Electron accountancy

Topic: Redox and Electrochemistry |_{for chemical reactions}

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Why do atoms bond to each other?

In nature, all systems of matter strike up a balance between achieving the least amount of order while in a condition of having the least amount of energy.

The arrangement of protons, neutrons and electrons in atoms is a good example of how this balance works. Zero charged neutrons bind with positively charged protons \oplus together in the nucleus by releasing huge amounts of energy by nuclear fusion using $E = mc^2$. This achieves the least amount of energy for those protons, but with lots of order as they are packed together neatly in the nucleus. The arrangement of a negatively charged cloud \bigcirc of dynamically mobile electrons around the nucleus produces minimised energy levels with electromagnetic interactions, but

Bohr model Protons in nucleus $\underbrace{\bigcirc}$ Cloud of Electrons

with less order in comparison to the nucleus. This is represented as the Bohr model of the atom.

Balance between the least amount of order and the least amount of energy is further enhanced when atoms form chemical bonds together. Electrons moving in the electron cloud lose much energy by being shared in an orderly arrangement between the compactly placed protons and neutrons of the nuclei. This process is represented in the following correlation diagram.

Atoms must get close together in order to form bonds. The following 'correlation' diagram represents the energy changes of this bonding in the three stages of association between atoms. The horizontal axis represents distance between the nuclei of the atoms as they get close enough to form bonds. The vertical axis represents the overall energy of the system of atoms, which includes the nuclei and electron clouds of both atoms.



The minimum energy value at Stage 3 in the correlation diagram represents the bonded condition found in molecules. When bonded, the energy balance of the system of electrons and nuclei as atoms is at its lowest. The atoms are said to be in a bonded state.

(Atoms have more energy when electrons and nuclei are in a disorderly unbonded state)

Bohr Model with Bond Graphs¹ to describe Primary Bond Formation²



¹ Rock, P; Gerhold, G (1974) Chemistry Principles and Applications pg 94 for detailed explanation of the 3-Stage process for bond formation. ² International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry (IUPAC) 2016 recommendation when determining chemical/primary bond oxidation states with Molecular Orbital approximation using Linear Combination of Atomic Orbitals (MO-LCAO).

The following diagrams represent the number of protons in each atom with a subscript, ex $_9F$, as a reminder of the balance between the number of protons and electrons in neutrally charged atoms. Use this representation when answering Bond graph questions with the Bohr model³.

- **R1** Complete the Bond graphs with Bohr models for the following bond forming situations.
- Bond formation is complete when unpaired (single) electrons form shared orbital pairs (**).
- Structural diagrams represent shared electron pairs as a solid line joining atoms (F F).



³ The Bohr model represents electron energy levels as circles where all electrons on the circle have similar energy levels. The four compass points on the circle represent electron energy sub-levels of identical energy known as orbitals, with a maximum of two electrons per orbital. © Conceptual Redox & Electrochemistry by John Drew Page 4 of 41

Bond Type and Bond Direction using Electronegativity Differences, $\Delta\chi$

Bond graphs on the previous page describe the three-stage process for bond formation:

Stage 1: Coulombic (\pm) forces attract electrons e^- to protons p^+ in different atoms.

Stage 2: Valence electrons e^- in different atoms repel each other as atoms become closer.

Stage 3: Electromagnetic spin combinations with the lowest energy levels produce a bonding orbital between atoms (which join as a molecule) as an allegiance of lowest [energy + order].

Electronegativity χ is the ability for an atom to attract electrons into its own valence shell. The short-form Periodic Table of Elements opposite includes electronegativity strengths for each element expressed as 'Allen' values. There is zero expectation for students to know these values. However, students are required to know the two electronegativity trends for these values:

- χ tends to increase left-to-right horizontally
- $\boldsymbol{\chi}$ tends to decrease top-to-bottom vertically
- χ differences between atoms is labelled $\Delta \chi$
- Distance apart on Periodic Table affects $\Delta \chi$

Bond Type is predicted by Absolute value of $\Delta \chi$ (High χ , Medium χ , Low χ) between two atoms.

- High electronegativity attracts electrons towards the valence shell of an atom.
- Low electronegativity loses electrons from an atom to the valence shell of other atoms.

Bond Direction is determined by relative (\pm) sign for $\Delta \chi$ between two atoms.

- Electron shift towards high χ atoms is defined as having a (-) bond direction $(+e^- \rightarrow -)$
- Electron shift away from low χ atoms is defined as having a (+) bond direction $(-e^- \rightarrow +)$
- There is zero overall bond direction when two atoms have the same χ value $(_A \chi _A \chi = \phi)$

Table 1: Comparing electronegativity values to determine bond type and bond direction

Electronegativity Difference $\Delta\chi$		Bond Type A—B	The solid line between atoms AB represents a chemical bond	Net Bond $(-)$ e_{B}^{-} shifts towards A $(+)$ Direction \widehat{A} $\star e_{\overline{A}}$ shifts \widehat{B} $(-) \leftarrow (+)$ High χ away from BLow χ	e^{-} shi	ft B
Large $\Delta \chi$ _A χ - _B χ \gg 0	Very High NonMetal $A^{\chi} \gg {}_{B}\chi$ Very Low Metal	ionic	[NonMetal [Metal	$(-) \begin{array}{c} e_{\overline{B}} \text{ transfers from B to A (+)} \\ \text{Highest} & \widehat{A} \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \overleftarrow{\boldsymbol{x}} & \overleftarrow{\boldsymbol{x}} \\ \overleftarrow{\boldsymbol{x}} \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \widehat{B} \\ \chi \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \text{Lowest} \\ \chi \end{array} \\ (-) \leftarrow (+) \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \widehat{B} \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \widehat{A} \end{array}$	total transfer A ⁻ . B ⁺	en AB)
$\begin{array}{l} \text{Medium } \Delta \chi \\ _{A}\chi{B}\chi > 0 \end{array}$	Higher NonMetal A $\chi \ge {}_{B}\chi$ Lower NonMetal	polar covalent	Includes Metalloids [NonMetal [NonMetal Includes Transitions	$\begin{array}{c} (-) \ e_{\rm B}^{-} \text{ partial shift from B to A (+)} \\ \text{Higher} \ \widehat{A} \ \overbrace{\mathcal{K}^{} \times \mathcal{K}}^{\mathbf{K}^{} \times} \ \widehat{B} \ \underset{\chi}{\text{Lower}} \\ (-) \leftarrow (+) \ e_{\rm A}^{-} \text{ partial shift towards B} \end{array}$	partial shared $A^{\delta^-} - B^{\delta^+}$	sed (betwe
Small $\Delta \chi$ _A χ - _B $\chi \approx 0$	Both $_{NonMetals}^{High}$ $_{A}\chi \approx _{B}\chi$	non-polar covalent	[NonMetal [NonMetal	$(-) \begin{array}{c} e_{B}^{-} \text{ equal shift from B to A } (-) \\ \text{High} & \widehat{A} \xrightarrow{\boldsymbol{\times}} & \widehat{B} \\ \chi \end{array} \xrightarrow{\boldsymbol{\times}} & \widehat{B} \\ (-)\phi(-) \end{array} \xrightarrow{\boldsymbol{e}_{A}^{-} \text{ equal shift from A to B}} (-)\phi(-) \begin{array}{c} e_{A}^{-} \text{ equal shift from A to B} \end{array} \xrightarrow{\boldsymbol{\times}} (-)\phi(-) \end{array}$	equal shared A— B	Locali
	Both $_{Metals}^{Low}$ $_{A}\chi \approx _{B}\chi$	metallic	[Metal [Metal	$\begin{array}{c} (+) \ e_{\rm A}^{-} \ {\rm equal \ drift \ from \ A \ and \ B}} (+) \\ {\rm Low} \ & {\widetilde {\rm A}} \\ \chi \\ \chi \\ (-) \emptyset (-) \end{array} \overset{(+)}{\underset{e_{\rm B}^{-} \ {\rm equal \ drift \ from \ B \ and \ A}}{\overset{(+)}{\underset{\chi}{}}} \overset{(+)}{\underset{e_{\rm B}^{-} \ {\rm equal \ drift \ from \ B \ and \ A}}} \overset{(+)}{\underset{\chi}{\overset{(+)}{\underset{\chi}{}}} \overset{(+)}{\underset{\chi}{}} \overset{(+)}{\underset{\chi}{} \overset{(+)}{\underset{\chi}{}} \overset{(+)}{\underset{\chi}{}} \overset{(+)}{\underset{\chi}{}} \overset{(+)}{\underset{\chi}{}} \overset{(+)}{\underset{\chi}{} \overset{(+)}{\underset{\chi}{}} (+)$	Delocalis (around all	sed AB)





Table 2 illustrates how each bond type forms a stable configuration of valence electron orbitals.

⁴ a) Two polar covalent bonds $S^{\delta-} - H^{\delta+}$; b) Three polar covalent bonds $N^{\delta-} - H^{\delta+}$; c) Two polar covalent bonds $O^{\delta+} - F^{\delta-}$;

d) Three covalent bonds P— H $\binom{H}{2.30}\chi - \frac{P}{2.25}\chi = 0.05 \approx \emptyset$; e) One polar covalent bond $O^{\delta-}$ — H^{$\delta+$} and one ionic bond Li¹⁺. OH¹⁻



This forms the foundation of the next Topic: Redox and Electrochemistry. © Conceptual Redox & Electrochemistry by John Drew Page 7 of 41

Determining Chemical Bond Types [Revision plus some extension]

The number of bonds formed by an atom is determined by its Group number and Period number. A stable, or expanded, octet is achieved by the loss or gain of the least number of e^- for the valence shell to produce the most spin-pair orbitals per shell *n* according to $2n^2$.

Maximum electrons per shell number n $\max_{shell}^{e^{-}per} = 2n^{2}$

n	Examples from the Periodic Table
Shells n < 3	Group II Period 2 Berylium loses two e^- for a valence shell doublet (rather than gain six e^- for an octet); Group V Period 2 Nitrogen gains three e^- for a valence shell octet (rather than lose five e^- for a doublet).
Shells $n \ge 3$	Group VI Period 3 Sulphur can share six e^- to form six spin-pairs with $12e^- < 2 \times 3^2$ (to achieve an expanded octet); Transition Group VIIB Period 4 Manganese can share $7e^-$ to form 7 spin-pair bonds with $14e^- < 2 \times 4^2$.

Electronegativity Matrix for Bond Types⁵

Bond types between two atoms, **A** and **B**, can be determined by considering the range of electronegativity values possible (Low, Medium or High) for each atom as the columns and rows of a matrix.

- Electronegativity increases left-to-right and decreases top-to-bottom in the grid (just like in the Periodic Table).
- Assign Low_χ, Medium_χ or High_χ value for each atom (see Periodic Table).
- Locate the intersection between the column for atom A and the row for atom B to determine Bond Type name.

Bond Type intersections in Electronegativity χ Matrix								
,		Leas	st χ atom; $\chi \mathbf{A} \leq$	≤ χ Β				
χ.	ιsχd	Lowχ	Mediumχ	Highχ				
atom	Highχ	lonic Bond	Polar Covalent Bond	Covalent Bond				
Β ; Most χ a	Mediumχ	Metallic Hydride Bond	Organo Metallic Bond	This section				
$\chi \mathbf{A} \leq \chi_{\chi}$	Lowχ	Metallic Bond		left blank because χ Α ≰ χ Β				



⁵ The two grey font bond types are not part of the SACE Chemistry curriculum. These are shown for completeness of electronegativity differences in chemical bonds. Mg atoms in chlorophyll is an example of metals forming organometallic covalent bonds with non-metals. Nickel metal Hydride (NiMH) batteries are examples of metallic hydrides.





Part 1 Defining Oxidation States

Knowledge of the bond direction <u>and</u> the number of chemical bonds between atoms (valency) in a molecule or extended network lattice enables us to determine oxidation states for atoms.

Bond Direction due to electronegativity χ forces of attraction shifting e^- between atoms: • Increasing e^- control makes an atom more negatively charged: $\therefore + e^- \rightarrow (-)$ <u>direction</u> . • Decreasing e^- control makes an atom less negatively charged: $\therefore -e^- \rightarrow (+)$ <u>direction</u> . • Expanded octet for RHS Period 3 and higher.								
Bond <u>direction</u> (\pm) WITH Valency <u>nur</u>	<u>nber</u> (<i>n</i>)) is Oxida	ation State $(\pm n)$	ka].				
• Reduction is shifting e^- towards a re	eactant:	Gain (+)	$e^- \times \mathbf{n} = (-\mathbf{n})$ decreas	ed <mark>OS</mark>				
• Oxidation is shifting e^- away from a	reactant	t: Lose (–) $e^- \times n = (+n)$ increases	ased <mark>OS</mark> .				
Reduction and Oxidation occur simulta	neously	during ch	emical reactions as R	edox.				
Oxidation State $(\pm n)$ is the product of bonding-electrons shifting between at • (\pm) The direction of electrons shifting b • (n) The number of chemical bonds an a	betweer toms for between a tom make	n bond di chemical atoms due t es with dif	rection (\pm) with the bond formation, $(\pm n)$ to differences in elected formation, the differences in elected ferent elements.	number = $(\pm) \times ($ tronegativi	r (<i>n</i>): (<i>n</i>): ity ∆;) x;		
Non-zero Oxidation State may be	Electron	egativity χ	Dond Turno		6 4			
assigned when there is a chemical	Δχ	Туре	Bond Type	e Sni	π			
bond between two, or more, atoms.	Zero	Both Low	metallic $\begin{bmatrix} Metal \\ Metal \end{bmatrix}$	delocalis	ed			
• Differences in χ ($\Delta \chi$) between atoms	to low	Both High	$\left(\begin{smallmatrix} Non \\ Polar \end{smallmatrix} ight)$ covalent $\left[\begin{smallmatrix} Non & Metal \\ Non & Metal \end{smallmatrix} ight)$	shared	þ			
produce different bond types.	medium	Medium with High	polar covalent [Non Metal Non Metal	partial	alise			
 ∠ero electronegativity difference produces a zero-oxidation state. 	high	One Low One High	ionic [Metal Non Metal	complete	Loc			

What directional sign for Oxidation State, in Compounds? (-) or (+) or (zero)

- Structural formulae represent shared valence e^- pairs as a line between two bonded atoms.
- High χ atoms have e^- shift towards them, producing a (-) **OS** sign for atoms with high χ .
- Low χ atoms have e^- shift away from them, producing a (+) **OS** sign for atoms with low χ .
- Equal χ atoms have e^- shift equally between them, giving a (zero) **OS** sign for each atom.



Assigning Bond Direction (\pm) Using Periodic Table Electronegativity Trends

Oxidation States represent electron movement between bonding atoms along chemical bonds. Distribution of bonding electrons between atoms is caused by electronegativity differences, $\Delta \chi$.

- Equal sharing of electrons between atoms produces (Non Polar) covalent bonds for two atoms both with high electronegativity, or metallic bonds for atoms all having low electronegativity.
- Partial sharing of electrons between atoms produces polar-covalent bonds.
- Complete transfer of electrons atom-to-atom produces separate ions were each ionic charge represents one **ionic bond**. **Ex**: Li^{1+} forms one ionic bond; P^{3-} forms three ionic bonds.

Q1 Write oxidation state $(\pm n)$ above each atom in these structural and molecular formulae.

- Derive bond **direction** (±) using **electronegativity** differences from Short Form Table; Obtain **valency** (*n*) by counting the number of bonds shown in the structural formulae. •
- Phosphorous trichloride **PCI**₃ is a non-metal / non-metal polar covalent molecule. #
 - P is slightly left of CI on the Periodic Table in same Period; electronegativity P < CI
 - P is in Group 5 with valency 3; CI is in Group 7 with valency 1



Summing Up $(\boldsymbol{\Sigma})$ Oxidation State Bond Orders

Oxidation state values within each type of chemical species are the arithmetic sum (Σ) of the overall ionic (electrical charge) value of the species when considered as structural formula. This outcome is the result of accounting for the distribution of electrically charged bonding electrons.

- The generalised name for any type of chemical is 'species'; this includes combinations of structural type (molecule/lattice) with formula (element/compound) and charge (neutral/ion):
 - Solid ammonium nitrate is an ionic lattice of molecular ions: $NH_4NO_3 \rightarrow (NH_4)^{1+} + (NO_3)^{1-}$
 - Aqueous sodium bicarbonate contains dissociated ions: $NaHCO_{3(s)} \xrightarrow{(aq)} Na_{(aq)}^{1+} + (HCO_{3})_{(aq)}^{1-}$
 - Glucose is a discontinuous lattice of polar molecules: $C_6H_{12}O_{6(s)} \xrightarrow{(aq)} C_6H_{12}O_{6(aq)}$
 - Q2 Write oxidation state (±n) above each atom in these structural and molecular formulae.
 Oxidation state values add up to the overall ionic charge for molecules (including zero)



Averaging Oxidation States

Individual atoms can gain and lose electrons when surrounded by atoms with different electronegativity values. The resultant competing bond directions requires structural analysis.

- Organic molecules often have the same carbon atom taking electrons from hydrogen while losing electrons to oxygen (or halogens) within the same structure.
- Carbon-to-carbon bonds contribute a zero-oxidation state (atoms of the same element).
- The competing bond directions can be averaged for each element in a species.

Q3 Write oxidation state $(\pm n)$ above each atom in these structural and molecular formulae.

- Average the oxidation state for elements with competing bond directions.
- Assign fractional oxidation states as a value averaged over a molecule as appropriate.



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Sulphur can only have three types of valency:

• n = 2 to achieve a 'stable octet' for Group 6;

• n = 4 or 6 as Period 3 can 'expand the octet'.

Each valency type can then combine with many different elements to produce a large range of **electronegativity** differences as $\pm n$ **OS**:

- Zero difference between two sulphur atoms;
- **OS** = ⁻² **or** ⁻¹ with elements having lower electronegativity values than Sulphur;
- **OS** = +1, +2, +4 or +6 with higher values.

 χ Electronegativity Allen Values н P1 for Short Form Periodic Table 2 30 n/a Be B 0 Тi С Ν P2 0.91 1.58 2.05 3.61 4.19 n/a 2.54 3.07 Von-Metals P Mg AI ട്ട Na CI **P**3 2.25 1.29 1.61 1.92 n/a 0.87 2.59 2.87 Ga As Kr Κ Са Ge Se Br **P4** 0.73 1.03 1.76 1.99 2.21 2.42 2.67 ransition/Rare Rb Sr In Sn Te P5 1.98 0.71 0.96 1.66 1.82 2.16 2.36 Ba TL Pb Bi Cs Po At P6 0.88 0.66 1.79 1.85 2.01 2.19 2.39 Ra **Metalloids Metals** 0.67 0.89 **G1 G2** G3 G4 G5 G6 G7 G8

Q4 Write oxidation state $(\pm n)$ above each atom in these structural and molecular formulae.

- Obtain valency (n) by counting the number of bonds shown in the structural formulae;
- Derive **bond direction** (<u>+</u>) using electronegativity differences from Short Form Table⁷.



⁶ IUPAC is currently reviewing the use of pre-determined rules to be the definition for Oxidation States due to the inherent circularity.

⁷ IUPAC preferred electronegativity scale; see https://www.degruyter.com/view/j/pac.2016.88.issue-8/pac-2015-1204/pac-2015-1204.xml

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Three Rules arising from the Oxidation State Definition

Non-zero **Oxidation states** $(\pm n \neq 0)$ represent the number of chemical bonds an atom makes with **different** types of atoms (elements) in a chemical compound (two, or more, different elements).

0 Elements as neutrally charged atoms have oxidation state of zero

- Identical atoms have $\Delta \chi = 0$, and therefore zero overall bond direction.
- charge neutral Hence, **oxidation state** of any (element is **zero**, regardless of **n**





- The very rare element Fluorine has the highest Allen's electronegativity value of 4.2
- The very common element oxygen has the second highest Allen's electronegativity value of 3.6
- Oxygen is the most electronegative **common** element: All the other $\chi < \frac{\tilde{O}xygen}{3.6}\chi < \frac{Fluorine}{4.2}\chi$

Group VI oxygen has a Valency of 2 to achieve a stable octet and a very high electronegativity for OS^{-2} .



Lavoisier suggested that Oxidation State⁹ was the measure of how much oxygen had combined with an element.

O Hydrogen forms compounds with oxidation state ⁺¹ (but not with metals)



⁸ Only 1 in 10 million (10⁷) water molecules self-ionise $H_2O \xrightarrow{(aq)} H_{(aq)}^{1+} + OH_{(aq)}^{1-}$ to form ions external to any water H_2O molecules 9 https://www.chemheritage.org/historical-profile/antoine-laurent-lavoisier

The Arithmetic Link Between Oxidation State and overall lonic Charge

Ionic charge is the surplus, or deficiet, of electrons in an atom or molecule due to complete electron transfer between atoms or molecules with high electronegativity differences.

Single atoms that gain, or lose, electrons become monatomic ions with ionic charges equivalent to their oxidation state values.

Molecules that gain, or lose, electrons become polyatomic ions with an algebraic connection between the total sum of oxidation states within the molecule and its overall ionic charge.



Charge)



The correct **oxidation state** value for all elements can be calculated by applying the 'three rules' every time: ● OS between elements is zero; ● OS for oxygen is usually ⁻²; ● OS for hydrogen is ⁺¹ with non-metals • All other elements need to adjust their oxidation state arithmetically to correspond with these three rules. Alternatively, structural diagrams do reveal the number of bonds being made, but they can become very complex.

Q5 Assign oxidation state values to the <u>underlined</u> elements in the following compounds.								
(a) Elements in Period	3, and higher, can 'Ex	(b) Transition element	s and Metalloids					
Phosphorous	Chlorine	Sulphur	Transition	Metalloids				
<u>Р</u> Н ₃	Н <u>СІ</u>	<u></u> § F ₆	<u>v</u> o	₽o Br₂				
<u>P</u> F ₃	Na <u>Cl</u> O	H ₂ <u>S</u> O ₄	$\underline{\mathbf{V}}0_2$	<u>Po</u> O ₂				
$\underline{\mathbf{P}}_4\mathbf{O}_{10}$	<u>Cl</u> O ₂	H ₂ S O ₃	$\underline{\mathbf{V}}_{2}0_{3}$	<u>Sb</u> H₃				
Na ₄ <u>P</u> ₂ O ₇	Na <u>Cl</u> O ₃	<u>S</u> O ₂ F ₂	$\underline{\mathbf{V}}_{2}0_{5}$	<u>Te</u> 0 ₂				
H ₂ <u>P</u> O ₄ ¹⁻	<u>Cl</u> O ₄ ^{1–}	$\underline{\mathbf{S}}_2 0_4^{2-}$	$H_2 \underline{V} O_4^{1-}$	H ₄ <u>Te</u> O ₆ ^{2–}				

Q6 Write oxidation states above the atoms in the following formulae and structural diagrams as in these examples.						
$\label{eq:strongly} \begin{array}{c} \underline{\textbf{Example}} & +_{1}{2} +_{1} & \text{The N} \\ \text{Sodium Hydroxide NaOH (3D ionic lattice)} & \text{and O} \\ \text{Valency Na} = 1; H = 1; O = 2 & \text{arrang} \\ \textbf{Electronegativity Na} \ll H \ll O & \text{pattern} \\ \textbf{Ma} \ll \textbf{O} & \text{metal} \\ \textbf{Na} \ll \textbf{O} \\ \text{metal} & \textbf{h} \ll \textbf{O} \\ \text{metal} & \textbf{h} = \textbf{O} \\ \textbf{Na} \ll \textbf{O} \\ \text{metal} & \textbf{h} = \textbf{O} \\ \textbf{Na} \approx \textbf{O} \\ \text{metal} & \textbf{h} = \textbf{O} \\ \textbf{Na} \approx \textbf{O} \\ \textbf{Matrix} = \textbf{A} \\ \textbf{A} \\ \textbf{A} = \textbf{A} \\ \textbf{A} \\ \textbf{A} = \textbf{A} \\ $	a ¹⁺ cations H ¹⁻ anions are ed in a 3D repeating n extending in all ons. are <u>no</u> O^{2-} or H ¹⁺ the extended lattice. Polar Covalent Polar Covalent Polar Covalent O Bond H^{1-} O H^{1+} O H^{1+} O H^{1-} O O H^{1-} O H^{1-} O O O O O O O O					
a) Ammonia NH_3 Valency N = 3; H = 1 $Electronegativity$ $H < N$ $metalloid$ $non metal$ $polar$ $covalent$ bond	Non-symmetric distribution of the three polar covalent bonds cause NH ₃ to be a polar molecule. There are distinct δ - and δ + ends for the overall molecule.					
b) Methane CH_4 Valency $C = 4$; $H = 1$ $H \leq C$ metalloid non metal B $H \leq C$ polar covalent bond	Symmetric distribution of the four polar covalent bonds cause CH_4 to be a non-polar molecule. There are no δ - or δ + ends for the overall molecule.					
c) Carbon Dioxide CO_2 Valency $C = 4$; $O = 2$ Electronegativity C < 0 mildly polar covalen non metal bond bond	Symmetric distribution of the two sets of polar covalent bonds cause CO_2 to be a non-polar molecule. Non-Polar Molecule					
d) Silica SiO_2 (3D continuous Lattice) $Si < 0$ Valency $Si = 4; 0 = 2$ $Si < 0$ metalloid non metal bond	Each Si has four O as its nearest niegbours. Each O has two Si as its nearest niegbours. These lattice coordination values average to SiO ₂ .					
e) Peridot Mg_2SiO_4 (gem-stone quality olivine) Orthosilicates contain independant SiO_4^{4-} anions. Valency $Mg = 2$; $Si = 4$; $O = 2$ Electronegativity $Mg < Si < O$ $Mg \ll O$ metal non metal $\begin{cases} ionic \\ bond \end{cases}$; $Si < O$ metalloid non metal \end{cases} $polar$ covalent bond \end{cases} The cubic framework for the 3D lattices in Part d) Silic and Part e) Peridot show four oxygen atoms at diagonally opposite corners of the cubes, with one silicon atom at the centre. This arrangement represents the tetrahedral SiO_4 structural unit usually	$Mg^{2+} = 0^{1-} Mg^{2+} Mg^$					
independent anions, sometimes interlocking crystals.						

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Identifying Oxidation States with Carbon

Carbon has a range of **oxidation states** from $^{-4}$ in methane CH₄ to $^{+4}$ in carbon dioxide CO₂.

- The oxidation state of carbon will be either negative (-) or positive (+) depending on the electronegativity difference with the other element with which it is bonding.
 - When carbon bonds with hydrogen, carbon contributes a negative oxidation state value.
 - \circ $\,$ When carbon bonds with oxygen, carbon contributes a positive oxidation state value.
- When carbon bonds with itself, there is zero electronegativity difference between the bonding atoms. Therefore, each carbon-to-carbon bond contributes zero oxidation state value.

The overall oxidation state for carbon is an arithmetic average of these contributions.



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Many organic and biological reactions are redox as indicated by the changing **oxidation states** of carbon as electrons are shifted within molecules for the process of Reactant \rightarrow Product.



Application of the three rules of Redox provide a reasonable approximation for determining the extent to which oxidation states change during more complex organic reactions. Much more detailed calculations using molecular orbital combinations would be needed for more precise oxidation state values than the fractions suggested in the next question.



¹⁰ Moore, Physical Chemistry 5th Edition; Non-localised Molecular Orbitals pp 718 – 722; Longman 1972

¹¹ Rock & Gerhold, Chemistry Principles and Applications; (Extended) Molecular-Orbital Methods pp 122 – 126; W.B. Saunders Co., 1974 © Conceptual Redox & Electrochemistry by John Drew Page 20 of 41

When Oxidation States Differ from Group Numbers

The Periodic Table of Elements shown below is a 'Short Form' version. It does not show the Transition Elements or the Rare Earths. This highlights the diagonal trends in the Period Table.

- The metals with low electronegativity values form positive (+) oxidation states with fixed (n).
- The metalloids (and Transition Elements) with intermediate electronegativity values form
 (+) oxidations states with multiple possible values (n) for elements in Period 3 and greater.
- The **non-metals** with high electronegativity values form negative (-) oxidation states. They also form multiple values (*n*) for Period 3 and greater, known as 'Expanding the Octet'.



Q10 Refer to the Short Form Periodic Table above to determine the oxidation state of the <u>underlined</u> elements.	Example	Arsenic Acid As < H < 0 H ₃ <u>As</u> $0_4 \rightarrow \overset{+1}{\underset{\times 3}{\mathbb{H}_3}} \overset{x -2}{\underset{\times 4}{\mathbb{H}_3}} \overset{Overall}{\underset{\times 4}{\mathbb{H}_3}} \overset{x -2}{\underset{\times 4}{\mathbb{H}_3}} \overset{Overall}{\underset{\times 3}{\mathbb{H}_3}} \overset{As}{\underset{\times 4}{\mathbb{H}_3}} \overset{Overall}{\underset{\times 3}{\mathbb{H}_3}} \overset{Overall}{\underset{\times 3}{\mathbb{H}_3}} \overset{Overall}{\underset{\times 3}{\mathbb{H}_3}} \overset{As}{\underset{\times 4}{\mathbb{H}_3}} \overset{Overall}{\underset{\times 3}{\mathbb{H}_3}} \overset{As}{\underset{\times 4}{\mathbb{H}_3}} \overset{Overall}{\underset{\times 3}{\mathbb{H}_3}} \overset{As}{\underset{\times 4}{\mathbb{H}_3}} \overset{Overall}{\underset{\times 3}{\mathbb{H}_3}} \overset{Overall}{\underset{\times 3}{\mathbb{H}_3}} \overset{Overall}{\underset{\times 3}{\mathbb{H}_3}} \overset{As}{\underset{\times 4}{\mathbb{H}_3}} \overset{Overall}{\underset{\times 3}{\mathbb{H}_3}} \overset{Overall}{\underset{\times 3}{\mathbb{H}_3}{\mathbb{H}_3}} \overset{Overall}{\underset{\times 3}{\mathbb{H}_3}} \overset{Overal}{\underset{\times 3}{\mathbb{H}_3}} \overset{Overall}{$	1

a)	<u>M</u> etalloids	$\underline{\mathbf{As}}_20_3$	<u>Sb</u> ₂ S ₃	<u>₽o</u> Cl₄	<u>Si</u> ₄ 0 ^{6–} ₁₁
b)	<u>G</u> roup III and IV metals	<u>Tl</u> ₂ S	$\underline{\mathbf{Ga}}_20_3$	<u>Sn</u> Cl ₂	<u>Pb</u> SO ₄ ²⁻
c)	<u>N</u> itrogen and its many variations	<u>N</u> H ₃	$\underline{\mathbf{N}}_20_4 \rightleftarrows 2\underline{\mathbf{N}}0_2$	<u>N</u> ₂ 0	<u>N</u> 0 ¹⁻ ₃
d)	<u>C</u> h <u>l</u> orine variations	<u>Cl</u> ₂ 0	<u>Cl</u> 0 ₂	Н <u>СІ</u> О ₃	<u>Cl</u> O ₄ ^{1–}
e)	<u>G</u> roup V multiple choices	Al <u>P</u> O ₄	<u>As</u> (0H) ₃	$Ga(\underline{N}O_2)_3$	Na <u>Sb</u> O ₃ ^{2–}
Example	Pyro Phosphate \mathbf{P}_2 P < 0	$_{2}O_{7}^{4-} \rightarrow \left[\begin{array}{c} x & -2\\ \overline{P}_{2} & \overline{O}_{7}\\ \times 2 & \times 7 \end{array}\right]^{4-}$	If $2x + (-14) =$ Then $2x = +10$ $\therefore x = +5$ for each	4^- for \underline{P}_2 atoms +5 ch single $\underline{\widehat{P}}$ atom	

Oxidation State for Transition Elements

silicates

Uranium

d)

Rare Earth

 $\underline{\mathbf{U}}\mathbf{F}_{6}$

- There is **zero expectation** to recall the Allen electronegativity values χ shown in the Periodic Table below. •
- The values are the experiment-based evidence for the **electronegativity trends** you **do** need to learn. •

₁ H 2.30	$\frac{1}{30} \chi \text{ Allen Electronegativity values (with Pauling units)} \qquad \qquad$														₂ <mark>He</mark> n/a		
₃ Li 0.91	i4Be11.58Electronegativity increases left-to-right across each Period.562.053.073.614.19														₁₀ <mark>Ne</mark> n/a		
11 Na 0.87	However, some transition elements vary with slight decreases as well: nickel Ni \rightarrow copper Cu \rightarrow zinc Zn is a χ decrease. 13AI 14Si 15P 16S 17CI 18A 1.61 1.92 2.25 2.59 2.87 1/2										₁ଃ <mark>Ar</mark> n/a						
₁₉ K 0.73	20 Ca 1.03	21Sc 22Ti 23V 24Cr 25Mn 26Fe 27Co 28Ni 29Cu 30Zn 1.19 1.38 1.53 1.65 1.75 1.80 1.84 1.88 1.85 1.59							₃₀ Zn 1.59	₃₁ Ga 1.76	32 Ge 1.99	₃₃ As 2.21	₃₄ Se 2.42	₃₅ Br 2.69	₃₅Kr n/a		
37 Rb 0.71	38 Sr 0.96	Elect	troneg	ativity	T usually	'rans i / decre	i tion ases		ents ar Cu	₄7 Ag 1.87	₄8Cd 1.52	₄∍ ln 1.66	₅₀ Sn 1.82	Me			G8 ato attract
55 Cs 0.66	₅ Ba 0.88	dow tran	n each sition	n Grou elemer	p. How hts var	vever, s y with s	some slight	coppe ↓ silver	Aa	7 9Au 1.92	₀Hg 1.76	81 TI 1.79	82 Pb 1.85	talloi			ms do n electroi
₈₇ Fr 0.67	88Ra 0.89	a increases as well: χ variations are gold Au Metals \overline{S}											ns				
Met	caused by non-symmetric filling of d-subshell e ⁻ orbitals.																

Use the Allen Electronegativity Periodic Table above along with the Three OS Rules Q11 to determine the **oxidation state** of the **underlined** transition elements:

Examples using Iron Fe: Oxygen remains ⁻² even when the other element, iron Fe, is being weird

Ferrous Oxide <u>Fe</u> O Electronegativity $Fe < 0$	Ferr Elect	ic Oxide $\underline{Fe}_2 O_3$ tronegativity Fe < 0	Magne Electroneg $x = -2$	Magnetite $\underline{Fe}_{3}O_{4}$ Electronegativity $Fe < O$ x -2Overall				
$\begin{array}{c} x \xrightarrow{-2} & \text{Overall} \\ \overline{Fe} \stackrel{\frown}{0} \xrightarrow{0} \rightarrow Fe \stackrel{\frown}{0} \stackrel{O}{0} \stackrel{Charge}{charge} \\ \times 1 \times 1 \rightarrow Fe \stackrel{\frown}{0} \stackrel{O}{0} \stackrel{Charge}{charge} \\ \text{If } x + (-2) = 0 \\ \text{Then } x = +2 \text{ for the} \\ \text{single Fe atom as:} \\ \begin{array}{c} +2 & -2 \\ \overline{Fe} \stackrel{\frown}{0} \text{ lron (II) Oxide} \end{array}$	$ \begin{array}{c} \overline{Fe}_{2} & \overline{0} \\ \overline{\times 2} & \times \\ \end{array} $ If $2x + (-7)$ Then $2x$ atoms, w each sing $+3$ \overline{Fe}_{2}	$ \frac{3}{3} \rightarrow \frac{\mathbf{Fe}_2}{2x} \frac{\mathbf{O}_3}{\mathbf{-6}} \stackrel{\text{Charge}}{= 0} $ $ \mathbf{Fe}_2 \frac{\mathbf{O}_3}{\mathbf{-6}} \stackrel{\text{Charge}}{= 0} $ $ \mathbf{Fe}_3 = \mathbf{O} $ $ \mathbf{Fe}_4 = \mathbf{O} $ $ \mathbf{Fe}_4 = \mathbf{O} $ $ \mathbf{Fe}_4 = \mathbf{O} $ $ \mathbf{Fe}_5 = \mathbf{O} $ $ \mathbf{Fe}_4 = \mathbf{O} $ $ \mathbf{Fe}_5 = \mathbf{Fe}_5 = \mathbf{O} $ $ \mathbf{Fe}_5 = \mathbf{O} $	$ \begin{array}{c} \widetilde{\mathbf{Fe}}_{3} \ \widetilde{0}_{4} \rightarrow \\ \text{If } 3x + (^{-8}) = \\ \text{Then } 3x = ^{+8} \\ \text{Fe atoms, with} \\ \text{for each Fe atoms, with} \\ \text{for each Fe atoms, of Iron (II) and Iron} \end{array} $	$\begin{array}{l} \underbrace{\mathbf{Fe}_{3}}{3x} & \underbrace{\mathbf{O}_{4}}{\mathbf{B}} & \underbrace{\mathbf{Charge}}{= 0} \\ 0 \\ \mathbf{for the three} \\ \mathbf{n} & x = \frac{^{+}8}{_{3}} = ^{+}2\frac{^{2}}{_{3}} \\ & \overset{+2^{2}}{_{3}} = ^{-2} \\ \mathbf{om as: } & \mathbf{Fe}_{3} & \mathbf{O}_{4} \\ \mathbf{ystalline combination} \\ \mathbf{n} & (III) \end{array}$				
a) <u>M</u> a <u>n</u> ganese variations	<u>Mn</u> Cl ₂	$\underline{\mathbf{Mn}}_{2}0_{3}$	$\underline{\mathbf{Mn}}_{3}0_{4}$	$\underline{Mn}O_4^{1-}$				
b) <u>C</u> h <u>r</u> omium variations	<u>Cr</u> 0 ₂	<u>Cr</u> Cl ₂	$\underline{\mathbf{Cr}}_2(\mathrm{SO}_4)_3$	<u>Cr</u> ₂ 0_7^{2-}				
c) Transition ion	F e SiO ₄	Sc ₂ Si ₂ O ₇	Ca ₃ Fe ₂ Si ₃ O ₁₂	$Ca\underline{Cr}_2(SiO_4)_3^{4-}$				

 $\underline{\mathbf{U}}0_2$

 $\underline{\mathbf{U}}_{3}\mathbf{0}_{8}$

 $U0_{2}^{2-}$

Part 2 Redox Reactions: Assigning Oxidation States in Reactions

Assigning oxidation states for reagents (reactants \rightarrow products) in a chemical reaction will let you know if the reaction is Redox, or not. Oxidation states need to change if a reaction is Redox.

Consider the dissolving of solid sodium carbonate Na₂CO_{3(s)} in water.



- \circ e⁻ loss has an increase in oxidation state (**Ox**idation); more positive with less e⁻.
- There is an overall balanced flow of electrons between reagents in **Redox** reactions.

Identifying a Redox Reaction using Oxidation States

Now consider the apparent dissolving of sodium metal Na(s) in dilute Hydrochloric acid HCI(aq).



When the Arithmetic Link Appears to Give Weird Values

The presence of same-element to same-element bonds in a compound produces oxidation state values that do not correspond with the expected valency values from the Periodic Table of Elements.



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Q14 These reactions are redox. The two examples at the start and finish demonstrate how the number of electrons being transferred during Reduction equals the number of electrons shifted during Oxidation.

- Reduction and oxidation is also represented as separate [reactant | product] Redox conjugate pairs.
- [reactant | product] retains the same left-to-right [reactant \rightarrow product] representation as the reaction equation.
- Oxidation states are written above \widetilde{Cu} and below \underline{Zn} individual redox species for visual clarity of electron transfer.

Your **task** is to demonstrate how many electrons are being transferred in the remaining Redox reactions.

<u>ex #1</u>	$\begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{c} (\text{reduction}) \\ \text{gain } 1 \times 2e^{-} \\ \end{array} \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} 0 \\ \hline Cu \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} \text{SO}_{4} + \underbrace{\text{Zn}}_{0} \rightarrow \underbrace{\text{Cu}}_{1} + \underbrace{\text{Zn}}_{0} \text{SO}_{4} \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} 0 \\ \hline 0 \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} \text{lose } 1 \times 2e^{-} \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} \text{covidation} \end{array} \end{array}$	Redox reagent pair: • copper (11) $Cu^{2+} Cu$ copper metal and • zinc $Zn Zn^{2+}$ zinc (11) two electrons transferred
(a)	$2\text{AgCl} + \text{Zn} \rightarrow 2\text{Ag} + \text{ZnCl}_2$	Redox reagent pair: • silver (I) $Ag^{1+} Ag$ silver metal and • zinc $Zn Zn^{2+}$ zinc (II)
(b)	$2Fe_2O_3 + 3C \xrightarrow{\text{blast furnace}} 4Fe + 3CO_2$	Redox reagent paír: • íron (III) Fe³⁺ Fe íron metal and • carbon C CO₂ carbon díoxíde
(c)	$Cr_2O_7^{2-} + 8H^{1+} + 3H_2O_2 \rightarrow 2Cr^{3+} + 7H_2O + 3O_2$	Redox reagent paír: • díchromate $\mathrm{Cr_2O_7^{2-} Cr^{3+}}$ and • hydrogen peroxíde $\mathrm{H_2O_2 O_2}$ Oxygen
(d)	$Cu_2O + 2HNO_3 + 4H^{1+} \rightarrow 2Cu^{2+} + 2NO_2 + 3H_2O$	Redox reagent paír: • nítrate NO ₃ ^{1–} NO ₂ nítrogen díoxíde • copper (1) Cu ¹⁺ Cu ²⁺ copper (11)
(e)	$2CrO_4^{2-} + 16H^{1+} + 3Zn \rightarrow 2Cr^{3+} + 8H_2O + 3Zn^{2+}$	Redox reagent paír: • chromate $ ext{CrO}_4^{2-} ext{Cr}^{3+}$ chromíum (111) • zínc $ ext{Zn} ext{Zn}^{2+}$ zínc (11)
(f)	$Fe_2(SO_4)_3 + Mg \rightarrow 2FeSO_4 + MgSO_4$	Redox reagent paír: • íron (III) Fe³⁺ Fe²⁺ íron (II) • magnesíum Mg Mg²⁺
<u>ex #2</u>	$ \begin{array}{c} +7 & \xrightarrow{\text{gain } 1 \times 5e^{-} \text{ (reduction)}} \\ \stackrel{+7}{\overbrace{\text{Mn}}} 2^{+} + 5 & \stackrel{+2}{\overbrace{\text{Fe}}} 2^{+} + 8H^{1+} \rightarrow & \stackrel{+2}{\overbrace{\text{Mn}}} 2^{+} + 5 & \stackrel{+}{\overbrace{\text{Fe}}} 3^{+} + 4H_20 \\ \xrightarrow{\text{lose } 5 \times 1e^{-} \text{ (oxidation)}} \end{array} $	Redox reagent pair: • permanganate $MnO_4^{1-} Mn^{2+}$ and • iron (11) $Fe^{2+} Fe^{3+}$ iron (111) five electrons transferred

Making Sense of Organic Reactions with Redox

Yeast contains an enzyme that converts simple sugars $C_6H_{12}O_6$ into ethanol $(C_2H_5OH_{to}^{equivalent}C_2H_6O)$ and carbon dioxide CO_2 .

Bacteria in the system can then convert the ethanol into ethanoic acid $(CH_3COOH \equiv C_2H_4O_2)$ if oxygen is present (aerobic conditions).

Q15 Write the redox reagent pairs as in **Q14** for these reactions.

Apply the three **oxidation state** rules:

- Elements have zero value OS.
- **Oxygen** is **2** (except for peroxides).

• Hydrogen is ⁺¹ (except with metals).

All other elements adjust to these rules.

	$a gain 2(2 \times 2) = 8e^{-2}$	Redox reaction pairs:	
Yeast	$\overrightarrow{C} \xrightarrow{H_{12}O_c} \rightarrow 2 \overrightarrow{C} \xrightarrow{H_2O} + 2 \overrightarrow{C} \xrightarrow{O}$	•	Reduction
fermentation	$0 \xrightarrow{1}{1206} 2x^{\pm}4 = 8a^{\pm}$	•	Oxidation
	$\log 2 \times 7 = 4e^{-1}$	Redox reaction pairs:	
Bacterial	$\overrightarrow{C}_{2} \xrightarrow{-2} \xrightarrow{0} \overrightarrow{C}_{2} H_{4} O_{2} + H_{2} O_{3}$	•	Reduction
oxidation	$0 \xrightarrow{-2} -2$	•	Oxidation
	$gain 2 \times 2 = 4e^{-1}$		

Carbon having an **oxidation state** of ⁺**4** in carbon dioxide CO_2 makes sense because carbon is in Group 4 of the Periodic Table of elements, so that it can move four electrons depending on the relative electronegativity of the other reactant. But how can carbon have an **oxidation state** of ⁻**2** in ethanol or **0** in simple sugar and ethanoic acid?



Organic and biological reactions can be quite complicated because of the complex nature of the molecules involved. The following redox analysis of the fermentation of glucose $C_6H_{12}O_6$ shows how these complex reactions follow the same fundamental redox rules to explain how electron transfer is driving the reaction forward.



Q16 Identify the electron shift and redox reagent pairs for these organic reactions:

Photosynthesis	$6\text{CO}_2 + 6\text{H}_2\text{O} \xrightarrow{\text{chlorophyll}} \text{C}_6\text{H}_{12}\text{O}_6 + 6\text{O}_2$
Combustion	$2C_8H_{18} + 25O_2 \xrightarrow{\text{ignition}} 16CO_2 + 18H_2O$
Breathalyser	$2K_2Cr_2O_7 + 16HCl + 3C_2H_5OH \rightarrow 4CrCl_3 + 3CH_3COOH + 11H_2O + 4KCl$

Addition reactions can involve the insertion of Group VII Halogens across multiple carbon-to-carbon bonds.





Preparation of vinyl chloride	ethylene $C_2H_4 + Cl_2 \xrightarrow{FeCl_3 \text{ catalyst}} C_2H_4Cl_2$ vinyl chloride
Preparation of vinyl acetate	acetic acid $2C_2H_4O_2 + 2C_2H_4 + O_2 \xrightarrow{Pd \text{ catalyst}} 2H_2O + 2C_4H_6O_2$ vinyl acetate

Part 3 Electrochemistry: Writing Redox Equations

Redox reactions are best balanced using the five step ½-equation method described below.

• Identify the redox species changing oxidation states as redox conjugate pairs [reactant | product].

- Balance the number of atoms changing oxidation state on each side of [reactant → product].
- Account for missing Oxygen atoms between Reactants and Products.
 - Convert unaccounted Oxygen atoms to H₂O with the addition of H¹⁺ ions (aka acidic conditions).
- \bullet Determine the arithmetic value of total ionic charge on each side of [reactant \rightarrow product] the reaction.
 - Add electrons to the side with the lowest negative charge until both sides have equal total ionic charge.

Steps ● to ● will produce two redox ½-equations, with one showing Reduction while the other shows Oxidation.

• Determine the Lowest Common Multiple (LCM) for both ½-equations with respect to the ēlectrons.

- Use LCM to generate equal numbers of \bar{e} lectrons on each side of [reactant \rightarrow product] for elimination.
- Algebraically cancel excess H⁺ and H₂O from each side of [reactant \rightarrow product] the reaction equation.
 - Add remaining reagents from each ½-equation to obtain a balanced Redox reaction equation.

Example: Acidified violet permanganate reacts with hydrogen peroxide to form colourless Manganese (II) with oxygen effervescence. The presence of oxygen has been confirmed with a positive glowing splint test.

-				
0	Reduction conjugate pair is gaining $1 \times 5e^{-}$	$\frac{+7}{Mn}O_4^{1-} \widetilde{Mn}^{2+}$	Oxidation conjugate pair is losing $2 \times 1e^{-}$	$\begin{array}{cc} -1 & 0 \\ H_2 & \overleftarrow{O}_2 & & \overrightarrow{O}_2 \end{array}$
0	MnO_{4}^{1-} MnO_{4}^{1-} $MnO_{4}^{1-} + (4 \times 2H^{1+})$	$ \rightarrow Mn^{2+} $ $ \rightarrow Mn^{2+} + (4H_20) $ $ \rightarrow Mn^{2+} + 4H_20 $	$H_2 O_2 \rightarrow O_2$ $H_2 O_2 \rightarrow O_2 + 2$	H ¹⁺
€	$\underbrace{\frac{(1\times^{-1})+(8\times^{+1})=7}{MnO_4^{1-}+8H^{1+}}}_{(-1)+(+8)+(5\times^{-1})=2+}$	$ \begin{array}{c} + \neq (1 \times +2) = 2 + \\ \rightarrow \overline{Mn^{2+} + 4H_20} \\ \rightarrow \underline{Mn^{2+} + 4H_20} \\ (+2) = 2 + \end{array} $	$ \begin{array}{c} 0 \\ \overrightarrow{H_2O_2} \rightarrow \overrightarrow{O_2+2} \\ \overrightarrow{H_2O_2} \rightarrow \overrightarrow{H_2O_2} \rightarrow \overrightarrow{H_2O_2} \rightarrow \overrightarrow{H_2O_2} \\ \overrightarrow{H_2O_2} \rightarrow \overrightarrow{H_2O_2} $	$\frac{=2+}{H^{1+}}$ $\frac{H^{1+} + 2e^{-}}{(2\times -1)=0}$

Two redox ¹/₂-equations, one showing Reduction while the other shows Oxidation, are now ready for balancing

•	$\begin{bmatrix} MnO_4^{1-} + 8H^{1+} + 5e^- \rightarrow Mn^{2+} + 4H_2O \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} H_2O_2 \rightarrow O_2 + 2H^{1+} + 2e^- \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} H_2O_2 \rightarrow O_2 + 2H^{1+} + 2e^- \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} H_2O_2 \rightarrow O_2 + 2H^{1+} + 2e^- \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} H_2O_2 \rightarrow O_2 + 2H^{1+} + 2e^- \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} H_2O_2 \rightarrow O_2 + 2H^{1+} + 2e^- \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} H_2O_2 \rightarrow O_2 + 2H^{1+} + 2e^- \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} H_2O_2 \rightarrow O_2 + 2H^{1+} + 2e^- \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} H_2O_2 \rightarrow O_2 + 2H^{1+} + 2e^- \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} H_2O_2 \rightarrow O_2 + 2H^{1+} + 2e^- \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} H_2O_2 \rightarrow O_2 + 2H^{1+} + 2e^- \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} H_2O_2 \rightarrow O_2 + 2H^{1+} + 2e^- \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} H_2O_2 \rightarrow O_2 + 2H^{1+} + 2e^- \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} H_2O_2 \rightarrow O_2 + 2H^{1+} + 2e^- \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} H_2O_2 \rightarrow O_2 + 2H^{1+} + 2e^- \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} H_2O_2 \rightarrow O_2 + 2H^{1+} + 2e^- \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} H_2O_2 \rightarrow O_2 + 2H^{1+} + 2e^- \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} H_2O_2 \rightarrow O_2 + 2H^{1+} + 2e^- \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} H_2O_2 \rightarrow O_2 + 2H^{1+} + 2e^- \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} H_2O_2 \rightarrow O_2 + 2H^{1+} + 2e^- \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} H_2O_2 \rightarrow O_2 + 2H^{1+} + 2e^- \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} H_2O_2 \rightarrow O_2 + 2H^{1+} + 2e^- \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} H_2O_2 \rightarrow O_2 + 2H^{1+} + 2e^- \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} H_2O_2 \rightarrow O_2 + 2H^{1+} + 2e^- \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} H_2O_2 \rightarrow O_2 + 2H^{1+} + 2e^- \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} H_2O_2 \rightarrow O_2 + 2H^{1+} + 2e^- \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} H_2O_2 \rightarrow O_2 + 2H^{1+} + 2e^- \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} H_2O_2 \rightarrow O_2 + 2H^{1+} + 2e^- \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} H_2O_2 \rightarrow O_2 + 2H^{1+} + 2e^- \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} H_2O_2 \rightarrow O_2 + 2H^{1+} + 2e^- \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} H_2O_2 \rightarrow O_2 + 2H^{1+} + 2e^- \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} H_2O_2 \rightarrow O_2 + 2H^{1+} + 2e^- \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} H_2O_2 \rightarrow O_2 + 2H^{1+} + 2e^- \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} H_2O_2 \rightarrow O_2 + 2H^{1+} + 2e^- \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} H_2O_2 \rightarrow O_2 + 2H^{1+} + 2e^- \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} H_2O_2 \rightarrow O_2 + 2H^{1+} + 2e^- \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} H_2O_2 \rightarrow O_2 + 2H^{1+} + 2e^- \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} H_2O_2 \rightarrow O_2 + 2H^{1+} + 2e^- \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} H_2O_2 \rightarrow O_2 + 2E^- +$	2 2Mn(5	$D_4^{1-} + 16 H^{1-}$	⁺ + $10e^{-} \rightarrow 2Mn^{2+} + 8H_20$ 5H ₂ O ₂ → $5O_2 + 10H^{1+} + 19e^{-}$
6	The mass and charge balanced full Redox reaction equation with observations.	2MnO ₄ ¹⁻ _{Violet}	$+ 6H^{1+} +$	$ 5H_2O_2 \rightarrow 2Mn^{2+} + 5O_2 + 8H_2O $ colourless effervescence

Q18 Balance the following Redox reactions with manganese.

-			
	MnO_4^{1-}	\rightarrow	Mn ²⁺
a)	Fe ²⁺	\rightarrow	Fe ³⁺
		\rightarrow	
	MnO_4^{1-}	\rightarrow	MnO ₂
b)	H_2O_2	\rightarrow	02
		\rightarrow	
	Mn_2O_3	\rightarrow	Mn ²⁺
C)	Cu ¹⁺	\rightarrow	Cu ²⁺
		\rightarrow	



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Q19 Complete the Redox reactions using the redox conjugate pairs provided.

	Conjugate pairs	Using ½-equation method to balance full redox reaction equation		
a)	Ca Ca ²⁺ with H ₂ O H ₂	$\begin{array}{cccc} & \text{Ca} & \rightarrow & \text{Ca}^{2+} + & 2e^{-} \\ & \underline{} & \underline{} & H_20 & + & 2e^{-} \rightarrow & H_2 & + & 20H^{1-} \\ & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & \\ & & & & $		
b)	PbO Pb with Br ₂ BrO ₃ ¹⁻	$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		
c)	$Cr_2O_7^{2-} Cr^{3+}$ with $Fe^{2+} Fe^{3+}$	$\begin{array}{cccc} & & & & \\ & & & \\ \hline & & & & \\ \hline & & & &$		
d)	$MnO_2 Mn_2O_3$ with $Fe^{2+} Fe^{3+}$	$ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \$		
e)	$C_2H_5OH CH_3COOH$ with $MnO_4^{1-} Mn^{2+}$	$\begin{array}{cccc} C_2H_5OH & \rightarrow & CH_3COOH \\ MnO_4^{1-} & \rightarrow & Mn^{2+} \\ \hline & & & & & \\ \hline \end{array}$		

The reactions show that Redox can be identified from the following three possible criteria:

- Electron loss or gainHydrogen loss or gain -> Often summarised together as Oxidation Is Loss / Reduction Is Gain = OILRIG
- Oxygen loss or gain (This was the original definition for Redox reactions).

Reduction can be:		Redox	ox Oxidation can be:	
ēlectron gain	$\begin{array}{c} Cu^{2*} + 2\bar{e} \rightarrow Cu \\ Cl_2 + 2\bar{e} \rightarrow & 2Cl^- \\ 2H_2O + 2\bar{e} \rightarrow & H_2 + 2OH^- \end{array}$	r Is Loss n Is Gain y for (ē / H)	ēlectron loss	$\begin{array}{rcl} Ca \rightarrow & Ca^{2+} + 2\bar{e} \\ & Fe^{2+} \rightarrow & Fe^{3+} + \bar{e} \\ & 2H_2O \rightarrow & O_2 + 4H^+ + 4\bar{e} \end{array}$
Hydrogen gain	$\begin{array}{rcl} C_2H_2+H_2 \rightarrow & C_2H_4 \\ Si+4H^++4\;\bar{e}\rightarrow & SiH_4 \\ P+3H^++3\bar{e}\rightarrow & PH_3 \end{array}$	Oxidation Reduction OILRIG only	Hydrogen loss	$\begin{array}{rcl} 2\text{Na} + \text{H}_2\text{O} & \rightarrow & 2\text{NaOH} + \text{H}_2\\ & \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 & \rightarrow & \text{O}_2 + 2\text{H}^+ + 2\bar{\text{e}}\\ & \text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH} & \rightarrow & \text{CH}_3\text{CHO} + 2\text{H}^+ + 2\bar{\text{e}} \end{array}$
Oxygen loss I	$\begin{array}{rcl} 2Fe_2O_3+3C \rightarrow & 4Fe+3CO_2\\ PbO+2H^++2\bar{e} \rightarrow & Pb+H_2O\\ H_2O_2+2H^++2\bar{e} \rightarrow & 2H_2O \end{array}$	Oxidation is the gaining of oxygen!	Oxygen gain	$\begin{array}{rcl} 2\text{Mg} + \text{O}_2 & \rightarrow & 2\text{MgO} \\ \text{Br}_2 + 6\text{H}_2\text{O} & \rightarrow & 2\text{BrO}_3^- + 12\text{H}^+ + 10\bar{\text{e}} \\ \text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH} + \text{H}_2\text{O} & \rightarrow & \text{CH}_3\text{COOH} + 4\text{H}^+ + 4\bar{\text{e}} \end{array}$

Oxidation State $\pm n$ behaves as a vector quantity describing the electromotive chemical force caused by the transfer of e^- during reactions and the voltage effect produced by that transfer.

Redox Grammar					
Ve	erb	Noun			
transitive	intransitive	Proper	Conjugate		
To OXIDIZE is to unite with oxygen, resulting in ē loss for a reactant.	OXIDATION is the loss of \bar{e} for a reactant; often due to gaining oxygen.	An OxidANT is that reactant which is being oxidized.	An Oxidizing Agent causes oxidation by itself being Reduced.		
To REDUCE is to disunite with oxygen, resulting in ē gain for a reactant.	REDUCTION is the gain of ē for a reactant; often due to losing oxygen.	A REDUCTANT is that reactant which is being reduced.	A REDUCING AGENT causes reduction by itself being Oxidized.		

Oxidation is ē loss for one reactant so that the other reactant can gain those ē for their own Reduction. •

Reductant	A
-----------	---

•

Oxidant B is being oxidised

Reduced		Oxidised
product	Т	product
Α	т	В

+is being reduced to cause oxidation

to cause reduction

 \rightarrow

- The reductant is causing the other reactant to be Oxidized. The reductant is an Oxidising Agent.
- The oxidant is causing reduction the other reactant to be Reduced. The oxidant is a Reducing Agent. •

Reduction $Cu^{2+}_{(aq)} + 2e^- \rightarrow Cu_{(s)}$ <u>Ox</u> idation $Zn_{(s)} \rightarrow Zn^{2+}_{(aq)} + 2e^-$ Redox $\overline{Zn_{(s)}}_{oxidant} + Cu^{2+}_{(aq)} \rightarrow Zn^{2+}_{(aq)} + Cu_{(s)}$	Copper (II) cations can only be reduced while zinc metal can only be oxidised during Redox	The reductant $Cu^{2+}_{(aq)}$ is an oxidising agent because it makes $Zn_{(s)}$ oxidise
$\begin{array}{c c} \mbox{Reduction} & H_2O_2 + 2H^{1+} + 2e^- \rightarrow 2H_2O \\ \mbox{Oxidation} & [Fe^{2+} \rightarrow Fe^{3+} + e^-] \times 2 \\ \mbox{Redox} & \underbrace{H_2O_2}_{\mbox{reductant}} + 2H^{1+} + \underbrace{2Fe^{2+}}_{\mbox{oxidant}} \rightarrow 2H_2O + 2Fe^{3+} \\ \end{array}$	Hydrogen peroxide can be an oxidant or a reductant depending on the reduction potential of its redox pairing	The reductant H_2O_2 is an oxidising agent because it makes Fe^{2+} oxidise
$\begin{array}{c} \text{Oxidation} & [\text{H}_2\text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{O}_2 + 2\text{H}^{1+} + 2\text{e}\\ \text{Reduction} & [\text{MnO}_4^{1-} + 8\text{H}^{1+} + 5\text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{Mn}^{2+} + 4\text{H}_2\text{O}]\\ \text{Redox} & \overline{5\text{H}_2\text{O}_2} + 6\text{H}^{1+} + \underline{2\text{MnO}_4^{1-}}_{\text{reductant}} \rightarrow 5\text{O}_2 + 8\text{H}_2\text{O} + \\ \end{array}$	$ \begin{array}{c} \hline \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ $	The oxidant H_2O_2 is an reducing agent because it makes MnO_4^{1-} reduce

Q20 Complete these redox reactions and identify the oxidant/reductant and the oxidising agent/reducing agent.

	Oxidant	Reductant	Redox conjugate pairs	Oxidising Agent	Reducing Agent
			Chromate, $\operatorname{CrO}_4^{1-} \operatorname{Cr(OH)}_3$ with Zinc, $\operatorname{Zn} \operatorname{Zn}^{2+}$		
			$CrO_4^{1-} \rightarrow Cr(OH)_3$		
a)			$Zn \rightarrow Zn^{2+}$		
			\rightarrow		
			Copper (I) oxide, $Cu_2O \mid Cu^{2+}$ with Nitric acid, $HNO_3 \mid NO_2$		
b)			\rightarrow		
			\rightarrow		
			\rightarrow		

The Method Works, Even for 'Silly' Numbers

- Alcohol breathalyser units used by the Police to test car drivers once used a very brightly coloured Redox reaction:
- A redox reaction happens when alcohol (as ethanol C₂H₂OH) vapours from the lungs of a driver are blown through an aqueous solution containing dichromate (Cr₂O_{7^{-(ag)})} anions.
- The $Cr_2O_{7(aq)}^{2-}$ anion is **reduced** from bright orange dichromate to dark green chromium (III) cations $Cr_{(aq)}^{3+}$.
- The C_2H_2OH ethanol is **oxidised** to become ethanoic acid CH_3COOH .



Example: Acidified potassium dichromate $K_2Cr_2O_7$ reacts with ethanol C_2H_5OH to produce a solution containing green Chromium (III) cations Cr^{3+} and ethanoic acid CH_3COOH . ($K_{(aq)}^{1+}$ have been omitted as spectator ions)

0	Reduction conjugate pair is gaining $2 \times 3e^-$	$\frac{6}{\tilde{C}r_2} 0^{2-}_7 \tilde{C}r^{3+}$	Oxidation conjugate pair is losing $2 \times 2e^{-}$	$\begin{array}{c c} -2 & 0 \\ \hline \mathbf{\hat{C}}_{2} \mathbf{H}_{6} 0 & \hline \mathbf{\hat{C}}_{2} \mathbf{H}_{4} \mathbf{O}_{2} \end{array}$
0	$Cr_2 O_7^{2-}$ $Cr_2 O_7^{2-}$ $Cr_2 O_4^{2-} + (7 \times 2H^{1+})$	$\rightarrow 2Cr^{3+}$ $\rightarrow 2Cr^{3+} + (7H_20)$ $\rightarrow 2Cr^{3+} + 7H_20$	Ethanol $C_2H_5OH \rightarrow CH$ $C_2H_6O \rightarrow C_2H$ $C_2H_6O + H_2O \rightarrow C_2H$ $C_2H_6O + H_2O \rightarrow C_2H$	$H_{4}O_{2}$ $H_{4}O_{2}$ $H_{4}O_{2}$ $H_{4}O_{2}$ $H_{4}O_{2} + 4H^{1+}$
€	$\underbrace{ \begin{array}{c} (1\times^{-2})+(14\times^{+1})=12+\\ \hline Cr_2O_7^{2-}+14H^{1+}\\ \hline Cr_2O_7^{2-}+14H^{1+}+6e^-\\ \hline (^{-2})+(^{+14})+(6\times^{-1})=6+ \end{array}}_{(-2)+(+14)+(6\times^{-1})=6+}$	$\neq \underbrace{(2\times^{+}3)=6+}_{2\operatorname{Cr}^{3+}+7\operatorname{H}_{2}\operatorname{O}}$ $\rightarrow \underbrace{2\operatorname{Cr}^{3+}+7\operatorname{H}_{2}\operatorname{O}}_{(^{+}6)=6+}$	$ \begin{array}{c} $	$(4x^{+1})=4+$ $H_4O_2 + 4H^{1+}$ $H_4O_2 + 4H^{1+} + 4e^{-}$ $(^{+4})+(4x^{-1})=0$

Two redox ¹/₂-equations, one showing Reduction while the other shows Oxidation, are now ready for balancing

4	$\begin{bmatrix} Cr_2 O_7^{2-} + 14H^{1+} + \mathbf{6e}^- \rightarrow 2Cr^{3+} + 7H_2 O \end{bmatrix} \times 2 \\ \begin{bmatrix} C_2 H_6 O + H_2 O \rightarrow C_2 H_4 O_2 + 4H^{1+} + \mathbf{4e}^- \end{bmatrix}$	2] × 3	$Cr_2O_7^{2-} + \frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{3}{2}C_2$	6 8H ¹⁺ + 17 H ₆ 0 + 3H ₂	$2 4 \operatorname{Cr}^{3+} $ $_{2}^{2} 0 3 \operatorname{C}_{2} \operatorname{H}_{4} 0$	$11 + 14H_20$ $D_2 + 12H^{1+} + 12 <$
6	The mass and charge balanced full Redox reaction equation with observations.	2Cr ₂ O ₇ ⁻ orange	+ 16H ¹⁺ - acidified	+ 3C ₂ H ₅ OH ethanol	$I \rightarrow 4Cr^{3+} +$ green	11H ₂ O + 3CH ₃ COOH ethanoic acid

Chromium has a variable oxidation state because the valence shell configuration of Transition elements includes the five d-subshell orbitals along with a single s-subshell orbital. This subshell arrangement provides a large variety of closely spaced energy levels for electrons to move between during chemical reactions.



Redox Reaction Equations Involving Chromium

Q21 Complete the Redox reactions using the redox conjugate pairs provided as shown in **Q18** and **Q19**.

	Conjugate pairs	Using ¹ / ₂ -equation method to balance full redox reaction equation
a)	$\begin{array}{c} \operatorname{Cr}_2 \operatorname{O}_7^{2-} & \operatorname{Cr}^{3+} \\ \text{with} \\ \operatorname{H}_2 \operatorname{O}_2 & \operatorname{O}_2 \end{array}$	$\xrightarrow{\rightarrow}$
b)	$\begin{array}{c} \operatorname{Cr}_2 \operatorname{O}_7^{2-} & \operatorname{Cr}\operatorname{O}_2 \\ \text{with} \\ \operatorname{Cu}^{1+} & \operatorname{Cu}^{2+} \end{array}$	$\xrightarrow{\rightarrow}$
c)	$CrO_2 Cr^{3+}$ with $H_2O_2 O_2$	$ \xrightarrow{\rightarrow} \\ \xrightarrow{\rightarrow} \\ \xrightarrow{\rightarrow} $
d)	HCrO ₄ ¹⁻ Cr ³⁺ with ClO ₂ ClO ₃ ¹⁻	$\begin{array}{c} \rightarrow \\ \rightarrow \\ \hline \end{array}$

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ACTIVITY is the term used to describe how **metals** can displace other metal cations from aqueous solution. The metal cations are gaining electrons from the solid metals.

- A metal high on the list is oxidised by losing electrons: $\underline{\text{ex}} \: Zn \to Zn^{2+} + 2e^-$
- A metal cation low on the list is reduced by gaining electrons: <u>**ex**</u> $Cu^{2+} + 2e^- \rightarrow Cu$
- The examples above show that copper metal will be 'displaced' from solution: Blue copper (II) solution $Cu_{(aq)}^{2+} + Zn_{(s)} \rightarrow Cu_{(s)} + Zn_{(aq)}^{2+}$ Brown copper precipitate
- Water is included because the metals above it will react and form hydrogen gas:
 - Calcium will react vigorously once the calcium oxide layer is dissolved
 - $\circ\;$ Iron will react with water extremely slowly, and only if oxygen is also present.
- The further away reactants are on the list, the more vigorous their reaction.

The practical investigation into displacement reactions produced the experimental evidence needed to support much of the Activity list for metals shown opposite.

A solid metal on the list will displace any metal cation below it on the list

REDUCTION POTENTIAL is the term used to describe how **non-metals** can gain electrons in comparison to any other reactant during a redox reaction. These reagents are being reduced. They are called Reductants.

- A reductant is a reagent with a reaction equation showing a gaining of electrons.
- A reductant will redox with any reagent lower on the list, but the other reagent must become an Oxidant.
- An oxidant is when a reagent loses electrons. This achieved by reversing the reaction equation for a Reductant.
- Reductants lower on the list will not react with other reductants higher on the list.

Here is a list of the more commonly encountered Reduction Potential reagents.

Highest Reduction Potential				
Dichromate	$Cr_2O_7^{2-} + 14H^{1+} + 6e^- \rightleftharpoons 2Cr^{3+} + 7H_2O$	Chromium (III)		
Permanganate	$MnO_4^{1-} + 8H^{1+} + 5e^- \rightleftharpoons Mn^{2+} + 4H_2O$	Manganese (II)		
Nitric Acid	$\mathrm{HNO}_3 + \mathrm{H}^{1+} + \mathrm{e}^- \rightleftarrows \mathrm{NO}_2 + \mathrm{H}_2\mathrm{O}$	Nitrogen Dioxide		
Hudrogon Dorovido	$\mathrm{H_2O_2} + 2\mathrm{H^{1+}} + 2\mathrm{e^-} \rightleftarrows 2\mathrm{H_2O}$	Water		
	$\mathrm{H}_{2}\mathrm{O}_{2} \rightleftarrows \mathrm{O}_{2} + 2\mathrm{H}^{1+} + 2\mathrm{e}^{-}$	Oxygen		
Iron (III)	$Fe^{3+} + e^- \rightleftharpoons Fe^{2+}$	Iron (II)		
Water	$2H_2O + 2e^- \rightleftharpoons H_2 + 2OH^{1-}$	Hydrogen		
Lowest Reduction Potential				

Q22 The Reduction Potential Series above will predict if the following combinations can produce a Redox reaction. Complete these reaction equations using the ½-equation method. Not all combinations result in Redox.

a)	Permanganate with Iron (II)	
b)	Dichromate with Iron (III)	
c)	Bubbling Hydrogen gas through Hydrogen Peroxide	
d)	Hydrogen Peroxide with Iron (III)	

Most Act	tive		
Calcium	Са		
Magnesium	Mg		
Aluminium	Al		
Zinc	Zn		
Iron	Fe		
Water	H ₂ O		
Tin	Sn		
Lead	Pb		
Copper	Cu		
Silver	Ag		
Gold	Au		
Least Active			

Q23 Write these observed changes as balanced redox Half-Equations.

R	edox description	Mnemonic		Half-Equation
a)	Permanganate is reduced to Manganese Dioxide	$MnO_4^{1-} MnO_2$	MnO_4^{1-}	\rightarrow MnO ₂
b)	Sulphur dioxide is oxidised to sulphuric acid	$SO_2 H_2SO_4$	SO ₂	\rightarrow H ₂ SO ₄
c)	Dichromate is reduced to Chromium (III)	$Cr_2 0_7^{2-} Cr^{3+}$	$Cr_2 0_7^{2-}$	\rightarrow Cr ³⁺
d)	Ethanol is oxidised to ethanal	C ₂ H ₅ OH CH ₃ CHO	C ₂ H ₅ OH	→ CH ₃ CHO
e)	Carbon monoxide is oxidised to carbon dioxide	C0 C0 ₂	CO	\rightarrow CO ₂
f)	Elemental iodine is oxidised to iodic acid	I ₂ HIO ₃	I ₂	\rightarrow HIO ₃
g)	Aluminate anion is reduced to aluminium metal	$Al(OH)_{4}^{1-} Al$	$Al(OH)_4^{1-}$	\rightarrow Al
h)	Dichromate is reduced to Chromium (IV) oxide	$Cr_2 0_7^{2-} Cr 0_4$	$Cr_2 0_7^{2-}$	\rightarrow CrO ₄

Disproportionation happens when the same reagent both oxidises and reduces with itself simultaneously. Certain reagents can both oxidise and reduce readily, depending on the other chemical with which they are having a redox reaction. The following pairs of reactions show reagents that can react with themselves (disproportionate).

	alf tions	Hydrogen peroxide reduced to water	H_2O_2	\rightarrow	H ₂ 0
i)	H ₆ Equa	Hydrogen peroxide oxidised to oxygen	H_2O_2	\rightarrow	02
	Redox	full equation for H_2O_2 disproportionation		\rightarrow	
	alf tions	Thiosulphate reduced to sulphur	$S_2 O_3^{2-}$	\rightarrow	S
j)	H ₆ Equa	Thiosulphate oxidised to sulphur dioxide	S ₂ O ₃ ²⁻	\rightarrow	SO ₂
	Redox full equation for $S_2 O_3^{2-}$ disproportionation			\rightarrow	
	alf tions	Chlorine reduced to hydrochloric acid	Cl ₂	\rightarrow	HCl
k)	Ha Equa	Chlorine oxidised to hypochlorous acid	Cl ₂	\rightarrow	HClO
	Redox full equation for Cl_2 disproportionation			\rightarrow	

Electrochemical Reactions are chemical reactions that produce an electrical current.

- **Electrochemistry** examines how to physically arrange chemical reagents to produce an electrical current that is external to the reagents. This external flow of electricity is known as an <u>e</u>lectro-<u>m</u>otive-<u>f</u>orce (<u>emf</u>).
- **Electrolytic reactions** are those chemical reactions that require an input of electricity to drive the reaction.

Q24 Balance these <u>Electrochemical</u> reactions using the following $\frac{1}{2}$ cells, salt bridge and inert graphite electrodes. Note: Electrical Current I is defined as going from (+) to (-). Electrons e^- themselves really move (-) to (+).

- Assume acidic conditions. That means add as many $H_{(aq)}^{1+}$ ions as you need to balance the ½-equations.
- Complete the mnemonic cell reactions for overall redⁿ || oxidⁿ under each diagram.
- Identify and label each electrode, including electron flow arrows, on the diagrams.
- (a) Ferrous sulphate $FeSO_4$ with concentrated nitric acid HNO_3 :
 - The Fe²⁺ will oxidise to Fe³⁺ rather than convert to Fe_(s); The SO₄²⁻ remains unreacted as a spectator ion.
 - The concentrated HNO₃ can now be reduced.

salt $\mathbf{E}_{\frac{1}{2}}^{0} = +0.80 \mathrm{V}$ bridge HNO_3 NO_2 $\mathbf{E}_{\frac{1}{2}}^{0} = -0.77 \mathrm{V}$ Fe²⁺ Fe³⁺ **Red**uction Oxidation $\mathbf{E}_{\text{cell}}^{0} \approx$ Fe²⁺ Mnemonic \rightarrow NO_2 Fe³⁺ HNO₃ equation

(b) Acidified potassium permanganate $KMnO_4$ with hydrogen peroxide H_2O_2 . Acidification ensures Mn^{2+} as the product.

- What does acidifying the solution do for the Redox ¹/₂-reactions?
- K¹⁺_(aq) cations do not reduce to K_(s) in aqueous solutions.
- The $\tilde{K}^{1+}_{(aq)}$ remains unreacted as a spectator ion.

 $\begin{array}{cccc} MnO_4^{1-} & \rightarrow & Mn^{2+} & \mathbf{E}_{1/2}^0 = {}^+1.51V \\ \\ H_2O_2 & \rightarrow & O_2 & \mathbf{E}_{1/2}^0 = {}^-0.68V \\ \\ & \rightarrow & \mathbf{E}_{cell}^0 \approx \end{array}$



+ 1.6 V

 Θ

e

gain

Cathode

e⁻

loss

Anode

- (c) Acidified potassium dichromate $K_2Cr_2O_7$ with oxalic acid (COOH)₂
 - Lose K¹⁺_(aq) as spectator ions now!
 - The $Cr_2O_7^{2-}$ reduces while the (COOH)₂ oxidises readily.

(COOH) ₂	\rightarrow CO ₂	$\mathbf{E}_{\frac{1}{2}}^{0} = {}^{+}0.49\mathrm{V}$
	_ `	F ⁰ ≈

(d) Insoluble copper (I) oxide Cu_2O converts to aqueous copper (II) cations $Cu_{(aq)}^{2+}$ in the presence of nitric acid.

	\rightarrow	$\mathbf{E}_{\mathrm{cell}}^{0} \approx$
HNO ₃	\rightarrow NO ₂	$\mathbf{E}_{\frac{1}{2}}^{0} = +0.80 \mathrm{V}$
Cu ₂ O	\rightarrow Cu ²⁺	$\mathbf{E}_{\frac{1}{2}}^{0} = -0.15 \mathrm{V}$



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CHLORINE has a high electronegativity and can expand its octet to form a variety of oxidation states.

- Chlorine is from Group VII Period 3 of the Periodic Table with seven valence electrons.
- The high electronegativity of Chlorine allows all seven valence electrons to form a maximum of seven bonds.
- Seven bonds represent fourteen valence electrons for Chlorine.
- Maximum electrons in a valence shell *n* is $2n^2$: Period 3 has $\max_{e^-} = 2 \times (3)^2 = 18e^-$ maximum.
- Forming a stable valence shell with more than eight electrons is known as 'Expanding the Octet'.

The structural diagrams below represent valence shell electrons for Chlorine. Inner shell electrons are not shown.



Oxidation states for Oxygen (2) and for Hydrogen (1) remain constant, as per the three oxidation rules.

Q25 Assign oxidation states to the various halogens (F_2 , Cl_2 , Br_2) and chromium (Cr) atoms in the following reactions to determine which reactions are redox and which are acid/base (not redox):

a)	$\begin{array}{c} Cl_2 + H_2 \rightarrow 2HCl_{(g)} \text{ then } HCl_{(g)} \xrightarrow{aqueous} HCl_{(aq)} \\ \hline \\ \text{chlorine gas} \qquad \text{hydrogen chloride} \qquad \text{hydrochloric acid} \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{ll} Cl_2O + H_2O \rightarrow 2HClO \\ \mbox{dichlorine monoxide} & \mbox{hypochlorous acid} \end{array}$				
	$2ClO_2 + H_2O \rightarrow HClO_2 + HClO_3$ chlorine dioxide chlorous acid chloric acid	$Cl_2O_7 + H_2O \rightarrow 2HClO_4$ dichlorine heptoxide perchloric acid				
	$F_2O + H_2O \rightarrow 2HFO$ oxygen difluoride hypofluorous acid	$2BrO_2 + 2H_2O \rightarrow HBrO + HBrO_3 + H_2$ bromine dioxide hypobromous acid bromic acid				
b)	$2Na_{2}CrO_{4} + 2HCl \rightarrow Na_{2}Cr_{2}O_{7} + H_{2}O + 2NaCl$ yellow pH < 7 orange	$\begin{array}{c} \mathrm{K_2Cr_2O_7} + 2\mathrm{KOH} \rightarrow 2\mathrm{K_2CrO_4} \\ \mathrm{orange} \qquad \mathrm{pH} > 7 \qquad \mathrm{yellow} \end{array}$				
	$\begin{array}{c} K_2 Cr_2 O_7 + 7H_2 SO_4 + 6FeSO_4 \rightarrow Cr_2 (SO_4)_3 + 7H_2 O + 3Fe_2 (SO_4)_3 + K_2 SO_4 \\ \text{orange} \qquad \qquad \text{pale green} \qquad \qquad \text{dark green} \qquad \qquad \text{rust red} \end{array}$					
	$\begin{array}{c} 3MnCO_3 + 2H_3PO_4 \rightarrow Mn_3(PO_4)_2 + 3CO_2 + 3H_2O \\ purple \qquad pH < 7 \qquad \qquad \text{effervescence} \end{array}$					

The following question is taken from a second semester SACE Stage 1 Chemistry exam.

Q26 Copper (Cu), palladium (Pd) and vanadium (V) are metals used in making alloys. Three displacement tests were carried out on these three metals $M_{(s)}$ and their corresponding salts $M_{(aq)}^{n+}$ in solution. The results are summarised below:

0		$V_{(s)}$	+	$Cu^{2+}_{(aq)}$	\rightarrow	$V_{(aq)}^{2+}$	+	Cu _(s)	
0		V _(s)	+	$Pd^{2+}_{(aq)}$	\rightarrow	$V_{(aq)}^{2+}$	+	Pd _(s)	
€		$Pd_{(s)}$	+	$Cu^{2+}_{(aq)}$	\rightarrow	no rea	ation		
a) (i) Complete the displacement reaction equation the following combination:									
4		Cu _(s)	+	$Pd^{2+}_{(aq)}$	\rightarrow				[1 mark]
	(ii)	Arrange the three metals in order of increasing reactivity:							[2 marks]
	Leas Activ	st ve		<			<		Most Active
(ii) Provide a brief explanation for your answer in part (a) (ii) above.							[3 marks]		



Electrode Sign		½-cell M∣M ⁿ⁺ at electrode	Electrode Half Equations	Redox Process Name (Reduction or oxidation)	Electrode Name (Cathode or Anode?)
From diagram	(+)				
	(-)				
(:::)	Write	full redox		Which displacement	reaction, 0 , 2 ,

 (c) (i) The $V|V^{2+}$ half-cell has a solution containing $V_{(aq)}^{2+}$ and $NO_{3(aq)}^{1-}$ ions. Which one of these ions becomes in excess in the solution as the redox reaction proceeds? [1 mark]

(ii) The $Pd|Pd^{2+}$ half-cell has a solution containing $Pd^{2+}_{(aq)}$ and $NO^{1-}_{3(aq)}$ ions. Which one of these ions becomes in excess in the solution as the redox reaction proceeds? [1 mark]

(iii) The salt bridge contains mobile $K_{(aq)}^{1+}$ and $NO_{3(aq)}^{1-}$ ions. State which half-cell each of these mobile ions move to as the redox reaction proceeds. [2 marks]

 $K_{(aq)}^{1+}$ moves to _____ and $NO_{3(aq)}^{1-}$ moves to _____

- (d) The vanadium redox battery (VRB) uses vanadium salt solutions separated by a permeable plastic membrane (||) to allow aqueous ions to move between each half cell.
 - (i) State the four oxidation states of vanadium in the VRB: [3 marks] $\hat{\mathbf{V}} O_2^{1+} | \hat{\mathbf{V}} O^{2+} | \hat{\mathbf{V}} \hat{\mathbf{V}} | \hat{\mathbf{V}} \hat{\mathbf{V}}$

(ii) The VRB converts chemical energy to electrical energy and can also use electrical energy to produce a chemical reaction. Refer to the two diagrams below and identify which process is occurring in each. [2 marks]



(iv) Use the half equation method to write the full redox reaction equation for the electrolytic VRB shown above. [3 marks]

 \rightarrow

 $\frac{1}{2}$ equation \rightarrow $\frac{1}{2}$ equation \rightarrow

full equation

Science as Human Endeavour (SHE) related Electrochemistry in SA

The 2,500 km Murray River flows from the Victorian alps to the South Australian Lower Lakes.

- Water run-off from arid land into the river causes many minerals, salts, soil, clay and organic materials to be transported downstream and deposited as sediments in the Lower lakes.
 - Sediments containing iron (III) oxide Fe₂O₃ have accumulated over thousands of years¹².
 - \circ Water logged bacteria naturally convert the Fe₂O₃ into iron (II) persulphide, pyrites, FeS₂.
- Weirs along the Murray river reduce fresh water inflow to the lakes during drought (see 2).
 The fresh water is retained along the river for agricultural irrigation and town water supplies¹³.
- Barrages at the seawater entrance artificially stop seawater inflow to the lakes (see ①).
 - \circ FeS₂ in sediments exposed to the air react with oxygen to form sulphuric acid H₂SO₄.
 - $\circ~$ The H_2SO_4 can be neutralised with aerial spraying of limestone powder CaCO_3.

<u>Alternatively</u>, H₂SO₄ production can be prevented by covering the lake sediments with seawater by opening the sea barrages. The extra salt is less harmful to the environment during drought.



Complete the following redox half-equations and their resulting fully balanced reaction equations. Step 1: Water-logged anaerobic conditions favour bacterial growth feeding from Fe₂O₃ sedimentary minerals. Three processes Precipitated sediments: $Fe_{2}O_{3} +$ Fe²⁺ ∔ are combined by SO_4^{2-} + S_{2}^{2-} Salts in sediments: ++bacteria for Limited dissolved oxygen: 0₂ + H_2O overall reduction $Fe_2O_3 + SO_4^{2-} + O_2 +$ Fe²⁺ $S_{2}^{2-} + H_{2}O$ +Reduction ` The two d half-equations P for overall Redox Redox Methanone from bacteria: $CH_{2}O +$ $HCO_{3}^{1-} +$ Oxidation + $HCO_3^{1-} + Fe^{2+} + S_2^{2-} +$ $CH_2O + Fe_2O_3 + SO_4^{2-} + O_2 +$ H₂0 **∢** bacterial processes The products accumulate in the soil as insoluble iron (II) persulphide, pyrites, $Fe^{2+} + S_2^{2-} \rightarrow FeS_2$. (See Q4 h) .

Step 2: Drought of	conditions lo	ower water	levels and expose	FeS ₂ sediments t	o aerobic atm	ospheric	conditions.
Exposure to air:	0 ₂ +	+	\rightarrow	H_2O			Reduction
In sediments:		$FeS_2 +$	\rightarrow	$Fe(OH)_{3} +$	$SO_4^{2-} +$	+	Oxidation
_	FeS ₂ +	0 ₂ +	atmospheric oxygenation	Fe(OH) ₃ +	$SO_4^{2-} +$		Redox

The products then associate to form sulphuric acid $2H^{1+} + SO_4^{2-} \rightarrow H_2SO_4$ and damage the environment.

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¹² South Australian DEWNR Report: Lower Lakes Acid Sulphate Soils Conceptual Models 2012-2013

¹³ http://www.lakesneedwater.org/barrages/locks-and-weirs-of-the-river-murray