Nitrate Radical Facilitates Indirect Benzyl Alcohol Oxidation on Bismuth(III) Vanadate Photoanodes

Bradley D. Terry, John L. DiMeglio, John P. Cousineau, and Bart M. Bartlett*[a]

Bismuth(III) vanadate (BiVO₄) films show activity for direct benzyl alcohol (PhCH₂OH) oxidation to benzaldehyde (PhCHO) in acetonitrile solvent. Introducing tetrabutylammonium nitrate (Bu₄NO₃) drastically reduces the overpotential required to generate the PhCHO product while maintaining a high faradaic efficiency (FE) > 90%. BiVO₄ corrosion accompanies PhCH₂OH oxidation. However, the presence of nitrate ions (NO₃⁻) results in significantly less bismuth- and vanadium-ion leaching (determined by ICP-MS analysis), as well as reduced surface roughening (determined by SEM imaging). In this reaction, it is proposed that rate-determining NO₃⁻ oxidation generates a highly reactive nitrate radical (NO₃·) that reacts with PhCH₂OH by hydrogen-atom abstraction (HAT). NO₃⁻ is stoichiometrically consumed by the irreversible formation of electrochemically inert HNO₃, characterized by an EC mechanism, rather than a catalytic EC mechanism. In the presence of PhCH₂OH, NO₃⁻ oxidation on BiVO₄ becomes more facile; every order of magnitude increase in PhCH₂OH concentration shifts the NO₃⁻/NO₂⁻ equilibrium potential negatively by 200 mV. The shift results from the introduction of a consumption pathway for the nitrate radical intermediate via a coupled chemical step with benzyl alcohol. This report is the first example of photoelectrochemical NO₃⁻ generation to initiate indirect PhCH₂OH oxidation.

1. Introduction

Alcohol oxidation to carbonyl compounds is a valuable chemical transformation in academic and industrial settings. Toxic stoichiometric oxidants such as dichromate and permanganate are commonly used to carry out these reactions.[1] An emerging safer route relies on generating stoichiometric chemical oxidant in situ through activating inert reagents.[2] Redox mediators fit this criterion nicely, where the oxidation of stable and reversible redox-active species can form reactive radical or ionic intermediates that proceed to oxidize alcohol substrates in a solution-based chemical step.[3] Redox mediators often mitigate sluggish heterogeneous electron-transfer rates, making them useful in a bevy of applications spanning batteries to catalysis.[4] Several platforms coupling the light-absorbing features of earth-abundant and environmentally friendly metal-oxide photocatalysts with the rapid electron-transfer features of redox mediators have emerged, demonstrating cooperativity for selective alcohol oxidation.[5]

N-oxyl couples, such as 2,2,6,6-tetramethyl-1-piperidinoyloxy (TEPO·/TEMPO⁻), are the most extensively investigated class of redox mediators for applications in catalytic alcohol/aldehyde oxidation due to their highly reversible redox properties.[6] Indirect alcohol oxidation using a mediator has been associated with unique and often desirable product selectivity.[7] Compared to N-oxyl mediators, nitrate anion (NO₃⁻) is an underexplored mediator for alcohol oxidation that has received renewed attention. The earliest known report of nitrate-mediated alcohol oxidation proposed a hydrogen atom abstraction (HAT) mechanism upon electrochemical generation of nitrate radical (NO₃·).[8] More than 30 years later, examples harnessing biphasic media emerged implementing an organic layer to maximize alcohol substrate solubility along with an aqueous layer for NO₃⁻ generation; highly selective formation of aldehyde and ketone products resulted, proposed to operate via HAT at the biphasic interface.[9] Since then, exploitation of NO₃⁻ for catalytic transformations has burgeoned. Recently, a visible-light excited state of Acr⁻(Mes) dye was used to oxidize NO₃⁻ to NO₂⁻ for use as an oxidant in subsequent chemical reactions.[10] Continuing with light-harvesting examples, our lab demonstrated cooperativity between the NO₃⁻/NO₂⁻ couple and valence-band holes on semiconducting CdS nanowires toward indirect alcohol oxidation; this photocatalytic system oxidizes PhCH₂OH to PhCHO with > 99% selectivity in acetonitrile.[11]

This work aims to expand the scope of compatible semiconductor-nitrate systems for alcohol oxidation. BiVO₄ films were used as photoanodes in this study, as their activity toward PhCH₂OH oxidation in composite films has been demonstrated.[12] Our experimental design includes a photoelectrochemical cell illuminated with 100 mW cm⁻² royal blue LED (λmax = 448 nm) light that matches the band-gap absorption in BiVO₄ (2.4 eV).[13] All solutions were prepared in acetonitrile (MeCN) solvent to stymie competitive solvent oxidation (observed in water) and to maximize substrate solubility. PhCH₂OH was used to glean insight into the underlying mechanism responsible for indirect alcohol oxidation enabled by the NO₃⁻/NO₂⁻ couple.

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2. Results

BIVO₄ electrodes were prepared by a reported method.¹⁴ The band gap energy (Figure S1) and powder X-ray diffraction pattern (Figure S2) confirm phase purity. To determine appropriate conditions for photoelectrochemistry on BIVO₄, its native activity for direct PhCH₃OH oxidation was assessed using linear sweep voltammetry (LSV). Figure 1 shows LSV traces collected by sweeping from open-circuit potential (−0.8 V to −0.2 V) to +1 V vs ferrocenium/ferrocene (Fc⁺/⁰) in MeCN solutions of varying PhCH₃OH concentration. The LSV data show that as the concentration of PhCH₃OH increases, the photocurrent density also increases. A control LSV experiment in the dark (dashed trace) supports that this current is indeed derived from photo-generated charge carriers in BIVO₄.

To confirm that this anodic current corresponds to PhCH₃OH oxidation, we performed controlled potential coulometry (CPC) at 0.75 V vs Fc⁺/⁰ for 4 hours while stirring the solution to generate enough product for GC-FID analysis. A two-compartment cell with a 1 μm porous glass frit was used to separate the BIVO₄ working electrode and reference electrode (Ag wire with Vycor frit) from the Pt coil auxiliary electrode. Figure S3 shows that during the reaction, the current density steadily decreases from 4 mA cm⁻² to 1 mA cm⁻², indicating that BIVO₄ is unstable during catalysis (vide infra). Nevertheless, PhCHO forms with 88 ± 3% FE, revealing the native ability for direct PhCH₃OH oxidation on BIVO₄. With the baseline established, any improvements afforded by indirect oxidation through NO₃⁻ generation could be resolved.

Cooperativity between nitrate and BIVO₄ was preliminarily detected by LSV. Figure 2 shows that adding 100 mM Bu₄NNO₃ shifts the photocurrent onset potential negatively by 500 mV. CPC was used to track PhCHO formation in these solutions after a constant 0 V vs Fc⁺/⁰ potential was applied (Figure S4); direct alcohol oxidation without Bu₄NNO₃ is exceedingly slow under these conditions (j_ph < 0.05 mA cm⁻²). With Bu₄NNO₃, the corresponding GC-FID product analysis shows high selectivity for PhCHO (FE = 91 ± 11%) along with a substantial increase in the amount of PhCHO produced. Although having nitrate in solution leads to faster rates of PhCH₃OH oxidation, the photocurrent density steadily decreases over the course of the CPC experiment. Inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-MS) was used to track BIVO₄ dissolution. Table 1 shows metal-ion leaching data for several CPC experiments. For the same quantity of charge passed, when more positive potentials were applied – to effect direct PhCH₃OH oxidation – higher concentrations of bismuth and vanadium leach into solution. When indirect PhCH₃OH oxidation occurs, enabled by the presence of nitrate, the concentration of dissolved metal ions is lower. Illumination-only and bias-only control reactions demonstrate that metal-ion dissolution is linked to catalysis rather than any inherent chemical incompatibility between the supporting electrolyte solution and BIVO₄.

Top-down scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images in Figure 3 link the metal-ion leaching to surface roughening on BIVO₄ films. Films show significant roughening for direct PhCH₃OH oxidation by valence-band holes, where large positive bias is required without nitrate. The morphology change on BIVO₄ is dampened when a less positive bias is employed to oxidize PhCH₃OH indirectly, enabled by the NO₃⁻/NO₂⁻ couple.

<table>
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<th>Table 1. Changes in metal-ion concentration after CPC experiments.</th>
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<td><strong>CPC reaction conditions</strong></td>
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<td>448 nm illumination</td>
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<td>+0.75 V vs. Fc⁺/⁰, 4 h without Bu₄NNO₃</td>
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<td>448 nm illumination</td>
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<td>+0 V vs. Fc⁺/⁰, 20 h with Bu₄NNO₃</td>
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<tr>
<td>448 nm illumination only, 72 h</td>
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<td>0.75 V Fc⁺/⁰ applied bias only, 4 h</td>
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These SEM images compare changes in BiVO$_4$ for the same quantity of charge passed. XPS analysis reveals a shift in the Bi 4f$_{7/2}$ and V 2p$_{3/2}$ doublet peaks of prepared BiVO$_4$ (158.9 eV and 516.5 eV respectively) to higher binding energies after CPC (159.2 eV and 516.7 eV), indicating a change in surface composition (Figure S5). Although BiVO$_4$ photoanodes show an apparent compositional sensitivity to applied bias, other factors may explain this trend. Alcohol oxidation requires deprotonation, and, like many metal oxides, BiVO$_4$ shows sensitivity to high proton activity.[15] We postulate that NO$_3^-$, a weak base in acetonitrile (pK$_a$ ~ 9),[16] may reduce the extent of photo-corrosion.

To understand how added nitrate participates in this indirect cooperative process, we studied the photocurrent dependence on [Bu$_4$NNO$_3$] concentration through LSV in MeCN. Figure 4a displays a plateau current that increases in magnitude and shifts to more positive potentials with increasing nitrate concentration. The plateau corresponds to NO$_3^-$ oxidation, and the concentration-dependent plateau potential shift results from the quasi-reversibility in the NO$_3^-$/NO$_2^-$ couple. Next, we introduced varying quantities of PhCH$_2$OH to solutions containing 10 mM Bu$_4$NNO$_3$. Figure 4b shows that the peak current for NO$_3^-$ oxidation is constant (~1.7 mA cm$^{-2}$), but the plateau onset potential shifts to more negative potentials as the PhCH$_2$OH concentration increases. The observation of a plateau in the photocurrent density reveals that indirect PhCH$_2$OH oxidation does not regenerate NO$_3^-$, instead, NO$_3^-$ reacts irreversibly (i.e. stoichiometrically) through an EC mechanism.

The expected regeneration of NO$_3^-$ through a catalytic EC mechanism does not occur. The photocurrent dependence on the scan rate in Figure 5 also supports an EC mechanism; the peak current density depends on the square root of scan rate ($i_p \propto \sqrt{v}$), as predicted by the Randles-Sevcik equation.[17] The anodic peaks observed for fast scan rates ($v \geq 50$ mV s$^{-1}$) correspond to depletion of NO$_3^-$ at the photoanode surface that would not occur under catalytic regeneration.[18] The shifting peak potential with increasing scan rate is also characteristic of irreversible NO$_3^-$ oxidation.

Along with a stoichiometric consumption of NO$_3^-$, we observe a shift in the onset potential for NO$_3^-$ oxidation when PhCH$_2$OH is present. The facilitation of NO$_3^-$ oxidation by PhCH$_2$OH in the LSV traces is linked to faster rates of PhCH$_2$OH oxidation (forming PhCHO) confirmed by CPC experiments. The plot in Figure 6 shows a slope of ~200 mV per order of magnitude increase in PhCH$_2$OH concentration. For a reversible redox couple, the Nernst equation predicts a 59.1 mV shift per
order of magnitude increase in substrate concentration.\(^{[15]}\) The quasi-reversible nature of the NO\(_3^−\)/NO\(_2^−\) couple results in a much larger equilibrium potential shift due to a substrate-driven consumption pathway for NO\(_3^−\).

Reduced photocorrosion on BiVO\(_4\) and irreversible NO\(_3^−\) oxidation (Figure 4b) point toward a reaction between NO\(_3^−\) and PhCH\(_2\)OH proceeding through HAT to yield HNO\(_3\). Consequently, the concentration of NO\(_3^−\) at the BiVO\(_4\) photoelectrode surface decreases and this perturbation of equilibrium concentrations for NO\(_3^−\) and NO\(_2^−\) creates a driving force to reestablish equilibrium (Le Chatelier’s principle); this driving force is measured as the shift in Figure 6.

To investigate irreversible nitrate consumption coupled to alcohol oxidation further, isotopic rate studies were performed. Figure 7 shows nearly identical LSV responses when using (\(\alpha,\alpha\)-d\(_2\)) deuterated PhCD\(_2\)OH under the same conditions, revealing no 1° kinetic isotope effect (KIE). This result indicates that the \(\alpha\)-hydrogen does not react in the rate-determining step. However, this observation does not rule out a stepwise process involving rate-determining NO\(_3^−\) oxidation followed by a fast HAT step consuming NO\(_2^−\) and yielding HNO\(_3\). In acetonitrile, the weak electrolyte HNO\(_3\) is inert toward indirect PhCH\(_2\)OH oxidation on BiVO\(_4\) photoelectrodes (Figures S6 and S7).

To probe further the reaction between NO\(_3^−\) and alcohol substrate in solution, we compared the LSV traces within the series of \(\alpha\)-methylated benzyl alcohol derivatives. The green trace of Figure 8 shows that the secondary alcohol, 1-phenyl-ethanol results in a diminished shift for the NO\(_3^−\)/NO\(_2^−\) couple. Steric hindrance about the benzylic carbon appears to slow down reactivity between NO\(_3^−\) and alcohol substrate.

Continuing with the series, one would expect that NO\(_3^−\) reacting through HAT would indeed require an \(\alpha\)-hydrogen. Not surprisingly, when the tertiary alcohol, 2-phenyl-2-propanol is introduced, a reversion to substrate-free nitrate behavior is observed (Figure 8, blue trace). The potential at which the photocurrent begins to plateau progressively shifts approximately 100 mV to more positive values as the benzylic carbon becomes increasingly methylated: ~ 0.20 V, 0.30 V, 0.40 V vs. Fc\(^+\)/0 for BnOH, 1-PhEtOH, and 2-Ph-2-PrOH respectively. This shift highlights the role of the \(\alpha\)-hydrogen in this EC\(^i\) mechanism.\(^{[8][9][10]}\)

Figure 6. Shift in potential corresponding to the center of the plateau for NO\(_3^−\) oxidation (\(j = 1.6 \text{ mA cm}^{-2} - 1.7 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}\)) as a function of \(-\log\) [PhCH\(_2\)OH] in 10 mM Bu\(_4\)NNO\(_3\) solution.

Figure 7. Illuminated LSV traces comparing 250 mM PhCH\(_2\)OH oxidation (red) and 250 mM PhCD\(_2\)OH oxidation (blue) with 10 mM Bu\(_4\)NNO\(_3\) in MeCN containing 100 mM Bu\(_4\)NPF\(_6\) supporting electrolyte. The scan rate is 10 mV s\(^{-1}\).

Figure 8. a) Series of benzyl alcohol derivatives used in this study. b) LSV traces comparing benzyl alcohol and its derivatives. Solutions contain 50 mM alcohol, 10 mM Bu\(_4\)NNO\(_3\) and 100 mM Bu\(_4\)NPF\(_6\) supporting electrolyte in MeCN. The scan rate is 10 mV s\(^{-1}\).
3. Discussion

Scheme 1 presents the mechanistic picture that unfolds from the experimental observations. Herein, we demonstrate the native activity for direct PhCH$_2$OH oxidation on BiVO$_4$ and show the substantial rate improvement afforded by coupling to NO$_3^-$ oxidation. Optimized conditions (Figure S8) show high faradaic efficiency – 99 ± 9% – for benzaldehyde product through indirect electron transfer. Importantly, photoelectrochemically oxidizing NO$_3^-$ on BiVO$_4$ in the first mechanistic step enables indirect alcohol oxidation at potentials where direct alcohol oxidation does not occur. NO$_3^-$ oxidation shows quasi-reversible kinetics, evidenced by a shifting peak current density (Figure 5) and a non-Nernstian 200 mV shift in the NO$_3^-$/NO$_2^-$ equilibrium potential per order of magnitude increase in PhCH$_2$OH concentration (Figure 6). An irreversible chemical step perturbs the equilibrium concentration of NO$_3^-$/NO$_2^-$ due to a consumption pathway for NO$_2^-$ that affords the desired PhCHO product.

Previous work in our lab demonstrates that NO$_3^-$ acts as a redox mediator (i.e. it is regenerated) in photocatalytic PhCH$_2$OH oxidation on CdS nanowires.[11] Photoelectrochemically, NO$_3^-$ is not regenerated, representing an EC mechanism. The difference in NO$_3^-$ behavior in the two acetonitrile systems is rationalized in the context of the full light-driven redox cycle. On CdS nanowires, electrons are photoexcited to the conduction band, where they carry out the oxygen reduction reaction. If that reaction is carried out under inert N$_2$ atmosphere, PhCH$_2$OH oxidation is slow, and NO$_3^-$ is consumed (likely by its reduction). Reduced oxygen species, such as superoxide (O$_2^-$), that are co-located with either HNO$_2$ or a carbon-centered radical intermediate can deprotonate HNO$_3$ after HAT or avoid HNO$_3$ formation altogether, rendering NO$_3^-$ catalytic. In photoelectrochemistry, these reactions occur in separate compartments such that NO$_3^-$ oxidation on a BiVO$_4$ working electrode is separated – by several centimeters – from the reaction reactions on the platinum auxiliary electrode. Accordingly, carrying out the photoelectrochemical reaction on BiVO$_4$ anaerobically (under N$_2$) shows no discernable difference in the voltammetric response (Figure 59), demonstrating that reduced oxygen species such as O$_2^-$ do not act as a base is under these conditions. Rather, nitrate in the working compartment is the only local base.

Neither CdS nanowire photocatalysis nor BiVO$_4$ photoelectrochemistry show a 1° KIE for PhCH$_2$OH/PhCD$_2$OH oxidation. On BiVO$_4$, NO$_3^-$ consumption and lack of KIE point to rate-determining NO$_3^-$ oxidation with a fast HAT step. The voltammetric response of a series the para-substituted benzyl alcohol derivatives, 4-chlorobenzyl alcohol and 4-tert-butylbenzyl alcohol was measured (Figure S10), and the zero slope in the data reveal no buildup of charge in the transition state. While electronic factors have a negligible influence on the rate of indirect alcohol oxidation using photoelectrochemically generated NO$_3^-$, the functionality about the benzylic position (Figure 8) has substantial impact.

Density functional theory also helps distinguish between HAT and single-electron transfer (SET) mechanisms. Figure 9 shows the frontier orbitals energies and projections of the HOMO of PhCH$_2$OH and the derivatives described throughout...
the manuscript. Of note, the HOMO of benzyl alcohol has aromatic π* and oxygen 2p lone-pair character with an energy −6.6 eV. As the number of methyl groups increases, the HOMO adds slight C–C o bonding character and the energy increases slightly or is unchanged: −6.5 eV for 1-PhEtOH and −6.6 eV for 2-Ph-2-PrOH. Taking the HOMO energy as an approximation for ionization energy by Koopman’s theorem[19] and adding the dielectric continuum to account for solvation energies, we would predict that if SET were the operative mechanism, then the potential at which the anodic current plateaus would be nearly constant (if not show a slight shift to more negative values). The observed shift to more positive potentials suggests a HAT mechanism that forms a carbon-centered radical opposed to SET that forms an oxygen-centered radical. Moreover, the HOMO energies for the para-substituted derivatives remain similar: −6.7 eV for 4-chlorobenzyl alcohol and −6.3 eV for 4-tert-butylphenyl methanol.

For reversible redox couples, the Nernst equation predicts a 59.1 mV equilibrium potential shift per order of magnitude increase in substrate concentration. This theoretical treatment was demonstrated empirically in a recent report describing a TEMPO−−N3•− system.[20] TEMPO radical oxidation was facilitated in the presence of N3•− by forming a stable charge-transfer complex, which showed a 62 mV shift per order of magnitude increase in [N3•−]. In our work, NO3•− is not regenerable on BiVO4 and the 200 mV potential shift slope (Figure 6) is non-Nernstian due to the quasi-reversibility of the NO3•−/NO2•− couple as well as an irreversible chemical step (EC) where nitrate radical is consumed; introducing a benzyl alcohol-based consumption pathway vastly improves the electrochemical kinetics for NO3•− oxidation.

Another key difference between the two acetonitrile systems is the importance of nitrate's counterion in the salt. We find Bu4NNO3 to be a viable source of nitrate for indirect alcohol oxidation on BiVO4. However, Bu4NNO3 does not mediate photocatalytic PhCHO oxidation on CdS nanowires. There, a hard metal cation such as Li+, Ca2+, or Mn2+ is required, and metal-cation coordination with nitrate is observed by both UV-Vis and FTIR spectroscopy. Absorption features for NO3•− (n→π*) show a blue shift in acetonitrile with metal cations present; this perturbation in electronic structure suggests an altered redox potential for the NO3•−/NO2•− couple. Therefore, the lack of general activity in acetonitrile using Bu4NNO3 supports misalignment between the redox potential E( Valerie / NO2•−) and the valence band edge (EVB) of CdS. A similar thermodynamic mismatch was discovered recently between TEMPO and BiVO4 photoanodes in water.[21] There, TEMPO was shown to act as a recombination center, hindering electron transfer from BiVO4 to solution; tuning the surface-mediator interaction with an interfacial cobalt phosphate layer enabled TEMPO mediation. In that example, a heterogeneous treatment was used to overcome redox potential-band edge misalignment, and we postulate that metal cations in solution address the issue on CdS.

Recently, a report detailing indirect PhCH3OH oxidation in aqueous electrolyte showed selective generation of PhCHO on BiVO4 photoanodes decorated with a layered double hydroxide (LDH) surface electrocatalyst.[22] In that system, indirect alcohol oxidation was achieved through a surface-bound hydroxyl radical intermediate generated from water oxidation on the cobalt-based LDH. Comparison of this system with our work reveals key similarities, namely the formation of a carbon-centered benzyl alcohol radical and stoichiometric consumption of a radical intermediate (·OH/NO3•−). While both systems function through an EC, mechanism, the consumption of NO3•− through HAT is responsible for forming the benzyl alcohol radical, while the LDH@BiVO4 system forms the benzyl alcohol radical through an activation step before -OH reacts. Nevertheless, both systems show accelerated rates for PhCH3OH oxidation upon introducing indirect pathways characterized as “radical relays.” Exploring the scope of radical relays and their role in catalyzing alcohol oxidation reactions is the subject of ongoing investigation in our lab.

4. Conclusions

We show that nitrate anion effects indirect photoelectrochemical benzyl alcohol oxidation on bismuth(III) vanadate in acetonitrile solvent. The applied potential required to generate benzaldehyde was reduced by ~500 mV, while retaining >90% high faradaic efficiency. The coupled chemical step of benzyl alcohol substrate oxidation leads to faster electrochemical nitrate anion oxidation; the shift is 200 mV per order of magnitude increase in alcohol substrate concentration. The chemical step is likely rapid nitrate radical consumption through hydrogen-atom transfer with benzyl alcohol to yield nitric acid. Deuterating the alpha positions (benzyl alcohol α-α- d4) shows no change in reaction rate, supporting that nitrate anion oxidation is rate-determining and distinct. Lower applied potentials to generate benzaldehyde product and diminished bismuth vanadate photocorrosion are significant benefits granted with nitrate anion reactant.

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Conflict of Interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.
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