

# Carbon paste electrodes in the new millennium

## Invited Review

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**Abstract:** In this review (with 500 refs), both electrochemistry and electroanalysis with carbon paste-based electrodes, sensors, and detectors are of interest, when attention is focused on the research activities in the years of new millennium. Concerned are all important aspects of the field, from fundamental investigations with carbon paste as the electrode material, via laboratory examination of the first electrode prototypes, basic and advanced studies of various electrode processes and other phenomena, up to practical applications to the determination of inorganic ions, complexes, and molecules. The latter is presented in a series of extensive tables, offering a nearly complete survey of methods published within the period of 2001–2008. Finally, the latest trends and outstanding achievements are also outlined and future prospects given.

**Keywords:** Carbon paste electrodes • Electrochemistry • Electroanalysis • New millennium (2001–2008)

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## 1. Introduction

### 1.1. Electrochemistry and electroanalysis with carbon paste electrodes in the light of Nobel Prize winner Jaroslav Heyrovský and his polarography

The year of 2009 comprises an anniversary celebrating exactly fifty years that have passed since Professor Jaroslav Heyrovský (1890–1967) won the Nobel Prize for Chemistry as an award for the discovery of polarographic method, its principal development, and popularisation worldwide [1]. Coincidentally, the same year also represents a break-point that indicates the start of a new half-a-century of existence of carbon paste as the electrode material [2].

It is to be noted that both seemingly distant fields – *i.e.*, polarography with the dropping mercury electrode

(DME) and electrochemistry with carbon paste electrodes (CPEs) – are somehow associated as the configuration of classical DME has become an inspiration for similarly functioning electrode variant based on carbon dispersion. This linking point had appeared in the late 1950s, when Professor Ralph Norman Adams (1924–2002) and his students were testing a new “dropping carbon electrode” (DCE) as an alternative to the DME for anodic oxidations of organic compounds, where the mercury drop could not be used. Although such a concept had finally failed, a thicker mixture of softer consistence, carbon paste [3], was found to be capable of replacing satisfactorily the originally intended DCE configuration [4].

There is yet another link between carbon pastes and polarography – it is the first review on CPEs, written again by Adams [5] that had appeared in a Japanese bulletin *Review of Polarography*. In view of present day’s classification, it was rather unusual

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choice as the referred CPEs representing solid-like sensors, with invariable surface, and of non-mercury character could not be operated in the polarographic regime, but voltammetrically. (At that time, however, voltammetric experiments had sometimes been reported as polarographic measurements – see *e.g.* [6] and the authentic citation withdrawn from the abstract, “...*The carbon paste electrode recommended by Adams for polarographic oxidation of various organic substances...*”, published in *Nature* – one of the most prestigious scientific journals.)

Finally, polarography with DME and the CPEs themselves share quite similar fates when taking into account their more-or-less accidental discoveries, as well as the resultant position achieved in modern electrochemistry. Whereas polarographic *I-E* curves were first registered during investigations with electrocapillary phenomena at the DME [7], carbon paste was a “side-product” coming from unsuccessful experimentation with the above-mentioned DCE [4,5]. Some decades later, when polarography had already become the worldwide-renowned scientific discipline [1], the electrochemistry with CPEs also started to play a role of highly respected field that would spread over the globe, spawning about 2 000 scientific papers and having touched almost each area of theoretical and applied electrochemistry [2].

## 1.2. The state of art in the new millennium

Since their invention in 1958, carbon paste electrodes (CPEs) underwent a very impressive development, pursuing the progress in electrochemistry, electroanalysis, and instrumental analysis as such. The respective history illustrated *via* the individual periods and milestones has already been summarised, when practically each aspect, feature, or particular area were of interest in the past five decades. Also, some significant periods of research work with CPEs were the subject of exclusively oriented reviews and related reports (see [1,2] and refs. therein).

Herein, for the reader's comfort, it is possible to briefly point out the respective bibliographic sources published to date and given below in a chronological order: (i) the early era of CPEs has been evaluated by Adams himself [4,5]; the key contributions from the 1960s concerning initial characterisations of CPEs coming also from his laboratories [8-10], as well as from some other pioneers in the U.S. and Europe [11-15]; (ii) typical achievements during the 1970s can then be withdrawn from some original reports (*e.g.* [16-20]); (iii) the starting era of chemically and biologically modified carbon paste electrodes (CMCPEs and CP-biosensors, respectively) initiated by a series of key studies [21-25] and spread over the entire 1980s is documented

by a triad of contemporary reviews [26-28]; (iv) the beginning of 1990s and the following years are covered in the remaining reviews articles [29-39], including some specialised areas [34,35]. Finally, there are also two attempts to overview the field in its entirety. The first accomplishment of this kind is a 250-pages-lengthy chapter published in the *Encyclopedia Of Sensors (EOS)* series [40]; the second being a brand new review made on the occasion of the half-centennial jubilee of carbon paste [2]. As seen, the last review devoted to a particular period of the field was the article published by our group in 2001 [36].

In an effort to specify the latest achievements and trends, we have prepared this new review focused on the years after the commencement of the new millennium – for the period of 2001-2008. In some respect, it can be considered as a continuation of the above-mentioned review covering the years of 1996-2000 [36], together with its forerunners having dealt with the preceding half-decade of 1991-1995 [29,30]. However, compared to these compilations, there is one distinct difference – this review and its sections concerning electroanalytical applications are concentrated on inorganic analysis only and the determinations of organic substances, environmental pollutants, pharmaceuticals, and biologically important compounds are not considered, except for single mentions dealing with new groups of CPEs or in association with latest achievements with some particular techniques. The reason for such a selection is a special review [41] covering the recent advances in organic and biological electroanalysis with CPEs and appearing soon in an article dedicated also to the 50<sup>th</sup> anniversary of Heyrovský's Nobel Prize and concerning predominantly organic electrochemistry.

Last but not least, here is only a little overlay with the above-mentioned book-chapter [40], having also reviewed a number of publications from the first years of the new millennium. This text is focused exclusively on latest trends and summarises additionally more than two hundred new publications that have appeared in the last three years – *i.e.*, after the release of the review in *EOS*.

## 2. Electrochemical research with carbon paste electrodes in the period of 2001-2008

### 2.1. Classical carbon pastes and some advances in their characterisation

Similarly as in previous decades, mixtures made of commercially available spectroscopic graphite powders (as a carbon moiety) and of either paraffin (mineral) oils

or silicone fluids (in the role of pasting liquid or binder, respectively) have also dominated over the years of the new millennium and it can be expected that such mixtures might represent about 75% among all carbon pastes employed [2]. Apart from their actual use – *i.e.*, if the resultant CPEs were employed in the bare configuration or as chemically modified carbon paste electrodes, CMCPEs –, this statement reflects the fact that traditional carbon paste compositions may still offer attractive properties and versatile use. Their wide applicability, as well as compatibility with new procedures and materials, is then documented throughout this text and, especially, in sections 3 and 4, summarising the individual methods of inorganic electroanalysis reported over the period 2001-2008.

The continuing interest in traditional carbon pastes has then resulted in some valuable contributions to the basic characterisation of CPEs, CMCPEs, or carbon paste-based electrode substrates, which could be achieved with the aid of (i) new instrumentation, (ii) hitherto-unused approaches, or initiated by (iii) actual demands.

(i) Among newly used instrumental techniques for characterisation measurements, one can mention studies on the carbon paste structure with atomic force microscopy (AFM [42]), scanning electrochemical microscopy (SECM [43]), or surface screening with electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS [44]) and spectroelectrochemistry (SEC [45]).

(ii) One of the unpublished approaches to the characterisation of CPEs is newly described in a report [46], dealing with the electrical resistance of carbon paste mixtures. The respective studies have helped to explain long-time unclear reasons for excellent conductivity of common carbon pastes (see *e.g.* [39,40]), which could be accomplished *via* experimental verification of a new hypothesis – “Model of the tightest arrangement of carbon particles”.

(iii) As a typical example of an actual demand that influences the orientation of modern electrochemical research and applied electroanalysis, it is possible to quote the increasing popularity of the so-called “green analytical chemistry” [47]. Carbon paste as completely non-toxic and environmentally friendly material is widely applicable also within these activities, including various combinations with other momentarily preferred materials (for details, see below, in sections 2.2 and 2.3).

## 2.2. New types of carbon pastes and related materials

Besides common graphite powders, both paraffin and silicone oils can also be mixed with other carbonaceous materials, forming more or less specific carbon pastes. In the past decades, such investigations with newly proposed mixtures had always been of interest and the same was the case of numerous efforts appearing in the period of 2001-2008.

### 2.2.1. Carbon pastes made of alternate carbonaceous materials.

Shortly after the commencement of a new millennium, carbon pastes made of (i) glassy carbon powder (with spherical particles and specially pre-treated surface) came again to the fore [48,49] as the electrode material exhibiting excellent polarisation characteristics, electrocatalytic effect for some redox systems, or even significantly improved resistivity in media with a higher content of organic solvents (such as solutions containing up to 80-90% (v/v) MeOH [50]). More favourable reaction kinetics due to electrocatalysis have also been reported for carbon pastes prepared from (ii) acetylene black [51,52], (iii) template carbon or (vi) porous carbon foam [53]. A collection of reports [54-61] concerns the family of (v) diamond paste electrodes (DPEs), where the carbon moiety is replaced by natural or synthetic diamond. Reportedly, these mixtures exhibit remarkably high analytical currents due to which the respective DPEs are able to operate at extremely low concentrations (down to the picomolar level [56,60]). However, because both diamond and the binder in such pastes are electric insulators, the functioning of these electrodes remains rather mysterious. In last years, intensively popularized (vi) new forms of carbon complete the list with other pastes made of fullerenes (“C-60” [62,63]), carbon nanoparticles [64], or paste-like mixtures with carbon nanofibers [65], and various types of carbon nanotubes [66]; the latter representing a new phenomenon also within the electrochemistry with carbon pastes, deserving a special attention [2].

### 2.2.2. Carbon nanotube paste electrodes (CNTPEs or CNPEs, respectively).

This type of carbon pastes has already been the central subject of more than 30 original papers [67-97] and the respective research can now be regarded as a separate area in the field. Since the first reports by Paleschi's [67,68,73], Wang's [69] and Rivas's [66,70,71,75] groups, the CNTPEs have undergone a very diverse investigation, comprising the initial electrochemical characterisation of basic types of nanotubes and the respective CNTPEs (*e.g.* [67-70]), their comparison

with common CPEs [68,69,74], studies on specific electrocatalytic properties of CNTs [73,75,76], the respective reaction kinetics [73], specific ion transfer at liquid / liquid phase boundaries [92], or their capabilities to immobilise various substances into the electrode bulk (e.g., redox mediators [67,73,77], enzymes [70,80] or even two enzymes together [87], and various catalysts from single metallic particles [80,96], *via* specially synthesised polymeric compounds – the so-called molecular wires [78]).

Numerous CNTPEs have already been successfully examined for the identification and quantification of numerous species of inorganic, organic, or biological origin. In inorganic analysis, CNTPEs were employed to determine Hg(II) in water samples [72], Cu(II) + Pb(II) in fish tissue [85] or Cu(II) alone in vascular tracts [94]; the latter being feasible with specially fluorinated CNTs. Among organic and biologically important compounds, of interest were: alcohols and phenols [70,77], thiolic amino acids (homocysteine [69]), flavonoid-antioxidants (quercetin and rutin [74,79]), glucose [80,87,88,96], dopamine [68,75,81], NAD(H) [70,73,77], DNA [90], as well as some pharmaceuticals (namely: *Isoniazid* [86], *Piroxicam* [89], *Urapidyl* [83], and antibacterial *Oxytetracycline* [93]) or environmental pollutants like herbicide *Amitrole* [71]. Furthermore, similarly to common types of CPEs, the CNTs-paste sensors have been shown to be versatile with respect to their combination with modern instrumentation such as highly selective amperometric detection [80,87,96], separation techniques like capillary zone electrophoresis (CZE [75]) or electrochemiluminescence detection (ECL-D [88]), including their mutual combination (CZE / ECL-D [91]).

In paste mixtures, carbon nanotubes – in both single-wall and multi-wall forms – are usually used as (i) substitute of graphite powder (see e.g. [67-71,74,81,86,89]), mixed directly with paraffin oil [67-70], silicone oil [84] or, alternatively, an ionic liquid (IL) [82]. In some cases, CNTs may represent (ii) additional component (modifier [90]), or a constituent in (iii) mixtures with another substances that further amplify the electrocatalytic effect of CNTs themselves [78,80,96].

### 2.2.3. Carbon Pastes Made from Atypical Binders.

Mixtures, where paraffin or silicone oils were replaced by alternate binder, have been of considerable interest mainly in the initial era of characterisation measurements with CPEs (see e.g. [37,40] and refs. therein), whereas reports on such carbon pastes from the recent years are quite rare. For instance, mixtures of this type have been employed in potentiometric indications, which is the case of carbon paste-based electrodes made of chemically active di-*iso*-nonyl phthalate (DINP [97])

or tricresyl phosphate (TCP [98]). The latter – when protonated in an acidic supporting electrode – is also applicable in electrochemical stripping analysis (ESA), acting as counter-ion for effective pre-concentration of some anions [99-101].

Common pasting liquids can also be alternated by some nearly solid binders like silicone grease (C/SG type, made from lubricant for fly-fishing floating lines [102]) or polypropylene (C/PP, [40]), forming very dense and difficult-to-handle mixtures. Occasionally, the so-called solid-like carbon paste electrodes are also reported, representing configurations where the binder is formed by solidified paraffin wax (s-CPEs or C/PWs, respectively [103-109]). In these cases, the PW moiety acts as a stabilising element, protecting the respective electrode material against the dissolution effect of organic solvents (e.g., EtOH [104,105]), or may serve for immobilisation of modifiers applied as a mixture of reagents [108,109].

Finally, solid binder-based carbon pastes can also be represented by screen-printed electrodes (SPEs) prepared from thicker (paste-like) carbon inks [110,111]. Herein, the respective electrode material is classified as “carbon paste” by the authors themselves; maybe, due to a close relation of both CPEs and SPEs as typical representatives of carbon heterogeneous electrodes [32]. Otherwise, however, both types are being distinguished (see e.g. [112,113]).

### 2.2.4. Carbon Ionic-Liquid Electrodes (CILEs).

Similarly as carbon nanotubes, also room-temperature ionic liquids (RTILs or ILs, respectively) have recently come into the fore [114]. These substances are represented by molten salts with the melting point close to or below room temperature, consisting of two asymmetrical ions of opposite charges. Their excellent solvating properties, high conductivity, non-volatility, low toxicity, wide polarisation range, as well as good electrochemical stability make such ion-associates attractive for many applications, including their incorporation in various electrodes, (bio)sensors, and detection systems [114]. In the electrochemistry with carbon pastes, the corresponding boom is reflected in the rise of a new family of carbon paste-based electrodes – carbon ionic liquid electrodes (CILEs), reported, to date, in approx. 30 contributions [82,115-140].

Pioneering attempts with CILEs, initiated four years ago by Liu *et al.* [115] were soon followed by Opallo's group [116], together with especially active Maleki and Safavi plus co-workers [117-119,121,123]. Since then, other scientific teams had stepped into the field [82,120,122,124], and all the started investigations dealt again with a wide variety of experimental work – from the

fundamental characterisations and comparative studies with common CPEs (e.g. [115,117,119,126,127]), via studies on the specific ion / charge transfer in ILs [115-117,120] and their electrocatalytic effect [121,128,137], up to first analytical applications to the determination of various organic and biologically active compounds. Namely, of interest were the following substances:  $\text{ClO}_4^-$  and  $\text{PF}_6^-$  anions [116]; nitrite,  $\text{NO}_2^-$  [115,126,128]; hydrogen peroxide (in environmental samples [125]); hydrazine [133]; *n*-alkyl-amines [124]; phenol, amino-phenols, and catechol [123,130], nitro-phenols (*p*-nitrophenol and *Methylparathion* in waste-water [137]); hydroquinone (in cosmetic cream and waste-water [127,139]); glucose [138], calcium dobesilate (in capsule and urine [122]); *Paracetamol* (in pharmaceuticals and urine [136]); *Acetaminophen* [133]; ascorbic acid (AA, in model samples [117,133] or tablets of *Vitamin-C* [120]); dopamine (DO, in injection samples [117,129]), including simultaneous determination of AA, uric acid (UA), and DO in human blood and urine [118]; NAD(H) [117], and DNA [132,135].

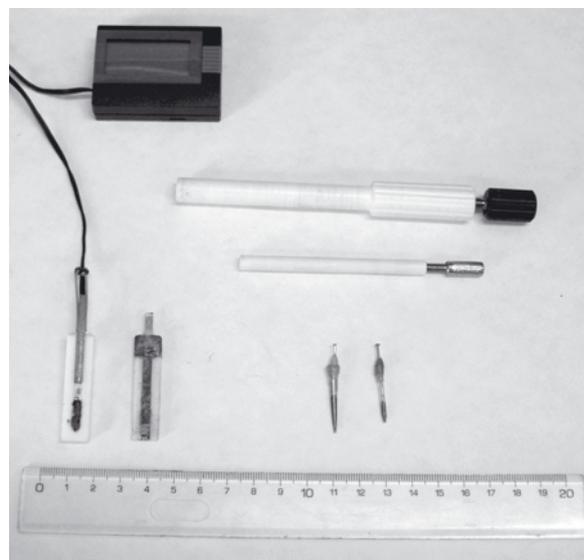
In another analogy with CNTs, also (RT)ILs can be used as (i) mixtures with graphite, where the ionic liquid replaces ordinary binders (e.g. [115-117]); (ii) additional component (usually modifier [127]); or (iii) special medium for another reagent (e.g., enzyme [138]). Regarding the individual types of (RT)ILs, the compounds of choice are heterocyclic structures of the [*n*-alkyl-pyridium] $^+A^-$  or [*R,R'*-imidazolium] $^+A^-$  type (where the respective anion is  $\text{PF}_6^-$ ,  $\text{Br}^-$ , or *bis*(trifluoromethyl-sulfonyl)imide, NTF2 [115-120]). Regarding the techniques which are being coupled with CILEs, predominant are amperometric detections (e.g., [125,133,138], feasible also as measurements in the FIA mode [124], followed by voltammetry [118,123,127], including a more effective detection with the rotated disc electrode (RDE) [82]. Some methods can be combined with potentiometric indication [119] or even electrochemiluminescence detection [124].

The commentary on new types of carbon pastes can be concluded by quoting (i) a mixture of carbon nanotubes with an ionic liquid [82] or (ii) CNTPEs immersed in ionic liquid-based supporting electrolytes [140]. In the first case, a combination of the two trendy materials has resulted in a unique paste of "new generation", in which both traditional components are replaced with alternate moieties, whereas the remaining two cases can be considered as a transient element between the CNTPEs and CILEs. Regarding the latter, such systems with specific electrochemical behaviour given by the presence of both CNTs and RTILs may offer yet some unique properties like long-term stability at high temperatures of about 60°C, reported for a CNTPE from ultra-long (aligned) nanotubes in connection with an ionic-liquid electrolyte [140].

### 2.2.5. Some innovations in the construction of carbon paste electrodes.

Practically since CPEs came to a wider use in electrochemistry, their usual arrangement is common macro-electrode operated in the stationary (batch) configuration (see e.g. [2] and [40] with the respective sections therein). Typical designs also reflect the fact that carbon pastes are a soft and non-compact material which has to be fixed in suitable electrode bodies, when various pre-filled tubes or piston-driven hollow shafts still prevail as the most popular constructions [2,40,141]. In flowing streams, properly designed detectors are then employed – often, as adaptations of commercial detection cells supplied by renowned producers of chemical instrumentation.

As throughout the publication activities within the 1960s-1990s, also the years after the Y2K have spawned some contributions, in which the CPE-design significantly differ from traditional constructions and configurations. One of such criteria can be the size of electrode and, in this respect, carbon paste ultramicroelectrodes (CP-UMEs) reported by Nyokong *et al.* [142] are certainly exceptional, when the respective ensembles were tested in two configurations: as (i) CP-disc-shaped electrode (with overall diameter  $\varnothing_{\text{CP}} = 100\text{-}150\ \mu\text{m}$ ), and



**Figure 1.** Some new construction types of electrode holders for carbon paste. Clockwise from right side: (i) piston-driven carbon paste holder for common use in the stationary (batch) configuration, with Teflon<sup>®</sup>-machined body and of ordinary size (authors' own construction); (ii) prototype of a small CPE as the exchangeable working electrode for wall-jet HPLC detector; (iii, iv) two carbon paste mini-electrodes of slightly different surface size (via cut tip); (v, vi) two assembled carbon paste groove electrodes; set-up for a detection unit in FIA-mode (right) and the electrically heated variant (left) connected to a thermometer (above). (For further specification, see original reports [141,143-146].)

(ii) CP-band electrode; both exhibiting characteristic properties of microelectrodes, but suffering from a worse reproducibility (ca.  $\pm 20\%$ ). A new type of carbon paste microelectrode (CP- $\mu$ E; with diameter of ca. 5–50  $\mu\text{m}$ ) has been reported by Hočevar and Ogorevc [64] and somewhat larger variant, carbon paste minielectrode (CP-mE, 0.10–0.15 mm in diameter) by Sotiropoulos *et al.* [143]. In the first case, the CP $\mu$ E utilises a special piston-driven mechanism in a glass capillary, whereas CP-mE requires only a common plastic pipette tip whose vertical cutting (with a razor) provides the desired surface area. A simple construction of the latter is shown on Fig. 1, together with a prototype of small CPE-holder that has been designed recently to be used as exchangeable working electrode in a wall-jet detector for HPLC [144]. For comparison, the image illustrates a third piston-driven CP-holder [141], representing an older type of CPE with ordinary size.

Finally, the photo in Fig. 1 depicts also carbon paste groove electrode (CP-GrE [145]) as another atypical construction of a CPE, copying planar design of SPEs [114]. The CP-GrE assembly comprises a miniature plastic prismatic bar with horizontal channel for carbon paste filling, metal contact, and additional plastic insert(s) defining the electrode surface *via* its mechanical coverage / exposure. The whole construction has fulfilled the demands upon its use inside a detector for hydrodynamic measurements, when its satisfactory function in the FIA mode was demonstrated already on the first prototype [146] and confirmed again by a brand new study [147]. Momentarily, a more robust CP-GrE construction is being maintained into electrically heated carbon paste electrode (EH-CPE), when following the previous idea and construction by Flechsig and Gründler [148]. (It is expected that new EH-CPE would complete the hitherto-performed investigations on temperature-enhanced diffusion of electroactive species with similar assays on temperature-dependent non-faradic processes such as adsorption, extraction, or ion-pairing.)

The gallery of unusual CPE constructions can be ended by mentioning (i) magnet-incorporated carbon paste electrode (MI-CPE [149]), at which – reportedly – magnetically controlled fluxes are higher than those measured by the comparative non-magnetic carbon paste. Or, apparently unprecedented is recently described (ii) dual-electrode / dual-channel detection system for capillary electrophoresis [150], where two working CP-based electrodes and two amperometric detectors have enabled to determine simultaneously four different analytes.

### 2.3. Reflection of new technologies in the electrochemistry with carbon pastes

The years after 2000 are undoubtedly in the sign of widespread applicability of materials that have been developed with the aid of new technologies. In the electrochemistry with carbon pastes, they are represented mainly by various modifiers; namely, (i) complexants and (ii) redox electrocatalysts or mediators, when the latter can also be understood as synonym for catalysts in biochemical and biological processes. The group (i) comprises usually macromolecular variants of some reagents known from classical qualitative analysis [151] – e.g., *Cuproin* and the Cu(I) counterion can be found in the structures of  $[\text{Cu}_4(1,3\text{-bis}(4\text{-pyridyl) propane})_4][(2\text{-methyl-acrylic acid})_8(\text{H}_2\text{O})_2] \times 2 \text{H}_2\text{O}$ , [78] and a  $[\text{Cu}^{\text{I}}\text{-dipyridyl}]^+$  polymeric complex [152], or a new *Schiff base* inside *bis*-5-(4-nitrophenyl-azo) salicylaldimine]-1,8-diamino,3,6-dioxo-octan [153].

The diversity of the group (ii) is much wider; nevertheless, also electrocatalysts can be sorted into several major subclasses, some of them having again origin in classical reagents and / or their products. For instance, this is the case of (a) *Dawson* compounds; i.e., heteropoly-anions based on  $\text{Si}^{\text{IV}}$ ,  $\text{P}^{\text{V}}$ ,  $\text{As}^{\text{V}}$  /  $\text{Mo}^{\text{VI}}$ ,  $\text{W}^{\text{VI}}$  and  $\text{V}^{\text{V}}$  hetero-atoms combined with voluminous organic cations, as well as neutral organic molecules [40]. In the new millennium, novel types of these substances, capable of catalysing the electrode transformations of both inorganic and organic analytes (e.g.,  $\text{XO}_3^-$ , where X is Cl, Br, and I;  $\text{NO}_2^-$  and  $\text{NO}_x$ ,  $\text{N}_2\text{H}_4$  and  $\text{NH}_2\text{OH}$ ,  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ , and  $\text{O}_2$ , or phenols, catechols, and aromatic amines; see e.g. [40,41] and tables therein) are regularly reported and, herein, one can present some selected examples:  $\text{H}_3[\text{P}(\text{Mo}_{12}\text{O}_{40})] \cdot n\text{H}_2\text{O}$  and 3-aminopropyl-triethoxysilane encapsulated in *MCM-41* (a mesoporous molecular sieve) [154];  $(\text{C}_{10}\text{H}_{18}\text{N}_6)[\text{As}_2(\text{Mo}_{18}\text{O}_{62})] \cdot 6\text{CH}_2\text{CN} \cdot 8\text{H}_2\text{O}$  [155];  $(\text{H}-2,4\text{-bipyridine})_4[\text{Si}(\text{Mo}_3\text{O}_{10})_4]$  [156];  $[\text{C}_3\text{H}_{12}\text{N}_2]_4[\text{CdMo}_{12}\text{O}_{24}(\text{HPO}_4)_6(\text{PO}_4)_2(\text{OH})_6]$   $[(\text{Cd}(\text{H}_2\text{O})_2) \cdot 3\text{H}_2\text{O}]$  [157];  $\text{Cs}_{14}\text{Na}_{22}\{[\text{Sn}(\text{CH}_3)_2(\text{H}_2\text{O})]_{24}[\text{Sn}(\text{CH}_3)_{212}]\}[\text{P}^{\text{V}}/\text{As}^{\text{V}}(\text{W}_9\text{O}_{34})_{12}] \cdot 149\text{H}_2\text{O}$  [158];  $\text{H}-2[\text{Cd}^{\text{II}}(1,10\text{-phenanthroline})_{3,2}][\text{Cd}(\text{H}_2\text{O})(1,10\text{-phenanthroline})_2](\text{V}_{16}\text{O}_{38}\text{Cl}) \cdot 2.5\text{H}_2\text{O}$  [159];  $[\text{Ni}^{\text{II}}/\text{Co}^{\text{II}}(4,4'\text{-bipyridine})_3(\text{H}_2\text{O})_2(\text{C}_2\text{O}_4)]_2[\text{P}_2\text{O}_7(\text{W}_3\text{O}_{10})_6]_2(2\text{-H}-4,4'\text{-bipyridine}) \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$  [160]. Attractive properties of such hybrid materials are given by their multifunctional nature, coupling in one the mechanical stability of the inorganic lattice, chemical reactivity of the organic moiety with its lipophilicity ensuring good adhesion to the hydrophobic carbon paste.

Another distinct group of electrocatalysts / mediators are (b)  $\text{Me}^{\text{II}} / \text{III}$ -porphyrin-based macro-structures like  $\text{Fe}^{\text{III}}$ -tetra(o-ureaphenyl)porphyrinosilica matrix [161] or  $\text{Co}^{\text{II}} / 4,4',4'',4'''(21\text{H}-23\text{H-porphine-5,10,15,20-tetra-yl})$

tetrakis-benzoic acid immobilized onto grafted silica of the  $\text{SiO}_2 / \text{Nb}_2\text{O}_5$  type [162]; (c) calixarenes (e.g.,  $\text{Ni}^{\text{II}}$ -5,11,17,23-tetra-tert-butyl-25,27-bis(di-ethylcarbamoyl-methoxy)calix[4]arene [163]; (d)  $\text{Zr}^{\text{IV}}$ -template based adducts (16*H*,18*H*-dibenzo[*c*,1]-7,9-dithia-16,18-diazapentacene /  $\text{Zr}^{\text{IV}}$ -phosphate [164]; (e) Doyle catalyst:  $\text{Rh}^{\text{II}}$ <sub>2</sub> tetrakis[methyl-2-oxopyrrolidine-5(S)-carboxylate] (see [165]); or (f) radical-forming diimide derivatives (N,N'-bis(propyl)-3,4,9,10-perylenebis(dicarboximide), reported as highly organized *Langmuir-Blodgett* films [166]). New types of modifiers are often nanostructured – from single metal- or metal oxide nanoparticles (e.g., gold- [167,168], platinum- [169] and CuO [170]), via complex hybrid structures (octakis(cyano-propyl-dimethylsiloxy) octasil-sesquioxane /  $\text{Na}_2[\text{Fe}(\text{CN})_5\text{NH}_3]$  [171]), up to chemically functionalised core-shell  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4 \cong \text{Ag}$  magnetic nanoparticles [172] or a film composite from sodium alginate + 1-butyl-3-methyl-imidazolium hexafluorophosphate (RIL) +  $\text{SiO}_2$ -nanoparticles + hemoglobin (Hb) [173]; both being biocompatible and applicable in the configuration of immunosensors. Also Dawson compounds can be prepared in nanoscale; e.g.,  $[(\text{C}_4\text{H}_9)_4\text{N}]_4[\text{Si}(\text{Mo}_3\text{O}_{10})_4]$ ,  $[(\text{C}_4\text{H}_9)_4\text{N}]_6[\text{P}_2\text{O}_7(\text{Mo}_3\text{O}_{10})_6] \cdot 4\text{H}_2\text{O}$ , and  $[(\text{C}_2\text{H}_5)_4\text{N}]_4[\text{PV}^{\text{V}}\text{O}_2(\text{Mo}_{11}\text{O}_{38})] \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$  [174-176], multilayer films of both  $(\text{Mo}-36)_n / \text{PAH}_m$  and  $(\text{P}_2\text{Mo}_{18}\text{-pPy})$  [177,178] or chain structures of  $(\text{Hb} / 2,4\text{-bipyridine})_4[\text{Si}(\text{Mo}_{12}\text{O}_{40})]$  [179]; all representing the so-called three-dimensional (“3-D”) modifiers.

Newly synthesised compounds are usually subjected to intimate analysis. Among the techniques of choice – often in combination –, one can find: scanning electron microscopy (SEM; see e.g. [171,176]), scanning tunneling microscopy and atomic force microscopy (STM, AFM [42,177]) microscopic elemental analysis (MEA [176]), thermogravimetry (TG [157,159]), UV/VIS- [177], IR-, FT/IR-, and Raman spectroscopy [155,171,180], XPS- and XRF-spectroscopy [159,177], XR-diffraction [155,159], or  $^1\text{H}$ -NMR,  $^{13}\text{C}$ -NMR, and  $\text{Si}^{29}$ -NMR [155,171]. With respect to electrochemical characterisations, the most frequent is cyclic voltammetry (CV [158,160,176]), including configuration with the rotated disc electrode (RDE [159]), followed by voltammetry in the DPV or SWV mode [154,177], respectively, or occasionally by chronoamperometry (CA), coulometry (COU [158]), and potentiometry (POT [153]).

At the end of this brief journey across the realm of new electrochemical materials, one cannot avoid a critical note about nomenclature being used in this field. When going through the respective databases, a certain inflation of superlative and sometimes-duplicated terms can be noticed as demonstrated by the following

examples. For instance, related heteropolyanionic structures are reported as (a) novel supramolecular compounds [155], (b) inorganic-organic hybrid polyoxometallate containing supramolecular helical chains [156] (c) new 3-D modifier with intersecting tunnels [157], and (d) ball-shaped heteropolytungstates with biomimetic properties [158]. Or, formerly described nanoparticle films [167] are newly classified as sandwiched polymers [168], novel nanoparticles as nanotubules [180], and a new type of carbon nanotubes is renamed to nanohorns [181]. Perhaps, the most typical example of this approach is the term “nano” itself. Whereas, in the mid 1990s, CPEs were modified with colloidal gold, the identical material has been described a few years later as gold nanoparticles (by the same authors; see [182] vs. [183]). Another authors’ team has then reported on both terms within one year, including their combination in the only title (see [184] and [185]). Apart from the reasons, it is apparent that such a way of presentation complicates the orientation of further scientists interested in these otherwise valuable and inspiring research activities.

## 2.4. Recent achievements within special disciplines employing carbon pastes and carbon paste-based sensors

In the previous decades, research activities with carbon pastes had always included rather specialised investigations on the border of electrochemistry with other scientific fields [29,39,40]. Also the recent years saw the continuing efforts on such experiments, when falling predominantly into the areas that are highlighted in the following paragraphs.

### 2.4.1. Solid-State Electrochemistry.

Among such special areas, the widest applicability can be attributed to a coupling of voltammetric measurements with metallurgic, geological, or archaeological studies, when the respective experiments are performed with various minerals, ores, or raw materials in the solid state [186]. In the case of carbon pastes, the most typical configuration is a carbon paste electroactive electrode (CPEE [17]), whose function is accomplished by dissolution of such a solid substance in a strong electrolyte (concentrated solution of mineral acids or alkaline hydroxides) used, in small amount, as the binder.

In the new millennium, such activities have comprised a great variety of solids; namely: (i) metal oxides like  $\text{Bi}_2\text{O}_3$  [187],  $\text{Mn}^{\text{III/IV}}\text{O}_y$  [188], ferrites of the  $\text{Fe}^{\text{III}}\text{O}_x \cdot n\text{H}_2\text{O}$  type, iron ores, and oolites [189,190], including mixtures with other oxides [191] or traces of toxic heavy metals [192]; (ii) metal- and metalloid

sulphides: ZnS [193-195], PbS [196,197], CuFeS<sub>2</sub> [198],  $\alpha$ -HgS and  $\beta$ -HgS [199], As<sub>2</sub>S<sub>3</sub>, As<sub>4</sub>S<sub>4</sub>, and FeAsS [197,200], or As<sup>III</sup>- and As<sup>V</sup>-contaminated soils [201], including a study with a series of sulphides [202] focused on more theoretical aspects of dissolution processes, including the individual redox- and phase transformations. Finally, the CPEE configuration has been employed to investigate (iii) other materials such as ground ores sampled in a mine [203], dried green sea-weed (as bio-sorbent [204]), Na-nitroprusside (analytical reagent [205]), solid derivatives of 9, 10-anthraquinones [206], or non-toxic thiadiazoles, whose electro-inhibiting capabilities could be utilised in corrosion studies of ancient bronze patina [207].

#### 2.4.2. *In-vivo measurements.*

Interesting applications of CPEs were always connected with voltammetric monitoring in living organisms with the aid of miniature sensors or integrated electrode-cells implanted into the vascular or central nerve system of anaesthetics-treated animals like a monkey, fishes, or laboratory rats (see [34,35] and refs. therein). Similar arrangements have also been described in some recent contributions [208-211], dealing with (i) the testing of a novel micro-dialysis pump for simultaneous determination of glucose, glutamate, and choline in free-moving rat [208]; (ii) *in-vivo* assay of Cd(II) ions in the fish's brain core and a plant tissue [209]; (iii) *in-vivo* determination of Cu(II) in a rat tail vascular system [210]; or (iv) monitoring of a pesticide by using a mini-CNTPE, implanted into the skin of an orange and an apple, or even interfaced to a fish brain tissue [211].

#### 2.4.3. *Development and testing of multichannel sensing assemblies: Electronic Tongues.*

Another attractive link with carbon paste is the case of these highly sophisticated constructions based on measurement and proper evaluation of multiple signals, by means of which some specific properties / features can be identified, correlated, and thus distinguished. The recent years have spawned a series of configurations [212-216], in which the carbon paste electrode material have served for (i) qualitative analysis of potable waters, soft drinks, and beers [212]; (ii) recognition of five basic tastes (*i.e.*, sweet, bitter, salty, acidic, and umami [213]); (iii) classification of red wines *via* the release of specific compounds in consequence of ageing (in oak barrels whose different properties allows one to identify also the country of origin [214]); (iv) analysis of white wines in dependence of local climate and different quality of grapes [215]; or (v) evaluation of the overall bitterness of virgin olive oils [216].

#### 2.4.4. *Miscellaneous.*

A short presentation of very special employments of carbon paste can be completed with: (i) a solar cell, employing a naturally occurring *Chlorophyll* analogue, molecular oxygen (dissolved in aqueous solution), and a CPE that yielded the measurable photo-current [217]; (ii) a photosynthetic system based on a cyanobacteria with a 1,4-benzoquinone-derived mediator that provides the steady-state current signal of photoelectrochemical oxidation of water [218]; (iii) construction of an electrostatic-quadrupole lens system with the aid of the carbon nanotube paste substrate acting as an emitter [219]; or (iv) multi-instrumental analysis of sunflower plant tissues exposed to the effect of Ag(I) ions in an effort to simulate a bio-indication of natural pollution ("environmental stress" [220]), which can then be evaluated *via* the growth depression, changes in colour, or a lack of root hairs; all being applicable in correlations with the cascade of natural processes connected with photosynthesis.

## 3. Inorganic analysis with carbon paste electrodes: typical trends and achievements in the new millennium

### 3.1. Intro: recent advances and selected topics of interest

In practical analysis, conservative users had for long time preferred mercury-based electrodes, which was the case of the hanging mercury drop electrode (HMDE) or mercury film electrodes (MFEs) obtainable from commercially available glassy carbon electrode (GCE) ([221] and refs. therein). Their reliability and feasibility to be employed for highly effective amalgam-formation based pre-concentrations in electrochemical stripping analysis (ESA) were appreciated in routine determinations of heavy metal ions, representing apparently the most popular area of inorganic electroanalysis at all.

Similarly, the GCE alone and its Pt-disc analogues were usually the electrodes of choice for the determination of noble metals, or anions and molecules that could not be determined with the HMDE or MFE, respectively [4]. Nevertheless, despite rather dominant position of these detection systems, various types of carbon paste-based electrodes were coming to the fore; mainly, thanks to their versatility, allowing one to employ them either as interesting alternative or even completely new possibility of how to determine some less-common inorganic analytes. In recent years, propagation of both CPEs and CMPEs in inorganic analysis has been further intensified [2]; mainly, in the framework of the

green-analytical-chemistry concept [47]. Some typical areas of these activities are overviewed in the following sections.

### 3.2. Zeolite- and silica-modified carbon paste electrodes

Intrinsic and sometimes unique properties of zeolites or silica-based materials in combination with electron transfer processes characterise a particular group of chemical modifiers whose use in the electrode configurations is of continuing interest, including the carbon paste-based variants [40,222-225].

Both natural and synthetic zeolites [222,225] are microporous crystalline aluminosilicates that exhibit ion-exchange capacity and molecular-sieve properties. Silicas [223,224] as special variants of  $\text{SiO}_2$  then offer possibilities to be functionalized with a variety of organic groups, including preparation of inorganic / organic hybrids, combining – in a single solid – mechanical stability of the inorganic skeleton with reactivity of the organic moiety.

Typical properties of these two families may be synergistically merged in one unit, which is the case of some supramolecular assemblies obtainable by the sol-gel synthesis. The resultant products (called ordered mesoporous silicas [225]) are materials in which silica walls grew around the self-assembled template to form periodic mesoporous substrates that display a narrow, controlled pore-size distribution in well-organised structures. And when one consider specific features of carbon pastes, it can be understood why both zeolite- and silica-modified CPEs represent maybe the largest subclass of CMCPs with widespread applicability to the determination of inorganic ions, complexes and molecules, including successful attempts in environmental speciation [40,222-224]. Also, the achievements within the last period have confirmed such prominent role of both zeolite- and silica-modified CPEs [225].

However, before the most typical electroanalytical arrangements are surveyed, it is useful to point out some particular features associated with the fabrication of zeolite- and silica-modified CPEs of new generation. Mainly, the respective studies and applications had to consider the main problem of working with zeolite and silicas – *i.e.*, the fact that most of them are electronic insulators and their effective connection with electrochemical sensing requires a proper confinement within / onto an electrode material [40]. It was confirmed that the preparation of mechanically stable and homogeneous deposits of zeolite / silica particles with their firm anchoring onto an electrode surface can advantageously be accomplished *via* organic polymers

– typical products of latest technologies and the above-mentioned sol-gel processes. Some novel procedures for preparation of zeolite- and silica-modified CPEs have then been confronted with inevitable restrictions occurring in the course of fabrication, which was often the case of electrodes that had incorporated organic-inorganic hybrids with highly sophisticated functions and / or given mesostructures [225]. (These usually require strictly defined conditions for the proper synthesis which might not be adaptable with the formation of film structures of desired properties.) Due to this, intensive investigations in the recent years have resulted in establishment of a new routine for dispersion of zeolites, silica-based organic-inorganic hybrids or ordered mesoporous materials – in the form of dry powders admixed directly in the carbon paste matrix.

By summarising the most typical configurations with zeolite-modified CPEs, the individual contributions fall into four main categories:

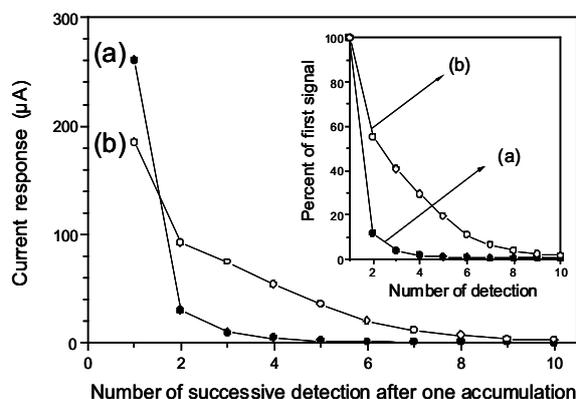
- (i) Electrochemical detection subsequent to open-circuit accumulation, where an electro-active cation of interest is accumulated by ion-exchange (*via* charge selectivity) or molecular sieving (size selectivity), prior to proper voltammetric quantification.
- (ii) Direct and electrocatalysis-assisted amperometric / voltammetric detection, involving redox mediators encapsulated in the zeolite cages.
- (iii) Indirect amperometric detection of non-electroactive species; representing maybe the most elegant application of zeolite-modified electrodes as it exploits both ion-exchange and size-selectivity properties. (In fact, it involves the use of a zeolite doped with a redox cation and the supporting electrolyte made of size-excluded cations, bigger than the zeolite pore aperture, so that solely redox probe can be exchanged, diffusing then towards the electrode surface in a moment when small and non-size-excluded cations are injected, thus giving rise to an indirect current response proportional to these non electroactive species.)
- (iv) Incorporation in carbon paste-biosensors, for which the hydrophilic zeolites enable to expose enzyme(s) in more active form compared to its native species inside the hydrophobic carbon paste matrix; similar function *via* ion-exchange being also beneficial for redox mediators embedded in. Since electrochemical biosensing is a domain of organic and biological analysis, the corresponding methods are not discussed here and can be found elsewhere [40,41].

Regarding zeolite-modified CPEs, they exhibit one typical feature, which is more pronounced compared to related silica-modified variants. It is a tendency of solution impregnation in  $\mu\text{m}$ -thick region of the paste at the electrode and subsequent penetration of solution-phase species into the zeolite-carbon composite in contact with the aqueous solution for a longer time. In the case of common zeolites, the driving force for such solution penetration in the bulk of the electrode is again their hydrophilic character, counter-balancing of typically high-lipophilic (hydrophobic) carbon paste [29,39,40]. In order to prevent undesirable solution ingress into the electrode and thus possible memory effects of the sensor, some new approaches have been proposed. Either, they are based on (i) additional increase of the overall hydrophobicity of a CMCPE by using solid paraffin instead of ordinary mineral oil [226] or *via* (ii) confining ("jailing") the zeolite particles at the outermost surface layer, which can be attained with the aid of mechanical immobilization onto paraffin-impregnated electrodes [227].

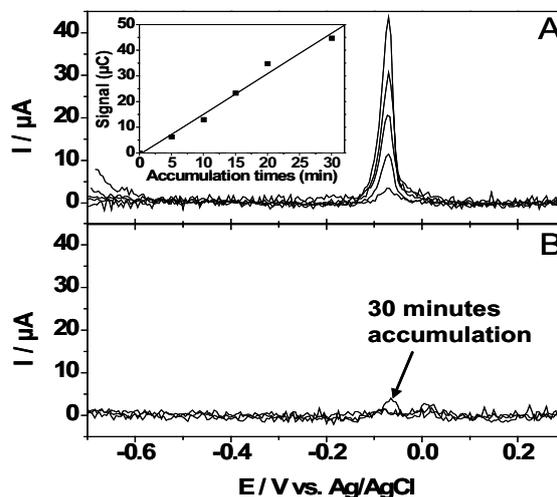
An example of the resultant effectiveness of such approaches is then illustrated in Fig. 2, depicting the voltammetric detection of Cu(II) ions after open-circuit accumulation for a long time-period (30 min.) from a solution containing  $10\text{ mM Cu}^{2+}$ . A rather high concentration of Cu(II) was chosen to simulate the conditions likely to induce severe memory effects in consequence of the above-described release / impregnation / penetration mechanism, which can be seen on faster and more effective chemical regeneration of the solid-like zeolite-modified CPE (a) in comparison with the traditional mineral oil-based variant (b).

Typical configurations of CMCPEs with silica-based materials, *i.e.*, (native) silica particles, organically-modified silicates, or functionalized mesoporous silica substrates, can also be divided into four main groups. Including the very first examples, presented by Walcarius *et al.* in the mid 1990s (see *e.g.* [40] and refs. therein). The respective methods are based on the following principles:

(i) Also herein, electroanalysis with a pre-concentration step is the most frequent concept, for which the silica-based organic / inorganic hybrids are synthesised enabling (i) selective recognition of target analytes by a fine tuning the nature of the organo-functional groups and (ii) high sensitivity *via* rapid mass transport toward the active centres controlled by the appropriate structure of a nano-material. The latter is illustrated in Fig. 3, making comparison between the efficiency of mesostructured mercapto-propyl-grafted silica and of non-ordered homologue silica-gel selected as modifiers in the respective CMCPEs tested for to the determination of Hg(II) ions.



**Figure 2.** Voltammetric study on the release of Cu(II) ions from two different zeolite-modified carbon paste electrodes. (a) 10% (m/m) zeolite-modified solid-like carbon paste; (b) 10% zeolite-modified conventional carbon paste. Experimental conditions: carbon paste materials: (a) carbon powder with solidified paraffin wax, (b) carbon powder + paraffin oil mixture; measuring mode: differential pulse anodic stripping voltammetry with intermediate reduction; supporting electrolyte (s.e.):  $0.1\text{ M KNO}_3 + 0.001\text{ M Cu}(\text{NO}_3)_2$ ; open-circuit accumulation,  $t_{\text{ACC}} = 30\text{ min.}$ ; reduction step,  $E_{\text{RED}} = -0.5\text{ V vs. Ag/AgCl/3MKCl}$ ,  $t_{\text{RED}} = 60\text{ s.}$ ; potential range (stripping step),  $E_{\text{R}}$ : from  $-0.5$  to  $+0.5\text{ V.}$ ; scan rate,  $\nu = 20\text{ mV s}^{-1}$ ; relative normalized responses given in the inset. (Adapted from [226].)



**Figure 3.** Effect of preconcentration time on the voltammetric response of two carbon paste electrodes modified with different silica-based materials. CPE modified with (A) mercaptopropyl-functionalised mesoporous silica, (B) mercapto-grafted amorphous silica-gel. Experimental conditions: carbon paste made of carbon powder (38%, m/m) + paraffin oil (20%) + modifier (20%). DPASV with intermediate reduction step; s.e. (i)  $0.1\text{ M HNO}_3 + 5 \times 10^{-7}\text{ M Hg}(\text{NO}_3)_2$  (medium for preconcentration step), (ii)  $3\text{ M HCl}$  (stripping step, detection);  $E_{\text{RED}} = -0.7\text{ V.}$ ; other parameters as in Fig. 2; variation of the peak area with preconcentration time shown in the inset. (Hitherto unpublished results from authors' archives.)

At first sight, both voltammograms document the better performance of a CMCPE with mesoporous silicas grafted with mercapto-propyl groups, for which the increase in sensitivity can be expressed by a factor of 50:1 compared to similarly grafted silica gels of the same average porosity [228,229].

Other examples are available for the detection of Cu(II) at CMCPEs with amine- [230], carnosine- [231], sulphonic acid- [232] or cyclam- [233] functionalized silicas, for the determination of Hg(II) with thiol-functionalized materials [234] or for the accumulation and quantification of Pb(II) ions, in this case using a CPE modified with a heterogeneous material represented by self-assembled monolayers of acetamide-phosphonic acid on mesoporous silica [235].

(ii) Direct detection *via* electrocatalytic effect, which can be accomplished by preparing special catalysts supported on silica-based materials. Having followed the pioneering work by Kubota, Gushikem *et al.* from the late 1990s, as well as of their continuators (see again [40] and refs. therein), who were using modifications of silica gels with metal oxides and / or metal phosphate layers for binding redox mediators of the Me<sup>II</sup>-phthalocyanines type, some newer attempts of this kind are based on the immobilization of polyoxometalates in protonated amine-functionalized silica-mesostructures applicable as special charge-transfer co-factors for the amperometric detection of ClO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> / BrO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> [236]. As a hosting matrix for durable immobilization of such electron transfer co-factors, ordered mesoporous silicas are also quite promising, as shown recently on ferrocene-structure covalently attached to a MCM-41 mesoporous molecular sieve [237].

(iii) In principle, indirect detection is also applicable to silica-modified carbon paste-based electrodes and sensors, but the search inside the recent bibliographic database has not revealed any particular method based on such a scheme.

(iv) Functionalised silicas can be mixed with carbon paste as a composite matrix for anchoring of some enzymes in amperometric biosensors; for example, silica gels coated with either TiO<sub>2</sub> / Ti-phosphate or ZrO<sub>2</sub> / Zr-phosphate skeletons; nevertheless, more typical bio-electroanalytical applications of the sol-gel-derived silica-based materials have involved polymeric thin-film configurations [225]. Again, due to the particular use in electrochemistry of organic pollutants, pharmaceuticals or drugs, and biologically active substances, the respective biosensors are described in more detail in other review articles [40,41].

Finally, some modifiers are based on combination of both novel zeolites / silicas with other new materials coming from latest research. In this respect, one can quote two examples utilising (i) newly synthesised zeolite with intercalated *Xylenol Orange*, *Morin*, or *Calmaigite* [238], when these dyes enable a highly selective chelating of Cu(II) ions. The second configuration has then consisted of either (ii) volcanic tuff as natural material or synthetic preparative ("X-type"); both chemically functionalised with *Methylene Green* and serving for sensitive sensing of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> [239]. A similar connection of a novel silica with newly synthesised substances is then represented by a CMCPE incorporating the [Ru(bpy)<sub>3</sub>]<sup>2+</sup> ion at sulphate ion-exchanger functionalised MCM-41 in the form of dispersion of such particles in an ionic liquid – *i.e.*, a CILE configuration [240]. The resultant device is characterized by a well-defined electro-chemiluminescence signal, which has been found to be more sensitive in the presence of ionic liquid than in paste with conventional silicone oil.

### 3.3. Metallic Film-Plated Carbon Pastes in Stripping Voltammetry

The 1970s saw the era of particular popularity of mercury film electrodes (MFEs) being better compatible with newly coming PC-controlled and miniaturised electrochemical instrumentation than rather robust and sensitive HMDE configurations (see *e.g.* [221] and refs. therein). Similarly, oxidation-suffering gold disc electrodes began to be replaced by easy regenerable gold-film variants (AuFEs). Throughout the 1980s until the mid-1990s, it had been believed that the best electrode substrate for electrolytic deposition of both mercury- and gold films was to be the GCE or similar supports. However, at that time, also carbon pastes were found to be suitable for this role and, since then, the first types of mercury- or gold-film plated carbon paste electrodes could be presented (see [241] and refs. therein).

The up-coming 2000s have spawned a series of reports, [113,242-247] in which both MF-CPEs and Au-CPEs were subjected to intimate examinations, including employment in practical analysis of real water samples (MF-CPE in [242] and AuF-CPE in [247]), showing that also hydrophobic carbon pastes may offer convenient conditions for being plated with metallic films. Moreover, a quick and easy-to-make carbon paste renewal, representing effective but absolute change at the surface of each CP-based substrate, was confirmed to have only minimal impact to the overall quality of both MF-CPEs and AuF-CPEs and their performance in ESA, including negligible changes in the sensitivity and reproducibility / repeatability of the respective signals.

Regarding the last advances in the field of metallic film-coated CPEs, the main boom is surely connected

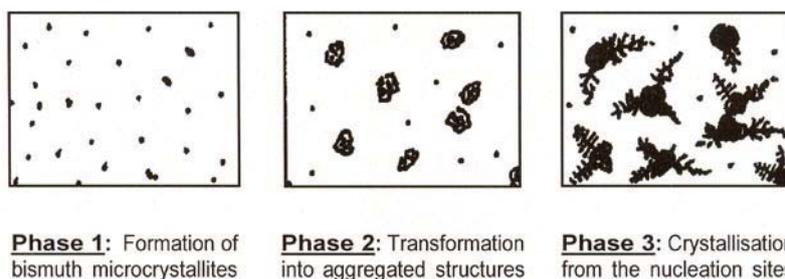
with the development and applications of bismuth film-plated carbon paste electrodes (BiF-CPEs [42,243-245,248-262]) and other related configurations [254-256,258,260,263-265]. The respective activities started within our research group in the early 2000s [248] as an answer to the actual introduction of bismuth film-coated GCEs; again, within the challenges of green analytical chemistry (see [47,266-270] and refs. therein) as bismuth and its compounds represent environmentally friendly and less toxic element compared to mercury or mercury(II) salts. The BiF-CPE can be prepared either *in-situ* [249,250] or using external deposition of the film in a suitable plating solution [243,252]. In addition, a heterogeneous nature of carbon pastes allows one to modify this electrode material either at the outer surface by bismuth films, or *via* bismuth species added in the bulk. The latter has been utilised in designing two alternatives to the (i) firstly proposed BiF-CPE [248]; namely, (ii) bismuth oxide-carbon paste electrode ( $\text{Bi}_2\text{O}_3$ -CPE [263]) and (iii) bismuth-modified carbon paste electrode (Bi-CPE [264]); the latter containing bismuth powder at a ratio of about 20% (m/m) dispersed in the two main carbon paste components [256].

Worth of mentioning are also special microscopic studies focused on carbon pastes pre-plated with bismuth films [42,252,261]. As revealed by comparative observations, the electrolytic formation of bismuth microlayers proceeds in three subsequent steps, during which the overall morphology undergoes significant changes.

This is illustrated in Fig. 4, depicting the individual phases in an approximate appearance of the corresponding structures. Comparative experiments have then confirmed that there is a close relation between such microstructures and the resultant behaviour of a BiF-CPE – the best performance of an electrode has been attained with the initial arrangement of bismuth micro-particles (“phase 1”) which, as such, resembles related structures of mercury films formed by consolidated layers of tiny droplets [221,241]. In other words, the more crystalline is the bismuth film (*i.e.*, in patterns 2 & 3), the poorer is the resultant electrochemical behaviour of a BiF-CPE ([261]).

Additional modifications of BiF-CPEs are also feasible and such approaches have recently been described in two reports [259,260]. In the first one, the originally two-component carbon paste was doped with the third substance – a synthetic zeolite [259], enabling to enhance the overall sensitivity towards the target ions. The second arrangement was then a BiF-CPE coated with fibrinogen [260], forming a protective barrier against interfering surfactants. The same effect can be aimed with *Nafion*<sup>®</sup> (a perfluorinated polymer widely usable in combination with MeFEs; see *e.g.* [221] and tables in), which has not been yet tested for BiF-CPEs, but in combination with a BiF-plated carbon film electrode [271], representing a configuration very similar to bismuth film-plated carbon pastes.

In the latest years, electroanalysis with bismuth electrodes has undergone a very dynamic progress (see *e.g.* [267] plus [270] and compare the reference lists inside). Such a boom was also the result of rapidly growing aversion against mercury, evoking controversial moods among electrochemists and electroanalysts worldwide and dividing them into two major groups – propagators of new non-mercury electrodes against their defenders [272]. Somewhat different impulses were behind the discovery of further alternatives to BiF-CPEs – two new configurations of (i) antimony film-plated carbon paste electrode (SbF-CPE) and (ii) antimony powder-modified carbon paste electrode (Sb-CPE) [273]. Introduction of these electrodes has been inspired rather by chemical similarity of both antimony and bismuth, following also some previous (and nearly forgotten) results [274]. Similar motivations could also be the case of introducing a lead film-plated carbon paste electrode (PbF-CPE [275]), which is hitherto last member in the family of metallic film-plated CPEs. Although all these sensors offer excellent performance under properly adjusted experimental conditions, they mean a certain step back with respect to the already emphasised concept of green chemistry – both antimony and lead, together with their  $\text{Sb}^{\text{III/IV}}$  and  $\text{Pb}^{\text{III/IV}}$  compounds, are highly harmful to the environment, as well as to humans.



**Figure 4.** Morphological transformation of bismuth film in three consecutive phases. A schematic view (Adapted from [252] and [261].)

In electrochemical measurements, the individual types of metal-modified CPEs are usually combined with anodic stripping voltammetric protocols. It means that the respective methods include a pre-concentration step utilising a potentiostatic electrolytic reduction of ion(s) of interest. In analogy to mercury-based electrodes, such accumulations involve an additional driving force – the formation of metal alloys [267-270] –, which apparently explains why these electrodes achieve so excellent function in the ASV regime. Regarding the proper voltammetric mode, the detection of accumulated species is preferably performed by stripping with a square-wave modulation which is generally less sensitive to undesirable effects from residual (background) signals than a differential pulse potential ramp [276]. The performance of voltammetric techniques can further be enhanced by appropriate choice of the quantitative method or by means of processing and evaluation of the respective current signals. As demonstrated with BiF-CPEs; e.g. computerised normalisation of originally distorted voltammograms may result in a significant improvement of the actual signal-to-noise characteristics [257,262].

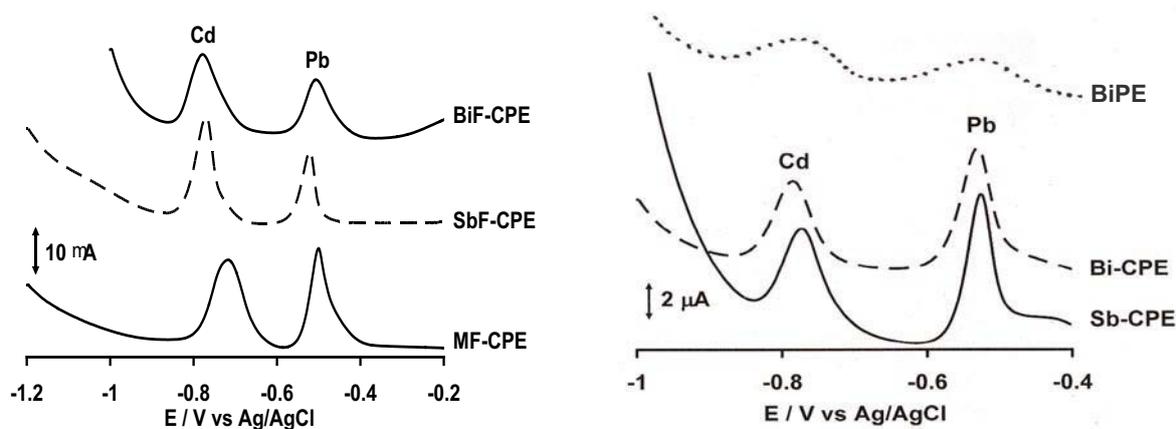
A majority of hitherto proposed metal-modified CPEs have already been tested in analyses of real specimens, where both Cd(II) and Pb(II) ions were the main target analytes sought in the following samples: (i) tap, natural, and mineral waters [113,242,260,261, 263], (ii) tea extract [260], and (iii) certified reference material (soil [253]). Of interest were also some less typical specimens of (v) heavily polluted river water [247] or mineral acid-digested

(vi) urine [263] and (vii) crude petroleum oil [244]; the last two demonstrating analyses of samples with extremely complex matrices. Other details on the respective methods can be found below – in four tables under the section 4.

As seen, a majority of practical determinations illustrating the applicability of both Bi- and Sb-modified CPEs was carried out in various water samples. Fig. 5 depicts typical stripping voltammetric responses of both bismuth- and antimony-modified CPEs for Cd(II) and Pb(II) ions obtained by analysing a model water sample (when both sets of measurements had been optimised for determination with the antimony-modified variant). The figure gathers two sets of curves, showing also the response at a MF-CPE and a bismuth paste electrode (BiPE). The latter was found to be functioning – although not very satisfactorily – without any carbon powder in the electrode material, thus representing an example of “graphite-less” paste mixture [263]. Regardless of this curiosity, all the remaining electrodes have exhibited favourable electroanalytical performances for the determination of the two metal ions at the low ppb concentration level.

### 3.3.1. Carbon paste electrodes vs. screen-printed electrodes (SPEs).

The configuration of metal film-plated CPEs is a very good occasion to conclude the entire section with mutual relation between CPEs and SPEs, reflecting one of contemporary trends in the field. In certain respect, traditional carbon pastes can be classified as a transient



**Figure 5.** Square-wave anodic stripping voltammograms of Cd(II) + Pb(II) model mixtures at different types of metal film-plated and metal-modified carbon paste and paste electrodes. MeF-plated (A), Me-modified electrodes (B); the individual types as shown by inscriptions. Experimental conditions: silicone oil-based carbon paste [the same for all, except BiPE made of bismuth powder (50%, m/m) + silicone oil (SO)]; content of both metals in Bi-CPE and Sb-CPEs, 17% (m/m)]; SWASV; s.e.: 0.01 M HCl;  $c(\text{Hg, Bi, Sb}) = 1 \times 10^{-5} \text{ mol L}^{-1}$  (for A);  $c(\text{Cd, Pb}) = 50 \text{ ppb}$  (for A), 25 ppb (for B);  $t_{\text{ACC}} = 120 \text{ s}$ ,  $E_{\text{ACC}} = -1.2 \text{ V}$ ; equilibrium time,  $t_{\text{EQ}} = 15 \text{ s}$ , (A) and  $-1.0 \text{ V vs. Ag/AgCl/3MKCl}$ ; potential range,  $E_{\text{R}}$ , from  $-1.2$  to  $-0.2 \text{ V}$ ; SWV parameters: potential increment,  $i_e = 4 \text{ mV}$ ; pulse amplitude,  $\Delta E = 50 \text{ mV}$ ; SW-frequency, 25 Hz. Note: vertical arrows (left) indicate the actual current range. (Adapted from [256], [264], and [273].)

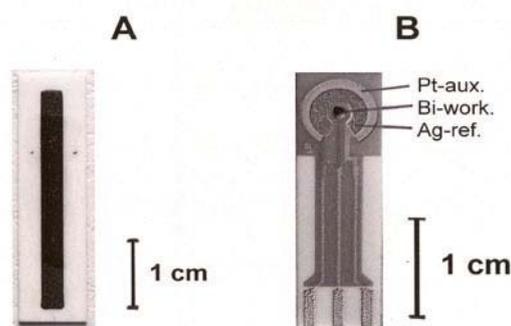
element between solid carbon electrodes and printable carbon ink-based sensors. The initial considerations concerning this topic began already in the mid 1990s [32] – at the times of stormy development of first types of machine-produced SPEs. According to such approaches, there are some common characteristics of both CPEs and carbon-based SPEs: (a) the presence of carbon (or graphite, respectively) as the principal electrode material; (b) heterogenous character of both carbon pastes and carbon inks, (c) the choice and control of the carbon-to-binder ratio, (d) possibility of bulk-modification of these carbonaceous materials; (e) often similar or even identical employment.

On the other hand, there are also distinct differences: (A) presence of liquid phase (binder) in the carbon paste mixtures versus the solid state of carbon-ink binders (original liquid or paste-like dispersions are being solidified during / after printing); (B) incomparable geometry and size (whereas common CPEs are pencil-shaped electrodes in the disc configuration and for batch analysis, SPEs are usually designed as planar stripes (bars) of rather small dimensions employed mainly in various flow cells or miniaturised analysers; (C) long-time and permanent use of a CPE (limited just by stability of the actual carbon paste mixture) contra the generally-adopted concept of SPEs as disposable sensors; (D) existence in the only exemplar or in a set of few electrodes (for CPEs) compared to the mass production in large series (SPEs), and (E) manual and more-or-less individual preparation of carbon paste mixtures and of their filling into the electrode holder(s) versus commercial availability of ready-to-use carbon inks, together with automated and machine-controlled printing process.

Regarding the specific relation of both CPEs and SPEs, some implications are obvious if one combines the individual points in both surveys (a-e) and (A-E). A versatile character of carbon pastes enables that some differences listed under the latter can be minimised; for instance, by using small CP-GrEs [145-147] in planar configuration – see point (B). Or, oppositely, some antagonistic features can be advantageously utilised, which is the case of the following example: (i) a method is first developed and tested in laboratory, when using a CPE (or a set of CPEs) being prepared quickly and at minimal expenses; (ii) after the optimal procedure is being found, the same method can be examined with preliminarily made SPEs of analogical type (e.g., pre-treated in the same way or containing identical modifier); (iii) in this phase, some conditions may be yet readjusted, best under regime which simulates the real experimental conditions; and (iv) when the ultimate version of a methodical procedure is obtained, the large

series of SPEs can be produced and then used up during the proper analytical work – e.g., in the field monitoring.

By keeping on such a strategy, our research group has elaborated a collection of electroanalytical procedures applicable to inorganic analysis that were tuned in accordance with the above-given example and, now, being available in combination with SPEs, although the original methods had been developed with CPEs and CMCPEs. A significant part of these procedures involved the use of MF- and BiF-plated CPEs, later adapted and re-optimised for MF- and BiF-SPEs (see [113,246,263] vs. [274,277,278]).



**Figure 6.** Construction design of screen-printed electrodes of two generations, used in the metal film-plated configuration and tested together with related MeF-CPEs. Ceramic substrate-based SPE (old type, A); integrated sensor with three-electrode cell (new type, B). (Adapted from [113] and [279].)

At present, our activities are focused on readapting of some previous procedures for use with screen-printed sensors of a new generation, represented by miniaturised integrated 2/3-electrode cells (see [279] and image "B" in Fig. 6). Finally, a very close concept of CPEs and SPEs can be documented on the fact that some recent reviews gather these electrodes into one group of the so-called heterogeneous carbon electrodes and sensors [32,40,280].

### 3.4. Potentiometric measurements with carbon paste electrodes and sensors

#### 3.4.1. Carbon paste-based ion-selective electrodes (CP-ISEs).

From the view of equilibrium potentiometry, the composition of carbon pastes makes possible to classify the CP-ISEs as ion-selective liquid membrane type electrodes. Pasting liquids exhibit usually good extraction ability against neutral electroactive species of the type of non-dissociated weak acids, neutral metal chelates or ion-associates. The potential of the

electrode containing such an organic solvent extract is predominantly governed by an ionic exchange at the interface between the organic phase of the electrode and the sample solution. It should be noted that the theoretical background of their function started by pioneer works of Růžička (e.g. see [281]) and actualized recently for CP-ISEs [282]. It should also be noted that virtually any ionic species can be detected and measured. In principle, rules for construction of CP-ISEs are analogous to those for liquid/polymeric membrane-based ISEs [283] – to build a paste responsive to ion  $X^-$ , for example, the salt  $Q^+X^-$  should be incorporated into a non-volatile solvent, and the  $Q^+$  ion must be highly lipophilic. Similarly for an electrode responsive to cation  $Q^+$ , an oil-soluble salt  $Q^+X^-$  is used, where the  $X^-$  ion is lipophilic. Less frequently, insoluble inorganic precipitates are mixed to the paste [16]; in such cases, these CP-ISEs may be classified as solid-state type electrodes. Compared to analogous sensors equipped with liquid/polymeric membranes, carbon paste-based potentiometric sensors offer very low ohmic resistance ( $R < 10 \Omega$ ) and show rapid response [284].

As well known, measuring cells consisting of the CP-ISE and proper reference electrode can be used to determine the activity or concentration of the ion of interest. Empirical calibration graphs, in which the cell voltage is related to the activity or concentration of the desired ionic compound, are generally used. A typical form of the calibration curve is that given by Nikolskii's equation, and is usually linear in the range of 1 to 5 or 6 pX units, where the pX values are calculated as negative logarithms of the desired ion " $i$ " activities or simplified, " $i$ " concentrations. Often, procedures involving flow injection analysis (FIA) calibration are used. On the other hand, potentiometric titration technique is also applied; it offers the advantage of high accuracy and precision, though at the cost of increased time demands and a higher consumption of chemicals used as titrants. Nowadays, this question has successfully been solved by introducing modern automated titrators equipped with burettes of smaller volumes and allowing a computer-assisted end-point evaluation as well [285].

In the recent period, authors' attention has been paid to development of CP-ISEs applicable in determinations of both inorganic and organic species. Various modifications of carbon paste were applied in potentiometric sensors for copper [286-292], silver [97,153,293], mercury [94-296], lead [297], arsenic [97,298], antimony [299], bismuth [300], cobalt [301], osmium [302], aluminium [107], lithium [303], ammonium [304], halides and pseudo-halides [305-308], and sulphate ions [309]. Some of them [97,302] were applied to monitor titrations based on ion-pair formation

principles described and discussed in detail previously [310].

Concerning recent applicability of CP-ISEs to the determination of organic and biological substances or pharmaceuticals, this topic is surveyed in more detail elsewhere [40,41]. Herein, it can be briefly stated that CP-ISE configurations dominate for the latter – for various drug compounds [311-318]. Their composition [311-315] usually follows traditional basic principles described in the previous reviews [319,320] and, analogously, they are often applied in both direct potentiometric measurements and potentiometric ion-pair formation-based titrations. Moreover, enantioselective potentiometric sensors based on carbon paste impregnated with various cyclodextrins were described [316-318,321]. CP-ISEs for ascorbic acid [322], acetylcholine [323], L-proline [321], cysteine [324,325], thioglycolic acid [326], or other organic thio-compounds [327] were also reported. Finally, one paper has dealt with a possibility to determine cetyltrimethylammonium ion [328], which is a popular *in-situ* modifier, including its combination with CPEs (again, see [40,41] and refs. therein).

In environmentally oriented studies, CPEs as potentiometric sensors were utilized in characterization of electro-chemical behaviour of Ni(II)- and Cd(II)-bearing ferrites obtained as by-products of wastewater purification [191,192]. As the substrate of choice, CPEs served also in a solid-state electronic tongue applied to beverage analysis [212].

#### 3.4.2. Stripping (chrono)potentiometry.

As stripping potentiometry differs from stripping voltammetry by final step only, similar or analogous applications of CPEs can be expected (for examples, see review [329]). Nevertheless, introduction of more polar pasting liquids like tricresyl phosphate, dialkyl phthalates, etc. (often used as plasticizers in polymeric membranes of ion-selective electrodes) [330] offered some new possibilities for analyte accumulation, predominantly based on ion-pair formation [331,332].

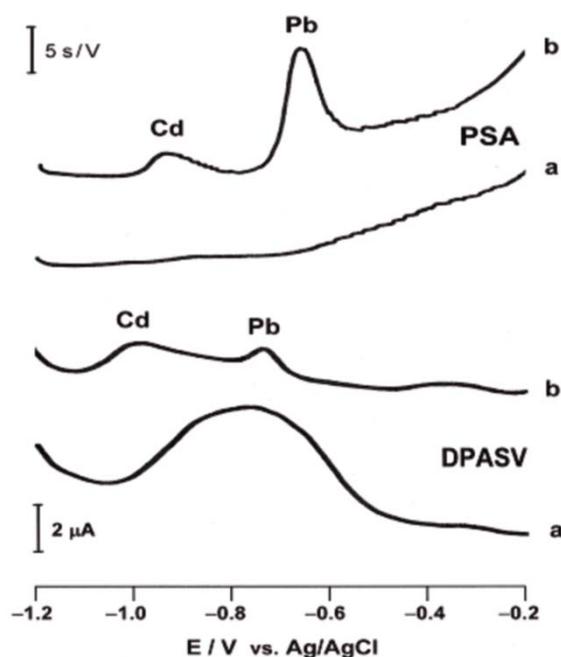
This was shown already in the first years of a new millennium; e.g., a former procedure elaborated for the determination of thallium [333] could be adapted for gold (as tetrachloroaurate [99,331]), or iodide [101,331], and the perspectives of stripping potentiometry with CPEs, focused on the role of pasting liquid, were thus outlined as quite promising; especially, for some determinations in samples with extremely complex matrices (e.g., iodide in non-pretreated and solely diluted urine [334]). As already shown in the previous section 3.4.1., another recently frequent application of CPEs in stripping potentiometry is their use as the electrode support

for metallic films; the advantage of application being again that the electrode surface can easily be renewed compared to metallic film electrodes on solid supports [244,247,249,344-346]. Simultaneously, a series of methods was presented; namely, the determination of lead and cadmium [244,334] or copper [334] when using the MF-CPE configurations, copper and mercury [336] or arsenic [247] at AuF-CPEs, as well as lead and cadmium in parallel at either BiF-CPEs [244,249] or SbF-CPEs [273,337].

The latter approaches represent the starting point of stripping potentiometry in the already discussed and momentarily very popular area of non-mercury electrodes. In the PSA mode, original methods were employing MFEs and selected Hg(II) compounds (mostly HgCl<sub>2</sub>, see *e.g.* [241] and refs in) served as the source for *in-situ* generated mercury film and as proper chemical oxidant [242]. In the same way, both bismuth [249] and antimony [337] may be applied in order (i) to form corresponding metallic film and (ii) to substitute mercury(II) in its role of an oxidant. Moreover, as shown in our theoretical considerations and their experimental verifications (see [249,337]), both Bi(III) and Sb(III) possess rather specific oxidation capabilities, differing from those known for Hg(II) species. And all these attributes open completely new possibilities for “mercury-free” procedures and their use for the determination of various heavy metals. Regarding computer-controlled stripping potentiometry and its potentialities in practical analysis, yet another feature can be mentioned here illustrated by an experiment with metallic film-plated CPEs [244]. It is shown in Fig. 7, making comparison between electroanalytical performance of stripping potentiometry and stripping voltammetry.

This confrontation of both related techniques was made with the same sample solution and identical working electrode – a bismuth film-plated CPE. As seen, both voltammograms (DPASV) exhibit distinct deformations of base-line, with a large maximum of unknown origin, and the signals of interest are poorly developed. Compared to this, the respective potentiograms (PSA) are much favourably drawn and easily evaluated.

This test is a textbook case of how the result of an analysis may rely on the technique chosen in the stripping step. Since voltammetric measurements are based on the detection of electric current whose origin may be quite diverse, including various non-Faradic phenomena or even electrical noise, the resultant signal may suffer – and usually does so – from numerous interferences. In contrast to this, potentiometric stripping regime registers the  $E$ - $t$  dependence, where the equilibrium potential,  $E_p$ , represents a highly selective signal [242] independent of any current-releasing disturbance. As a result, the



**Figure 7.** Stripping potentiograms and anodic stripping voltammograms of Pb(II) and Cd(II) obtained at bismuth film-plated carbon paste electrodes by analysing a model sample of mineral acid-digested petroleum oil. **PSA:** stripping potentiometric analysis (with chemical oxidation), **DPASV:** differential pulse anodic stripping voltammetry; sample base-lines (a), sample + 50  $\mu$ L  $1 \times 10^{-4}$  M Pb<sup>II</sup> + Cd<sup>II</sup> (a spike corresponding to  $c_{Me} = 2 \times 10^{-7}$  M) (b). Experimental conditions: silicone oil-based carbon paste; sample: digested crude oil in 0.9 M ammonia buffer +  $1 \times 10^{-5}$  M Bi<sup>III</sup> (pH 4.3);  $t_{ACC} = 120$  s,  $t_{EO} = 15$  s,  $E_{FR}$  from  $-1.2$  to  $-0.5$  V vs. Ag/AgCl; PSA: sampling frequency:  $f_{PSA} = 90$  MHz, DPASV:  $v = 20$  mV s<sup>-1</sup>,  $\Delta E = -50$  mV. Note: Y-axis expressed as  $dt/dE$  [s/V] for PSA; and  $\Delta I$  [ $\mu$ A] for DPASV. (After [244]).

interference effects under comparable conditions are severe for voltammetric measurements, but negligible in the PSA mode. And this “insensitivity” of PSA is also the main reason why methods employing this technique or its CCSA variant [247], respectively, are particularly convenient for analysis of highly polluted waters or, in general, samples with complex matrices.

#### 4. Electroanalysis of inorganic ions, complexes, and molecules with carbon paste electrodes: survey of methods published within the years of 2001-2008

Applications of CPEs, CMCPes, and other related configurations employed in inorganic analysis are surveyed in a quartet of tables gathering important data, together with some interesting details, of almost all

methods that have been published in the period of 2001-2008 and described in the respective contributions. Namely, Tables I-IV summarise the original papers referred herein from [351], up to [490] including numerous further references that have been cited in the previous paragraphs. Information material in the tables is accompanied by commentaries that highlight typical features and trends from the actual databases. Anyway, this approach follows the style chosen in our last reviews [39-41].

All hitherto reported methods of inorganic analysis with CPEs and related sensors concern 65 chemical elements that – either alone or in the form of various compounds – have already been analysed; a great majority of them being even determined [40]. At present, this large family can adopt other two elements, for which the respective reports [442,451] have been found newly during the final actualisation of this text. And when one adds further five elements whose compounds could be studied by SPV with CPEEs, there is a total of 72 chemical elements representing ca. 3/4 of naturally occurring species that have ever come into the contact with carbon paste. This is a number scarcely achieved with other electrode materials and hence, even such atypical criterion may document the versatility of CPEs, reflected in practically unlimited applicability in inorganic analysis.

Finally, the popularity of carbon paste-based electrodes can be illustrated in numerous reviews of very diverse focus, where the respective applications are regularly quoted. When selecting solely recent review articles [338-350], this is the case of generally focused compilations (e.g. [338]), including locally oriented reports [339,340], overviews devoted to particular techniques [341,342], group of analytes [343] and of samples [280,344-346], or some novel types of electrodes [221,267-270,347,348], modifiers and newly synthesised materials [225,349,350].

#### 4.1. Noble Metals (Au, Ag, Hg, and Cu; see Table 1 plus refs. [72,94,97,99,104,153,231,288-296,298, 336, and 351-389]).

In the electrochemical order of metals, both gold and silver represent the noblest elements and their ionic forms, most frequently Ag(I) and  $[\text{AuCl}_4]^-$ , are reducible at the positive potentials. This makes the two metals nearly ideal analytes for the determination at solid electrodes, operating within such potential ranges, including various CPEs. This applies to the methods employing a direct electrolytic transformation  $\text{Me}^{\text{N}} \rightarrow \text{Me}^0$  (e.g., amperometry), as well as a deposition step with reduction and subsequent re-oxidation  $\text{Me}^0 \rightarrow \text{Me}^{\text{N}}$ . In the past, these favourable dispositions were often

being exploited also in electroanalysis with CPEs and CMPEs and both Ag(I) and Au(III) had always belonged among prominent analytes [40]. However, in the period of 2001-2008, they did not uphold such a position and the respective methods were appearing only occasionally. Regarding gold, the ion-pairing affinity of the  $[\text{AuCl}_4]^-$  anion was the principle of choice, whereas silver could be determined by selective accumulation *via* various complexes and the only method has utilised the above-mentioned electrolytic deposition.

In contrast, both mercury and copper were of permanent interest also in the recent years, which is also illustrated by their abundant appearance in the table. When one counts up the individual methods from the recent years with those published in the previous decades, these two metals – together with Pb and Cd – are the most popular inorganic analytes, being the central subject in about 50 reports for Hg and more than 60 devoted to Cu. (Herein, it should be noted that numerous authors sort copper into the group of toxic heavy metals.) The respective procedures for Hg(II) and Cu(II) typically involve the (i) accumulation under open-circuit conditions (by using adsorption, extraction, ion-exchange or even molecular sieving) according to the simplified scheme,  $\text{Me}^{\text{N}} + m \text{L} \rightarrow [\text{Me}^{\text{N}}\text{L}_m]$ , with (ii) intermediate reduction of the complex,  $[\text{Me}^{\text{N}}\text{L}_m] \rightarrow ([\text{Me}^0\text{L}_m]) \rightarrow \text{Me}^0 + m \text{L}$ , and (iii) subsequent re-oxidation,  $\text{Me}^0 \rightarrow \text{Me}^{\text{n}+} + n \text{e}^-$ , as the detection in the anodic regime. This seemingly complicated sequence, involving additional reduction step, hides one reasonable interpretation. CPEs, in general, are less convenient for cathodic reductions due to the presence of  $\text{O}_2$ , dissolved in the carbon paste bulk. If the intermediate step is incorporated into the protocol, the analyte of interest (usually atom  $\text{Me}^{\text{N}}$ ) is reduced and can then be detected during re-oxidation, thus avoiding problematic cathodic detections of the  $[\text{Me}^{\text{N}}\text{L}_m]$  complex, accompanied by unwanted signals from the parallel reduction of dioxygen. Finally, to determine both Hg(II) and Cu(II), their tendencies to form insoluble precipitates can also be exploited in proposals of new types of potentiometric CP-ISEs (see Table 1).

#### 4.2. Heavy metals (Zn, Cd, Pb, Tl, In, Sn, Bi and Sb; Table 1I, refs. [51,60,103,113, 226,235,248,253,255,256,258,263, 297,299,300,333, and 390-422]).

Besides a widespread choice of the already existing methods with traditional mercury electrodes, also electroanalysis with CPEs may offer a number of interesting or even unique procedures for the determination of all title metal elements. And this statement can be underlined when screening research

activities in the recent years, where the use of both HMDE and MFE had to be partially suppressed due to the rapidly growing influence of the green-chemistry orientation.

Similarly as with Hg and Cu described in the previous paragraph, a predominant mechanism of the individual methods for zinc, cadmium, and lead was the formation of stable complexes of the  $[\text{Me}^n\text{L}_m]$  type whose electroactive sites have enabled the identification and quantification in the properly selected voltammetric modulation ramp; at present, preferably by SWV. Again, most of procedures had involved the intermediate reduction step and many of them are also applicable to a simultaneous determination of either Cd(II) and Pb(II) or all three ions altogether.

The respective methods are usually fairly selective, but their detection capabilities rather limited compared to procedures utilising highly effective amalgamation onto mercury or related alloy formation at bismuth-based electrodes. Apart from the afore-mentioned green-chemistry dictate, this is the reason why BiF-CPEs and similar configurations come now to the fore, offering attractive methods for the determination of Zn, Cd, Pb, and other heavy metals (see Table 2).

When considering the remaining metals, *i.e.*, Tl, In, Sn, Sb, Bi, and their single ions or complexes, at least one method for each can be found in the table; for indium representing even a premiere appearance in conjunction with a CPE [40]. Typically, the respective procedures had paid a considerable attention to the interference effect from other heavy metals (Zn, Cd, Pb, and Cu) and therefore, the determination of Tl, In, Sn, Sb, or Bi could be performed at a remarkable concentration excess of all more common heavy metals.

#### 4.3. Metalloids (As and Se; Table 2, refs. [98,248,298]).

From these elements, solely arsenic was of interest in a couple of methods published within 2001-2008 and, surprisingly, such a rare abundance among the methods with CPEs does not reflect the recent eminent interest in systematic monitoring of highly toxic arsenic compounds. It is a pity because *e.g.* the method employing an Au-CPE and based on detection in the CCSA mode permits differentiation of both  $\text{As}^{\text{III}}$  and  $\text{As}^{\text{V}}$  at a very low microgram level.

#### 4.4 Metals of the iron, manganese, chromium, and vanadium groups (Fe, Co, Ni, Mn, Cr, Mo, V; Table 3, refs. [54,56,58,105,244,275,302,423-427,430-436]).

This group comprises metal elements that are not very “friendly” from an electro-chemical point of view. They exist in numerous oxidation states with a tendency to be easily transformed from one valence to the other, or exhibit distinct inclinations to be converted into various complex forms, thus requiring rather sophisticated procedures to maintain these metals as the target analytes. Such characteristics are also more or less reflected in the respective procedures employing various types of CPES and CMCPEs, including methods reported in the years of 2001-2008. Among the title elements, the leading position is still held by the triad of iron, cobalt, and nickel. Regarding the first one, the corresponding methods have mostly been based on reversible transformation of the Fe(III) / Fe(II) pair; typically, in a complex form. In contrast to bivalent / trivalent iron, both  $\text{Co}^{\text{II}}$  and  $\text{Ni}^{\text{II}}$  atoms are reducible to the elemental state; however, the adhesion of their pure elemental forms at the electrode surface is very poor and analytically inapplicable. Thus, inevitable are combinations with complex formation *via* various  $\text{Co}^{\text{II}}$  /  $\text{Ni}^{\text{II}}$ -precipitates, in which the central atoms can readily be reduced; in the electrochemistry of nickel, dimethylglyoxime and its derivatives still being preferred (Table 3). The determination of manganese does not require such complex intermediates for electrolytic transformations and the methods of choice have utilised rather the stability of this metal as either Mn(II) cation or  $\text{MnO}_4^-$  anion. Nearly the same applies to chromium, where a differentiation between Cr(III) and Cr(VI) is usually possible (see again Table 3). Finally, the last two elements, molybdenum and “metal chameleon” vanadium, can also be identified and quantified in variable oxidation states V/VI or IV/V, respectively; Mo(VI) being detected *via* an adduct with electrocatalytic properties.

#### 4.5. Platinum metals and uranium (Pt, Ir, Os, Ru, Rh, Pd, and U; Table 3, refs. [302,428,429, and 106]).

In electroanalysis with CPEs, platinum metals attracted one's attention mainly as effective electrocatalytic modifiers (see [40,343] and section 2.3 in this text). As target analytes, platinum metals were of less interest. This characterises also recent activities though some notable achievements can be found. For instance, a couple of years ago, there were the first successes to determine osmium (and less promises for rhodium

or ruthenium). The same method has then allowed to identify Pt, Ir, and Os at once; in all cases *via* anionic complexes of the  $[\text{MeX}_6]^{2/3-}$  type. With respect to uranium, the only method utilised the detection carried out *via*  $\text{UO}_2^{2+}$  ion interacting with a modifier grafted onto mesoporous silica.

#### 4.6. Metals of the fourth and third groups, light and heavy metals of rare earths (Zr, Ce, Al, Ga, Sc, Th, and $\text{Me}_{(\text{light})} + \text{Me}_{(\text{heavy})}$ ; Table 3, refs. [106,107, and 437-452]).

Normally, these metals are also quite difficult to be detected electrochemically; however, thanks to their reactivity with some complexants (including classical analytical reagents like Morin, Alizarin Red, or Alizarin Complexon [151]), there is a relatively wide palette of methods available for their determination. Among the respective procedures, outstanding is the determination of twelve metal elements, comprising a majority from light and heavy rare earths (see Table 3). Also, the years of new millennium saw some methods, in which one can find the first reports on the determination of Ce, Ga, Sc, and Th at a carbon paste-based electrode.

#### 4.7. Metals of alkaline earths and alkaline metals (Mg, Ca, Li, and Na; Table 3, refs. [226,303, and 453-457]).

From an electrochemical point of view, cationic forms of these metals represent totally indifferent species, reducible merely under extreme conditions. Their determination should thus be accomplished either indirectly or *via* non-electrolytic principles (see Table 3). The first approach facilitates the determination of magnesium, calcium, and sodium, whereas the second is behind the determination of lithium, where the intercalation effect at the ion-size level can be varied for both faradic and non-faradic measurements.

#### 4.8. Non-metallic ions, complexes, and inorganic molecules (halides, pseudohalides, oxy-anions, hydrogen peroxide, dioxygen, nitrogen-containing ions and molecules; Table 4, refs. [55,100,101,109,236, 304-309,327, and 458-490]).

A wide diversity in physicochemical and electrochemical properties of species gathered in Table 4 corresponds to a variety of methodical approaches, modifiers used, or measuring techniques used. Nevertheless, typical principles concerning some recently analysed substances can be noticed and highlighted.

Among others, the table repeatedly quotes the (i) ion-pair formation for iodide, and mainly (ii) electrocatalysis-assisted oxidations, which is the case of a lengthy line

of analytes: iodate, bromate and chlorate; sulphide and sulphite; nitrite and nitrous oxides; hydrogen peroxide, dioxygen; or hydroxylamine and hydrazine; mostly, when using newly synthesised materials as modifiers. Or, (iii) indirect detection can provide a way for determination of electrochemically inert anions such as sulphate and hydrogen phosphate.

When studying the data in Tables 1-4 in more detail, some less obvious facts can be revealed. In another context, they may then be interesting and motivating. For instance, (i) the performance of AuF-CPEs (see Tables 1 and 2), hitherto employed in simultaneous determination of Hg(II) and Cu(II), or differentiation of As(III) and As(V) could also be examined for Se(IV), for which an appropriate method with a CPE is still missing [2,40]. Or, Table 2 surveys (ii) selected voltammetric methods that could be maintained for stripping potentiometry (see section 3.4), thereby one would further improve the electroanalytical performance of some original procedures. Nearly the same can then be stated for (iii) still unexplored use of popular chemical modifiers, declared in Tables 2 and 3. Here, one can mention dimethylglyoxime for Ni(II), which would potentially be suitable also for Pd(II) or Fe(II); Zincon for Cu(II), likely applicable to Zn(II), or crown-ethers selectively encapsulating Pb(II), but possibly also Rb(I) and Cs(I) as ionic species with particularly large diameters. The tables themselves document clearly that certain modifying agents can be successfully employed for more inorganic ions – see Table 3 and the collection of methods with ARS or ARC for Zr(IV), Ce(III), Al(III), Ga(III), Sc(III), and Th(III). Finally, the first row of Table 4 includes valuable information on (iv) severe interference from fluoride. Maybe that the respective method and electrode – originally developed for both Br<sup>-</sup> and Cl<sup>-</sup> ions – could be adaptable also for the determination of fluoride, F<sup>-</sup>. So far, this species occupies one permanent position within the group of naturally occurring chemical elements that have not been yet determined with carbon paste-based electrodes, sensors, or detectors [2,40].

## 5. Conclusions and future prospects

The electrochemistry and electroanalysis with carbon paste-based electrodes, sensors, and detectors have been reviewed as a retrospective of the last period – across the years of a new millennium. This narrowed focus has allowed the authors to present the field – profiting now from results of ca. 2000 scientific papers – in the mirror of latest achievements and trends.

Based on the above-presented documentation, two principal conclusions can be made herein. Firstly, it is

**Table 1.** Determination of noble metals at carbon paste electrodes and sensors. Survey of methods

Ion, sp. (form)	Type of CPE (modifier)	Technique (mode)	Measuring principles (method sequences)	Linearity range (LOD; $t_{ACC}$ / $t_R$ )	Sample(s) analysed	Other specification (remarks)	Refs.
Au <sup>III</sup> (AuCl <sub>4</sub> <sup>-</sup> )	C/PO (SWy-2)	DPCSV	- accum. via ion-exchange / adsorption; cathodic redn.	$(8 \times 10^{-7} \text{ M}; -)$	pharms., blood serum	- SWy-2: Na-montmorillonite; s.e.: NaCl + HCl; study on pH-effect	351
Au <sup>III</sup> (AuCl <sub>4</sub> <sup>-</sup> )	C/TCP (binder as modif.)	SP (CCSA)	- accum. via ion-pairing; - redn. with $I_{CONST}$	$(1 \times 10^{-7} \text{ M}; 5 \text{ min})$	soils cntg. gold	- interfs. of Fe <sup>III</sup> suppressed. by F <sup>-</sup> ; - samples mineralised by MWD	99
Ag <sup>+</sup>	C/PO (S <sub>2</sub> O <sub>8</sub> <sup>2-</sup> podant)	DPCSV	- accum. via donor podant; - electrocatalysis-assisted cathodic redn.	$5 \times 10^{-7}$ - $6 \times 10^{-6} \text{ M}$ ( $2 \times 10^{-7} \text{ M}; 10 \text{ min}$ )	model solns.	- S <sub>2</sub> O <sub>8</sub> <sup>2-</sup> : added in-situ; no interfs. from common ions (except Pb <sup>2+</sup> )	352
Ag <sup>+</sup>	C/PO (EDTA)	ASV	- accum. (electrolytic redn.); - anodic reoxidn.	$2 \times 10^{-9}$ - $1 \times 10^{-6} \text{ M}$ ( $1 \times 10^{-9} \text{ M}; 10 \text{ min}$ )	model solns.	- EDTA used as modif. agent elim. interfs from other ions	353
Ag <sup>+</sup>	C/PO (DPO)	DPASV	- o.c. accum. via compl./ redn.; anodic reoxidn.	$5 \times 10^{-9}$ - $1 \times 10^{-7} \text{ M}$ (0.7 nM; 10 min)	model solns.	- DPO: N,N'-diphenyl oxamide - no interfs from common ions	354
Ag <sup>+</sup> Pb <sup>2+</sup>	C/PO (SWy-2)	DPASV	- accum. via ion-pairing; - redn. + anodic reoxidn.	$8 \times 10^{-9}$ - $1 \times 10^{-7} \text{ M}$ (0.1 nM; 4 min)	model solns.	- SWy-2: Na-montmorillonite (clay); in presence of CTAB; simult. detn. of Pb <sup>2+</sup> investigated	355
Ag <sup>+</sup>	C/PO (Alizarin violet)	DPASV	- accum. via complexation; - el. redn./ MEx / reoxidn.	$3 \times 10^{-10}$ - $1 \times 10^{-7} \text{ M}$ (0.1 nM; 3 min)	waste water, zinc alloy	- s.e.: a) 0.1 M AcB (pH 5.2), b) 0.1 M H <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>4</sub> + $1 \times 10^{-4} \text{ M}$ KBr; - no interfs from Me <sup>I</sup> and Me <sup>II</sup>	356
Ag <sup>+</sup>	C/DINP (Ag-Thimerosal)	POT, FIA (dir., titr.)	- chemical equilibrium and steady-state potential for: Ag <sup>+</sup> ↔ Ag <sup>I</sup> -compl.	$1 \times 10^{-8}$ - $5 \times 10^{-7} \text{ M}$ ( $3 \times 10^{-7} \text{ M}$ )	cosmetics, pharms.; radiology films	DINP: di-iso-nonyl phthalate der.; pharms: Thiopental, Thimerosal (both by potentiometric titration)	97
Ag <sup>+</sup>	C/PO + memb. (BNSAO)	POT (dir., titr.)	- chemical equilibrium and steady-state potential for: Ag <sup>+</sup> ↔ Ag <sup>I</sup> -compl.	$9 \times 10^{-7}$ - 0.03 M ( $4 \times 10^{-7} \text{ M}$ )	cosmetics, radiology films	BNSAO: bis 5-(4-nitrophenyl-azo) salicylaldimine (Schiff base); CPE compared with similar CWE	153
Ag <sup>+</sup>	C/PO. (DPSG)	POT (dir.)	- chemical equilibrium and steady-state potential for: Ag <sup>+</sup> ↔ Ag <sup>I</sup> -compl.	$5 \times 10^{-7}$ - 0.1 M ( $1 \times 10^{-7} \text{ M}$ )	waste water	DPSG: dipyriddy-functionalized silica gel; s.s.: AcB (pH 5.5); - CPE long stable (>6 months)	293
Ag <sup>+</sup>	C/PO (AMQ)	DPASV	- accum. via ion-pairing; - redn. + anodic reoxidn.	$1\text{-}300 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ ( $0.4 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ ; 12 min)	natural waters, photographic films	AMQ: 3-amino-2-mercapto quina-zolin-4(3H)-one; detn. compared with GF-AAS	357

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Ion, sp. (form)	Type of CPE (modifier)	Technique (mode)	Measuring principles (method sequences)	Linearity range (LOD; $t_{acc}$ / $t_R$ )	Sample(s) analysed	Other specification (remarks)	Refs.
Ag <sup>+</sup>	C/PO (AgCrTIS <sub>4</sub> )	LSV	- accum. via complexation; - el. redn. + reoxidn.	$3 \times 10^{-10}$ - $1 \times 10^{-7}$ M ( $3 \times 10^{-6}$ M; 5 min)	model solns.	- modif. characterised by X-RF in powdered form; interfs. studies	358
Hg <sup>2+</sup>	C/PO (SWy-2 clay)	DPASV	- ion-exchange + adsorption - redn. + anodic reoxidn.	$1 \times 10^{-9}$ - $5 \times 10^{-7}$ M ( $1 \times 10^{-10}$ M; 6 min)	water samples	- SWy-2: sodium montmorillonite	359
Hg <sub>2</sub> <sup>2+</sup>	C/PO (PA-NO)	ASV	- specific interact. with Hg <sup>I</sup> - anodic reoxidn.	$3 \times 10^{-8}$ - $1 \times 10^{-6}$ M	human urine	- PA-NO: picolinic acid N-oxide; - analysed as Hg <sup>I</sup> + Hg <sup>II</sup> mixtures	360
Hg <sup>I</sup> , Hg <sub>3</sub> <sup>I-</sup>	C/PO (TZ <sup>+</sup> ; [HgI <sub>3</sub> ] <sup>-</sup> )	POT (dir.)	- chemical equilibrium: Hg <sup>2+</sup> ↔ Hg <sup>I</sup> -compl.	$6 \times 10^{-6}$ - 0.001 M ( $4 \times 10^{-6}$ M)	waste water, alloy, dental amalgam	- TZ: tetrazolium (quaternary) ion; - incl. studies on select. coeff.	294
Hg <sup>2+</sup>	C/SO, C/PO (+AuF, ex situ)	SP (CCSA)	- accum. by electrolytic redn. - reoxidn. with I <sub>CONST</sub>	(2 ppb; 10 min)	model solns.	- AuF plated in situ or preplated; - simult. detn. of Hg <sup>2+</sup> + Cu <sup>2+</sup>	336
Hg <sup>I</sup> (var. sp.)	C/PO (SH <sup>-</sup> , NH <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup> , PSXL)	LSV, DPCSV	- specific sorption processes - o.c. accum + cathodic redn.	-- (not specified)	soils, water samples	- species studied: HgCl <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup> , HgCl <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup> , HgCl <sub>2</sub> , Hg(OH) <sub>2</sub> (speciation st.) - PSXL: polysiloxane ligand	361
Hg <sup>2+</sup> , Hg <sup>II</sup> (HgX <sub>n</sub> <sup>m-</sup> )	C/PO (BbTSC)	CV, SWV	- specific complexation; - anodic reoxidn.	10-50 ppb (8 ppb; 15 min)	river water samples	BbTSC: benzyl-bis-thiosemicarbazone;- speciation of Hg <sup>2+</sup> , HgCl <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup> , and HgCl <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup> via ligand competition.	362
Hg <sup>2+</sup>	C/PO (DTTD-SG)	CV, DPCSV	- sorption + ion-exchange; - accum./ cathodic redn.	$3 \times 10^{-8}$ - $1 \times 10^{-8}$ M ( $1 \times 10^{-8}$ M; 3 min)	polluted water	- DTTD-SG: 2,5-dithio-1,3,4-thiazole functionalised silicagel - CMCPE regenerated chemically	363
Hg <sup>2+</sup>	C/PO (APSC, MPSC)	DPASV	- o.c. accum (ion-exchange) - anodic reoxidn.	$1 \times 10^{-8}$ - $7 \times 10^{-8}$ M ( $8 \times 10^{-8}$ M; 5 min)	model solns.	- A(M)PSC: amino(mercapto) phyllo silicate clay (synth. by grafting)	364
Hg <sup>2+</sup>	CNT-PE (unm.)	CV, SWASV	- electrocatalysis-assisted electrolysis; reoxidn.	1-25+40-200 $\mu$ g L <sup>-1</sup> (0.4 $\mu$ g L <sup>-1</sup> ; 12 min)	water samples	- CNT-PE: carbon nanotube paste electrode; s.e.: AcB (pH 4.0)	72
Hg <sup>2+</sup>	C/PO (TZT-HDTA-C)	CV, DPASV	- selective sorption + redn.; - anodic reoxidn.	--	model solns.	- TZT-HDTA-C: 2-thiazoline-2-thiol-hexadecyl-trimethylammonium-clay; no interfs of Pb, Cd, Cu, Zn	365

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Ion, sp. (form)	Type of CPE (modifier)	Technique (mode)	Measuring principles (method sequences)	Linearity range (LOD; $t_{ACC}$ / $t_R$ )	Sample(s) analysed	Other specification (remarks)	Refs.
Hg <sup>2+</sup>	C/PO (EBHMP)	POT (dir.)	- chemical equilibrium and steady-state potential for: Hg <sup>2+</sup> ↔ Hg <sup>0</sup> -compl.	$3 \times 10^{-7}$ - 0.01 M ( $1 \times 10^{-7}$ M)	waste water (spiked); amalgam	- EBHMP: ethyl-2-(benzoylamino)-3-(2-hydroxy-4-methoxyphenyl)-2-propenoate; pH 1-4, $t_{ED}$ < 5s	295
Hg <sup>2+</sup>	C/PO (SIAMT)	CV, DPASV	- accum. via sorption and complex.; redn. + reoxidn.	1-20 $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ (0.1 $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ ; 15 min)	waste water (spiked); amalgam	SIAMT: silica gel functionalised with 2-aminothiazole; var. s.e.	366, 367
Hg <sup>2+</sup>	C/PO (SWy-12 / MATD)	LSV, EC-LC	- accum. via sorption and complexation; redn.	(10 $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ ; --)	model solns.	SWy-12 / MATD: Na-montmorillonite + 2-mercapto-5-amino-1,3,4-thiadiazol; clay of natural origin	368
Hg <sup>2+</sup>	C/PO (DTSA)	POT (dir.)	- chemical equilibrium and steady-state potential for: Hg <sup>0</sup> -HA ↔ Hg <sup>0</sup> -compl.	$1 \times 10^{-7}$ - $3 \times 10^{-4}$ M ( $2 \times 10^{-8}$ M)	model solns.	DTSA: dithiosalicylic acid; HA: humic acid (competitive ligand); - evaluation of stability constants	296
Hg <sup>2+</sup>	C/PO (chitosan, Ch)	CV, DPASV	- accum. via sorption and complex.; redn. + reoxidn.	$1 \times 10^{-6}$ - $4 \times 10^{-5}$ M ( $6 \times 10^{-7}$ M; 4 min)	water (spiked)	- CP-composition: 60%(m/m) C + 20% PO (Nujol) + 20%(m/m) Ch; - s.e.: 0.2 M KNO <sub>3</sub> (pH 6.2)	369
Hg <sup>2+</sup>	C/PO (Cryptofix)	ASV	- accum. via complexation; - el. redn./ anodic reoxidn.	-- (0.1 $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ )	model solns.	- Cryptofix: commercial reagent (with ion-exchange capabilities)	370
Hg <sup>2+</sup>	C/PO (Cation A)	CV, LSV	- accum. via complexation; - el. redn./ anodic reoxidn.	0.1-20 $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ (0.1 $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ ; 1 min)	polluted waters	- Cation A: 4-nitrophenyldiazo- amino-azobenzene; s.e.: 0.2 M NaAc (pH 7); o.c. accum.	371
Hg <sup>2+</sup> , Cu <sup>2+</sup> + Pb <sup>2+</sup>	C/PO (AMT / plex- $\mu$ S)	SWASV	- accum. via complexation; - el. redn. + reoxidn.	15-75 $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ (5 min) (5 $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ ; 15 min)	tap (spiked); waste water	AMT / plex- $\mu$ S: 2-aminothiazole / plexi-polymer made microsphere; - simult. detn. with Cu <sup>2+</sup> , Pb <sup>2+</sup>	372
Hg <sup>2+</sup> , Cu <sup>2+</sup> + Pb <sup>2+</sup>	C/PO (SBA-15)	CV, DPASV	- accum. via sorption and complex.; redn. + reoxidn.	$2 \times 10^{-6}$ - $1 \times 10^{-5}$ M ( $5 \times 10^{-7}$ M; 4 min)	natural water; sugar-cane alcohol drink	SBA-15: nanostructured silica functionalised with 2-benzothiazole- lethiol; simult. detn with Cu <sup>2+</sup> , Pb <sup>2+</sup>	373
Cu <sup>2+</sup>	C/PO (AP-GS)	CV, SWW	- o.c.-accum. via compl. - MEx; redn. + reoxidn.	$5 \times 10^{-8}$ - $2 \times 10^{-7}$ M ( $3 \times 10^{-9}$ M, 10 min)	tap water	- AP-GS: aminopropyl-functionalised grafted silica; studies on accum. mechanism; interfs. st..	230

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Ion, sp. (form)	Type of CPE (modifier)	Technique (mode)	Measuring principles (method sequences)	Linearity range (LOD; $t_{acc}$ / $t_R$ )	Sample(s) analysed	Other specification (remarks)	Refs.
Cu <sup>2+</sup>	C/PO (TH)	CV, LSV	- o.c.-accum. via compl. + redn./ cathodic reoxidn.	(0.5 $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ , 10 min)	river water	- TH: macrocyclic thiohydrazone - incl. studies on interfs.	374
Cu <sup>2+</sup>	C/PO (DTPT)	POT (dir.)	- chemical equilibrium and steady-state potential for: Cu <sup>2+</sup> ↔ Cu <sup>I</sup> -DTPT	1 × 10 <sup>-6</sup> - 0.08 M (7 × 10 <sup>-7</sup> M)	electronics (waste solns.)	- DTPT: (3,4-dihydro-4,4,6-trimethyl-2(1H) pyrimidine thione	375
Cu <sup>2+</sup>	C/PO (TPP)	DPASV	- o.c.-accum. by compl. - MEx / redn. + reoxidn.	9 × 10 <sup>-8</sup> - 5 × 10 <sup>-5</sup> M (2 × 10 <sup>-9</sup> M, 12 min)	minerals	- s.e.: BR-buffer (pH 6) - sample extracted prior to detn.	376
Cu <sup>2+</sup>	C/PO (CAR-SG)	DPASV	- o.c. accum. by compl. - redn.; anodic reoxidn.	5 × 10 <sup>-8</sup> - 1 × 10 <sup>-6</sup> M (4 × 10 <sup>-9</sup> M)	model solns.	- CAR-SG: Carnosine immobilised onto silica (solid phase extractant)	231
Cu <sup>2+</sup>	C/SO, C/PO (+ AuF)	SP (CCSA)	- accum. by electrolytic redn.; reoxidn. by I <sub>CONST</sub>	(5 ppb; 10 min)	model solns.	- Au-film plated in situ or preplated - simultaneous detn. of Cu <sup>2+</sup> + Hg <sup>2+</sup>	336
Cu <sup>2+</sup>	C/PO (humic acid)	CV, DPV	- o.c. compl. + redn. - anodic reoxidn.	3 × 10 <sup>-8</sup> - 1 × 10 <sup>-5</sup> M	model and real samples	- study on accum. mechanism and possible speciation	377
Cu <sup>2+</sup>	C/PO (MDPT)	ASV	- o.c. accum. by compl. + redn.; anodic reoxidn.	1 × 10 <sup>-7</sup> - 1 × 10 <sup>-4</sup> M (1 × 10 <sup>-7</sup> M, 6 min)	coal ash	- MDPT: 4-methoxy-2,6bis(3,5-dimethylpyrazolyl)-1,3,5 triazine - s.e.: tartrate buffer (pH 4)	378
Cu <sup>2+</sup>	C/PO (MBTZ-SG)	LSV, ASV	- o.c. accum. via compl. + sorption / MEx / el. redn.; - anodic reoxidn.	1-10 × 10 <sup>-7</sup> & 1 × 10 <sup>-5</sup> - 0.01 M (0.1 $\mu\text{M}$ )	model solns.	- MBTZ-SG: 2-mercaptobenzothiazole functionalised silica gel; two linear ranges for calibration	379
Cu <sup>2+</sup>	C/PO (salicylaloxime)	CV, ASV	- o.c. accum. via compl.; - el. redn./ anodic reoxidn.	0.1-10 ppm (0.1 ppm; 3 min)	waste water, wine	- s.e.: diluted HNO <sub>3</sub> ; intermediate reduction for 100 s.	380
Cu <sup>2+</sup>	C/PO (Z)	DPCSV	- o.c. accum. via sorption; - MEx / cathodic redn.	5 × 10 <sup>-8</sup> - 5 × 10 <sup>-6</sup> M (2 × 10 <sup>-8</sup> M, 3 min)	model and real samples	- Z: natural zeolite (modif.); accum. / regeneration scheme during anal.	381
Cu <sup>2+</sup>	C/PO (ARS / S <sub>2</sub> O <sub>8</sub> <sup>2-</sup> )	CtAdSV, 2 <sup>nd</sup> DLSV	- o.c. accum. via compl. + adsorption / el. redn./ el. catalyst-assisted reoxidn.	8 × 10 <sup>-10</sup> - 3 × 10 <sup>-8</sup> M (2 × 10 <sup>-10</sup> M, 3 min)	natural water, soil samples	- s.e.: BRB (pH 4.6); modif. in situ; no regeneration required	382
Cu <sup>2+</sup>	C/PO [calix[4]arene]	DPASV	- o.c. accum. via intercalation - el. redn./ anodic reoxidn.	(0.1 $\mu\text{g l}^{-1}$ ; 10 min)	tap water	- s.e.: buffer (pH 6.5-7.5); analysis compared to the reference (AAS).	383

**Continued Table 1.** Determination of noble metals at carbon paste electrodes and sensors. Survey of methods

Ion, sp. (form)	Type of CPE (modifier)	Technique (mode)	Measuring principles (method sequences)	Linearity range (LOD; $t_{Acc}$ / $t_{tr}$ )	Sample(s) analysed	Other specification (remarks)	Refs.
$Cu^{2+/+}$	C/PO (nano-Pt)	CV, ASV	- el. acc. $Cu^{II} \rightarrow Cu^I \rightarrow Cu^0$ with intermediate catalysis; - anodic reoxidn.	$4 \times 10^{-8} - 2 \times 10^{-6}$ M ( $4 \times 10^{-9}$ M, 10 min)	model solns.	- Pt-particles, 20 nm characterised by SEM and XRF; LOD lowered by the effect of some surfactants	384
$Cu^{2+}$	C/PW(s) (AMTZ-SG)	CV, DPASV	- o.c. accum. via complex.; - el. redn./ anodic reoxidn.	$8 \times 10^{-8} - 3 \times 10^{-6}$ M ( $3 \times 10^{-8}$ M, 20 min)	commercial ethanol fuel	- electrode of the C/PW type stable in EtOH; AMTZ-SG: 2-amino-thiazole functionalized silica	104
$Cu^{2+}$	C/PO (DPN-SG)	POT (dir.)	- chemical equilibrium and steady-state potential for: $Cu^{2+} \leftrightarrow Cu^{II}-DPN$	$1 \times 10^{-7} - 0.01$ M ( $8 \times 10^{-8}$ M, 50s)	waste water	- DPN-SG: dipyriddy group-functionalized nanoporous silica gel; - slope: Nenstian, ca 28.5 mV/dec.	288
$Cu^{2+}$	C/PO (Cu-SALHMN)	POT (dir., titr.)	- chemical equilibrium and steady-state potential for: $Cu^{2+} \leftrightarrow Cu^{II}-SALHMN$	$4 \times 10^{-7} - 0.01$ M ( $6 \times 10^{-8}$ M, 12s)	tap water, multivitamin tablets	- SALHMN: N,N'-disalicylic-lene-hexamethylenediaminate; s.s.: buffer (pH 4-6.5); interfs. study	289
$Cu^{2+}$	C/PO (chitosan)	ASV	- o.c. accum. via adsorption + el. redn.; anodic reoxidn.	$2 \times 10^{-7} - 7 \times 10^{-6}$ M ( $8 \times 10^{-8}$ M, 4.5 min)	waste water samples	- modif. content in CP: 25%(m/m); s.e.: 0.1 M $KNO_3$ (pH 6.5).	385
$Cu^{2+}$	C/PO (Zincon)	DPASV	- o.c. accum. via compl. + sorption / anodic reoxidn.	$2-220 \mu g L^{-1}$ ( $1 \mu g L^{-1}$ ; 5 min)	natural waters, human hair	- modif.: 2-carboxy-2'-hydroxy-5' sulfo-formazyl benzene; s.e.: PhB (pH 6.4)	386
$Cu^{2+}$	C/PO (s.a. n-Au + 3 diff. modifs)	POT (dir.)	- chemical equilibrium and steady-state potential for: $Cu^{2+} \leftrightarrow Cu^{II}-SA-nAu / M$	$8 \times 10^{-9} - 0.001$ M ( $3-4 \times 10^{-8}$ M; 5s)	water sample, human hair	- s.a.: self-assembled n-Au-particles; - modifs.: MMN-IT, MNFT, MNTT (SH-heterocyclic derivatives)	292
$Cu^{2+}$	CNT-PE, CNT(F)PE	CV, SWV	- o.c. accum. via compl. + sorption / anodic reoxidn.	$0.01-0.10 \mu g L^{-1}$ ( $0.005 \mu g L^{-1}$ ; --)	tap water, rat tail (blood)	- CNT(F): fluorinated carbon nano-tubes; electrode life-time for appl. in-vivo, $t_e > 1$ month	94
$Cu^{2+}$	C/PO (TMTDS)	POT (dir., FIA)	- chemical equilibrium and steady-state potential for: $Cu^{2+} \leftrightarrow Cu^{II}-TMTDS$	( $5 \times 10^{-8}$ M for stac.; $2 \times 10^{-7}$ M for FIA)	model and real samples	- TMTDS: tetramethyl-thiuram di-sulfide; optimisation studies for both stac. and FIA modes.	290
$Cu^{2+}$	C/PO (SAL / PSX)	POT (dir., titr.)	- chemical equilibrium and steady-state potential for: $Cu^{2+} \leftrightarrow Cu^{II}-SAL$	$2 \times 10^{-7} - 0.001$ M ( $3 \times 10^{-8}$ M; 8s)	water samples, urine	- SAL / PSX: salicylidine-functionalized polysiloxane; opt.: pH 2-5.5; titr. performed with EDTA	387

**Table 1.** Determination of noble metals at carbon paste electrodes and sensors. Survey of methods

Ion, sp. (form)	Type of CPE (modifier)	Technique (mode)	Measuring principles (method sequences)	Linearity range (LOD; $t_{Acc}$ / $t_R$ )	Sample(s) analysed	Other specification (remarks)	Refs.
Cu <sup>2+</sup>	C/PO (naphthazarin)	AdSV, POT (dir., FIA)	- chemical equilibrium and steady-state potential for: Cu <sup>2+</sup> ↔ Cu <sup>II</sup> -TMTDS	(2 × 10 <sup>-6</sup> M for stac.; (3 × 10 <sup>-5</sup> M for FIA) ( $t_R$ < 50s)	metal alloys with Cu-traces	- modif.: 5,8-dihydroxy-1,4-naphto-quinone; s.s.: 0.1 M AmB/AcB; life-time, t > 60 days	291
Cu <sup>2+</sup>	C/PO (microalgae)	DPCSV	- o.c. accum via bio-sorption; - cathodic redn.	5 × 10 <sup>-8</sup> - 1 × 10 <sup>-6</sup> M (5 × 10 <sup>-10</sup> M, --)	model and real samples	- microalgae sp.: Tetraselmis Chuii; added in content of 3-20%(m/m)	388
Cu <sup>2+</sup>	C/PO (H-BDBTU)	POT (dir.)	- chemical equilibrium and steady-state potential for: Cu <sup>2+</sup> ↔ Cu <sup>II</sup> -BTU	1 × 10 <sup>-5</sup> - 0.001 M (1 × 10 <sup>-5</sup> M; 10s)	model solns.	- H-BDBTU: N-benzoyl-N',N'-di-n-butyl-thiourea; studies on the mechanism and eq. conditions	389

For other abbreviations and symbols, see the respective list at the end of the article

**Table 2.** Determination of heavy metals at carbon paste electrodes and sensors. Survey of Methods

Ion, sp. (form)	Type of CPE (modifier)	Technique (mode)	Measuring principles (method sequences)	Linearity range (LOD; $t_{Acc}$ / $t_R$ )	Sample(s) analysed	Other specification (remarks)	Refs.
Zn <sup>2+</sup> , Cd <sup>2+</sup> + Pb <sup>2+</sup>	C/SO [HgO, Bi <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> (s)]	DPASV	- accum. (electrolytic redn.) at in-nascenti formed MF or BiF; anodic. reoxidn.	50-1000 ppb, Zn <sup>II</sup> 1-50 ppb Cd <sup>II</sup> , Pb <sup>II</sup> (1-2 ppb; 10 min)	tap and natural waters	- HgO, Bi <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> added in CP (5%); tests on reproducibility ( $R_s < 5\%$ ); compared with MF- and BiF-SPE	113
Zn <sup>2+</sup> , Cd <sup>2+</sup> + Pb <sup>2+</sup>	C/SO + BiF <sub>3</sub> (-, Bi <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> )	DPASV	- accum. via electrolytic redn. + alloy formation; - anodic reoxidn.	50-200 μg L <sup>-1</sup> Zn <sup>II</sup> (20 μg L <sup>-1</sup> ; 5 min)	model solns.	- way of plating: (i) in-situ, (ii) ext., (iii) in-nascenti (via Bi <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> redn.); detn. of Zn with high background	248
Zn <sup>2+</sup> ; Cd <sup>2+</sup> Pb <sup>2+</sup> + Cu <sup>2+</sup>	C/PW(s) (Hg <sub>2</sub> C <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> )	DPASV	- accum. via ion-exchange; - redn.; anodic reoxidn.	--	medicinal plants, pharms.	- simultaneous detn., compared with ref. analyses by AAS - pharm.: ayurvedic tablets	103
Cd <sup>2+</sup>	C/PO (BTT + am. SiO <sub>2</sub> )	DPASV	- adsor. accum. via compl. - redn.; anodic reoxidn.	6 × 10 <sup>-7</sup> - 4 × 10 <sup>-5</sup> M (1 × 10 <sup>-7</sup> M; 2 min)	natural water (spiked)	- BTT: benzothiazole-thiol - s.e.: phosphate buffer (pH 7.5)	390
Cd <sup>2+</sup>	C/PO (ZrP <sub>2</sub> O <sub>7</sub> -SG)	DPASV	- o.c. accum (ion-exchange) - el. redn. / anodic reoxidn.	3-1400 ng L <sup>-1</sup> (3 ng L <sup>-1</sup> ; 2 min)	waste water	- SG: functionalised silica gel; - incl. optimisation studies	391
Cd <sup>2+</sup>	C/PO (BTZT / SBA-15)	DPASV	- accum. via complex and sorption); redn. / reoxidn.	1-10 × 10 <sup>-6</sup> M (5 × 10 <sup>-7</sup> M; 2 min)	natural water	- BTZT: 2-benzothiazolethiol, SBA- 15 nanostructured silica; s.e.: PhB	392
Cd <sup>2+</sup>	C/PO (MNT / n-Au)	POT (dir.)	- chemical equilibrium and steady-state potential for: Cd <sup>2+</sup> ↔ Cu <sup>II</sup> -MNT / nAu	3 × 10 <sup>-8</sup> - 3 × 10 <sup>-4</sup> M (2 × 10 <sup>-8</sup> M; 6 s)	water, human hair	- MNT: 2-mercapto-5-3-nitrophenyl 1,3,4-thiadiazole; slope: Nenstian, ca 29.5 mV/dec; s.s.: pH 2-4	393

**Continued Table 2.** Determination of heavy metals at carbon paste electrodes and sensors. Survey of Methods

Ion, sp. (form)	Type of CPE (modifier)	Technique (mode)	Measuring principles (method sequences)	Linearity range (LOD; $t_{Acc}$ / $t_R$ )	Sample(s) analysed	Other specification (remarks)	Refs.
Cd <sup>2+</sup>	C/PO (PTD, in-situ)	2 <sup>nd</sup> DLSV	- el. accum. enhanced by sorption; anodic reoxidn.	$6 \times 10^{-9}$ - $2 \times 10^{-7}$ M ( $3 \times 10^{-10}$ M; 10 min)	water	- PTD: 1,10-phenanthroline-dione; - s.e.: 0.05 M AcB (pH 4.7); interfs.	394
Cd <sup>2+</sup> + Pb <sup>2+</sup>	C/PO (CCHA)	DPASV	- accum. by compl.; MEx - redn.; anodic reoxidn.	$4 \times 10^{-8}$ - $3 \times 10^{-6}$ M ( $1 \times 10^{-9}$ M; 2 min)	municipal, mineral waters	- CCHA: N-p-chlorophenylcinnamohydroxamic acid; CP: anodic regnt.	395
Cd <sup>2+</sup> + Pb <sup>2+</sup>	C/PO (Bi <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> , in nasc.)	DPASV	- accum. via electrolytic redn - anodic reoxidn.	( $5 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ ; 6 min)	tap, mineral waters, urine	- BiF generated from oxide in nasc.; s.e.: 0.1 M acetate buffer (pH 4.5) - simult.detrn. of Pb <sup>II</sup> possible	263
Cd <sup>2+</sup> + Pb <sup>2+</sup> , Cu <sup>2+</sup>	C/PO (CPA + ms.SiO <sub>2</sub> )	SWV	- accum. via compl. / adsorp. - redn. / anodic reoxidn.	10-200 ppb (0.5 ppb; 20 min)	model solns.	- CPA: carbamoyl-phosphonic acid - simult.detrn. of Pb <sup>II</sup> + Cu <sup>II</sup> possible	396
Pb <sup>2+</sup> + Cu <sup>2+</sup>	CNT-PE (+ DNA)	CV, SWASV	- accum. via el. enhanced by sorption; anodic reoxidn.	( $2 \times 10^{-12}$ M for Pb, $7 \times 10^{-12}$ M for Cu; 2.5 min for both)	fish tissue	- DNA coating serves for specific enhancement of the accum. step; s.e.: PhB (pH 10.0)	397
Cd <sup>2+</sup> , Pb <sup>2+</sup>	C/PO (+BiF / Fbg)	SWASV (BIA)	- accum. via electrolytic redn. + alloy formation; reoxidn.	( $0.2 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ for Cd, $0.1 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ for Pb)	tap water tea samples	- Fbg: Fibrinogen (protective layer against surfactants) ; BIA-mode: batch injection analysis, m-volume	226
Pb <sup>2+</sup> + Cd <sup>2+</sup>	C/SO + ZD (+ BiF)	DPASV	- accum. via electrolytic redn. + alloy formation; - anodic reoxidn.	( $0.10 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ for Pb, $0.08 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ for Cd; 2 min for both)	real samples	- ZD: natural zeolite doped in CP (serving for more effective plating with BiF); s.e.: AcB (pH 4.5)	398
Pb <sup>2+</sup> , Cd <sup>2+</sup>	C/PO (DMG)	DPCSV	- accum. (compl. + adsorp.) - cathodic redn.	$1 \times 10^{-7}$ - $2 \times 10^{-5}$ M Pb $3 \times 10^{-7}$ - $3 \times 10^{-5}$ M Pb	waters	- DMG: dimethyl glyoxime - interfs. from Ni <sup>II</sup> and Hg <sup>II</sup>	399
Pb <sup>2+</sup> , Cd <sup>2+</sup>	C/PO ( $\alpha$ -CD, $\beta$ -CD)	ASV	- accum. by ion-inclusion effect; cathodic redn.	( $6 \times 10^{-7}$ M Pb, $2 \times 10^{-5}$ M Cd)	model solns.	- CDs: cyclodextrins; incl. studies on diff. prfm. of $\alpha$ -CD and $\beta$ -CD	400
Pb <sup>2+</sup>	C/PO (crown ethers)	DPASV	- accum. via compl. - redn.; anodic reoxidn.	20-100 ppb (1 ppb; 30 s)	alcoholic beverages	- s.e.: aqueous solns. + 40% MeOH - simult. detn. of Cu <sup>II</sup> also tested	401
Pb <sup>2+</sup>	C/PO (SH-ms.SiO <sub>2</sub> )	SWV	- accum. via compl. - redn.; anodic reoxidn.	10-1500 ppb Pb 20-1600 ppb Hg	model solns.	- SH-ms.SiO <sub>2</sub> : thiol-ctng. mesoporous silica; simult. detn. of Hg <sup>II</sup>	402
Pb <sup>2+</sup>	C/PO (plant tissue)	DPASV	- bioaccum. (ion-exchange) - redn.; anodic reoxidn.	(0.01 ppb)	natural waters	- modif.: grass weed (Pennisetum) - s.e.: acetate buffer (pH 5)	403
Pb <sup>2+</sup>	C/PO (1,8-DAN)	DPASV	- accum. via compl.; redn. - anodic reoxidn.	50-2000 ppb (30 ppb; 10 min)	model solns.	- DAN: diamminonaphthalene + CP acts as conducting polymer	404
Pb <sup>2+</sup>	C/PO [(OH-AQ-Me) <sub>2</sub> S]	DPASV	- accum. via complexation; - e. redn. / anodic reoxidn.	$6 \times 10^{-10}$ - $6 \times 10^{-8}$ M ( $4 \times 10^{-10}$ M; 11 min)	waste water	- modif.: bis[1-hydroxy-9,10-anthra-quinone-methyl]sulfide; no interfs from various metal ions, Me <sup>2+</sup>	405

**Continued Table 2.** Determination of heavy metals at carbon paste electrodes and sensors. Survey of Methods

Ion, sp. (form)	Type of CPE (modifier)	Technique (mode)	Measuring principles (method sequences)	Linearity range (LOD; $t_{Acc}$ / $t_R$ )	Sample(s) analysed	Other specification (remarks)	Refs.
Pb <sup>2+</sup>	D/PO (DPEs, 3 types)	DPASV	- accum. via electrolytic redn; anodic reoxidn.	$1 \times 10^{-10}$ - $1 \times 10^{-6}$ M, depending on DPE; (10-100 pM; --)	natural water, tea samples	- D: natural or synthetic diamond (particle size: 1 or 50 $\mu$ m); DPE: diamond paste electrode	60
Pb <sup>2+</sup>	C/PO (o-, m-, p-PD/E)	DPASV	- accum. via complexation; - e. redn. / anodic reoxidn.	$5 \times 10^{-8}$ - $1 \times 10^{-5}$ M ( $1 \times 10^{-9}$ M; 10 min)	model solns.	- PD/E: phenylendiamine (three isomers) admixed in CP / electro-polymerised; interfs. of Me <sup>2+</sup> .	406
Pb <sup>2+</sup>	C/PO (APA-MMS)	AD, FIA / WJD	- Pb <sup>II</sup> -vs- APA affinity; - el. redn. by E <sub>CONST</sub>	1-25 ppb Pb (RSD $\pm$ 2.5%)	model solns.	- APA-MMS: acetamid-phosphonic acid functionalised mesoporous SiO <sub>2</sub> ; WJD: wall-jet detector	235
Pb <sup>2+</sup>	C/PO (ZrP <sub>2</sub> O <sub>7</sub> -SG)	DPASV	- o.c. acc. (ion-exchange); - el. redn. / anodic reoxidn.	$3 \times 10^{-9}$ - $5 \times 10^{-6}$ M ( $4 \times 10^{-10}$ M; 2 min)	waste water	- SG: functionalised silica gel; - interfs. study with Zn, Cd, Sn, Tl	407
Pb <sup>2+</sup>	AB/PO (I <sup>-</sup> , in-situ)	SWASV	- accum. via spec. sorption; - el. redn. / anodic reoxidn.	$2 \times 10^{-8}$ - $4 \times 10^{-6}$ M ( $6 \times 10^{-9}$ M; 10min)	water samples	- AB: acetylene black (replacing graphite powder); addition of I <sup>-</sup> further enhances the sensitivity	51
Pb <sup>2+</sup>	C/PO (OF-S)	DPASV	- accum. by adsorption to S; - el. redn. / anodic reoxidn.	5-1000 ng L <sup>-1</sup> (5 ng L <sup>-1</sup> ; 1 min)	hair sample (spiked)	- OF-S: organo-functionalised silica (not specified); $t_L >$ 4 months	408
Pb <sup>2+</sup>	C/PO (Dithizone)	DPASV, FIA	- o.c. accum. via complex.; - redn / anodic reoxidn.	$8 \times 10^{-8}$ - $1 \times 10^{-5}$ M ( $5-8 \times 10^{-8}$ M; 8 min)	soil samples	- interfs. study with Zn, Cd, Cu, Hg; - samples collected at metallurgic plant; analyses compared to AAS	409
Pb <sup>2+</sup>	C/PO (fruit tissue)	DPCSV	- o.c. accum via biosorption; MEx / cathodic redn.	1-10 mg L <sup>-1</sup> (5 ng mL <sup>-1</sup> ; 1 min)	water (spiked), laboratory waste	- fruit: dried / pulverised pineapple; - interfs. study with 15 Me <sup>n+</sup> ions; Bio-CPE regeneration by EDTA	410
Pb <sup>2+</sup>	C/POs (+ DTBA / MBA)	POT (dir., titr.)	- chemical equilibrium and steady-state potential for: Cu <sup>2+</sup> $\leftrightarrow$ Cu <sup>II</sup> -TMTDS	$5 \times 10^{-8}$ M for CPE-1 $4 \times 10^{-8}$ M for CPE-2	humate extracts	- two modifs: dithiodibenzoic acid, mercaptobenzoic acid (added in: 25%, m/m); evaluation of $\beta_{Pb-TBA}$	297
Pb <sup>2+</sup>	C/PO (SiO <sub>2</sub> / Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> )	CV, DPASV	- o.c. accum. via sorption; - el. redn. / anodic reoxidn.	$2 \times 10^{-9}$ - $5 \times 10^{-5}$ M ( $1 \times 10^{-9}$ M; 5 min)	real samples (--)	- modif.: mixed oxide, studied with TG, XRF, FTIR; added as 5% (m)	411
Pb <sup>2+</sup>	C/PO (Ca <sup>II</sup> -MMT)	CV, DPASV	- o.c. accum. via ion-exch.; - el. redn. / anodic reoxidn.	-- ( $6 \times 10^{-9}$ M, --)	water samples	- MMT: montmorillonite; s.e.: 0.01 M HCl; comparison with bare CPE	412
Pb <sup>2+</sup>	C/PO (NFR, in-situ)	DPV, AdCSV	- accum. via adsorption of complex; cathodic redn.	0.5-200 ng mL <sup>-1</sup> (0.2 ng mL <sup>-1</sup> ; 1 min)	lake, mineral waters, drinks (powdered)	- NFR: Nuclear fast red; s.e.: buffer (pH 3) + $5 \times 10^{-5}$ M modif.; interfs. s.	413
Pb <sup>2+</sup>	C/SO (QPu-TU)	CV, SWASV	- o.c. accum. via chelating; - el. redn. / anodic reoxidn.	0.005-5(0) mg L <sup>-1</sup> (0.2 mg L <sup>-1</sup> ; 10 min)	water samples (tap, lake, and waste w.)	- QPu-TU: thiourea-functionalised macroporous resin QuadraPure; 30% (m) in CP; s.e.: 0.1 M AcB;	414
Pb <sup>2+</sup>	C/SO (chitosan)	DPCSV	- o.c. accum via biosorption; - cathodic redn.	10-110 ng mL <sup>-1</sup> (2 ng mL <sup>-1</sup> ; --)	water, pharm., human blood and urine	- s.e.: 0.5 M HCl; no interfs. from Cd, Tl, Sn, Cu (10-fold excess)	415

**Continued Table 2.** Determination of heavy metals at carbon paste electrodes and sensors. Survey of Methods

Ion, sp. (form)	Type of CPE (modifier)	Technique (mode)	Measuring principles (method sequences)	Linearity range (LOD; $t_{Acc}$ / $t_R$ )	Sample(s) analysed	Other specification (remarks)	Refs.
Tl <sup>+</sup> + Cd <sup>2+</sup> + Pb <sup>2+</sup>	C/SO (+BiF, in-situ)	DPASV	- accum. via complexation, el. redn. + alloy formation; - anodic reoxidn.	50-500 $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ Tl <sup>I</sup> --	model solns.	- s.e.: 0.1-1.0 M NaOH (pH > 12); studies on Tl-deposition at BiFE plated from Bi(OH) <sub>3</sub>	256
Tl <sup>+</sup> + Cd <sup>2+</sup> + Pb <sup>2+</sup>	C/SO (+Bi-powder)	DPASV, SWASV	- accum. via complexation, el. redn. + alloy formation; - anodic reoxidn.	25-500 $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ Tl <sup>I</sup> --	model solns.	- s.e.: 0.1 M AmB (pH 9.5); study on behaviour of Tl+Pb+Cd mixt. in atypical supporting media	258
Tl <sup>I, III</sup> (TlCl <sub>4</sub> <sup>-</sup> )	C/TCP (unm.)	SP (CCSA)	- accum. via ion-pairing as {H-TCP <sup>+</sup> ; TlCl <sub>4</sub> <sup>-</sup> }; redn. with $I_{CONST}$ in SP-regime	( $1 \times 10^{-7}$ M; 3 min)	model solns.	- TCP: tricresyl phosphate (binder); s.e.: 0.1 M HCl + 2 M KCl; study on differentiation of Tl <sup>I</sup> and Tl <sup>III</sup>	333, 416
In <sup>3+</sup> + Cd <sup>2+</sup> + Pb <sup>2+</sup>	C/SO (+BiF, in-situ)	SWASV	- accum. via electrolytic redn. + alloy formation; - anodic reoxidn.	25-250 $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ In <sup>III</sup> (10 $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ ; 5 min)	water (spiked) CRM (soil)	- s.e.: 0.1 M AcB + 0.2 M KBr; studies on simultaneous detn. of In+Cd+Pb and detn. of In <sup>III</sup> alone	253
Sn <sup>2+</sup>	C/SO (BiF in-situ) C/SO (Bi-powder)	SWASV	- accum. via electrolytic redn. + alloy formation; - anodic reoxidn.	0.2-1 mg L <sup>-1</sup> (0.1 mg L <sup>-1</sup> ; 5 min)	model solns.	- s.e.: 0.2-1.0 M HCl (pH < 2) + 0.005 M N <sub>2</sub> H <sub>5</sub> <sup>+</sup> (stabilising agent); studies on detn. of tin as Sn <sup>II</sup>	255
Sn <sup>IV</sup> (SnO <sub>2</sub> <sup>+</sup> )	C/PO (Alizarin violet)	ASV	- o.c.-accum. via complex; MEx / redn. / an. reoxidn.	$8 \times 10^{-9}$ - $1 \times 10^{-6}$ M ( $4 \times 10^{-9}$ M; 2 min)	canned food sample	- s.e.: AcB (pH 4.5); studies on adsorpt. mechanism of accum.	417
Sn <sup>II,IV</sup>	C/PO (BPR)	DPASV	- o.c. accum. via complex.; - el. redn. (Sn <sup>II</sup> → Sn <sup>0</sup> ); - MEx / anodic reoxidn.	0.1-50 $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ (0.1 $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ ; 2 min)	waste water, canned food	- BPR: bromo-pyrogallol red; s.e.: (a) 0.1 M AcB, (b) 4 M HCl; pre-redn. Sn <sup>IV</sup> → Sn <sup>II</sup> by chem. agent	418
Bi <sup>3+</sup>	C/PO (SWy-2)	DPASV	- o.c. accum. via ion-exch.; - el. redn. / anodic reoxidn.	$4 \times 10^{-9}$ - $1 \times 10^{-6}$ M ( $1 \times 10^{-10}$ M; 5 min)	water sample, nickel alloy	- SWy-2: Na-montmorillonite; ion-exchange with adsorption of Bi <sup>III</sup>	419
Bi <sup>3+</sup>	C/PO (BPR)	DPASV	- o.c. accum. via chelating; - el. redn. / anodic reoxidn.	$1 \times 10^{-9}$ - $5 \times 10^{-7}$ M ( $5 \times 10^{-10}$ M; 3 min)	water sample, human hair	- BPR: bromo-pyrogallol red; s.e.: 0.3 M HCl + $2 \times 10^{-5}$ M BPR; incl. interfs. studies with various Me <sup>II+</sup>	420
Bi <sup>3+</sup>	C/PO [2 types] (Bi <sub>4</sub> + POE/OPE + Fe(phen) <sub>3</sub> )	POT (dir.)	- chemical equilibrium and steady-state potential for: Bi <sup>3+</sup> ↔ (POE/OPE)+Bi <sub>4</sub> <sup>-</sup>	( $4 \times 10^{-6}$ M ... type 1) ( $2 \times 10^{-6}$ M ... type 2) $t_R = 20-40$ s)	suppositories, ointment	- POE: polyoxyethylene, OPE: octyl-phenyl ether, "phen": 1,10-phenan-throline); s.s.: buffers (pH 3-9)	300
Sb <sup>3+</sup>	C/PO (BPR)	DPASV	- o.c. accum. via chelating; - el. redn. / anodic reoxidn.	$2 \times 10^{-9}$ - $5 \times 10^{-7}$ M ( $1 \times 10^{-9}$ M; 2.5 min)	water sample, human hair	- BPR: bromo-pyrogallol red; s.e.: 0.1 M HCl + $3 \times 10^{-5}$ M BPR; incl. interfs. studies with various Me <sup>II+</sup>	421
Sb <sup>3+</sup> + Cu <sup>2+</sup>	C/PO	DPASV with RDE	- accum. via electrolytic redn; anodic reoxidn.	10-50 ng mL <sup>-1</sup> Sb <sup>III</sup> (5 ng mL <sup>-1</sup> ; 5 min)	CRMs (iron and steel)	- RDE: rotated disc electrode; s.e.: HCl + KI + ascorbic acid (sep. of Sb- and Cu-peaks)	422
Sb <sup>3+</sup>	C/PO [2 types] (SbI <sub>4</sub> + CPy/TPHT)	POT (dir.)	- chemical equilibrium and steady-state potential for: Sb <sup>3+</sup> ↔ (CPy/TPHT)+SbI <sub>4</sub> <sup>-</sup>	( $4 \times 10^{-6}$ M ... type 1) ( $5 \times 10^{-6}$ M ... type 2) $t_R = 20-30$ s)	waste water, antibilharzial comp.	- CPy: cetyl pyridinium, TPHT: tri-phenyl tetrazolium, s.m.: pH 4-10; little interfs. from Cd <sup>2+</sup> , Hg <sup>2+</sup> , Bi <sup>3+</sup> .	299

**Continued Table 2.** Determination of heavy metals at carbon paste electrodes and sensors. Survey of Methods

Ion, sp. (form)	Type of CPE (modifier)	Technique (mode)	Measuring principles (method sequences)	Linearity range (LOD; $t_{Acc} / t_R$ )	Sample(s) analysed	Other specification (remarks)	Refs.
As <sup>III</sup> + As <sup>V</sup>	C/SO (+ AuF, ex situ)	SP (CCSA)	- accum. by electrolytic redn. - oxidn. with $I_{CONST}$	As <sup>III</sup> : 3 ppb (15 s.) As <sup>V</sup> : <1 ppb (5 min)	river water (polluted)	- interf. from Cu <sup>II</sup> (Cu:As >5:1) - with diffn. of As <sup>III</sup> vs As <sup>V</sup>	247
As <sup>V</sup> (HAsO <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup> )	C/TCP (unm.)	POT (titr.)	- chemical equilibrium with ion-pairing: HAsO <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup> ↔ CPyB <sup>+</sup> H <sub>2</sub> [As(Mo <sub>3</sub> O <sub>10</sub> ) <sub>4</sub> ] <sup>-</sup>	(0.2 mg L <sup>-1</sup> As <sup>V</sup> )	mineral water, org. compds.	- TCP: tricresyl phosphate (binder) - CPyB: cetylpyridinium bromide - dry ashing of solid samples	98
As <sup>V</sup> (HAsO <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup> )	C/PO (Fe <sup>II</sup> -clinoptite)	POT (dir.)	- ion-pairing equilibrium, steady-state potential for: HAsO <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup> ↔ (ZE) <sub>2</sub> -HAsO <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup>	2 × 10 <sup>-8</sup> – 0.001 M (3 × 10 <sup>-8</sup> M; 5-10 s)	natural water, waste water	- modif.: natural zeolite; pH 4-10; t <sub>0</sub> for CP-ISE > 2 months; incl. evaluation of $k^{pot}$	298

For other abbreviations and symbols, see the respective list at the end of the article

**Table 3.** Determination of the remaining metals at carbon paste electrodes and sensors: Survey of methods

Ion, sp. (form)	Type of CPE (modifier)	Technique (mode)	Measuring principles (method sequences)	Linearity range (LOD; $t_{Acc} / t_R$ )	Sample(s) analysed	Other specification (remarks)	Refs.
Fe <sup>2+</sup>	D/PO (DPEs, 3 types)	DPASV	- accum. (electrolytic redn) anodic reoxidn.	1 × 10 <sup>-8</sup> – 1 × 10 <sup>-4</sup> M, depending on DPE; (1-10 × 10 <sup>-10</sup> M)	pharms.	- D: natural or synthetic diamond (particle size: 1 or 50 μm); DPE: diamond paste electrode	54
Fe <sup>2+/3+</sup>	C/PO + Nf (1,10-phen)	SWASV, AD	- accum. (electrolytic redn) - anodic reoxidn.	6 × 10 <sup>-6</sup> – 2 × 10 <sup>-5</sup> M (2 × 10 <sup>-6</sup> M; 5 min)	fuel ethanol samples	- Nf: Nafion® (stabiliser of carbon paste in EtOH; results of analysis compared to reference AAS	423
Co <sup>2+</sup>	C/PO (Cyclam)	POT (dir., titr.)	- chemical equilibrium and steady-state potential for: Co <sup>2+</sup> ↔ Co <sup>II</sup> -Cyclam	6 × 10 <sup>-6</sup> – 0.1 M (3 × 10 <sup>-6</sup> M; --)	waste water (electroplating baths)	- Cyclam: agent entrapping Co <sup>2+</sup> via its ion-diameter; solns. cntg. 25% EtOH; Nerstian slope: 28.4 mV/dec.	424
Co <sup>2+</sup>	C/SO (+ PbF, in-situ)	CtAdSV	- accum. via compl.; electro-catalysis assisted el. redn. (nioxime / NO <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup> system)	1 × 10 <sup>-9</sup> – 5 × 10 <sup>-7</sup> M (4 × 10 <sup>-10</sup> M; 2 min)	model solns.	- s.e.: 0.1 M AmB + 5 × 10 <sup>-4</sup> M nioxime + 0.25 M KNO <sub>2</sub> ; detn. of Co <sup>II</sup> in presence of Ni + Zn at high excess	275
Co <sup>2+</sup>	C/PO (ZEs: 3 types)	ASV	- accum. via ion-exchange + sorption / el. redn.; - anodic reoxidn.	-- (3 ppm; 15 min)	model solns.	- ZEs: zeolites; characterisation by XRF + particle size-analysis	425
Ni <sup>2+</sup>	C/PO (Dowex 50W)	AdSV	- oc. accum by ion-pairing - redn. + reoxidn.	1-6000 μg L <sup>-1</sup> (5 ng L <sup>-1</sup> ; 12 min)	tap, mineral waters	- s.e.: 0.005 M HCl (pH 3) - interfs. from Hg <sup>II</sup> and Ag <sup>I</sup>	426
Ni <sup>2+</sup>	C/SO + MF (DMG, in situ)	DPCSV, CCSA	- ads. accum. by chelating - redn. (cathodic or $I_{CONST}$ )	(5 × 10 <sup>-7</sup> M; 60s)	crude oil (digested)	- coupled with MWD and buffering samples with NH <sub>4</sub> (to pH 9) and spiked with Ni <sup>2+</sup> ions	244
Ni <sup>2+</sup>	C/PO (DMG)	DPCSV, AD / HA	- accum. via chelating + adsorption; cathodic redn.	5 × 10 <sup>-9</sup> – 5 × 10 <sup>-7</sup> M (3 × 10 <sup>-9</sup> M; 25 min)	fuel ethanol samples	- DMG: dimethyl glyoxime; detn. compared with GF-AAS	427
Ni <sup>2+</sup>	C/PW(s) / AMTS (+ DMG, in-situ)	DPCSV	- accum. via adsorption (as Ni <sup>II</sup> -AMT) / MEX + DMG; deposition / cathodic redn.	8 × 10 <sup>-9</sup> – 1 × 10 <sup>-6</sup> M (2 × 10 <sup>-9</sup> M; 20 min)	fuel ethanol samples	- solid-like CPE (sTable 1n EtOH-solns.); AMTS: aminothiazole der. silica; intermediate transfer	105
Pt <sup>IV</sup> , Ir <sup>III</sup> , Os <sup>V</sup>	C/SO (CTAB, Septonex; applied in-situ)	DPCSV, POT (titr.)	- accum. via ion-pairing as CTA(Sept) <sup>+</sup> ; MeCl <sub>3</sub> ( <sup>36</sup> ) <sup>-</sup> / extraction; cathodic redn.	1-10 × 10 <sup>-6</sup> for Pt,Ir; 1-50 × 10 <sup>-8</sup> for Os; (5 × 10 <sup>-9</sup> M Os; 60s)	waste water (spiked)	- Septonex: 1-(ethoxycarbonyl)-penta-decyltrimethyl-ammonium bromide; s.e.: 0.1 M HCl	302, 428, 429

**Table 3.** Determination of the remaining metals at carbon paste electrodes and sensors: Survey of methods

Ion, sp. (form)	Type of CPE (modifier)	Technique (mode)	Measuring principles (method sequences)	Linearity range (LOD; $t_{acc}/t_R$ )	Sample(s) analysed	Other specification (remarks)	Refs.
Ru <sup>III</sup> , Rh <sup>III</sup> , Pd <sup>II</sup>	C/SO (CPyB; in-situ)	DPCSV	- accum. via ion-pairing as CPy <sup>+</sup> ; MeCl <sub>6</sub> <sup>3(4)-</sup> / sorpt.; - cathodic redn.	5-10×10 <sup>-7</sup> M Ru,Rh 1×10 <sup>-6</sup> M Pd; (--; 1 min)	model solns.	- CPyB: cetylpyridinium bromide; initial study on detn. of Me <sup>III(II)</sup>	428
Al <sup>3+</sup>	C/PW (s) (α-CD clp + ARS)	POT (dir.)	- accum. via inclusion and compl.; chem. equilibrium	1×10 <sup>-4</sup> - 0.1 M (8×10 <sup>-6</sup> M; --)	pharms.	- modif.: α-cyclodextrin cross-linked polymer mixed with Alizarin Red S	107
Ga <sup>3+</sup>	C/PO (ALC / ARS)	2 <sup>nd</sup> DLSV	- accum. via adsorption / complex.; cathodic redn. of the ligand (in modif.)	5-20×10 <sup>-10</sup> , 1-8×10 <sup>-7</sup> M (3×10 <sup>-10</sup> M, 4 min)	food samples	- modif.: Alizarine Complexon; high scan-rate (200 mV/s); s.e.: AcB + phthalate (pH 4.5); no Al <sup>III</sup> -interfs.	445, 446
Sc <sup>3+</sup>	C/PO (ARS, in situ)	2 <sup>nd</sup> DLSV	- adsort. accum. as compl. - cathodic redn. of ligand	1×10 <sup>-9</sup> - 4×10 <sup>-7</sup> M (6×10 <sup>-10</sup> M; 3 min)	minerals, CRM (ore sp.)	- ARS: Alizarin Red 'S'; s.e.: mixed acetate / phthalate buffer (pH 4-6)	447, 448
Th <sup>4+</sup>	C/PO (ALC, in situ)	AdSV	- accum. via adsorption / compl. of Th <sup>IV</sup> O-ALC; - cathodic redn. of ligand	3×10 <sup>-9</sup> - 8×10 <sup>-7</sup> M (5×10 <sup>-10</sup> M; 3 min)	clays, CRMs (ore sps.)	- ALC: Alizarin complexon reagent incl. interfs studies (10 Me-ions)	449, 450
U <sup>VI</sup> (UO <sub>2</sub> <sup>2+</sup> )	C/PW (s) (CPHA-MS)	AdSV (SWV)	- accum. via adsorption of the complex UO <sub>2</sub> -CPH; - cathodic redn.: U <sup>VI</sup> →U <sup>IV</sup>	5-50 ppb (1 ppb; 20 min)	model solns.	- CPHA-MS: carbamoyl-phosphonic acid in self-assembled mesoporous silica; no interfs. from Me-anions	106
Eu <sup>3+</sup>	C/PO (montmorillonite)	SWCSV	- accum. via adsorption to modif.; cathodic redn.:	1×10 <sup>-7</sup> - 2×10 <sup>-5</sup> M (4×10 <sup>-8</sup> M; --)	stream sediments	- modif.: natural zeolite; high selectivity over other rare-earth ions	451
Me <sub>(II)</sub> <sup>3+</sup> , Me <sub>(III)</sub> <sup>3+</sup>	C/PO (ALC, in situ)	AdSV	- adsort. accum. by compl. - anodic reoxidn.	ca. 1×10 <sup>-7</sup> M Me <sub>(II)</sub> ca. 5×10 <sup>-8</sup> M Me <sub>(III)</sub>	CRM (nodular cast iron)	- ALC: Alizarin Complexon (soln.) - rare earths quantified as a sum of both Me <sub>(II)</sub> and Me <sub>(III)</sub> ; individual ions not identified; AcB / phthalate	452
*) Me <sub>(II)</sub> ..... Y, Sc, Sm, Eu, Gd, Tb (light rare earths); Me <sub>(III)</sub> .... Dy, Ho, Er, Tm, Yb, Lu (heavy rare earths).							
Mg <sup>2+</sup>	C/PO (+ MeF) (TP; in-situ)	AdSV (SWV)	- accum. via adsorption of the Mg(OH) <sub>2</sub> -TP adduct; cathodic redn. of ligand	6×10 <sup>-9</sup> - 9×10 <sup>-8</sup> M (5×10 <sup>-9</sup> M; 1 min)	tap water, human urine	- TP: thiopentone; s.e.: PhB (pH 11); no interfs. of Al, Ca, Fe, Zn, Pb; indirect detn. (compared to AAS)	453
Ca <sup>2+</sup>	C/PO (ARS, in situ)	2 <sup>nd</sup> DLSV	- accum. via adsorption of Ca <sup>II</sup> -ARS; redn. of ligand	3×10 <sup>-8</sup> - 2×10 <sup>-6</sup> M (9×10 <sup>-9</sup> M; 1.5 min)	tap water; milk, human serum	- ARS: Alizarin Red 'S'; s.e.: 0.02 M KOH; regeneration in 0.2 M HCl	454
Li <sup>+</sup>	C/PO [λ-MnO <sub>2</sub> (spinel)]	CV, DPV, POT (dir.), FIA	- accum. redn. Mn <sup>IV</sup> →Mn <sup>III</sup> followed by intercalation (insertion) of Li <sup>+</sup> into the spinel structure; re-oxidn.	3×10 <sup>-6</sup> - 0.002 M (SV) 8×10 <sup>-5</sup> - 0.01 M (POT) (6×10 <sup>-7</sup> M; 30 / 5 s)	natural waters, pharms (tabs.)	- modif.: 25% λ-MnO <sub>2</sub> (m/m) in CP; - s.e.: borate buffer / Tris (pH 7-10) - no interferences by Me <sup>+</sup> / Me <sup>2+</sup> ions; POT: Nerstian slope, 79 mV/dec.	303, 455- 457
Na <sup>+</sup>	C/PW (s) (natural zeolite)	AD, FIA	- accum. via ion-exchange equivalent to Na <sup>+</sup> -conc.	1-50 ppm Na <sup>+</sup>	model solns.	- modif. dispersed in electrode bulk; - indirect detn. (via another analyte)	226

For other abbreviations and symbols, see the respective list at the end of the article

**Table 4.** Determination of non-metal ions, complexes, and molecules at carbon paste electrodes and sensors: Survey of Methods

Ion, sp. (form)	Type of CPE (modifier)	Technique (mode)	Measuring principles (method sequences)	Linearity range (LOD; $t_{acc}/t_R$ )	Sample(s) analysed	Other specification (remarks)	Refs.
Cl <sup>-</sup> , Br <sup>-</sup>	C/PO (Fec-CXP)	SWV	- functioning via modif. as redox receptor; binding X <sup>-</sup> anion and its oxidn.	10-100 μM Cl <sup>-</sup>	model solns.	- Fec-CXP: Ferrocene functionalised calix[4]pyrrole; interfs. by fluoride (as the single F <sup>-</sup> ion)	458
Br <sup>-</sup>	C/PO (Hg <sup>II</sup> -Py / PTC)	POT (titr.)	- PTC as carrier for Br <sup>-</sup> ion; - chem. equilibria between H <sup>+</sup> ↔ PTC-HBr	1×10 <sup>-5</sup> - 0.03 M (4×10 <sup>-6</sup> M; --)	tap water	- Py: pyridine, PTC: proton-transfer compound (not specified); opt. pH 4.0-8.3; Nerstian slope: 61 mV/pH	308

**Continued Table 4.** Determination of non-metal ions, complexes, and molecules at carbon paste electrodes and sensors. Survey of Methods

Ion, sp. (form)	Type of CPE (modifier)	Technique (mode)	Measuring principles (method sequences)	Linearity range (LOD; $t_{acc}/t_r$ )	Sample(s) analysed	Other specification (remarks)	Refs.
$I^-$ , $I_3^-$ (n = 3, 5)	C/TCP (binder as modif.)	DPCSV	- accum. via ion-pairing / extr. (after el. oxidn. $I^- \rightarrow I_2$ ) - cathodic redn. ( $I_2 \rightarrow I^-$ ) <sup>2</sup>	$5 \times 10^{-7}$ - $5 \times 10^{-5}$ M ( $3 \times 10^{-7}$ M; 5 min)	KI-ctng. tablets	- KI-tbs: distributed to people that live nearby nuclear power-plants; - incl. study on interfs. from $S_2O_3^{2-}$	100
$I^-$ , ( $IO_3^-$ )	C/TCP (binder as modif.)	SP (CCSA)	- accum. via ion-pairing / extr. (after electrode oxidn.); redn. by $I_{const}$	$3 \times 10^{-7}$ - $5 \times 10^{-5}$ M ( $1 \times 10^{-7}$ M; 5 min)	mineral water, table salts	- s.e.: 0.5 M NaCl + 0.1 M HCl - $IO_3^-$ chem. pre-red. with $N_2H_5^+$ - high selectivity (Cl : I = $10^5$ :1)	101
$I^-$	C/PO (LDH)	DPASV	- accum. via ion-pairing / MEX; anodic oxidn.	50 $\mu$ M - 1 mM (0.05 $\mu$ M; --)	ground, sea waters	- LDH: layer double hydroxide; - s.e.: chloride-based medium	459
$I^-$	C/PO (CTAB, in situ)	LSSV	- accum. via ion-pairing; - oxidn and extraction; cathodic redn.	$8 \times 10^{-9}$ - $5 \times 10^{-6}$ M ( $2 \times 10^{-9}$ M; 3 min)	table salts	- CTAB: cetyltrimethylammonium bromide; s.e.: 0.1 M NaCl; - incl. interf. studies of $X^-$ and $Y^-$	460
$I^-$ , $Q^+$ , $I_3^-$	C/PO (CTAI)	POT (dir.)	- ion-pairing of membr. type; - chemical equilibrium for: $I^- / I_3^- \leftrightarrow \{CTA^+; I^- / I_3^-\}$	$5 \times 10^{-5}$ - 0.1 M ( $4 \times 10^{-5}$ M, 30 s)	pharms. (relaxant)	- $Q^+$ : org. cation (ion-pair moiety) - CTAI: cetyltrimethyl ammonium iodide; Nerstian s.: -55 mV/dec.	305
$I^-$	D/PO (DPEs, 3 types)	DPASV	- accum. via electrolytic redn.; anodic reoxidn	( $1 \times 10^{-7}$ M; --)	vitamins, table salts	- D: natural or synthetic diamond, DPE: diamond paste electrode; no interfs. by $Cl^-$ and $Br^-$ ions	55
$I^-$	CP-composite ( $\mu$ Ag / n-Ag)	CV, HV AD / IC	- interaction Ag and $I^-$ ; redox behaviour of $I^- / I_2$ - el. oxidn. at $E_{const}$	0.64-64 $\mu$ g L <sup>-1</sup> (0.47 $\mu$ g L <sup>-1</sup> = 4 nM)	milk powder, CRM	- $\mu$ Ag / nAg: micro- / nano-silver powder; org. iodide-compounds also studied; $\mu$ -volume: 20 $\mu$ L	109
$IO_3^-$	C/PO (SGAm+PW <sub>12</sub> )	CV, AD, FIA	- electrocatalytic redn. with renewable modif.	$5 \times 10^{-6}$ - 0.001 M ( $3 \times 10^{-6}$ M; --)	model solns. (in stream)	- SGAm-PW <sub>12</sub> : phospho-wolframo- functionalised silicagel derivatised with amino-group (3-D modif.)	461
$ClO_3^-$ , $BrO_3^-$	C/PO (MMS+PMo <sub>12</sub> )	CV, DPV	- elchem. activity of modif. + catalytic effect	(1 $\mu$ M $XO_3^-$ )	model solns.	- PMo <sub>12</sub> : H <sub>3</sub> [P(Mo <sub>3</sub> O <sub>10</sub> ) <sub>4</sub> • nH <sub>2</sub> O - MMS: mesoporous molecular sieve	236
$CN^-$ , $I^-$	C/PO (+ membr.) (AgI / Ag <sub>2</sub> S mixt.)	POT (dir.)	- ion-pairing (at membrane); - chemical equilibrium for: $X^- \leftrightarrow AgX^-$ ; eq. potential	pX = 2.6-4.7 $CN^-$ , pX = 2.0-6.5 $I^-$ ( $t_r$ = ca 30 s)	model solns.	- Nerstian slopes: 69 (for $CN^-$ ) & 58 mV/dec ( $I^-$ ); indication of $CN^-$ requires regeneration of CP	306
$CN^-$	C/PO (Co <sup>II</sup> -TPPA)	POT (dir.)	- chemical equilibrium for: $CN^- \leftrightarrow CoTPPA-CN$ adduct	$2 \times 10^{-5}$ - 0.01 M ( $9 \times 10^{-6}$ M; 5 s)	mineral water	- TPPA: 3,4-tetra pyridino-porphira- zinate; no interfs of Cl, Br, I, and $SCN^-$ ; Nerstian s.: 60 mV / dec.	307
$S^{2-}$	C/PO (FePC)	CV, POT (dir.)	- catalytic effect + oxidn. - equilibrium potential	$1 \times 10^{-6}$ - 0.005 M (--)	model solns.	- FePC: Fe <sup>II</sup> -phthalocyanine; detn. of $S^{2-}$ -org. compds. also studied	327
$S_2O_8^{2-}$	C/PO (Ru <sup>II</sup> (phen) <sub>3</sub> Cl <sub>2</sub> )	ECL-D	- ECL-effect by strongly oxidative intermediate	$1 \times 10^{-5}$ - 0.001 M (--)	model solns.	- phen: phenanthroline; s.e.: pH 4-6	462
$SO_4^{2-}$	C/PO (Cr <sup>III</sup> -SBC)	POT (dir., titr.)	- chemical equilibrium for: $SO_4^{2-} \leftrightarrow Cr-SB-SO_4$ adduct;	$2 \times 10^{-6}$ - 0.05 M ( $9 \times 10^{-7}$ M; 10 s)	mineral water	- SBC: Schiff base complex (N,N'-ethylene-bis(5-hydroxy-salicylidene-iminate); pH 4-9	309
$SO_3^{2-}$	C/PO (BFEFM)	CV, CA DPV	- electrocatalysis-assisted oxidn. of $SO_3^{2-}$ anion	$4 \times 10^{-6}$ - 0.01 M ( $2 \times 10^{-7}$ M, DPV)	real sample	- BFEFM: bis (ferrocenyl-ethyl)-fluorenone; kinetic parameters evaluated; opt. pH 8.0	463
$SO_3^{2-}$	C/PO (Fec-EPhE)	CV, DPV	- electrocatalysis-assisted oxidn. of $SO_3^{2-}$ anion	$4 \times 10^{-6}$ - $1 \times 10^{-4}$ M ( $2 \times 10^{-7}$ M, DPV)	model solns.	- Fec-EPhE: 1-[4-(ferrocenyl-ethynyl) phenyl]-ethanone; kinetic parameters evaluated; pH 8.0	464
$SO_3^{2-}$	C/PW (s) [Ni <sup>II</sup> -Fe(aq) (CN) <sub>3</sub> ]	CV, CA LSV, FIA	- electrocatalysis-assisted oxidn. of $SO_3^{2-}$ anion	$3 \times 10^{-6}$ - 0.003 M ( $9 \times 10^{-7}$ M, LSV)	real samples	- modif. characterised by XRD,UV s.e.: PhB (pH 8-10); long $t_r$	465

**Continued Table 4.** Determination of non-metal ions, complexes, and molecules at carbon paste electrodes and sensors. Survey of Methods

Ion, sp. (form)	Type of CPE (modifier)	Technique (mode)	Measuring principles (method sequences)	Linearity range (LOD; $t_{acc}$ / $t_R$ )	Sample(s) analysed	Other specification (remarks)	Refs.
$HPO_4^{2-}$	C/PO ( $\mu$ E-conf.) [P(Mo <sub>3</sub> O <sub>10</sub> ) <sub>4</sub> ] <sup>3-</sup>	CV, BIA, FIA	- precipitation via complex; indirect detn. via its redn.	1-20 $\mu$ M (0.3 $\mu$ M; --)	sea water, bacterial bio-films	- intefs. from SiO <sub>4</sub> <sup>4-</sup> suppressed by HNO <sub>3</sub> + MoO <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup> ; bio-films collected in Roman catacombs	466
$HPO_4^{2-}$	C/PO + BE P(Mo <sub>3</sub> O <sub>10</sub> ) <sub>4</sub> / BUR	CV, ECL-D	- ECL-signal (BUR oxidn); - indirect detn. of $HPO_4^{2-}$	$2 \times 10^{-10}$ - $1 \times 10^{-8}$ M ( $8 \times 10^{-11}$ M; ECL)	water samples	- BE: benzene; BUR: Butyl-Rhod- amine 'B'; ECL: electrochemilumi- nescence; opt. s.e.: pH > 10	467
H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub>	C/PO (Rh-Blue)	CV, AD, FIA	- electrocatalytic effect - amperometric oxidn.	$5 \times 10^{-5}$ - $9 \times 10^{-4}$ M ( $3 \times 10^{-5}$ $\mu$ M--)	model solns.	- Rh-Blue: Rh <sup>III</sup> [Ru <sup>II</sup> (CN) <sub>6</sub> ] <sub>3</sub> - modif. deposited electrolytically	468
H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub>	C/PO (Ni-calix[4] arene)	CV, DPV	- electrocatalytic effect - anodic oxidn.	$2 \times 10^{-6}$ - $1 \times 10^{-4}$ M ( $1 \times 10^{-6}$ M; --)	rain water	- L: 5, 11, 17, 23-tetra- tert-butyl-25, 2,7- bis(diethylcarbamoylmethoxy); 0.05 M NaClO <sub>4</sub> + 0.001 M NaOH	469
H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub>	C/PO (n-CM / Mn- ox.)	CV, AD	- electrocatalysis-assisted oxidn. of H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub> ( $E_{const}$ )	$1 \times 10^{-5}$ - $7 \times 10^{-4}$ M ( $2 \times 10^{-6}$ M; 10 s)	model solns.	- n-CM / Mn-oxides: nanostructured manganese(II,IV) oxides of Crypto- melane type, 5 % (m/m) in CPE	470
O <sub>2</sub>	C/PO (MPP-si-Sb <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> )	CA, LSV	- electrocatalytic reduction of O <sub>2</sub> via modif. effect	1-13 mg L <sup>-1</sup> ( < 1 mg L <sup>-1</sup> )	water solns (with dissolved O <sub>2</sub> )	- MPP: tetrakis(1-methyl-4-pyridyl) 21H, 23H-porphine immobilised by sol-gel method; 4-el. oxidn.	471
O <sub>2</sub>	C/PO (CTAB; in-situ)	CV, LSV	- electrocatalytic reduction of O <sub>2</sub> via effect of modif. (charged as CTAB <sup>+</sup> )	1-10 mM	water solns.	- CTAB: cetyltrimethylammonium bromide; modif. attached using hydrophobic adsorption	472
O <sub>2</sub>	C/PO (SiO <sub>2</sub> / Nb <sub>2</sub> O <sub>5</sub> )	CV, CA, LSV	- electrocatalytic reduction of O <sub>2</sub> via effect of modif.	1-14 mg L <sup>-1</sup> ( < 1 mg L <sup>-1</sup> ; 5 s)	model solns.	- immobilised by sol-gel method; 2-el. process; s.e.: 1 M KCl	473
NO <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup>	C/PO (Ru <sup>II</sup> -BPD)	CV, FIA	- electrocatalytic effect - cathodic redn.	( $1 \times 10^{-5}$ M; --)	model solns.	- modif.: [Ru(bipy) <sub>2</sub> dppz] <sup>2+</sup> polymer - s.e.: HCl-based medium	474
NO <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup>	C/PO (Mb + colloid- Au)	CV	- electrocatalytic effect - cathodic redn.	10-110 $\mu$ M	model solns.	- Mb: myoglobin - s.e.: 0.1 m BR-buffer (pH 7)	475
NO <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup>	C/PO (+ membr.)	LSV	- electrolytic oxidn. within the LSV-scan	14 ppb (3 ppm)	cured meat (preserved by NO <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup> )	- cellulose-acetate membrane; stabilisation soln.: AA + m-PhA + EDTA; compared with UV-VIS	476
NO <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup>	C/PO (MPP-si-SnO <sub>2</sub> )	CA, LSV (with RDE)	- electrocatalytic reduction of O <sub>2</sub> via modif. effect	(50 $\mu$ M; --)	model solns.	- MPP: tetrakis(1-methyl-4-pyridyl) 21H, 23H-porphine ion; studies on mechanism and rc. kinetics	477
NO <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup>	C/PO (DAN)	DPV, FIA	- formation of triazole der. and its electrolytic oxidn.	(0.2 mM; --)	real samples	- DAN: 2,3-diammino- naphthalene; in FIA-mode: up to 150 detns./ h.	478
NO <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup>	C/PO Fe(CN) <sub>6</sub> <sup>3-</sup> ; in-situ	CV, CA	- electrocatalytic reduction of NO <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup> via modif. effect.	$5 \times 10^{-5}$ - 0.001 M ( $3 \times 10^{-5}$ M, --)	model solns.	- overpotential lowered for 700 mV; reaction at higher pH; mechanism, kinetic, and activity coeffs. ( $y_{\pm}$ )	479
NO <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup>	C/PO (poly-o-TO)	CV, CA	- electrocatalytic reduction of NO <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup> via modif. effect.	$5 \times 10^{-4}$ - 0.02 M ( $3 \times 10^{-4}$ M, --)	real samples	- poly-o-TO: poly(ortho-toluidine); redn requires highly acidic solns	480
NO <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup>	C/PO (PW-12)	CV, CA	- electrocatalytic redn. of NO <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup> by modif. (mediator)	$3 \times 10^{-5}$ - 0.001 M ( $3 \times 10^{-5}$ M, 2 s)	water samples	- PW-12: H <sub>3</sub> [P(Mo <sub>3</sub> O <sub>10</sub> ) <sub>4</sub> ]; H <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>4</sub> ; electrocatalysis evaluated via reaction kinetics	481
NO <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup>	C/PO (V <sup>VO</sup> -SBC)	CV, LSV	- electrocatalytic reduction of NO <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup> via modif. effect.	$4 \times 10^{-6}$ - 0.004 M ( $6 \times 10^{-7}$ M, --)	model solns.	- SBC: Schiff base complex; mechanism, diffusivity, kinetics and electrocatalysis studied.	482
NO <sub>x</sub>	C/PO (Ni-DFTAA)	CV, FIA	- electrocatalytic oxidn. / redn. via modif. effect	(down to 1 $\mu$ M)	aqueous solns.	- modif.: 6, 17- diferrocenyldibenzo- 5,9,14,18- tetraaza[14]annulen-Ni <sup>II</sup>	483

**Continued Table 4.** Determination of non-metal ions, complexes, and molecules at carbon paste electrodes and sensors. Survey of Methods

Ion, sp. (form)	Type of CPE (modifier)	Technique (mode)	Measuring principles (method sequences)	Linearity range (LOD; $t_{acc} / t_r$ )	Sample(s) analysed	Other specification (remarks)	Refs.
NH <sub>4</sub> <sup>+</sup>	C/PO (NH <sub>4</sub> HPO <sub>4</sub> + si-SnO <sub>2</sub> )	POT (dir., titr.)	- chemical equilibrium for: NH <sub>4</sub> <sup>+</sup> (soln.) ↔ NH <sub>4</sub> <sup>+</sup> (E-bulk)	8 × 10 <sup>-7</sup> –0.04 M (2 × 10 <sup>-7</sup> M, 60 s)	natural waters	- modif.: prepared by the sol.-gel method; $k^{pot}$ coeffs evaluated; sub-Nernstian response for ISE	304
NH <sub>2</sub> OH, N <sub>2</sub> H <sub>4</sub>	C/PO (coumestan)	CV, BA DPV	- electrocatalytic oxidation of N <sup>-III</sup> -I via modif. effect	0.2-15 mM NH <sub>2</sub> OH (–)	model solns.	- mechanism, reaction kinetics + catalytic activity being studied	484
N <sub>2</sub> H <sub>4</sub>	C/PO (Nb <sup>v</sup> , si + H <sub>2</sub> TCPP)	CV, FIA	- electrocatalytic effect - anodic oxidn.	1 × 10 <sup>-5</sup> - 5 × 10 <sup>-4</sup> M	aqueous solns. (pH 7)	- modif.: meso-tetracarboxyphenyl- porphyrin + grafted silica / Nb <sub>2</sub> O <sub>5</sub>	485
N <sub>2</sub> H <sub>4</sub>	C/PO (+ SX-pol.) (Fe-tSPhP / SiAl)	CV, CA	- electrocatalytic oxidation of N <sub>2</sub> H <sub>4</sub> via modif. effect	5 × 10 <sup>-5</sup> - 6 × 10 <sup>-4</sup> M (3 × 10 <sup>-5</sup> M, –)	model solns.	- tSPhP: tetrakis-(2,6-difluoro-3-sulfo-natophenyl)porphyrinate on SiO <sub>2</sub> /Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> / siloxan polymer	486
N <sub>2</sub> H <sub>4</sub>	C/PO (Co <sup>II</sup> -Pc)	CV, AD / CZE	- electrocatalytic oxidation of N <sub>2</sub> H <sub>4</sub> via modif. effect	20-200 μM N <sub>2</sub> H <sub>4</sub> (10 μM i n PhB)	model solns, water samples	- Pc: Phthalocyanine; method for "on-chip" separation and usable for org. R- / Ar-hydrazines	487
N <sub>2</sub> H <sub>4</sub>	C/PO (Cu <sup>II</sup> /Co <sup>II</sup> -HCF)	CV, CA, CCP	- electrocatalytic oxidation of N <sub>2</sub> H <sub>4</sub> via modif. effect	0.1-12 mM N <sub>2</sub> H <sub>4</sub> (–)	model solns.	HCF: hexacyanoferrate; s.e.: PhB (pH 7); mechanism, react. kinetics and diffusion processes studied	488
N <sub>2</sub> H <sub>4</sub>	C/PO (Q / HQ)	CV, CA, DPV	- electrocatalytic oxidation of N <sub>2</sub> H <sub>4</sub> via modif. effect	7 × 10 <sup>-6</sup> - 8 × 10 <sup>-4</sup> M (5 × 10 <sup>-6</sup> M, for DPV)	waste waters	- s.e.: buffer (pH 10); overpotential lowered for >500 mV; water was sampled at wood- & paper factory	489
N <sub>2</sub> H <sub>4</sub>	C/PO (Co <sup>II</sup> -Pc)	CV, LSV	- electrocatalytic oxidation of N <sub>2</sub> H <sub>4</sub> via modif. effect	1 × 10 <sup>-4</sup> - 1 × 10 <sup>-5</sup> M (7 × 10 <sup>-5</sup> M, –)	industrial boiler feed water	- Pc: Phthalocyanine; redn. in highly alkaline solns. (pH 13); no interfs. from common ions	490

For other abbreviations and symbols, see the respective list at the end of the article

the fact that carbon paste still represents one of the most popular electrode materials with almost unlimited applicability in basic research, highly specialised investigations, as well as in practically oriented electroanalysis as documented in Tables 1-4. Secondly, the recent turbulences in the area of CPEs, CMCPES, CP-biosensors, and CP- detectors have shown that carbon paste is also one of the most flexible substrates. This can be illustrated by the fact that the respective activities with carbon pastes have already absorbed innumerable outputs coming from progressive and new technologies. Starting with developments of novel types of electrodes, including various innovations of these configurations, continuing *via* a massive testing of new modifiers and mediators, up to the introduction of completely new carbon paste mixtures, in which both graphite and binder moieties are replaced by alternate materials.

Finally, a deeper analysis of the recent databases, together with older archives, allows us to speculate on some up-coming trends and future prospects, when the following directions and trends can be outlined:

(i) Development of new methods and procedures that obey criteria of the green-chemistry concept; especially, in the area of environmental inorganic analysis with metal-modified electrodes that would alternate or – more likely replace – the mercury-based analogues.

(ii) Further adaptations of the already existing methods in terms of improved performance, combination with other techniques, compatibility with analysers of new generation, or even acceptability given by actual economic and ecologic demands. In this respect, a majority of carbon pastes have great promise as a cheap, easy-to-prepare, and – in the native form – also almost non-toxic material.

(iii) Regarding future trends in practical analysis with CPEs, one can get a rough estimate by comparing the abundance of the individual methods for particular analytes or groups of analytes. For inorganic ion and molecules, this is feasible by means of Tables I-IV presented above, whereas for organic, pharmaceutical and biological compounds that have not been surveyed here, it can be seen in the actual reviews [40,41] or,

eventually, *via* some original papers reporting on analyses of typical substances of interest (see *e.g.* [491-500]).

(iv) A growing role of carbon pastes as a laboratory platform during the development, testing, and later mass production of new types of screen-printed electrodes, sensors, and integrated cells based on carbonaceous materials.

(v) More intensive efforts in the use of new carbon paste-like formulations *versus* the traditional carbon paste mixtures, when one or even both main components will be substituted by alternate substances. This approach is already feasible at present, as shown with some mixtures containing new forms of carbon and / or ionic liquids.

And it is possible that such a mixture of so-far unknown type would be someday applicable as a fluid to the dropping carbon electrode (DCE) – a non-mercury variant of the DME and hitherto unrealised Adams' vision which had once led to the discovery of the carbon pastes themselves [2-5].

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## Abbreviation & symbols used

**A)** a: stoichiometric coefficient; AAS: atomic absorption spectrometry; acc(um): accumulation (pre-concentration); AcB: acetate buffer; AD: amperometric (potentiostatic) detection; AdSV: adsorptive stripping voltammetry; AFM: atomic force microscopy; am.: amorphous; AmAc: ammonium acetate; AmB: ammonia buffer; (aq): aqua (H<sub>2</sub>O); ASV: anodic stripping voltammetry; AuF: gold film; AuF-CPE: gold film-plated carbon paste electrode.

**B)** b: stoichiometric coefficient; BIA: batch injection analysis; Bi-CPE: bismuth powder- modified carbon paste electrode; Bi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>-CPE: bismuth oxide-modified carbon paste electrode; BiF: bismuth film; BiF-CPE: bismuth film-plated carbon paste electrode; Bi-PE: bismuth paste electrode; BRB: *Britton-Robinson* buffer.

**C)** C: carbon (graphite); CA: chronoamperometry;

CCP: classical (stripping) chrono-potentiometry; CCSA: constant current stripping analysis; CD: cyclodextrine; chem.: chemical; CILE(s): carbon ionic-liquid electrode(s); CMCPE(s), chemically modified carbon paste electrode(s); coeff.: coefficient; compl.: complexation, complexed; conc.: concentration, concentrated; CNTs: carbon nanotubes; CN(T)PE(s): carbon nanotube paste electrode(s); CP: carbon paste; CPE(s): carbon paste electrode(s); CPEE: carbon paste electroactive electrode; CP-ISE(s): carbon paste ion-selective electrode(s); C/PO: carbon paste, paraffin oil-based mixture; CP-UMEs: carbon paste ultramicro-electrodes; C/SO: carbon paste, silicone oil-based mixture; CRM(s): certified reference material(s); CtAdSV: (electro)catalysis-assisted adsorptive stripping voltammetry; CTAB: cetyl-trimethyl-ammonium bromide; ctng.: containing; CV: cyclic voltammetry; COU: coulometry; CZE: capillary zone electrophoresis.

**D)** D: diamond; DCE, dropping carbon electrode; dec.: decade; der.: derivative; detn.: determination, determined; dir.: direct; 2<sup>nd</sup>-DLSV: second order-differential linear-scan voltammetry; DME, dropping mercury electrode; DNA, deoxyribonucleic acid; DPE: diamond paste electrode; DPV: differential pulse voltammetry; DPA(C) SV: differential pulse anodic(cathodic) stripping voltammetry.

**E)**  $E_{CONST}$ : constant potential (potentiostatic mode); ECL-D: electrochemiluminescence (signal) detection; EDTA: ethylene-diamminotetraacetic acid; EIS: electrochemical impedance spectroscopy; EH-CPE: electrically heated carbon paste electrode; el./elec.: electron / electrolysis, electrolytic; eq.: equilibrium; ESA: electrochemical stripping analysis; EtOH: ethanol.

**F)** Fc: ferrocene; FIA: flow injection analysis; Fig(s): figure(s); FT-IR: Fourier transform infrared (spectroscopy).

**G)** g: gram; GF: graphite furnace; GrE: groove electrode.

**H)** Hb: hemoglobin; HA(V): hydrodynamic amperometry (voltammetry); HPLC: high performance liquid chromatography.

**I a J)** i: stoichiometric coefficient;  $I_{CONST}$ : constant current; IL(s): ionic liquid(s); interfs.: interferences (interference effects); incl.: including; IC: ion-chromatography; IR: infrared (spectroscopy); ISE: ion-selective electrode; j: stoichiometric coefficient.

**K)**  $k^{POT}_i$ : (potentiometric) selectivity coefficient.

**L)** L: liter; L: ligand; LSV: linear scan (sweep) voltammetry.; LOD: limit of detection; LOQ: limit of quantification (determination).

**M)** m: milli; M: molar concentration [mol L<sup>-1</sup>]; m-: meta; MCM-41: (commercial) molecular sieve; mE: mini-electrode; MF: mercury film; MeF: metallic film; memb.:

membrane; MeOH: methanol; MEx: medium exchange; MI-CPE: magnet-incorporated carbon paste electrode; min.: minute; mixt.: mixture; m/m: mass ratio; modif.: modifier, modified; ms.: mesoporous; MWD: microwave-assisted digestion (decomposition).

**N**) n: counting coefficient; n-: nano; NAD(H): nicotinamide dinucleotide; NMR: nuclear magnetic resonance.

**O**) o- ortho; o.c.: open-circuit; opt.: optimum, optimal; org.: organic; ox: oxide; oxidn.: oxidation.

**P**) p-: para; PbF: lead film; PbF-CPE: lead film-plated carbon paste electrode; Pc: phthalocyanine; PhB: phosphate buffer; pharm(s): pharmaceutical(s); ph / Ph: phenol, phenyl; pH: acidity /alkalinity unit; pharm(s): pharmaceutical formulation(s); phen: phenanthroline; PO: paraffin oil (binder); POT: potentiometry; ppm: part-per-million (concentration unit); ppb: part-per-billion (conc. unit); PSA: potentiometric stripping analysis (with chemical oxidation); PW: paraffin wax; pX:  $-\log [X]$ ; py / Py: pyridine.

**Q**) Q / HQ: quinone / hydroquinone; QPu: quadra-pure.

**R**) R: (electric) ohmic resistance; RDE: rotated disc electrode; red.: reduced; redn.: reduction; regnt.: regeneration, regenerated; reoxidn.: reoxidation; RSD: relative standard deviation [%]; RTIL(s): room-temperature ionic liquid(s).

**S**) s: second; (s): solid state; Sb-CPE: antimony powder-modified carbon paste electrode; Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>-CPE: antimony oxide-modified carbon paste electrode; SbF: antimony film; SbF-CPE: antimony film-plated carbon paste electrode; s-CPE: solid-like carbon paste

electrode; sep.: separation / separated; s.e.: supporting electrolyte; s.s.: sample solution; sp.: species; sp(s): specimen(s); SEC: spectroelectro-chemistry; SECM: scanning electrochemical microscopy; SEM: scanning electron microscopy; simult.: simultaneous; SO: silicone oil; SX: siloxane; SP: stripping potentiometry; SPE(s): screen-printed electrode(s); soln(s): solution(s); sorpt.: (ad)sorption; stac.: stationary; STM: scanning tunneling microscopy; SV: stripping voltammetry; SWV: square-wave voltammetry; SWA(C)SV: square-wave anodic(cathodic) stripping voltammetry.

**T**) t<sub>ACC</sub>: accumulation time (period); tab.: table; tb(s): tablet(s); TCP: tricresyl phosphate; t<sub>L</sub>: life-time; t<sub>REQ</sub>: response / equilibrium time; TCP: tricresyl phosphate; TG: thermogravimetry; titr.: titration, titrated; TRIS: buffer (commercial formulation); t<sub>EQ</sub>: equilibrium time.

**U**) un.: unmodified (bare, pure); UV/VIS: ultraviolet / visible spectrometry.

**V**) V: volt (electrical unit); var.: various; v/v: volume ratio.

**W**) W: wax.

**X**) XPS: X-ray (roentgen) probe spectroscopy; XRF: X-ray fluorescence.

**Y**) y<sub>±</sub>: activity coefficient.

**Z**) ZE: zeolite.

• *Other symbols*: -- ... not specified, not found; 3-D: three dimensional; β: stability (complexity) constant; μ: micro; <sup>I,II ... N</sup>: valence (oxidation state); <sup>n,m +/-</sup>: ion charge.

## References

Thanks to willingness of the Editorial board of the CEJC, the authors were allowed to prepare their list of references in atypical form – as the full-text versions, presenting also the respective title for each article. It is believed that such exceptional approach, offering a lot of additional information, will be appreciated mainly by the readers themselves.

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