drawn; and Stishovite with <sup>VI</sup>Si, each O atom connected to three Si atoms without an obvious octet structure. The valence band structure for Quartz clearly shows a sizable gap between bonded and non-bonded O 2p states as illustrated in Fig. 30.3. For Stishovite such gap does not exist and the O 2p states are continuous with a total width of 11 eV (Ching, 2000). Thus, despite identical electronegativity differences between the constituent atoms in these two phases, a pronounced variation in O electron density distribution occurs presumably with concomitant surface reactivity, disavowing the possibility of simple rationalizations.

#### 30.4. Conclusion

We have demonstrated previously that it is possible to successfully delineate the HOMO–LUMO interaction between ferric oxyhydroxides and various adsorbing atoms and molecules using XPS-derived O charges and that the HOMO consists primarily of O 2p atomic orbitals. Here, we have attempted to extend our procedure to all oxide and hydroxide materials for which reliable XPS data exist. We have shown that no clear correlation exists between these charges for either bulk properties, i.e. electronegativities, bulk acidity or basicity or refractive indices, or surface properties, solid acids and bases and points of zero charge. Clearly, such generalizations are too primitive and do not represent first principle cause and effect relations. This absence of clear correlations leads us to suggest that rather than considering the overall electron density on the O atom, a distinction has to be made between electrons involved in linking with their surroundings versus those free to react. This image is close to Lewis octet assignments at least for tetrahedrally coordinated oxide materials with their lone versus bond pairs, the difference being that the constraints of complete pairs, i.e. a whole, even number of electrons, must be lifted.



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