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A Method For Iron Determination During Copper Electrometallurgy And Its Application To The Calculation Of Current Efficiency

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A METHOD FOR IRON DETERMINATION DURING COPPER ELECTROMETALLURGY
AND ITS APPLICATION TO THE CALCULATION OF CURRENT EFFICIENCY

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To Micol and Laura, for their unconditional support

A METHOD FOR IRON DETERMINATION DURING COPPER ELECTROMETALLURGY
AND ITS APPLICATION TO THE CALCULATION OF CURRENT EFFICIENCY

by

DANIEL PEDRO CRUZ, B.S.

THESIS

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Abstract

With the objective of developing statistical models that describe iron kinetics under typical copper electrolytes as well as its effects on current efficiency and influence in cathodic and anodic behavior, a detailed electrochemical analysis is done in this work as a contribution to implement hydrometallurgical processes in the refining or winning process to produce high purity copper.

This thesis evaluates the oxidation-reduction potential (ORP) of the $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\text{Fe}^{2+}$ couple in the $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3\text{-FeSO}_4\text{-H}_2\text{O}$ and $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-CuSO}_4\text{-Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3\text{-FeSO}_4\text{-H}_2\text{O}$ systems, with addition of different copper concentrations and temperatures up to 70°C , typically employed in the industry. This study further validates and expands a thermodynamic expression developed by Yue et al. to predict the redox potential of the $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-CuSO}_4\text{-Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3\text{-FeSO}_4\text{-H}_2\text{O}$ system. This expression establishes a mathematical relationship between temperature, $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\text{Fe}^{2+}$ ratio and ORP, and therefore provides an alternative way of the determination of ferric and ferrous concentration in the electrolyte based on the measurements of ORP and T. Furthermore, a model developed by Khouraiibia and Moats (2009,2010) [1, 2] to calculate current efficiency based on current density and concentrations of copper and ferric is employed in this work in an attempt to evaluate the current efficiency-ferric/ferrous concentration relationship.

Various sets of open circuit potential (OCP) tests were conducted to study the thermodynamic tendency of $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\text{Fe}^{2+}$ nominal ratio with temperature, copper concentration, acid concentration and iron concentration. Potentiometric determination of the ferrous iron was conducted to study the presence of iron ions and determine species in solution.

All electrochemical assays were carried out by preparing a synthetic solution utilizing a standard three-electrode cell to simulate a small-scale electrowinning cell and also, by expanding parameters, an electrorefining cell. Redox potential of the $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\text{Fe}^{2+}$ couple was measured via a

potentiostat/galvanostat VersaSTAT 3F and temperature was controlled with a PolySci circulating bath. Potentiometric titrations were carried out with an Accumet AB200 pH/conductivity meter and a 50 ml burette for volumetric measurements.

Measured ORP results are in well agreement with the predicted ORP from developed equation at all nominal $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\text{Fe}^{2+}$ ratios and temperatures (25 to 70°C), with no more than ± 3 mV difference. This confirms the validation of the model developed by Yue et al. by reliable prediction of measured redox potential based on 2 variables; nominal $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\text{Fe}^{2+}$ ratio and temperature.

The measured free Fe^{2+} concentration by potentiometry showed an average percent error of 2.53% when compared to initial values and no observable relationship with temperature variation. This further validates the expression developed by Yue et al., qualitatively and quantitatively.

These findings expand the applicability of the equation to predict the redox potential in the $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3\text{-FeSO}_4\text{-H}_2\text{O}$ and $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-CuSO}_4\text{-Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3\text{-FeSO}_4\text{-H}_2\text{O}$ systems and provide an alternative through this equation to avoid complicated speciation calculations and volumetric methods for ferric and ferrous determination.

The applicability of the equation in the current efficiency loss caused by iron in copper electrolytes was investigated using Eq. (2.12) for current efficiency. Results of the presumed current efficiencies obtained by using equation (2.12) showed several inconsistencies among CE values from the two industrial solutions (ER and EW) and consequently equation (2.7) couldn't be employed to establish a relation to the current efficiency factor. This is due to the lack of a complete set of data from each solution such as real ferric/ferrous ratio and ORP measurements.

Further industrial data will be investigated to support this method to apply Eq. (2.7) in iron determination and for the direct calculation of current efficiency.

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1 Introduction

1.1 Electrometallurgy of Copper

All copper recovered either for its production from ore, as well as recovered from scrap-recycle is treated by an electrochemical process. This allows access to high purity copper grade necessary for electrical applications (its most important and common application).

Copper sulfide minerals (0.5-2.0% Cu) are typically concentrated (20-30% Cu) and smelted to obtain a 50-70% Cu matte, from which then are electrorefined from impure copper anodes (99.5% Cu) to a final 99.99% copper cathode. Copper is recovered from oxide minerals (~0.5% Cu) under sulfuric acid leaching (~20% Cu) and sent via solvent extraction, where two immiscible liquids are mixed and then naturally separate, copper moves from one to the other, making a high Cu electrolyte to then be electrowon to a final 99.99% copper cathode (Figure 1). Electrorefining produces the majority of cathode copper 80% as opposed to 20% from electrowinning. Among copper ores, copper-iron-sulfide ores account for the majority of the world's copper-from-ore source, and the tendency is to develop a hydrometallurgical process for the treatment of these sulfides, a less energy consuming method, less harmful to the environment, and other potential advantages such as lower capital costs [1, 3, 4].

Chalcopyrite is the most abundant of these minerals, but is highly refractory to hydrometallurgical processing, resulting in the formation of an anodic passivation layer on the surface that renders the process kinetics very slow requiring potent solutions to dissolve it, and although pyrometallurgical processing remains as the principal industry method to treat chalcopyrite and the majority of sulfide ores, the high capital costs associated with smelting, the limited ability of smelters to handle growing concentrations of As and Sb, as well as emissions of

SO₂, lead efforts to implement a hydrometallurgical process to treat sulfide ores rather than improve their usual processing by the mining industry [1, 5, 6, 7].

According to Schlesinger et al. [1], copper production cost from electrowon cathodes (hydrometallurgical process) are significantly lower than copper produced by electrorefined cathodes (pyrometallurgical process), from \$1 to \$2 per kg to \$3-\$6 per kg, respectively.

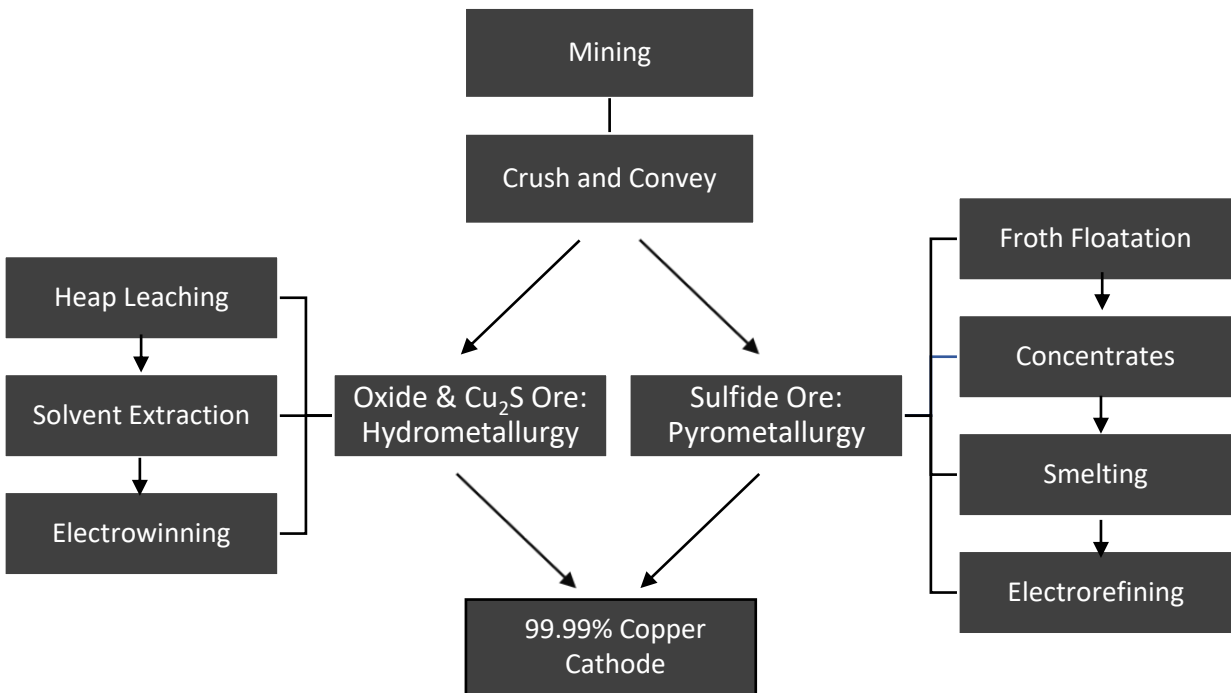
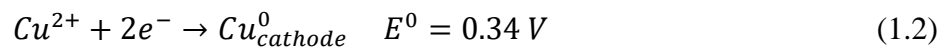
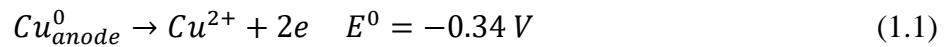


Figure 1-1 Processing of Copper Ores

1.2 Electrorefining of Copper

Electrorefining is employed to primary copper sulfide ores treated by a pyrometallurgy process shown in the right side of figure 1-1. These ores are highly refractory to acid treatments used in copper hydrometallurgy, less expensive and more hazardous to the environment. Copper recovered in the electrolyte comes from impure copper anodes (98.5-99.5% Cu), smelted and smothered almost free of sulfur and oxygen. The anodes are electrochemically dissolved in the electrolyte to produce 99.99% Cu, where impurities are lost during this anode-to-electrolyte-to-cathode passage, figure 1-2 [8, 9]. An electrical potential is applied to allow for this passage according to the following reactions:

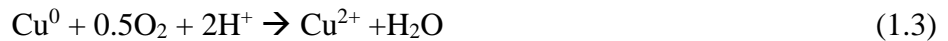


the cathode reaction is the reverse of that at the anode and therefore, in the ideal case, the cell voltage is only required to drive the current through the electrolyte, of around 0.3 V. A typical ER electrolyte contains 40 to 55 g/L of Cu in the form of CuSO₄ with a 300 to 400 kg anode and 170 to 200 g/L of H₂SO₄ (2M). Temperature is usually maintained at 60-65°C (inlet to cell) to help increase the dissolution of copper sulfate, lower solution density and viscosity and increasing the rate of reactions [1, 9]. Electrolytes can vary significantly in impurity concentrations, (been Ni, As and Fe the higher in concentration with 10-20 g/L, 2-30 g/L and up to 3 g/L, respectively) depending on the composition of the incoming anodes, which depends in turn on the source of the smelter feed. Excessive current density causes increased impurity levels deposited in the cathode and also passivation of the anode due to a copper sulfate precipitation layer, created by the higher

oxidation rate of copper compared to cathode reduction of the ions, insulating the anode and restricting further oxidation of Cu to Cu²⁺ [1, 16, 17, 53].

Increasing Cu(II) and sulfate contents enhance the formation of this passivation film. Passivation can also be promoted as more impurities are present in the anode and at higher concentrations (As, Ni, Sb, Sn, Pb) through the formation of a coherent slimes layer, as well as by the formation of a nickel sulfate film when high levels of nickel are present [1, 10, 11].

Typically, current densities below 300 A/m² are employed to avoid passivation, although newer developed methods allowed for densities to reach the 400 A/m² [1, 10, 11, 12]. Arsenic is the only known element to inhibit passivation, and is maintained at about 300 mg/L concentration in the anode [10]. According to literature [1, 9, 14, 15], the three main factors causing current inefficiencies are occasioned by stray currents to ground, anode-cathode short circuits and loss of copper deposit by air or Fe³⁺ oxidation. Stray current loss is due to spilled electrolyte, causing 1 to 3% loss. Short-circuiting is caused by anodes and cathodes touching each other, around 1 to 3% loss and mostly due by nodular or dendritic growth that can be avoid by suitable addition agents and proper vertical placement of the electrodes. Oxygen and Fe(III) can reoxidized plated copper into the electrolyte causing around 1% loss according to the following reaction:



Smooth and quiet flow of the electrolyte can avoid oxygen absorption to a certain point to still allow for mass transfer. The role of iron will be discussed further in the following chapters. Most refineries operate at current densities between 200 and 250 A/m².

Uniform electrode spacing, vertical hanging of anodes and cathodes, flat cathodes, good electrolyte composition and avoidance of passivation are all aimed at this requirement for uniform current distribution [15].

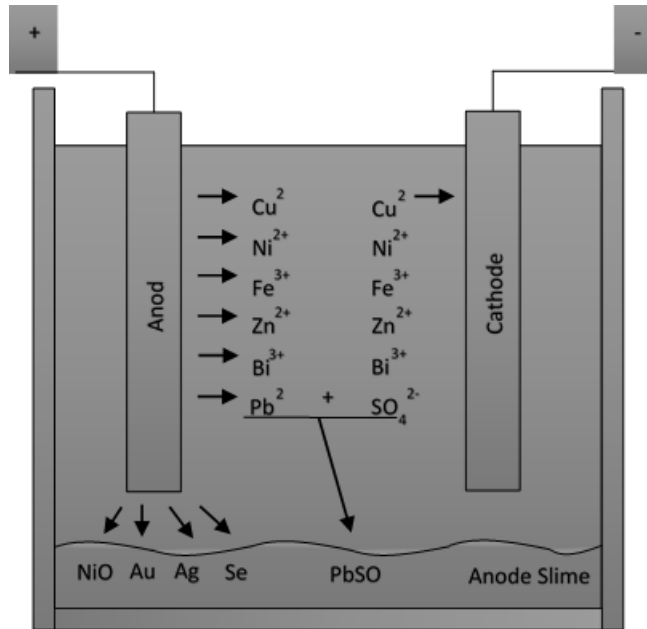


Figure 1-2 Diagram of the electrolysis of copper from an impure anode (98-99.5% Cu anode) [53].

Differing current density in a tankhouse can cause poor product copper quality (high local convection and slime contents), decreased current efficiency (higher energy consumption), local passivation and short circuits. In the other hand, there is always some oxygen evolution even with careful control of the electrical input to the cell, which not only reduces current efficiency but also causes an acid mist above the cells. This acid mist is primarily sulphuric acid health hazardous and needs to be minimized.

Electrorefining accounts for the 80% of high-purity copper production in the world, giving a copper cathode of less than 20 ppm impurities necessary for electrical applications. Research is

mostly focused in the understanding and improvement of the electrochemical reactions to achieve a better control of the electrolyte and further treat more complex anodes with higher concentrations of impurities and reduce operational cost by reducing power consumption, maximize copper cathode quality, and hopefully translate it to a more environmentally friendly hydrometallurgical process. Nevertheless, improvements have been made by developing new equipment and infrastructure as the use of polymer concrete cells, stainless steel cathodes and the implementation of automation in the tankhouse in an effort to improve the refining process as far as power consumption, productivity and waste reduction.

1.3 Electrowinning of Copper

Electrowinning is employed to primary copper oxide ores treated by a hydrometallurgy process as shown in the left side of figure 1-1. Copper is recovered onto a cathode from a purified electrolyte solution which will contain a range of impurities in the order of 10^{-3} ppm which can either be codeposited, precipitate or form slimes from the impure feed solution. The feed solution may be directly from a leach operation or may be partly or wholly purified prior to electrowinning.

A voltage from an external source is applied to the electrolyte containing CuSO_4 and H_2SO_4 , causing current flow between the electrodes, anode to cathode, plating a purer metallic copper from the electrolyte onto the cathode, similar to the cathode reaction in electrorefining. In the anode, however, water is decomposed to release protons and form oxygen gas [1], different from the anode reaction in electrorefining.

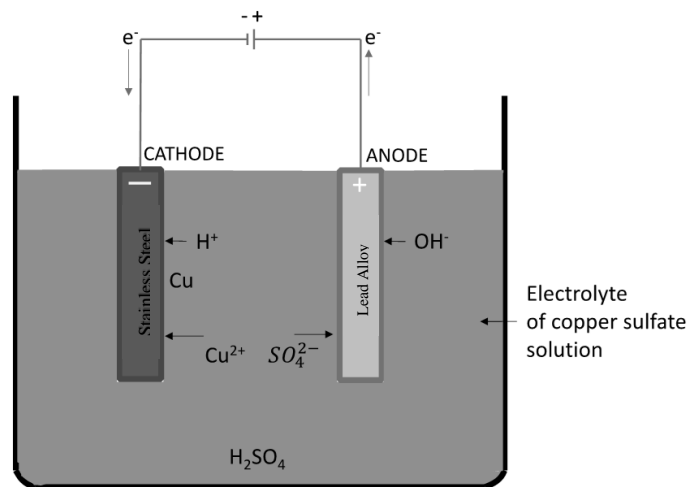


Figure 1-3 Diagram of the electrolysis of copper from copper sulfate solution (inert anode).

The cell voltage is around the 2.0 V according to current and voltage contributions to power consumption (approximately 2000 kWh/t) that can be found elsewhere in literature [1, 15, 16, 17]. Figure 1-3 shows a diagram of the electrolysis of copper using inert electrodes (electrowinning) where the negative cathode electrode attracts Cu^{2+} ions (from copper sulfate) and H^+ ions (from water). Only the copper ion is discharged, being reduced to copper metal. The less reactive a metal, the more readily its ion is reduced on the electrode surface. Copper deposits forms as the positive copper ions are attracted to the negative electrode (cathode) (1.5), the negative cathode reaction. In the positive anode reaction, water is decomposed and oxygen evolution occurs (1.6). the sum of both reactions is the overall EW reaction (1.7).



The decomposition of water reaction at the anode produces oxygen gas (O_2), bubbling to the top generating an acid mist, and also contributes significantly to the overall cell voltage via required, 1.3 V of the 2.0 V. This mean that a decrease in the anode overpotential will reduce the cell voltage significantly, and thus decrease the total operating cost of the electrowinning process. A solution to this is the ferrous to ferric redox reaction, and will be covered in chapter 2.1.

Most of the currently proposed processes are based on sulfuric acid with ferric ions and/or dissolved oxygen as oxidants for leaching. Sulfuric acid is preferred over all other leaching reagents in terms of cost, environmental friendliness, and ease of its regeneration during electrowinning [1, 17, 18, 19].

Copper electrowinning is operated at current densities ranging from 150 to above 450 A/m², depending on electrolyte parameters and production needs. Higher currents can negatively affect the morphology and quality of the cathode. A typical electrolyte contains about 40 to 50 g/L Cu, 150 to 190 g/L of sulfuric acid (H₂SO₄), a temperature range of 45 to 60°C and a several iron concentrations based on nominal Fe³⁺/Fe²⁺ ratios, although concentrations are typically less than 3 g/L [1, 2, 17, 20, 21, 22, 23]. It is well known that iron reduces current efficiency in the electrolyte by around 3% for each 1 g/L of iron, due to the reduction of Fe³⁺ ions to Fe²⁺ at the cathode, stealing electrons to the copper reduction reaction. Iron behavior and effects on copper electrolytes will be further discussed in detail in chapter 2.1.1.

Manganese is also very important since it contributes to anode passivation in the electrolyte. Problems arising from manganese in the electrowinning electrolyte are known and a number of methods of control have been developed. Reducing manganese concentration in the electrolyte results in increased current efficiency and extended life of solvent extractant (SX) used in the solvent extraction electrowinning (SXEW) circuit [1, 20, 25].

To control the buildup of impurities in the electrolyte, as well as viscosity and oxygen dissolution, a bleed is performed regularly from the tankhouse, where part of it (around 50%) goes back to the SX for copper recovery. The remainder is discarded or goes back to the leaching process where the acid is reused.

Similarly, to electrorefining, inefficiencies in current are due by short circuits, stray current to ground, Fe³⁺ reduction to Fe²⁺, oxygen dissolution at the cathode, redissolution/oxidation of the copper cathode and electroplated copper falling off unable to be harvested.

1.4 Scope of Study

This thesis aims to contribute to the understanding of acidic iron sulfate solutions, prediction of redox potential of the $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\text{Fe}^{2+}$ couple in these solutions, and to quantify iron effect in copper electrometallurgy, both winning and refining.

Measured redox potentials in the $\text{Fe(II)-Fe(III)-H}_2\text{SO}_4$ and $\text{Fe(II)-Fe(III)-Cu(II)-H}_2\text{SO}_4$ systems at different temperatures and nominal $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\text{Fe}^{2+}$ will be compared to those calculated by the mathematical expression developed by Yue et al. [7, 18, 22, 26], to determine the validity of such equation and probably expand the scope of the same.

Potentiometric determination of ferrous iron will be conducted in order to revise solution concentration, analyze the $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\text{Fe}^{2+}$ behavior with temperature and to further validate the above expression.

Current efficiency will be evaluated in terms of cupric and ferric ions concentration in solution according to the equation developed by Khourabchia et al. (2007) and will be validated based on currently used electrowinning and electrorefining industrial solutions.

These findings will enhance the investigation of anodic and cathodic behavior, assess the rate-determining steps involved in the electrolysis process, the possibility to expand the thermodynamic expression to predict the redox potential of the electrolyte, and finally contribute towards the expansion of hydrometallurgical processes.

2 Literature Review

2.1 Copper Electrolysis in the Fe(III)-Fe(II)-H₂SO₄-H₂O System

By electrolysis, copper can be refined up to a 99.99% purity. Factors in the electrolyte such as acid concentration, temperature and current density must be selected so that both the anodic oxidation and the cathodic deposition of copper ions occur as efficiently as possible while impurities (other metals, complexes, etc.) are kept in the electrolyte to avoid their transfer from the anode to the cathode. These impurities either dissolve and accumulate in solution or fall to the bottom of the cell as anode slime. The build-up of impurities in solution is controlled by removing part of the electrolyte (a bleed) and removing the unwanted metals by precipitation or other means. The anode slimes are generally treated to recover valuable metals such as Ag, Au, Te and platinum-group metals [1, 20]. Additives are added to the electrolyte to enforce the correct behavior at both electrodes, to control copper electro-crystallization at the cathode (levelers and brighteners) and to help prevent insoluble particulates from co-deposition (surfactants).

It is well known that the influence of the acidic concentration (pH) is inversely proportional to the electrical conductivity (exchange current density) in the electrolyte, that is, a more acidic solution (low pH approximately ≥ 2) propitiates a greater current density, beneficial for ion exchange[1, 7, 27]. This is true to a certain point, since high concentrations in the electrolyte can lead to anode passivation and higher viscosity, which results in increased solids in suspension and therefore reduced copper product quality via increased incorporation of impurity solids in the copper deposits. As can be seen, high current densities are desired in order to get more copper electroplated, yet quality of the cathode is compromised since more impurities can get trapped and plated between the copper, making a rougher surface.

Casas et al. (2005, 2006) developed a speciation model of the Fe(II)-Fe(III)-H₂SO₄- H₂O system up to 1.3 M Fe and 2.2 M sulfuric acid concentration at 25 and 50°C. They observed a decrease in conductivity when temperature decreased and iron concentration increased, and a decrease in the concentration of H⁺ and Fe³⁺ as temperature increased. They also studied the dissolution of copper in acidic iron sulfate solutions and found that the dissolution rate showed a marked increase with both temperature and dissolved ferric iron. Dissolution rates were constant and then started to decrease as both Fe³⁺ concentration and total copper surface area reduced gradually. Calculated free ferric ion species (Fe³⁺) presented a very low concentration and the dominant Fe(III) specie was the FeH(SO₄)₂ neutral complex. The combined effect of increasing temperature and ferric iron concentration caused a marked increase in copper dissolution rates. These results indicate that the dissolution of the copper sheet was controlled mainly by the chemical reaction at the solid-liquid interphase.

Cifuentes et al. (2001, 2005, 2006) [21, 28, 29, 30] validated these model (Casas et al.) to determine the temperature dependence of the involved species' equilibrium constants and concentrations in Cu(II)-H₂SO₄ and Fe(II)-Fe(III)- H₂SO₄ at of 0-50 g/L Cu, 0-72.5 g/L Fe and 0-200 g/L H₂SO₄ concentrations for temperatures of 15 to 50°C. They further proved that these relationships can be used to predict Cu and Fe species concentrations with temperature in both systems and can also be used as components of more complex models.

The thermodynamic data of the main species involved (including H⁺, Fe²⁺, Fe³⁺, SO₄²⁻, HSO₄⁻, FeHSO₄⁺, FeSO₄⁰, FeHSO₄²⁺, Fe(SO₄)⁺, FeSO₄⁺, Fe₂O₃ and H₂O) have being studied by previous authors [6, 15, 18, 22, 26, 31] for the calculation of activity coefficients and equilibrium constants.

According to Yue et al [7], No precipitates are expected to be formed at temperatures from 25°C to 70°C under the specified conditions of a Cu liquor and so in this work, therefore will not

be considered. Acidities below pH 2 are typically employed, although higher acidity values will increase the electrolyte conductivity, they increase the corrosivity of the acid mist produced and decrease anode lifetime. Higher pH values will lead to the formation of iron precipitates and iron hydroxyl complexes [1, 7] Only species of significance to the scope of this experiment specified by the work of Yue et al. (2014, 2015) will be considered, according to the above mentioned functions of pH, temperature and nominal $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\text{Fe}^{2+}$.

2.1.1 Impurities in Copper Electrolysis

The behavior of the main impurities affecting copper electrolysis is governed by their position in the electrochemical series and will be discussed through all this work according to the process in which they are involved.

Generally, at the anode, elements with more positive reduction potentials (compared to copper) remain in solid form, while elements with less positive reduction potentials dissolve under the applied potential. At the cathode, elements with more positive reduction potentials deposit preferentially, while elements with more negative potentials remain in solution [24]. Figures 2 and 3 show a comparison of the reduction potentials of main species present in electrowinning and electrorefining, respectively. As shown by these figures and according to literature, platinum and gold group metals, as well as selenium, tellurium, lead and tin do not dissolve in the electrolyte, instead they form slimes and fall to the bottom of the cell or adhere to the anode; in the other hand, arsenic, bismuth, cobalt, iron, nickel, sulfur and antimony do dissolve in the electrolyte under conditions where copper is electrochemically dissolved.

Elements that form slimes are recovered as byproduct and elements that do dissolve are bleed out of the electrolyte. Silver is more noble than Cu so it will be co-deposited at the cathode [(around 8-10 ppm according to Barrios, Alonso, & Meyer (1999))] yet is seen as a contribution rather than an impurity in deposited copper.

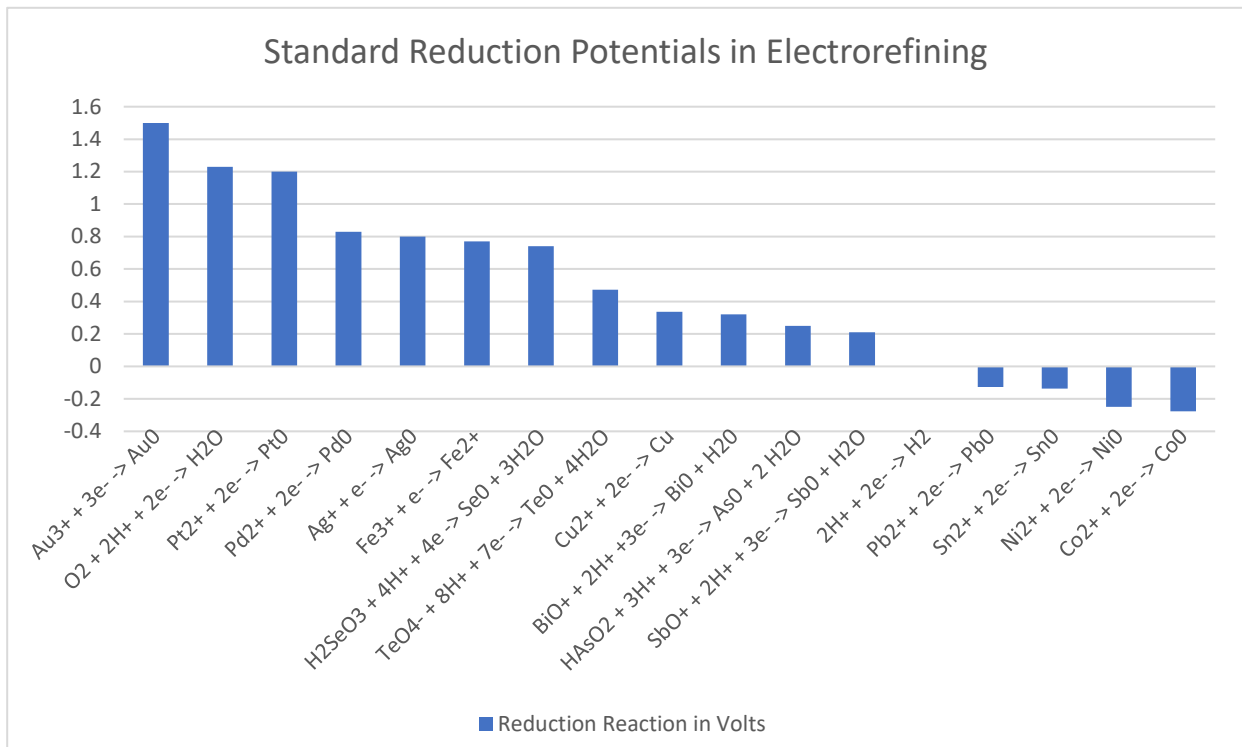


Figure 2-1 Standard reduction potentials of the main species reactions involved in copper electrorefining

During electro-winning, manganese is probably the second most important impurity for its detrimental contributions. It contributes to the formation of MnO_2 on the anode which can redissolve when power is lost, contributing to entrapment of Pb and Mn in the cathode and sludge formation at the bottom of the cell (Tjandrawan & Nicol. 2010) [1, 25]. Mn(II) can be oxidized to Mn(III), Mn(IV), or Mn(VII) at the anodes (Cheng, Hughes, Barnanrd, & Larcombe, 2000)[1, 5]. To avoid the formation of the permanganate ion (MnO_4^{-}) at the anode (highly oxidizing species that can have detrimental effects on the SX organic phase), a ratio of Fe:Mn in the electrolyte of approx. 10:1 is often maintained (miller 1995).

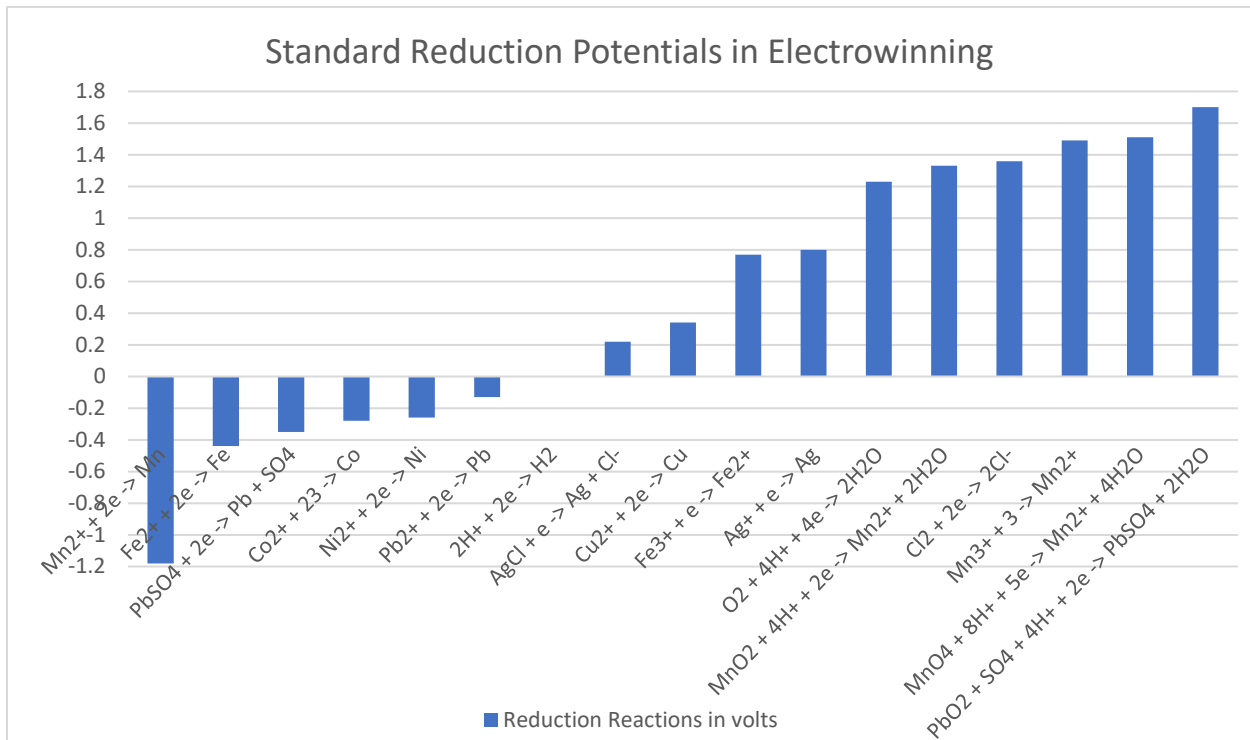


Figure 2-2 Standard reduction potentials of the main species reactions involved in copper electrowinning

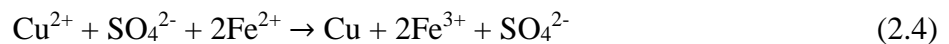
2.1.2 The Iron Redox Reaction

It is well known that the iron couple is one of the most affecting elements in the electrolyte. At the cathode, the Fe^{3+} to Fe^{2+} reaction competes with the Cu^{2+} to Cu reaction, which cause energy consumption of the cell to increase. It is also a rate-controlling factor in copper oxidation by the couple Cu/Fe^{3+} to $\text{Cu}^{2+}/\text{Fe}^{2+}$ where the resulting Fe^{2+} is reoxidized to Fe^{3+} by O_2 , where the redox couple $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\text{Fe}^{2+}$ acts as a catalyst.

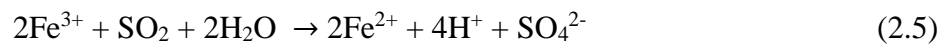
The ferrous to ferric ion oxidation (2.1.1) has been chosen as an alternative to the anode water decomposition (2.2.2) in the design of new copper electrowinning cells because its use allows a drastic reduction in the cell voltage, from about 2 V to 1 V [32, 33, 34, 35].



where the cathode reaction and overall cell reaction are as follows, respectively:



where the ferric iron generated at the anode can be reduced back to ferrous by sulfur dioxide according to the following stoichiometry:



In addition, this reaction eliminates the acid mist generated by oxygen ‘bubbling’ due to the water decomposition reaction, and the produced ferric ion can be used as an oxidizing agent. The oxidation of ferrous to ferric iron is a diffusion-controlled reaction, thus depends on the effective mass transport of both species for an effective voltage reduction to occur.

The use of iron, however, implies limitations in current densities due to the inability to obtain a sufficiently high rate of diffusion of ferrous iron to the anode and ferric iron from the anode, in other words, an optimum transport of ferrous and ferric ions is difficult to achieve.

Sandoval et al. (2005) [35], found that a flow-through anode and an effective circulation of the electrolyte enables a sufficient diffusion rate of ferrous iron to the anode and facilitate transport of ferric iron from the anode to achieve an overall cell voltage of less than about 1.5 V and current densities of 280 A/m², where the concentration of iron in the electrolyte is maintained between 10 to 60 g/L and temperature is between the 43 and 83°C. The redox potential of the above ferric-ferrous couple is given by the Nernst equation as follows:

$$E = E^0 - \frac{RT}{F} \ln \left\{ \frac{(Fe^{2+})}{(Fe^{3+})} \right\} \quad (2.6)$$

where E and E⁰ are solution redox potential and redox potential when Fe²⁺ and Fe³⁺ are at unit activity, respectively; R is gas constant, T is absolute temperature, F is Faraday constant and { } represent the activity in solution. If the assumption is made, that the total concentration ratio, is equal to the activity ratio of the two species, then we can predict the redox potential of the solution by Nernst equation [18, 21]. The problem with the Nernst equation is that at higher electrolyte concentrations, the activity of any given species in solution cannot be related to its concentration in a simple way. If the ferrous/ferric activity ratio in any given solution were known, the Nernst

equation could be used to predict the solution redox potential. It can also be assumed that both ratios are proportional, and Nernst equation can be modified by a factor and even to a power of the total concentration, that is $\{Fe^{2+}\} / \{Fe^{3+}\} = a[Fe^{2+}] / [Fe^{3+}]$, where the firsts are activities and the last are concentrations.

Yue et al. developed an expression (2.7) to predict the redox potential of the Fe^{3+}/Fe^{2+} couple depended only by the variables of temperature and nominal Fe^{3+}/Fe^{2+} [7, 26]. According to Yue et al., the predicted potentials from this expression are in agreement with those found in literature, however further work is required to expand the range of application of this expression.

$$E(mV) = -1 \times 10^{-3} \times [T(K)]^2 + 0.91 \times T(K) + \frac{2.303R}{nF} \times T(K) \times 10^3 \times \log \frac{C_{ferric,nominal}}{C_{ferrous,nominal}} + 492 \quad (2.7)$$

It is the intention of the authors of this expression to avoid or skip the use of difficult calculations such as the Debye-Huckel and B-dot models for the estimation of activities and ionic strengths, and also to not need to employ chemistry analysis techniques that are quite difficult to carry on, inaccurate if not done correctly and very expensive in general.

2.2 Influence of Kinetics on Cell Efficiency

2.2.1 Current Efficiency

The exchange current density between electrodes can either accelerate or inhibit charge transfer [15]. These effects are complex combinations of thermodynamic and kinetic factors.

The rate of copper plating from the solution is given by Faraday's Law;

$$m = Mit\xi/nF \quad (2.8)$$

where m is the mass of copper plated in grams, M is the molar mass of copper (63.55 g/mol), I is the current in the electrolyte in amperes, t is the time for which the current is applied in seconds, ξ is the current efficiency (the fraction of the total current used in producing copper), n is the number of electrons involved in the plating of Cu (2 from the cathode reaction) and F is the Faraday constant (96 485 C/mol of charge = 96 485 A/mol).

Current density is directly proportional to electroplating, that is, the rate of plating increase with increase of current density. However, excessive current density can promote rough, nodular cathode deposits, and decreased copper purity if not properly managed [15, 16]. Current density in modern plants varies from 200 to 500 A/m², By Faraday's Law we can calculate the maximum amount of copper that can be plated in a given time period. The weight of the cathode is a function of the amount of current applied. More current (electrons) means more copper can be plated.

$$W_{cathode} = \frac{i \cdot A \cdot t \cdot a.w.}{n \cdot F} \quad (2.9)$$

where $W_{cathode}$ is the weight of the electroplated cathode in grams; i is the current density in Amps per meter square; A is the area available for plating in meter square; t is plating time in seconds;

$a.w.$ is the atomic weight of copper in g/mol (63.54 g/mol); n is the number of electrons and F is Faraday's constant in C/mol e^- (96487 C/mol e^-).

Faradays' Law represents the maximum amount of copper that can be plated for a specified time period and current. Inefficiencies as iron ions, short circuits and stray current in the process result in less copper being plated than theoretically possible. To account for these inefficiencies a factor is applied to estimate how much copper is actually plated at a given operating conditions. The factor is called current efficiency (CE) and is represented as a percentage of theoretical performance:

$$W_{actual} = C.E. (W_{theoretical}) \quad (2.10)$$

where copper ER operations generally operate above 90% current efficiency and copper EW operations usually run about 80% current efficiency.

In the other hand, the open-circuit potential (OCP) in an electrochemical cell can be defined as the voltage measured when no current flows through the cell, or more technically it reflects the thermodynamic parameter which guides us about the thermodynamic tendency of that metallic materials to participate in the electrochemical corrosion with the electrolyte or neighboring medium. Therefore, a potential below OCP is more thermodynamically stable (less tendency to take part in corrosion) whereas the potential above OCP is considered as thermodynamically unstable and prone to corrosion.

Aslin et al. [36] studied the importance of even current densities as modern refineries approach their limiting current density as they employ higher current densities (<250 A/m²). The maximum current density possible is related to the ability of cupric ions to migrate to the cathode surface as quickly as those ions can discharge from the anode. This is driven by the diffusion rate of cupric ions across the boundary layer at the cathode face. The thickness of the boundary layer

depends on many factors including flow rate of the bulk electrolyte and the concentration gradient across the boundary layer, as described by Fick's Law [10, 14, 28, 34, 37].

If the current density exceeds the ability of cupric ions to diffuse across the boundary layer the current will be carried by cations other than copper, and a reaction other than copper reduction at the cathode will occur. The limiting current density can be written as the equation;

$$i_{lim} = \frac{nFDc_b}{d} \quad (2.11)$$

where i is the current density (A/m^2), F is Faraday constant (C/mol) and n the number of moles of electrons in the electrochemical reaction. Electrode spacing, alignment, geometry, contact and internal resistance are contributors of non-uniform current distribution, yet electrolyte resistance is by far the biggest (80-85%).

Das and Krishna [37] showed an increase of every g per L will cause an increase in energy consumption from 1690 to 1827 kWh/t. Energy consumption increased when increased iron concentration from 0 to 6 g/L, within an average increase of 39 kWh/t for each addition of 1 g per L. the cell voltage was not dependent on iron concentration and has an average of 1.433 V with a standard deviation of 0,010. E.C. therefore increase was mainly caused by the decrease in current efficiency.

Khouraibchia et al. [1, 2] presented the first steps in developing a definitive relationship (2.12) for the 2 to 3% loss in current efficiency per every gram in a liter of a typical copper electrowinning electrolyte based on the diffusivity of ferric ions as a function of concentrations and temperature.

$$\xi(\%) = 88.19 - 4.91[Fe^{3+}] + 0.52[Cu^{2+}] + 1.81 \times 10^{-3}j - 6.83 \times 10^{-3}[Cu^{2+}]^2 + 0.028[Fe^{3+}][Cu^{2+}] + 4.015 \times 10^{-3}j[Fe^{3+}] \quad (2.12)$$

The authors used the Nernst diffusion layer model (Vetter, 1967) for the relationship between Fe(III) limiting current density and its diffusivity:

$$i_L = F \frac{D_{Fe(III)}}{\delta} C \quad (2.13)$$

where C is Fe(III) concentration (mol/cm³); D_{Fe(III)} is Fe(III) effective diffusivity (cm²/s); i_L is the limiting current density of the reduction of Fe(III) (A/cm²); δ is the thickness of the Nernst diffusion boundary layer (cm); and F is the Faraday's constant = 96485 C/(e) mole. Their results showed current efficiency decrease linearly with increasing Fe, from 98.6 to 83.8% (0 to 6g/L). The slope indicates a 2.5% C.E. decrease for each addition of 1 g/L.

This model demonstrates that the current efficiency of the system is determined by the concentration of copper and ferric ions in the electrolyte, while current density does not have a significant effect. This model is used in this work to evaluate current efficiency as a function of Fe³⁺ and Cu²⁺ concentrations.

2.2.2 Cathode Quality

The operating parameters such as pH, current density and temperature during the electrolysis/electroplating process will determine the morphology and crystallographic structure of the metal deposits, which in turn will 'shape' the specific properties of the metal. Furthermore, the morphology and crystallographic structure of these deposits are mainly determined by the nucleation and growth of the grains, where the concentration of the solution is proportional to the nucleation rate and overpotential (Rate of Nucleation \propto Conc of Ad-atoms \propto Overpotential) [15]. Growth can be inhibited by the addition of various levelling or brightening agents which absorb preferentially on the crystal defects (the growth sites) [1, 5, 15, 34, 38].

Among the mentioned parameters affecting cathode quality, current density is the most significant regarding cathode's physical properties. The effect of current density on the morphology is shown in Figure 2-4 [15]. As expressed by Nicol et al., as the current density (or more accurately the ratio i/i_L) increases, the mean size of the crystallites making up the deposit decreases with well-formed large crystals giving way eventually to very fine crystals or powdery deposits. This is expected in terms of the effect of overpotential on the relative rates of nucleation and growth.

The maximum current density that can be applied in industrial operations is normally about 30-40% of the limiting current density. In the case of base metal electrowinning, a rule of thumb is that the ratio, current density (A/m^2) / metal concentration (g/L) in spent < 10 thus, for a cell concentration of 40 g/L Cu, the maximum current density should be about 400 A/m^2 .

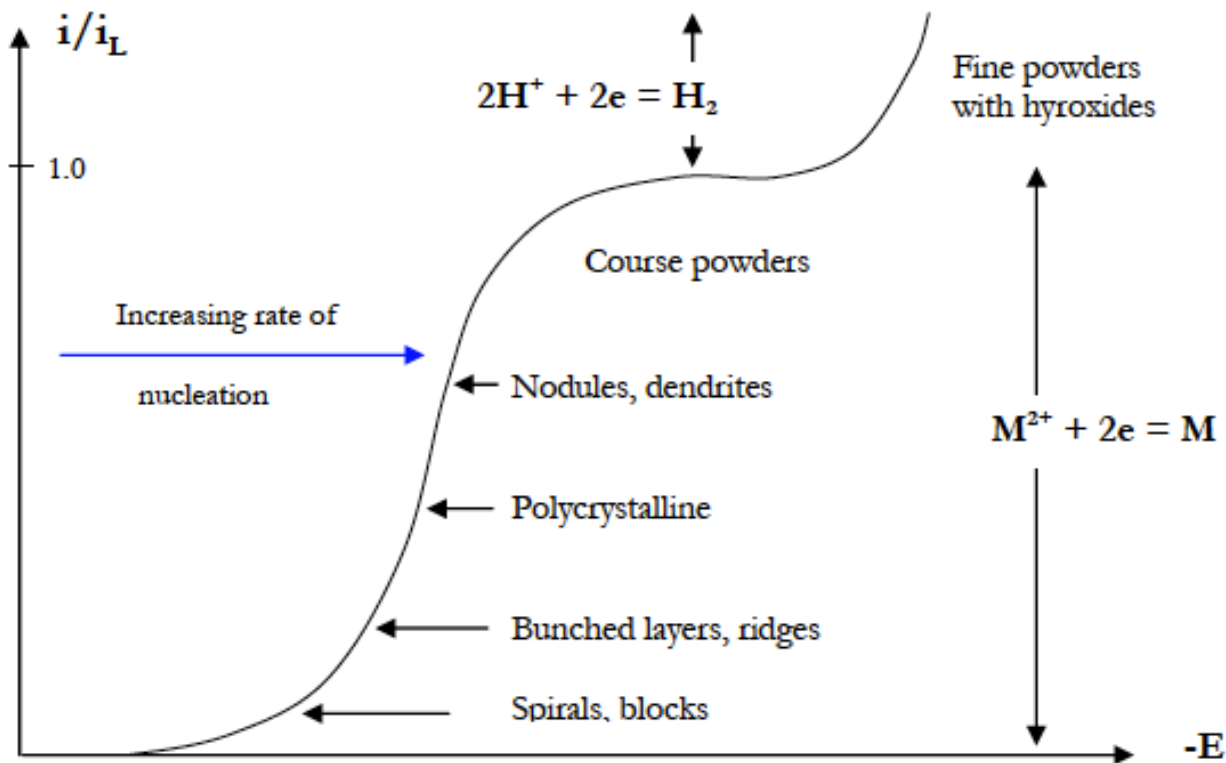


Figure 2-3 Effect of current density on the nature of deposits. *Electrowinning and Electrorefining of Copper*, J. Nicol, Murdoch University

The use of brighteners, levelers, inhibitors, and the chlorides are meant to improve the electrochemistry, structure, properties and appearance of electrodeposited copper [1, 37].

Brighteners are typically incorporated into the copper deposits and tend to refine the grain structure by catalyzing the copper reaction and promoting the formation of new grains. Levelers help produce a smooth surface by inhibiting the growth of protrusions or edges. Levelers and brighteners usually work well in conjunction with each other. Inhibitors are believed to affect both copper dissolution and deposition. They are described as polarizers or current suppressors. These additives have been shown to interact with the cathode surface and influence plating. They also produce deposits with tighter grain structures.

Chloride ions promote dense, fine grain, low impurity copper cathodes, but the concentration should be maintained below about 30 mg/L, since at higher concentration chlorine gas will be evolved at the anodes and pitting of the stainless steel cathodes is observed. Chloride ions are not only known to depolarize or accelerate the copper-plating process but also assist in interactions between the copper surface and suppressors (Shao, Pattanaik and Zangari, 2007). Thus, refineries control the addition of each of these compounds to obtain copper cathodes of desired quality and density. These compounds can also affect anode passivation in copper electrorefining (Moats and Hiskey, 2000).

2.3 Determination of Iron Species in Sulfuric Acid Solutions

To select an analytical method intelligently it is necessary to describe the chemical interactions between the components, know how much sample is available and the concentration range of the analyte (how sensitive the method must be accommodated), what components of the sample might cause interference (selectivity of the method), as well as the chemical properties of the sample matrix (solvent). Factors such as temperature and pH must also be accounted.

Iron speciation can be performed by titration, complexation, photochromatography, spectroscopically, and by a combination of spectrophotometry with the above mentioned. Volumetric spectroscopy techniques can be used effectively if several assumptions are made as mentioned in the last section, where the concentration of species is related to activities in an equally, proportional or exponentially manner.

Zhu et al. 2018 [40], modified the very well known spectrophotometric method of 1,10-phenanthroline, preferred among other similar methods due to its sensitivity [Tong et al. 2016; Amonette and Matyas 2016; Sumitomo et al. 2017] to account for the interference that high concentrations of Fe^{3+} causes to analyze Fe^{2+} . In the study, they masked Fe^{3+} with F^- (sodium fluoride) with a specific molar concentration, ratio but according to Tamura et al., (1974) [41] the masking with fluoride is only effective if the solution is maintained at low pH levels (below 2.5) to inhibit the interference of fluoride of accelerating the aerial oxidation of Fe (II). It also appears that temperature has no effect up to 30°C , yet since we pretend to explore temperatures up to the 70°C this method becomes negligible for the purposes of this research.

A method proposed by Gendel et al. [4] in which Fe(III) and Fe(II) in concentration ratios of about 100:1 are first separated in solution in a pretreatment and then Fe(II) is determined by a modified phenanthroline method appears to be precise but very complicated compared to other available methods.

Titration is among the most accurate of all analytical procedures. To mark the end point of a titration, an indicator is added to the analyte. Usually the amount of titrant is varied until chemical equivalence is reached, as indicated by the color change of a chemical indicator or by the change in an instrument response. The amount of the standardized reagent needed to achieve chemical equivalence can then be related to the amount of analyte present, thus, a type of chemical comparison.

Two strong oxidants are preferred over other methods to titrate iron, potassium permanganate (KMnO_4) and cerium (Ce^{4+}). Potassium dichromate ($\text{K}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7$) is somewhat below these two and Iodine (I_3^-) as well as bromine (KBrO_3) are considered weak oxidants therefore are of no interest.

The permanganate end point is not permanent because excess permanganate ions react slowly with the relatively large concentration of Manganese(II) ion present at the end point, according to the reaction: $2\text{MnO}_4^- + 3\text{Mn}^{2+} + 2\text{H}_2\text{O} \rightleftharpoons 5\text{MnO}_2(\text{s}) + 4\text{H}^+$ with an equilibrium constant (K_{eq}) of 10^{47} . If the solution is very dilute, diphenylamine sulfonic acid or the 1,10-phenanthroline complex of iron (II) provides a sharper end point [1, 2]. Solutions of Cerium(IV) are yellow-orange, but the color is not intense enough to act as an indicator in titrations, the most widely used is 1,10-phenanthroline or one of its substituted derivatives.

3 Objectives

The overall objective of this investigation is to determine iron behavior in copper electrowinning and electrorefining electrolytes. This is an effort to contribute to the investigation of published research to understand the current efficiency loss caused by iron.

In view of the preceding discussion, the specific objectives of this thesis are set out as follows:

(1) Conduct a simulation of the quaternary acidic sulfate solution [H₂SO₄-Fe₂(SO₄)₃-FeSO₄-H₂O] and a small-scale copper electrolyte solution [H₂SO₄-CuSO₄-Fe₂(SO₄)₃-FeSO₄-H₂O] to predict the oxidation-reduction potential of the Fe³⁺/Fe²⁺ couple in solution from 25°C to 70°C from Yue et al. thermodynamic model.

(2) Determine iron species concentrations in the H₂SO₄-Fe₂(SO₄)₃-FeSO₄-H₂O and the H₂SO₄-CuSO₄-Fe₂(SO₄)₃-FeSO₄-H₂O systems by potentiometric titration to validate the applicability of the model developed by Yue et al. to determine ferrous and ferric concentrations based on measured redox potential.

(3) To validate the thermodynamic model developed by Yue et al. on the prediction of the redox potential in the quaternary acidic iron copper sulfate solution and further extend its applicability to a broader range of pH, temperature, ferric/ferrous ratio, and concentrations of copper and iron ions.

(4) To expand the applicability of the equation to predict the redox potential in the H₂SO₄-Fe₂(SO₄)₃-FeSO₄-H₂O and H₂SO₄-CuSO₄-Fe₂(SO₄)₃-FeSO₄-H₂O systems and provide an alternative through this equation to avoid complicated speciation calculations and volumetric methods for ferric and ferrous determination.

4 Methodology and Experimental Procedure

4.1 Measurements of the Oxidation-Reduction Potential of the $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3\text{-FeSO}_4\text{-H}_2\text{O}$ and the $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-CuSO}_4\text{-Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3\text{-FeSO}_4\text{-H}_2\text{O}$ Systems from 25°C to 70°C

Experimental work to measure the redox potential of the quaternary acidic iron sulfate system was carried out at temperatures ranging from 25°C to 70°C.

4.1.1 Electrolyte preparation

The composition of the synthetic iron containing solutions was determined based on industrial operating conditions during copper electrowinning and electrorefining. The total iron and copper concentrations ranged from 2.2 g/L to 6 g/L and 36 g/L to 50 g/L, respectively.

Deionized water, sulfuric acid (H_2SO_4 , 95.0-98.0%, Fisher Scientific), iron (III) sulfate pentahydrate ($\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3 \cdot 5\text{H}_2\text{O}$, 97%, Acros), iron (II) sulfate heptahydrate ($\text{FeSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$, 99+% Acros) and copper (II) sulfate pentahydrate ($\text{CuSO}_4 \cdot 5\text{H}_2\text{O}$, 98%, Acros) were used to prepare the electrolyte. Solution was prepared prior to each test, with H_2SO_4 concentrations ranging from 170 to 200 g/L, chosen to cover most of the current industrial processes. Ferric to ferrous concentration was set by various nominal ratios (1:100, 1:10, 1:5, 1:2, 1:1, 2:1, 5:1, 10:1, 100:1) in the range of total iron and copper concentrations above mentioned.

4.1.2 Electrode preparation

A platinum (inert) electrode is used in this work to reflect the chemical equilibrium of the reversible (redox) reaction in the $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3\text{-FeSO}_4\text{-H}_2\text{O}$ system, where a high potential is indication of an oxidizing reaction and a low potential indicates a reduction reaction. A Pt electrode is chosen for its wide applicability according to literature [8, 18, 19, 20, 38, 39]. The platinum wire used is a 0.5 mm diameter, 99.9% (mass) Sigma-Aldrich wire. The wire was connected to a standard copper wire through a MG Chemicals silver conductive epoxy and protected from the sulfate solution by mounting it in an epoxy resin (832HT-375ML) from MG Chemicals, leaving a needle-like tip portion of the Pt wire exposed to the solution. The Pt working electrode was activated in a 0.1M H_2SO_4 solution according to published method (Zoski et al. 2007).

4.1.3 Silver Silver/Chloride saturated reference electrode

A reference electrode has a known defined potential, known as half-cell potential and is independent and completely insensitive of the electrolyte composition potential and little change with temperature. A saturated Ag/AgCl reference electrode was chosen in this work as reference in reduction potential measurements for its environmental advantages over the saturated calomel electrode. The electrode functions as a redox electrode and the equilibrium is between the silver and its salt silver chloride. It was fabricated using an Accumet glass body Ag/AgCl electrode with a glass salt bridge tube connected to a Luggin capillary, in which the electrode is a silver wire coated with a thin layer of silver chloride, with a porous end that allows contact between the field environment with the silver chloride electrolyte. The electrode body contains saturated potassium chloride solution to stabilize the silver chloride concentration.

4.1.4 Electrochemical measurements at 25°C, 35°C, 45°C, 55°C, 60°C, 65°C and 70°C

Electrochemical tests were conducted using a standard three-electrode cell with a circulating bath for temperature control. An 8mm graphite rod served as counter electrode (CE), the Pt electrode as the working electrode (WE) and the Ag/AgCl electrode as the reference electrode. All potentials have been converted from Ag/AgCl to the standard hydrogen electrode (SHE) and all further potentials in this work are quoted with respect to SHE at 25°C unless otherwise stated. Corrections used for the measured potential can be found in previous publications (Yue, 2015; Yue, Zhao, Olvera & Asselin, 2014). Temperature in the electrolyte was increased by a circulating bath from PolyScience and kept at constant temperature with a $\pm 1^\circ\text{C}$ accuracy. The solution was deaerated by sparging argon or nitrogen prior and throughout the experiment at a constant flow rate to eliminate atmosphere oxidation (dissolved oxygen). The open circuit potentials (OCP) of the assays were recorded to yield a steady-state potential (as the redox-potential). A VersaSTAT 3F potentiostat/galvanostat controlled by a VersaStudio electrochemistry software (Princeton Applied Research) was used to measure and record all ORP-OCP values.

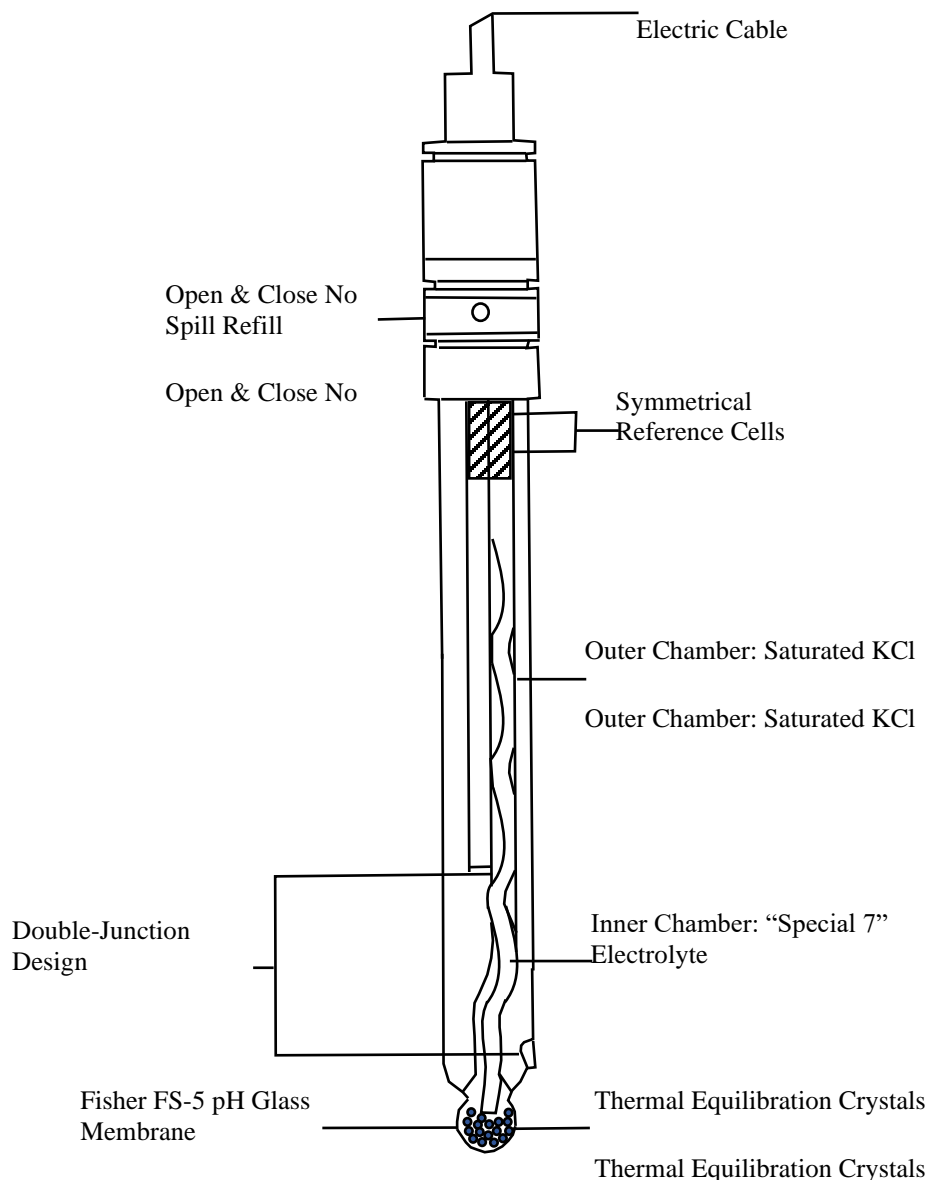


Figure 4-1 Schematic of an Ag/AgCl combination reference electrode

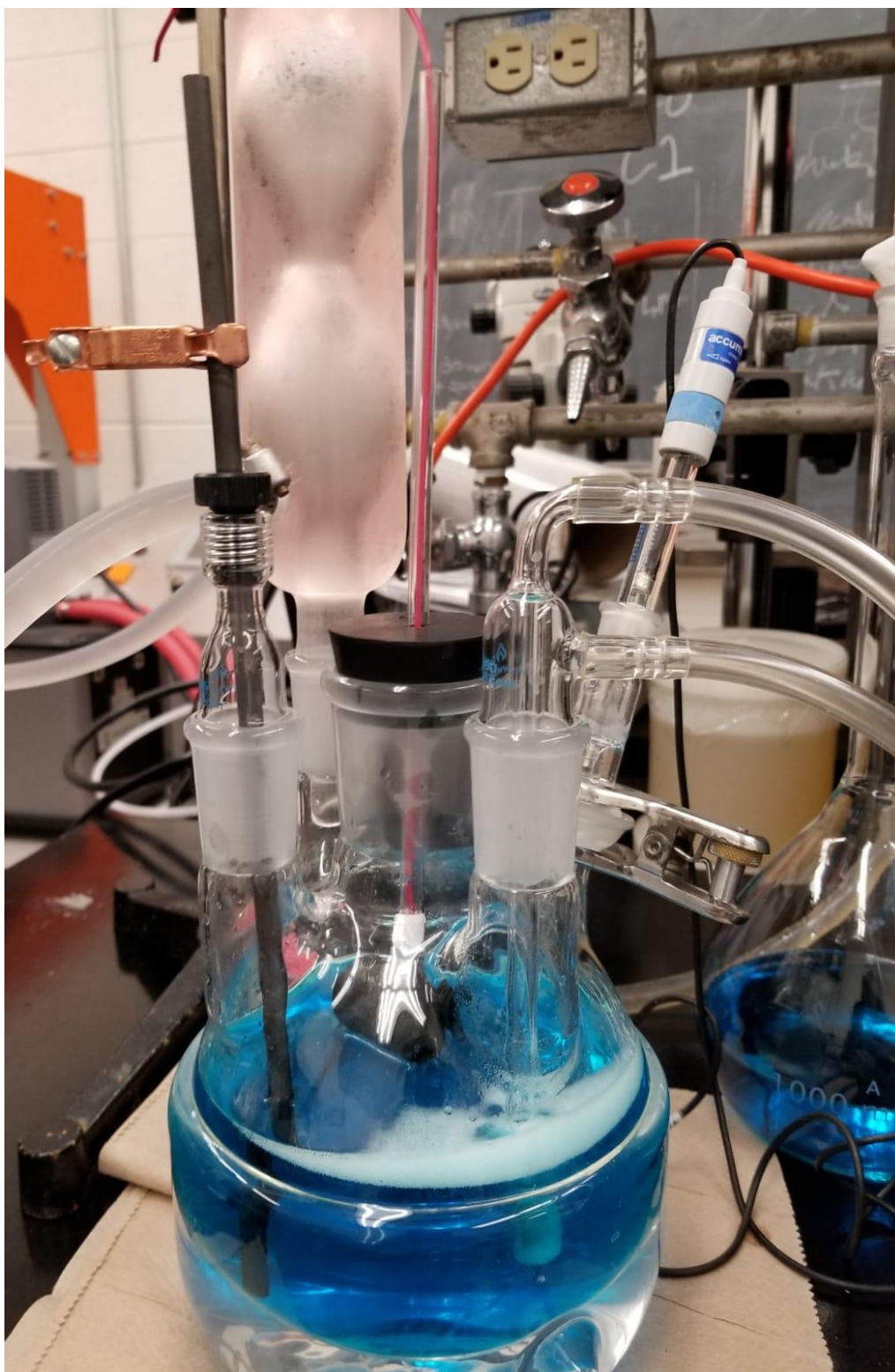


Illustration 4 - 1 Set up of the ORP test of the $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-CuSO}_4\text{-Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3\text{-FeSO}_4\text{-H}_2\text{O}$ system in a standard 3-electrode cell

4.1.5 Correction of the measured potentials to SHE at 25°C

The potential of the Ag/AgCl electrode depends on the concentration of the solution used in the electrode itself, in this case a saturated solution (KCl) where the potential is +0.197V and the SHE potential is a function of temperature and is zero only at 25°C (based on the pH of the electrolyte) rather than zero at any temperature as is typically assumed. The measured redox potentials are corrected following the previous method mentioned (Yue, 2015; Yue, Zhao, Olvera & Asselin, 2014) and compared to the redox potentials E (mV) calculated by this equation in reference to SHE at 25°C by the following equations:

$$E_{SHE}(T) = E_{obs} + E_{correction} = E_{obs} + E_{\frac{Ag}{AgCl}}(T) - \Delta E_{th} \quad (4.1)$$

$$E_{SHE}(25^{\circ}\text{C}) = E_{SHE}(T) + \Delta E_{SHE} \quad (4.2)$$

where $E_{SHE}(T)$ is the potential of the working electrode vs SHE at the operating temperature T ; E_{obs} is the observed potential of the working electrode vs the external Ag/AgCl reference electrode filled with 0.1M KCl; $E_{correction}$ is the potential correction value; $E_{\frac{Ag}{AgCl}}(T)$ is the isothermal potential of the Ag/AgCl electrode vs SHE at operating temperature T and ΔE_{th} is the measured potential difference of the thermal cell between an internal and external reference electrode connected by a cooled salt bridge. Since ΔE_{th} values are highly related to temperature difference and relatively independent of different chloride-containing alkaline and neutral solutions with various concentrations, as reported by Bosch et al (2003) [2, 43], ΔE_{th} was determined by the data published in the literature for 0.1 mol/kg KCl solution, with the values of about 15 mV at 70°C and 20 mV at 90°C, respectively.

This assumption is reasonable and it was verified by measuring the potential for an acid iron sulfate solution with the Cortest external Ag/AgCl RE filled with 0.1 mol/kg KCl. $\Delta ESHE$ was also calculated, with a value of 26.7 mV at 70°C and 36.1 mV at 90°C. It should be noted that the thermodynamic data of H₂ used to calculate the $\Delta ESHE$ were obtained from the literature [2, 44, 45].

4.2 Measurements of the Potentiometric Determination of Iron(II) Ions with Cerium(IV) in the $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3\text{-FeSO}_4\text{-H}_2\text{O}$ and the $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-CuSO}_4\text{-Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3\text{-FeSO}_4\text{-H}_2\text{O}$ Systems from 25°C to 70°C

Experimental work to quantify ferrous ions concentration in the electrolyte by potentiometric titration with cerium (IV) sulfate from room temperature up to 70 Celsius degrees.

4.2.1 Electrolyte Preparation

Titration was performed in 150 ml of each electrolyte prepared as described in previous chapter (4.1.1), titrating 25 ml of solution at each temperature (25, 35, 45, 55, 60, 65 and 70°C). Please notice that liquors varied in concentrations of iron and copper and nominal $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\text{Fe}^{2+}$ ratios.

4.2.2 Titrant Preparation

Cerium (IV) sulfate ($\text{Ce}[\text{SO}_4]_2$) was prepared based on iron(II) concentration range of the electrolyte to accommodate for the sensitivity of the method. Deionized water, sulfuric acid (H_2SO_4 , 95.0-98.0%, Fisher Scientific) and cerium (IV) sulfate tetrahydrate ($\text{Ce}(\text{SO}_4)_2 \cdot 4\text{H}_2\text{O}$, 98%, Acros) were used to prepare the titrant solution. Solution was prepared prior to each test according to ferrous to ferric ratio; the concentration of Ce^{2+} was 0.01M in the 100:1 ratio, 0.1M in the majority of nominal ratios, and 1M concentration in 1:100, 1:10 and 1:5 ratios.

4.2.3 Electrochemical and Volumetric Measurements to Determine Real Fe^{2+} Concentration in the $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3\text{-FeSO}_4\text{-H}_2\text{O}$ and $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-CuSO}_4\text{-Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3\text{-FeSO}_4\text{-H}_2\text{O}$ systems at 25, 35, 45, 55, 60, 65 and 70°C

Electrochemical tests were carried out using a 50 ml jacketed beaker for temperature control. An accumet Pt pin Ag/AgCl (FisherScientific) combination (pH/ORP) electrode was used to measure the redox potential of the electrolyte during the gradual addition of Cerium (IV) with the help of a standard volumetric burette to the 25 ml electrolyte ash shown in illustration 4-2.

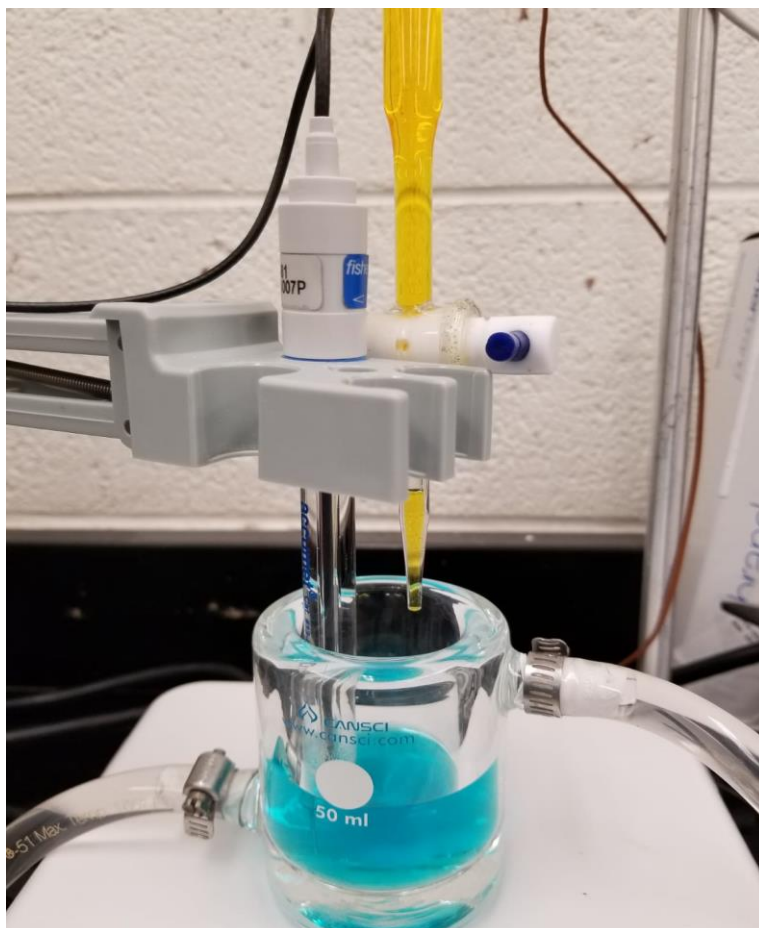


Illustration 4 - 2 A 50 ml jacketed beaker with 25 ml of analyte (Cu liquor), a pH/ORP combination electrode and 50 ml volumetric burette with titrant (cerium sulfate).

Illustration 4-3 shows the complete setup for titration; an accumet AB200 was used to observe the potential of solution before titrant addition and during titrant addition in search for the end and equivalence points; temperature in the analyte was increased by a circulating bath from PolyScience and kept at constant temperature with a $\pm 1^{\circ}\text{C}$ accuracy. A magnetic stirrer is used in order to achieve a fast, homogeneous mixed solution at each titrant addition, and in that way obtain accurate readings from the accumet AB200.

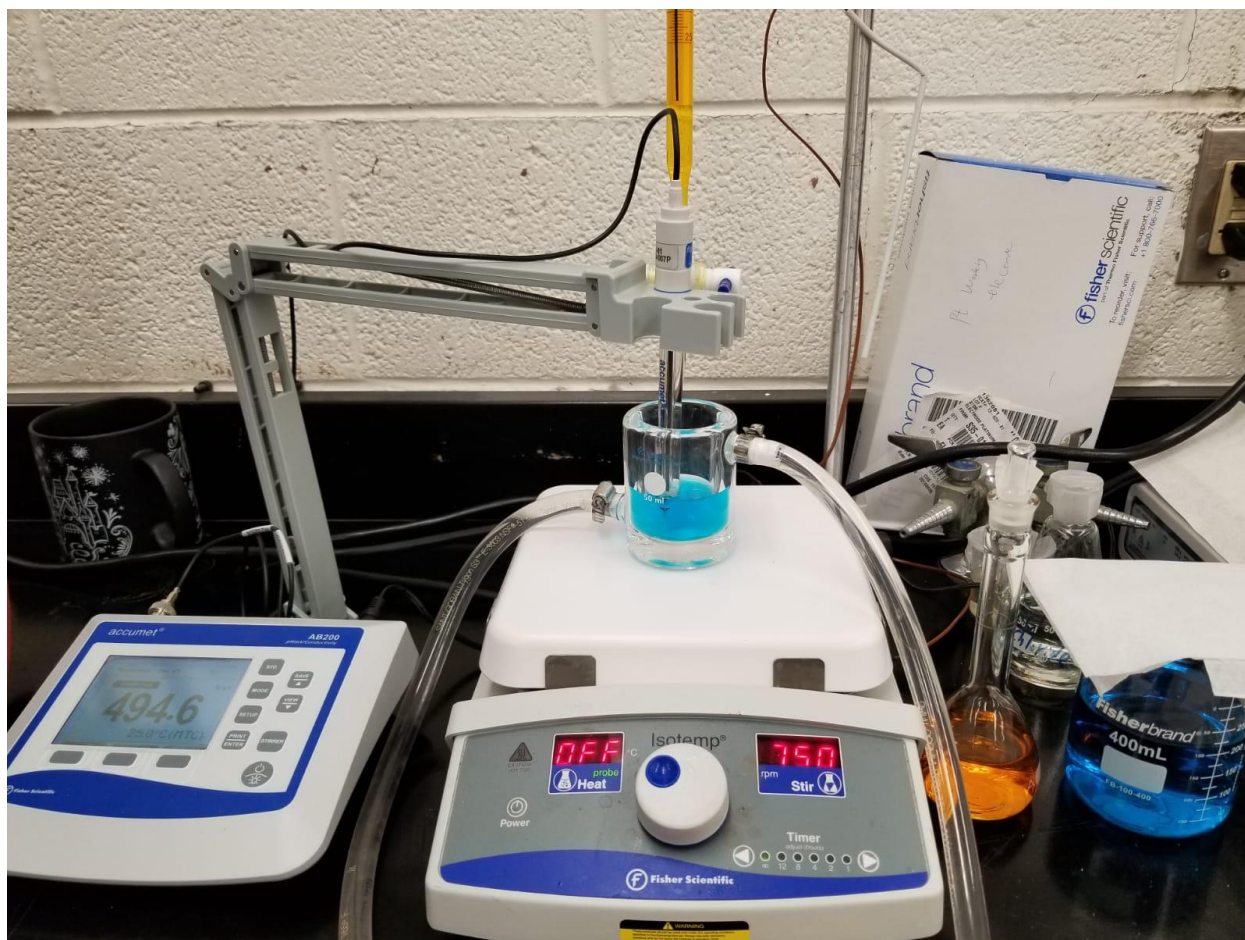


Illustration 4 - 3 Complete set up of the potentiometric titration of Fe^{2+} with Ce^{4+}

5 Validation of Equation to Predict the Redox Potential of the Fe³⁺/Fe²⁺ Couple from 25°C to 70°C

5.1 Introduction

As discussed in the introduction, the work in the present chapter was initiated to validate a mathematical relationship of the quaternary H₂SO₄-Fe₂(SO₄)₃-FeSO₄-H₂O developed by Yue et al. [2]. According to Yue et al. [9, 22, 23] the redox potential of the H₂SO₄-Fe₂(SO₄)₃-FeSO₄-H₂O system can be predicted by the following expression based on Nernst equation:

$$E(mV) = -1 \times 10^{-3} \times [T(K)]^2 + 0.91 \times T(K) + \frac{2.303R}{nF} \times T(K) \times 10^3 \times \log \frac{C_{ferric,nominal}}{C_{ferrous,nominal}} + 492 \quad (2.7)$$

where it can be observed that the overall potential of the cell can be determined by the nominal ferric/ferrous ratio and temperature. In this work, cupric ions will be added to a selected-ferric/ferrous ratio electrolytes to evaluate the effects of their present in the measured and calculated redox potentials. Measured values in this work were compared to those predicted by the above equation in order to assess its applicability.

5.2 Results and Discussion

The following data presents a comparison of the redox potential between experimental measurements and calculated values in synthetic electrolytes. Table 5-1 shows synthetic solutions imitating those employed in the electrorefining of copper [1, 31, 46] with a total iron concentration of 3 g/L, nominal $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\text{Fe}^{2+}$ ratios of 10:1, 2:1, 1:1, 1:2, 1:10 and 170 g/L of H_2SO_4 for the following temperatures: 25, 35, 45, 55, 60, 65 and 70°C.

Nominal ferric/ferrous ratios are inversely varied to observe the potential change more clearly and also observe equation's accuracy in detail. As shown in Figure 5-1, the measured potentials (corrected vs SHE at 25°C) are in well agreement with calculated potentials over a wide range of chemical compositions and temperatures from 25 to 70°C. The ORP measured showed differences of no more than 3 mV when compared to calculated values. These results validate the accuracy of the equation to predict the redox potential of the system and its applicability over a wide range of chemical compositions and over a wide range of temperatures.

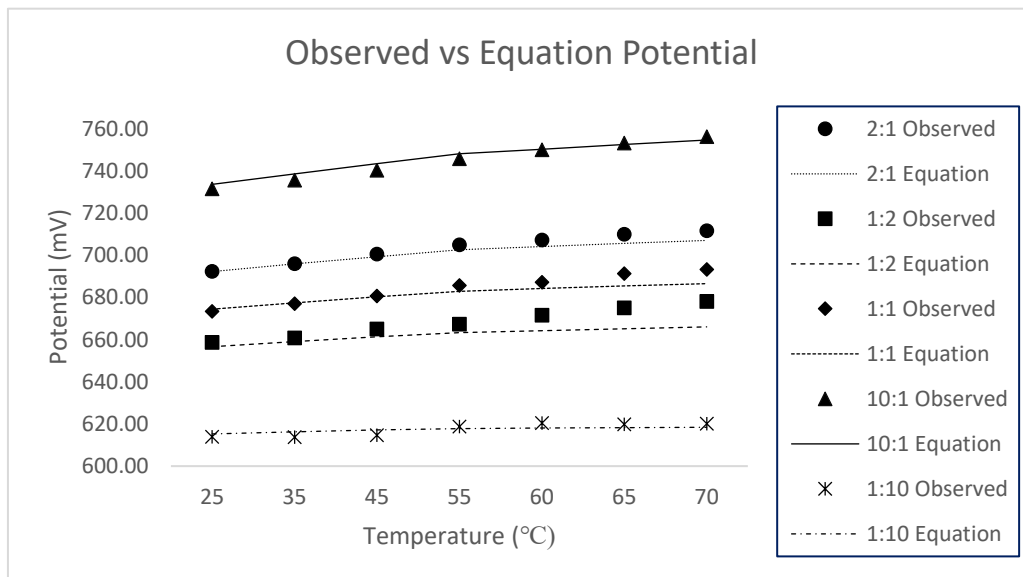


Figure 5-1 Comparison of measured redox potentials vs calculated potentials from equation (2.7).

Table 5-1 Results of synthetic solutions simulating copper electrorefining electrolytes at temperatures from 25 to 70°C under 5 different nominal Fe^{3+}/Fe^{2+} ratios.

Chemical Analysis		Experimental results measured in the lab							Calculated redox potential by Equation		Corrected E_b
Test	Assay	Fe_{total} g/L	Fe^{3+} g/L	Fe^{2+} g/L	Cu^{2+} g/L	H_2SO_4 g/L	T °C	E_b (obs) mV	Fe^{3+}/Fe^{2+} Nominal	E (Calc) mV	E (Meas) mV
1	1	3	2	1	0	170	25	495.33	2:1	692.33	692.234
	2	3	2	1	0	170	35	506.68	2:1	695.95	695.868
	3	3	2	1	0	170	45	519.25	2:1	700.52	699.303
	4	3	2	1	0	170	55	531.83	2:1	704.88	702.537
	5	3	2	1	0	170	60	538.27	2:1	707.10	704.079
	6	3	2	1	0	170	65	545.32	2:1	709.93	705.572
	7	3	2	1	0	170	70	551.15	2:1	711.52	707.014
2	8	3	1	2	0	170	25	461.29	1:2	658.28	656.612
	9	3	1	2	0	170	35	473.25	1:2	662.52	659.052
	10	3	1	2	0	170	45	483.68	1:2	664.94	661.291
	11	3	1	2	0	170	55	490.12	1:2	663.17	663.331
	12	3	1	2	0	170	60	495.33	1:2	664.17	664.276
	13	3	1	2	0	170	65	501.46	1:2	666.07	665.171
	14	3	1	2	0	170	70	508.21	1:2	668.58	666.015
3	15	3	1.5	1.5	0	170	25	476.30	1:1	673.29	674.423
	16	3	1.5	1.5	0	170	35	487.74	1:1	677.01	677.460
	17	3	1.5	1.5	0	170	45	499.32	1:1	680.58	680.297
	18	3	1.5	1.5	0	170	55	512.51	1:1	685.56	682.934
	19	3	1.5	1.5	0	170	60	518.33	1:1	687.17	684.178
	20	3	1.5	1.5	0	170	65	526.61	1:1	691.22	685.371
	21	3	1.5	1.5	0	170	70	532.77	1:1	693.14	686.515
4	22	3	10	1	0	170	25	534.36	10:1	731.36	733.590
	23	3	10	1	0	170	35	546.24	10:1	735.51	738.611
	24	3	10	1	0	170	45	559.00	10:1	740.27	743.433
	25	3	10	1	0	170	55	572.68	10:1	745.73	748.054
	26	3	10	1	0	170	60	581.02	10:1	749.86	750.290
	27	3	10	1	0	170	65	588.47	10:1	753.08	752.476
	28	3	10	1	0	170	70	595.72	10:1	756.09	754.612
5	29	3	1	10	0	170	25	416.81	1:10	613.81	615.256
	30	3	1	10	0	170	35	424.48	1:10	613.75	616.309
	31	3	1	10	0	170	45	433.38	1:10	614.64	617.161
	32	3	1	10	0	170	55	445.64	1:10	618.70	617.814
	33	3	1	10	0	170	60	451.47	1:10	620.31	618.065
	34	3	1	10	0	170	65	455.15	1:10	619.76	618.266
	35	3	1	10	0	170	70	459.75	1:10	620.12	618.418

It can be noticed from figure 5-1 a more pronounced difference between potentials as temperature increase and a difference of more than 3 mV is reached at 65 and 70°C in ratios of 2:1 and 1:1. This is attributed to a decompensation in temperature of the circulating bath when reaches high temperatures (55 to 70°C); it seems that while working on getting a new higher temperature, the work done overpasses the desired temperature and then decrease it back to set value.

The applicability of the equation is also investigated in synthetic solutions typically employed in copper electrowinning [1, 42, 43, 48]. With the purpose to expand the scope of the equation, total Fe concentrations were set to 6 g/L in these set of experiments, nominal $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\text{Fe}^{2+}$ ratios of 100:1, 5:1, 1:5 and 1:100; 200 g/L of H_2SO_4 and temperatures from 25 to 70°C as shown in table 5-2.

This confirms the applicability and veracity of the equation under expanded chemical concentrations. From these results we can conclude that redox potentials can and are well predicted by the equation based only on nominal $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\text{Fe}^{2+}$ ratio and temperature. It was also shown that acid concentration in both extremes of the most used copper liquors (170-200 g/L) under both processes (electrorefining and electrowinning) has no significant effect in the overall potential. The difference between the calculated and measured potentials was under 3 mV, where an isolated difference of 3.6 mV is observed in the 1:5 ratio at 70°C, attributed to a temperature compensation of the circulating bath.

Table 5-2 Results of synthetic solutions simulating copper electrowinning electrolytes at temperatures from 25 to 70°C under 4 different nominal Fe³⁺/Fe²⁺ ratios.

Chemical Analysis		Experimental results measured in the lab							Calculated redox potential by Equation		Corrected E _b
Test	Assay	Fe _{total} g/L	Fe ³⁺ g/L	Fe ²⁺ g/L	Cu ²⁺ g/L	H ₂ SO ₄ g/L	T °C	E _b (obs) mV	Fe ³⁺ /Fe ²⁺ Nominal	E (Calc) mV	E (Meas) mV
6	36	6	5	1	0	200	25	516.186	2:1	715.779	713.182
	37	6	5	1	0	200	35	528.454	2:1	720.203	717.725
	38	6	5	1	0	200	45	541.95	2:1	724.427	723.215
	39	6	5	1	0	200	55	555.445	2:1	728.451	728.498
	40	6	5	1	0	200	60	562.806	2:1	730.388	731.642
	41	6	5	1	0	200	65	569.553	2:1	732.275	734.161
	42	6	5	1	0	200	70	575.995	2:1	734.112	736.362
7	43	6	5.94	.0594	0	200	25	594.396	100:1	791.392	792.757
	44	6	5.94	.0594	0	200	35	608.505	100:1	797.776	799.763
	45	6	5.94	.0594	0	200	45	624.76	100:1	806.025	806.569
	46	6	5.94	.0594	0	200	55	641.629	100:1	814.682	813.175
	47	6	5.94	.0594	0	200	60	646.843	100:1	815.679	816.403
	48	6	5.94	.0594	0	200	65	655.124	100:1	819.732	819.581
	49	6	5.94	.0594	0	200	70	662.872	100:1	823.239	822.709
8	50	6	.0594	5.94	0	200	25	360.023	1:100	557.019	556.089
	51	6	.0594	5.94	0	200	35	365.593	1:100	554.864	555.157
	52	6	.0594	5.94	0	200	45	372.341	1:100	553.606	554.025
	53	6	.0594	5.94	0	200	55	381.235	1:100	554.288	552.693
	54	6	.0594	5.94	0	200	60	383.689	1:100	552.525	551.953
	55	6	.0594	5.94	0	200	65	386.756	1:100	551.364	551.162
	56	6	.0594	5.94	0	200	70	390.437	1:100	550.804	550.320
9	57	6	1	5	0	200	25	436.136	1:5	633.132	633.067
	58	6	1	5	0	200	35	443.497	1:5	632.768	634.717
	59	6	1	5	0	200	45	454.945	1:5	636.210	636.167
	60	6	1	5	0	200	55	465.886	1:5	638.939	637.417
	61	6	1	5	0	200	60	470.794	1:5	639.630	637.967
	62	6	1	5	0	200	65	476.621	1:5	641.229	638.467
	63	6	1	5	0	200	70	482.142	1:5	642.509	638.917

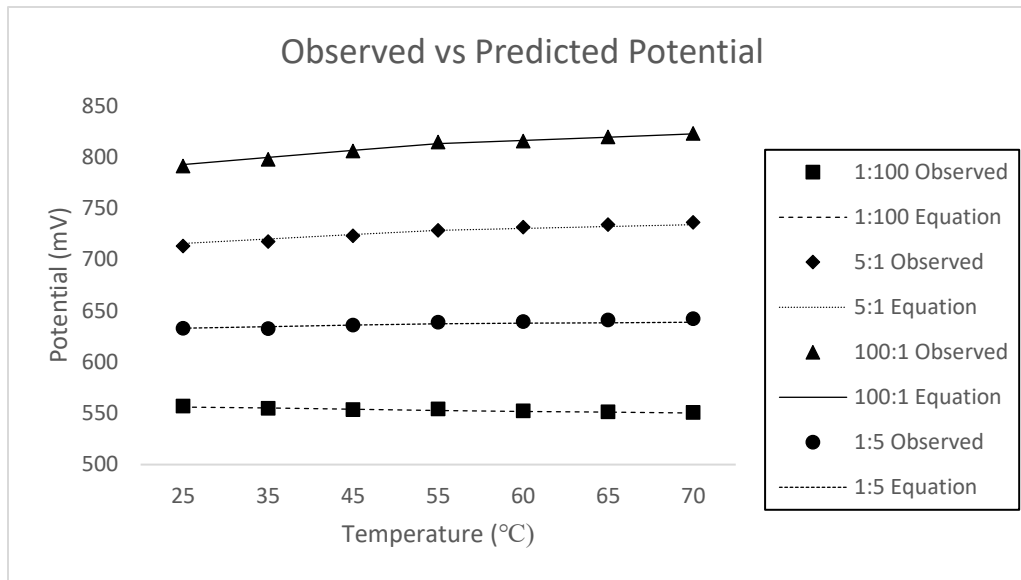


Figure 5-2 Comparison of the measured redox potentials vs calculated potentials from equation (2.7).

As can be seen in figure 5-2, higher potentials are seen under higher nominal $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\text{Fe}^{2+}$ ratios, where the highest potential is under the 100:1 nominal $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\text{Fe}^{2+}$ ratio, and the lowest potential under its reciprocal, 1:100.

Finally, Copper is added to a selected group of nominal $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\text{Fe}^{2+}$ ratio to cover both copper electrometallurgical processes, winning and refining, in order to further test the applicability of the equation. It was found that the presence of copper in the electrolyte has no effect in the redox potential of the $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-CuSO}_4\text{-Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3\text{-FeSO}_4\text{-H}_2\text{O}$ system under the nominal $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\text{Fe}^{2+}$ ratios of 2:1, 5:1, 10:1 and 1:5 with copper concentrations ranging from 36 to 50 g/L, as shown in table 5-3. From the previously, it can be assumed that a similar behavior (no significant influence of copper concentration in the overall potential of the cell) can be expected at any nominal ratio and similar copper concentrations (employed in industry).

Table 5-3 Results of synthetic solutions simulating copper electrolytes at temperatures from 25 to 70°C. Different copper concentrations were added to 7 different chemical compositions of selected nominal Fe³⁺/Fe ratios.

Chemical Analysis		Experimental results measured in the lab							Calculated redox potential by Equation		Corrected E _b
Test	Assay	Fe _{total} g/L	Fe ³⁺ g/L	Fe ²⁺ g/L	Cu ²⁺ g/L	H ₂ SO ₄ g/L	T °C	E _b (obs) mV	Fe ³⁺ /Fe ²⁺ Nominal	E (Calc) mV	E (Meas) mV
10	64	6	4	2	36	200	25	495.944	2:1	692.940	692.234
	65	6	4	2	36	200	35	506.372	2:1	695.643	695.869
	66	6	4	2	36	200	45	518.026	2:1	699.291	699.303
	67	6	4	2	36	200	55	531.215	2:1	704.268	702.537
	68	6	4	2	36	200	60	535.202	2:1	704.038	704.079
	69	6	4	2	36	200	65	541.643	2:1	706.251	705.572
	70	6	4	2	36	200	70	548.39	2:1	708.757	707.014
11	71	2.4	2	0.4	36	200	25	519.56	5:1	716.556	715.779
	72	2.4	2	0.4	36	200	35	530.908	5:1	720.179	720.203
	73	2.4	2	0.4	36	200	45	543.176	5:1	724.441	724.427
	74	2.4	2	0.4	36	200	55	556.068	5:1	729.121	728.451
	75	2.4	2	0.4	36	200	60	561.272	5:1	730.108	730.388
	76	2.4	2	0.4	36	200	65	567.713	5:1	732.321	732.275
	77	2.4	2	0.4	36	200	70	575.381	5:1	735.748	734.112
12	78	2.2	2	0.2	40	200	25	533.668	10:1	730.664	733.59
	79	2.2	2	0.2	40	200	35	545.63	10:1	734.901	738.612
	80	2.2	2	0.2	40	200	45	559.86	10:1	741.125	743.433
	81	2.2	2	0.2	40	200	55	572.313	10:1	745.366	748.054
	82	2.2	2	0.2	40	200	60	579.981	10:1	748.817	750.290
	83	2.2	2	0.2	40	200	65	585.809	10:1	750.417	752.476
	84	2.2	2	0.2	40	200	70	592.863	10:1	753.230	754.612
13	85	3	0.5	2.5	40	200	25	438.9	1:5	635.896	633.067
	86	3	0.5	2.5	40	200	35	448.4	1:5	637.671	634.717
	87	3	0.5	2.5	40	200	45	455.765	1:5	637.030	636.167
	88	3	0.5	2.5	40	200	55	465.886	1:5	638.939	637.417
	89	3	0.5	2.5	40	200	60	470.18	1:5	639.016	637.967
	90	3	0.5	2.5	40	200	65	476.928	1:5	641.536	638.467
	91	3	0.5	2.5	40	200	70	481.835	1:5	642.202	638.917
14	92	6	5.459	0.545	45	200	25	536.736	10:1	733.732	733.632
	93	6	5.459	0.545	45	200	35	545.323	10:1	734.594	738.655
	94	6	5.459	0.545	45	200	45	560.659	10:1	741.924	743.478
	95	6	5.459	0.545	45	200	55	574.154	10:1	747.207	748.101
	96	6	5.459	0.545	45	200	60	579.981	10:1	748.817	750.338
	97	6	5.459	0.545	45	200	65	586.115	10:1	750.723	752.524
	98	6	5.459	0.545	45	200	70	593.476	10:1	753.843	754.660
15	99	3	2	1	45	200	25	495.33	2:1	692.326	692.234
	100	3	2	1	45	200	35	503.918	2:1	693.189	695.869
	101	3	2	1	45	200	45	515.573	2:1	696.838	699.303
	102	3	2	1	45	200	55	528.148	2:1	701.201	702.537
	103	3	2	1	45	200	60	534.282	2:1	703.118	704.079
	104	3	2	1	45	200	65	540.416	2:1	705.024	705.572
	105	3	2	1	45	200	70	547.164	2:1	707.531	707.014
16	106	3	2	1	50	200	25	497.17	2:1	694.166	692.234
	107	3	2	1	50	200	35	506.065	2:1	695.336	695.869
	108	3	2	1	50	200	45	517.72	2:1	698.985	699.303
	109	3	2	1	50	200	55	530.295	2:1	703.348	702.537
	110	3	2	1	50	200	60	535.202	2:1	704.038	704.079
	111	3	2	1	50	200	65	541.95	2:1	706.558	705.572
	112	3	2	1	50	200	70	548.084	2:1	708.451	707.014

From figure 5-3, we can observe that the measured redox potentials are in good agreement with those calculated redox potentials, over a wide range of solution compositions. It can be noticed how measured redox potentials of equal nominal $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\text{Fe}^{2+}$ ratios overlap, in well agreement with calculated potentials from equation. These ratios (10:1 and 2:1) overlap although their copper concentration differ, 40 and 45 g/L in the 10:1 nominal ratio, and 36, 45 and 50 g/L of copper in the 2:1, confirming that the overall redox potential of the cell is solely determined by temperature and nominal $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\text{Fe}^{2+}$ ratio. This further confirms the wide applicability of the equation (Eq. (1)) in acidic iron sulfate solutions a wide range of copper concentrations, from 36 to 50 g/L, proving the little or almost none effect of Cu ions in the overall potential of the cell.

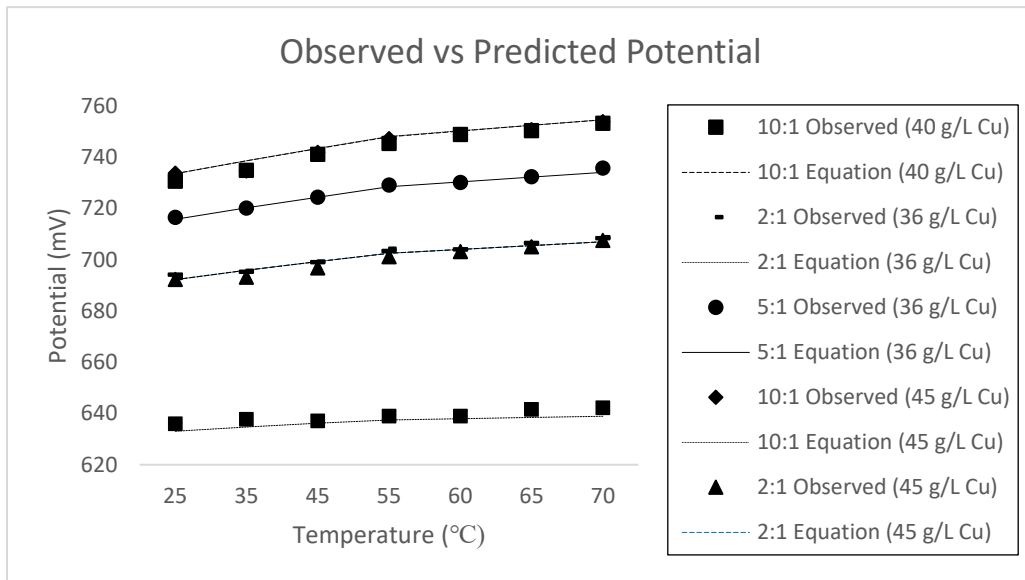


Figure 5-3 Comparison of the measured redox potentials vs calculated potentials from equation (2.7).

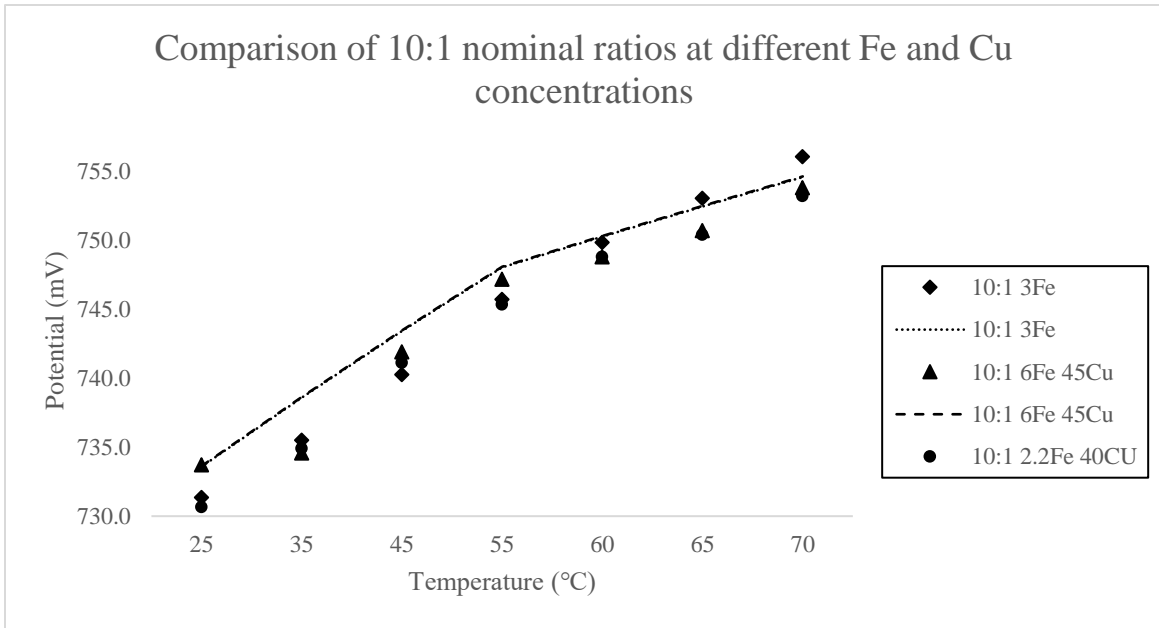


Figure 5-4 Comparison of the measured redox potentials of different chemical composition solutions vs calculated potentials from Eq. (2.7) under the same nominal Fe^{3+}/Fe^{2+} ratio under temperatures from 25 to 70°C.

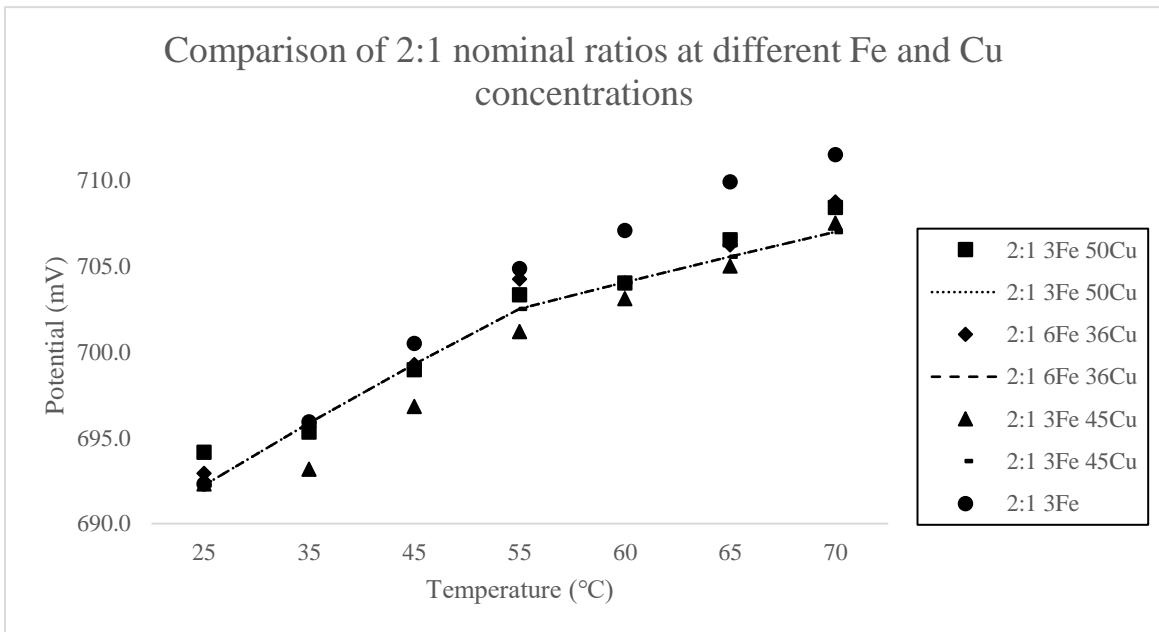


Figure 5-5 Comparison of the measured redox potentials of solutions with different chemical composition vs calculated potentials from Eq. (2.7) under the same nominal Fe^{3+}/Fe^{2+} ratio under temperatures from 25 to 70°C.

5.3 Summary

The potentials calculated shown in table 5-1, 5-2 and 5-3 under a nominal $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\text{Fe}^{2+}$ ratio of 2:1 are compared in figure 5-4. Four different solutions with the following compositions are studied: 1) 3 g/L Fe, 170 g/L H_2SO_4 ; 2) 3 g/L Fe, 45 g/L Cu, 200 g/L H_2SO_4 ; 3) 3 g/L Fe, 50 g/L Cu, 200 g/L H_2SO_4 ; and 4) 6 g/L Fe, 36 g/L Cu, 200 g/L H_2SO_4 . As we can see, all four potentials agree very well with each other following the predicted potential, with differences under 3 mV, with the exception of solution 1, with a difference from calculated potential of 4.4 and 4.5 mV at 65 and 70°C, respectively.

In the same manner, calculated potentials shown in table 5-1, 5-2 and 5-3 under a nominal $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\text{Fe}^{2+}$ ratio of 10:1 are compared in figure 5-5. Three different solutions with the following compositions are studied: 1) 3 g/L Fe, 170 g/L H_2SO_4 ; 2) 6 g/L Fe, 45 g/L Cu, 200 g/L H_2SO_4 ; and 3) 2.2 g/L Fe, 40 g/L Cu, 200 g/L H_2SO_4 . Compared potentials are in well agreement with each other and with calculated potential from equation, within 3 mV difference among themselves and/or calculated potential. In both figures, 5-4 and 5-5 it is demonstrated that under each nominal ferric/ferrous ratio, the measured redox potentials is then solely dependent on the variable of temperature.

It is demonstrated that for each nominal ferric/ferrous ratio, the measured redox potential can be solely determined by nominal ferric to ferrous ratio. The measured redox potentials at a temperature of 25°C were compared to results from literature [42, 43, 44] and further support the validity of equation (2.7) and the results done in this work in acidic iron sulfate solution containing cupric ions.

These findings support that Eq. 2.7 developed by Yue et al. can be employed to predict the redox potential of the aqueous $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3\text{-FeSO}_4\text{-H}_2\text{O}$ and $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-CuSO}_4\text{-Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3\text{-FeSO}_4\text{-H}_2\text{O}$ system and further expand its applicability to broader nominal ferric/ferrous ratios and higher acid concentrations. It also help to understand electrochemical kinetics of iron under such conditions based on the measured redox potential during Cu electrowinning and electrorefining.

The applicability of Eq. (2.7) in the aqueous $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3\text{-FeSO}_4\text{-H}_2\text{O}$ solution is validated over a wide range of temperatures and Cu concentrations. It was also observed that Cu ions up to 50 g/L exerted no significant effect on the prediction accuracy of the Eq. (2.7) model.

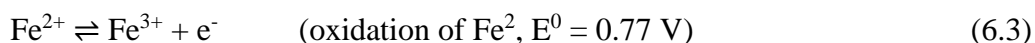
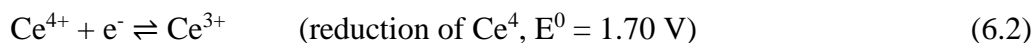
6 Determination of Iron (II) in the $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3\text{-FeSO}_4\text{-H}_2\text{O}$ and the $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-CuSO}_4\text{-Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3\text{-FeSO}_4\text{-H}_2\text{O}$ Systems from 25°C to 70°C

6.1 Introduction

The work in this chapter is aimed to further determine the real concentrations of ferrous ions in the quaternary $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3\text{-FeSO}_4\text{-H}_2\text{O}$ system in terms of temperature. 125 ml of the prepared electrolytes mentioned in previous chapter were taken a side of the ORP test and subjected to a potentiometric titration with Cerium(IV) following the 1 to 1. Ce^{4+} reacts with Fe^{2+} according to the following reaction:



Separated into 2 half reactions and measure each standard potential, which are the dependent variables of the concentration of the titrant:



Cerium (IV) is the oxidizing agent and iron (II) is the reducing agent, and the electrode potentials of the two half-reactions are always equal. From the two we get an equivalence point of 1.06 V according to the following stoichiometry:

$$E_{eq} = E_{\text{Ce}^{4+}/\text{Ce}^{3+}}^0 - \frac{0.059}{1} \log \frac{\text{Ce}^{3+}}{\text{Ce}^{4+}} \quad (6.4)$$

$$E_{eq} = E_{\text{Fe}^{3+}/\text{Fe}^{2+}}^0 - \frac{0.059}{1} \log \frac{\text{Fe}^{2+}}{\text{Fe}^{3+}} \quad (6.5)$$

$$E_{eq} = \frac{E_{\text{Fe}^{3+}/\text{Fe}^{2+}}^0 + E_{\text{Ce}^{4+}/\text{Ce}^{3+}}^0}{2} \quad (6.6)$$

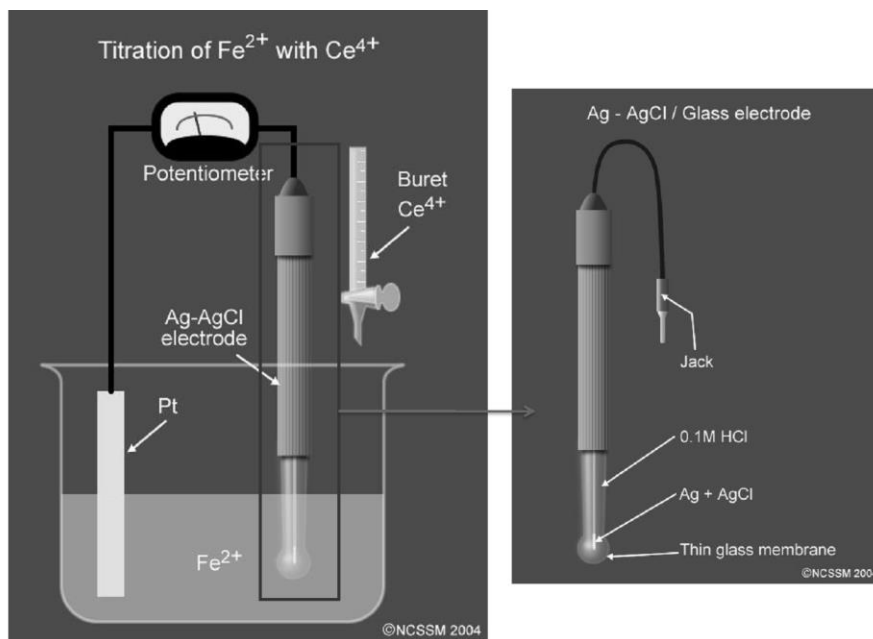


Illustration 6 - 1 Schematic of the redox titration of Fe^{2+} with Ce^{4+} , North Carolina School of Science and Mathematics.

The system's potential (E_{system}) for an oxidation/reduction titration is usually independent of dilution. Consequently, titration curves for oxidation/reduction reactions are usually independent of analyte and reagent concentrations, in contrast with other types of titration curves [4, 38, 39]. The completion of the reaction is described by the equilibrium constant (K_{eq}), the change in potential in the equivalence-point region of an oxidation/reduction titration becomes larger as the reaction becomes more complete, like a larger K_{eq} . The greater the difference in reduction potential, the larger the reaction potential, the more reaction complete. Air oxidation of iron(II) takes place rapidly in neutral solutions but is inhibited in the presence of acids, with the most stable preparations being about 0.5 M in H_2SO_4 and no more than one day. Both cerium (IV) and permanganate are strong oxidizing agents. Solutions of $Ce(IV)$ in sulfuric acid are stable indefinitely, whereas permanganate is not. A further advantage of cerium is that a primary-standard

grade salt of the reagent is available, thus making possible the direct preparation of standard solutions. Despite these advantages of cerium solutions over permanganate solutions the latter are more widely used. One reason is the color of permanganate solutions, which is intense enough to serve as an indicator in titrations. A second reason for the popularity of permanganate solutions is their modest cost.

With each addition of ceric sulfate, the above redox reaction (Eq. 6.1) occurs, oxidizing Fe^{2+} to Fe^{3+} and changing the potential of the electrolyte (increasing it). This potential is monitored by the indicator electrode (Pt Ag/AgCl combination electrode) and meter (Accumet AB200) until the equivalence point is reached, where the titrant amount added (ml) is recorded. Titrant is continuously added until the endpoint is reached, and a titration curve can be drawn. Measured values in this work were compared to the initial intended amount of Fe (II) added to check the error percentage.

6.2 Results and Discussion

The following data shows the results of the redox potentiometric determination of ferrous iron with ceric sulfate against the acidic iron sulfate solution. The measurements of the ferrous iron concentration were compared vs the initial values in synthetic electrolytes at each temperature. Table 6.1 shows this comparison in $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3\text{-FeSO}_4\text{-H}_2\text{O}$ and $\text{CuSO}_4\text{-H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3\text{-FeSO}_4\text{-H}_2\text{O}$ systems, with total iron concentrations from 2.2 to 6 g/L (0.04 to 0.11 mol/L), nominal $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\text{Fe}^{2+}$ ratios of 100:1, 10:1, 5:1, 2:1, 1:1, 1:2, 1:5, 1:10, 1:100 and acid concentrations of 170 and 200 g/L (1.7 to 2M) of H_2SO_4 for the following temperatures: 25, 35, 45, 55, 60, 65 and 70°C. The inversely varied ferric/ferrous ratios allowed for a marked observation of the sensitivity and accuracy of the method. As shown in table 6.1, the initial ferrous iron concentrations (corrected vs SHE at 25°C) are in well agreement with those measured under potentiometric determination over a wide range of chemical compositions and temperatures from 25 to 70°C.

The measured Fe^{2+} concentration showed an average difference of 2.53 % when compared to initial values. These results indicate an acceptable accuracy of the initial values of ferrous iron in both $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3\text{-FeSO}_4\text{-H}_2\text{O}$ and $\text{CuSO}_4\text{-H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3\text{-FeSO}_4\text{-H}_2\text{O}$ systems and is therefore a sizable validation of the ORP test. It can be noticed however, higher averages of 3.8 and 3.5 percent in terms of temperature, 35 and 60°C, respectively. Similarly, averages of 3.9 and 3.4 percent were obtained at nominal ratios of 1:1 and 2:1, respectively. Nevertheless, no real pattern was observed in terms of temperature or nominal ratios.

Figure 6-2 shows the logarithmic relationship between electrode potential and concentration cerium(IV), the analyte. The electrode potentials for the two half-reactions are always identical at the equivalence point, where theoretically the concentration of cerium(IV) and iron(II) are equal, according to the following equations:

$$E_{eq} = E_{Ce^{4+}/Ce^{3+}}^0 - \frac{0.0592}{1} \log \frac{[Ce^{3+}]}{[Ce^{4+}]} \quad (6.3)$$

$$E_{eq} = E_{Fe^{3+}/Fe^{2+}}^0 - \frac{0.0592}{1} \log \frac{[Fe^{2+}]}{[Fe^{3+}]} \quad (6.4)$$

$$E_{eq} = \frac{E_{Fe^{3+}/Fe^{2+}}^0 + E_{Ce^{4+}/Ce^{3+}}^0}{2} \quad (6.5)$$

This relationship allowed for a relatively easy volumetric determination, a simple, accurate method analysis and helped to minimize the error of volume and indication readings, both equivalence and endpoint values. Detailed data results can be found in tables 6-2, 6-3 and 6-4 as well as in tables A-1, A-2 and A-3 in the appendix.

Table 6-1 Calculated concentrations of Fe^{2+} (mol/L) by potentiometric titration vs initial measured concentrations (mol/L) in aqueous $H_2SO_4-Fe_2(SO_4)_3-FeSO_4-H_2O$ and $CuSO_4-H_2SO_4-Fe_2(SO_4)_3-FeSO_4-H_2O$ solutions of different nominal Fe^{3+}/Fe^{2+} ratios from 25°C to 70°C.

Nominal Fe^{3+}/Fe^{2+} Ratio	25°C			35°C			45°C			55°C			60°C			65°C			70°C		
	Fe^{2+}	Ce^{4+}	% Error	Fe^{2+}	Ce^{4+}	% Error	Fe^{2+}	Ce^{4+}	% Error	Fe^{2+}	Ce^{4+}	% Error	Fe^{2+}	Ce^{4+}	% Error	Fe^{2+}	Ce^{4+}	% Error	Fe^{2+}	Ce^{4+}	% Error
100:1	.00107	.00105	1.83	.00107	.00113	5.73	.00107	.00105	1.82	.00107	.00109	1.95	.00107	.00111	3.84	.00107	.00113	5.73	.00107	.00109	1.95
10:1	.00986	.00101	2.44	.00986	.00961	2.57	.00986	.0101	2.4	.00986	.00101	2.44	.00986	.00103	4.49	.00986	.00103	4.49	.00986	.00101	2.44
5:1	.01809	.01859	2.74	.01809	.01778	1.73	.01809	.01818	0.51	.01809	.01818	0.51	.01809	.01859	2.74	.01809	.01818	0.51	.01809	.01818	0.51
2:1	.01809	.01859	2.74	.01809	.01940	7.21	.01809	.01859	2.74	.01809	.01899	4.97	.01809	.01859	2.74	.01809	.01818	0.51	.01809	.01859	2.74
1:1	.02713	.02804	3.34	.02713	.02804	3.34	.02713	.02828	4.25	.02713	.02828	4.25	.02713	.02869	5.74	.02713	.02626	3.20	.02713	.02626	3.20
1:2	.03618	.03636	0.51	.03618	.03718	2.74	.03618	.03697	2.18	.03618	.03636	0.51	.03618	.03798	4.97	.03618	.03758	3.86	.03618	.03798	4.97
1:5	.09044	0.0897	0.816	.09044	.09293	2.75	.09044	.09091	0.52	.09044	.09495	4.99	.09044	.09293	2.75	.09044	.09091	0.52	.09044	.08970	0.82
1:10	.04884	.04848	0.73	.04884	.04525	7.35	.04884	.04848	0.73	.04884	.04768	2.38	.04884	.04687	4.04	.04884	.04848	0.72	.04884	.04889	0.10
1:100	.10744	.10909	1.54	.10744	.10869	1.16	.10744	.10707	0.34	.10744	.10788	0.41	.10744	.10788	0.41	.10744	.10909	1.54	.10744	.10707	0.34

Volume Ce^{4+} (mL)	Fe^{3+}	Fe^{2+}	Ce^{3+}	Ce^{4+}	E sys. (V)
0.8	0.00310	0.02319			0.63
1.2	0.00458	0.02131			0.64
2	0.00741	0.01771			0.66
2.8	0.01007	0.01433			0.67
3.6	0.01259	0.01113			0.68
4.4	0.01497	0.00810			0.70
6	0.01935	0.00253			0.73
6.75	0.02126	0.00010			0.82
6.8					1.06
6.85			0.02130	0.00021	1.32
8			0.02055	0.00369	1.40
9.2			0.01983	0.00707	1.41
10			0.01938	0.00919	1.42
10.8			0.01895	0.01122	1.43
11.6			0.01853	0.01316	1.43
12.4			0.01814	0.01502	1.44
13.2			0.01776	0.01680	1.44
14			0.01739	0.01851	1.44

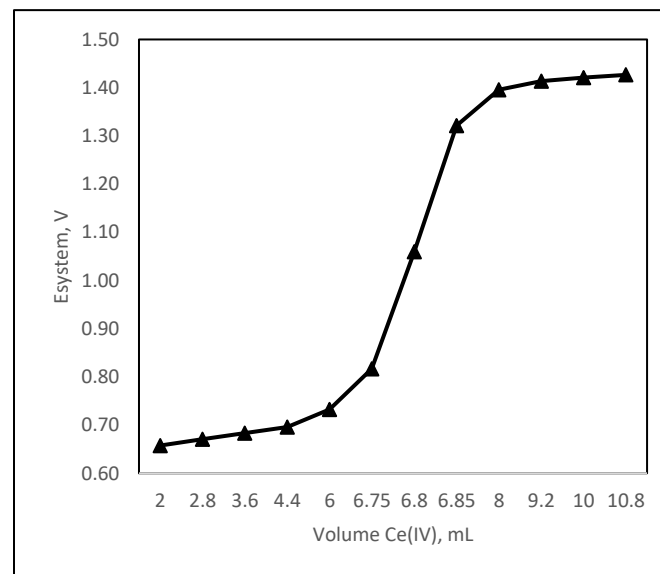


Figure 6-1 Redox titration curve showing the logarithmic relationship: potential vs analyte concentration.

Table 6-2 Mean error and Standard deviation of Iron(II) determination in aqueous H_2SO_4 - $Fe_2(SO_4)_3$ - $FeSO_4$ - H_2O solution at 3 g/L total Iron.

Temp. °C	Fe(III)/Fe(II)	Initial Fe (g/L)		Fe Found (g/L)		Error (g/L)	
		Fe (III)	Fe (II)	Fe (III)	Fe (II)	Fe (III)	Fe (II)
25	0.1	0.27	2.7	-	2.68	-	0.02
35	0.1	0.27	2.7	-	2.50	-	0.20
45	0.1	0.27	2.7	-	2.68	-	0.02
55	0.1	0.27	2.7	-	2.64	-	0.06
60	0.1	0.27	2.7	-	2.59	-	0.11
65	0.1	0.27	2.7	-	2.68	-	0.02
70	0.1	0.27	2.7	-	2.70	-	0.00
Mean error: Fe(II) = ±0.06; Standard deviation: Fe(II) = ± 0.07							
25	0.5	1	2	-	2.01	-	0.01
35	0.5	1	2	-	2.06	-	0.06
45	0.5	1	2	-	2.04	-	0.04
55	0.5	1	2	-	2.01	-	0.01
60	0.5	1	2	-	2.10	-	0.10
65	0.5	1	2	-	2.08	-	0.08
70	0.5	1	2	-	2.10	-	0.10
Mean error: Fe(II) = ±0.06; Standard deviation: Fe(II) = ± 0.04							
25	1	1.5	1.5	-	1.56	-	0.06
35	1	1.5	1.5	-	1.45	-	0.05
45	1	1.5	1.5	-	1.56	-	0.06
55	1	1.5	1.5	-	1.56	-	0.06
60	1	1.5	1.5	-	1.59	-	0.09
65	1	1.5	1.5	-	1.45	-	0.05
70	1	1.5	1.5	-	1.45	-	0.05
Mean error: Fe(II) = ±0.03; Standard deviation: Fe(II) = ± 0.02							
25	2	2	1	-	1.03	-	0.03
35	2	2	1	-	1.07	-	0.07
45	2	2	1	-	1.03	-	0.03
55	2	2	1	-	1.05	-	0.05
60	2	2	1	-	1.03	-	0.03
65	2	2	1	-	1.01	-	0.01
70	2	2	1	-	1.03	-	0.03
Mean error: Fe(II) = ±0.06; Standard deviation: Fe(II) = ± 0.01							
25	10	2.7	0.27	-	0.36	-	0.09
35	10	2.7	0.27	-	0.31	-	0.04
45	10	2.7	0.27	-	0.29	-	0.02
55	10	2.7	0.27	-	0.29	-	0.02
60	10	2.7	0.27	-	0.27	-	0.00
65	10	2.7	0.27	-	0.28	-	0.01
70	10	2.7	0.27	-	0.28	-	0.01
Mean error: Fe(II) = ±0.03; Standard deviation: Fe(II) = ± 0.03							

Table 6-3 Mean error and Standard deviation of Iron(II) determination in aqueous H_2SO_4 - $Fe_2(SO_4)_3$ - $FeSO_4$ - H_2O solution at 6 g/L total Iron

Temp. °C	Fe(III)/Fe(II)	Initial Fe (g/L)		Fe Found (g/L)		Error (g/L)	
		Fe (III)	Fe (II)	Fe (III)	Fe (II)	Fe (III)	Fe (II)
25	0.01	0.0594	5.94	-	6.03	-	0.09
35	0.01	0.0594	5.94	-	6.01	-	0.07
45	0.01	0.0594	5.94	-	5.92	-	0.02
55	0.01	0.0594	5.94	-	5.96	-	0.02
60	0.01	0.0594	5.94	-	5.96	-	0.02
65	0.01	0.0594	5.94	-	6.03	-	0.09
70	0.01	0.0594	5.94	-	5.92	-	0.02
Mean error: Fe(II) = ±0.05; Standard deviation: Fe(II) = ± 0.03							
25	0.2	1	5	-	4.95	-	0.05
35	0.2	1	5	-	4.95	-	0.05
45	0.2	1	5	-	5.28	-	0.28
55	0.2	1	5	-	5.28	-	0.28
60	0.2	1	5	-	5.28	-	0.28
65	0.2	1	5	-	5.03	-	0.03
70	0.2	1	5	-	5.28	-	0.28
Mean error: Fe(II) = ±0.18; Standard deviation: Fe(II) = ± 0.12							
25	5	5	1	-	1.03	-	0.03
35	5	5	1	-	0.98	-	0.02
45	5	5	1	-	1.01	-	0.01
55	5	5	1	-	1.01	-	0.01
60	5	5	1	-	1.03	-	0.03
65	5	5	1	-	1.01	-	0.01
70	5	5	1	-	1.01	-	0.01
Mean error: Fe(II) = ±0.01; Standard deviation: Fe(II) = ± 0.01							
25	100	5.94	0.0594	-	0.058	-	0.001
35	100	5.94	0.0594	-	0.063	-	0.003
45	100	5.94	0.0594	-	0.058	-	0.001
55	100	5.94	0.0594	-	0.060	-	0.001
60	100	5.94	0.0594	-	0.061	-	0.002
65	100	5.94	0.0594	-	0.063	-	0.003
70	100	5.94	0.0594	-	0.060	-	0.001
Mean error: Fe(II) = ±0.002; Standard deviation: Fe(II) = ± 0.001							

Table 6-4 Mean error and Standard deviation of Iron(II) determination in aqueous $\text{CuSO}_4\text{-H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3\text{-FeSO}_4\text{-H}_2\text{O}$ solution

Temp. °C	Cu ²⁺ (g/L)	Fe(III)/Fe(II)	Initial Fe (g/L)		Fe Found (g/L)		Error (g/L)	
			Fe (III)	Fe (II)	Fe (III)	Fe (II)	Fe (III)	Fe (II)
25	40	0.2	0.5	2.5	-	2.52	-	0.02
35	40	0.2	0.5	2.5	-	2.52	-	0.02
45	40	0.2	0.5	2.5	-	2.52	-	0.02
55	40	0.2	0.5	2.5	-	2.57	-	0.07
60	40	0.2	0.5	2.5	-	2.52	-	0.02
65	40	0.2	0.5	2.5	-	2.52	-	0.02
70	40	0.2	0.5	2.5	-	2.57	-	0.07
Mean error: Fe(II) = ±0.04 ; Standard deviation: Fe(II) = ± 0.02								
25	36	2	4	2	-	2.03	-	0.03
35	36	2	4	2	-	2.06	-	0.06
45	36	2	4	2	-	2.06	-	0.06
55	36	2	4	2	-	2.04	-	0.04
60	36	2	4	2	-	2.06	-	0.06
65	36	2	4	2	-	2.04	-	0.04
70	36	2	4	2	-	2.04	-	0.04
Mean error: Fe(II) = ±0.05; Standard deviation: Fe(II) = ± 0.008								
25	45	2	2	1	-	1.03	-	0.03
35	45	2	2	1	-	1.01	-	0.01
45	45	2	2	1	-	1.03	-	0.03
55	45	2	2	1	-	1.01	-	0.01
60	45	2	2	1	-	1.03	-	0.03
65	45	2	2	1	-	1.01	-	0.01
70	45	2	2	1	-	1.02	-	0.02
Mean error: Fe(II) = ±0.02; Standard deviation: Fe(II) = ± 0.01								
25	50	2	2	1	-	1.05	-	0.05
35	50	2	2	1	-	1.04	-	0.04
45	50	2	2	1	-	1.04	-	0.04
55	50	2	2	1	-	1.01	-	0.01
60	50	2	2	1	-	1.05	-	0.05
65	50	2	2	1	-	1.04	-	0.04
70	50	2	2	1	-	1.01	-	0.01
Mean error: Fe(II) = ±0.03; Standard deviation: Fe(II) = ± 0.02								
25	36	5	2	0.4	-	0.39	-	0.01
35	36	5	2	0.4	-	0.39	-	0.01
45	36	5	2	0.4	-	0.38	-	0.02
55	36	5	2	0.4	-	0.38	-	0.02
60	36	5	2	0.4	-	0.40	-	0.00
65	36	5	2	0.4	-	0.39	-	0.01
70	36	5	2	0.4	-	0.38	-	0.02
Mean error: Fe(II) = ±0.01; Standard deviation: Fe(II) = ± 0.007								
25	40	10	2	0.2	-	0.21	-	0.01
35	40	10	2	0.2	-	0.21	-	0.01
45	40	10	2	0.2	-	0.22	-	0.02
55	40	10	2	0.2	-	0.22	-	0.02
60	40	10	2	0.2	-	0.22	-	0.02
65	40	10	2	0.2	-	0.20	-	0.00
70	40	10	2	0.2	-	0.22	-	0.02
Mean error: Fe(II) = ±0.02; Standard deviation: Fe(II) = ± 0.008								
25	45	10	5.45	0.545	-	0.56	-	0.01
35	45	10	5.45	0.545	-	0.54	-	0.01
45	45	10	5.45	0.545	-	0.56	-	0.01
55	45	10	5.45	0.545	-	0.56	-	0.01
60	45	10	5.45	0.545	-	0.57	-	0.02
65	45	10	5.45	0.545	-	0.57	-	0.02
70	45	10	5.45	0.545	-	0.56	-	0.01
Mean error: Fe(II) = ±0.02; Standard deviation: Fe(II) = ± 0.006								

6.3 Summary

As we discussed, the potentiometric titration of the $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3\text{-FeSO}_4\text{-H}_2\text{O}$ and the $\text{CuSO}_4\text{-H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3\text{-FeSO}_4\text{-H}_2\text{O}$ systems allowed for a high precision determination of the ferrous iron. The measured values shown in table 6-1 under all nominal $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\text{Fe}^{2+}$ ratios of which the synthetic solutions were subjected to are in well agreement with those initial values of when each fresh solution was prepared. The average percent error of the assays at temperatures from 25 to 70°C and nominal $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\text{Fe}^{2+}$ ratios of 100:1, 10:1, 5:1, 2:1, 1:1, 1:2, 1:5, 1:10 and 1:100 is of 2.53%, which means an average difference of around 0.00025 mol/L between the initial values and the results of the titration assays. Although higher averages of 3.8% and 3.5% were observed at temperatures of 35 and 60°C, as well as averages of 3.9% and 3.4% at nominal ratios of 1:1 and 2:1, no real relationship was found among these. Tables 6-2, 6-3 show the mean error and standard deviations of each assay under specific nominal $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\text{Fe}^{2+}$ ratio, temperature, and concentrations of ferric and ferrous species in the $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3\text{-FeSO}_4\text{-H}_2\text{O}$. Similarly, Table 6-3 show the mean error and standard deviation of each assay under the above-mentioned parameters in addition to cupric ions concentration in the $\text{CuSO}_4\text{-H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3\text{-FeSO}_4\text{-H}_2\text{O}$.

These findings further support the validity of the equation (1.1) developed by Yue et al. to predict the redox potential of the aqueous $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3\text{-FeSO}_4\text{-H}_2\text{O}$ system over a broad range nominal $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\text{Fe}^{2+}$ ratios and temperatures. Furthermore, these findings expand the applicability of Yue's model to determine ferric and ferrous concentrations based on the prediction of the redox potential, offering an alternative to volumetric methods typically employed for ferric and ferrous determination.

7 Electrochemical Analysis of Current Efficiency Loss by Iron

7.1 Introduction

Current efficiency is evaluated in this work as a function of Iron(III) and Cu(II) ions concentrations as expressed by Khouraiibchia and Moats (2009, 2010) according to the following:

$$\xi(\%) = 88.19 - 4.91[Fe^{3+}] + 0.52[Cu^{2+}] + 1.81 \times 10^{-3}j - 6.83 \times 10^{-3}[Cu^{2+}]^2 + 0.028[Fe^{3+}][Cu^{2+}] + 4.015 \times 10^{-3}j[Fe^{3+}] \quad (2.12)$$

It is well known that current efficiency increases with increasing current density and increasing concentrations of copper and sulfuric acid in the electrolyte, but decreases with increasing Fe^{3+} concentration and temperature [7, 8, 13, 33, 37]. The rate of reduction of the Fe^{3+} is limited by the mass transport of these ions to the cathode surface while the rate determining step for copper deposition is typically charge transfer. Thus, iron reduction occurs at its limiting current density, and copper reduction does not. Therefore, in the absence of inefficiencies, when Fe^{3+} is present the cathode current efficiency is determined by the diffusion of Fe^{3+} to the cathode [2, 34, 42].

Two industrial solutions employed in electrowinning and electrorefining are evaluated in terms of composition, temperature and reported current efficiencies to allow for a comparison of the synthetic solutions prepared in this study and thus evaluate the current efficiency of these solutions. As it may be notice, assumptions are theoretical values are applied as needed in the comparison of these solutions in attempt to establish a true relationship among solutions and allow for the application of Khouraiibchia's & Moats equation.

7.2 Results and Discussion

The following data presents a comparison of the synthetic solutions prepared in this work to one electrorefining solution and one electrowinning solution currently employed in industry provided by Freeport Mcmoran Inc. Table 7-1 shows the chemical composition of both solutions. As can be seen, sulfuric acid concentration is in the range of 190 to 200 g/L in two solutions, and iron concentration is around the 2.5 g/L and 1.8 g/L in ER and EW electrolytes, respectively. The two electrolytes are compared further in table 7-2 with synthetic electrolytes prepared in this work as a function of nominal $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\text{Fe}^{2+}$ ratio, temperature and observed potential.

As stated in the introduction, theoretical values from literature and calculated values are used in an effort to establish a relationship between the industrial solutions with the synthetic prepared in this work, to further evaluate current efficiency in terms of the CE equation (2.12).

Table 7-1 Composition in copper electrolytes employed in copper electrowinning and electrorefining

Composition of Industrial Copper Electrolytes		
Component	Electrorefining	Electrowinning
Sulfuric Acid	190 - 200 g/L	190-200 g/L
Cu	40 - 45 g/L	31-36 g/L
Cl ⁻	0.03 - 0.04 g/L	15-20 g/L
As	5.5 - 6.5 g/L	-
Bi	0.11 - 0.12 g/L	-
Ca	0.52 - 0.58 g/L	-
Fe	2.2 - 2.7 g/L	1.2 – 2.5 g/L
Mg	0.27 - 0.3 g/L	-
Na	2.8 - 3.3 g/L	-
Ni	16.2 - 19 g/L	-
Sb	0.22 - 0.26 g/L	-
Co	-	0.18-0.22 g/L
Mn	-	0.025-0.030 g/L
Temperature	67°C	40°C

The following is the applied procedure to account for the unknown values as shown in table 7-2; a nominal ferric/ferrous ratio for the ER solution is obtained through temperature, total iron concentration and observed potential in solution; overall ORP of ER and EW solutions is obtained via Yue's equation (2.7); current efficiencies for synthetic solutions are obtained via equation (2.12) through a correlation between nominal ferric/ferrous ratio, ferric concentration, cupric concentration and theoretical current densities between the three solutions.

Table 7-2 Comparison of electrolytes based on nominal Fe^{3+}/Fe^{2+} , temperature and E_{obs}

	Temp. (°C)	Cu^{2+} (g/L)	Total Fe (g/L)	Nominal Fe^{3+}/Fe^{2+} Ratio	E_{obs} (mV)	E_{SHE} [Equation] (mV)	Current Density (Amp/m ²)	Current Efficiency
Electrorefining (67°C)	65	45	2.45	-	385	549.7	400	89.6 %
	70	45	2.45	-	385	545.5	400	89.6%
Electrowinning (40°C)	35	35	1.65	4:1	531*	714.3	350	91.8%
	45	35	1.65	4:1	543*	718.3	350	91.8%
Synthetic Solutions	65	45	6	1:100	387	551.4	-	-
	45	36	6	1:100	372	553.6	-	-
	65	45	2.4	4:1	561*	725.8	-	-
	45	36	2.4	4:1	543*	724.4	-	-

* Theoretical value

Results of the theoretical correlation between ER, EW and synthetic solutions prepared in this study based on nominal ferric/ferrous ratio, ferric iron concentration, cupric concentration, total iron concentration and current efficiency are shown in figure 7-3. In the ER electrolyte, lower and upper-end total iron concentrations according to table 7-1 are considered and plotted against reported current density of 400 A/m² and cupric concentrations of 40-45 g/L. A nominal ferric/ferrous ratio of 1:100 is first plotted based on the observed potential of 385.1 mV of the solution.

Table 7-3 Theoretical current efficiencies of the ER, EW and synthetic electrolytes based on Khouraiibia & Moats model

	C.D. (A/m²)	Cu²⁺ (g/L)	Fe³⁺ (g/L)	Current Efficiency (%)	Nominal Fe³⁺/Fe²⁺	Total Fe (g/L)
Electrorefining	400	45	0.027	98.428	0.01	2.7
	400	40	2.426	93.488	100	2.4
Electrowinning	350	36	2	93.698	4	2.5
	350	31	1	95.743	5	1.2
Synthetic electrolytes	400	45	5.46	87.325	10	6.0
	400	40	0.055	98.667	0.1	6.0
	350	36	2.5	92.450	5	3.0
	350	31	2.7	91.261	10	3.0

However, as can be noticed, theoretical current efficiency via equation (2.12) is significantly higher than that reported by industry, of about 90% and 98%, respectively. A second approach was made with lower cupric and iron concentration of 40 g/L and 2.4, respectively and according to table 7-1, where a nominal ratio of 100:1 was found to be closer to the current efficiency reported, of 93.5 and 90%, respectively. The EW solution was also plotted to its lower and upper-end values for cupric and iron concentration. As shown in table 7-3, the reported CE values from the nominal ferric/ferrous ratios values are within a 1.7% and 3.7% difference from those calculated from equation (2.12). Lastly, 4 synthetic solutions are compared in terms of nominal ferric/ferrous ratio and current efficiency similarities. As can be seen, CE calculated values from nominal ratios of 5 and 10 are in well agreement with CE values reported from industry and are dependent on total iron concentration. These results allowed to apply a theoretical current efficiency to synthetic electrolytes very close in range with CE values obtained from industry, however, a more detail, complete study is necessary in order to establish a real relationship within the sulfates concentrations, nominal ferric/ferrous ratio and current efficiency. It is imperative to quantify iron species, cupric ions, current density, temperature and ORP values for a successful evaluation.

7.3 Summary

Theoretical CE values obtained via equation (2.12) and applied to synthetic solutions prepared in this work showed small variances from those values reported by the industry. This is due to the lack of complete data such as the nominal ferric/ferrous ratio in the electrorefining electrolyte and ORP values from both electrolytes. Although the calculated values from EW solutions and synthetic electrolytes of nominal ratio of 5 and 10 are in agreement with real CE values, no real assumption can be made regarding a true relationship within solutions. A complete study accounting for nominal ratios in solutions, redox potential values and temperatures is necessary in order to establish a true relationship. This with the purpose to obtain a real current efficiency factor via Eq. (2.7), where a nominal ferric/ferrous ratio dependent on temperature and total iron concentration will be able to determine this factor.

8 Conclusions and Summary

The applicability of Eq. (2.7) in the aqueous $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3\text{-FeSO}_4\text{-H}_2\text{O}$ and $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-CuSO}_4\text{-Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3\text{-FeSO}_4\text{-H}_2\text{O}$ systems is validated over a wide range of temperatures and sulfate concentrations. The model is validated under nominal ferric/ferrous ratios from 0.01 to 100, from temperatures from 25 to 70°C, concentrations of cupric ion from 35 to 50 g/L, total iron from 1 to 6 g/L and sulfuric acid from 170-200 g/L. Its applicability was expanded to higher concentrations of iron (up to 6 g/L) and copper (up to 50 g/L). It was observed that Cu ions in concentrations range of 35 to 50 g/L exerted no significant effect on the prediction accuracy of the Eq. (2.7) model.

Moreover, the applicability of this equation is expanded to the accurate determination of ferrous and ferric iron concentrations in the above-mentioned systems based on the measured redox potential, temperature and total iron concentration, providing an alternative to complicated volumetric methods for ferrous and ferric determination. Results from the potentiometric determination of iron(II) concentrations in synthetic solutions showed a percent error average of 2.53% from initial concentrations, which further support the validity of the equation (2.7) developed by Yue et al. to predict the redox potential of the aqueous $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3\text{-FeSO}_4\text{-H}_2\text{O}$ system over a broad range nominal $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\text{Fe}^{2+}$ ratios and temperatures mentioned previously.

Finally, presumable results of the evaluation of current efficiency via Eq. (2.12) to establish a relationship with Eq. (2.7) by comparing two industrial electrolytes, one for electrorefining and one for electrowinning, with several synthetic solutions presented in this work showed significant differences between current efficiencies (measured vs Eq. 2.7) at each solution.

More in-situ data as far as total iron concentration, nominal ferric/ferrous ratio and cupric ions is needed for a complete study to provide a real relationship between Eq. (2.7) and Eq. (2.12). Further industrial data will be investigated to support this method to apply Eq. (2.7) for the direct calculation of current efficiency.

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Appendices

Table A - 1 Results of the potentiometric titration of Fe(II) with Ce(IV) in the H_2SO_4 - $Fe_2(SO_4)_3$ - $FeSO_4$ - H_2O synthetic solution with a total of 3 g/L Iron.

Chemical Analysis		Experimental results measured in the lab							Calculated Fe^{2+} amount by			
Test	Assay	Fe_{total} g/L	Fe^{3+} g/L	Fe^{2+} g/L	Fe^{3+}/Fe^{2+} Nominal	Cu ²⁺	T °C	E_b (obs) mV	E_{End} (End) mV	ΔV ml	V (Calc) g	Error %
1	1	3	2	1	2:1	-	25	495.33	1060.33	4.6	1.0275	2.755
	2	3	2	1	2:1	-	35	506.68	1060.33	4.8	1.0722	7.222
	3	3	2	1	2:1	-	45	519.25	1060.33	4.6	1.0275	2.755
	4	3	2	1	2:1	-	55	531.83	1060.33	4.7	1.0499	4.989
	5	3	2	1	2:1	-	60	538.27	1060.33	4.6	1.0275	2.755
	6	3	2	1	2:1	-	65	545.32	1060.33	4.5	1.0052	0.521
	7	3	2	1	2:1	-	60	551.15	1060.33	4.6	1.0275	2.755
2	8	3	1	2	1:2	-	25	461.29	1060.33	9	2.0104	0.521
	9	3	1	2	1:2	-	35	473.25	1060.33	9.2	2.0551	2.755
	10	3	1	2	1:2	-	45	483.68	1060.33	9.15	2.0440	2.196
	11	3	1	2	1:2	-	55	490.12	1060.33	9	2.0104	0.521
	12	3	1	2	1:2	-	60	495.33	1060.33	9.4	2.0998	4.989
	13	3	1	2	1:2	-	65	501.46	1060.33	9.3	2.0774	3.872
	14	3	1	2	1:2	-	70	508.21	1060.33	9.4	2.0998	4.989
3	15	3	1.5	1.5	1:1	-	25	476.30	1060.33	6.5	1.4520	3.202
	16	3	1.5	1.5	1:1	-	35	487.74	1060.33	7	1.5637	4.244
	17	3	1.5	1.5	1:1	-	45	499.32	1060.33	7	1.5637	4.244
	18	3	1.5	1.5	1:1	-	55	512.51	1060.33	7	1.5637	4.244
	19	3	1.5	1.5	1:1	-	60	518.33	1060.33	7.1	1.5860	5.733
	20	3	1.5	1.5	1:1	-	65	526.61	1060.33	6.5	1.4520	3.202
	21	3	1.5	1.5	1:1	-	70	532.77	1060.33	6.5	1.4520	3.202
4	22	3	2.7	0.27	10:1	-	25	534.36	1060.33	1.6	0.3574	32.37
	23	3	2.7	0.27	10:1	-	35	546.24	1060.33	1.4	0.3127	15.83
	24	3	2.7	0.27	10:1	-	45	559.00	1060.33	1.3	0.2904	7.553
	25	3	2.7	0.27	10:1	-	55	572.68	1060.33	1.3	0.2904	7.553
	26	3	2.7	0.27	10:1	-	60	581.02	1060.33	1.2	0.2681	0.720
	27	3	2.7	0.27	10:1	-	65	588.47	1060.33	1.25	0.2792	3.417
	28	3	2.7	0.27	10:1	-	70	595.72	1060.33	1.25	0.2792	3.417
5	29	3	0.27	2.7	1:10	-	25	416.81	1060.33	12	2.6807	0.720
	30	3	0.27	2.7	1:10	-	35	424.48	1060.33	11.2	2.5012	7.339
	31	3	0.27	2.7	1:10	-	45	433.38	1060.33	12	2.6806	0.720
	32	3	0.27	2.7	1:10	-	55	445.64	1060.33	11.8	2.6359	2.375
	33	3	0.27	2.7	1:10	-	60	451.47	1060.33	11.6	2.5912	4.029
	34	3	0.27	2.7	1:10	-	65	455.15	1060.33	12	2.6806	0.720
	35	3	0.27	2.7	1:10	-	70	459.75	1060.33	12.1	2.7029	0.107

Table A - 2 Results of the potentiometric titration of Fe(II) with Ce(IV) in the H_2SO_4 - $Fe_2(SO_4)_3$ - $FeSO_4$ - H_2O synthetic solution with a total of 6 g/L Iron.

Chemical Analysis		Experimental results measured in the lab								Calculated Fe^{2+} amount by		
Test	Assay	Fe_{total} g/L	Fe^{3+} g/L	Fe^{2+} g/L	Fe^{3+}/Fe^{2+} Nominal	Cu^{2+} g/L	T °C	E_b (obs) mV	E_{End} (End) mV	ΔV ml	V (Calc) ml	Error %
6	36	6	5	1	2:1	-	25	516.186	1060.33	4.2	1.0275	2.755
	37	6	5	1	2:1	-	35	528.454	1060.33	4.4	0.9829	1.713
	38	6	5	1	2:1	-	45	541.95	1060.33	4.5	1.0052	0.521
	39	6	5	1	2:1	-	55	555.445	1060.33	4.5	1.0052	0.521
	40	6	5	1	2:1	-	60	562.806	1060.33	4.6	1.0275	2.755
	41	6	5	1	2:1	-	65	569.553	1060.33	4.5	1.0052	0.521
	42	6	5	1	2:1	-	70	575.995	1060.33	4.5	1.0052	0.521
7	43	6	5.94	.0594	100:1	-	25	594.396	1060.33	2.6	0.0581	2.224
	44	6	5.94	.0594	100:1	-	35	608.505	1060.33	2.8	0.0626	5.297
	45	6	5.94	.0594	100:1	-	45	624.76	1060.33	2.6	0.0581	2.224
	46	6	5.94	.0594	100:1	-	55	641.629	1060.33	2.7	0.0603	1.536
	47	6	5.94	.0594	100:1	-	60	646.843	1060.33	2.75	0.0614	3.417
	48	6	5.94	.0594	100:1	-	65	655.124	1060.33	2.8	0.0625	5.297
	49	6	5.94	.0594	100:1	-	70	662.872	1060.33	2.7	0.0603	1.536
8	50	6	.0594	5.94	1:100	-	25	360.023	1060.33	2.7	6.0313	1.536
	51	6	.0594	5.94	1:100	-	35	365.593	1060.33	2.69	6.0089	1.160
	52	6	.0594	5.94	1:100	-	45	372.341	1060.33	2.65	5.9195	0.344
	53	6	.0594	5.94	1:100	-	55	381.235	1060.33	2.67	5.9642	0.408
	54	6	.0594	5.94	1:100	-	60	383.689	1060.33	2.67	5.9642	0.408
	55	6	.0594	5.94	1:100	-	65	386.756	1060.33	2.7	6.0313	1.536
	56	6	.0594	5.94	1:100	-	70	390.437	1060.33	2.65	5.9195	0.344
9	57	6	1	5	1:5	-	25	436.136	1060.33	2.22	4.9546	0.909
	58	6	1	5	1:5	-	35	443.497	1060.33	2.3	5.1378	2.755
	59	6	1	5	1:5	-	45	454.945	1060.33	2.25	5.0260	0.521
	60	6	1	5	1:5	-	55	465.886	1060.33	2.35	5.2830	4.989
	61	6	1	5	1:5	-	60	470.794	1060.33	2.3	5.1378	2.755
	62	6	1	5	1:5	-	65	476.621	1060.33	2.25	5.0260	0.521
	63	6	1	5	1:5	-	70	482.142	1060.33	2.3	5.1378	2.755

Table A - 3 Results of the potentiometric titration of Fe(II) with Ce(IV) in the H_2SO_4 - $Cu(SO_4)_2$ - $Fe_2(SO_4)_3$ - $FeSO_4$ - H_2O synthetic solution with a total of 6 g/L Iron.

Chemical Analysis		Experimental results measured in the lab								Calculated Fe ²⁺ amount by		
Test	Assay	Fe _{total} g/L	Fe ³⁺ g/L	Fe ²⁺ g/L	Fe ³⁺ /Fe ²⁺ Nominal	Cu ²⁺ g/L	T °C	E _b (obs) mV	E _{End} (End) mV	ΔV ml	V (Calc) ml	Error %
10	64	6	4	2	2:1	36	25	495.944	1060.33	9.1	2.0328	1.638
	65	6	4	2	2:1	36	35	506.372	1060.33	9.1	2.0329	1.638
	66	6	4	2	2:1	36	45	518.026	1060.33	9.2	2.0551	2.755
	67	6	4	2	2:1	36	55	531.215	1060.33	9.2	2.0551	2.755
	68	6	4	2	2:1	36	60	535.202	1060.33	9.2	2.0551	2.755
	69	6	4	2	2:1	36	65	541.643	1060.33	9.2	2.0551	2.755
	70	6	4	2	2:1	36	70	548.39	1060.33	9.15	2.0440	2.196
11	71	2.4	2	0.4	5:1	36	25	519.56	1060.33	1.75	0.3909	2.271
	72	2.4	2	0.4	5:1	36	35	530.908	1060.33	1.7	0.3798	5.064
	73	2.4	2	0.4	5:1	36	45	543.176	1060.33	1.8	0.4021	0.521
	74	2.4	2	0.4	5:1	36	55	556.068	1060.33	1.7	0.3798	5.064
	75	2.4	2	0.4	5:1	36	60	561.272	1060.33	1.8	0.4021	0.521
	76	2.4	2	0.4	5:1	36	65	567.713	1060.33	1.75	0.3909	2.271
	77	2.4	2	0.4	5:1	36	70	575.381	1060.33	1.7	0.3798	5.064
12	78	2.2	2	0.2	10:1	40	25	533.668	1060.33	9.5	0.2122	6.105
	79	2.2	2	0.2	10:1	40	35	545.63	1060.33	9.5	0.2122	6.105
	80	2.2	2	0.2	10:1	40	45	559.86	1060.33	9.5	0.2122	6.105
	81	2.2	2	0.2	10:1	40	55	572.313	1060.33	10	0.2234	11.69
	82	2.2	2	0.2	10:1	40	60	579.981	1060.33	10	0.2234	11.69
	83	2.2	2	0.2	10:1	40	65	585.809	1060.33	9	0.2010	0.521
	84	2.2	2	0.2	10:1	40	70	592.863	1060.33	10	0.2234	11.609
13	85	3	0.5	2.5	1:5	40	25	438.9	1060.33	11.3	2.5242	0.968
	86	3	0.5	2.5	1:5	40	35	448.4	1060.33	11.5	2.5689	0.968
	87	3	0.5	2.5	1:5	40	45	455.765	1060.33	11.3	2.5242	0.968
	88	3	0.5	2.5	1:5	40	55	465.886	1060.33	11.5	2.5689	2.755
	89	3	0.5	2.5	1:5	40	60	470.18	1060.33	11.3	2.5242	0.968
	90	3	0.5	2.5	1:5	40	65	476.928	1060.33	11.3	2.5242	0.968
	91	3	0.5	2.5	1:5	40	70	481.835	1060.33	11.5	2.5689	2.755
14	92	6	5.459	0.545	10:1	45	25	536.736	1060.33	2.5	0.5585	2.468
	93	6	5.459	0.545	10:1	45	35	545.323	1060.33	2.55	0.5696	4.517
	94	6	5.459	0.545	10:1	45	45	560.659	1060.33	2.5	0.5585	2.468
	95	6	5.459	0.545	10:1	45	55	574.154	1060.33	2.5	0.5585	2.468
	96	6	5.459	0.545	10:1	45	60	579.981	1060.33	2.55	0.5696	4.517
	97	6	5.459	0.545	10:1	45	65	586.115	1060.33	2.55	0.5696	4.517
	98	6	5.459	0.545	10:1	45	70	593.476	1060.33	2.5	0.5585	2.468
15	99	3	2	1	2:1	45	25	495.33	1060.33	4.6	1.0275	2.755
	100	3	2	1	2:1	45	35	503.918	1060.33	4.6	1.0275	2.755
	101	3	2	1	2:1	45	45	515.573	1060.33	4.55	1.0164	1.638
	102	3	2	1	2:1	45	55	528.148	1060.33	4.6	1.0275	2.755
	103	3	2	1	2:1	45	60	534.282	1060.33	4.6	1.0275	2.755
	104	3	2	1	2:1	45	65	540.416	1060.33	4.5	1.0052	0.521
	105	3	2	1	2:1	45	70	547.164	1060.33	4.55	1.0164	1.638
16	106	3	2	1	2:1	50	25	497.17	1060.33	4.7	1.0499	4.989
	107	3	2	1	2:1	50	35	506.065	1060.33	4.65	1.0387	3.872
	108	3	2	1	2:1	50	45	517.72	1060.33	4.7	1.0499	4.989
	109	3	2	1	2:1	50	55	530.295	1060.33	4.7	1.0499	4.989
	110	3	2	1	2:1	50	60	535.202	1060.33	4.7	1.0499	4.989
	111	3	2	1	2:1	50	65	541.95	1060.33	4.65	1.0387	3.872
	112	3	2	1	2:1	50	70	548.084	1060.33	4.5	1.0052	0.521

Vita

Daniel Pedro Cruz was born and raised in El Paso, Texas. He attended The University of Texas at El Paso, where he earned a Bachelor of Science in Metallurgical and Materials Engineering in 2007. He began work on his Master of Science in Metallurgical and Materials Engineering in 2017, focusing on hydrometallurgical processes.

While at The University of Texas at El Paso, Daniel was elected President of the Society of Mining, Metallurgy & Exploration, and served on several associations including the Alpha Sigma Mu Honor Society and Material Advantage Society. Daniel also developed as a peer advisor for the College of Engineering.

Currently, Daniel is a Metallurgist at Freeport-McMoRan Inc. in Bagdad, Arizona, Living in Bagdad, Arizona.