The influence of (NH₄)₂Cr₂O₇ additions on the polarization behaviour of Pb/PbSO₄ electrode in H₂SO₄ (d=1.25 g cm⁻³) solution was studied by means of the potentiodynamic method. The lead electrode cycling was carried out within (-1200 to -800 mV) and (+800 to +1600 mV) potential ranges. The ammonium dichromate concentration in the electrolyte was changed from 3.5 ppm to 3000 ppm. The values of the kinetic parameters, determined from the polarization curves, point out the intensification of the anodic and cathodic processes, on addition. Taking into account the shape of the potentiograms, the values of the kinetic parameters from these potentiograms, and the coulometric ratios R₁, R₂, R₃ and R₄, a succession of reactions was proposed. Lead and lead-alloys anodes have been shown that with increasing anodic polarization, first an insulating layer of PbSO₄, then a conductive layer of PbO₂, are successively formed on the electrode. In the PbO₂ potential domain, different crystalline phases (α and β) can be formed, the α phase of PbO₂ being in fact a non-stoichiometric α-PbO₂ layer, with (1.4<n<2). The impedance data were consistent with the Pavlov’s model of Pb/PbOn/PbSO₄ electrode, and the anode behaviour appeared to be essentially determined by the electrolysis time. It has been shown that the layer growth is first controlled by the solid state diffusion of SO₄²⁻ ions, and then by a chemical step associated with a change in charge carriers taking place at the PbOn/PbSO₄ interface.

INTRODUCTION

The lead-antimony alloy of preeutectic composition is generally used for manufacturing the grids of the majority of lead-acid batteries. This alloy has sufficiently high mechanical and casting characteristics, a constant composition in liquid state and a reduced capability to oxidize in manufacturing process. A deficiency of the alloy is the relatively low corrosion resistance, which is limiting the service time of the battery. The increase of the antimony content from the alloy intensifies the corrosion process on one side, and on the other side the antimony has as negative effect the fact that, the Sb is anodically dissolving in solution and it is depositing on active mass of the negative electrode, decreasing the hydrogen evolution overvoltage, which is favoring the increase of the electrode self discharge. For this reason one has passed to the decrease of the antimony percentage in alloy from 8÷12% (how it was at the beginning) down to 5% and even less. In order to improve the quality of the lead-antimony alloys, additions of Ca, Ag, Se, Sn, Te, Cd are used in very small amounts. First, the polarization behaviour of the pure lead has been studied in sulphuric acid solutions with different amounts of ammonium dichromate and then, the polarization behaviours of different lead alloys (Pb + Sb 0.83%; Pb + Sb 1.8%; Pb + Ca 0.086%; Pb + Sb 9.9% + Ag 0.47%; Pb + 0.05% Ca +Sn 0.9%; Pb + 4% Sb + 0.046 % Cu; Pb + 0.138% Ca) were studied. The potential sweep of the working electrode, within given potential ranges, was intended to simulate the processes taking place at the
positive and negative plates of the lead/acid battery during charge/discharge cycling. The characteristics of the polarization curves (i.e., shape and height and potential range in which peaks appear), as well as the values of the kinetic parameters determined from such curves, enable conclusions to be drawn concerning the electrochemical characteristics of lead and alloys in H₂SO₄ concentrated solutions. Actually, the purpose of this work is to give new information on the effect of different factors, which could improve the formation and functioning technology of the lead–acid battery.

EXPERIMENTAL

Experiments were carried out using the linear sweep voltammetric method with a low potential scan rate (5÷40 mVs⁻¹). The scans were applied by means of a Model 173 Potentiostat-Galvanostat (Princeton Applied Research) provided with a Model 179 Digital Coulometer. The working electrode was made from cylinder of lead or lead alloy with a surface area of 50 mm² exposed to the electrolyte solution. The counter electrode was a platinum gauze cylinder and an Hg/Hg₂SO₄/SO₄²⁻ electrode was used as reference. All potentials are reported with regard to this reference electrode. The concentration of the ammonium dichromate, used as additive in the sulphuric acid solution, of ρ = 1,25 g cm⁻³, was changed from 3.5 ppm up to 3000 ppm. A number of 20 cycles was carried out for each determination. For electrochemical polarizations, a single compartment cell was used; the lead microelectrode in the middle of the cell was surrounded by a platinum gauze as counter electrode. This arrangement of the two electrodes creates, during the cycling a uniform, intense electric field. A Haber-Luggin capillary was used to assure the binding between the cell compartment and the reference electrode. A sulphuric acid solution of 1,25 g cm⁻³ density was used as basic electrolyte. The temperature was maintained constant, at +20°C, by means of an UM-210 thermostat.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Figure 1 shows the potentiograms of the lead and lead alloys electrodes in sulphuric acid solutions of ρ = 1,25 g cm⁻³ density, obtained as a result of the potential sweep within the -1200mV up to – 800 mV potential range. Analysis of the figure shows the presence of the two current maxima. An oxidation current maximum on the positive-going scan that corresponds to lead dissolution and the formation of a passivating PbSO₄ layer. This process is equivalent to the discharge of the negative plate in a lead/acid battery according to the overall equation:

\[
Pb \rightarrow Pb^{2+} +2e^- \rightarrow PbSO_4 +2H^+ +2e^-
\]  

(1)

On the reverse potential sweep, a reduction current maximum occurs. This is associated with electroreduction of PbSO₄ to metallic lead. The conventional process of reduction takes place, as Popova and Kabanov have shown, by a chemical dissolution of PbSO₄ to Pb²⁺ ions, followed by the electroreduction of Pb²⁺ ions to metallic lead, according to the following equations:

\[
PbSO_4 + H^+ \rightarrow HSO_4^- + Pb^{2+} \text{(chemical dissolution in acid medium)}
\]  

(2)

\[
Pb^{2+} +2e^- \rightarrow Pb \text{ (electroreduction)}
\]  

(3)

The potential difference between the anodic and cathodic peaks is about 60mV. The height of the cathodic peak is much smaller than that of the anodic peak. Furthermore, a limiting current appears on the cathodic scan. This is due to diffusion control of the reduction process through the semipermeable membrane of PbSO₄. It has also been found that a considerable cathodic current is maintained, thus showing that at –1200 mV the reduction of the lead sulphate layer is not fully accomplished. Analysis of Fig. 1 shows that, at the working electrode cycling the peak currents, the average of the anodic and cathodic currents, respectively, is much higher at the first cycle, comparatively with the other cycles. This behaviour can be explained by the fact that, at the first cycle the electrode surface is free of oxides or other compounds, a result of the electrode surface pretreatment before each run; this is resulting in anodic and cathodic processes more intensified than at the other cycles, where the surface is no more completely free. The alloying elements addition in the concentrations mentioned above does not lead to the displacement of the oxidation and reduction peaks; they appear in the same potential ranges as in the case of the pure lead electrode, the parameters which modify being their height, as well as the electricity amounts involved in the anodic and cathodic processes.
Fig. 1 – The potentiograms obtained at the 20th cycle for lead and lead alloys electrodes in sulphuric acid solutions of $\rho = 1.25 \text{ gcm}^{-3}$ density, within the $-1200 \text{mV}$ up to $-800 \text{mV}$ potential range, with a potential scan rate of $5 \text{mVs}^{-1}$.

In order to better point out these aspects, from the polarization curves, the anodic and cathodic peak currents, as well as the maximum current of the hydrogen evolution corresponding to the potential of $-1200 \text{mV}$ have been calculated for the pure lead as well as for the alloys under study – see Tab. 1.

Further on, the influence of the alloying elements on the polarization behaviour of the working electrode was studied, within the ($-1200$ to $800$) mV potential range.

Fig. 1 shows comparatively the potentiograms obtained at the 20th cycle for the pure lead and the lead alloys. Analysis of these potentiograms shows the following: the shape of the polarization curves is the same in all cases; the presence of the alloying elements has led in all cases to the increase of the anodic and cathodic peak currents as well as of the average of the respective currents, which represents an activation of all anodic and cathodic processes.
Table 1

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<th>Ip(mA cm⁻²)</th>
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<th>Pb+</th>
<th>Pb+0.08%Ca</th>
<th>Pb+Ag0.04%Ca</th>
<th>Pb+0.05%C + 0.9%Sn</th>
<th>Pb+4%Sb+0.046%Cu</th>
<th>Pb+Sb1.8%Ca</th>
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<th>Pb+Ag0.04%Ca</th>
<th>Pb+0.05%C + 0.9%Sn</th>
<th>Pb+4%Sb+0.046%Cu</th>
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<th>Pb+0.08%Ca</th>
<th>Pb+Ag0.04%Ca</th>
<th>Pb+0.05%C + 0.9%Sn</th>
<th>Pb+4%Sb+0.046%Cu</th>
<th>Pb+Sb1.8%Ca</th>
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<td>1.66</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>0.91</td>
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A study was made of the polarization behaviour of lead and its alloys in H₂SO₄ of ρ = 1.25 g cm⁻³ density within the potential range of +800 mV to +1600 mV. Figure 2 shows the voltammograms obtained on the lead and lead-alloys electrodes in above mentioned conditions. Analysis of the Fig. 2 shows that the sweep of the working electrode potential within the potential range of (+800 to +1600) mV leads to the appearance of some current maxima. On positive-going scans, a small anodic peak (a shoulder, in fact) occurs within the potential range +820 to +940 mV. This represents the formation of basic lead oxides and sulphates. A larger peak is observed at higher potentials and is due to the formation of lead dioxide (α and β modifications). After this peak, oxygen evolution takes place and the current increases sharply. It has been shown that with increasing anodic polarization, first an insulating layer of PbSO₄, then a conductive layer of PbO₂ is successively formed on the electrode. In the PbO₂ potential domain, different crystalline phases (α and β) can be formed, with the possible existence of amorphous zones. When the oxidation proceeds through the porous PbSO₄ layer, the β-PbO₂ phase is formed at the PbSO₄/solution interface by a dissolution-precipitation mechanism. Then a PbO sublayer is covered by a non-stoichiometric PbOₓ oxide whose stoichiometry coefficient n (1<n<2), progressively increases when approaching the oxide/solution interface. The lead oxidation into PbOₓ involves both the diffusion oxygen atoms in the anodic layer towards the metal and the migration of oxygen vacancies from the metal towards the solution. When n reaches the critical value of 1.4 the α-PbOₙₐ nucleation begins, involving a change of the tetragonal PbO lattice into orthorombic α-PbOₙ.² It has been also reported that the PbOₓ layer conductivity increases with raising both n value and anodic polarization. In our case, this process of PbOₙ to PbO₂ oxidation takes place within the (+1350 to +1500) mV potential range and it is pointed out by the peak (A) appearance. At the reverse potential scan on the descendent anodic curve, a peak (B) corresponding to the reduction of PbO₂ to PbSO₄ (of Pb⁴⁺ to Pb⁵⁺) appears. The shape of the two peaks differs appreciably: the cathodic peak for PbO₂ to PbSO₄ reduction is very sharp (indicating that the cathodic process is under kinetic control), while the anodic peak for the oxidation of PbSO₄ and non-stoichiometric lead oxides and basic lead sulphates is smaller and is spread over a relatively wide potential range, indicating that the anodic process of PbO₂ formation is under diffusion control. From Fig. 2 and Tab. 2, one can see that, the presence of the alloying elements has led in all cases to the increase of the anodic and cathodic peak currents as well as of the average of the respective currents, which represents an activation of all anodic and cathodic process from this potential range (+800 to +1600) mV.
Fig. 2 – The potentiograms obtained at 20th cycle for lead and lead alloys in sulphuric acid solutions of \( \rho = 1.25 \, \text{g/cm}^3 \) density, within the +800 mV up to +1600 mV potential range, with a potential scan rate of 5 mVs\(^{-1}\).

**Table 2**

The values of the anodic and cathodic peak currents, as well as the maximum current of the oxygen evolution corresponding to the potential of +1600 mV within the (+800 to +1600 mV) potential range, in a H\(_2\)SO\(_4\) solution (\( \rho = 1.25 \, \text{g/cm}^3 \)) with a potential scan rate of 5 mVs\(^{-1}\).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No cycle</th>
<th>Pb+6.83%Sb</th>
<th>Pb+0.086%Ca</th>
<th>Pb+Ag0.047%+Sb9.9%</th>
<th>Pb+0.05%Ca+0.9%Sn</th>
<th>Pb+4%Sb+0.046%Cu</th>
<th>Pb+Sn1.8%</th>
<th>Pb+0.138%Ca</th>
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**Table 2 (continues)**
Table 2 (continued)

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This fact we can explain thus: if the oxidation rate is determined by diffusion of oxygen in the outer (PbO₂) part of the dense layer, the effect alloying agents may be due to an increase in the concentration of oxygen vacancies (i.e. the disorder) in the dioxide lattice. By introducing cations of a lower valence than IV into the PbO₂ lattice the amount of the bound oxygen is reduced and the diffusion of oxygen through the layer is facilitated. For instance, the presence of Sb (III) in the oxide layer might have this kind of influence. On the other hand, if the oxidation rate is determined by diffusion in the inner (PbO) part of the layer, the interpretation of the results is not so straight forward. In this latter case the effect of the alloying agents may be based on an increase in the electronic conductivity of the layer. For instance, the presence of cations with a higher valence than II (Sb(III), Sb(V)) in the layer would lead to an increase in the conductivity of the PbO-like layer. Sb (V) might be bound with oxygen and Pb(II) in the form of lead metantimonate, PbSb₂O₆. Also, we have observed that activation energy of the oxide layer growth is lowered by alloying agents. In other words, alloying agents make the energetic barrier for the diffusion of oxygen lower. This can be explained by assuming an increase in the concentration of the oxygen vacancies. In the case of antimonial alloys the activation energy decreases with the antimony content. It is interesting to note that the activation energy for the Pb-Ca-Sn alloy is lower than for the Pb-Ca alloy. This may be connected with the depassivating effect of Sn. At finally, we can conclude that, the effect of alloying elements on the oxidation rate is at least partly based on differences in the microstructure of the metal.

Impedance spectroscopy experiments

Complex plane and corresponding impedance Bode plots for Pb +0,83% Sb in solutions of H₂SO₄ with ρ = 1,25 g/cm³, at the potential of +1250 mV after different immersion times are shown in Fig. 3. A capacitive semicircle is clearly evident in the complex plane plot, and the polarization resistance was determined from its diameter. As expected, the polarization resistance decreased with immersion time, indicating an increased corrosion rate with immersion time. Plots a, b and c in Fig. 3 consist of a high-frequency capacitive loop and a low-frequency branch, as we can see, in spite of a similar shape, these plots lead to different values for the high-frequency capacitance C and also for the inclination θ of the low-frequency branch. For plot c, the low-frequency impedance is inversely proportional to the square root of frequencies, in conformity with Warburg impedance. This impedance likely corresponds to a solid state diffusion process. On the other hand, the scattered values of C obtained from plots a, b and c are much higher than the capacitance of 0,025 μFcm², which can be calculated for a 0,5 μm thick PbSO₄ layer of dielectric constant εᵣ = 14,3.¹⁸

Consequently it appears that the values of C reflect a faradic process taking place in the layer and characterized by a poor reproducibility. With increasing electrolysis time, the high frequency capacitive loop progressively disappears and the electrode tends to behave as a dispersive capacitance, as observed on plot c in Fig. 3.

Finally, we can concluded that, the potential domain investigated in the present study, from 0,8V to 1350V, is a transition region corresponding to both the formation of a PbSO₄ layer and the coexistence of PbO, PbOₙ, α-PbO₂ and β-PbO₂ in the oxide sublayer. Our impedance data and polarization curves obtained in the base electrolyte can be interpreted on the basis of the PbO/PbOₙ/PbSO₄ electrode, where PbOₙ represents a thin oxide sublayer in which various oxides PbO, PbOₙ and α-PbO₂, β-PbO₂ can coexist.
Effect of ammonium dichromate

The influence of small additions of ammonium dichromate, \((\text{NH}_4)_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7\), on the polarization behaviour of the lead electrode was studied in \(\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4\) solutions within +800 to +1600 mV potential range. It was found that the additive does not change the shape of the polarization curve, but causes a considerable increase in the height of both the anodic and the cathodic peaks as well as in the amounts of electricity involved in these processes. These features indicate that ammonium dichromate intensifies both processes. It is suggested that the electrode processes occurring in the presence of the dichromate ion during the positive-going scan from +800 to +1600 mV are:

\[
2\text{Cr}^{6+} + 3\text{Pb} \rightarrow 3\text{Pb}^{2+} + 2\text{Cr}^{3+} \quad (4)
\]

(at potentials: +800 to +1200 mV)

\[
2\text{Cr}^{6+} + 3\text{Pb}^{2+} \rightarrow 3\text{Pb}^{4+} + 2\text{Cr}^{3+} \quad (5)
\]

(at potentials > +1200 mV)

\[
\text{Pb}^{2+} \rightarrow \text{Pb}^{4+} + 2e^- \quad (6)
\]

\[
\text{Cr}^{3+} - 3e^- \rightarrow \text{Cr}^{6+} \quad (7)
\]

On the negative going-scan from +1600 to +800 mV, reduction of the formed \(\text{PbO}_2\) takes place, \(i.e.,\)

\[
\text{Pb}^{4+} + 2e^- \rightarrow \text{Pb}^{2+} \quad (8)
\]

Taking into account that:

\[
Q_a = Q_{\text{PbO}_2} + Q_{O_2} = Q_c + Q_{O_2} \quad (9)
\]

\[
Q_{\text{PbO}_2} \text{ (anodically formed)} = Q_{\text{PbO}_2} \text{ (cathodically reduced)} = Q_c \quad (10)
\]
Hence:

\[ Q_{O_2} = Q_a - Q_c \]  \hspace{1cm} (11)

the coulometric ratios \( R_1, R_2, R_3 \) and \( R_4 \) have been calculated as follows:

\[ R_1 = \frac{Q_{O_2}}{Q_{O_2}^0} \times 100 = \frac{Q_a - Q_c}{Q_c^0 - Q_c} \times 100 \]  \hspace{1cm} (12)

\[ R_2 = \frac{Q_{PbO}}{Q_{PbO}^0} \times 100 = \frac{Q_c}{Q_c^0 - Q_a} \times 100 \]  \hspace{1cm} (13)

\[ R_3 = \frac{Q_{PbO}}{Q_{PbO}^o} \times 100 = \frac{Q_c}{Q_c - Q_a} \times 100 \]  \hspace{1cm} (14)

\[ R_4 = \frac{Q_{PbO}}{Q_{total}} \times 100 = \frac{Q_a}{Q_c^0} \times 100 \]  \hspace{1cm} (15)

where the ° superscript refers to H\(_2\)SO\(_4\) solution free from (NH\(_4\))\(_2\)Cr\(_2\)O\(_7\). The coulometric ratios (defined by equations 9-15) indicate that, the dichromate anion is accelerating the anodic oxidation of Pb to PbSO\(_4\) and PbO and, consequently, it is determining the acceleration of all anodic and cathodic processes, this fact being pointed out by the shape of the obtained voltammograms and by the electrochemical parameters values determined from these ones.

CONCLUSIONS

The suggested mechanism relies on the Pavlov’s and Coworkers model, for the electrochemical oxidation of Pb to PbO\(_2\) in H\(_2\)SO\(_4\) free of additives.\(^{2,3,5-9}\)

Based on experimental observations, the formulated mechanism supposes the direct oxidant attack on the metal surface, by the Cr\(_2\)O\(_7\)^{2-} electrophilic group.

The dichromate anion is accelerating the anodic oxidation of Pb to PbSO\(_4\) and PbO and, consequently, it is determining the acceleration of all anodic and cathodic processes;

Our impedance data and polarization curves obtained in the base electrolyte can be interpreted on the basis of the Pb/PbO\(_n\)/PbSO\(_4\) electrode, where PbO\(_n\) represents a thin oxide sublayer in which various oxides PbO, PbO\(_n\) and \( \alpha \)-PbO\(_2\) can coexist.

REFERENCES