

## Redox Reactions

### Reducing and oxidizing agents

In any redox reaction there will be an oxidizing agent and a reducing agent.

- The **oxidizing agent** contains the species being reduced and therefore decreasing in oxidation number (it is the whole molecule/ion containing that species)
- The oxidizing agent takes electrons from the species being oxidized
- The **reducing agent** contains the species being oxidized and therefore increasing in oxidation number (it is the whole molecule/ion containing that species)
- The reducing agent donates electrons to the species being reduced

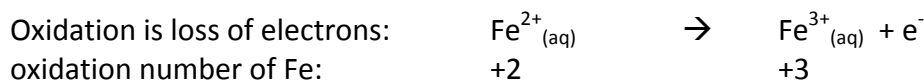
### Constructing equations for redox reactions

Method 1: combining half-equations (which show numbers of electrons transferred)

Example:

Acidified manganate(VII) ions are a powerful oxidizing agent. They can oxidize  $\text{Fe}^{2+}$  ions to  $\text{Fe}^{3+}$  ions. At the same time the manganate(VII) ions are reduced to  $\text{Mn}^{2+}$  ions.

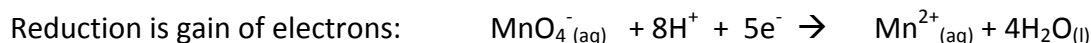
We can represent what happens to the iron ions with a half-equation. The number of electrons to include comes from the change in oxidation number of the species being oxidized or reduced:



We can construct a half equation for the reduction of acidified manganate(VII) ions

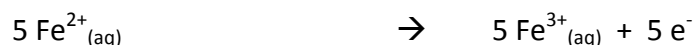


This is not balanced, however. The charges are different on each side, and we need to deal with the four oxygens in the  $\text{MnO}_4^{-}$  ion. The clue here is the reagent is *acidified* manganate(VII). If we include  $\text{H}^{+}$  ions on the left hand side, we can produce water with the oxygens as a product. Four oxygens will require eight  $\text{H}^{+}$  ions:

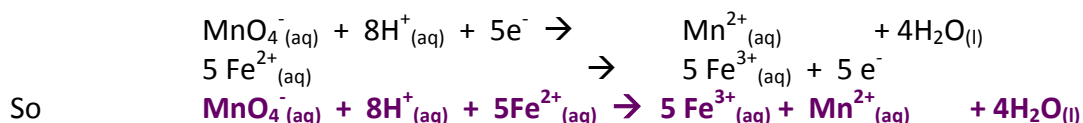


This is balanced for both charges and atoms present.

To combine the two half equations into an overall equation, we now need to have the same number of electrons lost in the oxidation as are gained in the reduction, so we need to multiply the first half-equation by 5 throughout:



Then we can simply add the half equations together, and cancel the five electrons on each side:

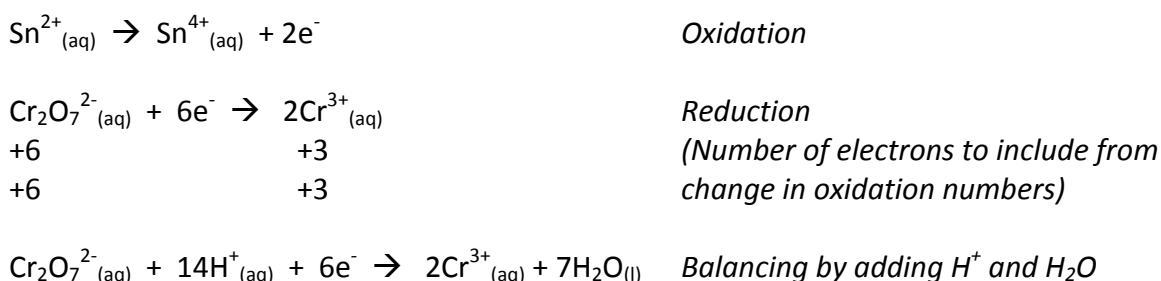


Example:

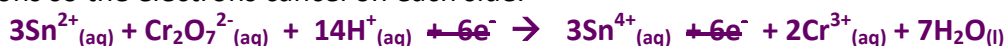
We are also familiar with acidified potassium dichromate as a powerful oxidizing agent. The dichromate ions act in a similar way to the manganate(VII) ions. For example, they can oxidize  $\text{Sn}^{2+}$  ions to  $\text{Sn}^{4+}$  ions.

You should recall that dichromate ions are an intense orange colour, and that when they act as an oxidizing agent, their colour changes to dark green. This is because they have been reduced to  $\text{Cr}^{3+}$  ions.

Again we can represent what happens with half-equations

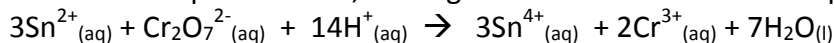


And again we can combine these into a single redox equation by getting the same number of electrons in each half equation – i.e. multiplying the oxidation equation by 3 throughout, and adding the two half equations so the electrons cancel on each side.



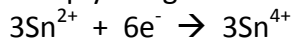
**N.B.** we can also be asked to work out the oxidation or reduction half equation if we are given the overall equation and the other half-equation:

Using the same example as above, we might be told that the overall equation is:

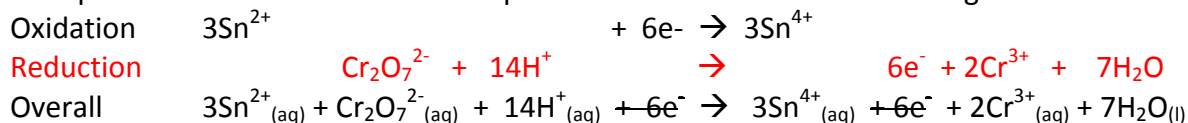


and that the oxidation going on is  $\text{Sn}^{2+} \rightarrow \text{Sn}^{4+}$ . We are required to work out the reduction half-equation:

Firstly multiply the given half-equation up to get the same stoichiometry as in the overall equation:



Now position this above the overall equation and work out what is missing on each side:



Method 2: Constructing redox equations using oxidation numbers

We can balance a redox equation using oxidation numbers, without having to construct separate half-equations if we choose.

This works because the **total increase in oxidation numbers** in the balanced equation must be **equal to the total decrease in oxidation numbers** – a consequence of OIL RIG !

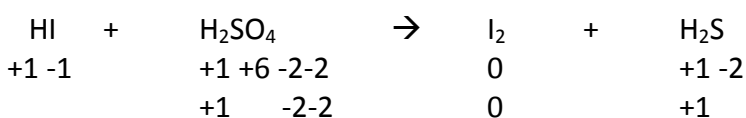
Example:

Hydrogen iodide (HI) is oxidized to iodine by concentrated sulphuric acid. The sulphuric acid is reduced to hydrogen sulphide. Construct a balanced equation for this.

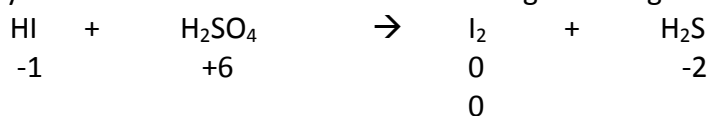
Step 1: Write an equation using the formulae for reactants and products you know about



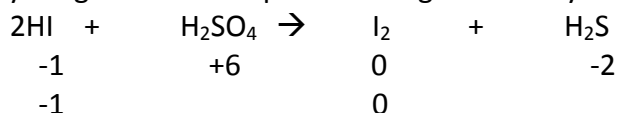
Step 2: Use the oxidation numbers to see what is oxidized and what is reduced



Keep only the oxidation numbers that have changed during the reaction:



Step 3: Balance the equation FOR ONLY THOSE ATOMS BEING OXIDISED OR REDUCED. Don't worry about anything else in the equation being balanced yet.

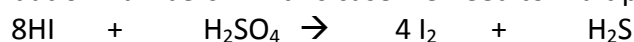


Step 4: Calculate the total increase and decrease in oxidation numbers:

Reduction (S) is +6 to -2 = -8

Oxidation (I) is -1,-1 to 0 = +2

Step 5: Multiply up the species in the oxidation and/or reduction to get the same increase and decrease in oxidation numbers – in this case we need to multiply the  $2\text{HI} \rightarrow \text{I}_2$  by 4



Step 6: Complete the balancing. If we are missing oxygen atoms, add water to that side. If we are missing hydrogen atoms, add  $\text{H}^+$  to that side (look for 'acidic conditions' in the question as another clue as to when to include  $\text{H}^+$  as a reactant). Under alkaline conditions we might add  $\text{OH}^-$ .



Finally:

Check it is balanced for all elements

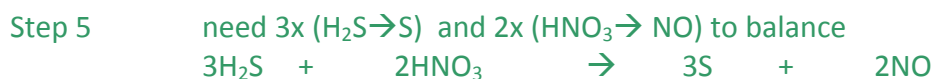
Check it is balanced for charge – total charge on each side the same.

**Practice:**

Hydrogen sulphide,  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  is oxidized to sulphur,  $\text{S}$ , by nitric acid,  $\text{HNO}_3$ , which is itself reduced to nitrogen monoxide,  $\text{NO}$ .



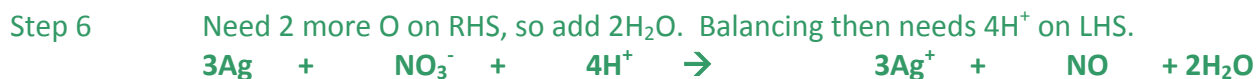
Step 3,4 no further balancing needed oxidation (S)  $-2$  to  $0 = +2$   
reduction (N)  $+5$  to  $+2 = -3$



In acidic conditions, silver metal,  $\text{Ag}$ , is oxidized to silver(I) ions,  $\text{Ag}^+$  by  $\text{NO}_3^-$  ions, which are reduced to nitrogen monoxide ( $\text{NO}$ ).



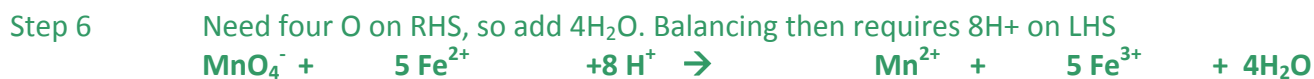
Step 3,4 no further balancing needed oxidation (Ag)  $0$  to  $+1 = +1$   
reduction (N)  $+5$  to  $+2 = -3$



Now prove to yourself that the half-equation method used for manganate(VII) ions and iron(II) can be done this way as well, with the same result. Acidified manganate(VII) ions are capable of oxidizing iron(II) ions to iron(III) ions. The manganate(VII) is reduced to  $\text{Mn}^{2+}$  ions:



Step 3,4 no further balancing oxidation  $+2$  to  $+3 = +1$  reduction  $+7$  to  $+2 = -5$



## Redox titrations

In a redox titration we are titrating one solution in which something is going to be oxidized, against another in which something is going to be reduced. We don't use a pH indicator in a redox titration. The changes in colour of the substances when they are oxidized and reduced tell us when we have reached the endpoint. If we know the concentration of one substance, we can work out the concentration of the other from a balanced equation for the redox reaction.

There are two examples we should understand fully, although we may meet other examples of redox titrations where information about the titration is provided in the question.

### Titration of iron(II) ions using manganate(VII) ions under acidic conditions

Purpose: To determine the concentration of  $\text{Fe}^{2+}_{(\text{aq})}$  in a solution.

- e.g.
- determining the mass of iron in iron tablets
  - determining the %purity of iron in an alloy containing iron
  - determining the concentration of iron(II) ions in contaminated water
  - determining the molar mass and formula of an iron(II) salt

#### How to do it:

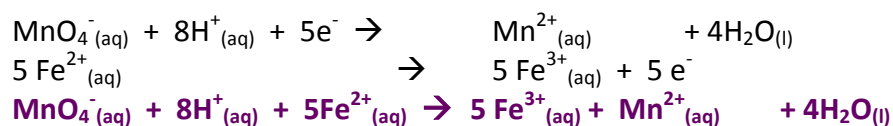
If the sample to be investigated isn't already a solution of iron(II) ions, the sample may need to be crushed and dissolved in water and sulphuric acid. We'll need to measure the mass of the sample before dissolving. The resulting solution will be pale green, almost colourless if the concentration of iron(II) is fairly low.

We titrate a known volume of the sample solution in a conical flask against potassium manganate(VII) solution of known concentration in the burette. As the deep purple manganate(VII) ions react with the iron(II) ions they are decolourised. This continues until all the iron(II) ions have reacted. The next drop of potassium manganate(VII) stays purple, so the endpoint is when the first hint of pink/purple persists in the solution.

*N.B. if the iron(II) solution is in the burette, the endpoint will be when the purple colour of the manganate(VII) in the flask disappears.*

#### The chemistry:

The manganate(VII) ions are reduced to manganese(II), while the iron(II) is oxidized to iron(III) ions. We have already constructed an equation for this:



Mole ratio: 1 : 5

One mole of  $\text{MnO}_4^-$  ions reacts with five moles of  $\text{Fe}^{2+}$  so we have the mole ratio of 1:5 when we do the titration calculation.

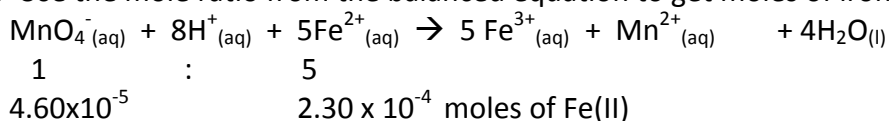
The calculations:

i) 25.0cm<sup>3</sup> of a solution of iron(II)sulphate required 23.0cm<sup>3</sup> of 0.0020 mol dm<sup>-3</sup> potassium manganate(VII) to completely oxidize it in acidic solution. What was the concentration of the iron(II)sulphate solution ?

Step 1: Calculate moles of the permanganate

$$\text{moles} = \text{conc.} \times \text{vol} = 0.00200 \times (23/1000) = 4.60 \times 10^{-5} \text{ moles}$$

Step 2: Use the mole ratio from the balanced equation to get moles of iron(II) ions



Step 3: Find concentration of iron(II) solution

$$\text{Conc of Fe}^{2+} = \text{moles} / \text{vol (in dm}^3) = 2.3 \times 10^{-4} / 0.025 = 0.00920 \text{ mol dm}^{-3}$$

ii) The solution was made by dissolving a tablet containing hydrated iron(II) sulphate and sucrose (which does not react with permanganate ions) in 250cm<sup>3</sup> of water. Calculate the mass of FeSO<sub>4</sub> in the tablet.

$$\text{Moles of FeSO}_4 = \text{conc} \times \text{vol in dm}^3 = 0.00920 \times 0.25 = 0.0023 \text{ mol (or } 10 \times \text{ the moles in } 25\text{cm}^3)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Mass of FeSO}_4 &= 0.0023 \times M_r = 0.0023 \times (55.8 + 32.1 + (16.0 \times 4)) = 0.0023 \times 151.9 \\ &= 0.350\text{g} \end{aligned}$$

iii) The formula for the hydrated iron sulphate used in the tablet is FeSO<sub>4</sub>.7H<sub>2</sub>O. If the mass of the tablet was 8.5g, calculate the % by mass of hydrated iron(II) sulphate in the tablet.

$$M_r \text{ of FeSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O} = 151.9 + (7 \times 18) = 277.9$$

$$\text{Mass in tablet} = \text{moles} \times M_r = 0.023 \times 277.9 = 0.6392\text{g}$$

$$\% \text{ by mass} = (0.6392 / 8.5) \times 100 = 7.5 \%$$

**Practical: Nuffield expt 19.1c p.458**

### Titration of iodine in solution using thiosulphate ions

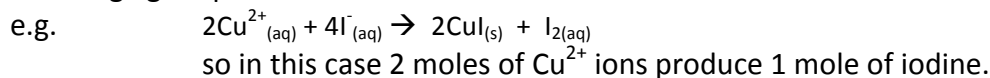
Purpose: To determine the concentration of an oxidizing agent in a solution e.g. Cu<sup>2+</sup><sub>(aq)</sub> ions.

- e.g.
- determining the % of copper in an alloys such as brass or bronze
  - determining concentration of copper ions in a solution
  - determining concentration of dichromate ions in a solution
  - determining the concentration of chlorate(I) ions ClO<sup>-</sup> in bleach
  - determining the concentration of hydrogen peroxide solution

How to do it:

The analysis is done in two stages.

In the first stage, the oxidizing agent to be determined is reacted with excess iodide ions. This results in iodine being formed in the solution, the amount of iodine being directly related to the amount of the oxidizing agent present.

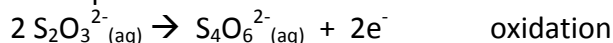


In the second stage, the concentration of iodine in the solution is determined by titrating it against sodium thiosulphate of known concentration. The red-brown colour of the iodine in solution fades to a pale straw colour, and to colourless when all the iodine has been reduced to iodide ions. This makes the endpoint difficult to see, so close to the endpoint an amount of starch is added as an indicator. Starch is blue-black when iodine is present, but at the endpoint the starch becomes colourless.

The chemistry:



At the same time the thiosulphate ions are oxidized to tetrathionate ions:



The overall equation is therefore:



Mole Ratio: 1 : 2

This means that 2 moles of thiosulphate ions react with 1 mole of iodine.

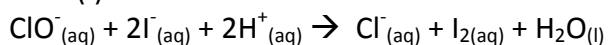
The calculation

The calculation is also done in two stages. In the first stage, the titre for the thiosulphate and its concentration are used along with the mole ratio above to work out the moles of iodine in the portion of solution that was titrated. This is then scaled up to get moles of iodine in the whole solution.

In the second stage, the moles of iodine in the whole solution are used along with the mole ratio of iodine to oxidizing agent to work out the concentration of oxidizing agent in the whole solution. This can then be used further if needed to work out the mass of the oxidizing agent given a formula etc.

e.g.  $30.00\text{cm}^3$  of bleach was reacted completely with iodide ions in acidic solution. The iodine formed was titrated against  $0.2000\text{ mol dm}^{-3}$  sodium thiosulphate, requiring  $29.45\text{cm}^3$  of the thiosulphate solution to reach the endpoint.

The chlorate(I) ions in the bleach react with iodide ions according to the equation:

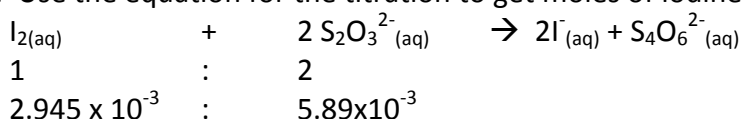


Calculate the concentration of the chlorate ions in the bleach.

Step 1: Calculate moles of the thiosulphate ions in titration

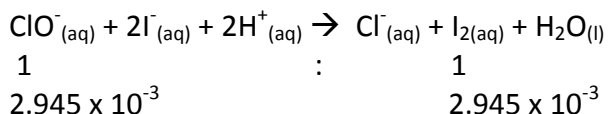
$$\text{moles} = \text{conc} \times \text{vol (in dm}^3) = 0.2000 \times (29.45/1000) = 5.890 \times 10^{-3} \text{ moles}$$

Step 2: Use the equation for the titration to get moles of iodine in the titre



The whole bleach solution was titrated, so moles of  $\text{I}_2$  released by the  $\text{ClO}^{-}$  ions in the bleach =  $2.945 \times 10^{-3}$  mol.

Using the moles of iodine to find moles of chlorate ions:



Therefore the  $30\text{cm}^3$  of bleach contained  $2.945 \times 10^{-3}$  moles of chlorate(I) ions.

Step 3: Calculate the concentration of the chlorate(I) ions in the bleach

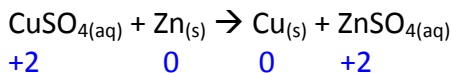
$$\text{conc of chlorate(I)} = \text{moles / vol in dm}^3 = 2.945 \times 10^{-3} / 0.030 = 0.0982 \text{ mol dm}^{-3}$$

**Practical: Nuffield expt. 6.8c (potassium iodate(V) with 10% potassium iodide by mass)**

## Electrode Potentials

### Electron transfers in redox reactions

If we dip a zinc strip into copper II sulphate, we observe a layer of copper deposited on the zinc. We might also observe that the blue colour of the copper sulphate solution fades towards colourless as zinc sulphate is formed in solution.

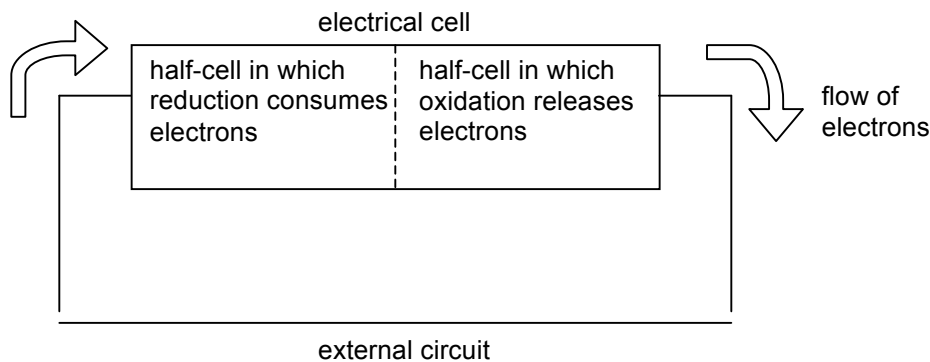


The oxidation of zinc is producing electrons, while the reduction of copper ions is consuming them. If we could separate these two reactions, we could have the electrons flow through an electrical circuit to get from where they were produced to where they are consumed. This is what happens in the cells of a battery.

### Cells and half cells

An electrical cell comprises two half-cells, one in which oxidation is taking place to supply electrons, and one in which reduction is taking place to consume them.

Each half cell therefore contains an element which changes oxidation state.





The simplest type of half-cell comprises a metal placed in an aqueous solution of its ions. **An equilibrium exists at the surface of the metal between the oxidation state of the metal and the oxidation state in its ion.**

By convention, the equilibrium is always written with the electrons on the left side:

e.g. for copper and copper II ions:  $\text{Cu}^{2+}_{(\text{aq})} + 2\text{e}^{-} \rightleftharpoons \text{Cu}_{(\text{s})}$

and for zinc and zinc ions:  $\text{Zn}^{2+}_{(\text{aq})} + 2\text{e}^{-} \rightleftharpoons \text{Zn}_{(\text{s})}$

This convention means that the forward reaction is always REDUCTION (gaining electrons) and the reverse reaction is always OXIDATION (losing electrons).

We have written these as reversible reactions because either oxidation or reduction could take place in any half cell, it is only when it is connected to another half cell that one goes in the oxidation direction and one goes in the reduction direction. To decide which way each reaction will go, we need to know the **electrode potential** of each half cell.

### Electrode Potential

The tendency of a half cell to gain electrons is measured using a value called standard **electrode potential**. The larger (more positive) the electrode potential, the greater the tendency of that half-cell to gain electrons. It is measured in **Volts, V**.

We compare the electrode potentials of the two half cells:

In the half-cell with the **most positive** electrode potential,

- the reaction will go in the forward direction
- reduction will take place
- electrons will be gained

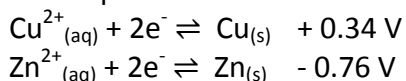
This will be the positive terminal of the cell.

In the half-cell with the smallest (most negative or least positive) electrode potential

- the reaction will go in the reverse direction
- oxidation will take place
- electrons will be released to flow around the circuit

This will be the negative terminal of the cell.

The electrode potentials for the two half cells we have considered so far are:



Here we can see that the  $\text{Cu}^{2+}/\text{Cu}$  half-cell has the more positive electrode potential:

- so this will be the positive terminal of the cell
- the reaction will be  $\text{Cu}^{2+}_{(\text{aq})} + 2\text{e}^{-} \rightarrow \text{Cu}_{(\text{s})}$
- copper ions will be reduced
- the electrons to do this will flow IN from the external circuit

The  $\text{Zn}^{2+}/\text{Zn}$  half-cell has the least positive electrode potential

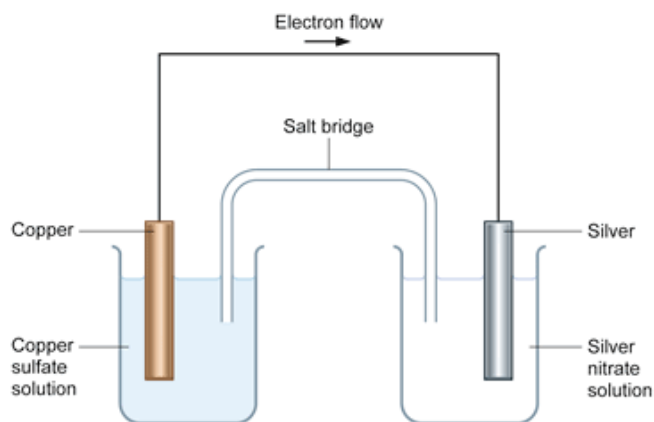
- so this will be the negative terminal of the cell
- the reaction will be  $\text{Zn}^{2+}_{(\text{aq})} + 2\text{e}^{-} \leftarrow \text{Zn}_{(\text{s})}$
- zinc will be oxidized to zinc ions
- electrons are given up to flow OUT into the external circuit

### Metal/Metal ion half cells

The experimental setup for the half cells described above would require two half cells in which each metal is in contact with a solution containing ions of the same metal:

It is the difference between the electrode potentials for the two half-cells which drives one half-cell to produce electrons and the other to consume them – we can measure this with a voltmeter. It is referred to as the **potential difference** (same is in physics).

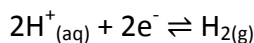
As the reactions proceed, both half-cell ends up with an imbalance between positive and negative ions. The  $\text{Zn}^{2+}/\text{Zn}$  half-cell ends up with extra positive ions, and the  $\text{Cu}^{2+}/\text{Cu}$  half-cell ends up with fewer positive ions. The salt bridge allows ions to move from one half-cell to the other in order to correct this imbalance, otherwise the electrons would stop flowing in the external circuit. The salt bridge could be as simple as a strip of filter paper soaked in an aqueous solution of an ionic compound, however the ionic compound chosen mustn't react with the solutions in either of the half cells. Often aqueous  $\text{KNO}_3$  or  $\text{NH}_4\text{NO}_3$  is used.



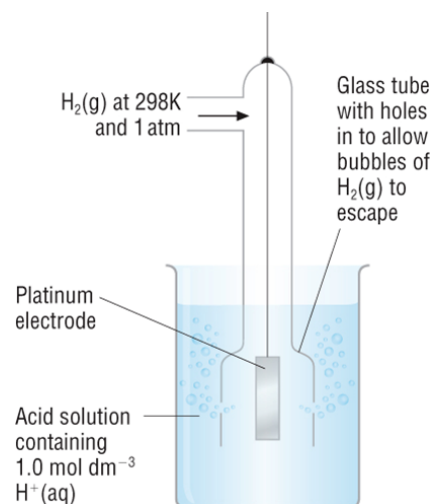
### Non-metal/non-metal ion half cells

A half-cell simply has to support an equilibrium where an element is in two different oxidation states. We could therefore have a non-metal element in contact with a solution containing ions of that element.

e.g. a hydrogen half-cell comprises hydrogen gas,  $\text{H}_2$ , in contact with aqueous hydrogen ions:

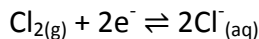


An inert platinum electrode is used to transfer the electrons into or out of the half-cell and make the connection to the rest of the electrical circuit. The platinum does not react at all. The platinum



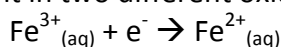
electrode is immersed in a solution containing the  $\text{H}^+$  ions (i.e. an acid), and hydrogen gas is bubbled over the electrode surface.

Non-metal/non-metal ion half-cells are not limited to hydrogen and positively charged ions. We could just as well have e.g. chlorine gas in contact with aqueous chloride ions:

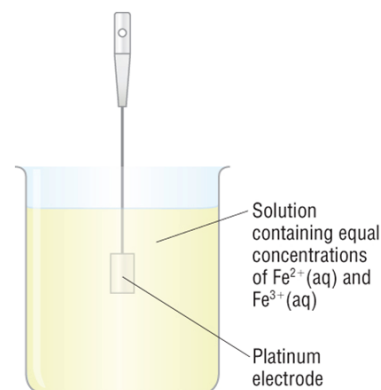


### A metal ion/metal ion half cell

This type of half-cell contains an aqueous solution with ions of the same element in two different oxidation states, e.g. Iron(II) and iron(III).



As before, an inert platinum electrode is needed to transfer the electrons into or out of the half-cell.



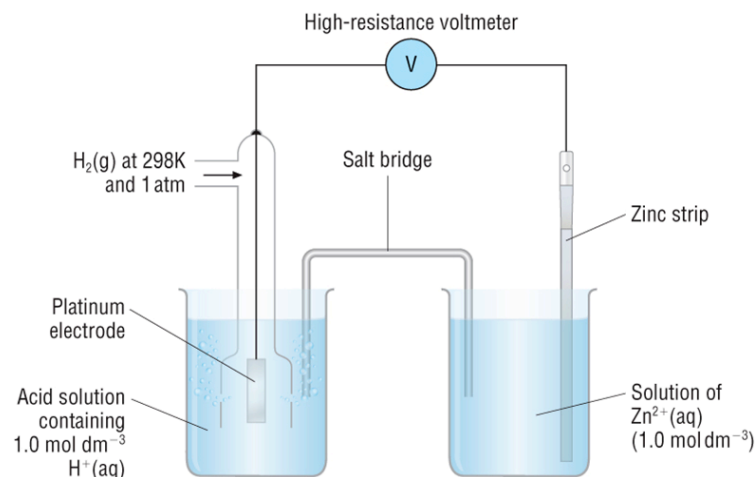
### Standard electrode potentials

We need to measure and compare electrode potentials under controlled and reproducible conditions. We therefore choose to compare the electrode potentials of different half-cells to the electrode potential of a hydrogen half-cell (our reference standard), which we define as having an electrode potential of zero volts when under standard conditions of 298K (25°C) and with a  $\text{H}_2$  gas pressure of 101kPa (1 atmosphere) and an  $\text{H}^+$  solution concentration of  $1 \text{ mol dm}^{-3}$ .

Standard electrode potentials of other half-cells also need to be measured with the same standard conditions: **298K**, **101kPa** gas pressure, and **1 mol dm<sup>-3</sup>** solution concentrations, or with **equal concentrations** of each ion in a metal ion/metal ion half cell.

To measure the standard electrode potential of other half-cells, we combine them with a standard hydrogen electrode to form a complete cell, then measure the overall cell potential, (the potential difference across the cell) with a high resistance voltmeter. This gives a direct reading of the standard electrode potential of the half-cell being measured.

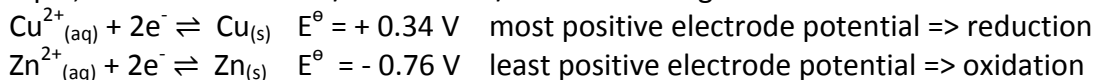
**Definition: The standard electrode potential of a half-cell,  $E^\ominus$ , is the electrode potential of a half-cell compared with a standard hydrogen half cell, measured at 298K with solution concentrations of  $1 \text{ mol dm}^{-3}$  and a gas pressure of 101kPa.**



### Cell potential

Electrode potentials can be used to predict the cell potential (potential difference) produced by any combination of half-cells.

For example, if we used our  $\text{Zn}^{2+}/\text{Zn}$  and  $\text{Cu}^{2+}/\text{Cu}$  half cells together to make a cell:



We can then calculate the standard cell potential,  $E^{\circ}_{\text{cell}}$ .

$$E^{\circ}_{\text{cell}} = E^{\circ} (\text{reduction reaction}) - E^{\circ} (\text{oxidation reaction})$$

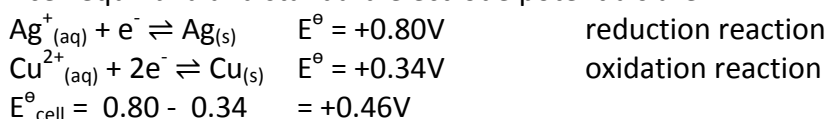
$$\text{So} \quad E^{\circ}_{\text{cell}} = 0.34 - (-0.76) = +1.10 \text{ V} \quad \text{SHOW THE + SIGN!}$$

*N.B. Cell potentials should be positive – if it comes out negative, you've got the wrong half-cells doing oxidation and reduction !*

#### Worked example:

A silver/copper cell is made by connecting together an  $\text{Ag}^{+}/\text{Ag}$  half cell and a  $\text{Cu}^{2+}/\text{Cu}$  half cell.

The half-cell equilibria and standard electrode potentials are:



#### Practice:

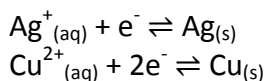
For each of the half-cell combinations below, give the value of  $E^{\circ}_{\text{cell}}$



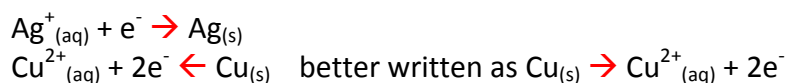
### Cell reactions

We may also be asked to derive the overall equation for the redox reaction taking place in the two half-cells. This is just the same as combining a reduction and an oxidation half-equation to get the overall equation for a redox reaction, which we've done before.

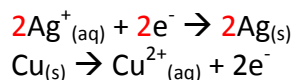
Step 1: Write the two half equations



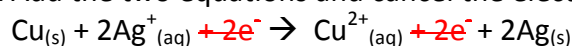
Step 2: Change the  $\rightleftharpoons$  to  $\rightarrow$  to show which way each is going, based on the electrode potentials



Step 3: Get the same number of electrons in each half-equation

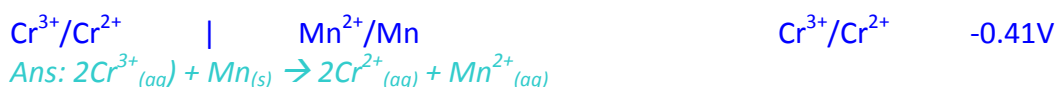


Step 4: Add the two equations and cancel the electrons on each side



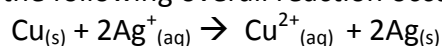
Practice:

For each of the half-cell combinations below, give the overall cell reaction:



We might also be given the overall equation and one of the half equations, and asked to work out what is going on in the other half-cell:

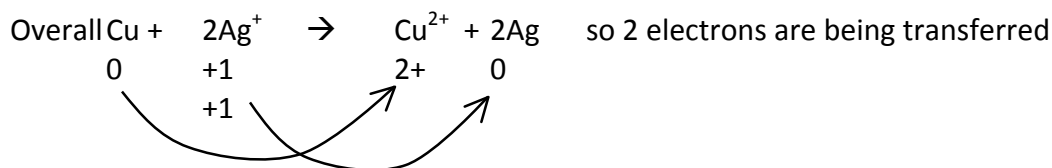
e.g. In a cell, the following overall reaction occurs:



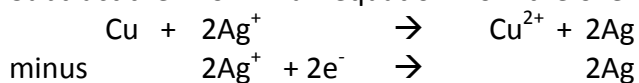
The half-equation for the Ag/Ag<sup>+</sup> electrode is  $\text{Ag}^+ + \text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{Ag}$

Work out the half-equation for what is taking place in the other half-cell:

Step 1: Calculate the changes in oxidation number taking place in the overall equation, and multiply up the known half equation to the corresponding number of electrons.



Step 2: Subtract the known half-equation from the overall equation to reveal the other half-equation:



= **Cu → Cu<sup>2+</sup> + 2e<sup>-</sup>** because by convention we use + not – in chemical equations.

### Practice:

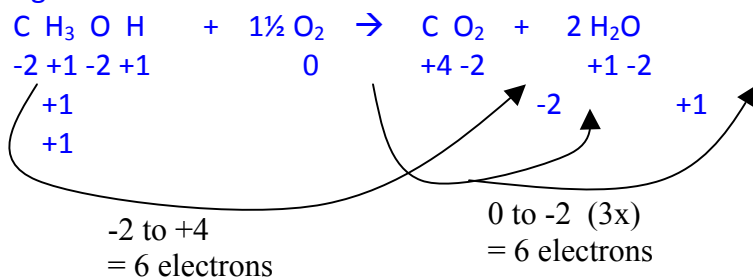
The example above was rather trivial, and they can be quite a lot harder to figure out, but the method is as described above e.g.

In a methanol fuel cell, the overall equation is  $\text{CH}_3\text{OH} + 1\frac{1}{2} \text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{CO}_2 + 2 \text{H}_2\text{O}$

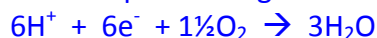
At one electrode, the reaction taking place is  $4\text{H}^+ + 4\text{e}^- + \text{O}_2 \rightarrow 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$

Work out what happens at the other electrode:

Oxidation number changes:



Now multiply up known half-equation to get 6 electrons transferred:



Subtract this half equation from the overall equation (don't worry about – signs yet)



Finally rearrange to get rid of subtractions (and check if the half-equation will simplify)



**Storage Cells (batteries)**

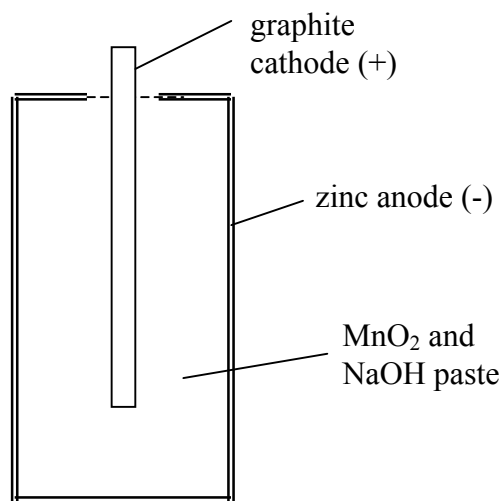
Half-cells are combined to produce two types of commercial electrical storage cell, or battery.

**i) non-rechargeable cells e.g. alkaline cells**

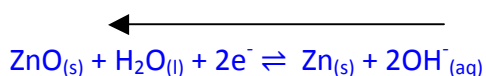
These provide electrical energy until the oxidation and reduction has been carried out to such an extent that the potential difference can no longer be maintained. The cell is then "flat", and must be disposed of.

**Alkaline cell construction:**

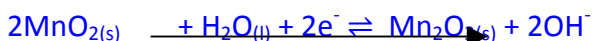
*Details not required*



The zinc anode supplies electrons, as the zinc is oxidized by the hydroxide ions:



At the graphite cathode, electrons are supplied to the manganese IV oxide which is reduced. Hydroxide ions are produced, replacing those which were consumed at the anode



$E^\ominus_{\text{cell}}$  is + 1.5V (typical of AA cells)

**ii) Rechargeable cells e.g. NiCd, NiMH, Lithium ion batteries (in laptops), Lithium ion polymer batteries (iPod etc.)**

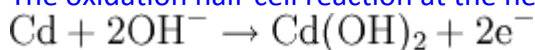
The reduction and oxidation in the two half-cells which supplies the electrical current can be reversed during recharging. This reverses the two redox equilibria, recreating the reactants so that the cell can be used again and again.

Cadmium, along with other substances commonly used in batteries, is toxic. There are environmental problems associated with its disposal, hence its use only in rechargeable and therefore reusable cells.

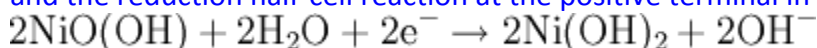
Lithium is highly reactive, and reacts exothermically, so there is a risk of fire if the contents of a lithium-based battery are exposed by breaking open the battery.

In NiCd batteries the positive and negative electrodes, isolated from each other by the separator, are rolled in a spiral shape inside the case, and surrounded with potassium hydroxide as the electrolyte. This allows a NiCd cell to deliver a much higher maximum current than an equivalent size alkaline cell. The internal resistance for an equivalent sized alkaline cell is higher which limits the maximum current that can be delivered.

The oxidation half-cell reaction at the negative terminal in a NiCd battery during discharge is:

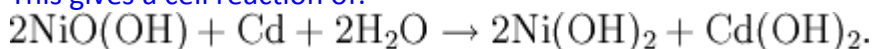


and the reduction half-cell reaction at the positive terminal in a NiCd battery is:



Details not required

This gives a cell reaction of:



When the storage cell is recharged, these two reactions go in the opposite direction.

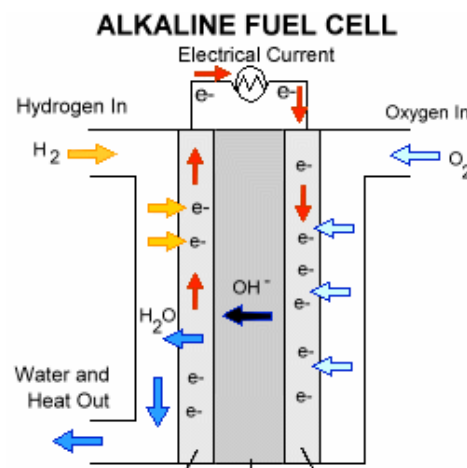
## Fuel Cells

A fuel cell releases the energy from the reaction of a fuel with oxygen in electrical form, producing a voltage rather than heat. The most common fuel cells use hydrogen, although other hydrogen-rich fuels such as methanol and natural gas can be used.

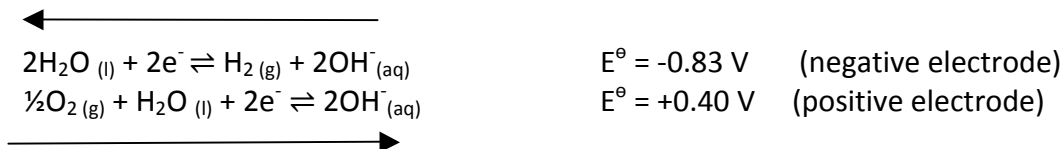
Pure hydrogen fuel emits only water as the product of the reaction, whilst hydrogen-rich fuels produce only small amounts of  $\text{CO}_2$  and other gaseous pollutants, so vehicles fitted with fuel cells have the potential to be cause less damage to the environment than those burning petrol or diesel.

How a fuel cell works:

- The reactants (hydrogen and oxygen) flow in and the products (water) flow out, while the electrolyte remains in the cell
- Fuel cells do not have to be recharged and can operate virtually continuously as long as the fuel and oxygen continue to flow into the cell
- The electrodes are made of a catalyst material such as a titanium sponge coated in platinum
- The electrolyte is an acid or alkaline membrane that allows ions to move from one compartment of the cell to the other (like a salt bridge)

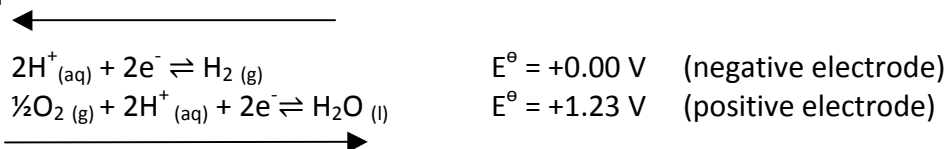


The equilibria involved in an alkaline fuel cell are:

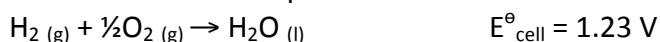




The equilibria involved in an acidic fuel cell are:



The overall reaction and cell potential in both cases is the same:



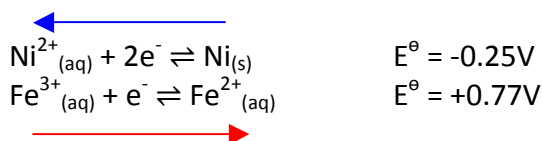
### Feasibility of reactions

The benefits of using electrode potentials are not limited to calculating the cell potential of a cell. More generally, we can use electrode potentials to predict whether a redox reaction will take place.

For example, "Will a solution containing iron(III) ions oxidise nickel to nickel(II) ions, and be reduced to iron(II)?"

We need to look at the electrode potentials for the oxidation and reductions involved.

- We use the same convention of writing each half equation with the electrons on the left
- We change the equilibrium signs to arrows to show which way the reaction would have to go in each half cell for the reaction to go as described: in this case we want  $\text{Ni} \rightarrow \text{Ni}^{2+}$  and  $\text{Fe}^{3+} \rightarrow \text{Fe}^{2+}$



- Now check that one arrow is going in each direction. If not, you don't have a redox reaction, you have two species that both want to be oxidized, or both reduced so no reaction will occur.
- Work out the value  $E^\circ_{\text{cell}}$  would have if the reaction did happen.
 
$$E^\circ_{\text{cell}} = E^\circ_{\text{reduction reaction (forward arrow)}} - E^\circ_{\text{oxidation reaction (backward arrow)}}$$
- If the calculated  $E^\circ_{\text{cell}}$  has a positive value, the reaction is feasible. If the value is negative, the reaction is not feasible. In our example  $E^\circ_{\text{cell}} = 0.77 - (-0.25) = +1.02\text{V}$

So we can say that iron(III) ions CAN oxidize nickel to nickel(II) ions, but we need to be able to explain what the calculation has shown:

*General explanation if the reaction is feasible:*

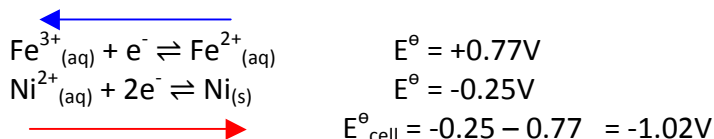
*The electrode potential for the <REDUCTION HALF CELL> is **more positive** than the electrode potential for the <OXIDATION HALF CELL> so <SPECIES BEING REDUCED> is a sufficiently powerful oxidizing agent to oxidise <SPECIES BEING OXIDISED> to <SPECIES AFTER OXIDATION>, releasing the electrons needed to reduce the <SPECIES BEING REDUCED> to <SPECIES AFTER REDUCTION>.*

**"Why does Fe<sup>3+</sup> react with Ni ?"**

The electrode potential for the Fe<sup>3+</sup>/Fe<sup>2+</sup> half cell is **more positive** than the electrode potential for Ni<sup>2+</sup>/Ni, so Fe<sup>3+</sup> is a sufficiently powerful oxidizing agent to oxidise Ni to Ni<sup>2+</sup>, releasing the electrons needed to reduce the Fe<sup>3+</sup> to Fe<sup>2+</sup>.

Now let's look at the opposite effect. Another possible redox reaction might be "Will nickel(II) ions oxidize iron(II) ions to iron(III), themselves being reduced to nickel?"

We approach this the same way: We want Fe<sup>2+</sup> → Fe<sup>3+</sup> and Ni<sup>2+</sup> → Ni



Check: Yes we've got one arrow going each way

Since E<sup>o</sup><sub>cell</sub> is negative we can say that nickel(II) ions CAN'T oxidize iron(II) to iron(III). Again we need to be able to explain what the calculation has shown:

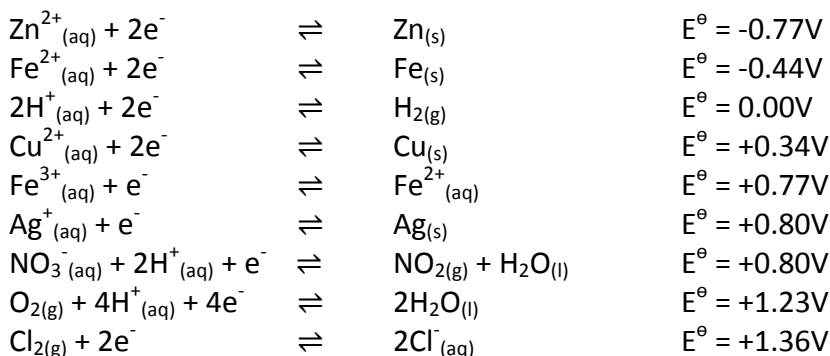
**General explanation if reaction not feasible:**

The electrode potential for the <OXIDATION HALF CELL> is **more positive** than the electrode potential for <REDUCTION HALF CELL>, so the <SPECIES BEFORE REDUCTION> is not a powerful enough oxidizing agent to oxidise <SPECIES BEFORE OXIDATION> to <SPECIES AFTER OXIDATION> and the necessary electrons will not be available to reduce <SPECIES BEFORE REDUCTION> to <SPECIES AFTER REDUCTION>.

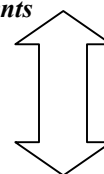
**"Why do nickel(II) ions not oxidise iron(II) to iron(III)?"**

The electrode potential for the Fe<sup>3+</sup>/Fe<sup>2+</sup>, half cell is more positive than the electrode potential for Ni<sup>2+</sup>/Ni, so the Ni<sup>2+</sup> is not a powerful enough oxidizing agent to oxidize Fe<sup>2+</sup> to Fe<sup>3+</sup> and the necessary electrons will not be available to reduce Ni<sup>2+</sup> to Ni.

So long as we know the standard electrode potentials, we can deal with quite complicated redox systems.



most likely to lose  
electrons and be  
oxidised i.e. **reducing**  
**agents**



most likely to gain  
electrons and be  
reduced i.e. **oxidising**  
**agents**

**Example: Does copper react with acids ?**

If we consider the usual reaction of a metal with an acid, i.e. metal + acid  $\rightarrow$  metal salt + hydrogen then we want  $H^+ \rightarrow H_2$  and  $Cu \rightarrow Cu^{2+}$



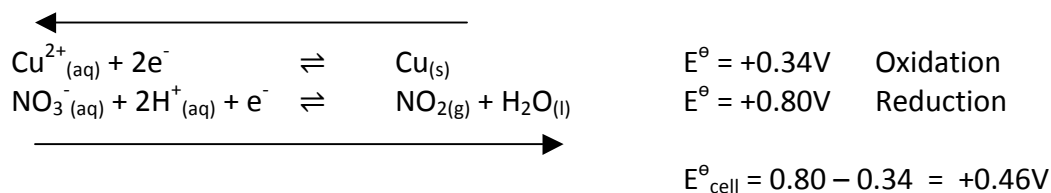
$E^\ominus_{\text{cell}}$  for this reaction =  $0.00 - 0.34 = -0.34V$  so copper won't react with the  $H^+$  ions.

Explanation:

The electrode potential for the  $Cu^{2+}/Cu$  half cell is **more positive** than the electrode potential for  $2H^+/H_2$  half cell, so the  $H^+$  ion is not a powerful enough oxidizing agent to oxidise  $Cu$  to  $Cu^{2+}$  and the necessary electrons will not be available to reduce  $H^+$  to  $H_2$ .

**So why do we observe that copper does react with nitric acid ?**

If the  $H^+$  ions aren't the oxidizing agent, it must be something to do with the other ions in the solution: the nitrate ions:



So copper will react when  $H^+$  and  $NO_3^-$  ions are both present.

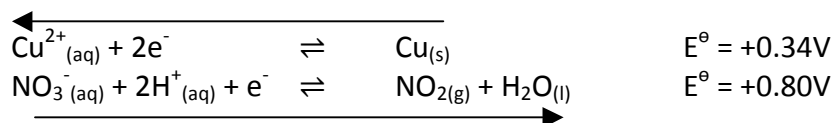
Explanation:

The electrode potential for the  $NO_3^-/NO_2$  half cell is **more positive** than the electrode potential for the  $Cu^{2+}/Cu$  half cell so  $NO_3^-$  in the presence of  $H^+$  is a sufficiently powerful oxidizing agent to oxidise  $Cu$  to  $Cu^{2+}$ , releasing the electrons needed to reduce the  $NO_3^-$  to  $NO_2$ .

**Comparing Oxidising Agents and Reducing Agents**

We might be asked to compare the species in a redox reaction and say which is the better oxidizing agent, or reducing agent.

e.g. Which species is the best oxidizing agent?



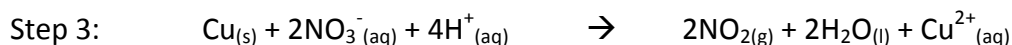
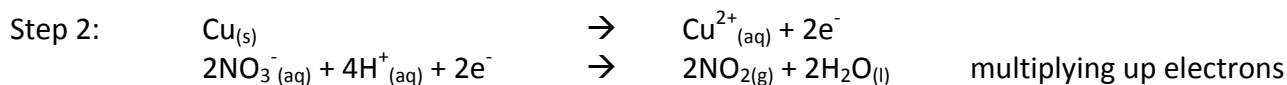
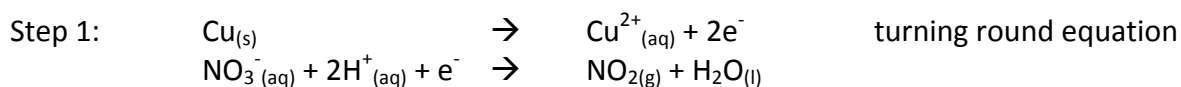
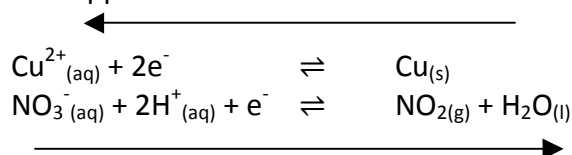
An oxidizing agent causes something else to be oxidized, so it is itself reduced. We look for the half equation that is going in the reduction direction (the one with the most positive electrode potential, so the half cell in which the reaction goes in the forward direction), and the better oxidizing agent will be the reactant(s) for that reaction: in this case, acidified nitrate ions.

If we were asked for the best reducing agent, we look for the substance that is itself oxidized, in this example the Cu, because in this half-equation the electrode potential is least positive, so the reaction is going in the reverse (oxidation) direction.

### Overall equations

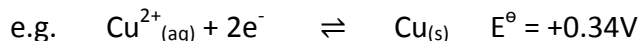
Once we have determined that a redox reaction will work, and we know in which direction the reaction in each half-cell is going we can multiply up to balance the electrons, and combine the half equations to get an overall equation for the redox reaction EXACTLY as we have done before with half equations.

e.g. when copper reacts with concentrated nitric acid:



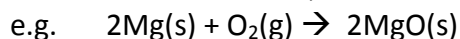
### Limitations of predictions using standard electrode potentials

1) Non-standard conditions alter the values of the electrode potentials, so if the redox reaction is to happen under any conditions other than 298K, 101kPa and concentrations of 1 mol dm<sup>-3</sup> (or equal concentrations in a metal ion/metal ion half cell) then the electrode potentials won't be correct.



If we increase the concentration of Cu<sup>2+</sup> ions, Le Chatelier tells us that the position of equilibrium moves in the forward direction to oppose the change and use up the Cu<sup>2+</sup> ions. The electrode potential measures the tendency of the reaction to go in the forward direction (i.e. to gain electrons by reduction), so the electrode potential increases compared to the standard E<sup>⊖</sup> value.

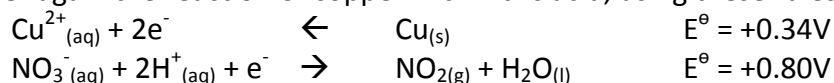
2) Standard electrode potentials apply to aqueous equilibria. Many redox reactions don't happen under these conditions, so the electrode potentials can't reflect those conditions.



3) Even if the electrode potentials indicate that a redox reaction is feasible, it says nothing about the RATE of the reaction, which may be so unobservably slow due to a very high activation energy.

As a general rule, the larger the difference between the electrode potentials of the two redox equilibria, the more likely it is that a reaction will take place in practice.

Consider again the reaction of copper with nitric acid, using these rules.



Standard conditions means the concentration of nitrate ions must be  $1 \text{ mol dm}^{-3}$ . So for copper reacting with 1M nitric acid, the difference in electrode potentials is  $0.80 - 0.34 = +0.46 \text{ V}$ . This is a fairly small difference, so the reaction might take place.

What if we use concentrated acid?

If we increase  $[\text{H}^{+}]$  then the position of equilibrium for the  $\text{NO}_3^{-}/\text{NO}_2$  redox equilibrium shifts to the right to use up the  $\text{H}^{+}$ . This means the electrode potential of the reduction half-cell gets more positive.

Remembering that  $E^{\circ}_{\text{cell}} = E^{\circ}_{\text{reduction}} - E^{\circ}_{\text{oxidation}}$ , if  $E^{\circ}_{\text{reduction}}$  increases, then  $E^{\circ}_{\text{cell}}$  increases and the reaction is more likely to be feasible, and we can anticipate it is more likely take place under these conditions (i.e. go faster).

Would the reaction go faster if we added  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  ions to the solution?

If we increase  $[\text{Cu}^{2+}]$  then the position of equilibrium for the  $\text{Cu}^{2+}/\text{Cu}$  redox equilibrium shifts to the right (forward direction) to use up the  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$ , in accordance with LeChatelier's principle. This means the electrode potential of the oxidation half-cell will have become more positive. Since  $E^{\circ}_{\text{cell}} = E^{\circ}_{\text{reduction}} - E^{\circ}_{\text{oxidation}}$ , and increase in  $E^{\circ}_{\text{oxidation}}$  will reduce  $E^{\circ}_{\text{cell}}$  and the reaction is less likely to happen.