

Unraveling the Role of Solvation and Ion Valency on Redox-Mediated Electrosorption through In Situ Neutron Reflectometry and Ab Initio Molecular Dynamics

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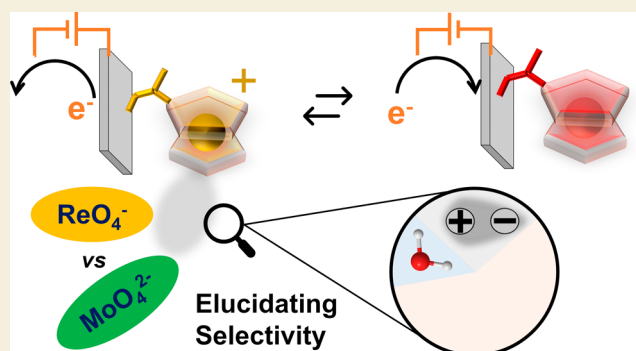
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ABSTRACT: Solvation and ion valency effects on selectivity of metal oxyanions at redox–polymer interfaces are explored through in situ spatial-temporally resolved neutron reflectometry combined with large scale ab initio molecular dynamics. The selectivity of ReO_4^- vs MoO_4^{2-} for two redox-metallopolymers, poly(vinyl ferrocene) (PVFc) and poly(3-ferrocenylpropyl methacrylamide) (PFPMAM) is evaluated. PVFc has a higher Re/Mo separation factor compared to PFPMAM at 0.6 V vs Ag/AgCl. In situ techniques show that both PVFc and PFPMAM swell in the presence of ReO_4^- (having higher solvation with PFPMAM), but do not swell in contact with MoO_4^{2-} . Ab initio molecular simulations suggest that MoO_4^{2-} maintains a well-defined double solvation shell compared to ReO_4^- . The more loosely solvated anion (ReO_4^-) is preferably adsorbed by the more hydrophobic redox polymer (PVFc), and electrostatic cross-linking driven by divalent anionic interactions could impair film swelling. Thus, the in-depth understanding of selectivity mechanisms can accelerate the design of ion-selective redox-mediated separation systems for transition metal recovery and recycling.

KEYWORDS: electrochemical separations, neutron reflectometry, ab initio molecular dynamics, ion selectivity, electrosorption, redox-polymers, metallopolymers



1. INTRODUCTION

Selective separation of metal ions from multicomponent mixtures represents a compelling challenge for critical materials recovery and recycling, as well as for environmental remediation.¹ Ion-electrosorption using redox metallopolymers features low energy consumption, no need for chemical regenerants, modularity, and scalability, making it an ideal candidate for both small and large scale separations; furthermore, adsorption and desorption of target anions is directly controlled by tuning the applied bias in a switch-like mechanism.^{2–4} Currently, incomplete understanding of adsorption mechanisms taking place at redox-active interfaces constitutes a major bottleneck in rational design of better performing selective redox metallopolymers.⁵ In particular, it is not clear how selectivity is influenced by solvation effects, ion valency, and morphological response of the film upon adsorption, at equilibrium and during the adsorption and desorption transients (i.e., in dynamic conditions).^{3,6,7} In situ characterization of redox polymer behavior becomes a necessary step to advance separations, sensing, and energy technologies.⁸ In this work, we provide a comprehensive study on the effects of solvation and ion valency on redox–polymer

interface selectivity and behavior through in situ characterizations and ab initio molecular dynamics (AIMD) simulations.

Separation systems that target metals in their oxyanion form are essential for critical materials recovery and environmental remediation, because transition metals and main group elements are generally found as tetrahedral oxyanions in the environment and are extremely mobile in groundwaters.⁹ Poly(vinyl ferrocene) (PVFc) is a prime example of a metallopolymer that can separate metal oxyanions with remarkable uptake (e.g., 103.1 mg-arsenic $\text{g}_{\text{adsorbent}}^{-1}$, 100 mg-chromium $\text{g}_{\text{adsorbent}}^{-1}$, and 120 mg-vanadate $\text{g}_{\text{PVFc}}^{-1}$) from aqueous and organic media in the presence of excess competing chloride or perchlorate, with low energy consumption.^{2,10,11} Although PVFc has been extensively scrutinized using several in situ techniques,^{3,12–18} only limited work has been devoted

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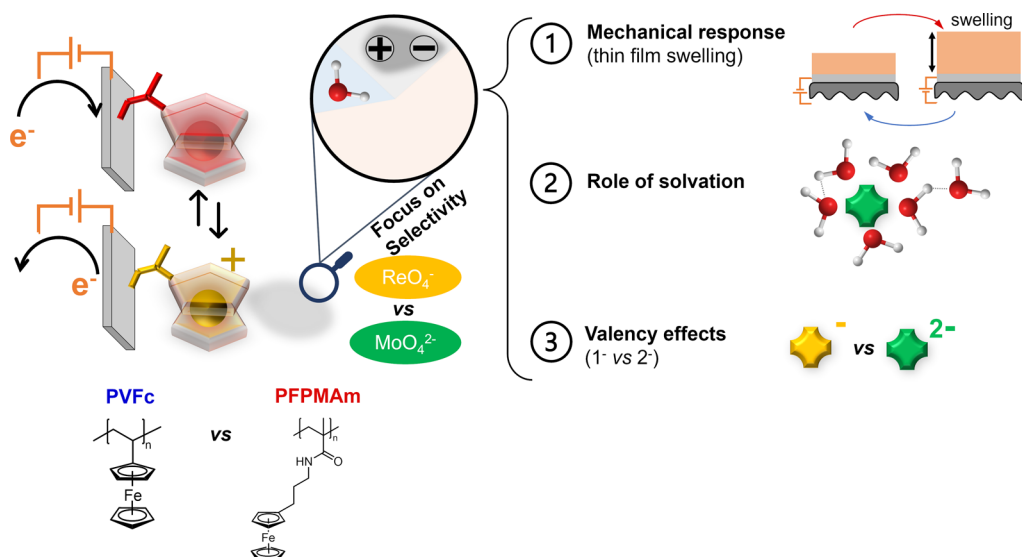


Figure 1. Schematics representing selective ion electroadsorption through redox-active metallopolymer interfaces. Upon ferrocene oxidation, oxyanions are selectively adsorbed. The mechanisms driving selectivity were investigated through in situ measurements; namely, the morphological response of the film, the role of solvation, and valency effects were considered. PVFc and PFPMAm structures are represented.

to studying solvation effects.^{12,15–19} Electrochemical quartz-crystal microbalance (EQCM) showed that different anions carry different amounts of solvent with them when ingressing PVFc films, and allowed to distinguish two ion ingression regimes: the permselective regime (at low salt concentrations), where only counterions and solvent penetrate the film, and the nonpermselective regime (above 1 M salt concentration), where ferrocene oxidation is coupled with both counterion and co-ion ingression.¹⁷ EQCM measurements with anions of different sizes revealed two types of ferrocene sites: ~58% of the sites occupy a compact, unsolvated environment that can undergo redox switching in NaClO_4 solutions with transfer of small counterions (such as ClO_4^-), while ~42% of the sites are in a more solvated environment and initially undergo redox switching with the transfer of ClO_4^- accompanied by ~10–11 H_2O molecules per adsorption site.¹⁸ However, bulkier anions get progressively locked in the more solvated sites, diminishing the electroactivity of the film.¹⁸ Successive studies tracked solvent ingression in thin PVFc films in contact with NaClO_4 through neutron reflectometry (NR) in both equilibrium and dynamic conditions, showing that PVFc films are comprised of three distinct sections in terms of solvation behavior: the inner polymer/electrode region (~10% thickness), which showed greater than average solvation levels, the polymer/solution interfacial region (~10% thickness), which registered a progressive transition to the pure solvent, and the bulk region; solvent volume fraction was estimated as ~10% for the reduced state and ~30% in the oxidized state for PVFc, with greater solvation in the center.^{12,16} A previous experimental and computational approach analyzed binding and charge transfer interactions in ferrocene metallopolymer.⁶ The analysis revealed that metal oxyanions with lower ionization energy are more sensitive to charge transfer effects upon binding with ferrocenium; furthermore, the separation factor is dependent on the applied potential in some binary competitive separations such as perrhenate vs molybdate and chromate vs molybdate.⁶

Nonetheless, an overall complete description of the mechanisms governing selective adsorption at redox–metallopolymer interfaces is still lacking; namely, there are no

studies investigating the role that solvation and ion valency play in determining selectivity at redox-active metallopolymer interfaces. Understanding the role of solvation is crucial, since the extent of ion desolvation upon adsorption discriminates between specific and nonspecific adsorption at an electrochemical interface.^{13,20}

In this study, we investigated how thin film morphological response, solvation, oxyanion valency, and dynamic effects influence the redox-active metallopolymer selectivity for metal oxyanions. We considered two redox-active metallopolymer with different hydrophilic/hydrophobic characters, namely, poly(vinyl ferrocene) (PVFc) and poly(3-ferrocenylpropyl methacrylamide) (PFPMAm) (Figure 1). We studied the separation of perrhenate (ReO_4^-) from molybdate (MoO_4^{2-}), a separation with high commercial and strategic relevance.^{21,22} Rhenium is one of the rarest metals, having irreplaceable applications in high-temperature alloys and catalysis; it is extracted as a byproduct of molybdenum, copper, lead, and uranium mining.²¹ Rhenium is found in aqueous solutions almost always as ReO_4^- .²² Furthermore, ReO_4^- is a common nonradioactive analogue for TcO_4^- .²³ TcO_4^- is a major fission product in nuclear fuel wastes and is among the most hazardous radiation-derived contaminants due to the long half-life, high water solubility, and ability to migrate within the upper layer of the Earth's crust.²³ Rhenium is separated mainly through solvent extraction and ion exchange in the perrhenate form; solvent extraction, however, consumes significant amounts of acid or alkaline solutions in combination with organic extractants, which are toxic and environmentally hazardous.²¹

Neutron reflectometry allowed for the derivation of solvent fraction profiles under in situ conditions, revealing that PFPMAm is more solvated than PVFc, especially after a subsequent reduction step; also, information on film swelling/deswelling with subnanometer resolution was obtained, with both PVFc and PFPMAm swelling in the presence of ReO_4^- , but not of MoO_4^{2-} ; spectroscopic ellipsometry (SE) was used as a complementary technique to measure film swelling/deswelling and facilitate NR data modeling, while EQCM allowed for coupling of gravimetric and coulometric

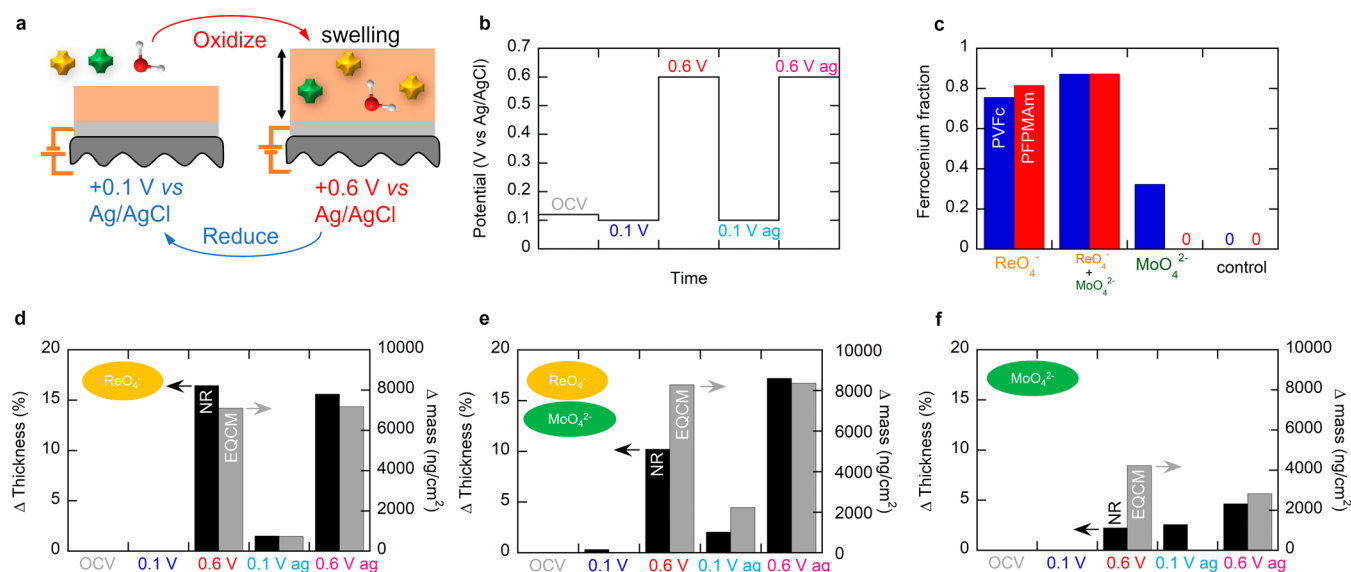


Figure 2. Morphological response of thin films. (a) Swelling/deswelling behavior of redox-active metallopolymers is dependent on the oxyanions in the bathing solution. (b) Schematics of the applied potential steps for thin-film experiments. (c) Fraction of ferrocenium estimated via X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy for PVFc and PFPMAm (5 min 0.1 V vs Ag/AgCl reduction followed by 15 min 0.6 V vs Ag/AgCl oxidation step, ex situ analysis). (d–f) Summary of in situ neutron reflectometry and quartz-crystal microbalance experiments on thin PVFc films. In the case of ReO_4^- and the $\text{ReO}_4^- + \text{MoO}_4^{2-}$ binary mixture, the polymer film swells/deswells with a corresponding mass increase/decrease upon oxidation/reduction; in the case of MoO_4^{2-} , however, limited thickness changes were observed.

information. Furthermore, AIMD simulations were used to corroborate experimental observations and obtain a greater mechanistic insight into the role of solvation and ion valency effects. We anticipate that a deeper understanding of the adsorption/desorption mechanisms at redox-active metallopolymer interfaces will unlock new pathways for the rational design of ion-electrosorption systems with a higher selectivity.

2. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

2.1. Morphological Response of Thin Films

The swelling behavior of metallopolymer films under potential control was analyzed, and it was found that both PVFc and PFPMAm swell in the presence of ReO_4^- , but not of MoO_4^{2-} . X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) showed lower ferrocene oxidation for PVFc and PFPMAm in the presence of MoO_4^{2-} compared to ReO_4^- . Incomplete oxidation of the redox centers and/or valency effects leading to electrostatic cross-linking driven by divalent anionic interactions were evaluated to explain the different morphological responses of the thin films.

PVFc and PFPMAm thin films (~ 50 nm) were interrogated with in situ techniques under potential control: after an initial open circuit voltage (OCV) measurement, a sequence of reduction/oxidation steps (at 0.1 and 0.6 V vs Ag/AgCl, respectively, enough to respectively reduce or oxidize the film, as seen by the cyclic voltammeteries in Figure S1) was applied to PVFc and PFPMAm thin films in aqueous single anion solutions and in an equimolar binary anion solution (20 mM ReO_4^- , 10 mM $\text{ReO}_4^- + 10$ mM MoO_4^{2-} , 20 mM MoO_4^{2-}) (Figure 2a,b). Interface behavior was evaluated by using three distinct in situ techniques: NR, SE, and EQCM. Swelling was tracked with NR and SE, which yielded independent information on thickness changes, while net mass change at the interface was monitored through EQCM. For both PVFc and PFPMA, no swelling upon immersion of the films in anion-containing solutions was observed, with the OCV values

indicating that the films were initially in the reduced state (~ 0.1 V vs Ag/AgCl). XPS confirmed that the as-cast metallopolymer films were in a reduced state (Figure 2c). No swelling nor mass uptake occurred upon the first application of a reducing potential (0.1 V vs Ag/AgCl). The first film oxidation (chronoamperometry at 0.6 V vs Ag/AgCl) led to different behaviors depending on the bathing solution: in the case of PVFc, the film swelled with a corresponding mass increase for both ReO_4^- and $\text{ReO}_4^- + \text{MoO}_4^{2-}$ (Figure 2d,e); however, even though little to no swelling was observed for MoO_4^{2-} , EQCM still recorded a mass increase (Figure 2f). Upon successive reduction (0.1 V vs Ag/AgCl), the films contracted with a corresponding net mass decrease for ReO_4^- (mass decrease -89.5% for PVFc, -85.6% for PFPMAm) and for the binary $\text{ReO}_4^- + \text{MoO}_4^{2-}$ mixture (mass decrease -73.1% for PVFc, -67.1% for PFPMAm). In the case of PVFc- MoO_4^{2-} , a mass decrease also took place upon reduction of the film. A successive oxidation step (at 0.6 V vs Ag/AgCl) showed that swelling and mass uptake were reversible (NR and SE details reported in Figures S5–S7). The behavior was similar for PFPMAm (Figures S8–S10). For PFPMAm- MoO_4^{2-} experiments, the polymer interface was unstable upon oxidation, with the polymer partially or fully detaching from the electrode (Figures S10g,h and S13f). For both PVFc and PFPMAm in contact with the $\text{ReO}_4^- + \text{MoO}_4^{2-}$ solution, film behavior was dominated by the ReO_4^- character. We hypothesize that the dominating perhenate-like character of the response could be linked to the higher selectivity of the interfaces toward perhenate (see Section 2.2). We then investigated why neither solvent ingress nor film swelling took place for PVFc film in contact with just molybdate, possibly due to a lower degree of ferrocene oxidation and/or oxyanion valency effects, with electrostatic cross-linking impairing ingress of solvent and divalent anions (such as MoO_4^{2-}) in the film.

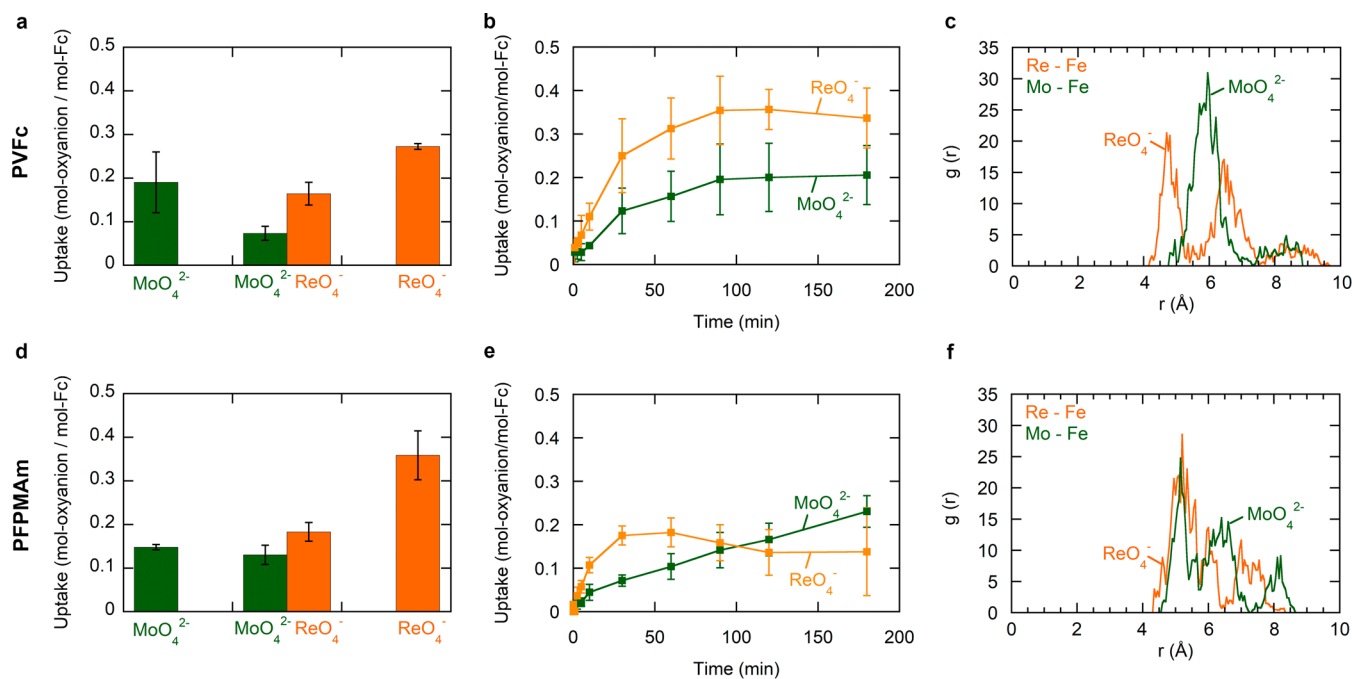


Figure 3. (a) Uptake of 1 mM ReO_4^- , 0.5 mM $\text{ReO}_4^- + 0.5$ mM MoO_4^{2-} , 1 mM MoO_4^{2-} ; 30 min adsorption for PVFc-CNT coated electrodes. Equilibrium ReO_4^- vs MoO_4^{2-} selectivity in the mixed oxyanion case was 3.1 for PVFc-CNT, and 1.5 for PFPMAm-CNT. (b) PVFc-CNT uptake kinetics at 0.6 V vs Ag/AgCl, equimolar binary mixture of ReO_4^- and MoO_4^{2-} . (c) AIMD simulations showed selectivity for perrhenate over molybdate for PVFc. (d,e) 30 min uptake, uptake kinetics. (f) AIMD simulations showed no clear perrhenate-molybdate selectivity for PFPMAm.

Ex situ XPS analysis performed on thin films after an oxidation step at 0.6 V vs Ag/AgCl (Figure 2c) revealed that only 32% of ferrocene was oxidized to ferrocenium for the PVFc- MoO_4^{2-} couple, whereas PVFc and PFPMAm in the presence of ReO_4^- or in the binary $\text{ReO}_4^- + \text{MoO}_4^{2-}$ mixture showed high ferrocenium fraction (76–87%). At a first glance, the lack of swelling and low uptake could be attributed to insufficient oxidation of ferrocene to ferrocenium, which would limit the number of available adsorption sites. However, the cumulative charge passed during the 0.6 V oxidative step is highest for molybdate as compared to perrhenate or the mixed oxyanion case for both PVFc and PFPMAm (Figure S13c,d), and the applied potential is not high enough to consider the oxygen evolution reaction as a competing faradaic process. Also, PFPMAm in contact with molybdate sometimes resulted in the film partially peeling off; EQCM measurements showed a linear loss of mass over charge behavior (Figure S13f), and XPS highlighted that the ferrocene redox centers remaining on the surface were completely reduced (Figure 2c). Thus, we hypothesize that the PFPMAm layer in contact with the electrolyte gradually binds to molybdate, leading to a partial delamination of the PFPMAm film upon oxidation. In the case of PVFc, there was a negligible mass change upon oxidation, which could be the result of the counteracting effects of adsorption on the surface and polymer peeling off and diffusing in the electrolyte. It was reported that bulky anions get locked in the polymer upon ferrocene oxidation;¹⁸ however, the ionic radii of ReO_4^- and MoO_4^{2-} are 260 and 254 pm, respectively, suggesting that size of the ion is not responsible for the observed difference in swelling behavior.²⁴

An electrostatically cross-linked gel could form upon oxidation of PVFc and PFPMAm if the divalent oxyanion MoO_4^{2-} simultaneously interacts with two ferrocenium units. As a result, the ability of the film to swell/deswell would be impaired. It is also possible that once the metallopolymer gel

forms, it can detach from the underlying reduced polymer. Physical cross-linking behavior would be in agreement with previous studies of polyelectrolyte systems in contact with divalent anions, where polyvalent ions enhance formation of cross-links between chains and a compact structure for the electrolyzed film.²⁵ AIMD simulations indicate that MoO_4^{2-} interacts more strongly with PFPMAm than with PVFc, since the maximum of the first peak of Fe–Mo radials distribution function is located at ~ 5.2 Å in the PFPMAm- MoO_4^{2-} system and at ~ 5.9 Å in the PVFc- MoO_4^{2-} system, as shown in Figure 3c,f.

2.2. Selectivity of ReO_4^- vs MoO_4^{2-}

In order to quantify anion uptake, separation experiments were run with larger electrodes (~ 2 – 4 cm²) made by coating carbon paper current collectors with redox polymer-carbon nanotube (CNT) ink. CNTs form a uniform noncovalent dispersion with PVFc and boost interface surface area.²⁶ These bulk experiments showed that ReO_4^- was preferred over MoO_4^{2-} by both PFPMAm-CNT and PVFc-CNT, but PVFc-CNT had a higher Re/Mo separation factor compared to that of PFPMAm-CNT, while adsorption kinetics revealed time-dependent selectivity. These findings are in agreement with AIMD simulations, which highlighted how in the case of PVFc the ferrocenium units interact more strongly with ReO_4^- than with MoO_4^{2-} while in the case of PFPMAm, the corresponding interactions are similar, as revealed by the radial distribution functions, $g(r)$, of Fe–Re and Fe–Mo atom pairs (Figure 3c,f).

Bulk binary adsorption kinetic experiments (at 0.6 V vs Ag/AgCl) showed that PFPMAm-CNT features a peak in separation factor at 15–30 min ($\alpha_{\text{ReO}_4^-, \text{MoO}_4^{2-}} = 2.9$), with the selectivity decreasing afterward; overall, PVFc-CNT displayed a stable ReO_4^- vs MoO_4^{2-} separation factor ($\alpha_{\text{ReO}_4^-, \text{MoO}_4^{2-}} = 2.3$ – 2.7) as a function of time (Figures 3b,e

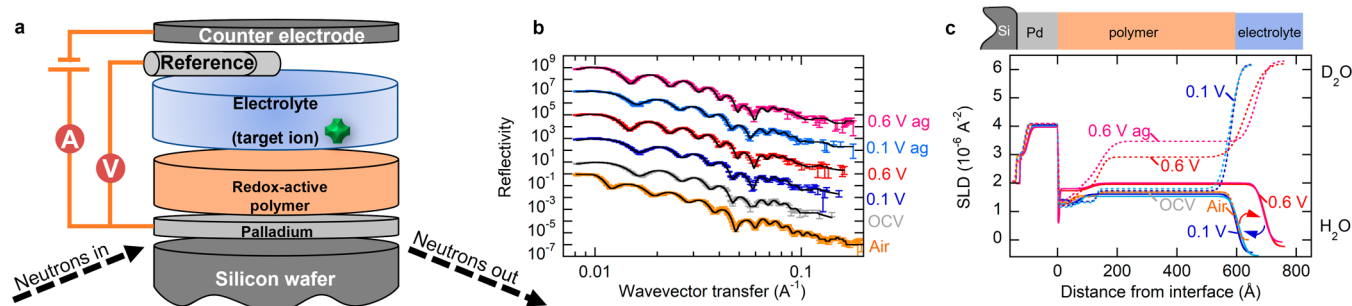


Figure 4. (a) Neutron reflectometry cell setup. (b) Example of reflectivity over a wavevector transfer curve (PVFc, ReO_4^- , H_2O) at different applied potentials. (c) Fitted data yield scattering length density over distance from the interface profiles.

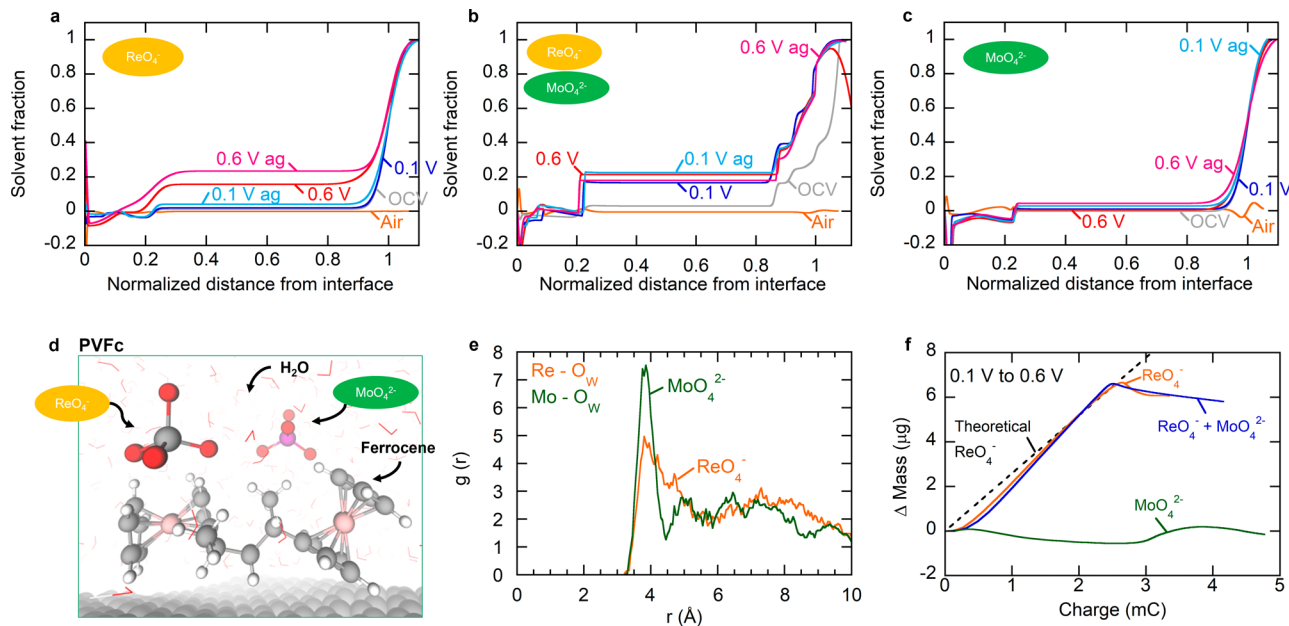


Figure 5. Solvation effects. (a–c) Solvation profiles obtained through neutron reflectometry; the movement of water can be isolated from salt and polymer through contrast variation with H_2O and D_2O . (d) Snapshot of the AIMD simulation for PVFc. (e) AIMD showed that perrhenate is less solvated than molybdate in both the individual and binary solutions. (f) Mass and cumulative charge variation for the EQCM experiment at a chronoamperometric step (0.1–0.6 V vs Ag/AgCl) for a thin PVFc film, which allows us to estimate solvation numbers.

and S1g). Further bulk experiments run at 0.6 V vs Ag/AgCl for 30 min showed an equilibrium separation factor $\alpha_{\text{ReO}_4^-, \text{MoO}_4^{2-}} = 3.1$ for PVFc and 1.5 for PFPMAm (Figure 3a,d), as well as high oxyanion release upon application of a reducing potential (>72% desorption) except for PFPMAm-CNT in contact with MoO_4^{2-} (47% release) (see Note S1, Figure S4). The selectivity in the case of PVFc-CNT was in line with previous results at the same applied potential ($\alpha_{\text{ReO}_4^-, \text{MoO}_4^{2-}} \sim 3.3$).⁶ Selectivity for thin polymer films was estimated via XPS, yielding a Re/Mo separation factor of 2.1 for PVFc and 6.8 for PFPMAm (after 15 min at 0.6 V vs Ag/AgCl, Table S1).

2.3. Solvation Effects on Selectivity

We then addressed our main hypothesis that solvation plays a role in determining selectivity. We found that solvation does indeed play a major role, leading to higher selectivity for the less solvated oxyanion (ReO_4^-). Neutron reflectometry and EQCM allowed us to get complementary in situ information on the movement of water in the redox-polymer films.

In situ neutron reflectometry leverages the large scattering length density (SLD) difference between H_2O (theoretical

SLD $-0.56 \times 10^{-6} \text{ \AA}^{-2}$) and D_2O (theoretical SLD $6.4 \times 10^{-6} \text{ \AA}^{-2}$) to isolate the movement and distribution of water—with subnanometer resolution—from the ion and polymer contributions to the SLD (Figure 4a). The specular reflection $R(Q)$ is measured at a glancing incident angle of θ , and the measured intensity of the reflected neutron beam is usually expressed in terms of the wavevector transfer Q , with $Q = \frac{4\pi \sin \theta}{\lambda}$, where λ is the neutron wavelength. The reflectivity profiles $R(Q)$ (Figure 4b) were modeled using a stack of layers, with each layer carrying information regarding the layer's thickness, SLD, as well as a measure of interfacial roughness (Figure S11); SLD depth profiles were thus obtained (Figure 4c). Solvent volume fraction as a function of film depth was also estimated for PVFc and PFPMAm in contact with 20 mM ReO_4^- , 20 mM MoO_4^{2-} , and an equimolar 10 mM binary mixture under a reducing (0.1 V vs Ag/AgCl) and oxidizing (0.6 V vs Ag/AgCl) potential, at equilibrium (for PVFc Figure 5a–c, for PFPMAm Figure S12). In the case of PVFc- ReO_4^- , redox-polymer oxidation was accompanied by solvent ingress (average solvent volume fraction of 0.8% in the initial reduced state vs 11.2% in the

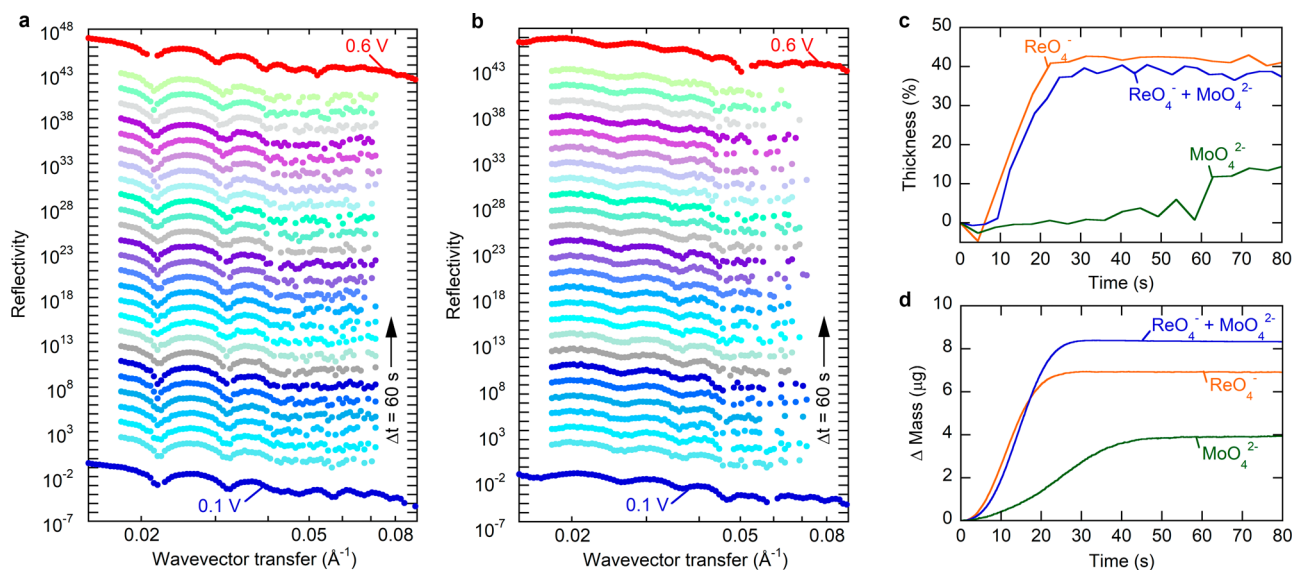


Figure 6. Dynamic data for PVFc. (a,b) In situ neutron reflectometry for 10 mM ReO_4^- + 10 mM MoO_4^{2-} solution in D_2O and H_2O , respectively. Bottom and top curves are equilibrium runs, while the other curves are dynamic runs at 60 s intervals. (c) In situ spectroscopic ellipsometry for 10 mM ReO_4^- , 20 mM MoO_4^{2-} , and a mixed 10 mM ReO_4^- + 10 mM MoO_4^{2-} solution. (d) EQCM for 20 mM ReO_4^- , 20 mM MoO_4^{2-} , and mixed 10 mM ReO_4^- + 10 mM MoO_4^{2-} solution.

oxidized state); additionally, the solvent was almost completely expelled upon a successive reduction of the film (average solvent volume fraction of 2.6% upon successive reduction, Figure 5a). Solvent fraction for ReO_4^- was lower than previously reported NR-estimated solvent fraction for ClO_4^- .^{12,16} In the PFPMAm- ReO_4^- case, upon oxidation, a larger amount of solvent entered in the film (average solvent volume fraction of 0.0% in the initial reduced state vs 17.3% in the oxidized state); also, upon reduction, a significant amount of solvent remained in the film (14.9%) (Figure S12). In contrast to this behavior, there was virtually no solvent for the PVFc- MoO_4^{2-} couple in both the reduced and oxidized states, as PFPMAm peeled off when in contact with molybdate.

EQCM was used to determine solvation numbers by comparing the experimental slope of the mass over the cumulative charge curve with the theoretical slope calculated for oxyanions ingressing the film (Figure 5f). However, we could not distinguish between solvation of the anion and solvation of the ferrocenium unit, so we attributed the solvation numbers to the anion-ferrocenium pair. In fact, the contribution of ferrocenium to the solvation number was previously extrapolated as $4-5\text{H}_2\text{O}$ per ferrocene site for PVFc by comparing gravimetric data of anions having different molecular masses.¹⁷ The mass change was attributed entirely to counterion and solvent ingress, with no co-ion expulsion since our oxyanion concentrations (20 mM) corresponded to the permselective regime. In the case of PVFc, a solvation number of $2.2\text{H}_2\text{O}$ per ReO_4^- - Fc^+ pair was estimated (experimental mass vs charge slope of $3.00 \mu\text{g mC}^{-1}$) (Figure 5f). Nonetheless, in the case of MoO_4^{2-} , no net mass uptake was observed; therefore, the solvation number could not be estimated. The solvation of ReO_4^- appeared to be quite low when we excluded the contribution of ferrocenium to solvation, suggesting that perrhenate was not very solvated when it was adsorbed to oxidized PVFc. In the case of ReO_4^- in contact with PFPMAm, a solvation number of $3.9\text{H}_2\text{O}$ per ReO_4^- - Fc^+ pair was estimated (experimental mass vs charge slope of $3.31 \mu\text{g mC}^{-1}$), in line with the NR observation of a

higher solvent fraction upon oxidation for PFPMAm. An experimental hydration number of $12\text{H}_2\text{O}/\text{MoO}_4^{2-}$ in bulk water was previously reported.²⁴ Furthermore, the Gibbs energy of hydration is -1404 kJ/mol for MoO_4^{2-} and -226 kJ/mol for ReO_4^- .²⁴ The increased solvation of the PFPMAm- ReO_4^- couple suggests that the hydrogen bonding between the amide groups in PFPMAm and H_2O could be responsible for the increased hydrophilicity of PFPMAm compared to PVFc.²⁷ The mass over charge behavior of the binary ReO_4^- - MoO_4^{2-} mixture was similar to the one of just ReO_4^- , for both PVFc (Figure 5f) and PFPMAm (Figure S13f), with essentially the same mass over charge slopes; PFPMAm displayed overall higher solvent fraction throughout the film in the oxidized state, as well as higher solvation for ingressing ReO_4^- anions. PFPMAm also retained more water in the first reduction after the oxidative step as compared to PVFc. Contact angle measurements highlighted PFPMAm being more hydrophilic than PVFc in its as-cast, reduced, and oxidized form, as shown by contact angle measurements (Figure S14). Our contact angle results are in agreement with changes in wettability upon oxidation previously reported for PVFc.²⁸

AIMD simulations showed that upon adsorption, for both PVFc and PFPMAm systems, MoO_4^{2-} interacts more strongly with water than ReO_4^- does (for PVFc, see Figure 5d,e, and for PFPMAm, see Figure S16b). This is consistent with the previously reported behavior of these anions and their interactions with H_2O : ReO_4^- is a “structure breaker”, forming weaker and longer hydrogen bonds to water in its first hydration shell, whereas MoO_4^{2-} is a “structure maker”, meaning that it forms hydrogen bonds which are stronger than those in bulk water.²⁹ As a result, ReO_4^- interacts more strongly with the polymer than MoO_4^{2-} interacts with the polymer.

We found that solvation effects indeed play an important role; specifically, since perrhenate has a lower solvation energy and weaker hydrogen bonds in its first solvation shell, there is less of a barrier for ReO_4^- to enter in the metallopolymer films compared to MoO_4^{2-} , which is bound with stronger hydrogen

bonds to its first solvation shell and has higher solvation energy. We suggest that the more hydrophobic film facilitates the ingress of the least solvated anion. The binary mixture behavior observed with EQCM (Figure Sf) showed a clear perrhenate-like character, which can be explained by having just ReO_4^- entering the film at very short times even in a binary mixture, possibly due to a smaller energy penalty associated with the loss of perrhenate's solvation shell. In the case of the more hydrophilic polymer PPFMAm, the progressive molybdate ingress leads to a decreasing Re/Mo separation factor over time (bulk adsorption kinetics, Figure S4g). The previously observed⁶ potential-dependent selectivity for the perrhenate-molybdate binary separation could be tentatively explained by solvation effects: at lower applied potentials (0.5–0.6 V vs Ag/AgCl), the energy penalty for desolvation is too high for the more solvated anion, so that the less solvated ion is preferred; instead, at higher applied potentials (0.9–1.0 V vs Ag/AgCl), the desolvation energy is no longer a limiting factor, and other aspects such as charge transfer effects play a more predominant role in determining selectivity. Density functional theory calculations support our rationalization, since in the case of ferrocenium molybdate, binding energy is ~ 10 kcal/mol, whereas for perrhenate, binding energy is ~ 7.5 kcal/mol.⁶ In essence, we suggest that at lower applied potentials, solvation effects dominate over charge transfer effects, although the latter become dominant at higher applied potentials, when desolvation energy is no longer a limiting factor. Another possible explanation points to dynamic effects, which could be responsible for the difference in potential-dependent selectivity, with the selectivity being a function of time. We propose that a combination of in situ spectroscopic ellipsometry and EQCM offers a facile way to screen multiple binary ion couples under dynamic conditions with high throughput.

2.4. Dynamic Behavior of the Redox Interface

Preliminary results indicate that in situ ellipsometry, EQCM, and NR are effective at tracking dynamic changes taking place at the interface (Figures 6 and S15). The kinetics for rhenium electroadsorption can be seen to be clearly faster than those for molybdenum, which also reflect observations seen for the time-dependent selectivity in Figure 3. Furthermore, kinetics of the ion mixture also reflect the kinetics of rhenium, in accordance with the NR and previous observations confirming rhenium selectivity in PVFc. Future work will involve elucidating the dynamic character of the selectivity factor and taking a deeper look at the behavior of interfaces under dynamic conditions. Kinetically controlled redox-polymer responses might allow for access to a variety of metastable states,¹⁸ possibly leading to kinetically based separations instead of equilibrium-based separations.

3. CONCLUSIONS

In summary, redox-active metallopolymer interfaces are a promising candidate for energetically and chemically efficient ion-electrodesorption systems, allowing for control of target metal oxyanion capture/release by tuning the applied potential. In this work, we explored solvation and ion valency effects on metal oxyanion selectivity as well as the morphological response of thin films upon adsorption/desorption. We analyzed metallopolymer film swelling behavior under potential control finding that both PVFc and PPFMAm swell in the presence of ReO_4^- , but not of MoO_4^{2-} . XPS showed

lower ferrocene oxidation for PVFc and PPFMAm in the presence of MoO_4^{2-} compared to ReO_4^- . We suggest that MoO_4^{2-} , being a divalent anion, physically cross-links oxidized PVFc and PPFMAm, impairing film swelling. Bulk separations demonstrated that ReO_4^- was preferred over MoO_4^{2-} by both PPFMAm-CNT and PVFc-CNT, but PVFc-CNT had a higher Re/Mo separation factor compared to that of PPFMAm-CNT, while adsorption kinetics displayed time-dependent selectivity. AIMD showed a greater difference in the adsorption of ReO_4^- and MoO_4^{2-} in the case of PVFc compared to PPFMAm. We determined that solvation has a significant effect on selectivity; namely, the less solvated oxyanion (ReO_4^-) was preferred over the more solvated oxyanion (MoO_4^{2-}), and higher separation factors were registered for the more hydrophobic polymer (PVFc). Our observations suggest that PPFMAm and PVFc prefer oxyanions with smaller solvation shells.

Hence, we propose that increased polymer hydrophobicity can improve separation factors, with a preference for the less solvated oxyanion. Modulating the film hydrophilic/hydrophobic character of metallopolymer appears as a viable way to tune the selectivity of the ion-electrodesorption system. Future work will explore dynamic effects at the interface, time- and potential-dependent selectivity, and the characterization of separation factors for more hydrophobic polymers.

4. EXPERIMENTAL SECTION/METHODS

4.1. Bulk Separation

PPFMAm was synthesized through free radical polymerization as previously described [gel permeation chromatography (GPC) in THF using polystyrene calibration yielding $M_n = 25.4$ kg mol⁻¹, $M_w = 144.5$ kg mol⁻¹, $D = 5.6$].³⁰ PVFc (16 mg, Polysciences, GPC-MALLS: absolute molecular weight $M_n = 1.5$ kg mol⁻¹, $M_w = 3.2$ kg mol⁻¹, $D = 2.2$),³¹ multiwalled carbon nanotubes (16 mg, as-produced cathode deposit, >7.5% MWCNT basis, O.D. \times L 7–15 nm \times 0.5–10 μ m, Sigma-Aldrich), and chloroform (4 mL, >99.8%, Fisher Scientific) were sonicated in icy water (1 h) to form a PVFc-CNT ink. Carbon nanotubes were used so to enhance conductivity and surface area of the interface.¹¹ The same procedure was followed with PPFMAm (16 mg) to give PPFMAm-CNT ink. ~ 50 μ L of the ink was drop-cast on carbon paper over a 1 cm \times 1 cm surface (Toray carbon paper, 5% wet-proofed with Teflon, FuelCellStore). The net mass of PVFc-CNT or PPFMAm-CNT was determined by weighing the carbon paper before and after coating with the ink, after complete evaporation of the solvent. One mM NaReO₄ (99.95%, Alfa Aesar), 1 mM Na₂MoO₄ (>98%, Sigma-Aldrich), and 0.5 mM NaReO₄ + 0.5 mM Na₂MoO₄ were prepared in DI-water (18.2 M Ω , Purelab Elga, UK). Electrodesorption experiments were conducted at chronoamperometric conditions for 30 min using 1 mL of solution with a potentiostat (Squidstat Prime, Admiral Instruments) in a three-electrode configuration: Ag/AgCl (3.4 M KCl) leakless reference electrode (eDAQ), platinum wire counter electrode, and working electrode consisting of PVFc-CNT or PPFMAm-CNT (~ 0.5 mg) on carbon paper. PPFMAm used for adsorption kinetics experiments was synthesized through free radical polymerization as previously described³⁰ (GPC in DMF with 1 g L⁻¹ LiBr using polystyrene calibration $M_n = 19.7$ kg mol⁻¹, $M_w = 44.4$ kg mol⁻¹, $D = 2.25$, Figure S17a). Chromatograms are reported in Figure S17. PVFc synthesized for adsorption kinetics experiments was also synthesized through free radical polymerization as described elsewhere³² (GPC in DMF with LiBr using polystyrene calibration $M_n = 2.5$ kg mol⁻¹, $M_w = 4.0$ kg mol⁻¹, $D = 1.6$, Figure S17b). In the case of adsorption kinetics, larger electrodes were used (~ 4 cm² coated area and 2.5–3.5 mg of polymer-CNT coating) with a correspondingly larger solution volume (20 mL). At least three replicates were run for each adsorption/desorption experiment. Both for adsorption kinetics (3 h) and adsorption experiments (30 min), 50 μ L aliquots of solution were

diluted (1:200) in 2% HNO₃ (certified ACS plus, Fischer Scientific) and used to measure Re and Mo concentrations through ICP-OES (5110 ICP-OES, Agilent Technologies). A 9 h adsorption kinetics (two replicates) using the same PFPMAm batch used for in situ experiments is reported in Figure S19. The wavelengths 197.248 nm (for Re) and 202.032 nm (for Mo) were used to calculate concentration values; no interference between Mo and Re lines was observed. Calibration curves were prepared in house from 1000 ppm Re and Mo standards (Sigma-Aldrich). Uptake was calculated as $\frac{(c_{M,stock} - c_{M,ads})V}{m_{adsorbent}} \frac{MW_{MO_4}}{MW_M}$, where $c_{M,stock}$ is the initial metal stock concentration ($M = \text{Re, Mo}$), $c_{M,ads}$ is the metal concentration in solution after adsorption, $m_{adsorbent}$ is the mass of adsorbent material (including both polymer and carbon nanotubes), and MW_{MO_4} and MW_M are the molecular weights of the oxyanion and of the metal, respectively. When uptake was expressed in molar terms, it was assumed that the polymer represented 50% of the adsorbent mass. Desorption took place in 20 mM NaCl (Sigma-Aldrich) and was calculated as $\frac{c_{M,des}}{c_{M,stock} - c_{M,ads}}$, where $c_{M,des}$ is the metal concentration in solution after desorption, with the adsorption and desorption volumes being equal.

4.2. EQCM

EQCM with dissipation monitoring (BluQCM QSD and SP-200 potentiostat, BioLogic) was used with 5 MHz, 14 mm Au/Cr or Au/Ti sensors (QuartzPro). Sensors were used as received. Previous reports showed that gold/PVFc adhesion is rather strong.¹² Experiments were run at constant temperature (23.0 °C), with 4–5 mL of 20 mM NaReO₄, 20 mM Na₂MoO₄, and 10 mM NaReO₄ + 10 mM Na₂MoO₄. The theoretical slope of mass vs charge curves was estimated as $\frac{MW_{anion}}{nF}$, where MW_{anion} is the molecular weight of the anion, n is the valency of the anion, and F is Faraday's constant. 100% Faradaic efficiency is assumed, i.e., all the charge passed just oxidizes ferrocene to ferrocenium, without side reactions. Solvation numbers were estimated as $\frac{\text{experimental slope} - \frac{MW_{anion}}{nF}}{\frac{MW_{H_2O}}{F}}$, where MW_{anion} is the

molecular weight of water. In the case of EQCM measurements followed by XPS, the following potential steps were used: 5 min at 0.1 V vs Ag/AgCl followed by 15 min at 0.6 V vs Ag/AgCl; samples were not rinsed before XPS analysis, and the films were kept in the dark until XPS analysis. Multiple overtones were measured (up to the 13th overtone), and the change in frequency divided by the overtone number ($\Delta f/n$) did not show significant deviations for all overtones, thus the Sauerbrey equation was applied to estimate mass changes based on frequency changes.³³ The EQCM sensitivity of the sensors was $-17.524 \text{ ng Hz}^{-1}$; this sensitivity was experimentally measured through EQCM calibration (see Note S2 and Figure S18).

4.3. Spectroscopic Ellipsometry

Thin film thickness was measured via ellipsometry (J.A. Woollam Variable-Angle Spectroscopic Ellipsometer). Spectroscopic scans (300–1000 nm wavelength range) were run at three angles of incidence (65, 70, and 75°). Measurements were performed at room temperature. Ellipsometric data were fitted with V.A.SE software (Note S3). In situ ellipsometry was carried out using an ellipsometry electrochemical cell with a 70° angle of incidence (redox.me, Sweden) and with a potentiostat (Squidstat Solo, Admiral Instruments). Figures S7 and S10 report both the measured data and the fitted model of the spectroscopic scans (Ψ and Δ vs wavelength) for the in situ ellipsometry measurements.

4.4. Neutron Reflectometry

Silicon wafers (2 in. diameter, 5 mm thickness, El-Cat, USA and ITME, Poland) were first cleaned in a clean room with DI-water, followed by acetone and isopropyl alcohol. The silicon wafers were then coated with palladium (~10 nm thick coating, monitored by the in-house EQCM sensor, later confirmed by ellipsometry) via magnetron sputtering (base pressure $<4 \times 10^{-6}$ Torr, AJA ORION 3 with ST20 ORION magnetron sputter guns); the gas used was

argon with a process pressure of 3.9 mTorr, DC power of 12 W, 60 s ramp, resulting in a sputtering rate of 1.1 Å/s. Silicon wafers were then quickly rinsed with isopropyl alcohol and dried with nitrogen. 7.5 mg/mL PVFc (Polysciences) and PFPMAm solutions in chloroform (>99.8%, Fisher Scientific) were filtered (Teflon syringe filter, 0.20 μm) so to improve the film quality, similarly to Glidle et al.¹² Spin coating was performed in a clean room at 2000 rpm for 60 s, with an acceleration of 1000 rpm s⁻¹, and ~0.5 mL of the polymer solution was used.

Measurements were performed at Oak Ridge National Laboratory's Spallation Neutron Source using the Liquids Reflectometer (beamline BL-4B) and a potentiostat (VSP, BioLogic). Dry sample thickness was first measured for all samples. 20 mM NaReO₄ (99.95%, Alfa Aesar), Na₂MoO₄ single anion solutions in H₂O and D₂O (99.9 atom % D, Cambridge Isotope Laboratories, Inc.), and a 10 mM ReO₄⁻ + 10 mM MoO₄²⁻ binary solution were used (~3 mL per run). The electrochemical setup included a TiZr counter electrode, PFPMAm/Pd/Si or PVFc/Pd/Si working electrode, and a Ag/AgCl reference electrode (Figure 4a reports the setup schematics). Equilibrium data were collected with a 1.7×10^{-2} to $5 \times 10^{-2} \text{ Å}^{-1}$ wavevector transfer window. Dynamic data were collected with a 8×10^{-3} to $2 \times 10^{-1} \text{ Å}^{-1}$ wavevector transfer window; the continuously acquired data points were then grouped into 15 s slices. Several models were tested with and without a hydration layer to ascertain that each layer was necessary to obtain a good fit. The NR data was modeled using the DREAM³⁴ fitting engine implemented within the reflId³⁵ package. This fitting engine uses a Markov Chain Monte Carlo algorithm to sample the posterior probability in the parameter space of the model for optimization and uncertainty estimation. Details on calculation of solvent fraction from SLD profiles are discussed in Note S4.

4.5. X-ray Photoelectron Spectroscopy

Source gun type Al Kα, 400 μm spot size, CAE pass energy of 150.0 eV for survey or 50.0 eV for high resolution scans, and energy step size of 1.00 eV for surveys or 0.1 eV for high resolution scans. Shirley background was used for Fe 2p, Mo 3d, and Re 4f. All spectra were calibrated with the C 1s peak at 284.8 eV. For Fe 2p fitting, the approach by Su et al. was followed.³⁶ Lorentzian–Gaussian line shapes were used, and the area of the Fe 2p_{1/2} component was constrained as half of the Fe 2p_{3/2} area. The fraction of ferrocenium was estimated as $\frac{\text{area Fe } 2p_{3/2} \text{ oxidized}}{\text{area Fe } 2p_{3/2} \text{ oxidized} + \text{area Fe } 2p_{3/2}}$. Data were analyzed using CasaXPS (UIUC license), and the raw data are reported in Figures S2 and S3.

4.6. Contact Angle

Pendant drop measurements (Ramé-Hart model 250 Standard Goniometer) were conducted using deionized water (4–5 μL droplets) on as-cast, reduced (15 min at 0 V vs Ag/AgCl, 0.1 M NaClO₄), and oxidized (15 min at 0.6 V vs Ag/AgCl, 0.1 M NaClO₄) PVFc and PFPMAm thin films. Images were processed with DROPimage Advanced software.

4.7. Ab Initio Molecular Dynamics

To simulate the adsorption of cations on ferrocene polymers, we adopted truncated models of two PVFc/PFPMAm monomers supported on a graphene surface (1.71 × 1.48 nm²). These systems are interfaced with 170 water molecules. Each system also contains 2 anions: 2 ReO₄⁻, or 2 MoO₄²⁻, or 1 ReO₄⁻ and 1 MoO₄²⁻. 1 or 2 Na⁺ counterions were added to the systems to balance the charge of the anions (subject to the charge of the ferrocenium ion). Totally, the simulation cells consist of approximately 610/700 atoms for the systems with PVFc/PVFMAM.

We carried out ab initio molecular dynamics (AIMD) simulation using the CP2K program.³⁷ The PBE-D3 density functional³⁸ was adopted. We used the hybrid Gaussian-Plane wave basis set scheme,³⁹ in which the double-ζ Gaussian basis sets⁴⁰ were used to expand Kohn–Sham orbitals and a plane-wave cutoff of 450 Ry was used to compute electrostatic terms. The GTH pseudopotentials⁴¹ were employed to describe the core electrons. In self-consistent calculations, only the Γ-point was considered and the surface dipole

correction⁴² for asymmetric slabs was applied. The low spin state of ferrocenium was found, consistent with the literature.⁴³

Molecular dynamics simulations were carried out within the canonical (*NVT*) ensemble where the temperature was maintained by the Nose–Hoover thermostat.⁴⁴ This temperature, being higher than RT, helps accelerate the dynamics in the systems due to the limited AIMD time scale. A time step of 1 fs was used.

Water, anions, and Na⁺ counterions were added to the polymer/graphene systems at random. As preparation for equilibrated systems, after static optimizations to local minima, 10 ps AIMD runs at a relatively high *T* = 373 K were performed, moving the systems to low energy structures. This was followed by an annealing procedure to reduce the temperature to 333 K and 5 ps simulations at this temperature to further equilibrate the systems. Statistics reported in this work was obtained from 10 ps production runs.

■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/jacsau.3c00705>.

Experimental details, gel permeation chromatography, EQCM calibration, ellipsometry modeling, adsorption kinetics, cyclic voltammeteries, neutron reflectometry and spectroscopic ellipsometry raw data and depth profiles, solvent volume fraction for PFPMAm, EQCM characterization, XPS spectra, contact angle measurements, and ab initio molecular dynamics (PDF)

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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