# **1.3 Faradaic Processes**



- Polarization
- ➔ the departure of the electrode potential (or cell potential) from the equilibrium value upon passage of faradaic current
- Overpotential, η
- → the extent of polarization  $\eta = E E_{eq}$
- → can be defined at a specific current

- Consider the cell in which a cadmium electrode immersed in 1 M Cd(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub> is coupled to an SCE
- Open-circuit potential of the cell: 0.64 V
- When the voltage applied by the external power supply,  $E_{appl}$ , is -0.64 V vs. SCE, i = 0.
- When | E<sub>appl</sub> | is made larger

(i.e., E<sub>appl</sub> < -0.64 V, such that the cadmium electrode is made even more negative with respect to the SCE), the cell behaves as an electrolytic cell and a reduction current flows.

• At the cadmium electrode, the reaction  $Cd^{2+} + 2e \rightarrow Cd$  occurs, while at the SCE, mercury is oxidized to  $Hg_2Cl_2$ 



# **1.3 Faradaic Processes**

- The current represents
- $\rightarrow$  the number of electrons reacting with Cd<sup>2+</sup> per second,
- $\rightarrow$  or the number of coulombs of electric charge flowing per second
- → the question "What is i?" is essentially the same as "What is the rate of the reaction, Cd<sup>2+</sup> + 2e → Cd?"
- The following relations demonstrate the direct proportionality between faradaic current and electrolysis rate:

$$i \text{ (amperes)} = \frac{dQ}{dt} \text{ (coulombs/s)}$$
$$\frac{Q}{nF} \frac{\text{(coulombs)}}{\text{(coulombs/mol)}} = N \text{ (mol electrolyzed)}$$

→ where n is the stoichiometric number of electrons consumed in the electrode reaction (e.g., 2 for reduction of  $Cd^{2+}$ ).

Rate (mol/s) = 
$$\frac{dN}{dt} = \frac{i}{nF}$$

- An electrochemical reaction is often more complex than a chemical reaction occurring in solution or in the gas phase.
- ➔ The chemical reaction is called a homogeneous reaction, because it occurs everywhere within the medium at a uniform rate.
- ➔ In contrast, an electrode process is a heterogeneous reaction occurring only at the electrode-electrolyte interface.
- Since electrode reactions are heterogeneous and occur at the electrode surface, their reaction rates are usually described in units of mol/s per unit area; that is,

Rate 
$$\left( \text{mol s}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-2} \right) = \frac{i}{nFA} = \frac{j}{nF}$$

where j is the current density  $(A/cm^2)$ .

#### **1.3.3 Factors Affecting Electrode Reaction Rate and Current**

• Consider an overall electrode reaction,  $\mathbf{O} + ne \rightleftharpoons \mathbf{R}$ , composed of a series of steps that cause the conversion of the dissolved oxidized species, O, to a reduced form, R, also in solution



#### $O + ne \rightleftharpoons R_{i}$

- In general, the current (or electrode reaction rate) is governed by the rates of processes such as
  - 1) Mass transfer (e.g., of O from the bulk solution to the electrode surface).
  - 2) Electron transfer at the electrode surface.
  - Chemical reactions preceding or following the electron transfer. These might be homogeneous processes (e.g., protonation or dimerization) or heterogeneous ones (e.g., catalytic decomposition) on the electrode surface.
  - 4) Other surface reactions, such as adsorption, desorption, or crystallization (electrodeposition).
- ➔ The reaction rate depends on mass transfer to the electrode and various surface effects, in addition to the usual kinetic variables

# **1.3 Faradaic Processes**

• When a steady-state current is obtained, the rates of all reaction steps in a series are the same.



• The magnitude of this current is often limited by the inherent sluggishness of one or more reactions called rate-determining steps.

### **1.3 Faradaic Processes**

- Each value of current density, j , is driven by a certain overpotential, η.
- This overpotential can be considered
- $\rightarrow$  as a sum of terms associated with the different reaction steps:
- 1)  $\eta_{mt}$  (the mass-transfer overpotential),
- 2)  $\eta_{ct}$  (the charge-transfer overpotential),
- 3)  $\eta_{rxn}$  (the overpotential associated with a preceding reaction), etc.
- The electrode reaction can then be represented
- $\rightarrow$  by a resistance, R, composed of a series of resistances (or more exactly, impedances)

representing the various steps:  $R_{mt}$ ,  $R_{ct}$ ,  $R_{rxn}$  etc.

(What is the difference between resistance and impedance?)



**Figure 1.3.7** Processes in an electrode reaction represented as resistances.

• A fast reaction step is characterized by a small resistance (or impedance), while a slow step is represented by a high resistance.



**Figure 1.3.7** Processes in an electrode reaction represented as resistances.

- Consider a cell composed of two ideal nonpolarizable electrodes
  - → Two SCEs immersed in a potassium chloride solution: SCE/KCI/SCE.



- Unlike the impedances describing the mass transfer and activation steps in the electrode reaction,
- $\rightarrow$  the solution resistance between the electrodes, R<sub>s</sub>, actually behaves as a true resistance over a wide range of conditions.
- When the potential of an electrode is measured against a nonpolarizable reference electrode during the passage of current,
- $\rightarrow$  a voltage drop equal to iR<sub>s</sub> is always included in the measured value.



**Figure 1.3.8** Current-potential curve for a cell composed of two electrodes approaching ideal nonpolarizability.

- The i-E characteristic of this cell would look like that of a pure resistance
- $\rightarrow$  because the only limitation on current flow is imposed by the resistance of the solution.
- In fact, these conditions (i.e., paired, nonpolarizable electrodes) are exactly those sought in measurements of solution conductivity (ionic conductivity).

- Consider the cell in which a cadmium electrode immersed in 1 M Cd(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub> is coupled to an SCE
- $E_{eq} = -0.64 \text{ V vs. SCE}$
- If E<sub>appl</sub> is increased in magnitude to -0.80 V (Cd vs. SCE), current flows.

→ The extra applied voltage is distributed in two parts.



1) First, to deliver the current, the potential of the Cd electrode,  $E_{cd}$ , must shift to a new value, perhaps -0.70 V vs. SCE

(arbitrary value in this example, polarization  $\eta$ =-0.06V).

2) The remainder of the applied voltage (-0.10 V in this example) represents the ohmic drop  $(iR_s)$  caused by current flow in solution.

 $\rightarrow$  E<sub>appl</sub> must encompass the ohmic drop, iR<sub>s</sub>, required to drive the ionic current in solution

Therefore,

$$E_{\text{appl}}(vs. \text{ SCE}) = E_{\text{Cd}}(vs. \text{ SCE}) - iR_s = E_{\text{eq,Cd}}(vs. \text{ SCE}) + \eta - iR_s$$

- The last two terms of this equation are related to current flow.
- → When there is a cathodic current at the cadmium electrode, both are negative.
- → Conversely, both are positive for an anodic current.

- In order to obtain more accurate i-E curves,
- $\rightarrow$  the value of iR<sub>s</sub> should be small
- For example, in classic polarographic experiments in aqueous solutions,
  - $\rightarrow$  it is often true that i < 10 µA and R<sub>s</sub> < 100 Ω, so that iR<sub>s</sub> < (10<sup>-5</sup> A)(100 Ω) or iR<sub>s</sub>

< 1 mV

- $\rightarrow$  Negligible value
- With more highly resistive solutions, such as those based on many nonaqueous solvents,
- $\rightarrow$  a very small electrode (an ultramicroelectrode) must be used
- With such electrodes, currents of the order of 1 nA are typical
- $\rightarrow$  hence R<sub>s</sub> values even in the M $\Omega$  range can be acceptable.

- In experiments where iR<sub>s</sub> may be high (e.g., in large-scale electrolytic or galvanic cells or in experiments involving nonaqueous solutions with low conductivities),
- → A three-electrode cell is preferable (working, counter, and reference electrodes)
- $\rightarrow$  In this arrangement,
- 1) the current is passed between a working electrode and a counter (or auxiliary) electrode.
- 2) the voltage is measured between a working electrode and a reference electrode





• The device used to measure the potential difference between the working electrode and the reference electrode has a high input impedance,

- $\rightarrow$  so that a negligible current is drawn through the reference electrode.
- → Consequently, its potential will remain constant and equal to its open-circuit value.
- $\rightarrow$  This three-electrode arrangement is used in most electrochemical experiments
- Even in this arrangement, not all of the iR<sub>s</sub> term is removed from the reading made by the potential-measuring device.

• Consider the potential profile in solution between the working and auxiliary electrodes



If the reference electrode is placed anywhere but exactly at the electrode surface,
 → some fraction of iR<sub>s</sub>, (called iR<sub>u</sub>, where R<sub>u</sub> is the uncompensated resistance) will be included in the measured potential.

- Even when the tip of the reference electrode is designed for very close placement to the working electrode by use of a fine tip called a Luggin-Haber capillary,
- $\rightarrow$  some uncompensated resistance usually remains.





# Current passes through "closed loop"



#### **1.4 Mass-Transfer Controlled Reactions**



 Consider the simplest electrode reactions in which the rate of the mass-transfer processes is the ratedetermining step.

The net rate of the electrode reaction, v<sub>rxn</sub>,
 → is then governed totally by the rate at which the electroactive species is brought to the surface by mass transfer, v<sub>mt</sub>.

$$v_{\rm rxn} = v_{\rm mt} = i/nFA$$

- Mass transfer
- → the movement of material from one location in solution to another
- Three modes of mass transfer:
- 1. Migration
- Movement of a charged body under the influence of an electric field
  : a gradient of electrical potential
- 2. Diffusion
- → Movement of a species under the influence of a gradient of chemical potential
  - : a concentration gradient
- 3. Convection
- → Stirring or hydrodynamic transport
  - : Generally fluid flow occurs because of natural convection (convection caused by density gradients) and forced convection

• Mass transfer to an electrode is governed by the Nernst-Planck equation, written for one-dimensional mass transfer along the x-axis as

$$J_{i}(x) = -D_{i}\frac{\partial C_{i}(x)}{\partial x} - \frac{z_{i}F}{RT}D_{i}C_{i}\frac{\partial \phi(x)}{\partial x} + C_{i}v(x)$$

 $J_i(x)$ : the flux of species i (mol s<sup>-1</sup> cm<sup>-2</sup>) at distance x from the surface

 $D_i$ : the diffusion coefficient (cm<sup>2</sup>/s)

 $\partial C_i(x)/\partial x$ : the concentration gradient at distance x

 $\partial \phi(x) / \partial x$ : the potential gradient

z<sub>i</sub> and C<sub>i</sub>: the charge (dimensionless) and concentration (mol cm<sup>-3</sup>) of species i, respectively

v(x): the velocity (cm/s) with which a volume element in solution moves along the axis.



- The three terms on the right-hand side represent the contributions of diffusion, migration, and convection, respectively, to the flux.
- This equation will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 4.

• Consider the reduction of a species O at a cathode:

$$O + ne \rightleftharpoons R$$

- Once electrolysis of species O begins,
- $\rightarrow$  its concentration at the electrode surface,  $C_0(x = 0)$  becomes smaller than the value,

 $C_0^*$ , in the bulk solution (far from the electrode).





- We assume here that stirring is ineffective at the electrode surface,
- $\rightarrow$  so the solution velocity term need not be considered at x = 0.
- This simplified treatment is based on the idea that a stagnant layer of thickness  $\delta_0$ exists at the electrode surface (Nernst diffusion layer), with stirring maintaining the concentration of O at  $C_0^*$  beyond  $x = \delta_0$

- Since we also assume that there is an excess of supporting electrolyte,
- → migration is not important,
- → the rate of mass transfer is proportional to the concentration gradient at the electrode surface, as given by the first (diffusive) term in the equation:

$$J_{i}(x) = -D_{i}\frac{\partial C_{i}(x)}{\partial x} - \frac{z_{i}F}{RT}D_{i}C_{i}\frac{\partial\phi(x)}{\partial x} + C_{i}v(x)$$

$$v_{\rm mt} \propto (dC_{\rm O}/dx)_{x=0} = D_{\rm O}(dC_{\rm O}/dx)_{x=0}$$



- If one further assumes a linear concentration gradient within the diffusion layer,
- $\rightarrow$  then, from the above equation

$$v_{\rm mt} = D_{\rm O}[C_{\rm O}^* - C_{\rm O}(x=0)]/\delta_{\rm O}$$

- Since  $\delta_0$  is often unknown,
- → it is convenient to combine it with the diffusion coefficient to produce a single constant,  $m_0 = D_0/\delta_0$

$$v_{\rm mt} = m_{\rm O}[C_{\rm O}^* - C_{\rm O}(x=0)]$$

- The proportionality constant, m<sub>o</sub>, called the mass-transfer coefficient, has units of cm/s
- Can also be thought of as volume flow/s per unit area (cm<sup>3</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> cm<sup>-2</sup>).
- Thus, from the following equations and taking a reduction current as positive [i.e., i is positive when  $C_0^* > C_0(x = 0)$ ], we obtain

$$v_{\rm rxn} = v_{\rm mt} = i/nFA$$
  
$$\frac{i}{nFA} = m_{\rm O}[C_{\rm O}^* - C_{\rm O}(x=0)]$$
  
$$\frac{i}{nFA} = m_{\rm O}[C_{\rm O}^* - C_{\rm O}(x=0)]$$

$$\frac{i}{nFA} = m_0 [C_0^* - C_0(x=0)]$$

- The largest rate of mass transfer of O occurs
- $\rightarrow$  when  $C_0(x = 0) = 0$
- → or more precisely, when Co (x = 0) <<  $C_0^*$ , so that  $C_0^* C_0(x = 0) \approx C_0^*$
- The value of the current under these conditions (maximum current)
- $\rightarrow$  is called the limiting current, i<sub>I</sub>, where

$$i_l = nFAm_0C_0^*$$

- When the limiting current flows,
- → the electrode process is occurring at the maximum rate possible for a given set of mass-transfer conditions,
- $\rightarrow$  O is being reduced as fast as it can be brought to the electrode surface.

- When we combine the left equations,
- $\rightarrow$  we can obtain expressions for  $C_0(x = 0)$ :



- Thus, the concentration of species O at the electrode surface
- $\rightarrow$  is linearly related to the current
- $\rightarrow$  varies from  $C_0^*$  when i = 0, to a negligible value, when i = i<sub>1</sub>.

- Under the conditions of a net cathodic reaction,
- $\rightarrow$  R is produced at the electrode surface,
- → so that  $C_R(x = 0) > C_R^*$  (where  $C_R^*$  is the bulk concentration of R).
- $\rightarrow$  Therefore,

$$\frac{i}{nFA} = m_{\rm R} [C_{\rm R}(x=0) - C_{\rm R}^*]$$

• Or for the particular case when  $C_R^* = 0$  (no R in the bulk solution),

$$\frac{i}{nFA} = m_{\rm R}C_{\rm R}(x=0)$$

• The values of  $C_0(x = 0)$  and  $C_R(x = 0)$  are functions of electrode potential, E. (Nernst equation: ch. 2)

# **1.4.2 Transient Response**

- Consider the time-dependent (transient) phenomena of the mass-transfer limiting case
- For example, the buildup of the diffusion layer
  - : the diffusion layer continues to grow with time.
  - : either in a stirred solution (before steady state is attained) or in an unstirred solution
- The following equation still applies,

$$v_{\rm mt} = D_{\rm O}[C_{\rm O}^* - C_{\rm O}(x=0)]/\delta_{\rm O}$$

 But in this case we consider the diffusion layer thickness to be a time-dependent quantity, so that

$$i/nFA = v_{\rm mt} = D_{\rm O}[C_{\rm O}^* - C_{\rm O}(x=0)]/\delta_{\rm O}(t)$$

- Consider what happens when a potential step of magnitude E is applied to an electrode immersed in a solution containing a species O.
- When the potential is applied,
- $\rightarrow$  the concentrations of O and R at x = 0 instantaneously adjust to a certain value,  $C_0(x)$ 
  - = 0) (dependent on Nernst equation: ch. 2)
- The thickness of the approximately linear diffusion layer,  $\delta_O(t)$  grows with time



## **1.4.2 Transient Response**

- At any time, the volume of the diffusion layer is  $A\delta_O(t)$ .
- The current flow causes a depletion of O, where the amount of O electrolyzed is given by

Moles of O electrolyzed in diffusion layer  $\cong [C_0^* - C_0(x=0)] \frac{A\delta(t)}{2} = \int_0^t \frac{i \, dt}{nF}$ 

х

i) differentiation ii)  $i/nFA = v_{\rm mt} = D_{\rm O}[C_{\rm O}^* - C_{\rm O}(x=0)]/\delta_{\rm O}(t)$ 

$$\frac{[C_{\rm O}^* - C_{\rm O}(x=0)]}{2} \frac{A \, d\delta(t)}{dt} = \frac{i}{nF} = \frac{D_{\rm O}A}{\delta(t)} \left[ C_{\rm O}^* - C_{\rm O}(x=0) \right]$$



$$\frac{d\delta(t)}{dt} = \frac{2D_{\rm O}}{\delta(t)}$$

• Since  $\delta(t) = 0$  at t = 0, the solution is

$$\delta(t) = 2\sqrt{D_{\rm O}t}$$

 $\rightarrow$  This approximate treatment predicts a diffusion layer that grows with t<sup>1/2</sup>

• When we combine

$$\frac{i}{nF} = \frac{D_0 A}{\delta(t)} \left[ C_0^* - C_0(x=0) \right]$$
$$\frac{i}{nFA} = \frac{D_0^{1/2}}{2t^{1/2}} \left[ C_0^* - C_0(x=0) \right]$$

$$\frac{i}{nFA} = \frac{D_{\rm O}^{1/2}}{2t^{1/2}} \left[ C_{\rm O}^* - C_{\rm O}(x=0) \right]$$

 $\rightarrow$  This approximate treatment predicts a current that decays with t<sup>-1/2</sup>.

- In the absence of convection, the current continues to decay,
- → but in a convective system, it ultimately approaches the steady-state value characterized by  $\delta(t) = \delta_0$



**Figure 1.4.6** Current-time transient for a potential step to a stationary electrode (no convection) and to an electrode in stirred solution (with convection) where a steady-state current is attained.