

Analytical, Nutritional and Clinical Methods

Determination of Ge(IV) in rice in a mercury-coated glassy carbon electrode in the presence of catechol

Suw Young Ly ^{a,*}, Sang Su Song ^a, Sung kuk Kim ^a,
Young Sam Jung ^a, Chang Hyun Lee ^b

^a Department of fine Chemistry, School of Applied Chemical Engineering, Seoul National University of Technology, 172, gongreung 2 dong, Nowon gu, Seoul 139-743, South Korea

^b Pyongtaek University, Division of General Education

Received 2 October 2004; received in revised form 11 January 2005; accepted 14 February 2005

Abstract

Electrochemical adsorptive cathodic stripping voltammetry determination of Ge(IV) using the catechol complex on a mercury-coated (MC) electrode was prepared using a glassy carbon electrode (GCE), the peak potential of which was -0.5 V vs. Ag/AgCl on MCGCE. The various parameters of the catechol concentration, its pH, and others were optimized. The linear working ranges were obtained in the concentration of $2\text{--}700$ $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ Ge(IV). The relative standard deviation at the Ge(IV) concentration of 50 $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ was 1.37% ($n = 15$) using the optimum condition, and the detection limit was found to be 0.6 $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ (8.26×10^{-9} M) ($S/N = 3$), with an adsorption time of 180 s. The Ge(IV) response was highly linear. This developed method was applied to Ge(IV) to determine the presence of rice grains.

© 2005 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

Keywords: Stripping voltammetry; Mercury coated glassy carbon; Ge(IV); Catechol

1. Introduction

A highly sensitive method of determining Ge(IV) is required in biological, ore, electronic, and other forms of science. Ge(IV) is an important trace metal element in the human body, and an important semiconductor in industry, among its other uses. Its rare earth elements are composed in the atmosphere, seas, plants, and ore (Sri, Satoshi, Hiroshige, & Shigeru, 1997). In food science, its trace determination is important in the biological functions of anticarcinogenic and hygienic food (Li Zaijun, Pan Jiaomai, & Tang Jan, 2001), because its accumulation of and deficiency in germanium results in diseases and tumor formation or cancer (Jinhui & Kui, 1995). Thus, various analytical methods

have been developed for its assay, such as, for example, the graphite furnace AAS method (De qiang & Zhe, 1996), the hydride generation atomic fluorescence spectrometry method (Shi, Tang, Tan, Chi, & Jin, 2002), the spectrophotometric method (Li Zaijun et al., 2001; Xiaoli, Yuanqian, Menglong, Bo, & Jingguo, 2004), the luminol chemiluminescence flow method (Terufumi, Kiyomi, Takahiro, & Hiroyuki, 1996), and Raman spectroscopy with X-ray diffractometry (Bhagavannarayana, Dietrich, Zaumseil, & Dombrowski, 1999), which are applied in standard reagents, food, cattle liver, seaweeds, reference materials, rice, wines, and electronic devices. All of these techniques, however, require very complicated systems, such as the pre-treatment separation system, high-temperature atomization system, fluid compression, photometric detection, and other data control systems. Faster as well as more inexpensive and sensitive analytical

* Corresponding author. Fax: +82 2 973 9149.

E-mail address: suwyong@snut.ac.kr (S.Y. Ly).

methods are now required in analytical science. The other hand-stripping voltammetric measurements are powerful methods for trace analysis (Abo El-Maali, Abd El-Hady, Abd El-Hamid, & Seliem, 2000; Joseph, Beatriz, Suw, Jianmin, & Jose, 2001; Suw et al., 2004; Suw, Duck, & Myung, 2002; Joseph Wang et al., 2000; Zhongmin, Carl, & William, 1998). The advantages of using voltammetry methods are their pre-concentration procedure, their low cost, and their speed. Whichever of these systems is integrated with the three-electrode cell systems, its working electrode would be a major factor in the detection of trace elements. Thus, various working sensors have been developed, such as the hanging mercury drop electrode method (Chang, Qian, & LiLing, 1995; Jesus, Josefa, & Juan, 1999), the catalytic stripping and polarographic method, and the complex formation hanging mercury drop electrode method (Alan, Steven, Newman, & Michael, 1998; Bhagavannarayana et al., 1999; Jinhui & Kui, 1995). All these methods use the hanging mercury drop electrode, even though mercury is a very toxic element, and treatments using it are uncomfortable. The mercury-plated surface on the electrode, however, may influence response increase and lower narrow peak, although its preparation is simple. In this study, a more sensitive and accurate procedure for determining Ge(IV) was developed using the interfacial accumulation of the Ge(IV)-catalytic complex formations (Jesus et al., 1999; Jesus, Josefa, & Juan, 2001a, Jesus, Josefa, & Juan, 2001b) on the mercury-coated glassy carbon electrodes (Helena, Sandra, Luciana, & Armando, 2004; Othman, 2003; Pavel, Ludek, Hana, & Miroslav, 2003; Sandra, Helena, Joao, & Armando, 2004). A low detection limit was achieved, and although toxic dropping mercury was not used, similar detection limits were arrived at. These developed methods were applied in rice determination in specially cultured grains. The developed methods can be used in any other field, such as in those related to food, the environment, agriculture, medicine, and analytical science. Finally, the analytical results were compared with those of the other common methods of voltammetry and spectrophotometry.

try. Table 1 shows their sensitivity, working ranges, and detection methods. Other common voltammetric methods use only dropping mercury electrodes, which are toxic and uncomfortable. Moreover, another commonly used method, spectrophotometry, is complicated. This developed method did not use mercury dropping, but arrived at similarly sensitive results.

2. Experimental section

2.1. Apparatus, reagents, and procedure

Experimental measurements were performed with a BAS 100 BW (bio-analytical system). A three-electrode system was used to monitor the voltammetric signal. The working electrode was an MCGCE. The reference electrode was an Ag/AgCl electrode (saturated KCl), and the auxiliary electrode was used as a platinum wire. The experimental solution was prepared from double-distilled water (18 M ohm cm^{-1}). The mercury-coated standard stock solution was obtained from Aldrich, and was diluted within the required time. A solution of 400-mg L^{-1} mercury, which was used for the coated electrodes, was prepared by diluting the corresponding standard stock atomic absorption solution of 1 g L^{-1} . The 0.1-M acetate acid solution (pH: 2.0) served as the supporting electrolyte. The GCE was polished with a $0.05\text{-}\mu\text{m Al}_2\text{O}_3$ slurry that was washed with double-distilled water. The three-electrode system was immersed in a 15-mL cell, which contained 400 mg L^{-1} of standard mercury in a 0.1-M HCl solution. Its coating potential was -1.10 V , and its coating time, 180 s, while the solution was being stirred. The three-electrode system was then moved to the new cell, which contained a 0.1-M acetic acid solution with a pH of 1.7, following the pre-concentration step in which the usual time of 180 s was used, and the deposition potential [the initial potential of -0.2 V and the final potential of -0.7 V for measurements of Ge(IV)] was applied to the working electrode. A voltammogram was used to record a square-wave scan with a 12-Hz frequency, a 40-mV amplitude, and a 4-mV potential step.

Table 1
Comparison of the developed MCGCE method with the conventional voltammetry and spectrophotometry methods

Methods	Detection limit	Working ranges	Electrode or system	Reference
MCGCE	$0.6 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ ($8.26 \times 10^{-9} \text{ M}$)	$2\text{--}700 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ Ge(IV)	Catechol complex	(This method)
Catechol-NaBrO ₃	$1.0 \times 10^{-9} \text{ M}$	$1.0 \times 10^{-9}\text{--}7.0 \times 10^{-6} \text{ M}$	Mercury drop	Jinhui and Kui (1995)
DHB	$5 \times 10^{-11} \text{ M}$	$1 \times 10^{-10}\text{--}1 \times 10^{-8} \text{ M}$	Mercury drop	Changqing et al. (1995)
Pyrogallol complex	$1.2 \times 10^{-9} \text{ M}$	–	Mercury drop	Chang et al. (1995)
Hg-AFS	$0.11 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$	–	Atomic fluorescence	Shi et al. (2002)
Chemiluminescence	$50.0 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$	–	Ion chromatography	Terufumi et al. (1996)
HGAAS	$0.59 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$	$4\text{--}140 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$	Atomic absorption spectrometry	Elif and Muvet (2000)
UV-Vis	$0.4 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$	$4\text{--}140 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$	UV-Vis spectrophotometer	Ying et al. (2000)

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Cyclic voltammetric mercury and catechol effects on glassy carbon electrodes

First, various electrolyte solutions of phosphate potassium, and other acid-based electrolyte solutions, were examined, and optimized solutions were obtained for the acetic acid solutions. The ionic activities of various electrolyte solutions were then tested, and the 0.1-M factors responded very actively. The effects of the cyclic voltammetric mercury-coated electrodes and the catechol complex were then examined. Fig. 1(a) shows the responses. First, in Fig. 1(a), no signal was detected in the glassy carbon-based voltammograms in the electrolyte solution; in Fig. 1(b), a small amount of the 200-mg L⁻¹ Ge(IV) standard was spiked, even though no signal was obtained and the area increased; in Fig. 1(c), the 1-mg L⁻¹ catechol solutions were spiked, and at this time, small peak signals of -0.5 V appeared, while no increase in peak current was obtained; in Fig. 1(d), the mercury-coated electrode was tested, and in this solution, to which catechols were not added, small peak signals of -0.7 V were obtained; and in Fig. 1(e), the 1-mg L⁻¹ catechol was spiked, and quickly increasing peak signals appeared, just as with the catechol-Ge(IV), in which catalytic peak currents appeared (Jesus et al., 1999).

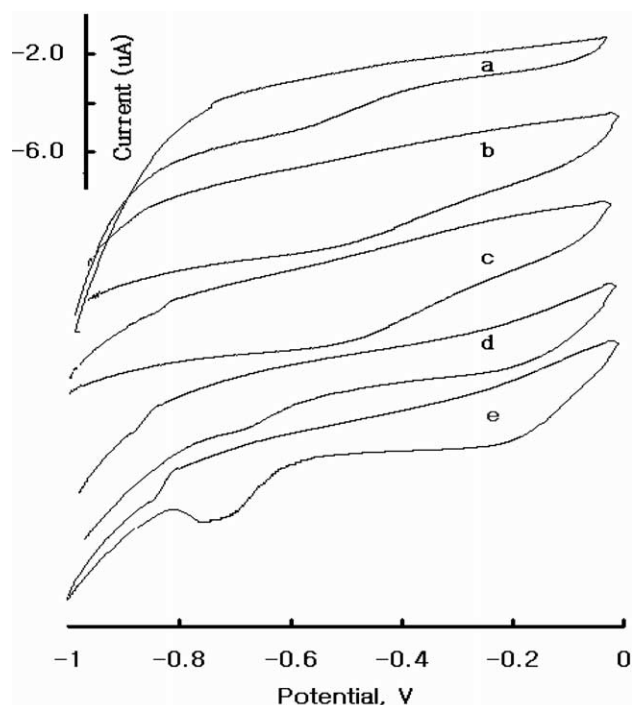


Fig. 1. Cyclic voltammetric effects for various conditions: (a) a glassy carbon base in an electrolyte solution; (b) at 200-mg L⁻¹ Ge(IV) on glassy carbon; (c) at b, and with 1-mg L⁻¹ catechol added; (d) at c, and an Hg(II)-coated electrode; and (e) at d, and with 1-mg L⁻¹ catechol added. The scan rate was 100 mV s⁻¹ for 0.1-M acetic acid (pH: 1.7).

Moreover, the cyclic voltammetric scan rates were compared, and an optimum rate of 100 mVs⁻¹ was obtained. All other stripping optimizations and applications were used with these -0.7-V peak signals.

3.2. Stripping voltammetric effects for the pH and catechol concentration

Fig. 2(a) illustrates the Ge(IV) peak current as a function of pH. The influence of the pH of the 20-g L⁻¹ Ge(IV) and the 0.1-M acetic acid solution was studied for the various pH values of 1, 1.7, 2, 3, 4, and 5. The peak current quickly increased at 1 pH, then remained within the range of 1.7–2, after which it decreased

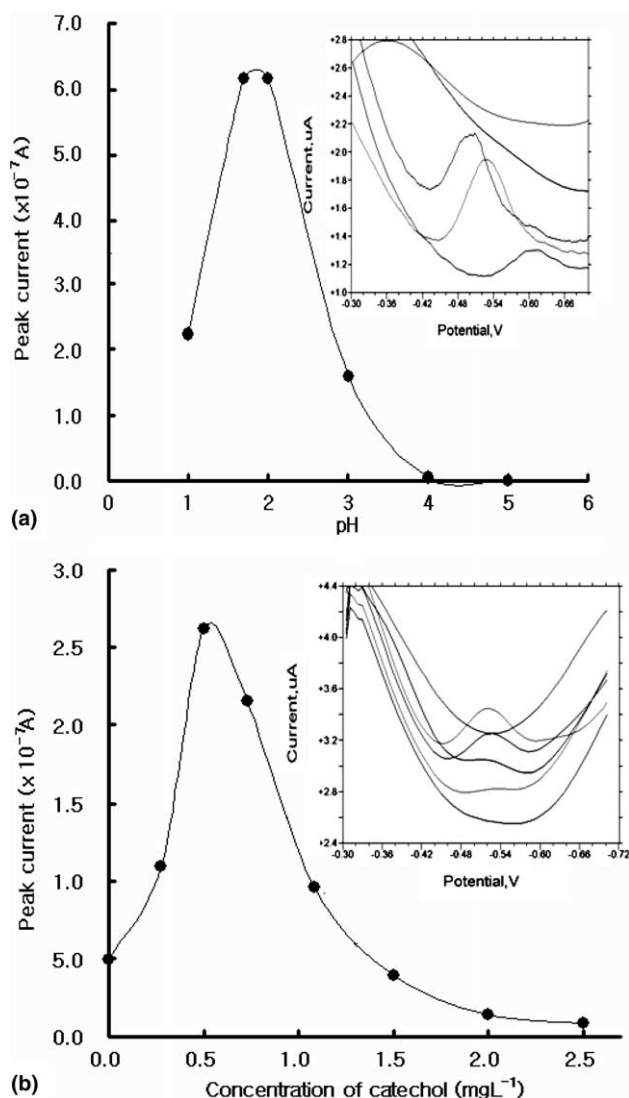


Fig. 2. (a) Dependence of the solution pH (1, 1.7, 2, 3, 4, and 5), and (b) catechol concentration (0, 0.2, 0.5, 1.1, 1.5, 2, and 2.5 × 10⁻² mol L⁻¹) on the 20-g L⁻¹ Ge(IV), at the accumulation potential of -0.40, frequency of 12 Hz, amplitude of 40 mV, and potential step of 5 mV. The other experimental parameters are as in Fig. 3.

sharply up to 4; and at the pH range of 4–6, the peak current disappeared. The raw voltammograms are shown in the inset in Fig. 2. Thus, the maximum increased current ratio for 6.14×10^{-7} A was obtained. This was due to the increasing complex formation of Ge(IV) with catechol at the electrode surface, with the increasing pH. The most important effect was the pH of the analyte solution. Optimum formation of the target species occurred at the pH of 1.7. Other effects of the acetic acid electrolyte concentration were tested, and the same results as those at the pH of 1.7 were obtained. Therefore, this pH strength was used for all the other examinations. Afterwards, other parameters of the catechol concentration were investigated. For the optimal concentration of catechol in Fig. 2(b), it can be seen that the Ge(IV) peak was highest when the concentration of the catechol solution equaled 0.5×10^{-2} M. Its raw voltammograms, which can be seen in the figure insert, correspond to the mole concentration ratio between the element of Ge(IV) and the ligand of catechol. At the other increased ranges, these peaks disappeared and did not respond, and registered only one good response: 0.5×10^{-2} M.

3.3. Effects of varying the frequency, the step potential, and the amplitude

Fig. 3(a) shows the results of this paper's test of the stripping voltammetric parameters of various frequencies for 20-g L^{-1} Ge(IV). The experimental peak current shows a frequency range of 6–14 Hz. The well-defined sharp peaks are observed at 12 Hz, following the 180-s deposition. The peak current is strongly dependent on the frequency, and the best frequency value for increasing the peak current on the Ge(IV) stripping is 12 Hz. Moreover, at the other Hz ranges, the peak width increased broadly, and the peak height disappeared. Other high and low Ge(IV) concentration effects were examined, and the same results were achieved. At this time, a maximum increased ratio of 1.03×10^{-6} -A peak current appeared. Real voltammograms can also be seen in Fig. 3. Other parameters of amplitude were also tested. In Fig. 3(b), the dependence of the peak current on the amplitude for 10–70 mV as the amplitude increased is demonstrated. It was found that only 45 mV is enough to attain the accumulation of the metal chelate onto the electrode, which was dependent on the concentration of the complex adsorption equilibrium. An increasing peak current ratio was obtained for 6.07×10^{-7} A. At this time, various other Ge(IV) concentrations, step potentials, and frequencies were examined, and the same results were achieved. At the optimized conditions, the stripping voltammetric parameters of various step potentials with 20-g L^{-1} Ge(IV) were tested. The experimental peak current is not shown here, while the step potential rate increased to $1\text{--}6\text{ mV s}^{-1}$. The well-defined sharp peaks were ob-

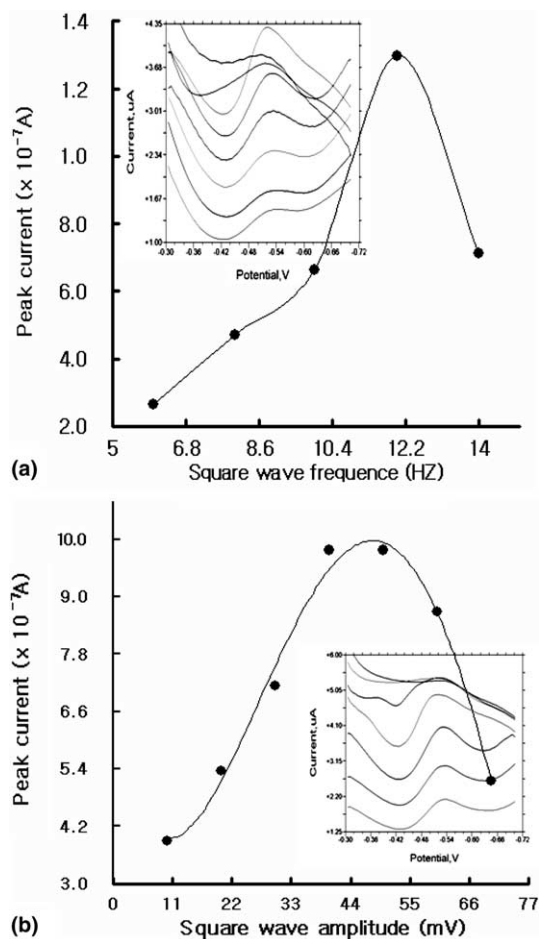


Fig. 3. (a) Stripping voltammograms of the frequencies of 6, 8, 10, 12, and 14 Hz, and (b) amplitudes of 10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60, and 70 mV, at the 0.1-M acetic acid solution of $20\text{ }\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ Ge(IV). The other experimental parameters are as in Fig. 2.

served at 5 mV s^{-1} , following the 180-s deposition. The peak current was strongly dependent on the scan rate, and the best value for increasing the 4.20×10^{-7} -A peak current on the Ge(IV) stripping is 5 mV s^{-1} .

3.4. Effects of varying the accumulation time and initial potential

Fig. 4(a) demonstrates the dependence of the peak current on the accumulation times for 0 and -240 s. As the accumulation time increased, the response rose slowly. In general, the time required for the accumulation of the $20\text{ }\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ Ge(IV) chelate onto the electrode depended on the short accumulation time. It was also found that 180 s is enough to attain the adsorption equilibrium, so the maximum increasing peak current ratio of 6.07×10^{-7} A was achieved. Various other concentrations were then studied, which yielded short adsorption times. Thus, 180 s was chosen as the best accumulation time, as in the quantitative estimations of Ge(IV). Fig. 4(b) shows the dependence of the peak current on the

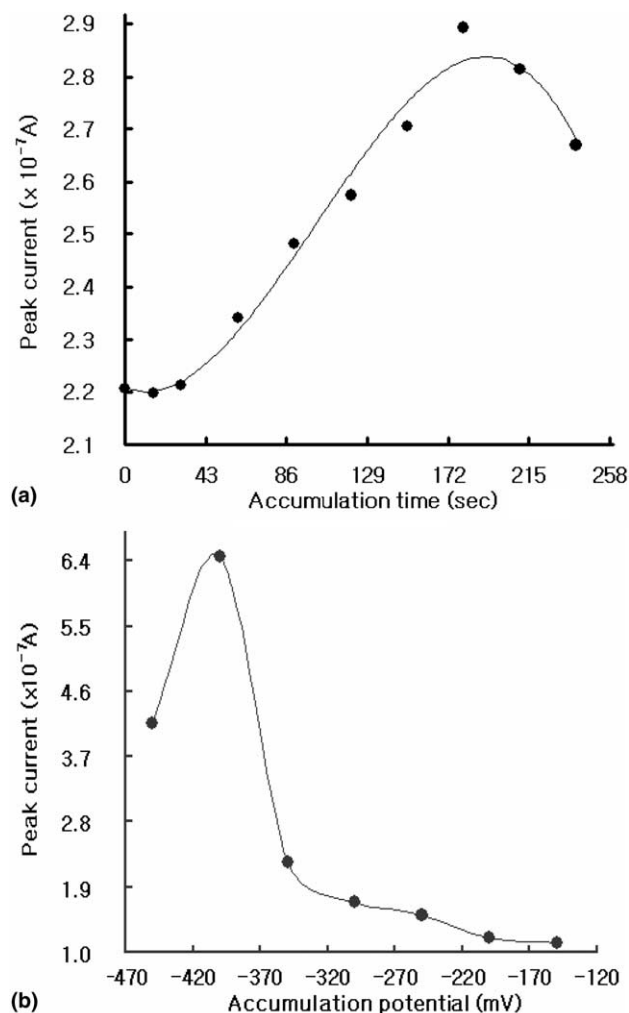


Fig. 4. (a) Response of the modified electrode as a function of the accumulation time (0, 10, 15, 30, 60, 90, 120, 150, 180, 210, and 240 s^{-1}) and (b) the accumulation potential (−150, −200, −250, −300, −350, −400, and −450 mV) for $20 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ of Ge(IV) and $0.5 \times 10^{-2} \text{ M}$ catechol. The other parameters are as in Fig. 3.

deposition potential, which was examined over the range of −450 to −150 mV. The peak current increased quickly as the pre-concentration potential became more negative at −330 mV, after which it quickly dropped as the accumulation potential approached −410 mV, and then dropped rapidly when the peak potential became lower than −420 mV. Thus, the maximum current of the ratio of $5.32 \times 10^{-7} \text{ A}$ was achieved at about −400 mV in the acetate buffer electrolyte of 0.1 M. Therefore, the accumulation potential of −400 mV in the adsorptive stripping voltammetric determination of Ge(IV) can be chosen. Other positive potentials were examined, but no peak signals were detected.

3.5. Statistics and applications

In Fig. 5, at the optimum conditions, the various concentration effects of the calibration curve (a) and the raw

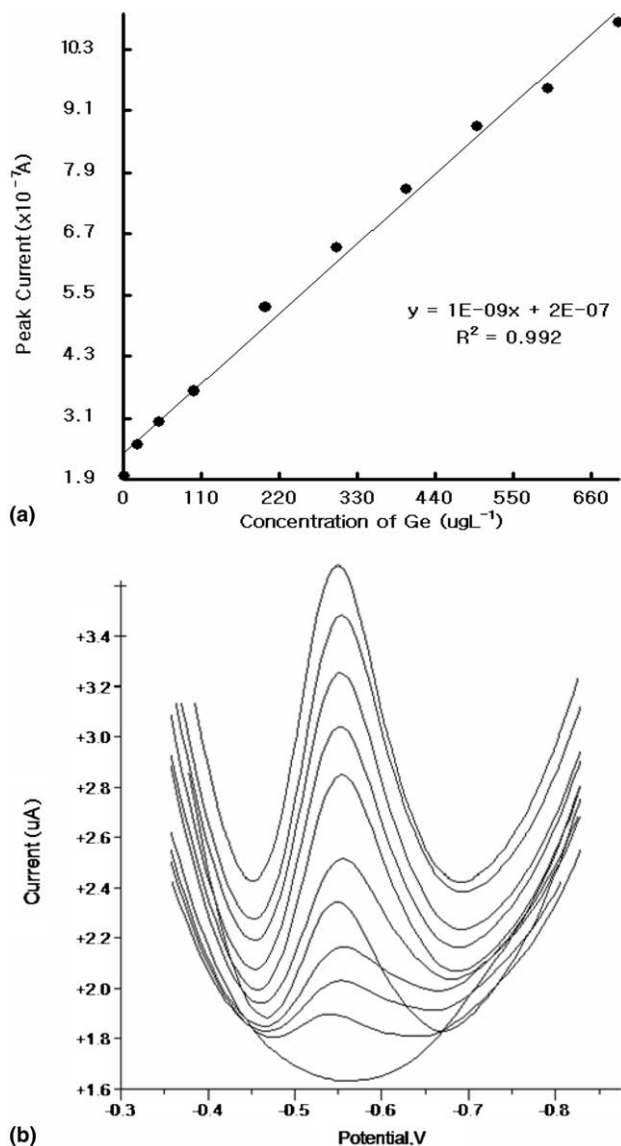


Fig. 5. (a) Stripping voltammetric working curves of increasing Ge(IV) concentrations (0, 2, 20, 50, 100, 200, 300, 400, 500, 600, and $700 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$) and (b) its real voltammograms at a pH of 1.7, an initial potential of −0.40, a final potential of −0.70 V, a square-wave frequency of 12 Hz, an amplitude of 40 mV, and a potential step of 5 mV. The other parameters are as in Fig. 4.

voltammograms (b) were estimated. The figure of Ge(IV) was linear over the range of 2–700 $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ for a 180-s accumulation. For this range, the linear plot yielded a regression equation of $y = 1\text{E-}09x + 2\text{E-}07$ [$R = 0.992$, 10 points, $y = \text{current, A}$; $X = \text{Ge(IV) concentration, } \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$]. At this time, the reproducibility of the stripping peak current, as measured by the relative standard deviation (RSD) posted for 14 determinations of the $50 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ Ge(IV) solution with 180-s accumulation, was 1.37%, and the detection limit was estimated to be $0.60 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ on the basis of the signal-to-noise ratio ($S/N = 3$) at an accumulation within the same time. Moreover, the maximum increased peak current (Δy) ratio

was obtained at 8.82×10^{-7} A. The analytical-interference ions were then removed using the standard addition method. Analytical applications performed using specific cultured Korean rice samples, which contained fertilized soil germanium, and other generally selling rice samples, were tested. First, small amounts of commonly and specially cultured rice samples were grinded in a crystal milling port, some 10.0-g milled rice powders were added to the covered quartz cell, then 5 mL of concentrated HNO_3 , 0.5 mL of HClO_4 , and 5–10 drops of concentrated H_2SO_4 , were added. The mixture was then placed on a hot plate, and was slightly boiled (Li Zaijun et al., 2001). The solutions were used to determine the presence of Ge(IV) concentration. The stripping voltammetric signals showed a distinct peak current of Ge(IV). The concentration of Ge(IV) in both rice samples was determined by the standard addition method of known concentrations. No Ge(IV) was detected in all the five other commercial rice samples. Other specific cultured rice samples were also examined. First, the standard peak currents of the blank solutions, samples, and 2-, 4-, and $6 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ Ge(IV), were spiked, and the calibrated value of $1.3 \mu\text{g}/100 \text{ g}$ was thus obtained. These samples were examined using common methods, such as the ICP-AA method. The results of $1.30\text{--}1.31 \text{ ppb L}^{-1}$ of identical concentrations were obtained.

The resulting concentration values are similar to those in other papers (Jinhui & Kui, 1995). Jinhui & Kui searched for Ge(IV) contents in food samples of grape ($0.1 \mu\text{g}/100 \text{ g}$), cabbage ($0.089.3 \mu\text{g}/100 \text{ g}$), spinach ($0.086.4 \mu\text{g}/100 \text{ g}$) and cucumber ($0.059.7 \mu\text{g}/100 \text{ g}$), but higher contents of Ge(IV) in rice samples were obtained in this study.

4. Conclusion

A mercury-coated modified stripping method has been developed using the catalytic current of catechol to determine Ge(IV). The electrode response was linearly related to the Ge(IV) concentration within the range of $2\text{--}700 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$, with a 180-s adsorption time in 0.1-M acetic acid (pH: 1.7) electrolyte solutions. The presented method had a lower detection limit of $0.6 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ ($8.26 \times 10^{-9} \text{ M}$) ($S/N = 3$). Although toxic dropping mercury was not used, similar detection limits were arrived at. This method was applied to specially cultured rice, and can be used for trace Ge(IV) detection in any other measurement of food, water, agricultural produce, and minerals.

Acknowledgement

This work was supported by grant No.(R01-2003-000-10530-0) from Ministry of Science & Technology.

References

- Abo El-Maali, N., Abd El-Hady, D., Abd El-Hamid, M., & Seliem, M. (2000). Use of adsorptive stripping voltammetry at the glassy carbon electrode for the simultaneous determination of magnesium(II) and aluminium(III) Application to some industrial samples. *Analytica Chimica Acta*, *417*, 67–75.
- Alan, M. B., Steven, K., Newman, G., & Michael, O. (1998). Adsorptive Stripping Voltammetric Determination of Germanium in Zinc Plant Electrolyte. *Electroanalysis*, *10*(6), 387–392.
- Bhagavannarayana, G., Dietrich, B., Zaumseil, P., & Dombrowski, K. F. (1999). Determination of germanium content and relaxation in $\text{Si}_{1-x}\text{Ge}_x/\text{Si}$ layers by Raman spectroscopy and X-ray diffractometry. *Physica Status Solidi (a)*, *172*, 425–432.
- Chang, Q. S., Qian, G., & LiLing, L. (1995). Adsorptive stripping measurements of germanium (IV) in the presence of pyrogallol. *Talanta*(July), 881–884.
- Changqing, S., Qian, G., Jiubai, X., & Hongding, Xu. (1995). Determination of germanium(IV) by catalytic cathodic stripping voltammetry. *Analytica Chimica Acta*, *309*, 89–93.
- Deqiang, Z., & Zhe, m. Ni. (1996). Separation and determination of trace inorganic germanium in β -carboxyethylgermanium sesquioxide by filtration chromatography and hydride generation graphite furnace atomic absorption spectrometry. *Analytica Chimica Acta*, *330*, 53–58.
- Elif, A. B., & Murvet, V. U. (2000). Cloud point preconcentration of germanium and determination by hydride generation atomic absorption spectrometry. *Spectrochimica Acta Part B*, *55*, 1073–1080.
- Helena, M. C., Sandra, C. C. M., Luciana, S. R., & Armando, C. D. (2004). Simultaneous determination of copper and lead in seawater using optimised thin-mercury film electrodes in situ plated in thiocyanate media. *Talanta*, *64*, 566–569.
- Jesus, L. M. A., Josefa, A. G. C., & Juan, M. I. F. (1999). Electrochemical reduction of Ge(IV) catalyzed by o-catechol at the dropping mercury electrode and at the hanging mercury drop electrode after adsorptive preconcentration. *Electroanalysis*, *11*(9), 656–659.
- Jesus, L. M. A., Josefa, A. G. C., & Juan, M. L. F. (2001a). Coupling of ligand-catalyzed electroreduction of metal ions with redox electrocatalysis application of the o-catechol-Ge(IV)-V(IV) double catalytic system for the sensitive determination of o-catechol. *Talanta*, *53*, 721–731.
- Jesus, L. M. A., Josefa, A. G. C., & Juan, M. L. F. (2001b). Coupling of ligand-catalyzed electroreduction of metal ions with redox electrocatalysis application of the o-catechol-Ge(IV)-V(IV) double catalytic system for the sensitive determination of o-catechol. *Electroanalysis*, *13*(3), 181–185.
- Jinhui, S., & Kui, J. (1995). Adsorptive complex catalytic polarographic determination of germanium in soil and vegetables. *Analytica Chimica Acta*, *309*, 103–109.
- Joseph, W., Beatriz, S., Suw, Y. L., Jianmin, L., & Jose, M. P. (2001). Determination of micromolar bromate concentrations by adsorptive-catalytic stripping votammetry of the molybdenum-3-methoxy-4-hydroxymandelic acid complex. *Talanta*, *54*(1), 147–151.
- Li Zaijun, Pan Jiaomai, & Tang Jan (2001). Spectrophotometric method for determination of germanium in foods with new color reagent trimethoxyphenylfluorone. *Analytica Chimica Acta*, *445*, 153–159.
- Othman A. Farghaly (2003). Direct and simultaneous voltammetric analysis of heavy metals in tap water samples at Assiut city: An approach to improve the analysis time for nickel and cobalt determination at mercury film electrode. *Microchemical Journal*, *75*, 119–131.
- Pavel, K., Ludek, H., Hana, P., & Miroslav, F. (2003). Voltammetry of osmium-modified DNA at a mercury film electrode Application in detecting DNA hybridization. *Bioelectrochemistry*, *63*, 245–248.

- Sandra, C. C. M., Helena, M. C., Joao, E. J. S., & Armando, C. D. (2004). Optimisation of mercury film deposition on glassy carbon electrodes: evaluation of the combined effects of pH, thiocyanate ion and deposition potential. *Analytica Chimica Acta*, *503*, 203–212.
- Shi, J., Tang, Z., Tan, C., Chi, Q., & Jin, Z. (2002). Determination of trace amounts of germanium by flow injection hydride generation atomic fluorescence spectrometry with on-line coprecipitation. *Talanta*, *56*, 711–716.
- Sri, J. S., Satoshi, W., Hiroshige, M., & Shigeru, T. (1997). The contrasting behaviour of arsenic and germanium species in seawater. *Applied Organometallic Chemistry*, *11*, 403–414.
- Suw, Y. L., Jung, I. C., Young, S. J., Woon, W. J., Hye, J. L., & Seong, H. L. (2004). Electrochemical detection of ascorbic acid (vitamin C) using a glassy carbon electrode. *Nahrung/ Food*, *48*(3), 201–204.
- Suw, Y. Ly., Duck, H. K., & Myung, H. K. (2002). Square-wave cathodic stripping voltammetric analysis of RDX using mercury-film plated glassy carbon electrode. *Talanta*, *58*, 919–926.
- Terufumi, F., Kiyomi, K., Takahiro, K., & Hiroyuki, S. (1996). Luminol chemiluminescence with heteropoly acids and its application to the determination of arsenate, germanate, phosphate and silicate by ion chromatography. *Applied Organometallic Chemistry*, *10*, 675–681.
- Joseph Wang, Jianmin Lu, Suw Young Ly, Maika Vuki, Baomin Tian, & William K. Adeniyi, et al. (2000). Lab-on-a-cable for electrochemical monitoring of phenolic contaminants. *Analytical Chemistry*, *72*, 2659–2663.
- Xiaoli, Z., Yuanqian, L., Menglong, L., Bo, Z., & Jingguo, Y. (2004). Simultaneous determination of tin, germanium and molybdenum by diode array detection–flow injection analysis with partial least squares calibration model. *Talanta*, *62*, 719–725.
- Ying, C., Ruohua, Z., Hong, Q., Fei, J., & Xuexin, G. (2000). Determination of trace germanium by spectrophotometry after preconcentration on an organic solvent-soluble membrane. *Microchemical Journal*, *64*, 93–97.
- Zhongmin, H., Carl, J. S., & William, R. H. (1998). PAN-incorporated Nafion-modified spectroscopic graphite electrodes for voltammetric stripping determination of lead. *Analytica Chimica Acta*, *369*, 93–101.