

Република Србија
МИНИСТАРСТВО ЗА НАУКУ И
ТЕХНОЛОШКИ РАЗВОЈ
Комисија за стицање научних звања

Број: 06-00-69/996
14.04.2010. године
Београд

На основу члана 22. става 2. члана 70. став 6. Закона о научноистраживачкој делатности ("Службени гласник Републике Србије", број 110/05 и 50/06 - исправка), члана 2. става 1. и 2. тачке 1 – 4.(прилози) и члана 38. Правилника о поступку и начину вредновања и квантитативном исказивању научноистраживачких резултата истраживача ("Службени гласник Републике Србије", број 38/08) и захтева који је поднео

Институт за хемију и технологију и металургију у Београду

Комисија за стицање научних звања на седници одржаној 14.04.2010.. године, донела је

**ОДЛУКУ
О СТИЦАЊУ НАУЧНОГ ЗВАЊА**

Др Томислав Тришовић
стиче научно звање
Виши научни сарадник

у области природно-математичких наука - хемија

ОБРАЗЛОЖЕЊЕ

Институт за хемију и технологију и металургију у Београду

утврдио је предлог број 1834 од 16.12.2009. године на седници научног већа Института и поднео захтев Комисији за стицање научних звања број 1841 од 17.12.2009. године за доношење одлуке о испуњености услова за стицање научног звања ***Виши научни сарадник***.

Комисија за стицање научних звања је по предходно прибављеном позитивном мишљењу Матичног научног одбора за хемију на седници одржаној 14.04.2010. године разматрала захтев и утврдила да именовани испуњава услове из члана 70. став 6. Закона о научноистраживачкој делатности ("Службени гласник Републике Србије", број 110/05 и 50/06 - исправка), члана 2. става 1. и 2. тачке 1 – 4.(прилози) и члана 38. Правилника о поступку и начину вредновања и квантитативном исказивању научноистраживачких резултата истраживача ("Службени гласник Републике Србије", број 38/08) за стицање научног звања ***Виши научни сарадник***, па је одлучила као у изреци ове одлуке.

Доношењем ове одлуке именовани стиче сва права која му на основу ње по закону припадају.

Одлуку доставити подносиоцу захтева, именованом и архиви Министарства за науку и технолошки развој у Београду.

ПРЕДСЕДНИК КОМИСИЈЕ
Др Станислава Стошић-Грујићић,
научни саветник

C. Stosic-Grujicic



Прилог 1: Награде и признања



Савез проналазача и аутора техничких унапређења Београда

Belgrade Association of Inventors and Authors of Technical Improvements
Award Gold Medal with Nicola Tesla's Face

ЗЛАТНА МЕДАЉА

СА ЛИКОМ НИКОЛЕ ТЕСЛЕ

М. Гвозденовић, Б. Гргур, Ј. Рафаиловић, Б. Југовић,
С. Пашалић, Т. Тришовић
ИНСТИТУТ ТЕХНИЧКИХ НАУКА – САНУ
из области нових технологија за

АУТОМАТСКИ УРЕЂАЈ ЗА ТРЕТМАН ВОДА У ХИДРОМАСАЖНИМ КАДАМАМА
И БАЗЕНИМА СА ВИНЕСТЕПЕНИМ РЕВЕРЗНИМ СТРУЈНИМ
РЕЖИМИМА

«ПРОНАЈАЗАШТВО – БЕОГРАД 2011»



Број 72-11
Београд / Belgrade
27. маја 2011.

Председник / President

Мр Ђуро Борак, дипл. маш. инж.



Савез проналазача и аутора техничких унапређења Београда

Belgrade Association of Inventors and Authors of Technical Improvements
Award Silver Medal with Nicola Tesla's Face

СРЕБРНА МЕДАЛА СА ЛИКОМ НИКОЛЕ ТЕСЛЕ

М. Гвозденовић, Б. Грур, Т. Тришовић, Л. Рафаиловић, Б.
Југовић - Институт техничких наука САНУ, Београд
из области проналазака за

**ЦЕВНИ ЕЛЕКТОЛИЗЕР ЗА ЕЛЕКТОХЕМИЈСКУ
СИНТЕЗУ БРАУНОВОГ ГАСА И АКТИВНОГ ХЛЮРА**

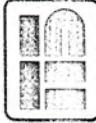
«ПРОНАЛАЗАШТВО – БЕОГРАД 2012»



Број 51
Београд / Belgrade
25. маја 2012.

Председник / President

Мр Ђурај Борак, дипл. маш. инж.



Савез проналазача и аутора техничких унапређења Београда
Belgrade Association of Inventors and Authors of Technical Improvements
Award Golden Plaque

ЗЛАТНА ПЛАЈЕТА

СА ВЕЛИКОМ ЗЛАТНОМ МЕДАЈОМ НИКОЛЕ ТЕСЉЕ
ИНСТИТУТ ТЕХНИЧКИХ НАУКА САНУ - Београд
за патентно решење

УРЕЂАЈ ЗА ФОТОКАТАЛИТИЧКИ И ЕЛЕКТОХЕМИЈСКИ
ТРЕТМАН ПИЈАЊИХ ВОДА

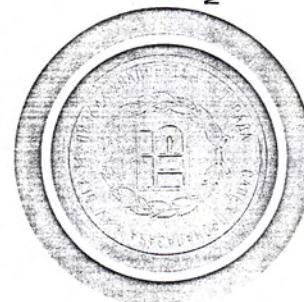
Автори: Милица Гвозденовић, Др Бранимир Југовић, Проф. Др Бранимир Грујић,
Др. Јасмина Стевановић, Др Томислав Тришковић,

«ПРОНАЛАЗАШТВО – БЕОГРАД 2009»

Број: 081-09
Београд / Belgrade
22. 05. 2009.

Председник / President

Mr. Борко Борак, дипл. инж. маш.





Савез проналазача и аутора техничких унапређења Београда

Belgrade Association of Inventors and Authors of Technical Improvements
Award Special Recognition

СПЕЦИЈАЛНО ПРИЗНАЊЕ

СА ЗЛАТНОМ МЕДАЉОМ САВЕЗА ПРОНАЛАЗАЧА БЕОГРАДА
ИНСТИТУТ ТЕХНИЧКИХ НАУКА САНУ
за нове технологије

МУЛТИФУНКЦИОНАЛНА ЕЛЕКТРОХЕМИЈСКА ЂЕЛИЈА
И

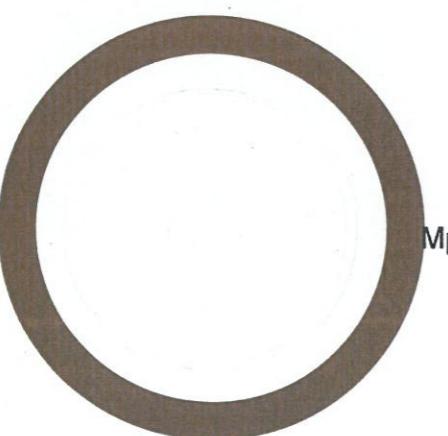
УРЕЂАЈ ЗА ЕЛЕКТРОХЕМИЈСКУ ПРОИЗВОДЊУ
АКТИВНОГ ХЛОРА СА ЦЕВНИМ РЕАКТОРОМ И
ПОДХЛАЂИВАЊЕМ РЕАКЦИОНОГ РАСТВОРА

Аутори: Лидија Рафаиловић, Драгослав Шумарац, Бранимир Гргур и Томислав
Тришовић

«ПРОНАЛАЗАШТВО – БЕОГРАД 2008»

Број: 010-08

Београд / Belgrade
09. 05. 2008.



Председник / President
Мр. Ђуро Борак дипл. инж. маш.
[Handwritten signature of Djuro Borak]





ПРИВРЕДНА КОМОРА БЕОГРАДА

ДОДЕЉУЈЕ

Годишњу награду

др ТОМИСЛАВУ ТРИШОВИЋУ, дипл. инж. технологије

ИНСТИТУТ ТЕХНИЧКИХ НАУКА САНУ

за проналазак

ЕЛЕКТРОХЕМИЈСКИ УРЕЂАЈ ЗА ПРОИЗВОДЊУ И ДОЗИРАЊЕ
ДЕЗИНФЕКЦИОНИХ СРЕДСТАВА

остварен у 2004/2005. години

Председник жирија

др Зоран Радовић

Београд,

Председник
Привредне коморе Београда





Савез проналазача и аутора техничких унапређења Београда

Belgrade Association of Inventors and Authors of Technical Improvements
Award Golden Plaque

ЗЛАТНА ПЛАКЕТА

Лидија Рафаиловић, дипл. физ. хем., проф. др Мирослав
Спасојевић, дипл. инж., проф. др Бранимир Гргур, дипл.
инж., доцент др Томислав Тришовић, дипл. инж.

за проналазак

**УРЕЂАЈ ЗА ИСТОВРЕМЕНУ ПРОИЗВОДЊУ И
ДОЗИРАЊЕ СРЕДСТАВА ЗА ДЕЗИНФЕКЦИЈУ
ИНДУСТРИЈСКОГ КАПАЦИТЕТА**

ИЗЛОЖБА «ПРОНАЛАЗАШТВО – БЕОГРАД 2006»

Број: 039-06

Београд / Belgrade

02. 06. 2006.



Председник / President

Mr. Ђуро Борак, дипл. маш. инж.



Савез проналазача и аутора техничких унапређења Београда

Belgrade Association of Inventors and Authors of Technical Improvements
Award Special Recognition

СПЕЦИЈАЛНО ПРИЗНАЊЕ

СА ЗЛАТНОМ МЕДАЉОМ САВЕЗА ПРОНАЛАЗАЧА БЕОГРАДА
ИНСТИТУТ ТЕХНИЧКИХ НАУКА САНУ
за нове технологије

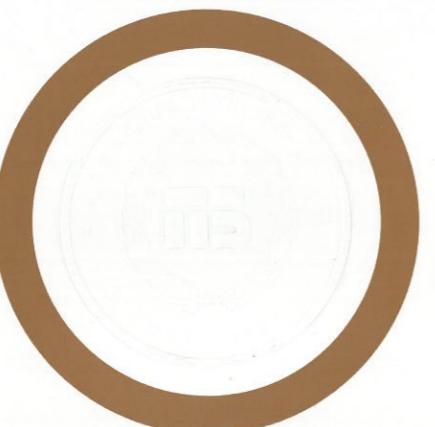
МУЛТИФУНКЦИОНАЛНА ЕЛЕКТРОХЕМИЈСКА ЂЕЛИЈА
И

УРЕЂАЈ ЗА ЕЛЕКТРОХЕМИЈСКУ ПРОИЗВОДЊУ
АКТИВНОГ ХЛОРА СА ЦЕВНИМ РЕАКТОРОМ И
ПОДХЛАЂИВАЊЕМ РЕАКЦИОНОГ РАСТВОРА

Аутори: Лидија Рафаиловић, Драгослав Шумарац, Бранимир Гргор и Томислав
Тришовић

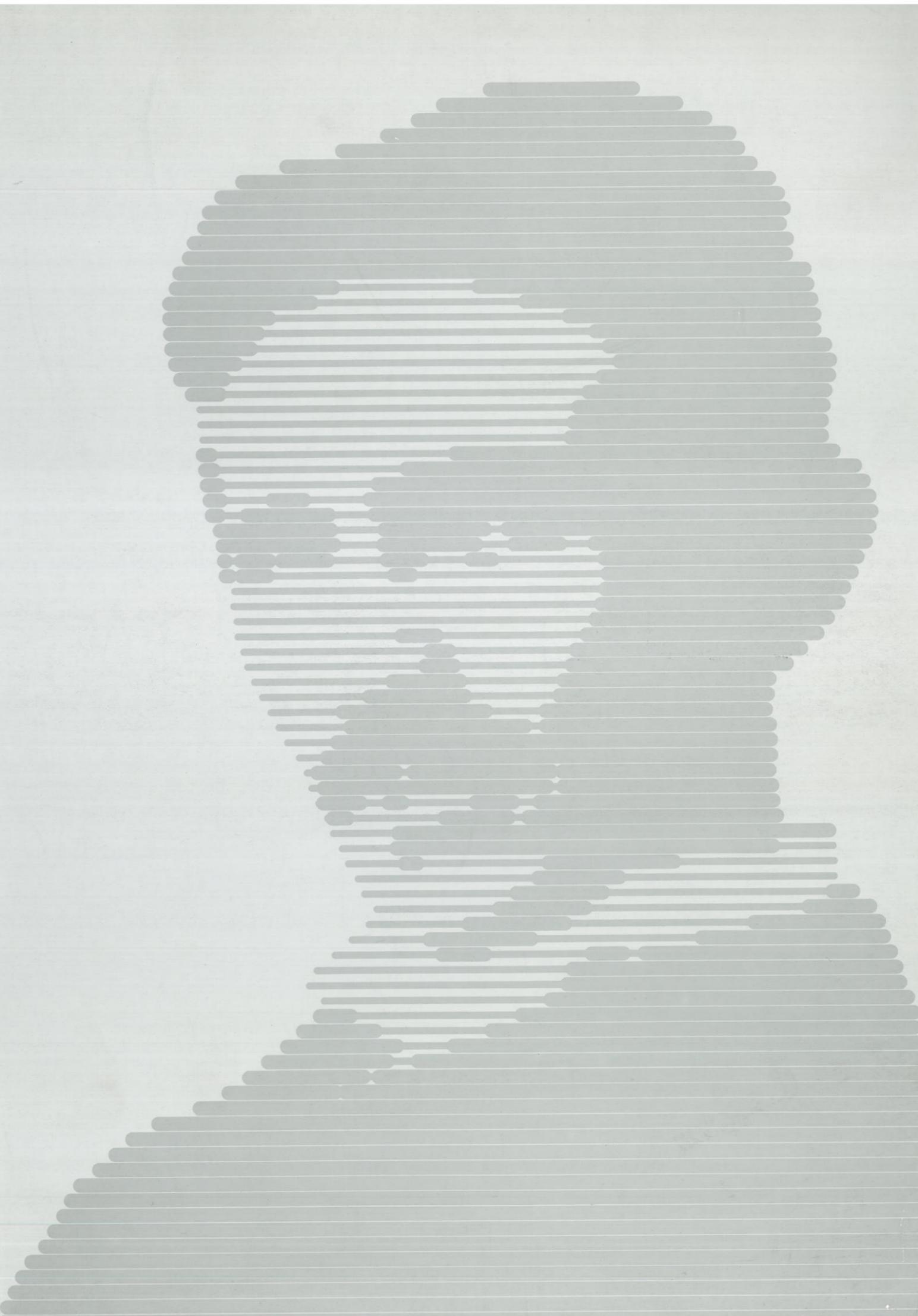
«ПРОНАЛАЗАШТВО – БЕОГРАД 2008»

Број: 010-08
Београд / Belgrade
09. 05. 2008.



Председник / President

Мр. Ђуро Борак, дипл. инж. маш.



КЊИЖЕВНОСТ

МУЗИКА

ЛИКОВНО
СТВАРАЛАШТВО

НОВИНАРСТВО

ДРУШТВЕНЕ
НАУКЕ

ПРОНАЛАЗАШТВО

ОБРАЗОВАЊЕ

ПОЗОРИШТЕ

ФИЛМ

МЕДИЦИНА

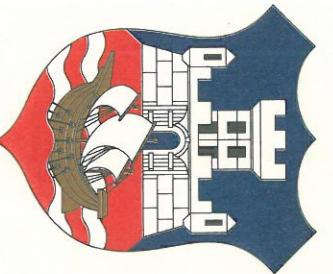
СПОРТ

ПРИРОДНЕ
НАУКЕ

АРХИТЕКТУРА

СТВАРАЛАШТВО
МЛАДИМ

Скупштина града Београда



Пријатељи града Београда

За област науке - проналазаштва за 2004. год.

др. Ђорђани Гајић-Крстаджић
проф. др. Надежда Томиславу Тришовић

април
~878~

У Београду
17. април 2005. године

Београд

Градоначелник

Скупштина града Београда

Градоначелник
Скупштина града Београда

Председник Скупштине
града Београда

Председник Комисије
Скупштине града Београда



ПРИВРЕДНА КОМОРА БЕОГРАДА

11000 Београд, Кнеза Милоша 12
телефон: 381 011/ 641-355; факс: 642-029
интернет: www.kombeg.org.yu
ПИБ: 100045959

Наш знак: 01-54/1

Ваш знак:

Београд, 13.01.2006.

Поштовани гospодине Trišoviću,

Zadovoljstvo nam je da Vas obavestimo da je Žiri za dodelu godišnjih nagrada Privredne komore Beograda za najbolje pronalaske, tehnička unapređenja i dizajnerska rešenja, doneo odluku da Vam dodeli Godišnju nagradu Privredne komore Beograda za pronalazak «ELEKTROHEMIJSKI UREĐAJ ZA PROIZVODNJU I DOZIRANJE DEZINFEKCIIONIH SREDSTAVA».

O datumu uруčenja diplome i novčane nagrade bićete blagovremeno obavešteni.

Čestitamo Vam na dobijenoj nagradi i želimo sve najbolje u Novoj godini.

Prilog:

-Odluka Žirija



PREDSEDNIK
ПРИВРЕДНЕ КОМОРЕ БЕОГРАДА

Milan Janković



Савез проналазача и аутора техничких унапређења Београда

Belgrade Association of Inventors and Authors of Technical Improvements
Award Gold Medal with Nicola Tesla's Face

ЗЛАТНА МЕДАЉА

СА ЛИКОМ НИКОЛЕ ТЕСЛЕ

ТЕХНОЛОШКО МЕТАЛУРШКИ ФАКУЛТЕТ из Београда

Проф. др Бранимиру Гргуру, Горану Бабићу и др Томиславу Тришовићу
за област нових технологија

ПОСТУПАК ЗА ЕЛЕКТРОХЕМИЈСКУ ПРОИЗВОДЊУ

ПОВИДОН - ЈОДА

«ПРОНАЛАЗАШТВО – БЕОГРАД 2009»

Број 085-09

Београд / Belgrade

22. маја 2009.



Председник / President
мр Ђуро Ворак, дипл. маш. инж.



Савез проналазача и аутора техничких унапређења Београда

Belgrade Association of Inventors and Authors of Technical Improvements
Award Silver Medal with Nicola Tesla's Face

СРЕБРНА МЕДАЛЯ

СА ЛИКОМ НИКОЛЕ ТЕСЛЕ

За изложби "ПРОНАЛАЗАШТВО - БЕОГРАД 2004"

ЗА ПРОНАЛАЗАК

УРЕЂАЈ ЗА ЕЛЕКТРОХЕМИЈСКУ ПРОИЗВОДЊУ АКТИВНОГ ХЛОРА

НА ИЗЛОЖБИ «ПРОНАЛАЗАШТВО - БЕОГРАД 2004»

Број: 083/04
Београд / Belgrade
21. 05. 2004.

Председник / President

Мр. Ђуро Ђорак, дипл. маш. инж.





Савез проналазача и аутора техничких унапређења Београда

Belgrade Association of Inventors and Authors of Technical Improvements
Award Bronze Medal with Nicola Tesla's Face

БРОНЗАНА МЕДАЛЯ

СА ЛИКОМ НИКОЛЕ ТЕСЛЕ

Медаља са ликом Николе Тесле

У ОБЛАСТИ НОВИХ ТЕХНОЛОГИЈА

УНИВЕРЗАЛНИ УРЕЂАЈ ЗА ЕЛЕКТРОХЕМИЈСКУ СИНТЕЗУ
СА МОДУЛАРНИМ РЕАКТОРИМА ПРОТОЧНОГ ТИПА

НА ИЗЛОЖБИ «ПРОНАЛАЗАШТВО - БЕОГРАД 2007»

Број: 001
Београд / Belgrade
01. 06. 2007.

Мр. Ђурај Борак, дипл. маш. инж.

Председник / President





Савез проналазача и аутора техничких унапређења Београда

Belgrade Association of Inventors and Authors of Technical Improvements
Award Gold Medal with Nicola Tesla's Face

ЗЛАТНА МЕДАЉА

СА ЛИКОМ НИКОЛЕ ТЕСЛЕ

М. Гвозденовић, Б. Гргур, Ј. Рафаиловић, Б. Југовић, С.

Пашалић, Т. Тришовић

ИНСТИТУТ ТЕХНИЧКИХ НАУКА – САНУ

из области новых технологий за

АУТОМАТСКИ УРЕЂАЈ ЗА ТРЕТМАН ВОДА У ХИДРОМАСАЖНИМ КАДАМА
И БАЗЕНИМА СА ВИШЕСТЕПЕНИМ РЕВЕРЗНИМ СТРУЈНИМ
РЕЖИМИМА

«ПРОНАЛАЗАШТВО – БЕОГРАД 2011»

Број 72-11
Београд / Belgrade
27. маја 2011.

Председник / President

Мр Ђуро Борак, дипл. маш. инж.



Drugi mednarodni sejem inovacij v Sloveniji

**2nd International Exhibition of Inventions
in Slovenia**

organized by Inovatorski center ASI

Ljubljana, May 17 to 18, 2010

GOLD PRIZE

is hereby awarded to

dr. TOMISLAV TRIŠOVIĆ

for the invention

**AUTOMATIC DEVICE FOR PHOTOCATALYTICAL AND
ELECTROCHEMICAL DRINKING WATER TREATMENT**

Ljubljana, May 18, 2010

Tomaž Pevc,
director



Prvi mednarodni inovacijski sejem v Sloveniji

**1st International Exhibition of Inventions
in Slovenia**

Organizator / organized by: Inovatorski center ASI

Celje, 9.-16. september / September 9 to 16, 2009

SREBRNA MEDALJA SILVER PRIZE

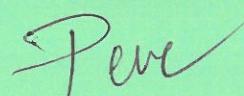
Prejme jo inovator
is hereby awarded to
dr. Tomislav Trišović

za inovacijo
for the invention

**MULTIFUNKCIJSKA NAPRAVA ZA FIZIKALNO-
KEMIČNO OBDELAVO VODE**

Celje, 15.9.2009

Tomaž Pevc,
direktor ASI





DIPLOMA

THIS DOCUMENT IS TO CERTIFY THAT

Dr. T. Trišović

IS AWARDED THE ASSOCIATION OF HUNGARIAN INVENTORS'

GENIUS MEDAL

FOR THE INVENTION

*Automatic device for photocatalytical and
electrochemical drinking water treatment*

2ND INTERNATIONAL INVENTION EXHIBITION – LJUBLJANA

ON THIS 18TH DAY OF MAY IN THE YEAR OF 2010



GYÖRGY GÁL
MEMBER OF PRESIDIUM





ДИПЛОМ

Министерство образования и науки
Российской Федерации

награждает

**Ph.D.Tomislav Trišović, M.Sc. Goran Babić
Prof Ph.D.Branimir Grgur, Prof. Ph.D. Hans
Peter Karnthaler, M. Sci. Lidiya Rafailović**

за высокий научно-технический уровень
разработки, представленной на
Международной выставке изобретений "GENIUS"

г. Будапешт, Венгрия, ноябрь 2007 г.

Заместитель Министра образования
и науки Российской Федерации

Фридлянов В.Н.

THE GENIUS - BUDAPEST - THE INNOVATION BRIDGEHEAD



DIPLOMA

This document is to certify that during the
GENIUS-BUDAPEST International Inventions
Fair out of 300 items from 20 countries

Lidija Rafailovic, Dr. Miroslav Spasojevic,
Dr. Branimir Grgur, Dr. Tomislav Trisovic

SYSTEM FOR ELECTROCHEMICAL PRODUCTION AND
DOSING ACTIVE CHLORINE HIGH CAPACITY

is awarded this prestigious

GENIUS MEDAL

On the 11th day of September in the year of 2006
Budapest, Hungary


Dr. Szántay Csaba
President




Dr. Vedres András
Secretary General



**4. međunarodna izložba inovacija,
novih ideja,
proizvoda i tehnologija**

dodjeljuje se

**POSEBNO
PRIZNANJE**

Trisovic T. dr. et al

**Modular eletrochemical
generator**

Zagreb, rujan 2006.

Predsjednik Udruge inovatora Hrvatske
dr. sc. Stanislav Čajavec

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "S. Čajec".



Савез проналазача и аутора техничких унапређења Београда

Belgrade Association of Inventors and Authors of Technical Improvements
Award Gold Medal with Nicola Tesla's Face

ЗЛАТНА МЕДАЉА

СА ЛИКОМ НИКОЛЕ ТЕСЛЕ

д/р *Петар Јелић*

ЗА ПРОНАЛАЗАК

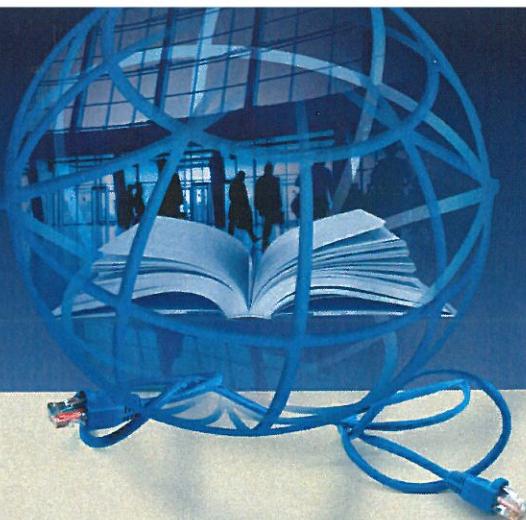
МОДУЛАРНИ ПРОТОЧНИ ЕЛЕКТРОХЕМИЈСКИ РЕАКТОР

НА ИЗЛОЖБИ «ПРОНАЛАЗШТВО - БЕОГРАД 2005»

Број: 086/05
Београд / Belgrade
27. 05. 2005.

Председник / President
Петар Јелић
Мр. Ђуро Борак, дипл. маш. инж.





POSLOVNO-TEHNOLOŠKI INKUBATOR
TEHNIČKIH FAKULTETA BEOGRAD

POVODOM PET GODINA USPEŠNOG RADA

D O D E L J U J E

*Paketu
za*

**Uspešan transfer znanja iz istraživanja
i pokretanje proizvodnje**

AQUA Crystal d.o.o.

Beograd, 17.12.2012.godine

Gordana Đanić Grković



СПАТУМ



UIATIM

Сојузот на пронаоѓачите и авторите на техничките унапредувања на
Македонија

Доделува:

ЗЛАТЕН МЕДАЛ

На

д-р ТОМИСЛАВ ТРИШКОВИЌ
Институт техничких наука САНУ
Београд

на 25-та Интернационална изложба на пронајдоци, технички унапредувања,
нови производи и творештво на млади

“МАКИНОВА 2005“

1980



2005

за пронајдоцот:

*Електрохемиски уред за производство
на активен хлор*

Скопје, 18-23.10.2005 г.



Претседател
проф. д-р Мито Златаноски



Савез проналазача и аутора техничких унапређења Београда

Belgrade Association of Inventors and Authors of Technical Improvements
Award Gold Medal with Nicola Tesla's Face

ЗЛАТНА МЕДАЛЯ

СА ЛИКОМ НИКОЛЕ ТЕСЛЕ

Аутори: Томислав Тришовић, Бранимир Југовић, Милица

Гвозденовић, Лидија Рафаиловић, Бранимир Гргур,

AQUA CRYSTAL DOO – БЕОГРАД

из области проналазака за

за (for)

СИСТЕМ ЗА АУТОМАТСКУ ДЕЗИНФЕКЦИЈУ ВОДЕ УПРАВЉАН

ПОТЕНЦИОМЕТРИСКОМ ЕЛЕКТОДОМ

'HE SYSTEM FOR AUTOMATIC WATER DISINFECTIONS DRIVEN BY THE
POTENTIOMETER ELECTRODE

,„ПРОНАЛАЗАШТВО – БЕОГРАД 2013“

Број 038-ПВ

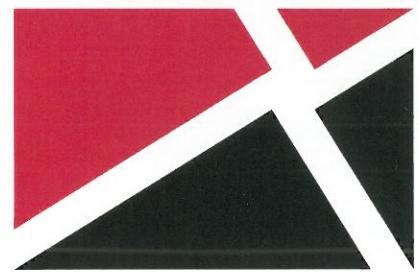
Београд / Belgrade

29. маја 2013.

Председник / President

Мр Ђујић
Ворак, дипл. инж. инд.





Poslovna
Savršenost

Cerfificate

Tomislav Trišović

pohađao/la je i uspešno završio/la kurs

Marketing na internetu

U Beogradu 27.09.2013. godine

Прилог 2: Рецензије пројекта за Министарство просвете науке и технолошког развоја



Република Србија
МИНИСТАРСТВО ПРОСВЕТЕ
И НАУКЕ
Број. 011-00-2/2011-14
Датум: 28.03.2011.
Београд
Немањина 22 26

LETTER OF APPRECIATION

We gratefully acknowledge your contribution to voluntary participate in the evaluation of national Serbian project proposals.

The Ministry of Education and Science (Former Ministry of Science and Technological Development) of the Republic of Serbia launched on May 23rd 2010 a Call for proposals for the new 4-year project cycle in basic research, applied research (technology development) and priority research fields (multidisciplinary integrated research). The proposals were evaluated by international experts during the period July-December 2010. The Ministry will fund 780 projects, out of 878 that applied. The success rate in this call was 89%. In the next four years, 11615 scientists will be supported through the Ministry.

In this process, the support of international evaluators was crucial. The proposals were evaluated by 1585 foreign evaluators. This task had two objectives, to promote atmosphere of competitiveness among Serbian researchers, and to promote Serbian research potential among their colleagues abroad.

We would like to express our gratitude for helping Serbian research community to receive a more objective and international validation of their proposals.

Thank you for committing your time and expertise.

Assistants Minister:

Prof. Dr. Viktor Nedović

State Secretary:

Prof. Dr. Radivoje Mitrović

Prof. Dr. Tibor Sabo

Dr. Radosav Cerović

На основу члана 36. Закона о иновационој делатности ("Службени гласник РС", бр. 110/05), сагласно Правилнику о условима конкурисања, критеријумима за избор реализација пројекта и условима финансирања пројекта или изградње инфраструктуре намењене реализацији иновационих пројекта ("Службени гласник РС", бр. 59/06), на основу Одлуке број 401-00-00006/2010-02 од 01.03.2010. године, а у вези са спровођењем поступка оцењивања предлога иновационих пројекта пријављених на јавни позив објављен дана 10.06.2009. године у дневном листу „Политика“, уговорне стране:

1. **Република Србија - Министарство за науку и технолошки развој, Београд, Немањина 22-26, ПИБ 105002818, матични број: 17693794** (у даљем тексту: Министарство),
2. **Институт техничких наука САНУ, Кнез Михаилова 35/IV, Београд, ПИБ 100039438, матични број: 07011016** у којој су рецензенти запослени/остварили право на пензију (у даљем тексту: Организација),

закључују

УГОВОР

о исплати рецензентима накнаде за оцењивање предлога иновационих пројекта пријављених по јавном позиву објављеном дана 10.06.2009. године у дневном листу „Политика“

Члан 1.

Овим уговором утврђују се међусобна права и обавезе уговорних страна везано за исплату накнаде за оцену предлога иновационих пројекта извршену у периоду од 01.10.2009. до 19.02.2010. године:

1. од стране рецензента Оливере Милошевић за 1 иновациони пројекат;
2. од стране рецензента Томислава Тришовића за 3 иновациони пројеката;
3. од стране рецензента Бранимира Југовића за 1 иновациони пројекат;

Члан 2.

За оцењивање предлога иновационих пројекта наведених у члану 1. овог Уговора, одређени су оцењивачи Оливера Милошевић, Томислав Тришовић и Бранимир Југовић који су запослени/пензионери код Организације.

За рецензију сваког од иновационих пројекта наведених у члану 1. Министарство уплаћује:

- 2.1. рецензенту Оливери Милошевић накнаду у износу од по 6.000,00 динара нето по извршеној рецензији, што чини укупно 6.000,00 динара за уплату рецензенту ;
- 2.2. рецензенту Томиславу Тришовићу накнаду у износу од по 6.000,00 динара нето по извршеној рецензији, што чини укупно 18.000,00 динара за уплату рецензенту ;
- 2.3. рецензенту Бранимиру Југовићу накнаду у износу од по 6.000,00 динара нето по извршеној рецензији, што чини укупно 6.000,00 динара за уплату рецензенту ;

Укупан износ накнаде на име извршених рецензија од стране горе наведених рецензената износи 45.180,00 динара бруто, од ког ће износа Организација, у року од седам дана од дана пријема уплате Министарства, исплатити рецензенте у укупном износу као у ставу 2. овог члана, а након уплате:

- пореза на доходак грађана (20%),
- доприноса за ПИО на терет примаоца прихода (22%), и
- нормираних трошкова (20%).

Члан 3.

На овај Уговор се примењују одредбе Закона о облигационим односима.
За евентуалне спорове по овом Уговору надлежан је Привредни суд у Београду.

Члан 4.

Овај Уговор је сачињен у 7 (седам) истоветних примерака, од којих три за Министарство, а по један за Организацију и оцењиваче пројекта.

У Београду, 01.04.2010. године
Евиденциони број уговора: 401-00-00006/2010-02-43

УГОВОРНЕ СТРАНЕ:

1) за Министарство
по означењу

Проф. др Милош Недељковић

2) за Организацију

Проф. др Драгољуб Ускоковић

МИНИСТИР ТЕХНИЧКИХ НАУКА
СРПСКЕ АКАДЕМИЈЕ НАУКА И УМЕСТВА

Бр. 226/1

30.04. 2010. год.

Кнез Михајлова 35/IV, Београд В/Ф 315
Тел. 633-554, 185-457; Факс. 185-263

УНИВЕРЗИТЕТ У КРАГУЈЕВЦУ
ТЕХНИЧКИ ФАКУЛТЕТ
Број LXIV - 916/16
5. 05. 2010. год.
ЧАЧАК

На основу члана 77. Статута Техничког факултета, чл. 20. Правилника о уџбеницима и другим наставним публикацијама бр. ХХIV-1600/15 од 9. јула 2008. год., на предлог Катедре за мехатронику бр. 923. од 4. маја 2010. год., Наставно-научно веће, на седници одржаној 5. маја 2010. год., донело је

ОДЛУКУ о именовању рецензената

Именују се рецензенти за техничко решење под називом "Побољшана технологија за сушење воћа и поврћа енергетске ефикасности и заштите животне средине", а настало је као резултат рада на пројекту "Развој и примена логистичких система за коришћење биомаса и отпадног дрвета као енергената у домаћинствима у индустрији", чији је аутор др Срећко Ђурчић, ванр. проф., Технички факултет, Чачак, у следећем саставу:

1. Др Радомир Стевановић, доцент, Агрономски факултет, Чачак, научна област: Инжењерски процеси,
 2. Др Томислав Тришовић, доцент, Агрономски факултет, Чачак, научна област: Инжењерски процеси.

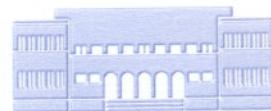
Доставити:

- именованима,
 - аутору,
 - архиви НВ.

ДЕКАН
ТЕХНИЧКОГ ФАКУЛТЕТА

Проф. др Јерослав М. Живанић, дипл. инж. ел.





INSTITUT ZA VOĆARSTVO – ČAČAK

FRUIT RESEARCH INSTITUTE – ČAČAK

На основу члана 59 Закона о научноистраживачкој делатности (Сл. Гласник РС бр. 110/05), члана 36 Статута Института и Правилника о поступку и начину вредновања, и квантитативном исказивању научноистраживачких резултата истраживача (Сл. Гласник бр. 38/2008) – Прилог 2, Научно веће Института за воћарство на редовној 22. седници од 1. 03. 2010. године је донело следећу

ОДЛУКУ

ПОКРЕЋЕ СЕ поступак верификације научноистраживачког резултата оствареног на Пројекту Министарства за науку и технолошки развој РС, ТР - 20013А – *Стварање и проучавање нових генотипова воћака и увођење савремених биотехнологија гајења и прераде воћа: „Вишеслојан прострујни модел за испитивање процеса сушења воћа - шљиве“*, у оквиру категорије *Ново експериментално постројење* (М83).

За евалуацију резултата предлажу се рецензенти-експерти:

1. доц. др Томислав Тришовић
2. доц. др Радомир Стевановић

в. д. председника Научног већа

др Ђурђина Ружић

Ruzica Djordjevic



Достављено:

- Ауторима резултата,
- Рецензентима,
- Архиви НВ.

Прилог 3: Чланство у комисијама за дипломске и мастер радове

УНИВЕРЗИТЕТ У КРАГУЈЕВЦУ
АГРОНОМСКИ ФАКУЛТЕТ У ЧАЧКУ
Дана 03.10.2014. године

Списак студената основних академских студија код којих је др Томислав Тришовић био ментор дипломског (завршног) рада

Студент	Наслов рада	Датум одбране
1. Марија С. Чворовић	«Технологија производње и смрзавања домаћих пита у хладњачи Моравица»	12.11.2007. год.
2. Јасмина М. Јовановић	«Технологија производње и смрзавања пецива у хладњачи-Моравица»	05.05.2008. год.
3. Даница М. Попадић	«Индустријски начин производње замрзнутог теста»	26.04.2013. год

Списак студената основних академских студија код којих је др Томислав Тришовић био члан Комисије за одбрану завршног рада

Студент	Наслов рада	Датум одбране
1. Миљојка Д. Мијаиловић	«Производња дестилата шљиве као основе за ракију шљивовицу»	23.09.2013. год.
2. Слађана Д. Новитовић	«Ефекат технолошких параметара на садржај HCN у дестилату шљиве Пожегаче»	31.03.2014. год.



30.09.2014.

ZAPISNIK

O ODRŽANOJ JAVNOJ ODBRANI

MAGISTARSKE TEZE

Dana 13.05.2008. održana je javna odbrana magistarske teze magistranta **ALEKSANDRE B. PETROVIĆ**, dipl. inž. pod nazivom: „**UTICAJ GVOŽĐA NA ELEKTROHEMIJSKE KARAKTERISTIKE NIKAL-OKSIDNE ELEKTRODE KADMIJUM/NIKAL-OKSID AKUMULATORA**“.

Po zaključenju javne odbrane utvrđuje se da je **ALEKSANDRA (Borivoje) PETROVIĆ**, dipl. inž. odbranila magistarsku tezu.

Beograd, 13.05.2008.

KOMISIJA

1. Dr Branimir Grgur, van. prof. TMF

2. Dr Miodrag Maksimović, red. prof. TMF

3. Dr Snežana Gojković, red. prof. TMF

4. Dr Tomislav Trišović, naučni saradnik

ITN-SANU, Beograd

Прилог 4: Потврда о учешћу у комисији за одбрану докторске дисертације

Z A P I S N I K

sa odbrane doktorske disertacije Mr BRANIMIRA JUGOVIĆA

Komisija za odbranu doktorske disertacije Mr Branimira Jugovića odredjena na sednici Nastavno-naučnog veća Tehnološko-metalurškog fakulteta u Beogradu održanoj dana 17.07.2008. godine u sastavu:

1. Dr Branimir Grgur, van. prof. TMF
2. Dr Miodrag Maksimović, red. prof. TMF
3. Dr Jasmina Stevanović, naučni savetnik IHTM, Beograd
4. Dr Tomislav Trišović, naučni saradnik ITN-SANU, Beograd

sastala se na dan 25.12.2008. godine u 16,00 sati i konstatovala sledeće:

1. Na temu koju je predložilo NNV TMF-a na svojoj sednici od 21.10.2005. godine Veće naučnih oblasti Univerziteta je dalo saglasnost na sednici od 26.01.2006. godine čime je Mr Branimiru Jugoviću odobrena izrada doktorske disertacije pod nazivom:

„ELEKTROHEMIJSKI IZVORI ENERGIJE SISTEMA METAL|ELEKTRONIČKI POLIMER NA BAZI VODENIH RASTVORA“

2. Veće Tehnološko-metalurškog fakulteta na sednici od 17.07.2008. godine imenovalo je Komisiju za ocenu i odbranu doktorske disertacije Mr Branimira Jugovića u sastavu:

1. Dr Branimir Grgur, van. prof. TMF
2. Dr Miodrag Maksimović, red. prof. TMF
3. Dr Jasmina Stevanović, naučni savetnik IHTM, Beograd
4. Dr Tomislav Trišović, naučni saradnik ITN-SANU, Beograd

3. Veće Tehnološko-metalurškog fakulteta na svojoj sednici od 25.09.2008. godine prihvatiло je Izveštaj o oceni doktorske disertacije Mr Branimira Jugovića i donelo odluku da se izveštaj sa primerkom disertacije stavi na uvid javnosti, a po isteku roka od 30 dana, dostavi na saglasnost Veću naučnih oblasti Univerziteta.

4. Veće naučnih oblasti Univerziteta, na sednici održanoj 27.11.2008. godine donelo je odluku kojom se daje saglasnost na izveštaj o uradjenoj doktorskoj disertaciji Mr BRANIMIRA JUGOVIĆA pod nazivom: „**ELEKTROHEMIJSKI IZVORI ENERGIJE SISTEMA
METAL|ELEKTRONIČKI POLIMER NA BAZI VODENIH
RASTVORA**“, čime su se stekli zakonski uslovi da se doktorant pozove na javnu odbranu svoje doktorske disertacije.
Javna odbrana disertacije zakazana je za 25.12.2008. godine u 16,00 sati u Sali za sednice Tehnološko-metalurškog fakulteta.

5. Članovi komisije pred kojom se vrši odbrana disertacije odlučili su da odbrani predsedava Dr Branimir Grgur

Predsednik Komisije, Dr Branimir Grgur u zakazano vreme otvorio je sednicu, izneo biografske podatke o doktorantu i njegovoj dosadašnjoj naučnoj i stručnoj delatnosti, pročitao spisak objavljenih i saopštenih radova kao i odluke Veća Tehnološko-metalurškog fakulteta koje su se odnosile na prijavu, ocenu i odbranu disertacije. Zatim je pozvao Mr BRANIMIRA JUGOVIĆA da pristupi izlaganju svoje disertacije.

Doktorant je izneo bitne postavke doktorske disertacije, ciljeve i puteve rešavanja postavljenih problema, izneo do kojih je zaključaka došao na osnovu izvršenih merenja, eksperimentalnih i teorijskih ispitivanja. Na osnovu izvedenih zaključaka doktorant je pokazao da ova doktorska disertacija predstavlja originalan doprinos nauci.

Po završenom izlaganju doktoranta članovi Komisije su izneli svoje ocene disertacije i postavili doktorantu pitanja u vezi sa obrazloženjem i odbranom naučnih postavki iznetih u disertaciji. Na sva postavljena pitanja doktorant je dao konkretne odgovore koje su članovi Komisije u potpunosti prihvatali.

Posle javne odbrane Komisija se povukla da bi razmotrila i prodiskutovala izlaganje doktoranta, odgovore i odbranu disertacije. Razmotrivši sve činjenice, Komisija je donela jednoglasno odluku da je **Mr BRANIMIR JUGOVIĆ** odbranio svoju doktorsku disertaciju sa temom: „**ELEKTROHEMIJSKI IZVORI ENERGIJE SISTEMA METAL|ELEKTRONPROVODNI POLIMER NA BAZI VODENIH RASTVORA**“ i time stekao pravo na promociju u naučni stepen **DOKTORA TEHNIČKIH NAUKA** iz oblasti: **HEMIJA I HEMIJSKA TEHNOLOGIJA**.

Predsednik Komisije **Dr Branimir Grgur** javno je saopštio odluku Komisije pred kojom je doktorant odbranio doktorsku disertaciju i zaključio zasedanje u 17 sati.

U Beogradu, 25.12.2008. godine

ČLANOVI KOMISIJE:

Branimir Grgur
1. Dr Branimir Grgur, van. prof. TME

Miodrag Maksimović
2. Dr Miodrag Maksimović, red. prof. TMF

Jasmina Stevanović
3. Dr Jasmina Stevanović, naučni savetnik IHTM

Tomislav Tršović
4. Dr Tomislav Tršović, naučni saradnik

ITN-SANU

Прилог 5. Доказ о ангажовању на
Агрономском факултету у Чачку
(Универзитет у Крагујевцу)

**УНИВЕРЗИТЕТ У КРАГУЈЕВЦУ
АГРОНОМСКИ ФАКУЛТЕТ
Број: 344/1
Чарак, 23.02.2011.год.**

На основу чл. 65. Закона о високом образовању, чл. 30. и 33. Закона о раду (Сл.гласник РС бр. 24/05 и 61/05), чл. 3. Посебног колективног уговора за високо образовање (Сл.гласник РС 12/09) и чл. 8. Правилника о раду закључује се

УГОВОР О РАДУ

ИЗМЕЂУ

1. Агрономског факултета у Чачку, Универзитета у Крагујевцу, кога заступа декан, проф.др Мирољуб Спасојевић с једне стране и
2. др Томислав Тришовић, са пребивалиштем у Београду, Ул.Миријевски венац бр. 6/22, по занимању доктор техничких наука, с друге стране.

Члан 1.

Уговорне стране констатују да је др Томислав Тришовић, одлуком Стручног већа за техничко-технолошке науке Универзитета у Крагујевцу бр. 28/5 од 12.01.2011.године, изабрана у звање **ванредни професор за ужу научну област: Инжењерски процеси са непуним радним временом од 20%, на период од пет година.**

Члан 2.

Запослени има VIII степен стручне спреме и по занимању је доктор техничких наука.

Члан 3.

Запослени ће обављати послове **ванредни професор за ужу научну област: Инжењерски процеси, утврђене Правилником о систематизацији послова и радних задатака запослених на Агрономском факултету у Чачку.**

Именовани ће обављати послове из става 1. на Агрономском факултету у Чачку, ул.Цара Душана бр.34.

Члан 4.

Избор у звање и заснивање радног односа на одређено време, на период од пет година, за именованог тече од 23.02.2011. год. до 22.02.2016.године.

Члан 5.

Запослена је дужна да ступи на рад дана 23.02.2011.године.

Члан 6.

Запослени заснива радни однос са непуним радним временом, односно са радним временом од 20%, што дневно износи 1,6 часова или 8 часова недељно.

Члан 7.

Запосленом се утврђује основна зарада за послове које обавља у висини од **14.565,20** динара у бруто износу (за 20% радног времена), а обрачунава се по кофицијенту 28,01 утврђеним Уредбом о измени Уредбе о нормативима и стандардима услова рада универзитета и факултета за делатности које се финансирају из буџета (Сл.гласник РС бр. 110/07).

Зараду запосленог чини зарада коју оствари за обављени рад и време проведено на раду, увећана зарада, накнада зараде и остала примања. По основу минулог рада зарада се увећава за 0,4% за сваку навршену годину радног стажа..

Запослени има право на накнаду путних трошкова и право на друга примања у складу са Законом о раду, колективним уговором и Правилником о раду.

Члан 8.

Факултет може запосленом да откаже уговор о раду ако за то постоји оправдани разлог који се односи на радну способност запосленог, његово понешање и потребе Факултета, и то:

1. ако је утврђено да запослени не остварује резултате рада, односно да нема потребна знања и способности за послове на којима ради;

2. ако не поштује радну дисциплину: неоправдано узастопно изостајање са рада 3 радна дана или 5 радних дана са прекидима у току три месеца, закашњава на посао или напушта рад пре краја радног времена, ако је на одсуству или годишњем одмору без решења и др.; односно ако је његово понешање такво да не може да настави рад на Факултету и то: ометање запослених да раде, туча, свађа, долазак на посао у пијаном стању, употреба алкохола за време рада што је довело до пијанства, самовољни прекид рада и др.;

3. ако запослени својом крвицом учини повреду радне обавезе утврђене Правилником о раду, и то:

- неизвршавање или несавесно, неблаговремено и немарно извршавање радних обавеза,
- ако незаконито располаже средствима Факултета,
- ако повреди прописе о заштити од пожара, експлозије, елементарних непогода и других штетних деловања, као и непридржавања мера о безбедности и здрављу на раду,
- ако злоупотреби радну обавезу у намери да за себе или другог прибави имовинску корист веће вредности (преко 30.000 динара), односно свако друго незаконито и неовлашћено понашање са наведеном намером,
- изазивање националне или верске нетрпљивости организовањем студената у политичке сврхе,
- неостваривање наставног плана и програма Факултета,
- одбијање извршавања послова или радних налога декана или продекана, ако за то не постоје оправдани разлоги,
- давање нетачних података, ако је то било од битног утицаја на доношење одлуке на Факултету,
- ако злоупотреби положај и прекорачи овлашћења,
- ако ода пословну, службену или другу тајну утврђену законом или општим актом Факултета,
- ако нецелисходно и неодговорно користи средства рада,
- ако проневери или украде имовину Факултета,
- неовлашћена послуга средствима поверилим запосленом за обављање послова,
- неоправдано неприсуствовање седницама органа Факултета,
 4. ако учини **кривично дело** на раду и у вези са радом;
 5. ако се запослени **не врати на рад** на Факултет у року од 15 дана од дана истека рока за неплаћено одсуство или мировање радног односа у смислу овог Правилника;
 6. ако запослени злоупотреби право на одсуство због привремене спречености за рад;
 7. ако запослени **одбије закључивање анекса уговора о раду**, у случајевима прописаним законом,
 8. ако услед **технолошких, економских** или организационих промена престане потреба за обављањем одређеног посла или дође до смањења обима посла.

Члан 9.

Послодавац је дужан да обезбеди безбедност и заштиту здравља на раду у складу за Законом о раду, другим законом и општим актом.

Запослени је дужан да се придржава прописаних мера заштите на раду.

Члан 10

Послодавац се обавезује да благовремено уплаћује доприносе за пензијско, инвалидско и здравствено осигурање у складу са Законом.

Члан 11.

Запослени и послодавац прихватају да се на сва права, обавезе и одговорности која нису утврђена овим Уговором, примењују одговарајуће одредбе Закона о раду, колективног уговора и Правилника о раду.

Члан 12.

Послодавац је дужан да запосленом у случају повреде на раду или штете на раду или у вези са радом, надокнади штету у складу са одредбама Закона.

Члан 13.

Свака од уговорних страна може да откаже овај Уговор под условима и у случајевима утврђеним Законом и општим актом.

Члан 14..

Овај Уговор сачињен је у 4 истоветна примерка од којих свака уговорна страна задржава по 2 примерка.

У Чачку, дана 23.02.2011.г

ЗАПОСЛЕНИ
Проф.др Миромир Спасојевић
Ф.И.О.
Миромир Спасојевић
Ф.И.О.
Миромир Спасојевић
Ф.И.О.
Миромир Спасојевић
Ф.И.О.
Миромир Спасојевић
Ф.И.О.



Прилог 6. Педагошки рад



Цара Душана 34, 32000 Чачак, Србија

Cara Dušana 34, 32000 Čačak, Serbia

Тел/Tel: +381 32/30 34 00 или/or +381 32/30 34 10 Fax: +381 32/30 34 01 www.afc.kg.ac.rs, afdekanat@kg.ac.rs

Датум 10.10.2014. године

Број 2229/1

Потврда

којом се потврђује да је др Томислав Тришовић дизајнирао пет апаратура за експерименталне вежбе из Термодинамике и Технологије хлађења. То су:

1. Апаратура за мерење хидростатичког притиска,
2. Апаратура за производњу дезинфекцијенса – активног хлора,
3. Апаратура за одређивање заптивености коморе,
4. Апаратура за демонстрацију основних елемената расхладне инсталације,
5. Апаратура за мерење влажности ваздуха.

Потврда се издаје на лични захтев као доказ о реализованим активностима.

С поштовањем,

Агрономски факултет у Чачку
Декан

проф. др Владета Стевовић



Владета Стевовић

Прилог 7: Билатерални пројекат

	A	B	C	D	E
1		PRILOG 2/PRILOGA 2			
2		Odobreni projekti izmedju Republike Srbije i Republike Slovenije za 2012-2013 Sprejeti projekti med Republiko Slovenijo in Republiko Srbijo v letih 2012-2013			
3		Naslov projekta v slovenščini	Naslov projekta na srpskom jeziku	Evidencijski broj projekta	Naziv raziskovalne organizacije v Sloveniji
4	1	Ohranjevalci, različne operatorske in matrične enačbe ter njihova uporaba	Očuvanja i razne operatorske i matrične jednačine sa primenama	451-03-1251/2012-09/01	Inštitut za matematiko, fiziko in mehaniko
5	2	Srčna funkcija in natriuretični peptidi pri bolnikih z akutnim poslabšanjem KOPB	Srčana funkcija i natriuretski peptidi u bolesnika sa akutnim pogoršanjem hronične opstruktivne bolesti pluća	451-03-1251/2012-09/02	Bolnišnica Golnik, Klinični oddelok za pljučne bolezni in alergijo
6	3	Spektroskopija in hitra senčna fotografija lasersko povzročene plazme	Spektroskopija i brza fotografija senke laserski uzrokovane plazme	451-03-1251/2012-09/03	Univerza v Ljubljani, Fakulteta za strojništvo
7	4	Ideje o Evropi in evropeizaciji v primerjalni perspektivi: Slovenija in Srbija	Ideje o Evropi i evropeizaciji u komparativnoj perspektivi: Slovenija i Srbija	451-03-1251/2012-09/04	Znanstvenoraziskovalni center Slovenske akademije znanosti in umetnosti
8	5	Visoko energijski ortosilikatni katodni materiali za litijeve ionske akumulatorje	Visoko energijski ortosilikatni katodni materijali za litijum jonske	451-03-1251/2012-09/05	Kemijski inštitut
9	6	Oblikovanje nanostrukturiranih multifunkcionalnih in sintranih funkcionalno gradientnih električnih in bioloških materialov	Nanostruktorno dizajniranje višefunkcionalnih i sinterovanih funkcionalno gradijentnih električnih i bioloških materijala	451-03-1251/2012-09/06	Institut "Jožef Stefan"
10	7	Umetnostna izmenjava in ustvarjanje jugoslovenske identitete v vizualni kulturi 1848-1990: Srbija-Slovenija/Slovenija-Srbija	Umetnička razmena i kreiranje jugoslovenskog identiteta u vizuelnoj kulturi od 1848-1990: Srbija-Slovenija/Slovenija-Srbija	451-03-1251/2012-09/07	Znanstvenoraziskovalni center Slovenske akademije znanosti in umetnosti
11	8	Radonski indeks v zdraviliščih in speleoterapevtskih centrih v Sloveniji in Srbiji	Radonski indeks pojedinih banjskih lečilišta i speleološko-terapijskih centra u Sloveniji i Srbiji	451-03-1251/2012-09/08	Institut "Jožef Stefan"
12	9	Narečna leksika srbskega in slovenskega jezika - komparativni aspekt	Dijalekatska leksika srpskog i slovenačkog jezika – komparativni aspekt	451-03-1251/2012-09/09	Znanstvenoraziskovalni center Slovenske akademije znanosti in umetnosti
13	10	Uporaba umetne inteligence pri trajnostnem razvoju obdelovalnih postopkov	Primena veštačke inteligencije u održivom razvoju	451-03-1251/2012-09/10	Univerza v Ljubljani, Fakulteta za strojništvo
14	11	Sistem evalvacije vernakularne arhitekture JV Evrope: sistem, dokumentiranje, znanstvena	Sistem evaluacije vernakularne arhitekture na teritoriji jugoistočne Evrope Sistematisacija,	451-03-1251/2012-09/11	Univerza v Ljubljani, Fakulteta za arhitekturo
15	12	Raziskovanje regionalne strukture slovenskih in srbskih obmejnih območij s Hrvaško in Madžarsko	Istraživanje regionalne strukture pograničnih područja Slovenije i Srbije prema Hrvatskoj i Mađarskoj	451-03-1251/2012-09/12	Univerza v Ljubljani, Filozofska fakulteta
16	13	Jadransko-balkanska regionalna povezava: blaženje ogroženosti družbe in okolja s plazenjem tal.	Mreža zemalja Adria-Balkan regiona: Smanjenje rizika od klizišta i uticaja na društvo i okolinu	451-03-1251/2012-09/13	Univerza v Ljubljani, Fakulteta za gradbeništvo in geodezijo
17	14	Problematika raziskovanja, soočenja in vrednotenja komunistične zapuščine / Izkušnja Slovenije in Srbije	Problematika raziskovanja, soočenja in vrednotenja komunistične zapuščine / Izkušnja Slovenije in Srbije	451-03-1251/2012-09/14	Univerza v Ljubljani, Filozofska fakulteta
18	15	Antioksidativni in antiapoptotični učinek ekstrakta borovnic (Vaccinium myrtillus L.): in vivo ter in vitro	Anti –oksidativni i anti-apoptični efekat ekstrakta borovnice (Vaccinium myrtillus L.): in vivo i in vitro	451-03-1251/2012-09/15	Univerza v Ljubljani, Biotehniška fakulteta
19	16	Potencialni zdravstveni učinki funkcionalne hrane na bazi depurizirane sirotke	Potencialni zdravstveni benefit funkcionalne hrane bazirane na depurinizovanoj surutki	451-03-1251/2012-09/16	Univerza v Mariboru, Medicinska fakulteta

	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P
1											
2											
3	Ime in priimek odgovornega raziskovalca v Sloveniji	Ime i prezime rukovodioca projekta u Srbiji	Naziv institucije u Srbiji	Sredstva v Sloveniji v letu 2012 (EUR)	Sredstva u Srbiji za godinu 2012	Sredstva v Sloveniji v letu 2013 (EUR)	Sredstva u Srbiji za godinu 2013				
4	Peter Šemrl	Dragan S. Djordjević	Prirodno-matematički fakultet, Univerzitet u Nišu	1500	1500	1500	1500				
5	Mitja Lainščak	Aleksandar N. Nesković	Klinički centar u Zemunu	1500	1500	1500	1500				
6	Janez Možina	Marinković Bratislav	Institut za fiziku, Zemun	1500	1500	1500	1500				
7	Tanja Petrović	Ildiko Erdei	Filozofski fakultet, Univerzitet Beograd	1500	1500	1500	1500				
8	Robert Dominko	Dragana Jugović	Institut tehničkih nauka SANU, Beograd	1500	1500	1500	1500				
9	Srećo Davor Škapin	Smilja Marković	Institut tehničkih nauka SANU, Beograd	1500	1500	1500	1500				
10	Barbara Murovec	Nenad Makuljević	Filozofski fakultet, Univerzitet Beograd	1500	1500	1500	1500				
11	Janja Vaupotić	Zora S. Žunić	Institut za nuklearne nauke "Vinča"	1500	1500	1500	1500				
12	Metka Furlan	Jasna Vlajić Popović	Institut za srpski jezik SANU, Beograd	1500	1500	1500	1500				
13	Janez Kopač	Milenko Sekulić	Fakultet tehničkih nauka, Univerzitet Novi Sad	1500	1500	1500	1500				
14	Borut Juvanec	Biljana Arandjelović	Gradjevnsko-arhitektonski fakultet, Univerzitet Niš	1500	1500	1500	1500				
15	Jernej Zupančič	Lazar Lazić	Prirodno-matematički fakultet, Univerzitet Novi Sad	1500	1500	1500	1500				
16	Matjaž Mikoš	Biljana Abolmasov	Rudarsko-geološki fakultet, Univerzitet Beograd	1500	1500	1500	1500				
17	Mitja Ferenc	Momčilo Pavlović	Institut za savremenu istoriju, Beograd	1500	1500	1500	1500				
18	Nataša Poklar Ulrich	Dušan Sokolović	Medicinski fakultet, Univerzitet Niš	1500	1500	1500	1500				
19	Avrelija Cencic	Gordana Kocić	Medicinski fakultet, Univerzitet Niš	1500	1500	1500	1500				

A	B	C	D	E
20	17 Mikrostruktурне preiskave materialov za shranjevanje vodika v korelacijski z desporočskimi lastnostmi	Ispitivanje mikrostrukture materijala za skladištenje vodonika i korelacija sa desorpcionim osobinama	451-03-1251/2012-09/17	Institut "Jožef Stefan"
21	18 Vloga neopipljivega kapitala za gospodarsko rast in prestrukturiranje v državah Zahodnega Balkana in Sloveniji	Uloga neopipljivog kapitala za privredni rast u perspektivi država zapadnog balkana i Slovenije	451-03-1251/2012-09/18	Univerza v Ljubljani, Ekonomski fakulteta
22	19 Minerali kot prekursorji za napredne tehnologije	Minerali kao prekursori za savremene tehnologije	451-03-1251/2012-09/19	Institut "Jožef Stefan"
23	20 Avtomatizirana fotokemična naprava z elektrokemičnim generatorjem za dezinfekcijo vode in situ	Automatski uredaj za in situ tretman voda sa fotoelektrohemijskim i elektrohemijskim generatorima dezinficijenasa	451-03-1251/2012-09/20	Univerza v Mariboru, Fakulteta za kemijo in kemijsko tehnologijo
24	21 Oksidi prehodnih kovin perovskitnega tipa z multiferocičnimi lastnostmi	Perovskiti prelaznih metala sa multiferocičnim svojstvima	451-03-1251/2012-09/21	Inštitut za matematiko, fiziko in mehaniko
25	22 Srbi in Slovenci: migranti, manjšina, kolektivne identitete in spomini	Srbi in Slovenci: Migranti, manjina, kolektivni identiteti i pamčenje	451-03-1251/2012-09/22	Znanstvenoraziskovalni center Slovenske akademije znanosti in umetnosti
26	23 Uporaba tehnologije upravljanja poslovnih procesov v e-izobraževalnih sistemih	Primena tehnologija sistema za upravljanje tokovima rada u sistemima za	451-03-1251/2012-09/23	Institut "Jožef Stefan"
27	24 Tehnologija izdelave Au nano delcev	Tehnologija proizvodnje i ispitivanje biokompatibilnosti Au nano-čestica	451-03-1251/2012-09/24	Univerza v Mariboru, Fakulteta za strojništvo
28	25 Strukturni prehodi proteinov in njihovo prepoznavanje z majhnimi molekulami: Termodynamika v povezavi s funkcijo	Strukturalni prelazi proteina i njihovo prepoznavanje sa manjim molekulima	451-03-1251/2012-09/25	Univerza v Ljubljani, Fakulteta za kemijo in kemijsko tehnologijo
29	26 Prilagoditev gospodarjenja z gozdovi pričakovanim podnebnim spremembam	Prilagodjavanje šumske ekonomije očekivanim klimatskim promenama	451-03-1251/2012-09/26	Univerza v Ljubljani, Biotehniška fakulteta
30	27 Hemoglobin iz obnovljivih virov kot izhodni material za hem-železo, proizvod za preventivo in	Hemoglobin iz obnovljivih sirovina kao osnov za preparat	451-03-1251/2012-09/27	BIA podjetje za laboratorijsko in procesno opremo d.o.o. Ljubljana
31	28 Zagotavljanje kakovosti univerzitetnega študija: vloga in odgovornost študentov in učiteljev	Zagotavljanje kakovosti univerzitetnega študija: vloga in odgovornost študentov in učiteljev	451-03-1251/2012-09/28	Univerza v Ljubljani, Filozofska fakulteta
32	29 Uporaba alternativnih cenovno ugodnih materialov za izboljšanje kvalitete pitne vode	Upotreba alternativnih jeftinjih materijala za poboljšanje kvaliteta pijače vode	451-03-1251/2012-09/29	Kemijski inštitut
33	30 Geokemične lastnosti onesnaženih območij in geokemične lastnosti preteklih katastrofičnih geoloških dogodkov	Geohemische karakteristike zagađenih područja i geohemski pokazatelji katastrofalnih događaja u geološkoj prošlosti	451-03-1251/2012-09/30	Geološki zavod Slovenije
34	31 Modeliranje termomehanskih pogojev in dimenzioniranje reaktorjev za hidrolizo	Modeliranje termo-mehaničkih uslova i konstruisanje reaktora za hidrolizu ligno-celuloznih	451-03-1251/2012-09/31	Univerza v Mariboru, Fakulteta za strojništvo
35	32 Potrebe in poti malih gospodarstev za povečanje mednarodne konkurenčnosti v pokriznem	Potrebe in načini unapravljanja medjunarodne konkurenčnosti malih ekonomija u post kriznem	451-03-1251/2012-09/32	Univerza v Ljubljani, Fakulteta za družbene vede
36	33 Depozicija zračnih onesnažil v mahovih: kovine, dušikove spojine in PAH-i.	Depozicija atmosferskih polutanata u mahovinama: teški metali, azot i PAH	451-03-1251/2012-09/33	Univerza v Ljubljani, Biotehniška fakulteta
37	34 Projektna zrelost podjetij in razvoj novih izdelkov	Projektna zrelost i razvoj novih proizvoda	451-03-1251/2012-09/34	Univerza v Mariboru, Fakulteta za strojništvo
38	35 Multivariatna analiza biodiverzitete in kakovost travnikov zahodnega Balkana kot osnova za	Multivariaciona analiza biodiverziteta i kvalitet prirodnih travnjaka zapadnog Balkana kao osnova za odzivno koriščenje	451-03-1251/2012-09/35	Znanstvenoraziskovalni center Slovenske akademije znanosti in umetnosti
39	36 Medkulturni odnosi na območju bivše Jugoslavije	Međukulturni odnosi na prostoru bivše Jugoslavije	451-03-1251/2012-09/36	Univerza na Primorskem, Fakulteta za humanistične študije Koper

	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P
20	Sašo Šturm	Ljiljana Matović	Institut za nuklearne nauke Vinča, Beograd	1500	1500	1500	1500				
21	Janez Prašnikar	Božidar Cerović	Ekonomski fakultet u Beogradu, Univerzitet Beograd	1500	1500	1500	1500				
22	Nina Daneu	Branko Matović	Institut za nuklearne nauke Vinča, Beograd	1500	1500	1500	1500				
23	Marjana Simonić	Tomislav Trišović	Institut tehničkih nauka Srpske akademije nauka i umetnosti	1500	1500	1500	1500				
24	Marko Jagodić	Zorica Marinković-Stanojević	Institut za multidisciplinarnе studije, Beograd	1500	1500	1500	1500				
25	Maja Godina Golija	Lada Stevanović	Etnografski institut SANU Beograd	1500	1500	1500	1500				
26	Tanja Arh	Miroslav Trajanović	Mašinski fakultet, Univerzitet Niš	1500	1500	1500	1500				
27	Rebeka Rudolf	Miodrag Čolić	Medicinski fakultet, Univerzitet Niš	1500	1500	1500	1500				
28	Jurij Lah	Uroš Andjelković	Institut za hemiju, tehnologiju i metalurgiju, Beograd	1500	1500	1500	1500				
29	Andrej Bončina	Milan Medarević	Šumarski fakultet, Univerzitet Beograd	1500	1500	1500	1500				
30	Aleš Podgornik	Vesna Ilić	Institut za medicinska istraživanja, Beograd	1500	1500	1500	1500				
31	Jasna Mažgon	Nataša Vujisić Živković	Filozofski fakultet, Univerzitet Beograd	1500	1500	1500	1500				
32	Nataša Novak Tušar	Nevenka Rajić	Tehnološko Metalurški Fakultet, Univerzitet Beograd	1500	1500	1500	1500				
33	Gorazd Žibret	Vladica Cvetković	Rudarsko - geološki fakultet, Univerzitet Beograd	1500	1500	1500	1500				
34	Aleksandra Lobnik	Mirko Komatina	Mašinski fakultet, Univerzitet Beograd	1500	1500	1500	1500				
35	Matija Rojec	Slavica Penev	Institut ekonomskih nauka, Beograd	1500	1500	1500	1500				
36	Franc Batić	Aneta Sabovljević	Biološki fakultet, Univerzitet Beograd	1500	1500	1500	1500				
37	Iztok Palčić	Danijela Lalić	Fakultet tehničkih nauka, Univerzitet Novi Sad	1500	1500	1500	1500				
38	Urban Šilc	Zora Dajić Stevanović	Poljoprivredni fakultet Univerzitet Beograd	1500	1500	1500	1500				
39	Blaž Lenarčič	Ivan Kovačević	Filozofski fakultet, Univerzitet Beograd	1500	1500	1500	1500				

	A	B	C	D	E
40	37	Vzpostavitev slovensko-srbske kolekcije zrnatih stročnic za zagotovitev trajnostne uporabe v kmetijskih sistemih	Obrazovanje i koriščenje srpkso slovenačke zbirke znanih mahunarki u cilju poboljšanja održivosti obeju zemlje	451-03-1251/2012-09/37	Kmetijski inštitut Slovenije
41	38	Inteligentno pridobivanje podatkov s pomočjo ontologij	Inteligentno pretrazivanje informacija bazirano na ontologijama.	451-03-1251/2012-09/38	Univerza v Ljubljani, Fakulteta za računalništvo in informatiko
42	39	Izolacija in karakterizacija bakteriofagov specifičnih za bakterijo <i>Acinetobacter baumanii</i>	Izolacija i karakterizacija <i>Acinetobacter baumannii</i> specifičnih bakteriofaga	451-03-1251/2012-09/39	Univerza v Ljubljani, Biotehniška fakulteta
43	40	Alternativne rastline v ekološki pridelavi: razširitev ponudbe prehranskih proizvodov na tržišču	Alternativne kulture u organskoj proizvodnji u ulozi proširenja ponude prehrambenih proizvoda na tržištu	451-03-1251/2012-09/40	Univerza v Mariboru, Fakulteta za kmetijstvo in biosistemsko vedo
44	41	Ugotavljanje nekaterih onesnaževalcev okolja, ki imajo v prehranski verigi pomembno vlogo pri zagotavljanju varne in kvalitetne hrane	Monitoring određenih kontaminenata životne sredine značajnih za bezbednost i kvalitet hrane u lancu ishrane	451-03-1251/2012-09/41	Univerza v Ljubljani, Veterinarska fakulteta
45	42	Celostni pristop k raziskavi kakovosti zelenjave	Holistički pristup proučavanju Kvaliteta voća	451-03-1251/2012-09/42	Univerza v Ljubljani, Biotehniška fakulteta
46	43	Vpliv procesnih parametrov na proces granulacije s talinami v vrtinčno slojnih plasteh	Optimizacija granulacije topljenjem u uređaju tipa fluidizirajućeg sistema	451-03-1251/2012-09/43	Univerza v Ljubljani, Fakulteta za farmacijo
47	44	Eksperimentalne in teoretične raziskave absorpcije vodika v sistemih Mg-Zr-Fe-Ni in Ti-Fe-Ni	Eksperimentalno i teorijsko ispitivanje sorpcije vodonika u Mg-Zr-Fe-Ni i Ti-Fe-Ni sistemima	451-03-1251/2012-09/44	Institut "Jožef Stefan"
48	45	Karakterizacija senzoričnih in fizikalnokemijskih lastnosti zaščitenih tradicionalnih sušenih mesnin iz Slovenije in Srbije	Karakterizacija senzornih i fizičkohemijskih atributa zaščitenih tradicionalnih fermentisanih suvih proizvoda od mesa iz Slovenije i Srbije.	451-03-1251/2012-09/45	Univerza v Ljubljani, Biotehniška fakulteta
49	46	Vpliv pridelovalnih sistemov v poljedelstvu na pridelek, kakovost in varstvo okolja	Uticaj proizvodnih sistema u ratastvu na kvalitet i prinos	451-03-1251/2012-09/46	Univerza v Mariboru, Fakulteta za kmetijstvo in biosistemsko vedo
50	47	Spektroskopska in LC-MS/MS določitev bioflavonoidov v živilih in farmacevtskih pripravkih	Spektroskopsko i LC-MS/MS odredjivanje biofilogog u hrani i farmacetskih oblicima	451-03-1251/2012-09/47	Univerza v Ljubljani, Fakulteta za kemijo in kemijsko tehnologijo
51	48	Diagnostična vrednost novih kazalcev zgodnjega odkrivanja ateroskleroze pri bolnikih z ledvično odpovedjo pri kronični ledvični bolezni	Dijagnostička vrednost novih biomarkera u ranom otkrivanju aterosklezore kod pacijenata sa terminalnim stadijumom renalne bolesti	451-03-1251/2012-09/48	Univerza v Ljubljani, Fakulteta za farmacijo
52	49	Morfološke, funkcionalne, genetske in farmakološke lastnosti arterij možganskega Willisovega kroga pri človeku: vrednotenje in primerjava z živalskimi modeli	Morfološke, funkcionalne, genetska obeležja i farmakološka evaluacija prekobrojnih arterija u humanom moždanom arterijskom prstenu evaluacija i poređenje sa životinjskim modelom	451-03-1251/2012-09/49	Univerza v Ljubljani, Medicinska fakulteta
53	50	Trajnost in energetska učinkovitost mehanskih sistemov v intralogistiki in energetiki	Održivost i energetska efikasnost mašinskih sistema u intralogistici i energetici	451-03-1251/2012-09/50	Univerza v Ljubljani, Fakulteta za strojništvo
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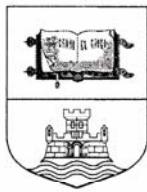
Прилог 8: Потврда руководиоца пројекта



University of Belgrade



Faculty of
Technology
and Metallurgy



У оквиру пројекта “**Модификација металних и неметалних материјала електропроводним полимерима за примену у новим технологијама**”, са редним бројем X 142044, 2005-2010. год. и “**Електрохемијска синтеза и карактеризација наноструктурираних функционалних материјала за примену у новим технологијама**”, са редним бројем ОН172046, 2010- год., финансираног од стране Министарства просвете, науке и технолошког развоја, др Томисла Тришовић руководи радним задацима повезаним са пројектима.

У Београду, 09.10.2014.

Руководилац пројекта:

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Прилог 9: Сепарати радова

Electrochemical Polymerization of Aniline

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1. Introduction

From its revolutionary discovery, up to day electroconducting polymers attracts attention of researchers along scientific community. Among numerous known electroconducting polymers, polyaniline and its derivates are probably the most investigated. Such popularity, in both theoretical and practical aspects, is a consequence of its unique properties: existence of various oxidation states, electrical and optical activity, low cost monomer, red/ox reversibility, environmental stability etc. (Inzelt, 2008; Horvat-Radošević & Kvastek, 2006; Gospodinova & Terlemezyan, 1998). These diverse and important features seem to be promising in vide area of practical applications in: rechargeable power sources (Gvozdenović et al., 2011; Jugović et al., 2006; Jugović et al., 2009), sensors (Bezbradica et al., 2011; Dhaoui, 2008; Grummt et al. 1997, Gvozdenović et al., 2011; Mu & Xue, 1996), magnetic shielding, electrochemical capacitors (Xu et al., 2009), electrochromic devices (Kobayashi et al. as cited in Mu, 2004; Wallace et al., 2009), corrosion protection etc. (Biallozor & Kupniewska, 2005; Camalet et al., 1996, 1998, 2000a, 2000b; Gvozdenović & Grgur, 2009; Gvozdenović et al., 2011; Kraljić et al., 2003; Popović & Grgur, 2004; Popović et al. 2005, Grgur et al., 2006; Özylimaz et al., 2006). Polyaniline is commonly obtained by chemical or electrochemical oxidative polymerization of aniline (Elkais et al., 2011; Jugović et al., 2009; Lapkowski, 1990; Stejskal & Gilbert, 2002; Stejskal et al., 2010) although photochemically initiated polymerization (Kim et al., 2001 as cited in Wallace et al., 2009; Teshima et al., 1998) and enzyme catalyzed polymerization were also reported (Bhadra et al., 2009; Nagarajan et al., 2000).

Polyaniline obtained by electrochemical polymerization is usually deposited on the electrode, however electrohydrodynamic route was also developed resulting in polyaniline colloids of specific functionalities (Wallace et al., 2009). Electrochemical polymerization of aniline is routinely carried out in strongly acidic aqueous electrolytes, through generally accepted mechanism which involves formation of anilinium radical cation by aniline oxidation on the electrode (Hussain & Kumar, 2003). Electrochemical polymerization of aniline is proved to be auto-catalyzed (Mu & Kan, 1995; Mu et al., 1997). The experimental conditions, such as: electrode material, electrolyte composition, dopant anions, pH of the

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electrolyte etc., all have strong influence on the nature of the polymerization process (Camalet et al., 2000; Ćirić Marjanović et al., 2006; Córdova et al., 1994; Duić & Mandić, 1992; Giz et al., 2000; Gvozdenović & Grgur, 2009; Inzlet, 2008; Lippe & Holze, 1992; Mu & Kan, 1998; Mun & Kan, 1998; Nunziante & Pistoia, 1989; Okamoto & Kotaka, 1998a, 1998b, 1999; Popović & Grgur, 2004; Pron et al., 1993; Pron & Rannou, 2010; Wallace et al., 2009). The low pH is almost always needed for preparation of the conductive polyaniline in the form of emeraldine salt, since it is evidenced that at higher pH, the deposited film is consisted of low chain oligomeric material (Stejskal et al., 2010). The doping anion incorporated into polymer usually determines the morphology, conductivity, rate of the polyaniline growth during electrochemical polymerization, and has influence on degradation process (Córdova et al., 1994; Lippe & Holze, 1992; Mandić et al., 1997; Okamoto & Kotaka, 1999; Pron & Rannou, 2010). The electrochemical polymerization of aniline is practically always carried out in aqueous electrolytes, although polymerization in organic solvents such is acetonitrile was also reported. Recently it was observed that ionic liquids electrolytes might be used for successful preparation of conductive polyaniline (Heinze et al., 2010; Wallace et al., 2009). Finally, electrochemical polymerization and co-polymerization of numerous substituted aniline derivates, resulted in polymer materials with properties different from the parent polymer, were also investigated (Karyakin et al. 1994; Kumar, 2000; Mattoso & Bulhões, 1992; Mu, 2011; Zhang, 2006)

Since there is a still growing interest for the research in the field of conducting polymers with polyaniline as the most representative, the aim of this paper is to review the extremely rich literature attempting to describe all important aspects of electrochemical polymerization of aniline.

2. Polyaniline

Polyaniline is probably the eldest known electroconducting polymer, since it was used for textile coloring one century ago (Syed & Dinesan, 1991; Wallace et al., 2009). The great interest in research of polyaniline is connected to discovery of its conductivity in the form of emeraldine salt and existence of different oxidation forms (Inzelt, 2008; MacDiarmid et al., as cited in Wallace et al., 2009; Syed & Dinesan, 1991).

2.1 Different oxidation states of polyaniline

Unlike other know electroconducting polymers, polyaniline can exist, depending on degree of oxidation, in different forms, known as: leucoemeraldine, emeraldine and pernigraniline. Leucoemeraldine, eg. leucoemeraldine base, refers to fully reduced form; emeraldine, eg. emeraldine base, is half-oxidized, while pernigraniline, eg. pernigraniline base, is completely oxidized form of polyaniline. The only conducting form of polyaniline is emeraldin salt, obtained by doping or protonation of emeraldine base (Fedorko et al., 2010; MacDiarmid et al., 1987; Pron & Rannou, 2002).

The unique feature of mentioned polyaniline forms is ease of its mutual conversions by both chemical and electrochemical reactions as it can be seen in Fig.1. (Gospodinova & Terlemezyan, 1998; Kang et al., 1998; Stejskal et al., 1996).

Apart from the changes in oxidation levels, all the transitions among polyaniline forms are manifested by color and conductivity changes (Stejskal et al., 1996). The conducting protonated emeraldine in the form of green emeraldine salt, obtained as a product of

electrochemical polymerization of aniline in acidic electrolytes, can be easily transformed by further oxidation to fully oxidized dark blue pernigraniline salt, which can be treated by alkali to form violet pernigraniline. Emeraldine salt can also be reduced to transparent leucoemeraldine, or can be transformed by alkali to blue non conducting emeraldine. The two blue forms of polyaniline, pernigraniline salt and emeraldine have different shades of blue (Stejskal et al., 1996). Both reduction of emeraldine salt to leucoemeraldine and oxidation to pernigraniline states are followed by decrease in conductivity (Stejskal et al., 2010).

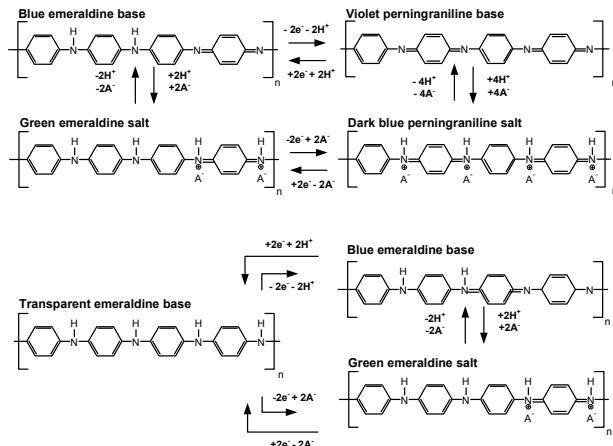


Fig. 1. Different forms of polyaniline

2.2 Polyaniline conductivity

The mechanism of polyaniline conductivity differs from other electroconducting polymers, owing to the fact that nitrogen atom is involved in the formation of radical cation, unlike most of the electroconducting polymers whose radical cation is formed at carbon. On the other hand, nitrogen is also involved in the conjugated double bonds system. Therefore, electrical conductivity of polyaniline is dependent both on the oxidation and protonation degrees (Fedorko et al., 2010; Genies et al., 1990; Pron & Rannou, 2002; Wallace et al., 2009).

As mentioned before, polyaniline is characterized by existence of various oxidation forms. Polyaniline in the form of emeraldine base can be doped (protonated) to conducting form of emeraldine salt. Emeraldine base, half oxidized form, is consisted of equal amount of amine ($-\text{NH-}$) and imine ($=\text{NH-}$) sites. Imine sites are subjected to protonation to form bipolarone or dicatione (emeraldine salt form). Bipolarone is further dissociated by injection of two electrons both from electron pairs of two imine nitrogen, into quinodiimine ring, and the third double bond of benzenoid ring is formed (Stejskal, 2010).

Unpaired electrons at nitrogen atoms are cation radicals, but essentially they represent polarons. The polaron lattice, responsible for high conductivity of polyaniline in the form of emeraldine salt is formed by redistribution of polarons along polymer chain, according to schematic representation given in Fig. 2. (Wallace et al., 2009)

Although both bipolaron and polaron theoretical models of emeraldine salt conductivity were proposed (Angelopoulos et al., as cited in Wallace et al., 2009; Tanaka et al., 1990), it was lately confirmed that, beside from the fact that few of spineless bipolarons exist in

polyaniline, formation of polarons as charge carriers explained high conductivity of polyaniline (Mu et al., 1998; Patil et al., 2002). As mentioned, unique property of polyaniline is conductivity dependence on the doping (proton) level (Chiang et al., 1986; Wallace et al., 2009). The maximal conductivity of polyaniline is achieved at doping degree of 50%, which corresponds to polyaniline in the form of emeraldine salt (Tanaka et al., 1989). For higher doping degrees some of the amine sites are protonated, while lower doping degrees means that some of the imine sites were left unprotonated (Wallace et al., 2009), explaining why, in the light of the polaron conductivity model, reduction of emeraldine salt to leucoemeraldine and oxidation to pernigraniline states decrease the conductivity. The order of magnitude for conductivity varies from $10^{-2} \text{ S cm}^{-1}$, for undoped emeraldine, up to 10^3 S cm^{-1} for doped emeraldine salt (Inzelt, 2008; Wallace et al., 2009).

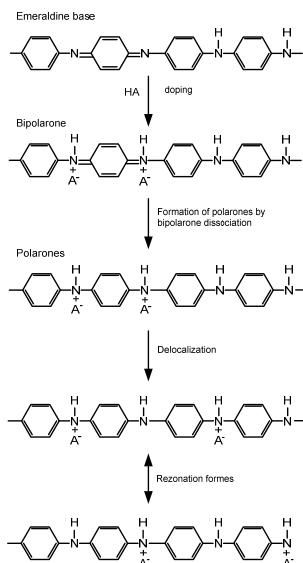


Fig. 2. Schematic presentation of polyaniline conductivity

Beside the fact that doping degree has the pronounced effect on the conductivity, various other factors such as: moisture amount (Kahol et al., 1997; Patil et al., 2002), morphology (Monkman & Adams, 1991; Zhou et al., 2007), temperature (Probst & Holze, 1995) etc. were also found to had influence on the polyaniline conductivity.

3. Mechanism and kinetics of the electrochemical polymerization of aniline

Generally, electroconducting polymers are obtained by either chemical or electrochemical oxidative polymerization, although reductive polymerization was also reported (Heinze et al., 2010; Inzlet et al., 2000; Yamamoto & Okida, 1999; Yamamoto, 2003, as cited in Inzelt, 2008). Chemical polymerization is used when large quantity of polymer is requested. Electrochemical polymerization is favorable, since in the most cases the polymer is directly deposited on the electrode facilitating analysis. On the other hand, electrochemical polymerization is especially useful if polymer film electrode is needed. By proper design of

the electrochemical experiment, polymer thickness and conductivity can be easily controlled. It is believed that electrochemical polymerization is consisted of three different steps, in first, oxidation of the monomer at anode lead to formation of soluble oligomers in the diffusion layer, in the second, deposition of oligomers occurs through nucleation and growth process, and finally, the third step is responsible for chain propagation by solid state polymerization (Heinze et al., 2010). Unfortunately, a general mechanism of electrochemical polymerization could not be established, since it was evidenced that various factors had influence. However, it was observed that first step of the electrochemical polymerization was formation of reactive cation radicals (Heinze et al., 2010; Kankare, 1998). The next step, strongly dependent on the experimental conditions, is believed to be essential for the polymer growth (Inzelt, 2008). The knowledge on the kinetics of the nucleation and growth process during electrochemical synthesis of electroconducting polymers is also of great interest, since it would be useful in control of the morphology, density, crystallinity etc. of the desired polymer.

3.1 Mechanism

Both the mechanism and the kinetics of the electrochemical polymerization of aniline were extensively investigated (Andrade et al. 1998; Arsov et al. 1998; Carlos et al. 1997; Hussain & Kumar, 2003; Inzelt et al., 2000, Bade et al. 1992; Lapkowski, 1990; Malinauskas et Holze, 1998; Mandić et al., 1997; Mu & Kan, 1995; Mu et al., 1997). Electrochemical, similarly to chemical, polymerization of aniline is carried out only in acidic electrolyte, since higher pH leads to formation of short conjugation oligomeric material, with different nature (Wallace et al., 2009). As stated before, it is generally accepted that the first step of the polymerization process of aniline involves formation of aniline cation radicals, by anodic oxidation on the electrode surface, which is considered to be the rate-determining step (Zotti et al., 1987, 1988). The existence of aniline radical cation was experimentally confirmed, by introducing molecules, (resorcinol, hydroquinone, benzoquinine etc.), capable of retarding or even stopping the reaction, which evidenced a radical mechanism (Mu et al., 1997). The oxidation of the aniline monomer is an irreversible process, occurring at higher positive potentials than redox potential of the polyaniline (Inzelt, 2008).

The following step is dependent on numerous factors such as: electrolyte composition, deposition current density, or potential scan rate, nature and state of the anode material, temperature etc. (Inzelt, 2008). There is a request for relatively high concentration of radical cations near the electrode surface. Radical cations can be involved, depending on reactivity, in different reactions. If it is quite stable, it may diffuse into the solution and react to form soluble products of low molecular weights. On the other hand, if is very unstable, it can react rapidly with anion or the solvent, in the vicinity of the electrode and form soluble products with low molecular weights (Park & Joong, 2005). In favorable case, coupling of the anilinium radicals would occur, followed by elimination of two protons and rearomatization leading to formation of dimer (lately oligomer). The aniline dimer, or oligomer, is further oxidized on the anode together with aniline. The chain propagation is achieved by coupling radical cations of the oligomer with anilinium radical cation. Finally, the counter anion originating from the acid, normally present in the electrolyte, dopes the polymer, meeting the request of electroneutrality. The mentioned mechanism of aniline electrochemical polymerization is schematically presented in Fig. 3 (Hussain & Kumar 2003, Wallace et al. 2009).

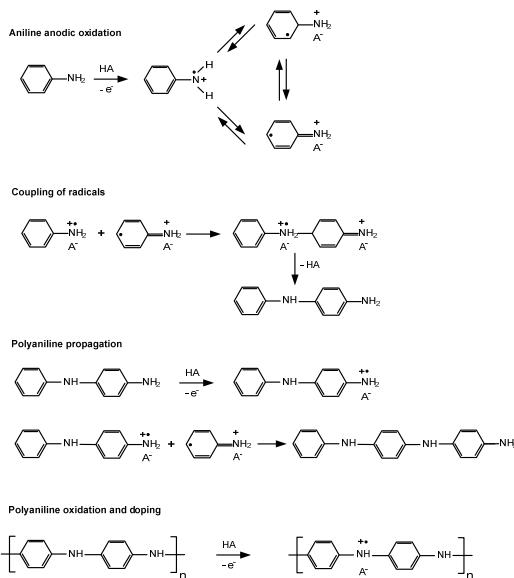


Fig. 3. Schematic presentation of mechanism of electrochemical polymerization of aniline.

It was evidenced that electrochemical polymerization of aniline is an autocatalytic process (Inzelt, 2008; Mu & Kan, 1996; Mu et al., 1997; Stilwell & Park, 1996; Wallace et al., 2009). It was observed that current increased over time, at constant potentials higher than 0.80 V and that anodic peak potentials shifted to more negative values upon increasing cycle number (Mu et al., 1997). Generally, it means that the more polymer formed on the anode, the higher the rate of the electrochemical polymerization.

3.2 Nucleation and growth of polyaniline

Explanation of the kinetics of the nucleation and growth process during electrochemical synthesis of electroconducting polymers is usually relying on the metal deposition theory (Heinze et al., 2010; Kankare, 1998). According to the theory, two kinds of nucleation process exist, instantaneous and progressive, with three types of growth referring to: one- (1D), two- (2D), and three- (3D) dimensional processes. Instantaneous nucleation implies constant number of nuclei, growing without the further formation of nuclei. In the case of progressive nucleation, nuclei are constantly generated. 1D growth implies growth in only one direction, e.g. perpendicular to the electrode surface. In the 2D growth, the nuclei has preference to grow parallel to the electrode surface, while the 3D growth is characterized by the similar rates for these processes perpendicular and parallel to the electrode are quite similar (Heinze et al., 2010).

It was shown, mostly base on potentiostatic experiments, that several stages of polyaniline growth during electrochemical polymerization of aniline were involved, proceeding through different mechanism (Mandić et al., 1997). Cyclic voltammetry studies indicated that polyaniline growth was strongly dependent on type and concentration of anion in the electrolyte (Zotti et al., 1988). Studies on the early stages of the polyaniline growth indicate progressive nucleation of the polyaniline film, with 2D or 3D growth mechanism or 3D

instantaneous nucleation, depending on electrolyte concentration and composition (Bade et al., 1992; Córdova et al., 1994; Mandić et al., 1997). The mass transfer controlled early stage of the polyaniline growth leads to formation of a compact layer (Inzlet 2010). In the case of perchloric acid, depending on monomer concentration, the nucleation process proceeds from progressive, at lower, to instantaneous nucleation at higher concentration (Mandić et al., 1997). At advanced stage, characterized by exponential current increase, 1D growth was assumed, resulted in continual branching and formation of the open structure (Cruz & Ticianelli, 1997)

3.3 Factors affecting electrochemical polymerization of aniline

Electrochemical synthesis of electroconducting polymers is strongly dependent on numerous parameters involved, such as: nature of the doping anion (affecting morphology, order of the polymer rate growth, nature and the composition of the solvent (to nucleophilic solvent would react with cation radicals formed by monomer oxidation on the anode) electrode material (depending on its surface energy controls the ease of the desired polymer deposition), temperature of the electrochemical polymerization etc. (Heinze et al., 2010; Inzelt, 2008; Pron & Rannou, 2002; Pruneanu et al., 1998; Wallce et al., 2009).

3.3.1 Doping anions

Electrochemical polymerization of aniline, as mentioned before, is practically always carried out in strong acidic aqueous electrolytes. Doping anions incorporated in polyaniline originate from the acid, and represent its conjugated base. The dopant anions are inserted during electrochemical polymerization fulfilling the request of electroneutrality, and therefore their concentrations are on the stoichiometric levels, for its reasonable that their presence have strong influence on, polyanilne morphology, conductivity, and electrochemical activity and the polymerization process itself (Arsov et al., 1998; Cordova et al., 1994; Dhaoui et al., 2008; Koziel, 1993, 1995; Lapkowski, 1990, 1993; Lippe & Holze, 1992; Okamoto & Kotaka, 1998; Pron et al., 1992; Pron & Rannou, 2002).

It was experimentally confirmed that polyanilne obtained in the presence of so called "large dopant anions", originated from hydrochloride acid, sulfuric acid, nitric acid, *p*-toluensulfonic acid, and sulfosalicylic acid promoted formation of more swollen and open structured film, while the presence of "small ions" such is ClO_4^- or BF_4^- , resulted in formation of a more compact structure (Nunziante & Pistoria, 1989; Pruneanu et al., 1998; Zotti et al., 1988). The order of the polyaniline growth was also proved to increase with the size of the dopant anion (Inzelt et al., 2000). It was shown that addition of polyelectrolytes in polymerization electrolyte resulted in insertion of these molecules as dopants (Hyodo & Nozaki 1988, as cited in Wallace et al. 2009). It was also possible to obtain optically active polyaniline by electrochemical polymerization in the presence of (+) or (-) camphorsulfonic acid, leading to insertion of chiral dopants (Majidi et al., 2009).

3.3.2 Electrolyte composition

As mentioned previously, electrochemical polymerization of aniline is usually performed in aqueous electrolytes. There is limited number of studies referred to electrochemical polymerization in non-aqueous solvents (Genies & Lapkowski, 1987; Lapkowski, 1990; Pandey & Singh, 2002; Şahin et al., 2003). In the early studies acetronitrile was mostly used as solvent, for example Watambe et al. (Miras et al. 1991; Watambe et al. 1989, as cited in

Wallace et al., 2009) made first electrochemical polymerization of aniline in acetonitrile solution containing lithium perchlorate, the resulted polymer exhibited similar redox properties as "ordinary" prepared polyaniline.

Lately, apart from acetonitrile, the studies involved use of: dichlormethane, nitrobenzene with various electrolytes such as: sodium tetraphenylborate, tetraethylammonium tetrafluoroborate and tetraethylammoniumperchlorate and resulted films showed different microstructures and electrochemical activity (Pandey & Singh, 2002). Other studies referred to electrochemical polymerization of aniline and fluoro- and chloro- substituted anilines and their copolymers with aniline in acetonitrile containing tetrabutylammonium perchlorate and perchloric acid. The obtained polymers exhibited similar electrochemical and UV-behavior to "ordinary" polyaniline, but their conductivities were remarkably lower, explained by the steric effects of the substituent (Şahin et al. 2003). Various alkyl substituted anilines were electrochemically polymerized in both acetonitrile and dimethylsulfoxide, their conductivities were also very low suggested that there were not in the typical state of the emeraldine salt (Yano et al., 2004). Successful electrochemical co-polymerization of aniline and pyrrole was also carried out in acetonitrile.

Finally, electrochemical polymerization of aniline was performed in various ionic liquids (Heinze et al., 2010; Innis et al., 2004; Li et al., 2005; Mu, 2007). For example, using IR and NMR spectroscopy Mu showed that the ionic liquid, namely 1-ethyl-3-methylimidazolium ethyl sulfate was incorporated in polyaniline during electrochemical polymerization. It was also observed that resulted polyaniline had exhibited good electrochemical activity in solutions with pH 12, and also considerably wider window of the detectable color changes at higher pH values, this effect was explained by the fact that used ionic liquid possessed high buffer capacity, which improved the redox activity and the electrochemical activity in broader pH range (Mu, 2007). Apart from the strong influence of the solvent, the presence of other components in the electrolyte solution, used for electrochemical polymerization of aniline, also had influence, primarily, on the morphology of the deposit (Inzelt, 2008). It was shown that presence of alcohols in the electrolyte would lead to polyaniline in the form of nanofibres agglomerated into interconnected network, FTIR spectra of the resulted polymer revealed strong interactions between alcohol and polyaniline molecules (Zhou et al., 2008).

3.3.3 Electrode material

Electrochemical polymerization of aniline is easily performed at so called inert electrodes, such as: platinum, gold, various graphite, carbons or indium-tin-oxide glasses, according to previously described mechanism. But the fact that relatively high electrode potential is required for oxidation of aniline, restricts the usage of other materials. The electrochemical polymerization of aniline on active metals is usually considered for application in corrosion protection (Biallozor & Kupniewska, 2005; Tallman et al., 2002). The problem connected to electrochemical polymerization onto active metals is either dissolution, or formation of non-conducting passive layer, on the potentials necessary for oxidation of aniline.

In the case of iron and steel the potential at which polymerization starts is in the region of active dissolution, leading to lost of the metal and contamination of the electrolyte, therefore it necessary to find a suitable electrolyte that would enable strong passivation of the metal without suppressing further electrochemical polymerization. The most common electrolyte used to electrochemical deposition of polyaniline on steel and aluminum is oxalic acid (Camalet et al., 1996, 2000a, 2000b; Martyak et al., 2002). The use of oxalic acid permitted

formation of passive layer consisted of iron oxalate, on which aniline polymerize. It was also showed that *p*-toluen sulfonic acid can be used for electrochemical polymerization of aniline, the deposition occurred after passivation. The passive film, in contrast to oxalic acid, was consisted mainly of iron oxide (Camalet et al., 1998). Other approach involves the pretreatment of the steel surface by polypyrrole, which can be easily formed electrochemically on iron and steel, with low extent of the metal dissolution, after this treatment aniline is easily electrochemically polymerized (Lacroix et al., 2000). The problem with electrochemical polymerization of aniline on aluminum is occurrence of two simultaneous processes electrochemical polymerization and passivation of the electrode by very stable protective oxide (Biallozor & Kupniewska, 2005). The studies of electrochemical polymerization on aluminum and its alloys involved pretreatment of the metal, and further polymerization (Huerta-Vilca et al., 2005; Wang & Tan, 2006). Similarly to steel, oxalic acid and *p*-toluen sulfonic acid electrolytes were used to grow polyaniline on aluminum (Conroy & Breslin, 2005; Karpagam et al., 2008). It was shown that sodium benzoate could be used to electrochemically polymerize aniline, without need for pretreatment, on steel, copper and aluminum (Gvozdenović & Grgur, 2009; Gvozdenović et al. 2011; Popović & Grgur, 2004). Electrochemical polymerization of substituted anilines on various metals and alloys were also carried out (Chaudhari & Patil 2007; Chaudhari et al., 2009; Pawar et al., 2007).

3.4 Experimental performance

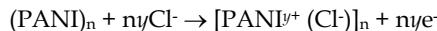
Generally, experimental set-up for electrochemical synthesis of electroconducting polymers in laboratory conditions is simple. It involves, in majority of cases, standard three-electrode electrochemical cell, although in some cases of galvanostatic polymerization, two electrode cell can be used (Wallace et al., 2009). The polymer obtained by this procedure is deposited directly on the electrode. Novel experimental set-up, enabling electrochemical generation of polyaniline colloids, using flow-through electrochemical cell, was also reported (Aboutanos et al., 1999; Innis et al., 1998). In this novel electrochemical cell, anode was separated from two and cathodes by ion exchange membrane. The anodic and cathodic electrolytes were passed through electrode compartments at specified flow, while polymerization was achieved at constant potential.

The most common experimental techniques used for electrochemical polymerization of aniline are: cyclic voltammetry (potentiodynamic), galvanostatic and potentiostatic techniques. Polymerization using cyclic voltammetry is characterized by cyclic regular change of the electrode potential and the deposited polymer is, throughout the experiment, changing between its non-conducting and conducting (doped) state, followed by exchange of the electrolyte through polymer (Heinze et al., 2010). At the end of polymerization the obtained polymer is in its non-conducting form, moreover, cyclic voltammetry favors formation of disordered chains and open structure (Heinze et al., 2010) As stated before, relatively high potential is required for electrochemical oxidation of aniline monomer, therefore at first 2 – 10 cycles, the upper potential limit is high, but owing to autocatalytic nature of aniline electropolymerization, the upper potential limit can be decreased to avoid degradation resulted from over oxidation of pernigranilin form of polyaniline (Inzelt, 2008). Recently, it was shown that cyclic voltammetry can even be useful for formation of nanostructure polyaniline . It was shown that different sized polyaniline nanofibres were electrochemically polymerized, by different scan rates, in the presence of ferrocensulfonic acid (Mu & Yang, 2008).

Galvanostatic polymerization, owing to current control, enables reaction to proceed at constant rate. Galvanostatic synthesis permits estimation of the polymer mass deposited on the electrode (Kankare, 1998). On the other hand, galvanostatic polymerization leads to formation of polyaniline in its conductive form.

Electrochemical polymerization of aniline on graphite electrode from hydrochloride acid electrolyte, obtained by cyclic voltammetry (numbers on the figure refers to cycle number) given in Fig. 4., while in the insert of the Fig.4, chronopotentiometric curve of galvanostatic polymerization from the same electrolyte is shown (Gvozdenović et al., 2011; Jugović, PhD thesis, 2009; Jugović et al., 2009)

Electrochemical polymerization of aniline proceeds together with insertion of chloride anions (dopant) from the electrolyte, according to:



Where y refers to doping degree, ration between the number of charges in the polymer and the number of monomer units (Kankare, 1998).

As seen on cyclic voltammograms in Fig.4., doping of chloride ions started at potential of ~ -0.1 V (SCE), the first well defined anodic peak, situated at potential of 0.2 V (SCE) indicate transition of leucoemeraldine form of polyaniline to emeraldine salt, followed by the changes of y between 0 and 0.5.

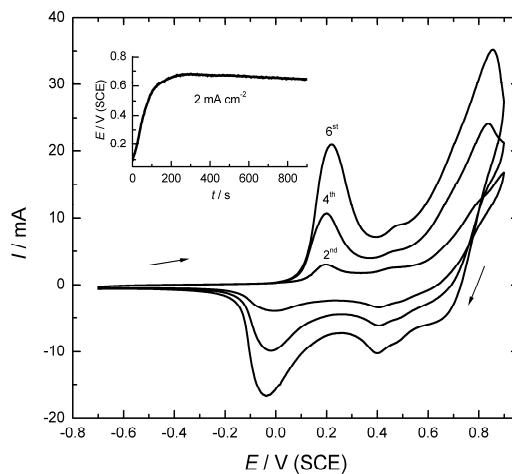


Fig. 4. Cyclic voltammograms of electrochemical polymerization of aniline on graphite electrode from aqueous solution of 1.0 mol dm^{-3} HCl and 0.25 mol dm^{-3} aniline, at scan rate of 20 mV s^{-1} . Insert: Chronopotentiometric curves of aniline polymerization at constant current density of 2.0 mA cm^{-2} .

Second anodic peak, occurred at potential of ~ 0.5 V (SCE) denotes formation of fully doped pernigraniline salt ($y = 1$).

The potentiostatic technique of electrochemical polymerization is characterized by pronounced changes in the current i.e. polymerization rate, and similarly to galvanostatic polymerization obtained polymer is in its doped form (Heinze et al., 2010). It was observed

that potentiostatic method could be useful in obtaining polyaniline nanowiers (Gupta & Miura, 2007). Modified potentiostatic techniques were also reported.

Some of the researches used pulse potentiostatic technique to obtained polyaniline electrochemically (Tang et al., 2000; Tsakova et al., 1993; Zhou et al., 2007). The potentiostatic pulse technique implies application of periodic cathodic and anodic pulses, with important parameters, lower (cathodic) and upper (anodic) limit potentials with additional cathodic and anodic pulses duration, during given time. It was observed (Zhou et al., 2007) that mentioned parameters had strong influence on the morphology of polyaniline, thus on its electrochemical activity.

3.5 Electrochemical co-polymerization of aniline and aniline derivates

Owing to its conductivity and redox activity, polyaniline is considered for practical application in various fields. Unfortunately, beside its unique properties, application of polyaniline in biochemical systems is limited as a consequence of the lost of activity at pH above 4 (Karyakin et al., 1994; Malinauskas, 1999; Mu 2011). This problem might be overcome by introduction of so-called pH functional groups into polyaniline chain (Mu, 2011). This could be achieved either by sulfonation (Wei et al., 1996) or by co-polymerization, which is more efficient way to alter the properties of parent polymer. Electrochemical polymerization of aniline and aniline derivates with pH functional groups, sulpho, carboxyl or hydroxyl was reported. It was observed that self-doped polyanilines, obtained by electrochemical co-polymerization of aniline with: *o*-aminobenzoic acid, *m*-aminobenzoic acid, or *m* - aminobenzensulfonic acid had exhibited redox activity at high pH (Karyakin et al., 1996).

Apart from aniline and aniline derivate, electrolyte solution also contains acid necessary for protonation of nitrogen atom. The obtained co-polymers are often called self-doped polyanilines, since the introduced negatively charged functional groups plays role of an intermolecular dopant which is able to compensate the charge on positively charged nitrogen atoms of the polymer. The presence of intermolecular anion alters properties of "ordinary" polyaniline, and has influence on the polymerization process as well. It was shown that upper switching potential limit had important influence on self-doping, the limit of 0.9 V was proven to be optimal, and while in the case of un- substituted aniline, upper limit was lower.

The problem related to electrochemical activity of self-doped polyaniline is its rapid lost. Recently, it was showed that electrochemical polymerization of aniline and 5-aminosalicylic acid, which nears two acidic functional groups, had lead to co-polymer with satisfactory redox activity (Mu, 2011).

4. Conclusion

Although polyaniline is among the first know electroconductive polymers, the interest in this field of study still exist, since its diverse and unique properties can be useful in various practical applications. Electrochemical polymerization of aniline and aniline derivates were intensively investigated. Various factors such as: electrode material, dopant anions, electrolyte composition, monomer type, pH etc. were proven to exhibit influence in the electropolymerization process and properties of the desired polymer. The electrochemical synthesis of polyaniline, similar to chemical, is practically always performed in strong acidic

electrolytes, according to radical mechanism, and the polymer is deposited on anode, permitting easy way for further analysis. It was also proved that, using inconvenient experimental setup, polyaniline colloids can also be obtained electrochemically. Finally, studies of electrochemical co-polymerization of aniline and its derivates with acidic functional groups were also performed, leading to so called self-doped polyanilines, with benefit of being electrochemically active even in high pH solutions.

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Study of the Dendritic Growth of Ni–Co Alloys Electrodeposited on Cu Substrates

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Ni–Co alloy deposits and their parent metals were formed on Cu substrates by electrolysis under different current densities applied in the galvanostatic regime. A quantitative scanning electron microscopy technique was employed to study the morphology and surface roughness of the obtained deposits. The structure of the deposits is governed by the nature of depositing ions and quantity of evolved hydrogen. The cauliflower morphology and the highest mean surface roughness values are the results of electrodeposition from the Ni containing bath. The structure of the Co deposits formed under the same conditions and determined by the formation of the hexagonal close-packed phase results in a more uniform grain size distribution and formation of smoother platelet deposits. The mean surface values of the parent metals are independent of the current density. The dendritic growth is a special case of a structure formed only in the Ni–Co alloy deposition at selected, high current densities of 220 and 400 mA cm⁻². The dendrites obtained at a higher current density of 400 mA cm⁻² have shown more developed structures with smaller dendrites that have more pronounced secondary branch and high order branches.

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The electrodeposition is one of the well-known approaches developed in recent years for the preparation of the nanostructured pure metals and alloys.^{1,2} The Ni–Co alloys have been widely investigated due to their unique magnetic and electrical properties, which have found a potential application in different computer read/write heads and microelectromechanical systems.^{3,4}

In general, electrolytic deposits can be compact or disperse.^{5,6} The disperse deposits are formed under electrolysis conditions, which favor a complete diffusion control of the process. The electrodeposition represents an excellent tool for the formation of metal disperse deposits with a highly developed surface area, which can be successfully used as electrodes in electrochemical devices such as fuel cells, batteries, and sensors.⁷ The basic characteristics of these electrodes, which should be fulfilled to be used for these purposes are the open porous structure, which enables the rapid transport of gas and liquid, and the extremely high surface area, which is desirable for electrochemical reactions. According to this, in the galvanostatic powder deposition, the initial deposition current density must be larger than the limiting diffusion current density.⁸ The electrodeposition at overpotentials belonging to the plateau of the diffusion-limiting current density leads to the formation of dendritic deposits. The strong hydrogen codeposition leads to a stirring of the solution and changes the mass-transfer limitations at the electrode surface.⁹ At the same time, the evolved hydrogen affects the mass- and heat-transfer, limiting the current density and ohmic resistance, leading to the formation of the open porous deposit structures with a high surface area.^{9–11}

In this work, Ni–Co nanoscaled deposits were prepared and characterized using different techniques, with respect to elucidating the effect of the current density and electrolyte composition on the formation of the dendritic deposits.

Experimental

The Ni, Co, and Ni–Co nanostructured deposits were obtained in the galvanostatic regime at a current density range of 65–400 mA cm⁻². The electrolyses were performed from ammonium sulfate–chloride solutions for the concentration ratio

$\text{Ni}^{2+}/\text{Co}^{2+} = 1$ of a solution composition as follows: total concentration 0.12 M ($\text{NiSO}_4 + \text{CoSO}_4$), 0.5 M NH_4Cl , and 3.5 M NH_4OH at pH 10. The parent metal deposits were prepared from the same supporting electrolyte with a total metal ion concentration of Co^{2+} or Ni^{2+} being 0.12 M. The reagents of the analytical purity and deionized water were used for the bath preparation. The temperature of the bath during deposition was maintained at 298 K. The Ni, Co, and Ni–Co deposits were prepared at the constant current density with a quantity of electricity of 0.043 Ah cm⁻² and an average sample thickness of (25 ± 5) μm . The Cu electrodes placed in the center of the cell with a 1.0 cm² surface area and a 0.2 cm thickness were used as working electrodes. A Ti plate covered with $\text{RuO}_2/\text{TiO}_2$ (10 cm² geometric area), placed close and parallel to the Cu plate, was used as an anode [dimensionally stable anode (DSA)]. The schematic representation of the electrochemical cell used for the deposition is presented in Fig. 1.

The polarization measurements were carried out by a computer-controlled electrochemical system (PAR M 273A, software PAR M352/252, version 2.01) with a sweep rate of 1 mV s⁻¹. For the correction of the IR drop, the current-interrupt technique was used with a time of current interruption of 0.5 s. The polarization curves were measured in a three-electrode electrochemical cell at (298 ± 1) K (Fig. 1), where the DSA was replaced by a large-area platinum mesh. The Luggin capillary connecting the reference electrode [saturated calomel electrode (SCE)] to the electrolyte was positioned at a distance of 0.2 cm from the working electrode (copper rod embedded in resin, $d = 4$ mm). Before each experiment, the working electrode was highly polished with an alumina-paste (0.05 μm)-impregnated polishing cloth.

The average current efficiency for the hydrogen evolution reaction is determined by the measurement of the quantity of evolved hydrogen based on Faraday's law. The overall electrodeposition current was calculated as a function of the electrodeposition time. The thickness of the deposits was estimated based on their cross-section images.

The surface morphology was analyzed by XL 30 environmental scanning electron microscope (ESEM) with field emission gun (FEI Co., Netherlands). The profile and roughness measurements, as well as three-dimensional (3D) area analyses, directly from the stereoscopic images of the specimen surface were carried out using MeX software from Alicona (A). The cross-section alloy composition

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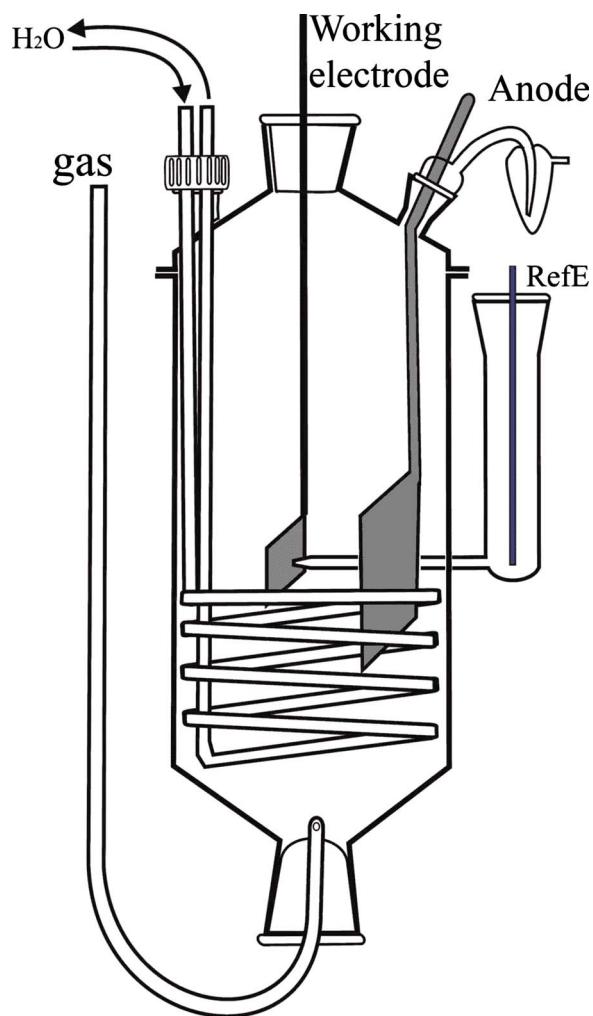


Figure 1. (Color online) Schematic representation of the electrochemical cell.

analyses of the deposited samples embedded in the resin were performed by ESEM using the energy dispersive X-ray analysis (EDX) technique (Genesis).

X-ray powder diffraction (XRD) analysis was carried out using an MPD diffractometer (Philips, NL) with Cu K α radiation (40 kV/30 mA) in Bragg/Brentano geometry. The step scan mode was utilized with 0.03° in a 20/1.15 s step. The angular 2θ range investigated was 20–110°.

Results and Discussion

Cathode polarization and efficiency.— During the cathodic electrodeposition of the iron group metals from aqueous solutions, a competitive cathodic hydrogen evolution reaction occurs.¹² Because the formation of the disperse and powder deposits is enhanced by a small metal ion concentration and high deposition current density, polarization curves were measured with a correction for the IR drop. In this case, the plateau corresponding to the limiting current density cannot be established, as in the case for the electrodeposition performed from aqueous solutions containing an electropositive metal such as Cu due to the intensive hydrogen evolution reaction almost from the beginning of the deposition. At the end of this plateau and at larger overpotentials, the intensive hydrogen evolution takes place. Therefore, the polarization curves for the electrodeposition of Ni, Ni-Co, and Co are complex with the appearance of the limiting current density in a wide range of potential values (Fig. 2a), characterized by the electrodeposition currents that grew (Fig. 2b) with

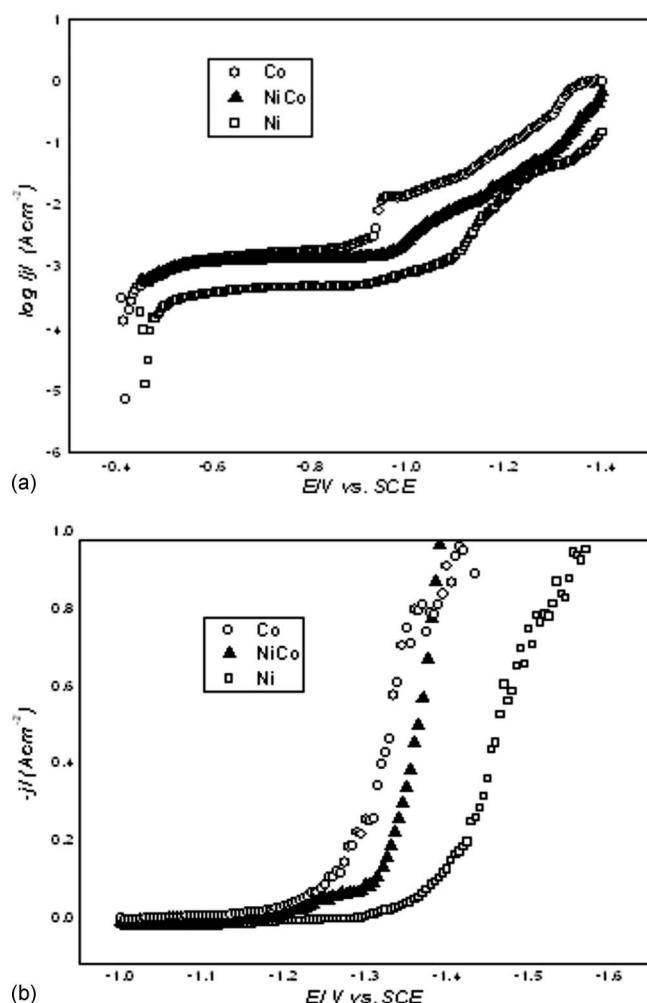


Figure 2. Polarization curves for galvanostatic Ni, Ni-Co, and Co deposition from the solution containing: □, 0.12 M NiSO₄; ▲, 0.12 M (NiSO₄ + CoSO₄) with concentration ratio Ni²⁺/Co²⁺ = 1; and ○, 0.12 M CoSO₄ in 0.5 M NH₄Cl and 3.5 M NH₄OH measured with IR drop correction. Scan rate: 1 mV s⁻¹.

the increasing of the overpotential. The corresponding overpotential needed for the deposition is most positive for the deposition of Co, followed by the deposition of Ni-Co alloy and Ni.

The electrodeposition potentials of Ni, Ni-Co, and Co are very similar with the values of about -0.5 V vs SCE. The range of potentials of -0.6 to -1.0 V is the activation control region of the metal and alloy electrodeposition. The deposition at overpotentials higher than -1.1 V is characterized by a sharp increase in the current density, most probably as a consequence of the formation of dendritic deposit with more developed structures.

The hydrogen evolution reaction in the alkaline solution proceeds according to the three reaction mechanisms¹³ resulting in the release of OH⁻ ions in the layer surrounding the electrode and, therefore, an increase in pH. However, the bath for the electrodeposition consists of NH₄Cl/NH₄OH used as a buffering agent for pH 10, and no significant increase in pH during deposition was observed.

The hydrogen overpotential can manifest itself through the cathodic current efficiency (Fig. 3). The hydrogen evolution during the deposition of the alloys diminishes the current efficiency, depending on the electrolyte composition and on the current density. These results agree well with the polarization measurements where the electrodeposition performed from bath with Co bath has a lower hydrogen overpotential and consequently a lower current efficiency.

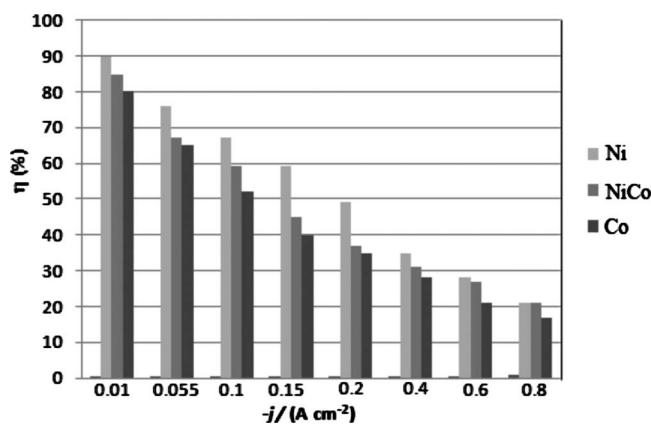


Figure 3. The dependence of the current efficiency on current density for Ni, Ni–Co, and Co electrodeposition (electrolyte composition: Ni–0.12 M NiSO_4 , Ni–Co alloy–0.12 M ($\text{NiSO}_4 + \text{CoSO}_4$), $\text{Ni}^{2+}/\text{Co}^{2+} = 1$, and Co–0.12 M CoSO_4).

Also, the evolution of hydrogen provides some additional stirring effect and enhances the formation of disperse deposits with more developed structures. Deposition becomes dependent on hydrogen evolution because at current densities, $j \geq 200 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$, the hydrogen evolution is predominant in the overall cathodic process. The current efficiencies $\eta \leq 50\%$ (Fig. 3) for the Ni-containing electrolyte and $\eta \leq 40\%$ for the Co-containing electrolyte at a current density of 200 mA cm^{-2} were found. The hydrogen method used for the calculation of the current efficiency of the Ni, Co, and Ni–Co alloys results in slightly higher values in comparison with the current efficiency data obtained by the gravimetric method. An explanation is attributed to the fact that the formation of dendritic deposits at higher current densities can cause the fall of some amount of deposit into the solution, resulting in less weight values and, consequently, diminished values of the calculated current efficiency.

Growth of Ni, Co, and dendritic Ni–Co deposits on Cu substrates.—The needlelike deposits known as dendrites are usually obtained by electrodeposition at low cation concentrations. By definition, dendrite represents a skeleton of monocrystals and consists of stalk and branches resembling a tree.⁸

The scanning electron microscopy (SEM) of the Ni–Co deposit cross sections obtained on copper substrates has shown the gradual evolution of the dendritic formation (Fig. 4a–c). With an increasing current density, a detailed investigation of the deposits morphology has shown a formation of primary dendrites, which further grows with increasing current density. The sample obtained at a current density of 65 mA cm^{-2} revealed the formation of a rough deposit (Fig. 4a). The propagation of this structure by branching produces dendrites, as shown in Fig. 4b. The dendrites obtained at a higher current density of 400 mA cm^{-2} (Fig. 4c) have shown more developed structures with smaller dendrites that have more pronounced secondary branch and high order branches. A comparison with deposits obtained from pure Ni baths revealed a formation of a rough deposit only (Fig. 5a). In contrast, electrodeposition performed at the lowest value of the current density, i.e., 65 mA cm^{-2} , from a pure Co bath has shown a formation of dendritic growth (Fig. 5b). In the particular case of anisotropic Co deposition when the hexagonal close-packed (hcp) lattice is formed, the growth along the high index axis does not lead to a formation of low index planes. Therefore, the hcp lattice serves as a growth site for the dendrite formation because the development of protrusions along some axis in the direction of the increasing concentration is more favorable. Repeated nucleation results in the dendrite formation. Although deposits produced from simple solution salts without additives are often dendritic or treelike, real dendritic structures are formed only from Ni–Co baths ($\text{Ni}^{2+}/\text{Co}^{2+} = 1$), whereas with increasing current den-

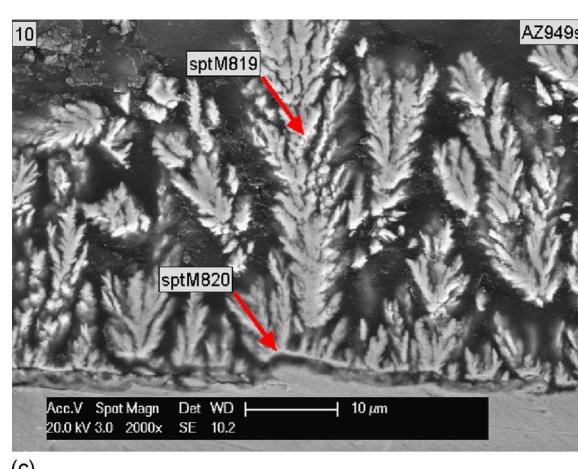
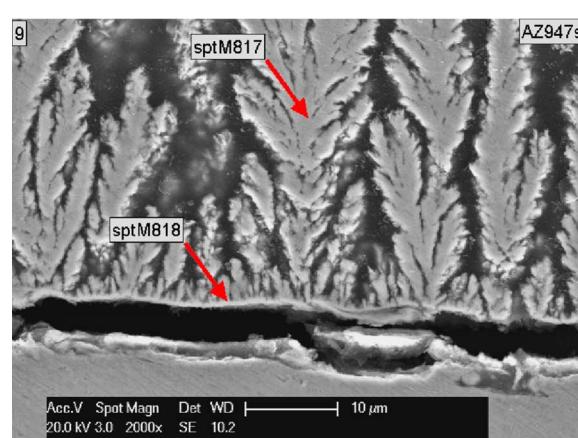
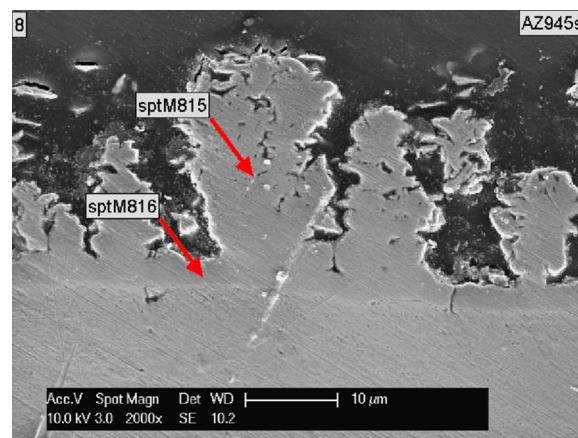


Figure 4. (Color online) Cross sections of Ni–Co deposits galvanostatically obtained from the solution containing 0.12 M ($\text{NiSO}_4 + \text{CoSO}_4$), $\text{Ni}^{2+}/\text{Co}^{2+} = 1$ at current density: (a) 65, (b) 220, and (c) 400 mA cm^{-2} .

sity, the dendritic growth is even more pronounced (Fig. 4b and c). In this range of concentrations, Ni and Co exhibit a mutual solid solubility. The deposition from bath with different $\text{Ni}^{2+}/\text{Co}^{2+}$ concentration ratios, i.e., 0.25, 0.5, 2, and 4, results in more disperse than the dendritic growth.¹⁴

EDX composition analysis of Ni–Co deposits.—The cross-section composition analysis of the alloys galvanostatically deposited from the solution containing the total concentration of

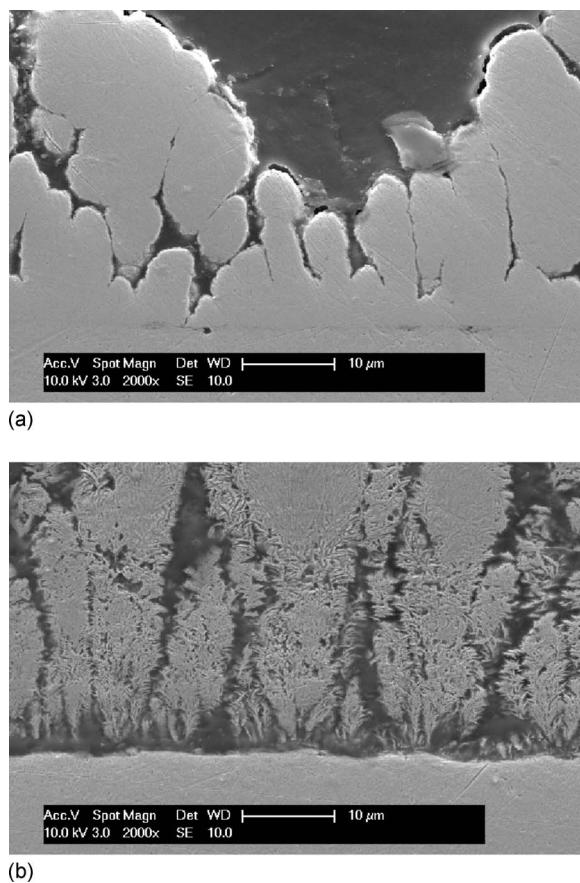
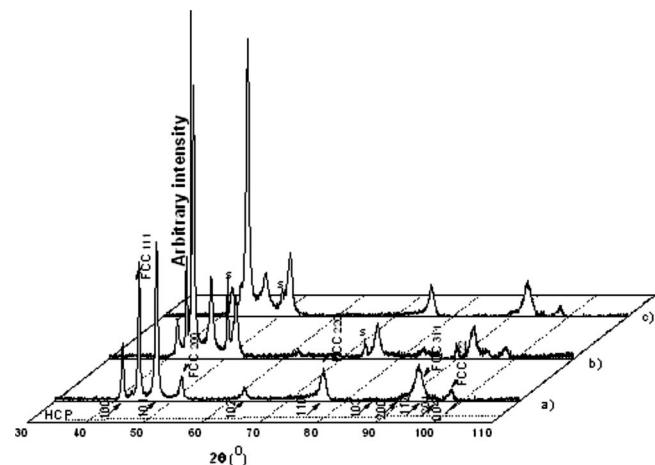


Figure 5. (a) Cross section of Ni deposit galvanostatically obtained from the solution containing 0.12 M NiSO_4 at current density of 65 mA cm^{-2} . (b) Cross section of Co deposit galvanostatically obtained from the solution containing 0.12 M CoSO_4 at current density of 65 mA cm^{-2} .

0.12 mol dm^{-3} of ion metal with a ratio $\text{Ni}^{2+}/\text{Co}^{2+} = 1$ is presented in Table I. The composition of the dendritic deposit samples near the electrode surface and in some distance is different (see Table I).

An EDX analysis revealed that at higher current densities, i.e., 220 and 400 mA cm^{-2} , the deposition of Co is enhanced near the electrode surface ($\sim 1 \mu\text{m}$) due to the lower overpotential for the Co electrodeposition (sptM818, sptM820 in Fig. 4b and c), reaching values of the corresponding ions in the solution (sptM817, sptM819 in Fig. 4b and c). An explanation can be attributed to the fact that at high current densities, the hydrogen evolution is higher (Fig. 3), providing some stirring effect and leading to the more uniform dis-



of the anomalous codeposition (characteristic of the electrodeposition of iron group metals) is very pronounced in the production of compact deposits. In the disperse deposits, the anomalous codeposition is much less pronounced, so that the composition of the deposits obtained at high current density is almost similar to the concentration of the metal ions in the electrolyte (Fig. 4c). Increasing the current density shifts the ratio of Ni and Co in the alloys closer to the value of the concentration of the corresponding ions in electrolyte.

Structural analysis of Ni–Co deposits.—The nanostructured dendritic deposits were analyzed by XRD (Fig. 6). The Rietveld refinement procedure¹⁵ was used to determine the structure and the grain size of the deposits. For this purpose, Rietveld's refinement program TOPAS V3.0 (Bruker AXS GmbH, Germany) was used.¹⁶ The quality of the refinement progress was controlled by monitoring the fit parameter R_{wp} , the goodness of fit, and the Durbin–Watson factor.

A detailed Rietveld's analysis revealed that Ni–Co alloys obtained by the galvanostatic deposition using the same electrolyte at different current densities consist of a mixture of solid solutions. The crystal structure obeys the phase diagram¹⁷ because the obtained bulk deposits are in the range of concentrations where Ni and Co exhibit solid solubility (see Table I).

The face-centered cubic (fcc) phase, whose structure is defined by the $Fm\bar{3}m$ space group, and hcp, whose structure is defined by the $P63/mmc$ space group, were identified. By increasing the current density, the structure and composition of the obtained deposits is progressively changed.

The increase in the current density leads to the increase in the content of the fcc phase, as well as the formation of significant amounts of the amorphous phase (Table II). Furthermore, the cell volume of the fcc phase increases slightly with increasing current density (Table II).

At a current density of 65 mA cm^{-2} , mainly the hcp phase, the equilibrium phase of Co stable at room temperature is generated, and it is in good correlation with the EDX results of the bulk material (Table I). At higher electrode polarization, i.e., far from equilibrium, at a current density of 220 mA cm^{-2} , the fcc phase growth preferentially on the polycrystalline FCC-structured Cu substrate. Still, an amount of 20% hcp phase (Co) calculated by the XRD Rietveld refinement is present (Table II). Taking into account the amount of an amorphous phase of 9%, this means that approximately 70% of the deposit is composed of the fcc solid solution.

In the deposition at a current density of 400 mA cm^{-2} , even further from equilibrium in comparison with deposits obtained at 220 mA cm^{-2} , the growth of the fcc phase is more pronounced (Table II.). As determined by TOPAS using the Rietveld method, the disperse deposits with more developed structures obtained at a high current density, i.e., 400 mA cm^{-2} , also contained an up to 15% amorphous phase. The amorphous phase content, attributed to the enhanced background intensity, was estimated by the determination of the integral area of the broad diffuse diffraction halo, which cannot be assigned to distinct diffraction maxima correlated with crystalline phases and by comparing with samples without an amorphous phase.

The classical expression⁸ for the steady-state nucleation rate J is given by

$$J = K_1 \exp - \frac{K_2}{\eta^2} \quad [1]$$

where K_1 and K_2 are practically overpotential-independent constants. The nucleus probability formation J is enhanced by the increase in the overpotential η . The electrochemical deposit formation at higher current densities is accompanied by higher overpotential values. Based on the equation, obviously, a further increase in the current density decreases the grain size of the deposits down to 10 nm (Table II).

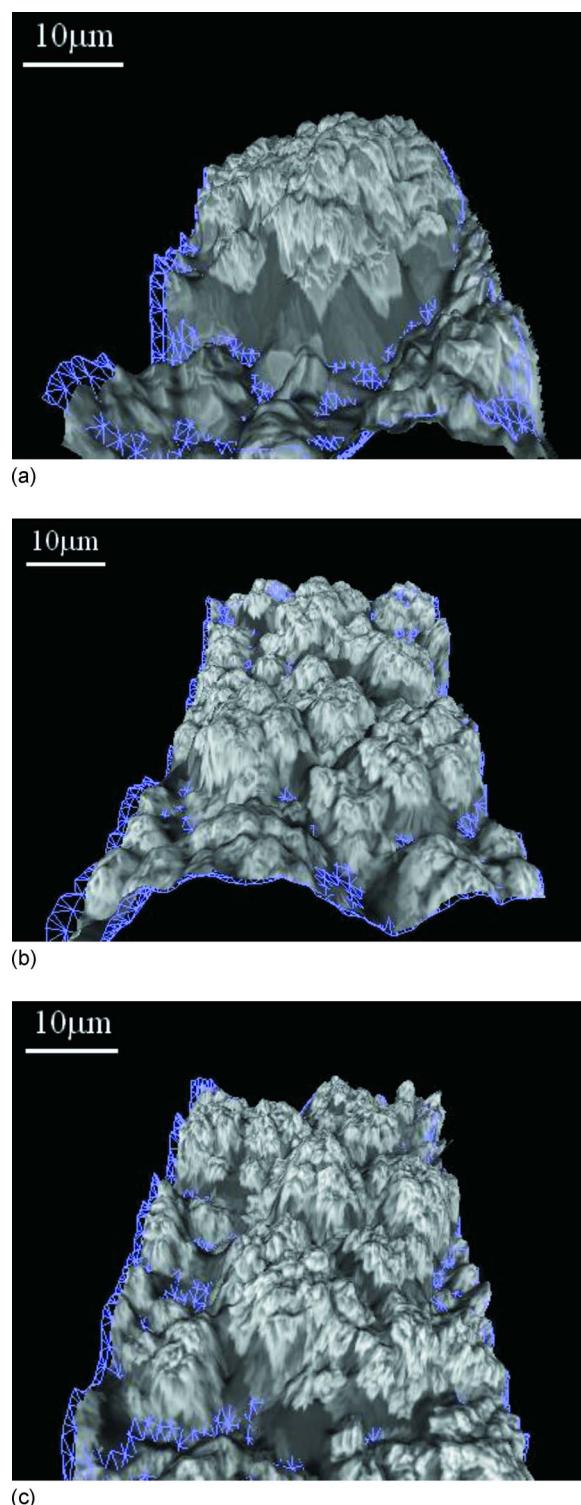


Figure 7. (Color online) 3D SEM reconstruction of the surfaces of Ni–Co deposits galvanostatically obtained at current densities: (a) 65, (b) 220, and (c) 400 mA cm^{-2} .

Surface morphology of Ni–Co deposits.—The nature and magnitude of the applied electric field across the counter-working electrode arrangement determines (i) grain size, (ii) surface roughness, and (iii) dendritic electrodeposit growth.

The surface roughness of the Ni–Co deposits was determined by the 3D SEM reconstruction of the specimen surface (Fig. 7a–c). Such a characterization gives quantitative results of the mean sur-

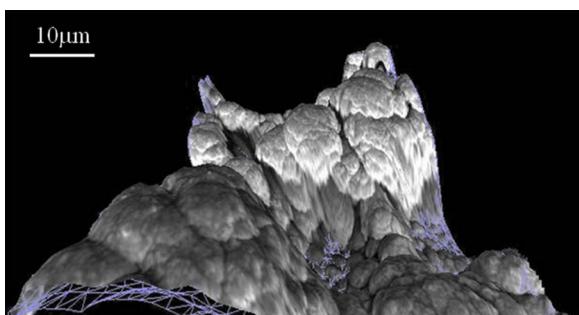


Figure 8. (Color online) 3D SEM reconstruction of the surface of Ni deposit galvanostatically obtained at current density of 400 mA cm^{-2} .

face roughness: $\sigma = 3 \mu\text{m}$ in the deposit obtained at current density 65 mA cm^{-2} (Fig. 7a) and $\sigma = 1 \mu\text{m}$ in the deposits obtained at current densities 220 and 400 mA cm^{-2} (Fig. 7b and c). The value σ represents a picture of local surface irregularities and gives the height deviation of the surface from the mean level. An increase in the current density results in a decrease in the mean roughness because at higher current densities, the amount of crystal nuclei on the surface is enhanced, causing a more homogeneous grain size distribution and, therefore, formation of a smoother deposit.

The effective surface roughness increases due to the increase in the coarseness of the deposit with increasing current density (Fig. 7b and c). This surface amplification leads to the initiation of the preferential growth of protrusions or dendrites. The Ni deposits obtained from simple solution salts are characterized by a cauliflower surface morphology and mean surface roughness values of $\sigma = 4 \mu\text{m}$ for all analyzed deposits obtained at current densities of 65, 220, and 400 mA cm^{-2} . A typical 3D SEM reconstruction of the surface of the Ni deposit is presented in Fig. 8.

Co deposits have shown mean σ values of $1 \mu\text{m}$, and the result of the deposition is the appearance of smoother deposits compared to the Ni deposits (Fig. 9). One of the consequences of hydrogen evolution is that H_2 bubbles are attached to the surface during deposition and therefore can cause growth of the deposit around the bubbles before they are released. Such impact of hydrogen during the codeposition of Ni can cause larger mean surface values of Ni deposits. The confirmation of these is the presence of craters or holes in the Ni deposit (Fig. 10a), clearly visible on the surface of one typical SEM micrograph. The bottoms of the holes consist of small Ni particles, while around them during codeposition, larger cauliflower particles are formed. A faster growth of the deposit around bubbles is caused by increasing current density because the overall current is concentrated around the bubbles, which are not

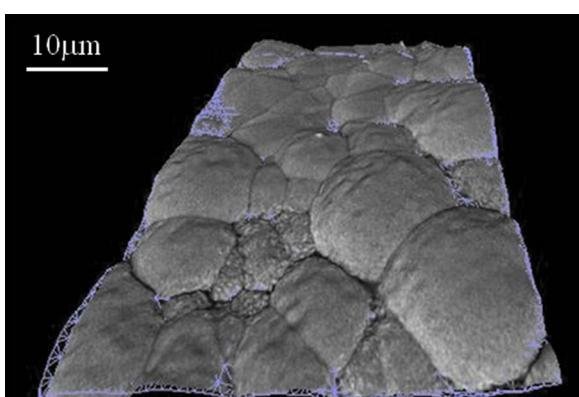
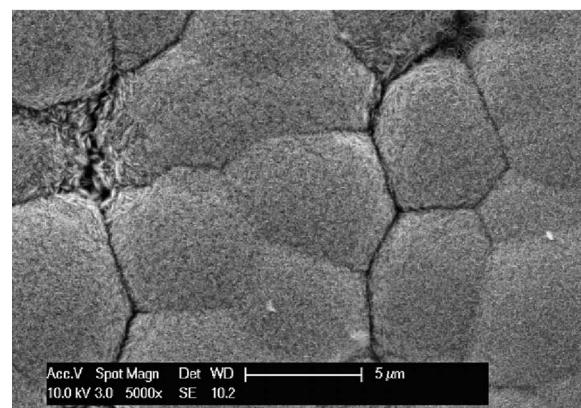


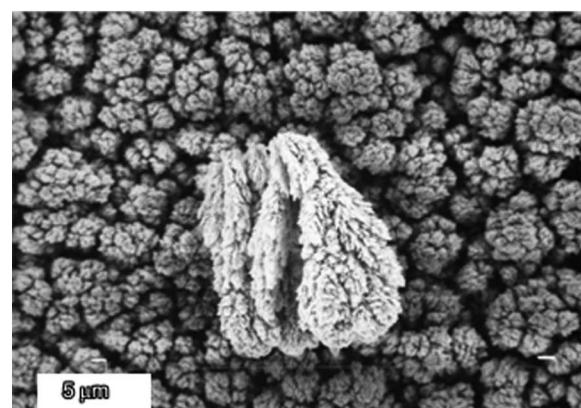
Figure 9. (Color online) 3D SEM reconstruction of the surface of Co deposit galvanostatically obtained at current density of 220 mA cm^{-2} .



(a)



(b)



(c)

Figure 10. (a) SEM micrograph of Ni deposit formed by galvanostatic deposition at current density of 400 mA cm^{-2} . (b) SEM micrograph of Co deposit formed by galvanostatic deposition at current density of 220 mA cm^{-2} . (c) SEM micrograph of Ni-Co dendrites formed by galvanostatic deposition at current density of 400 mA cm^{-2} .

conductive. This directly results in the formation of high surface area disperse deposit confirmed by 3D SEM results and the value of surface roughness of $\sigma = 4 \mu\text{m}$. A typical SEM micrograph of particles of the Co deposit (Fig. 10b) separated by boundaries is characterized by the platelet morphology with very fine nanosized crystallites growing on the surface during codeposition from the Co-containing bath. In both cases, the particles consist of smaller agglomerates of grains.

The surface morphology of the Ni-Co deposit is characterized by the formation of dendrites. Figure 10c shows the cauliflower-shaped

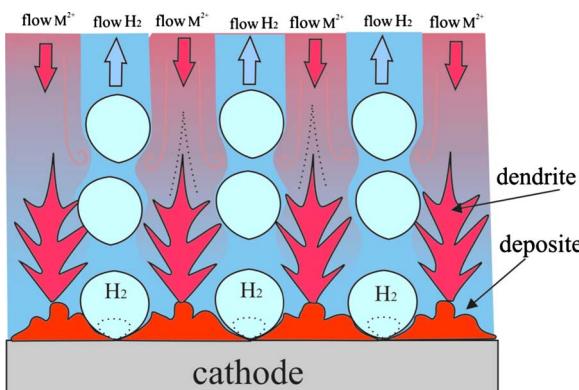


Figure 11. (Color online) Schematic representation of the dendrite formation.

particles with dendrites growing on its surface. Increasing the overpotential under a strong hydrogen codeposition leads to the dendritic deposits formation in the Ni–Co alloy deposition.

The basic cause of dendritic growth is the formation of the diffusion field of depositing ions that favors the development of protrusion in the direction of increasing concentration. Dendrite exhibits a highly ordered structure and grows and branches in well-defined directions.

The motion of the growing interface is controlled by a concentration of the diffusing particle and electric potential.¹⁸ According to Fick's law, which satisfies the equation for a nonlocal growth process, such as electrodeposition, the low value of the growth velocity and the large value of the diffusion length enhance the deposition preferentially on protrusions.

Well-defined organizations, such as dendritic, are formed under such conditions. A schematic representation of the common effect of hydrogen and electrolysis conditions, which favor the dendrite formation, is shown in Fig. 11.

Apart from decreasing the concentration of the depositing ion, the formation of a dendritic deposit can also be enhanced by increasing the concentration of the supporting electrolyte, increasing the viscosity of the solution, decreasing the temperature, and decreasing the velocity of motion of the solution.⁸

Conclusion

The grain size of Ni–Co deposits is determined by the applied overpotential. Increasing current density results in finer grain deposits. The structure of Ni–Co deposits is characterized by a solid solution formation; increasing current density results in an increase in the volume fraction of the cubic phase. The morphology of Ni–Co is affected by conditions applied during electrolysis. Morphology is determined by the nature of depositing ions. The Ni deposit exhibits a spherical growth during deposition, which manifests itself by a typical cauliflower structure; the surface pattern of the Co deposit is characterized by a platelet structure. The composition of the alloy

deposit is determined by the hydrodynamics conditions in the near electrode layer; with increasing current density, the hydrogen evolution is predominant, leading to the more uniform distribution of Ni and Co ions in the double layer, and, therefore, the composition of the deposits reaches the real value of the corresponding ions in the solution. The whole process determines the density of nucleation sites and the final morphology of the deposit. The formation of the dendritic Ni–Co alloy deposits is enhanced by increasing the current density and leads to a decrease in the mean roughness. The number of atoms in the nucleus having the critical radius declines with the overpotential square, resulting in a more rapid nucleation at higher current density and the formation of smaller crystals with the average grain sizes of 10 nm. The increase in the current density leads to an increase in the volume fraction of the cubic phase in the nanocrystalline alloy deposits with a corresponding decrease in the grain size.

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Microstructure and mechanical properties of disperse Ni–Co alloys electrodeposited on Cu substrates

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ABSTRACT

The nickel and cobalt disperse alloy deposits of five different compositions were obtained by electrodeposition on Cu substrates in the galvanostatic regime from an ammonium sulfate-chloride solution. The effect of cathodic current density and $\text{Ni}^{2+}/\text{Co}^{2+}$ ions concentration ratio in the electrolyte on the composition, microstructure, morphology and mechanical properties of Ni–Co alloys were investigated. Conditions for formation of nanostructured disperse deposits and surface roughness was determined by 3D SEM reconstruction of the specimen surface. It was established that formation of the disperse deposits with highly developed structures is favored from bath with equal $\text{Ni}^{2+}/\text{Co}^{2+}$ ions concentration ratio in the electrolyte. Cathodic polarization diagrams determined for all investigated alloys have shown shift of the cathodic potential for alloy deposition to the more negative values with increasing $\text{Ni}^{2+}/\text{Co}^{2+}$ ions concentration ratio in the electrolyte. An increase of in the cobalt content in the alloy was observed with decreasing the current density and increasing of the Co^{2+} ions concentration ratio in the bath. X-ray analyses of nanocrystalline Ni–Co deposits show formation of a single phase face-centered cubic (FCC), a single phase hexagonal-close packed (HCP) and mixture of FCC solid solutions and HCP phase depending on the current density applied and electrolyte composition. The increase of HCP phase content in the nanocrystalline deposits appears as a result of both, the increase in Co^{2+} ions concentration in the bath and decrease of deposition current density. The mechanical properties of nanocrystalline deposits have shown increase of the hardness with increasing Ni content in the alloy. The cross-section of the samples electrodeposited on Cu substrates from electrolytes with equal ion metal concentration at lower current density values revealed the beginning of a dendrite structure formation.

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1. Introduction

The recent interest in the electrodeposition of iron-group metals (Ni, Co and Fe) and their alloys is due to their unique magnetic and thermophysical properties [1,2]. Electrodeposition is a process which is capable for depositing nanocrystalline metals and alloys [3] onto recessed and non-uniform surfaces, and therefore has found a role in microelectromechanical systems (MEMS) [2,4–7]. The hardness and strength of the electrolytic deposits are better than alloys prepared by conventional metallurgical processes [2]. One of the most important aspects of electrodeposition process is possibility for production of nanocrystalline materials which exhibit unique properties compared to the microcrystalline counterparts [3].

A metal powder represents a loose deposit which can spontaneously fall off from the electrode or can be removed by tapping or

by other similar way [8–10]. The electrodeposition of the powders from the solutions, established by the work of Calusaru [11] possesses significant advantages over other methods for synthesis of nanocrystalline materials [3]. This method usually yields products of requested chemical composition and high purity, which can be well pressed and sintered [12–14]. The effect of operating conditions, electrolyte composition, temperature and pH on the Ni–Co composition and properties of obtained deposits are widely investigated [15–18]. On the other hand, electrodeposition at very high current density and high overpotential is only investigated for the case of the obtaining of powders [19–21].

However, electrochemical synthesis of disperse deposits on the substrate is insufficiently investigated [8]. Investigations of such Cu deposits formed at high current densities characterized by open and very porous structures with extremely high surface areas were initiated recently [22]. It has been stated that the open and porous structures of copper deposits obtained at high current densities were ideally suited for use as electrodes in electrochemical devices such as fuel cells, batteries and chemical sensors [22], while the extremely high surface area is relevant for evaluating

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some electrochemical reactions [23]. Surface microstructure plays a crucial role in application such as a magnetic storage, printing devices and all other similar technological procedures, but correlation between surface morphology and roughness structure with deposition parameters is still open topic [24]. Three-dimensional (3D) characterization seems more adapted for applied research. Therefore, the aim of this study is investigation of the influence of deposition current density on microstructure of disperse Ni–Co deposits and correlation between electrolysis conditions for formation of such rough deposits on the substrates with morphology, surface roughness and mechanical properties.

2. Experimental

The deposits were obtained in an open glass electrochemical cell with a volume of 1 dm³, thermostatically controlled at a temperature of 298 K. A Ti-plate covered with RuO₂/TiO₂ (10 cm² geometric area), placed close and parallel to the Cu plate, was used as an anode (DSA). The solutions were made from analytical grade chemicals and triple distilled water. The alloys were electrodeposited from mixed ammonium sulfate-chloride solutions of different Ni²⁺/Co²⁺ ions concentration ratios of 0.25, 0.5, 1, 2 and 4 (total concentration of NiSO₄ + CoSO₄ was 0.12 mol dm⁻³) using 0.5 mol dm⁻³ NH₄Cl and 3.5 mol dm⁻³ NH₄OH as a buffering agent and a supporting electrolyte at pH 10. The electrodeposition was performed with a constant current regime ranging from 65 to 400 mA cm⁻². The deposition time was adjusted to the same quantity of electricity (43 mA h cm⁻²).

Polarization diagrams were recorded with the three-compartment standard electrochemical cell at a temperature of 298 K. The platinum foil counter electrode and the reference-saturated calomel electrode (SCE) were placed at separate compartments, connected to the working electrode by a Luggin capillary positioned at a distance of 0.2 cm from the working electrode surface. The working electrode was a copper electrode rod ($d = 0.4$ cm). Before each experiment the working electrode surface was polished using 0.05 µm alumina impregnated polishing cloths. The Ni–Co alloys were electrodeposited with same quantity of electricity (43 mA h cm⁻²).

Polarization measurements were performed by a computer controlled electrochemical system (PAR M 273A) using the corrosion software (PAR M352/252, version 2.01) with a sweep rate of 1 mV s⁻¹. To obtain polarization curves corrected for the IR drop, current interrupt technique was used with the time of current interruption being 0.5 s.

The current efficiency of alloy deposits was determined at different current densities by measuring the mass of the deposit on the copper cathode which was used as a working electrode.

Surface morphology was examined using an XL 30 ESEM-FEG (environmental scanning electron microscope with field emission gun, FEI Company, NL). The 3D reconstruction of the specimen surface was characterized by SEM using MeX software from Alicona (A). It enables to carry out a 3D analysis directly from the digital images yielding profile and roughness measurements and also area analysis as well as volumetric measurements. An alloy composition analysis was performed by ESEM using the energy dispersive X-ray spectrometry (EDX) software Genesis (USA). X-ray powder diffraction (XRD) analysis was carried out using a MPD diffractometer (Philips, NL) with CuKα radiation (40 kV/30 mA). Step scan mode was utilized with 0.03° in 2θ per 1.15 s step.

The micro-hardness of the deposits was determined using a Vickers microhardness indenter with a load of 50 µN. Cross-sections of the Ni–Co samples deposited on the Cu substrates were performed for indentation measurements. The final value quoted for the hardness of the deposits was the average of 10 measurements. Optical micrographs of the sample cross-sections were obtained by optical microscope Olympus SZX 12 (JP).

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Current efficiency

Fig. 1 shows the polarization curves for different compositions of the electrolyte performed on a Cu cathode. The shape and position of the polarization curves strongly depend on the electrolyte composition. A decrease in the content of Co²⁺ as well as an increase in the content of Ni²⁺ shifts the position of the corresponding polarization curves towards negative values of the potentials corresponding to the potential of the Ni/Ni²⁺ deposition of pure nickel.

Metal and alloy deposition of the iron group from aqueous solutions, is accompanied by a concurrent hydrogen evolution reaction [25] which significantly affects the shape of the polarization curve and the morphology of the obtained deposits. According to the polarization diagrams, corrected for IR drop (which is indis-

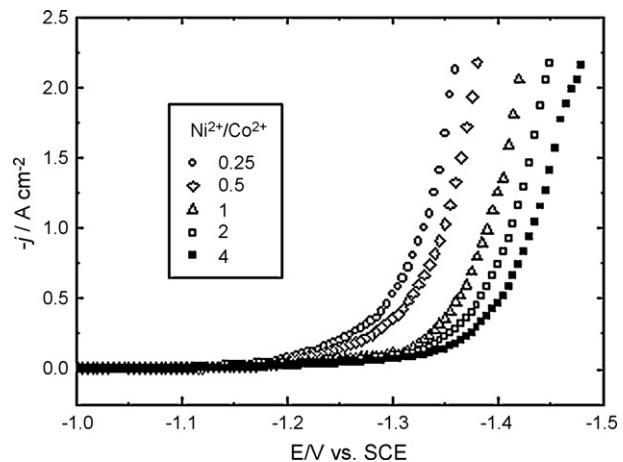


Fig. 1. Polarization curves for the cathodic process of Ni–Co deposition on copper cathode for different composition of the electrolyte: (○) $\text{Ni}^{2+}/\text{Co}^{2+} = 0.25$; (◊) $\text{Ni}^{2+}/\text{Co}^{2+} = 0.5$; (Δ) $\text{Ni}^{2+}/\text{Co}^{2+} = 1$, (□) $\text{Ni}^{2+}/\text{Co}^{2+} = 2$ and (■) $\text{Ni}^{2+}/\text{Co}^{2+} = 4$, corrected for IR drop. Scan rate 1 mV⁻¹.

pensable because the galvanostatic deposition for production of disperse deposits is performed at high current densities using small ion metal concentration), the Ni–Co electrodeposition at overpotentials higher than -1.2 V is characterized by sharp increase of the current density where disperse deposits with high developed structures are formed. Formation of the disperse deposits is dependant on hydrogen evolution since at current density higher than 200 mA cm^{-2} , the current efficiency is less than 50% (**Fig. 2**) for all investigated electrolyte compositions. Hydrogen provides some additional stirring effect and enhances formation of disperse deposits with more developed structures.

The hydrogen evolution during the deposition of the alloys diminishes the current efficiency, depending on the electrolyte composition as well as on the current density. These results are in agreement with polarization measurements where alloys with less nickel content have lower hydrogen overpotential and consequently a lower current efficiency. In the current density range, where the disperse deposits were obtained, the current efficiency decreases with the increase of the current density and with the decrease of the Ni^{2+} concentration in the electrolyte.

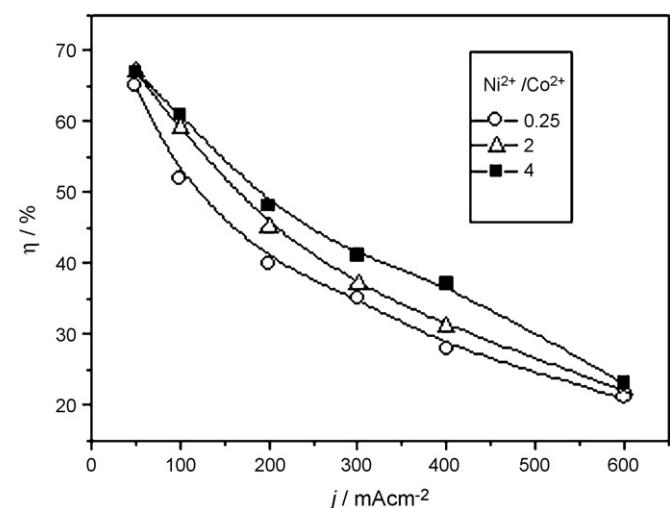


Fig. 2. Current efficiency of the Ni–Co deposition process for the different current densities and compositions of the electrolyte: (○) $\text{Ni}^{2+}/\text{Co}^{2+} = 0.25$; (Δ) $\text{Ni}^{2+}/\text{Co}^{2+} = 1$ and (■) $\text{Ni}^{2+}/\text{Co}^{2+} = 4$.

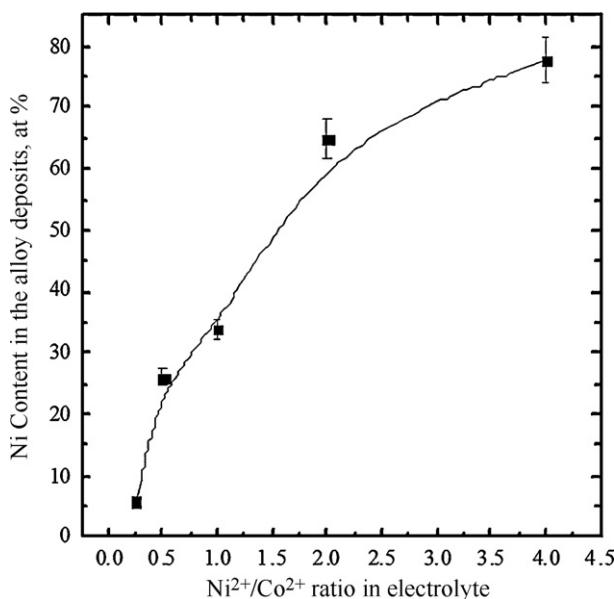


Fig. 3. Dependence of the alloy composition on $\text{Ni}^{2+}/\text{Co}^{2+}$ ratio in the electrolyte at a current density 65 mA cm^{-2} .

3.2. Composition of the Ni–Co alloys

In order to define the influence of the electrolyte concentration on composition of the obtained disperse Ni–Co deposits, the electrodeposition from five electrolytes of different compositions at current density of 65 mA cm^{-2} was performed. The chemical composition of the alloys galvanostatically deposited was determined for alloy samples as an average of 3 measurements with surfaces of $10 \mu\text{m}^2$ with an error of $\pm 2\%$. Afterwards, current densities of 220 and 400 mA cm^{-2} were selected to define the effect of the current density on deposit composition for a chosen electrolyte composition.

According to the EDX analysis, the electrolyte composition ($\text{Ni}^{2+}/\text{Co}^{2+}$ ions ratio) as well as the current density, affects the composition of the electrodeposited alloys remarkably, Figs. 3 and 4.

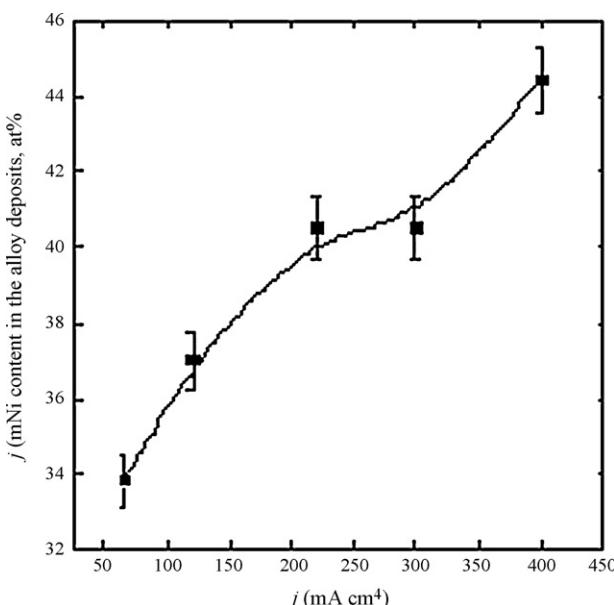


Fig. 4. Dependence of the alloy composition on current density from an electrolyte with concentration ratio $\text{Ni}^{2+}/\text{Co}^{2+} = 1$.

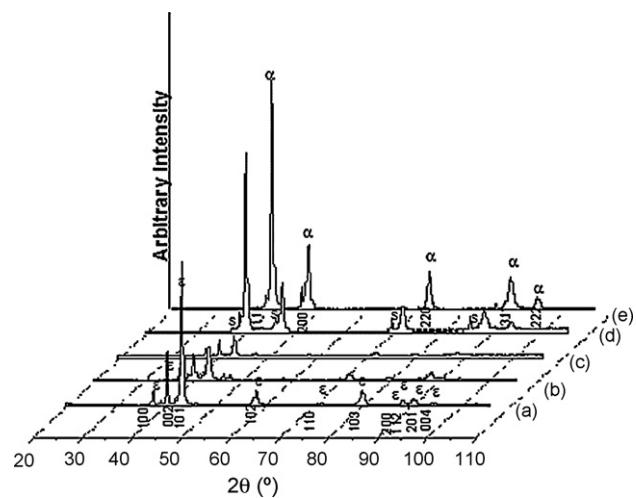


Fig. 5. X-ray diffraction patterns of alloys deposited from the electrolyte with different $\text{Ni}^{2+}/\text{Co}^{2+}$ concentration ratio: (a) 0.25, (b) 0.5, (c) 1, (d) 2 and e) 4 at a current density 65 mA cm^{-2} (α -reflections attributed to the α -Ni; ϵ -reflections attributed to the ϵ -Co; S-reflection attributed to the Cu substrate).

However, the percentage of Ni in the deposit, especially for the deposit obtained from the electrolyte with $[\text{Ni}^{2+}]/[\text{Co}^{2+}] = 0.25$ was lower than in the electrolyte solution, Fig. 3. This indicates that the electrochemical alloying leads to an increase in the reaction rate of Co at relatively low current density of $j = 65 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ resulting in the higher content of cobalt in the alloy than in the electrolyte. Such behavior is in accordance with the term “anomalous co-deposition” as introduced by Brenner [25] which refers to the preferential deposition of the less noble metal, i.e. Co. Besides, with the increase of the Ni^{2+} concentration in the electrolyte, the Ni content in the alloys almost reaches its content in the electrolyte.

The difference between the electrolyte composition and the deposit composition (Fig. 4) is much less pronounced at high current density, i.e. $j = 400 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$. The composition of the obtained deposit is almost similar to the concentration of the metal ions in the electrolyte. In this case, the composition of the deposits is dependent on the current density, indicating that an increase of the current density is accompanied by a decrease of the cobalt content in the deposit. An increase of the current density leads to an increase of the overpotential which is combined by an increase of the activation of the electrode reaction. This results in an increase of the nickel content in the deposits.

3.3. Microstructure of deposits-Influence of chemical composition of the electrolyte on microstructure

Fig. 5 shows a series of XRD patterns for all five alloys electrodeposited from different bath compositions at a selected current density of $j = 65 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ with same quantity of electricity and with an average sample thickness of $(25 \pm 5) \mu\text{m}$.

The X-ray analysis of the deposits shows the presence of solid solutions of Ni and Co with a structure which changes progressively with the change of their chemical composition depending on the used electrolyte. For the lowest content of Ni, a single phase deposit involves the hexagonal close-packed (HCP) phase also known as ϵ -phase (Fig. 5a). With the increase of nickel content in the deposit ranging to 30–40 at%, the mixture of face centered cubic (FCC) also known as α -phase and the HCP phase was found (Fig. 5b–d). With the further increase of Ni content in Ni deposit, only a single FCC phase is observed (Fig. 5e). The noticed diffraction peaks of Cu with low intensity belong to the substrate material. Deposits rich in Co and deposits rich in Ni (Fig. 5a and e) exhibit cell volumes comparable to the theoretical values of Co (22.1 \AA^3) and Ni (43.8 \AA^3), cf.

Table 1

Phase composition, grain size and cell parameters of the electrodeposited alloys.

Ni ²⁺ /Co ²⁺ /current density	Crystal structure/concentration (%)	Grain size (nm)	a (Å)	c (Å)	Cell volume (Å ³)
Ni ²⁺ /Co ²⁺ = 0.25/ 65 mA cm ⁻²	HCP/100	20	2.506	4.069	22.126
Ni ²⁺ /Co ²⁺ = 0.5 65 mA cm ⁻²	FCC/27 HCP/73	11/9	3.533/2.505	4.076	44.114/22.153
Ni ²⁺ /Co ²⁺ = 1/ 65 mA cm ⁻²	FCC/28 HCP/72	19/15	3.529/2.505	4.072	43.955/22.127
Ni ²⁺ /Co ²⁺ = 1/ 220 mA cm ⁻²	FCC/71 HCP/21 amorphous phase/8	13/11	3.530/2.499	4.077	43.971/22.043
Ni ²⁺ /Co ²⁺ = 1/ 400 mA cm ⁻²	FCC/82 HCP/3 amorphous phase/15	11/10	3.533/2.495	4.100	44.096/22.100
Ni ²⁺ /Co ²⁺ = 2 65 mA cm ⁻²	FCC/87 HCP/13	14/5	3.528/2.480	4.057	43.901/21.610
Ni ²⁺ /Co ²⁺ = 0.25/ 65 mA cm ⁻²	FCC/100	13	3.526		43.833

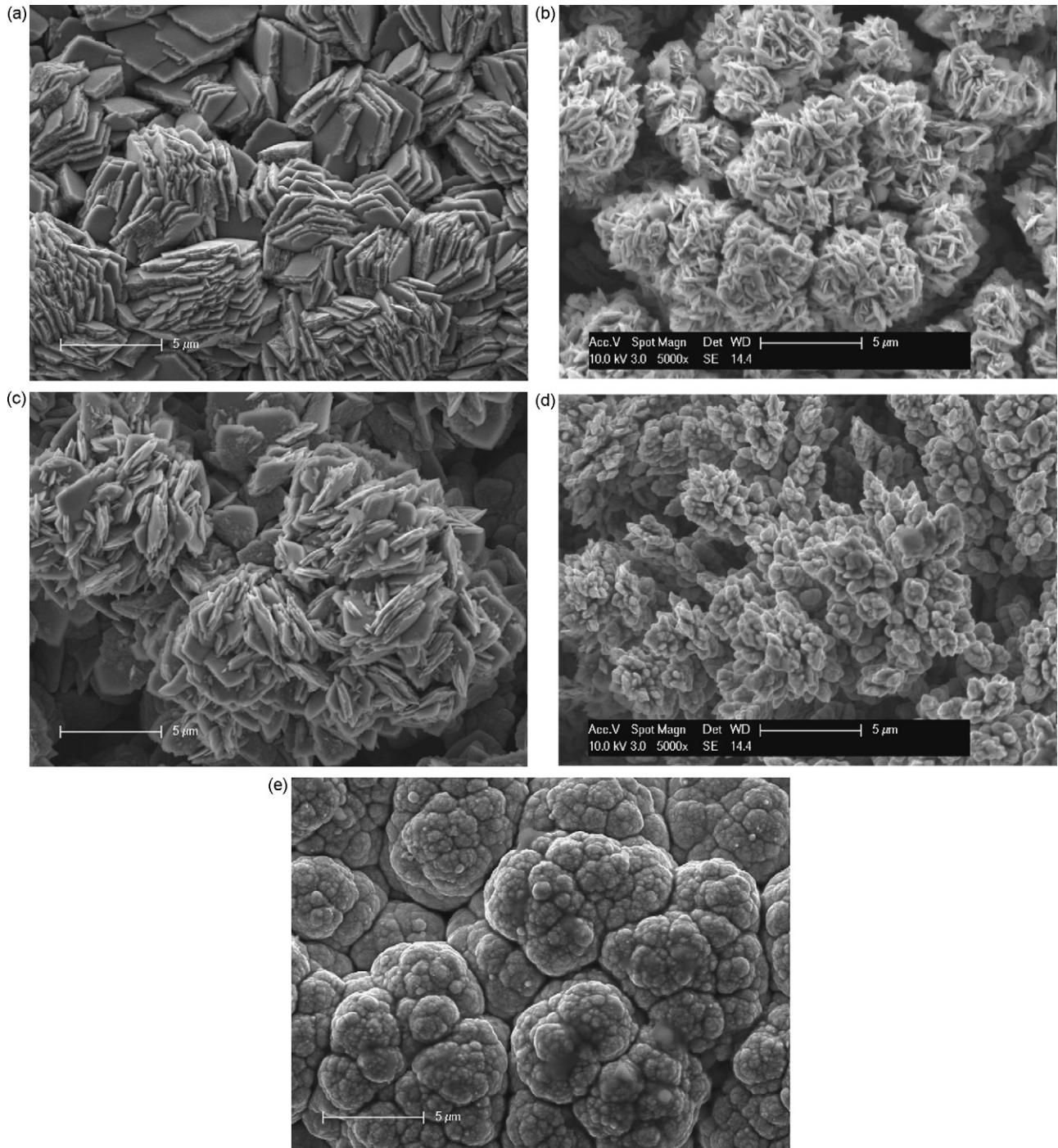


Fig. 6. SEM micrographs of Ni-Co deposits obtained at a current density 65 mA cm⁻² from an electrolyte with different Ni²⁺/Co²⁺ concentration ratio: (a) 0.25, (b) 0.5, (c) 1, (d) 2 and (e) 4.

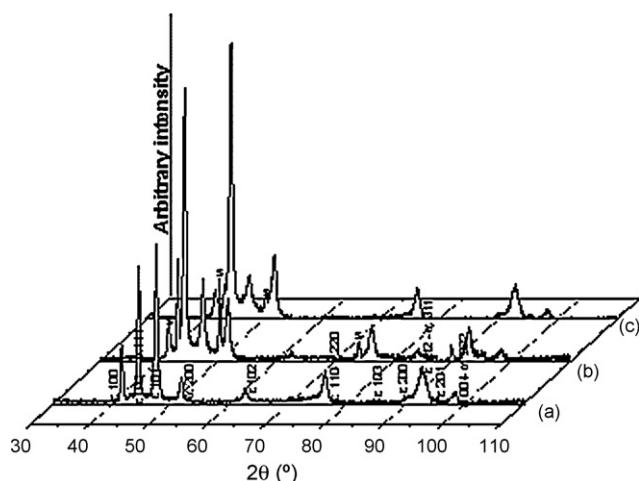


Fig. 7. X-ray diffraction patterns of alloys deposited from an electrolyte with concentration ratio $\text{Ni}^{2+}/\text{Co}^{2+}=1$ at different current densities: (a) 65 mA cm^{-2} , (b) 220 mA cm^{-2} and (c) 400 mA cm^{-2} (α -reflections attributed to the α -Ni; ε -reflections attributed to the ε -Co; S-reflection attributed to the Cu-substrate).

Table 1.

The morphology of all Ni–Co deposits strongly depended on the chemical composition of the alloy deposit, i.e. the chemical composition of the electrolyte, Fig. 6. For the chosen current density of 65 mA cm^{-2} particles with a size varying from 5 to about $50 \mu\text{m}$ composed of fine nanosized crystallites of different morphology were obtained.

The morphology of the alloy deposited from electrolyte with the highest concentration of $[\text{Co}^{2+}]$ ions in the electrolyte, at current density of 65 mA cm^{-2} is shown in Fig. 6a. This deposit possesses the platelet structure.

For the concentration ratio $[\text{Ni}^{2+}]/[\text{Co}^{2+}] = 1$ in the electrolyte, the morphology of the deposit is slightly changed and consists of cauliflower particles exhibiting a surface morphology based on preferred oriented platelets (Fig. 6c). Fig. 6b and d show enhanced dendritic growth with more disperse deposits obtained from the baths with the concentration ratio $[\text{Ni}^{2+}]/[\text{Co}^{2+}] = 0.5$ and 2, respectively. At one and the same current density of 65 mA cm^{-2} , more developed structures are formed leading an increase of the mean surface roughness. Finally, the particles deposited from the electrolyte with the highest content of Ni show cauliflower structure, Fig. 6e. The morphology of the deposits is similar to the morphology of the pure Ni obtained from the Wath's bath without addition of a surfactant substance [8,20].

The SEM micrographs show that the surface morphology of the deposit is determined by the nature of the electrochemically active ions or complexes and the kinetics of the electrocrystallization process.

3.4. Phase analysis of deposits-Influence of current density on microstructure

A detailed Rietveld's analysis revealed that the phase composition of the deposited Ni–Co solid solutions depends on the composition of the electrolyte bath as well as on the applied current density (Fig. 7). Rietveld's refinement procedure [26] is able to simulate the XRD pattern from given starting parameters. The purpose of this simulation is therefore to refine individual parameters, e.g. phase content, grain size, and crystal lattice parameters, to obtain a good fit. For this purpose Rietveld's refinement program TOPAS V3.0 (Bruker AXS GmbH, Germany) was used [27]. The quality of the refinement progress was controlled by monitoring the fit parameter R_{wp} , the goodness of fit (GOF), and the Durbin–Watson

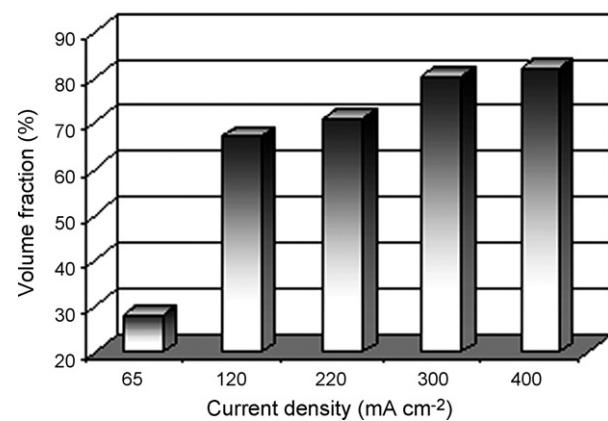


Fig. 8. Evolution of the FCC phase content in deposits as a function of current density from an electrolyte with concentration ratio $\text{Ni}^{2+}/\text{Co}^{2+}=1$.

factor.

The deposits obtained from an electrolyte with a equal ion metal concentration ratio, $[\text{Ni}^{2+}]/[\text{Co}^{2+}] = 1$, have shown the formation of a mixture of both phases, HCP and FCC. The formation of solid solutions is a consequence of the mutual miscibility of Ni and Co in the range of concentration in the obtained deposits (Table 1) which is in accordance to the phase diagram [28]. The decrease of the current density results in pronounced crystallization and an increase of the size of crystallites as well as a higher HCP content in the alloys. Evolution of the FCC phase content from the same bath was achieved by the increase of current density (Fig. 8).

If the kinetics of the deposition process is fast, a disperse deposit can be obtained at low driving force, while a much larger driving force is needed for kinetically slow processes such as Ni and Co deposition [8] resulting in an electrodeposition process far from equilibrium conditions, i.e. at high overpotentials, and in the formation of the FCC phase. At low overpotentials, a higher amount of Co as the HCP phase is formed.

3.5. Grain size of Ni–Co alloy deposits

The electrolyte composition and the current density have a great effect on the grain size of the deposits. Average grain sizes were calculated from the peak broadening from XRD according to the Scherrer equation with the Rietveld refinement method [26]. Obtained alloy deposits were composed of fine nanosized crystallites (cf. Table 1).

The alloy electrodeposited at selected current density of 65 mA cm^{-2} from the electrolyte with the ratio $[\text{Ni}^{2+}]/[\text{Co}^{2+}] = 0.25$ (Fig. 5a), contains the ε -Co phase with hexagonal close-packed lattice and with an average grain size of $20 \pm 2 \text{ nm}$. The average grain size in the deposits consisting single FCC phase was $13 \pm 2 \text{ nm}$ (Fig. 5e). In general, deposits with finer grain sizes are obtained with increasing $[\text{Ni}^{2+}]$ concentrations in the electrolyte. With increasing Co content in the alloys (Table 1) the average size of crystallite increases ranging from 13 to 19 nm for the FCC phase and from 15 to 20 nm for the HCP phase. The mixture of two phases leads to a further grain size refinement of deposits.

A reduction of the grain size was also achieved by an increase of the current density. Increasing the current density leads to the increase of the overpotential, and therefore increases the nucleus formation probability resulting in smaller critical radii and the number of atoms constituting the nucleus. Hence, the increase of current density decreases the grain size of the Ni–Co deposits (Table 1). The formation of electrochemical deposits from electrolytes with a higher $[\text{Ni}^{2+}]/[\text{Co}^{2+}]$ ratio is accompanied by higher overpotential values, therefore deposit with finer grains is formed

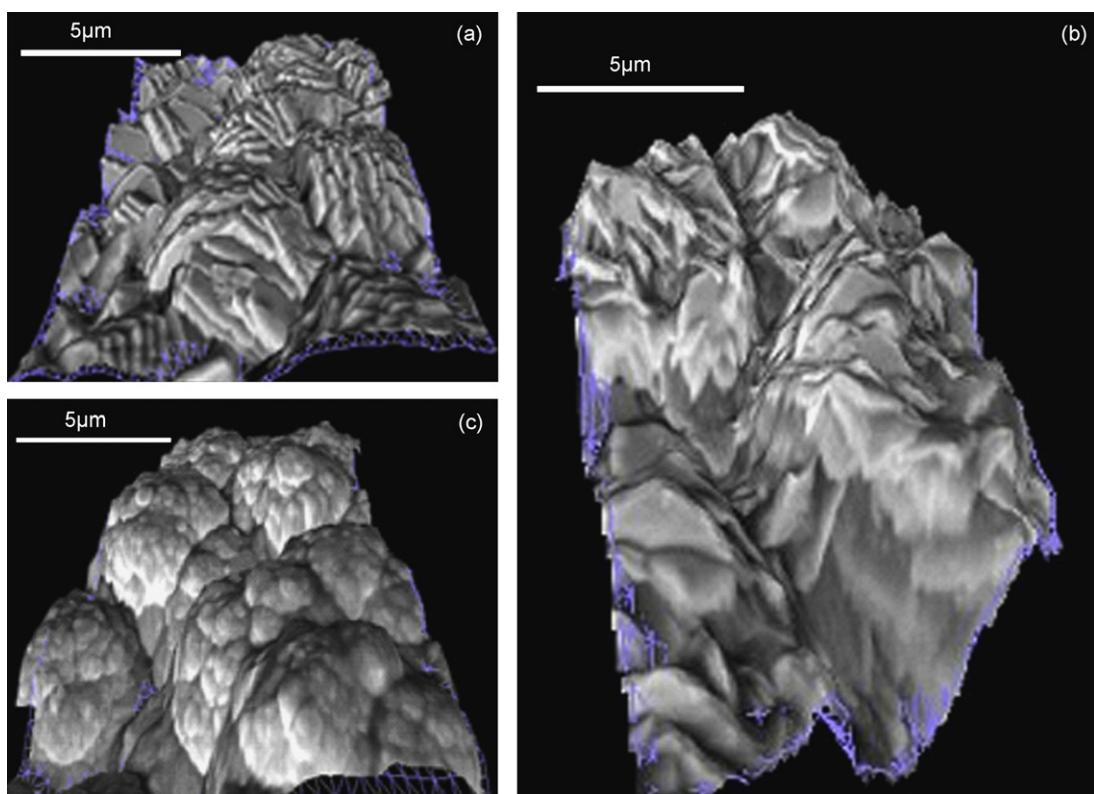


Fig. 9. 3D SEM reconstruction of the surfaces of Ni–Co deposits obtained at a current density 65 mA cm^{-2} from the electrolyte with different $\text{Ni}^{2+}/\text{Co}^{2+}$ concentration ratios: (a) 0.25; (b) 1 and (c) 4.

from a bath containing a higher Ni^{2+} ions concentration (Table 1.). For the deposition of more disperse deposits composed from fine nanosized crystallites, the use of the overpotentials higher than 1.3 V are requested, specifically in the case of the deposits obtained from electrolyte with concentration ratio $[\text{Ni}^{2+}]/[\text{Co}^{2+}] > 0.5$.

3.6. Surface roughness of Ni–Co alloy deposits

The 3D dataset was deduced from two stereoscopic images obtained by tilting the sample stage in the ESEM at the ecentric point with an angle of 5° , Fig. 9a–c. The calculated roughness parameters are shown in Table 2.

The concentration ratios $[\text{Ni}^{2+}]/[\text{Co}^{2+}] = 0.25$ and 4 corresponding to a single-phase systems, led to a surface with similar mean roughness values in spite of different morphology, (Fig. 6a and e), respectively. In the case of a ions concentration $[\text{Ni}^{2+}]/[\text{Co}^{2+}] = 1$, involving more than one phase, the R_a values are almost 3 times higher, and the active surface increases in comparison to the specimens with ratios of 0.25 and 4. An increase in the current density results in a decrease in the mean roughness (Table 2), since at higher current densities the amount of crystal nuclei on the surface is

enhanced. The larger the nucleation rate, the more homogenous is the grain size distribution leading to the formation of smoother deposits (see also, Fig. 6a and e). 3D SEM reconstruction experimental results confirmed the beginning of disperse deposits formation in galvanostatic deposition using current density, $j \geq 65 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$.

3.7. Mechanical properties of Ni–Co deposits

Nanoindentation test were performed to investigate the mechanical properties of the deposited samples. A load of $50 \mu\text{N}$ was applied on the cross-section of the samples (deposits on copper substrate). The low applied load is needed to make penetration depths small enough to avoid the influence of the substrate on the hardness measurements. The nanoindentation test demonstrated that nanocrystalline deposits have a higher hardness with an increase of the Ni content in the sample (Fig. 10). The hardness of the Ni–Co alloys deposited from the same bath composition but at different current densities shows a reduction of the hardness, not as significant as in the case of the hardness measured on the samples prepared from the different bath compositions.

Table 2

Roughness parameters of alloys deposited from electrolytes of different $\text{Ni}^{2+}/\text{Co}^{2+}$ concentration ratio and at different current densities.

$\text{Ni}^{2+}/\text{Co}^{2+}$ concentration ratio	Current densities (mA cm^{-2})	R_a (μm)	Rz (μm)	RS
0.25	65	0.7	4.7	1.64
0.5	65	1.3	5.2	1.34
1	65	3.0	13.1	1.98
1	220	1.1	5.2	1.38
1	400	1.0	6.5	1.62
2	65	2.1	9.2	1.37
4	65	1.0	4.7	1.64

R_a , mean roughness, Rz , the difference between the highest and the lowest point in the picture of defined scan, RS, active surface, the ratio of the real surface including topography to a projected surface of the measurements (a square with dimensions of $23 \mu\text{m} \times 15 \mu\text{m}$).

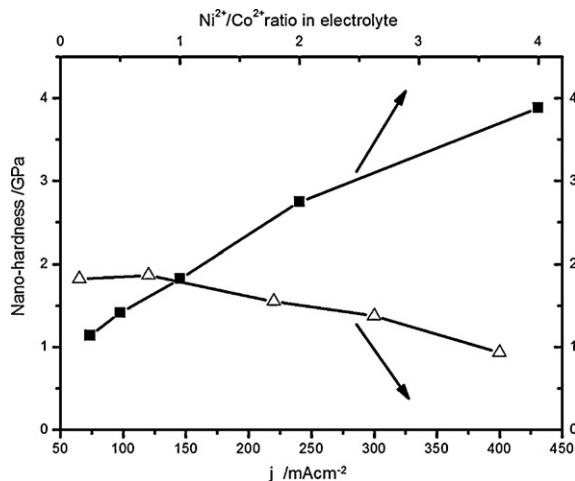


Fig. 10. Hardness of Ni–Co deposits as a function of current density and electrolyte composition: (Δ) concentration ratio $\text{Ni}^{2+}/\text{Co}^{2+} = 1$ at different current densities, (\blacksquare) different concentration ratio $\text{Ni}^{2+}/\text{Co}^{2+}$ at a current density 65 mA cm^{-2} .

In contrast to some authors [29], the hardness is increased with an increase of the Ni content in the deposits. According to the optical micrographs of the cross-sections of the deposits obtained on the Cu substrate presented in Fig. 11, two possible reasons can cause such behavior. One is the grain size and the second is porosity inside the deposit with high Co content (Fig. 11a). The release of hydrogen in the layer surrounding the electrode also affects the properties of the obtained deposits, causing the formation of craters in the deposit (Fig. 11c). The deposit obtained from the electrolyte with the highest concentration of Ni^{2+} are compact (Fig. 11c), while the deposits obtained at the same current density from the bath with the concentration ratio $\text{Ni}^{2+}/\text{Co}^{2+} = 1$ show a dendritic structure (Fig. 11b). It should be indicated that when the grain size is smaller than 10 nm, the grain refinement may cause softening of the nanocrystalline metals. In these measurements, differences in the grain size have not been so significant, but they still affect the large difference in the hardness value (Fig. 12).

The hardness measurements performed on the Ni–Co deposits obtained from an electrolyte with a concentration

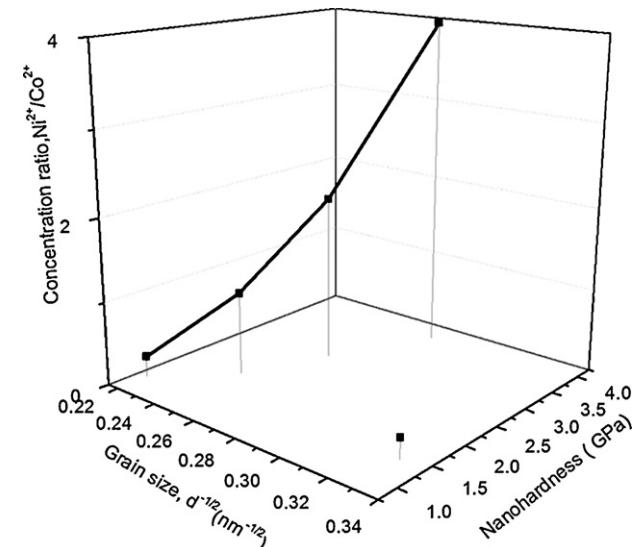


Fig. 12. Effect of the grain size on nanohardness of Ni–Co deposits performed from an electrolyte with different $\text{Ni}^{2+}/\text{Co}^{2+}$ concentration ratio (d , average value of grains).

ratio $[\text{Ni}^{2+}]/[\text{Co}^{2+}] = 1$ at different current densities have shown a reduction of hardness. The explanation can be attributed to the fact that at higher current densities a more disperse deposit with porous structure and very high surface area is formed. Nanohardness of deposits decreases with increasing current density since evolution of the dendritic structure occurred during deposition at higher current densities.

The grain size is the main parameter influencing the grain boundary hardening. Based on the Hall–Petch relationship, nanocrystalline material is expected to exhibit higher strength than their microcrystalline counterparts [30]. In the present study, the nanograin size did not affect the softening of the deposits formed from electrolytes with equal ion compositions, $\text{Ni}^{2+}/\text{Co}^{2+} = 1$ at different current densities, considering grain sizes of the deposits were in the range of 10 nm. Although the more dendritic deposits performed at higher current densities, are characterized by a reduce

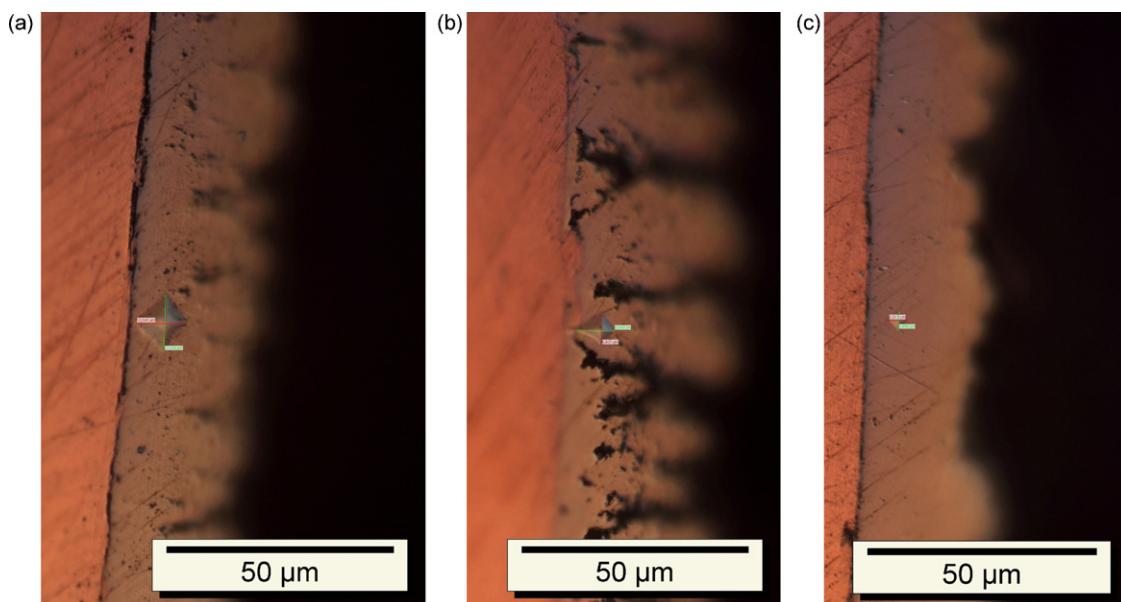


Fig. 11. Cross-section of Ni–Co deposits obtained on copper substrate from an electrolyte with concentration ratio $\text{Ni}^{2+}/\text{Co}^{2+}$: (a) 0.25; (b) 1 and (c) 4 at a current density 65 mA cm^{-2} .

grain size, the formation of the deposits with a very disperse dendritic structure has a decisive influence on the measurements.

4. Conclusions

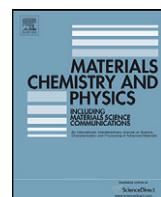
The microstructure as well as the morphology of the Ni–Co alloy deposits electrochemically obtained from an ammonium sulfate-chloride solution depends on the deposition current density and the bath composition. With a decrease in the deposition current density the volume fraction of the HCP phase in the deposits increases accompanied by the crystal grain growth. The increase of HCP phase content in the nanocrystalline deposits appears as a result of both an increase in the Co^{2+} ions concentration in the bath and a decrease of the deposition current density. The increase of the current density and the decrease of the Co^{2+} ions concentration in the bath results in finer grain deposits. Surface morphology and mean roughness of the deposits depend on the concentration ratio in electrolyte; in the case of equal ions concentration of $\text{Ni}^{2+}/\text{Co}^{2+}$ in the electrolyte, the mean roughness of the deposit is the highest. It is possible to achieve variety of microstructural properties by choosing the current density or the electrolyte composition appropriately.

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Electrochemical characterization of polyaniline electrode in ammonium citrate containing electrolyte

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Electrochemical properties

ABSTRACT

Polyaniline electrode (PANI) was formed electrochemically at graphite electrode. Electrochemical polymerization was performed at constant current density of 2.0 mA cm^{-2} from aqueous solution of 1.0 mol dm^{-3} HCl with addition of 0.25 mol dm^{-3} aniline monomer. Electrochemical characterization of the PANI electrode in chloride and chloride/citrate electrolyte was performed using cyclic voltammetry and galvanostatic measurement in order to study the influence of citrate ions on charge/discharge capability and cycling efficiency. It was observed that, for anodic potential 0.32 V , higher electrode capacity of PANI electrode in chloride/citrate electrolyte was obtained, comparing to chloride electrolyte, indicating positive effect of citrate ions on cycling characteristics. On the other hand, for higher anodic potential limit of 0.50 V , faster decrease of the electrode capacity in chloride/citrate electrolyte was observed. It was suggested that influence of both chloride and citrate anions had exhibited influence on electrochemical behavior of PANI electrode in citrate containing electrolyte.

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1. Introduction

Due to their unique properties, such as: mechanical strength, electrical conductivity, corrosion stability, possibility of chemical and electrochemical synthesis, electroconducting polymers (ECP) are considered in wide area of practical application such as: microelectronics, optoelectronics, active corrosion protection, sensors, electromagnetic shielding, and electrochemical power sources [1–8].

ECP can be synthesized by both chemical and electrochemical oxidative polymerization. However, electrochemical synthesis is favorable permitting the control over the reaction rate. On the other hand, electrochemical polymerization occurs together with doping by organic or inorganic ions in a single step.

Among large number of ECP, polyaniline (PANI) is the most investigated as possible cathode material for aqueous based electrochemical power sources [5–13]. Systems consisted of PANI cathode combined to some electronegative metal (mainly zinc) anode, are likely to accomplish most of the three E criteria: energy (high energy content with respect to volume and weight), economics (low manufacturing and maintenance costs, long service life) and environment (toxic free, safety, low energy consumption, easy to recycle) denoted as the determining factors of an electro-

chemical power system success [14,15]. However, these systems still have not been commercialized due to several reasons, related to the fact that PANI is degradable at potentials higher than 0.5 V [16,17]. The main reason is connected to zinc dendrite and solid phase formation [6,8,18]. Zinc deposits, obtained from common chloride electrolytes, are almost completely in the form of dendrites, even if the deposition was performed using low current densities.

Fast growing zinc dendrites can lead to shortcircuiting with cathode affecting poor efficiency and cycling life. Addition of some organic anions to metal deposition baths, due to formation of metal complexes, can lead to both higher quality metal deposits and to suppression of dendrite deposits [19].

It was shown previously, that addition of citrate anions to common chloride electrolyte had led to formulation of smooth zinc deposits without irregularities even at electrode edges. On the other hand, corrosion rate in citrate containing electrolyte was lowered to one order of magnitude comparing to chloride electrolyte [20]. Hence, the aim of this work was to investigate electrochemical characteristic of PANI electrode as possible cathode material in citrate containing electrolyte to be used combined to zinc anode in rechargeable electrochemical power sources.

2. Experimental

PANI electrode was formed by electrochemical synthesis on graphite electrode ($S = 0.64 \text{ cm}^2$) from aqueous solution of 1.0 mol dm^{-3} HCl (p.a. Merck) containing 0.25 mol dm^{-3} aniline (p.a. Aldrich), at constant current density of 2 mA cm^{-2} .

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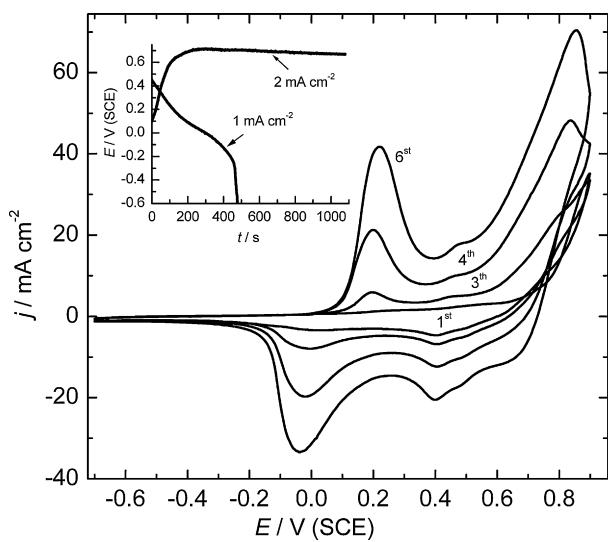


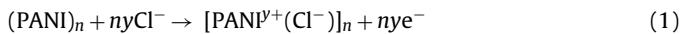
Fig. 1. Cyclic voltammogram of PANI electrode in 1.0 mol dm^{-3} HCl and 0.25 mol dm^{-3} aniline ($\nu = 20 \text{ mV s}^{-1}$). Insert: Galvanostatic curve of electrochemical polymerization of aniline at graphite electrode in 1.0 mol dm^{-3} HCl and 0.25 mol dm^{-3} aniline, $j = 2.0 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$, and dedoping by $j = 1.0 \text{ mA cm}^{-1}$.

After electrochemical polymerization, PANI electrode was galvanostatically discharged (dedoped) in the same solution with a current density of 1 mA cm^{-2} to the potential of -0.6 V , than rinsed in double-distilled water, and transferred into another electrochemical cell for further characterization. Prior to use, aniline was distilled under argon atmosphere. The working electrode, cylindrically shaped graphite inserted in Teflon holder, was first mechanically polished by fine emery papers (2/0, 3/0 and 4/0, respectively), and than by polishing alumina ($1 \mu\text{m}$, Banner Scientific Ltd.) on polishing cloths (Buehler Ltd.). The traces of the polishing alumina were removed from the electrode surface in an ultrasonic bath during 5 min.

PANI electrode was characterized using cyclic voltammetry and chronopotentiometric measurements in chloride and chloride/citrate electrolytes. Chloride electrolyte was consisted of aqueous solution of 0.5 mol dm^{-3} NH_4Cl and 0.2 mol dm^{-3} ZnCl_2 , while chloride/citrate electrolyte was consisted of 0.5 mol dm^{-3} NH_4Cl and 0.2 mol dm^{-3} ZnCl_2 with addition of 0.3 mol dm^{-3} Na-citrate. All experiments were performed in standard three compartment electrochemical cell at ambient temperature (22°C). Saturated calomel electrode (SCE) was used as reference, while Pt wire served as counter electrode. The electrochemical measurements were carried out using PAR 273A potentiostat/galvanostat interfaced to PC.

3. Results and discussion

Chronopotentiometric curve of PANI electrochemical polymerization on graphite electrode from 1.0 mol dm^{-3} HCl and 0.25 mol dm^{-3} aniline at constant current density of 2.0 mA cm^{-2} during 1080 s is given in insert of Fig. 1. Aniline electrochemical polymerization occurs together with doping by chloride anions, according to:



where y refers to doping degree (ratio between the number of charges in the polymer and the number of monomer units). After polymerization, PANI electrode was discharged (dedoped) galvanostatically with current density of 1 mA cm^{-2} , and transferred to another electrochemical cell for further investigation.

Six successive cyclic voltammograms ($\nu = 20 \text{ mV s}^{-1}$) of the PANI electrode are shown in Fig. 1. Voltammograms are characterized by constant charge increase resulted from the formation of insoluble PANI. The observed anodic and cathodic peaks correspond to different oxidation forms of PANI. First anodic peak, occurring at potential of $\sim 0.2 \text{ V}$, is connected to doping of chloride anions indicating transition of leucoemeraldine ($y=0$) form of PANI to emeraldine salt ($y=0.5$). Further increase in potential, above $\sim 0.50 \text{ V}$, refers to transition of emeraldine salt to pernigraniline salt ($y=1$) [20]. Between these well defined peaks, small peaks

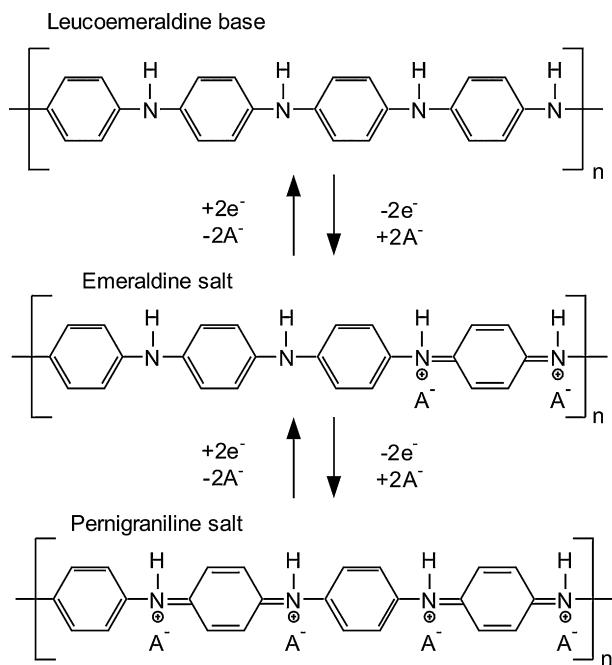


Fig. 2. Generalized scheme of various PANI oxidation forms.

could be assigned to hydrolysis and degradation products of PANI [20–22]. Different forms of PANI oxidation states are schematically represented in Fig. 2 [20]. Leucemeraldine is fully reduced form of PANI, with doping degree, $y=0$, conductive emeraldine salt is half oxidized form ($y=0.5$), while pernigraniline salt refers to fully oxidized form ($y=1$).

As it could be seen in insert of Fig. 1, polymerization occurred at potentials $\sim 0.7 \text{ V}$, meaning that PANI is mostly obtained in the form of pernigraniline salt. Comparing the polymerization charge of 0.60 mAh cm^{-2} and discharge charge of $\sim 0.14 \text{ mAh cm}^{-2}$, it could be concluded that only 23% of the total mass, was obtained in the form conducting of emeraldine salt and therefore available for the further charge exchange. The rest of the charge refers to formation of inactive PANI oligomers and degradation products [20].

Chronopotentiometric charge/discharge curves of the PANI electrode in chloride and chloride/citrate electrolyte, obtained by different current densities between 0.25 and 1.00 mA cm^{-2} are given in Fig. 3.

As it can be seen in Fig. 3, in both chloride and chloride/citrate electrolyte, charging of PANI electrode started at potential of $\sim -0.1 \text{ V}$. In chloride electrolyte, potential almost linearly increased up to $\sim 0.5 \text{ V}$. In chloride/citrate electrolyte, at potentials higher than 0.35 V , faster increase of the potential was observed. Such behavior is probably connected to appearance of degradation products, occurring at higher potentials. Discharge of the PANI electrode started at $\sim 0.45 \text{ V}$ in chloride, and $\sim 0.3 \text{ V}$ in chloride/citrate electrolyte, at potentials lower than $\sim 0.1 \text{ V}$, sharp decrease of the potential in both electrolytes could be explained by diffusion limitations. Even though, the open circuit potential of the PANI electrode in chloride electrolyte was higher than in chloride/citrate electrolyte, chloride/citrate electrolyte exhibited better discharge characteristics, especially when lower current densities were used.

Dependences of charge/discharge capacities of PANI electrode in chloride and chloride/citrate electrolytes are given in Fig. 4. Charge/discharge characteristics of PANI electrode in both electrolytes were affected by the applied current density, probably as a consequence of chloride anion diffusion limitation through the polymer film [23]. As it can be seen in insert of Fig. 4, columbic efficiency was higher in chloride/citrate electrolyte.

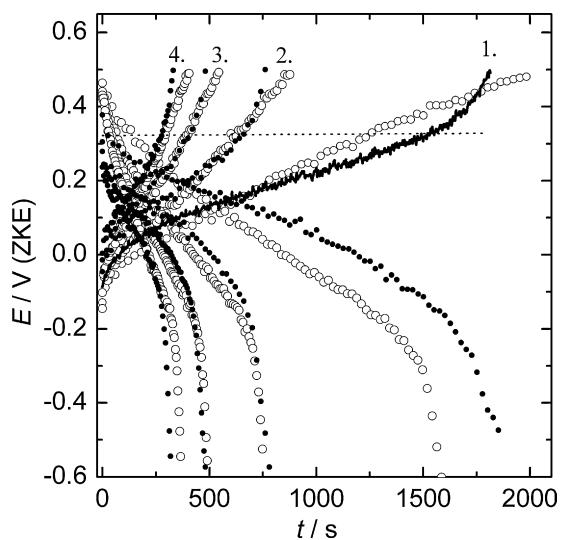


Fig. 3. Charge/discharge curves of PANI electrode in (○) chloride and (●) chloride/citrate obtained with current densities: (1) 0.25; (2) 0.50; (3) 0.75; (4) 1.00 mA cm⁻².

It was previously showed that anodic potential limit had exhibited influence on charge/discharge characteristics of the PANI electrode, resulted in decrease of the electrode capacity during cycling [10]. On the other hand, it was observed that addition of citrate anions had enhanced characteristics of negative zinc electrode [19], in terms of both decreased corrosion rate and absence of zinc dendrite growth. For that reason, charge/discharge behavior of the PANI electrode was investigated in chloride/citrate electrolyte. In Figs. 5 and 6 chronopotentiometric charge/discharge curves of the PANI electrode in chloride/citrate electrolyte during ten cycles, obtained by current density of 1 mA cm⁻² and different anodic potential limits of 0.5 and 0.32 V are given, respectively. Cyclic voltammograms taken before and after ten cycles of are given in inserts of both Figs. 5 and 6.

As seen in Figs. 5 and 6, anodic potential limit had great influence on charge/discharge behavior of PANI electrode in chloride/citrate electrolyte. For higher anodic potential limit of 0.5 V (Fig. 5) charge/discharge capacities constantly decreased over time. As seen in insert of Fig. 5, cyclic voltammograms taken before

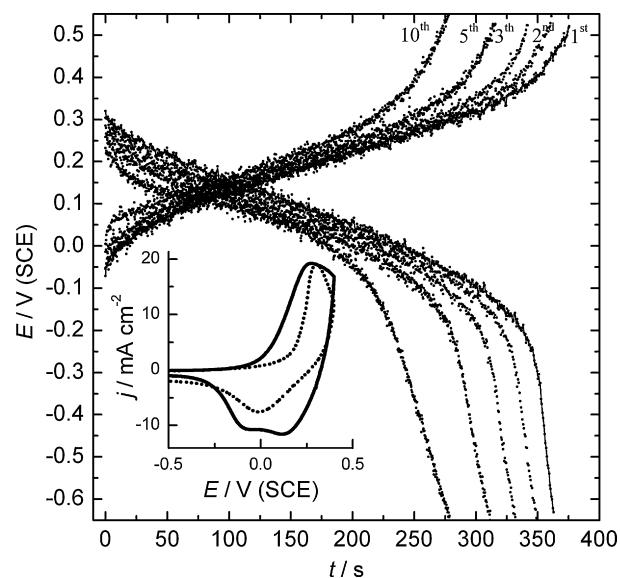


Fig. 5. Charge/discharge curves of PANI electrode during ten cycles, $j = 1 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ in chloride/citrate electrolyte for anodic potential limit of 0.50 V. Insert: cyclic voltammograms: (—) before and (....) after ten cycles, $v = 20 \text{ mV s}^{-1}$.

and after ten cycles showed capacity lost, suggesting that strong PANI degradation had occurred. For anodic potential limit of 0.32 V in Fig. 6 charge/discharge curves of the PANI electrode in chloride/citrate electrolyte were the same over ten cycles, meaning that electrode capacity remained practically constant. This finding indicates that degradation of PANI did not occurred. As seen in insert of Fig. 5, cyclic voltammograms of the PANI electrode before and after ten cycles remained the same, confirming again the fact that there was no PANI degradation during cycling. It is interesting to mention that charge/discharge capacities of the PANI electrode were almost two times higher in chloride/citrate than in chloride electrolyte (given in dot lines in Fig. 6).

The dependences of charge and discharge capacities of the PANI electrode, calculated by integration of anodic and cathodic parts of voltammograms from Figs. 5 and 6, on cycle number is given in Fig. 7.

As seen in Fig. 7, for anodic potential limit of 0.50 V, permanent lost (around 25%) of the capacity during ten cycles was observed

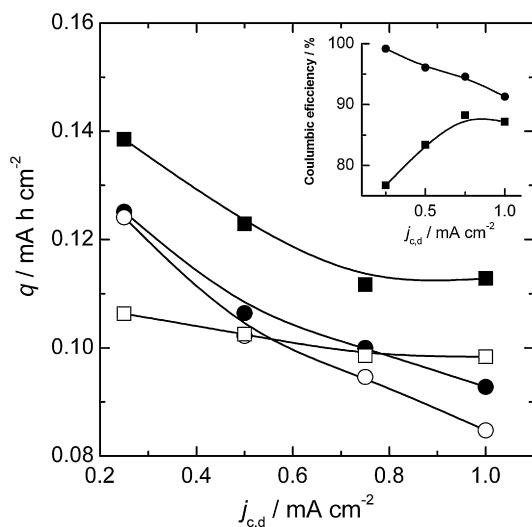


Fig. 4. Dependences of charge: (●) chloride/citrate; (■) chloride, and discharge: (○) chloride/citrate; (□) chloride, capacity of PANI electrode on current density. Insert: Coulombic efficiency.

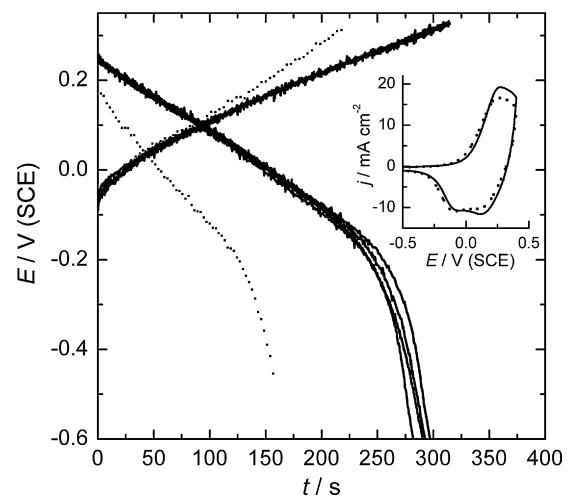


Fig. 6. Charge/discharge curves of PANI electrode during ten cycles, $j = 1 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ in chloride/citrate (full lines) and chloride electrolyte (dot lines), for anodic potential limit of 0.32 V, (dot lines) chloride. Insert: cyclic voltammograms: (—) before and (....) after ten cycles, $v = 20 \text{ mV s}^{-1}$.

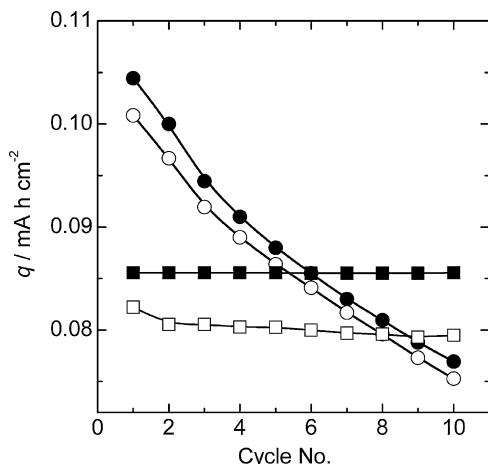
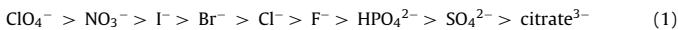


Fig. 7. Dependences of PANI electrode capacities on cycle number in chloride/citrate electrolyte, for anodic potential limit of 0.5 V: (●) charge; (○) discharge and 0.32 V: (■) charge; (□) discharge. Insert: Columbic efficiency for anodic potential limit of: (●) 0.5 V and (■) 0.32 V.

even though the initial capacity was higher, than one obtained for anodic limit of 0.32 V. On contrary, there was practically no capacity lost observed for the potential limit of 0.32 V. Since PANI was always polymerized under the same conditions, the decrease of the capacity for higher anodic potential limit of 0.5 V in chloride/citrate electrolyte could be connected to the presence of citrate anions. The effect of the doping anions, proposed by Yang et al. [24] could be attributed to the hydrophobic effect following the Hofmeister series [25]:



According to this, perchlorate ions are the most hydrophobic, citrate ions are the most hydrophilic, while chloride are in the middle. So, it was expected that chloride ions would form relatively stable ion pairs in oxidized PANI film, therefore PANI degradation could be limited to certain degree by dissociation of the ion pair, resulting in slower degradation kinetics of PANI in chloride than in chloride/citrate electrolyte.

In Fig. 8 cyclic voltammograms of the PANI electrode in chloride, chloride/citrate and in pure citrate (0.3 mol dm^{-3} Na-citrate) are given.

As it can be seen in Fig. 8, doping process in chloride, chloride/citrate, and pure citrate electrolyte, started at potential of 0.15 V. Anodic peak potential connected to doping of leucoemeraldine to emeraldine salt in chloride and chloride/citrate electrolytes was observed at practically the same potential of 0.25 V, while the peak potential in pure citrate electrolyte was shifted for more than 100 mV in the positive direction. On the other hand, in chloride/citrate electrolyte, doping preceded through a broad peak, indicating that both chloride and citrate anions were involved in doping. It could be suggested that, at lower potentials doping by chloride occurred, while at higher potentials doping by citrate anions occurred. Comparing the values of the potentials in doping area for chloride and chloride/citrate electrolytes for the same value of current densities, it seems that doping reaction in chloride/citrate was shifted for about 30 mV in negative direction. This negative shift of the potential resulted in higher charge/discharge capacities obtained in chloride/citrate than in chloride electrolyte. On the other hand, in order to avoid fast PANI degradation and decrease in charge exchange ability, it is highly recommended that anodic potential limit during cycling should not exceed ~0.35 V.

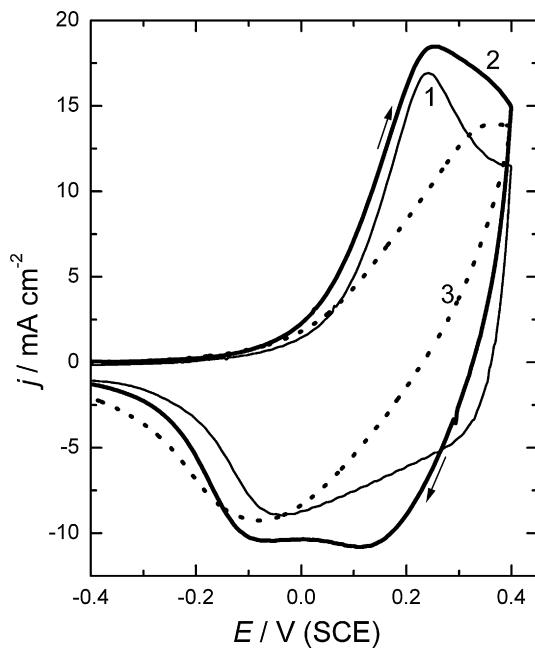


Fig. 8. Cyclic voltammograms of PANI electrode in: (1) chloride, (2) chloride/citrate and (3) citrate electrolyte, $v = 20 \text{ mV s}^{-1}$.

4. Conclusion

Electrochemical synthesis of PANI on graphite from aqueous solution of hydrochloric acid containing aniline monomer was performed under galvanostatic conditions. The polymerization charge was 0.60 mAh cm^{-2} while discharge charge was $\sim 0.14 \text{ mAh cm}^{-2}$. It was concluded that only 25% of the total deposited PANI mass was obtained in the form of conducting emeraldine salt, and therefore available for charge exchange. The rest of the charge refers to formation of inactive PANI oligomers and degradation products. Based on electrochemical studies, it was concluded that in chloride/citrate electrolyte both citrate and chloride anions were engaged in doping. The faster decrease in charge/discharge capacity, for potential limit of 0.50 V, in chloride/citrate electrolyte compared to chloride electrolyte, was explained by hydrophilic effect of citrate ions. Higher charge/discharge capacities in chloride/citrate electrolyte were explained by negative doping potential shift of about 30 mV, enabling wider potential frame for doping/dedoping (charging/discharging). It was recommended that charging potential should not exceed 0.35 V.

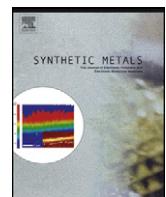
Acknowledgment

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Electrochemical synthesis and corrosion behavior of polyaniline-benzoate coating on copper

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ABSTRACT

Electrochemical polymerization of polyaniline (PANI) coating on copper electrode was performed galvanostatically in the current density range between 0.50 and 1.25 mA cm⁻², from aqueous solution of 0.3 mol dm⁻³ sodium benzoate and 0.2 mol dm⁻³ aniline. The corrosion behavior of PANI coated copper and copper electrode exposed to 0.5 mol dm⁻³ sodium chloride solution was investigated by potentiodynamic and electrochemical impedance spectroscopy techniques. It was observed that thin PANI (5 µm) coating had provided efficient protection (~96%) to copper in 0.5 mol dm⁻³ sodium chloride solution. Unusual initial impedance behavior to that normally observed with conventional organic coatings was attributed to dedoping of benzoate anions from the polymer coating.

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1. Introduction

The unique properties of electroconducting polymers (ECP), such as: electrochemical activity, environmental stability, eases of synthesis procedures both chemical and electrochemical [1–9], permits them to be considered in wide range of various practical applications: electronic devices, rechargeable power sources, sensors, biosensors, magnetic shielding and active corrosion protection as well [10–18].

Copper and large numbers of its alloys are widely used in industrial application such as process equipments, electrical and electronics devices, marine etc. Apart from high electrical and thermal conductivity and excellent formability, copper also exhibits good corrosion resistance; however it corrodes in variety of aggressive environments [18]. The corrosion protection strategy of copper is usually based on inhibition, using organic compounds mainly benzotriazoles, aminotriazole and its derivatives [19–24]. Apart from good protective properties of inhibitors in variety of corrosive environments, they are quite toxic, hence application of electroconducting polymers (ECP) could be considered as possible environmental friendly procedure in corrosion protection of copper. Both chemical and electrochemical oxidative polymerization

are used to obtain ECP. Electrochemical synthesis is favorable permitting direct polymer film synthesis on metal surface without oxidizing agent, followed by doping by organic or inorganic ions in a single step. The basic problem related to electrochemical polymerization of ECP on copper, in general, is the fact that two competitive processes occur on anode: electrochemical synthesis and deposition of ECP and dissolution of copper on potentials necessary to oxidize the monomer. Hence, it would be beneficial to work with electrolyte which can passivate copper and, on the other hand, permits electrochemical polymerization.

Most of the studies devoted to corrosion protection of copper by ECP are connected to use of polypyrrole (Ppy). Recently, Bazaarui et al. have used electrochemical synthesis of PPy on copper and brass from aqueous solution of sodium saccharinate and pyrrole solution, the obtained coating exhibited significant corrosion protection in both chloride and hydrochloride solutions [17]. Redondo and Breslin obtained homogenous PPy film electrodeposited on copper from pyrrole containing phosphate solution; the growth of the film was achieved on previously oxidized copper electrode in the phosphate solution. The coating effectively protected copper in a chloride solution [25,26]. Fenelon and Breslin also electrodeposited Ppy coating on Cu, CuZn and CuNi with good protective properties from sodium oxalate solution [27,28]. Herrasti et al. investigated electrochemical synthesis of PPy on previously passivated copper electrodes using different electrochemical techniques, they pointed out that chronopotentiometry seemed to produce best protective

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coating for long immersion times in chloride solution [28,29]. Tüken et al. performed electrochemical synthesis of polythiophene (PTh) on copper electrode previously coated with thin PPy film. They concluded that PPy/PTh coating on copper had provided good protection during long immersion in sodium chloride solution [30].

Apart from the fact that polyaniline (PANI), owing to the low price of its monomer, could be considered as most challengeable EPP for the purpose of corrosion protection in general, only few studies were dedicated to use of PANI in corrosion protection of copper. Brusic et al. investigated the possible use of PANI and its derivates for corrosion protection of copper and silver [31]. Unsubstituted PANI in both doped in the form of salt (doping with HCl or dodecylbenzenesulfonic acid) and undoped in the form of base were investigated, together with substituted PANI with ethoxy and propyl groups, were investigated. The polymers were applied on copper foils by spin coating procedure. It was observed that ethoxy substituted PANI in the form of base had provided best corrosion protection, even better than benzotriazole. The protective function was connected to the inhibition of oxygen reduction.

Chaudhari and Patil obtained uniform and adherent film of poly (o-ethoxyaniline) on copper from aqueous o-ethoxyaniline and salicilate containing solution using cyclic voltammetry. They observed decrease of the corrosion rate compared to uncoated copper in sodium chloride solution for almost 140 times [32]. They also investigated corrosion protective features of electrochemically copolymerized poly (o-anididine-co-o-toluidine) coatings on copper and based on both potentiodynamic polarization and electrochemical impedance measurements, they observed increased corrosion protection of copolymer comparing to respective homopolymers [33]. The same authors also investigated electrochemical synthesis and corrosion protection of poly (o-anisidine) coatings on brass [34].

Özyilmaz et al. used cyclic voltammetry to perform electrochemical synthesis of PANI coating on nickel plated copper from oxalic acid and sodium oxalate solution [35,36].

It was observed that PANI obtained from both solutions had provided increased corrosion protection of nickel plated copper electrode in sodium chloride solution.

It can be concluded that there is constant interest in application of ECP in general for the corrosion protection of copper, although there is only few studies dedicated to the use of PANI in such systems.

Previously, we have shown that electrochemical syntheses PANI film on mild steel and aluminum from aqueous sodium benzoate solution [15,37] had resulted in homogenous and strongly adherent thin PANI film with increased corrosion protection properties. The aim of this paper was to investigate conditions for electrochemical synthesis of thin protective PANI film on copper from sodium benzoate solution containing aniline.

2. Experimental

2.1. Electrochemical polymerization of PANI on copper

Potentiodynamic anodic polarization curves of copper in 0.1–0.3 sodium benzoate with and without presence of 0.2 mol dm^{-2} aniline were recorded at scan rate of 0.5 mV s^{-1} .

Polyaniline (PANI) film on copper was obtained by electrochemical polymerization from aqueous solution of 0.3 mol dm^{-3} sodium benzoate and 0.2 mol dm^{-3} aniline under galvanostatic conditions in the current density range of $0.50\text{--}1.25 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$.

Prior to use, aniline (p.a. Aldrich) was distilled under argon atmosphere. Electrolytes were prepared with distilled water. Copper sheet ($S=2.0 \text{ cm}^2$) served as working electrode. Before all experiments, working electrode was first mechanically abraded

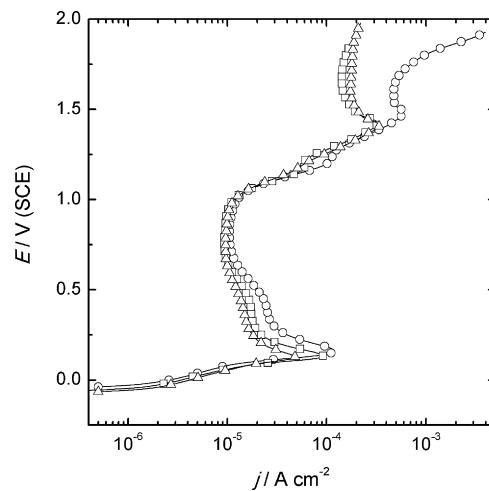


Fig. 1. Potentiodynamic anodic polarization ($v=0.5 \text{ mV s}^{-1}$) curves of copper electrode in: (○) 0.1 mol dm^{-3} , (□) 0.3 mol dm^{-3} and (Δ) 0.5 mol dm^{-3} Na-benzoate.

by fine emery papers (2/0, 3/0 and 4/0, respectively) and then by polishing alumina ($1 \mu\text{m}$, Banner Scientific Ltd.) on polishing cloths (Buehler Ltd.). After mechanical polishing, the traces of the polishing alumina were removed from the electrode surface ultrasonically during 5 min.

The mass of the electrochemically polymerized PANI film was determined by measuring the mass difference of copper samples before and after dissolution of PANI in hot methanol/acetone (30/70) mixture.

2.2. Corrosion behavior

Corrosion behavior of copper electrode and PANI coated copper electrode in 0.5 mol dm^{-3} sodium chloride solution was investigated using potentiodynamic measurements and electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS). The working surface area of the copper and PANI coated copper electrode used in potentiodynamic and EIS measurements was reduced to 0.5 cm^2 , using Teflon holder in order to avoid the edge effects. The three compartment electrochemical cell was used in all experiments. Copper and PANI coated copper electrode served as working, standard calomel (SCE) as reference and platinum wire was used as counter electrode.

EIS measurements were performed at open circuit potentials in the frequency range between 50 mHz and 100 kHz , while below 5 Hz the fast Fourier technique (FFT) was used. All experiments were performed using instrumentation consisted of PC controlled PAR263A potentiostat/galvanostat connected to PAR frequency response detector FRD100.

Scanning electron microscope (SEM) micrographs of PANI coated copper taken before and after immersion in 0.5 mol dm^{-3} sodium chloride were made using scanning electron microscope – Jeol, JSM-5800.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Electrochemical polymerization of PANI on copper

In order to obtain optimal concentration of sodium benzoate for electrochemical synthesis of PANI on copper, anodic polarization curves of copper electrode in different concentration of sodium benzoate were recorded, and presented in Fig. 1.

As it can be seen in Fig. 1, corrosion potential, E_{corr} , of copper electrode in sodium benzoate had value $\sim -0.10 \text{ V(SCE)}$. At potentials more positive than 0.3 V(SCE) , passivation of the electrode occurred, with critical passivity current density of 200, 90 and

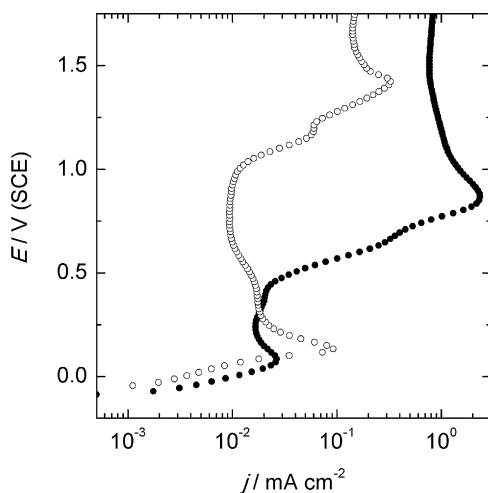


Fig. 2. Potentiodynamic anodic polarization ($v=0.5 \text{ mVs}^{-1}$) curves of copper in: (○) 0.3 mol dm^{-3} sodium benzoate and (●) 0.3 mol dm^{-3} sodium benzoate and 0.20 mol dm^{-3} aniline.

$40 \mu\text{A cm}^{-2}$ and the mean value of passivation current density of 25, 15 and $13 \mu\text{A cm}^{-2}$ for sodium benzoate concentration of 0.1, 0.3 and 0.5 mol dm^{-3} , respectively. At potentials more positive than 1.3 V transpassive region probably connected to transformation in the structure of the passive layer followed by oxygen evolution reaction was observed. There is no significant difference in anodic polarization curves of the copper in different concentration of sodium benzoate, although the lowest value of the critical passivation current density was achieved in 0.5 mol dm^{-3} sodium benzoate, while almost the same value of the mean passivation current density was achieved in 0.3 and 0.5 mol dm^{-3} sodium benzoate solutions. In order to ensure good conductivity and solubility of sodium benzoate, concentration of 0.3 mol dm^{-3} was used in all further experiments.

In Fig. 2, anodic polarization curves of copper electrode in 0.3 mol dm^{-3} sodium benzoate with addition of 0.2 mol dm^{-3} aniline, are given for lower concentration of monomer, it was practically impossible to grow polymer film, similar observation could be find in literature for the growth of the polypyrrole on copper [29].

As it could be seen in Fig. 2, in the presence of aniline, corrosion potential was shifted for $\sim 50 \text{ mV}$ in the negative direction, connected to anodic inhibitory effect of absorbed aniline monomer [15]. After short passivation of copper, in aniline containing electrolyte, polymerization started at potentials more positive than 0.4 V(SCE) and proceeded up to the potential of 2.5 V(SCE) . The observed pick at $\sim 0.7 \text{ V(SCE)}$ could be connected to the existence of polyaniline in the form of pernigraniline salt [38], at potentials more positive than $\sim 2 \text{ V(SCE)}$, slow oxygen reduction reaction was observed.

Chronopotentiometric (galvanostatic) curves of electrochemical polymerization of aniline on copper electrode from aqueous solution of 0.3 mol dm^{-3} sodium benzoate and 0.2 mol dm^{-3} aniline, obtained by different current densities during 1000 s are given in Fig. 3, while in the insert of Fig. 3, chronopotentiometric curve for first 25 s of polymerization, with current density of 1.25 mol dm^{-3} , is presented.

As it could be seen in Fig. 3 dissolution of copper was not observed, initial increase of the potential, observed during first 25 s of polymerization (insert of Fig. 3), is related to the formation of polyaniline layer on copper surface, while further slower increase of the potential could be connected to polymerization of aniline on already formed polymer on the metal surface.

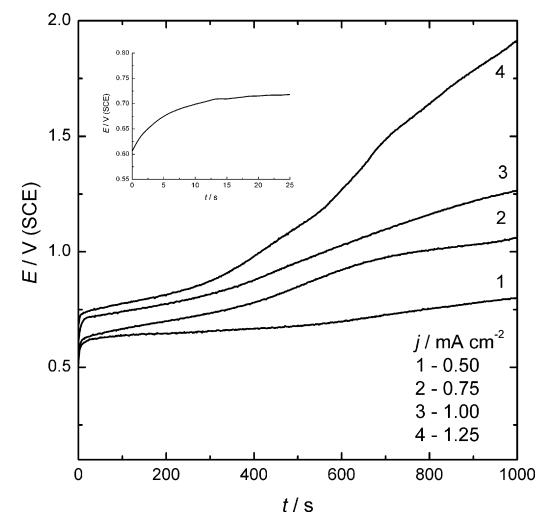


Fig. 3. Chronopotentiometric (galvanostatic) curves of Cu electrode in 0.3 mol dm^{-3} sodium benzoate and 0.2 mol dm^{-3} aniline solutions obtained by different current densities (as marked in the figure). Insert: chronopotentiometric curve obtained with 1.0 mA cm^{-2} during 25 s of polymerization.

Dependence of the experimentally determined PANI mass (full symbols) together with calculated theoretical mass of the PANI film (full line) on applied polymerization current density is given in Fig. 4. Insert of Fig. 4 shows dependence of the polymerization efficiency on the polymerization current density, given as a ratio of experimentally determined and calculated theoretical mass of PANI.

Theoretical mass, m_t (mg cm^{-2}) of PANI film was calculated assuming 100% current efficiency, and taking into account average molar mass of aniline monomer unit in the polymer, according to equation [39]:

$$m_t = \frac{jt(M_m + yM_a)}{(2+y)F\rho} \quad (1)$$

where j (A cm^{-2}) is polymerization current density over time, t (s); M_m and M_a , g mol^{-1} , are molar mass of aniline monomer (93.13 g mol^{-1}) and inserted benzoate anions ($121.12 \text{ g mol}^{-1}$), respectively, $F=96,484 \text{ C mol}^{-1}$ is Faraday constant, and y is doping degree. Due to the high polymerization potential, it was reasonable to assume that most of the PANI film was obtained in

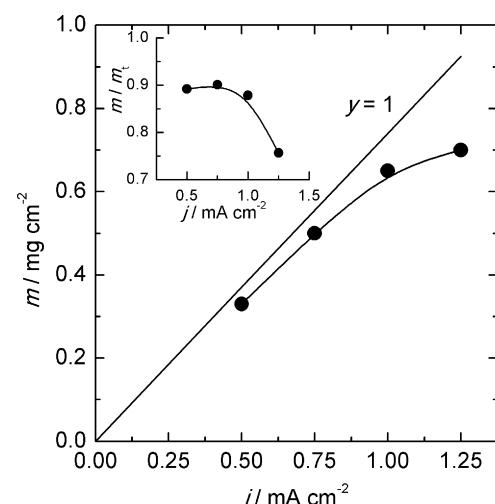


Fig. 4. Dependence of the experimentally determined mass of PANI film (●) and (□) theoretical PANI mass on current polymerization densities. Insert: polymerization efficiency.

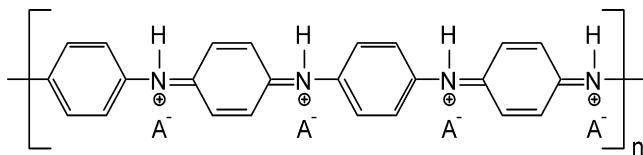


Fig. 5. Schematic presentation of PANI in the form of pernigranilin salt ($A-C_6H_5COO^-$) [25].

pernigranilin form referring to $y=1$, schematically presented in Fig. 5.

As seen in Fig. 4, mass of the polymerized PANI on copper increased with increase of the current density, but polymerization efficiency, after having practically the same values for lower current densities, decreased for higher current densities. Such observation could be connected to the formation of polyaniline degradation and hydrolysis products [38], and oxygen evolution reaction. Since, the completely uniform PANI films were obtained for higher current densities and in order to achieve lower extent of degradation, polymerization current density of 1.0 mA cm^{-2} was used in further experiments. Using equation:

$$\delta = \frac{m}{\rho} \quad (2)$$

where $m(\text{g cm}^{-2})$ is experimental mass of the deposited PANI, and assuming that density of the benzoate doped PANI was similar to sulfate doped ($\rho=1.3\text{ g cm}^{-3}$) [40], thickness of the PANI film, obtained with current density of 1.0 mA cm^{-2} , during 1000s, was estimated to be $\sim 5.0\text{ }\mu\text{m}$.

3.2. Corrosion behavior

3.2.1. Polarization measurements

Potentiodynamic polarization curves ($v=0.5\text{ mV s}^{-1}$) of copper and copper coated by electrochemically deposited PANI film, after 24 h of immersion in 0.5 mol dm^{-3} NaCl are given in Fig. 6.

As it can be seen in Fig. 6, anodic polarization curves of copper and PANI coated copper are under activation control, characterized by the Tafel slope of $\sim 54\text{ mV dec}^{-1}$, connected to anodic dissolution of copper, while cathodic polarization curves are under mixed activation–diffusion control of oxygen reduction. The corrosion potential of pure copper was, $E_{corr}=-0.270\text{ V(SCE)}$, while corrosion potential of PANI coated copper was $E_{corr}=-0.225\text{ V(SCE)}$. Corrosion current densities were determined as intercept of anodic Tafel lines with corrosion potential. It was found that corrosion cur-

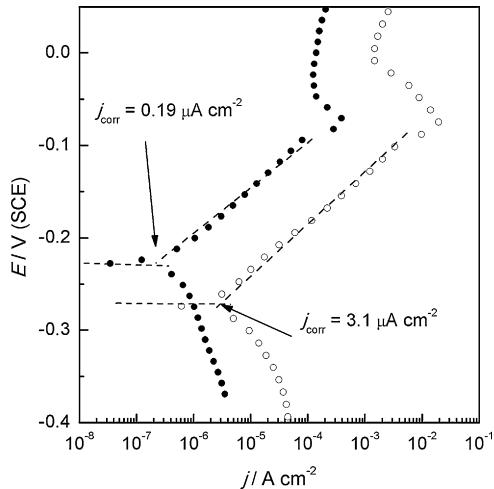


Fig. 6. Potentiodynamic ($v=0.5\text{ mV s}^{-1}$) polarization curves of: (●) Cu and (○) PANI coated Cu in 0.5 mol dm^{-3} NaCl.

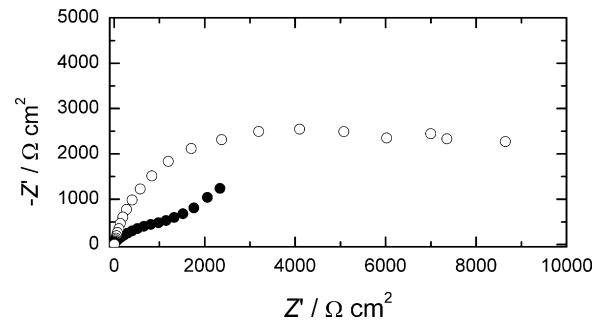


Fig. 7. Complex plane (Nyquist) impedance spectra of: (●) Cu and (○) PANI coated Cu in 0.5 mol dm^{-3} NaCl.

rent densities for copper and PANI coated copper were $j_{corr,Cu}=3.1$ and $j_{corr,Cu/PANI}=0.19\text{ }\mu\text{A cm}^{-3}$. The protection efficiency of PANI expressed as:

$$E = \frac{j_{corr,Cu} - j_{corr,Cu/PANI}}{j_{corr,Cu}} \times 100\% \quad (3)$$

was estimated to 96%.

3.2.2. Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS)

EIS spectra in complex plane (Nyquist plot) of copper and PANI coated copper electrodes after 24 h of immersion in 0.5 mol dm^{-3} NaCl, are shown in Fig. 7.

As it can be seen in Fig. 7, without detailed analysis in the term of equivalent circuits and fitting procedure, the low frequency part of the impedance spectra for copper electrode, related to corrosion process, indicates mixed activation-diffusion control, while semi cycle at higher frequencies could be attributed to the formation of corrosion film products [19–21]. On the other hand, the impedance spectra of PANI coated copper is characterized by two slightly depressed overlapping semi cycles, with significantly higher value of the overall impedance comparing to pure copper, indicating protective features of the PANI film.

Complex plane spectra of PANI coated copper taken at different times of exposure in 0.5 mol dm^{-3} NaCl are given in Fig. 8, while insert of Fig. 8 shows the time dependences of the corresponding open circuit (corrosion) potential, at which the impedance spectra were taken.

As seen in Fig. 8, without detailed analysis, the overall impedance of PANI coated copper, unusually to conventional organic coatings, firstly increased, from the value of $\sim 8\text{ k}\Omega\text{ cm}^2$ at the beginning of immersion, to $\sim 16\text{ k}\Omega\text{ cm}^2$ after 540 h of immersion. The increase of the impedance might be a consequence of cathodic dedoping of benzoate anions from PANI film, according to:

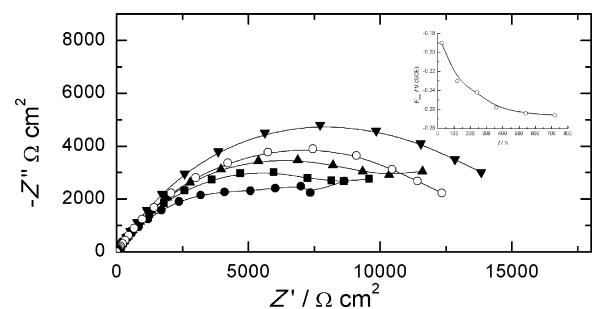
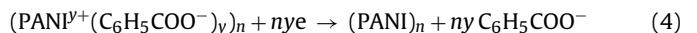


Fig. 8. Complex plane (Nyquist) impedance spectra of PANI coated Cu after: (●) 120 h, (■) 240 h, (▲) 360 h, (▼) 540 h and (○) 720 h of exposure to 0.5 mol dm^{-3} NaCl. Insert: time dependences of corresponding open circuit potentials.

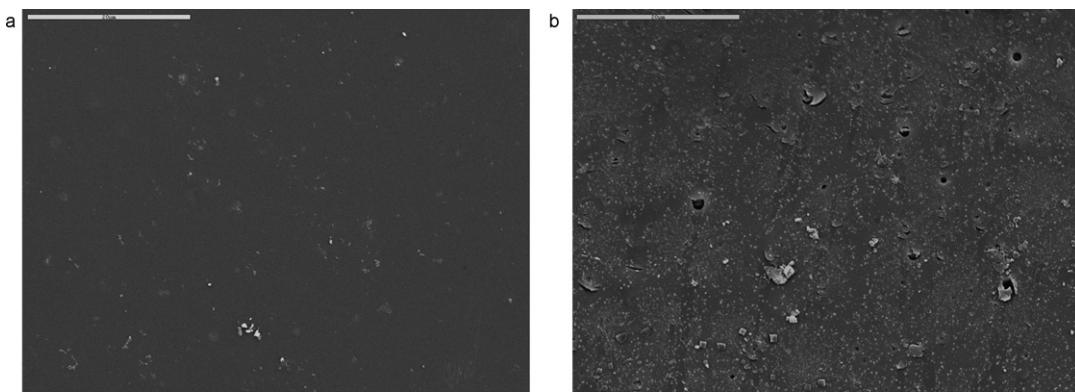


Fig. 9. SEM micrographs of PANI coated Cu (a) before and (b) after 7 days of immersion in 0.5 mol dm^{-3} NaCl.

Dedoping provoked the loss of the PANI film conductivity, reflected in the increase of the overall impedance. Since the shift of the open circuit potential to more negative values is characteristic of dedoped state [41], the observed decrease in corrosion potentials (insert of Fig. 8), also confirms the assumption of dedoping process. After observed increase, the overall impedance of PANI started to decrease slowly, meaning that PANI started to act as conventional organic coating enabling barrier corrosion protection of the metal surface.

3.2.3. Corrosion process of PANI coated copper

In order to observe the effects of corrosion media on surface morphology of PANI coating on copper, SEM micrographs were taken before and after immersion in NaCl, and given in Fig. 9(a) and (b), respectively.

As it could be seen in Fig. 9, before exposure to corrosion media, PANI coating was compact and uniformly deposited on copper surface. After immersion in NaCl, the development of pores in the coating was clearly observed.

It is well known from the literature [12,42] that corrosion process of copper in NaCl solutions can be explained by activation controlled anodic dissolution, according to:



In further chemical reactions Cu^+ reacts with Cl^- generating CuCl , which is then transformed to CuCl_2^- and rate determining cathodic reaction under mixed activation-diffusion control of oxygen reduction, according to:



On the other hand, corrosion process of PANI coated copper exposed to NaCl solution can be explained by the same reactions of anodic dissolution and cathodic oxygen reduction (5) and (6) occurring on the metal surface in the pores of the PANI film and slow parallel cathodic reaction of benzoate anions dedoping (4), which is confirmed by the impedance data.

4. Conclusion

Electrochemical synthesis of PANI film on copper from aqueous solution of sodium benzoate containing aniline was investigated using potentiodynamic and galvanostatic experiments. Protective PANI coating was successfully obtained with high polymerization efficiency ($\sim 90\%$) under galvanostatic conditions using current density of 1.0 mA cm^{-2} from aqueous solution of 0.3 mol dm^{-3} sodium benzoate containing aniline.

Corrosion behavior of copper in the presence of thin ($5 \mu\text{m}$) PANI film in 0.5 mol dm^{-3} NaCl solution was investigated using potentiodynamic and electrochemical impedance spectroscopy techniques.

It was observed that PANI thin coating had provided high protection efficiency to copper. Unusual impedance behavior to those observed with organic coatings, reflected in initial increase of the overall impedance, was connected to dedoping of benzoate ions from the PANI film, after which the values of the overall impedance started to decrease similar to those with classical organic coatings. Therefore, corrosion process of PANI coated copper in NaCl was explained by the same electrochemical reactions of copper anodic dissolution and cathodic oxygen reduction occurring in parallel with slow cathodic dedoping of the benzoate anions from the PANI film, after dedoping, PANI coating started to act like conventional organic coating.

Acknowledgment

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Short communication

Electrochemical characteristics of rechargeable polyaniline/lead dioxide cell

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HIGHLIGHTS

- PANI and PbO₂ electrode was synthesized from sulfuric acid solution.
- Electrode was investigated for PANI/PbO₂ rechargeable cell.
- Electrochemical characteristic of the cell was determined.

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ABSTRACT

Electrochemically synthesized polyaniline (PANI) and lead dioxide have been investigated as electrode materials for PANI/1.1 M H₂SO₄; 0.5 M (NH₄)₂SO₄/PbO₂ rechargeable cell. At constant current charge/discharge of the cell, the average discharge potential of 1.1 V, specific capacity of 50 mA h g⁻¹, specific energy of 55 W h kg⁻¹, and self discharge rate of 2.2% per day have been obtained.

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Keywords:

Polyaniline

Lead dioxide

Rechargeable cell

Sulfuric acid

Ammonium sulfate

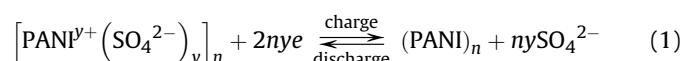
1. Introduction

Replacement the Pb negative electrode with polyaniline (PANI) could avoid some of the problems with negative Pb electrode compared to classical Pb/PbO₂ systems [1–3]. Additionally, both the specific energy and the specific power could increase significantly, owing to the much smaller mass of PANI electrode compared to classical Pb negative electrode. Moreover, lower concentration of sulfuric acid and decrease of lead content in such cell increase its ecological acceptability of such cell.

In our previous work, electrochemical characteristics of polyaniline (PANI) and lead dioxide (PbO₂) electrodes were investigated in 1.1 M H₂SO₄, aiming to characterize thin film PANI and PbO₂ electrode for the potential application in aqueous based PANI/H₂SO₄/PbO₂ cell. [1]. Considering electrochemical behavior, for

different doping (oxidation) potential limits, and dedoping capacity of PANI electrode in 1.1 M H₂SO₄ it was suggested that doping potential should not exceed 0.4 V. The obtained specific electrode capacity of PANI electrode was 240 mAh g⁻¹. This value was obtained considering only the electroactive mass (0.48 g) of the total deposited PANI mass (2.1 mg). So, the realistic value of the specific electrode capacity will be around 50 mA h g⁻¹. By simulation of the charge/discharge characteristic, based on the half cell reactions, it was estimated that cell charging voltage would range between 1 and 1.9 V, while discharge would occur between 1.35 and ~0.8 V, with most of the charge delivered at above 1 V.

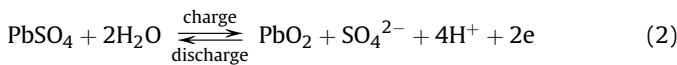
In the PANI/PbO₂ system, the half cell reaction for charge and discharge can be given as [1]:



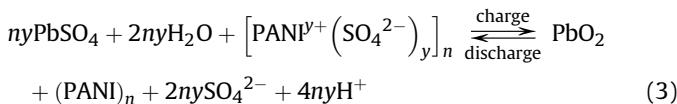
where y is doping degree, and:

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The overall reaction in the cell would be:



It is very important to bear in mind that, according to given schema, during cell charging, PANI would be dedoped, on contrary, during cell discharge, PANI would be doped.

It is interesting to note that from early work on PANI, Pb and PbO₂ cells, by Kitani et al. [4], until now, practically no data on electroconducting polymers (ECP)/PbO₂ cells were provided in the literature. There were attempts to improve characteristics of negative, Pb electrode, and prevent grids corrosion by PANI coatings, conducted by Martha et al. and Cheraghi et al. [5–7].

After the reexamining of the results in 1.1 M H₂SO₄, it was concluded that PbO₂ electrode had poor cyclization characteristics and low coulombic efficiency in this electrolyte. In the present study we have used the novel electrolyte consisted of 1.1 M sulfuric acid and 0.5 M ammonium sulfate which has good buffer capacity and benefits to PbO₂ electrode [8].

Hence, the aim of this work was investigation of electrochemically synthesized polyaniline and lead dioxide as the electrode materials for PANI/1.1 M H₂SO₄; 0.5 M (NH)₄SO₄/PbO₂ cell.

2. Experimental

Thin film PANI electrode was electrochemically synthesized from aqueous 1.1 M sulfuric acid solution with addition of 0.25 M aniline monomer (p.a. Merck, previously distilled in argon atmosphere). The polymerization was performed on graphite electrode ($S = 18 \text{ cm}^2$), galvanostatically at constant current of 36 mA, during 5000 s, with the total polymerization charge of 50 mA h. After polymerization, PANI electrode was discharged with the current of 18 mA to test the film quality, washed with bidistilled water and transferred into another electrochemical cell for further investigations.

The mass of PANI was determined by measuring the graphite electrode before and after electropolymerization, followed by overnight drying in vacuum.

Lead dioxide electrode was prepared on pure lead (99.95%) ($S = 18 \text{ cm}^2$), according to Planté formation process described in detail by Petersson et al. [9,10]. In order to remove lead oxides, naturally formed in the air, the lead sample was dipped in 8 M HNO₃ for 30 s, and rinsed in bidistilled water prior to immersion in 0.5 M H₂SO₄ and 0.05 M KClO₄ (p.a. Merck) for the formation process. The lead electrode was initially pretreated cathodically at constant current of 36 mA during 25 min, and then oxidized and reduced galvanostatically in the same electrolyte at current of 36 mA. After formation process, the remains of perchlorate ions were removed from the electrode by rinsing in bidistilled water. Finally, the PbO₂ electrode was completely oxidized in pure 1.1 M H₂SO₄ with the current of 36 mA during 1500 s.

For all further electrochemical experiments electrolyte consisted of 1.1 M sulfuric acid and 0.5 M ammonium sulfate was used.

Prior to investigation, working electrode was mechanically polished firstly with fine emery papers (2/0, 3/0 and 4/0, respectively) and then with polishing alumina of 1 μm (Banner Scientific Ltd.) on the polishing cloths (Buehler Ltd.). After mechanical polishing the traces of the polishing alumina were removed from the electrode surface ultrasonically in ethanol during 5 min.

Electrochemical synthesis and characterization of PANI and PbO₂ electrodes were performed in a single compartment

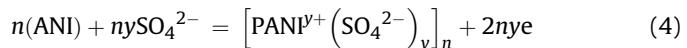
electrochemical cell with total volume of 100 cm³. Platinum mesh ($S = 18 \text{ cm}^2$) was used as counter, while saturated calomel electrode, SCE, ($E_r = 0.243 \text{ V}$ vs. SHE), served as reference electrode. For the characterization of the PANI/PbO₂ cell the same electrochemical cell, with electrode gap of 1 cm, was used.

The electrochemical measurements were carried out using PAR M273 potentiostat/galvanostat controlled by a computer, while voltage data was collected using ISO-Tech IDM 73 multimeter connected to the computer via RS 232.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Synthesis and characterization of PANI electrode

Fig. 1 shows the chronopotentiometric curve of aniline polymerization on graphite electrode at constant current of 36 mA, during 5000 s with the polymerization charge, q_{pol} , of 50 mA h from aqueous solution of 1.1 M H₂SO₄ and 0.25 M aniline (ANI) monomer. Aniline polymerization, in sulfuric acid solution, proceeded in the potential range between 0.7 and ~0.52 V according to the equation:



The mass of PANI deposited on graphite electrode, determined in a separate experiment after drying in vacuum overnight, was 0.0989 g. The corresponding thickness of PANI electrode, assuming the density of sulfate doped PANI of 1.43 g cm⁻³, was estimated to ~40 μm [11].

Inset of Fig. 1 shows cyclic voltammogram of the PANI electrode in 1.1 M sulfuric acid and 0.5 M ammonium sulfate, for the anodic potential limit of 0.5 V. Doping of the PANI electrode with sulfate anions started at ~−0.1 V and proceeded up to the potential of 0.4 V. The well defined peak at 0.2 V, could be attributed to the changes of the doping degree of PANI between $y > 0$ and 0.5. It should be noted that at low negative potentials leucoemeraldine form ($y \approx 0$) could exist as well [12]. Above potentials of ~0.4 V the possibilities of formation the quinone-like degradation products is expected [1,13].

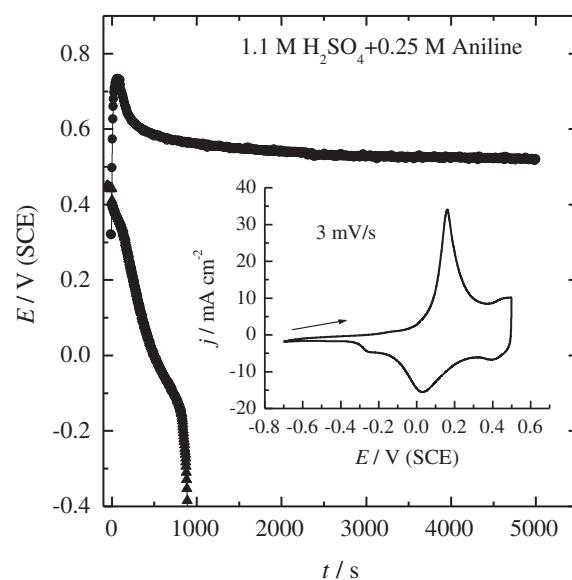


Fig. 1. Galvanostatic curves of aniline electropolymerization ($I = 36 \text{ mA}$) and discharge ($I = 18 \text{ mA}$). Insert: cyclic voltammogram of PANI electrode in 1.1 M sulfuric acid and 0.5 M ammonium sulfate.

In the cathodic scan, reduction of degradation products and emeraldine salt to leucoemeraldine proceeded in the potential range between 0.5 and –0.3 V.

Doping/dedoping curves of PANI electrode for different currents, and for doping potential limit of 0.4 V are shown in Fig. 2. Curves are characterized by constant increase/decrease of the potential which is connected to the changes of the emeraldine salt doping degree given by overall reaction:



Fig. 3 shows calculated values of doping/dedoping electrode capacity and specific capacity for different currents. As it can be seen electrode capacity was dependent on the applied current, and decreased from 7 (6.5) to 5.5 mA h, or from 70 (65) to 55 mA h g⁻¹ with increasing of the current. Decrease in the electrode capacity with increasing of the current, is connected with slow diffusion of sulfate anions through polymer film. Coulombic efficiency, shown in the insert of Fig. 3, for the current higher than 30 mA was ~100%, while for the current lower than 30 mA, was higher than 100% (103–108%). This unusual results, as pointed out in our previous paper, could be explained by the possibilities of hydrogen evolution reaction ($E_r = -0.24$ V) or even more probably by formation of protonated leucoemeraldine at low current and negative potentials [1]. Such additional charge was, after current interruption, quickly discharged, at the PANI electrode open circuit potentials of –0.05 V and was not observed during charge.

As pointed out, the degradation of PANI could occur above ~0.4 V. So, behavior of PANI electrode during cyclization, at a constant current of 36 mA for charging potential limits of 0.35 and 0.45 V, was investigated, and shown in Fig. 4. As it can be seen in Fig. 4, during first ten cycles for charging with potential limit of 0.35 V, discharge time remained constant. Charging of the electrode to the potential of 0.45 V, during nine cycles, provoked some small decrease of the discharge times, inducing the additional decrease of the discharge time for potential limits of 0.35 V during twentieth cycle. Hence, it could be suggested that charging potential limits should not exceed 0.4 V.

3.2. Synthesis and characterization of PbO₂ electrode

Fig. 5 shows galvanostatic synthesis of PbO₂ on the oxide free lead electrode at constant current of 36 mA in aqueous solution of 0.5 M H₂SO₄ and 0.05 M KClO₄, according to the similar procedure

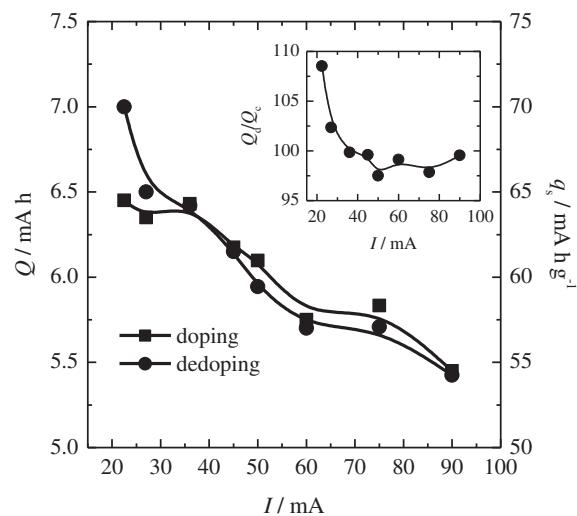


Fig. 3. Calculated values of PANI electrode capacity (Q) and specific capacity (q_s) for different currents. Insert: Coulombic efficiency.

described by Petersson et al. [9,10]. Initially, the electrode was treated cathodically for 1500 s at 36 mA and then oxidized and reduced galvanostatically in the same electrolyte. After current was applied, during 10 s, potential had the similar value as the open circuit potential, ~–0.52 V. This time could be assigned to the induction period, t_{ind} , of the PbSO₄ formation. When most of the lead surface was converted into PbSO₄, increase of the potential up to the ~1.7 V followed by a plateau at ~1.55 V, could be connected to transformation of PbSO₄ into PbO₂. After 700 s, electrode was discharged to ~0.7 V, with the same current. According to Fig. 5 the total time, which could be connected to the formation of PbO₂, was 700 s (or 7 mA h). Relying to Faradays law, and assuming formation process efficiency of 100% [9,10], the calculated mass and corresponding thickness of the PbO₂ electrode, were 31 mg and 1.85 μm respectively.

Charge/discharge curves of PbO₂ electrode, for different currents, in 1.1 M sulfuric acid and 0.5 M ammonium sulfate are shown in Fig. 6. Charge of the electrode started at 1.4 or 1.5 V, depending on applied current, followed by slow increase of the potential. After that period of time, faster increase of the potential could be connected to oxidation of small amounts of PbSO₄

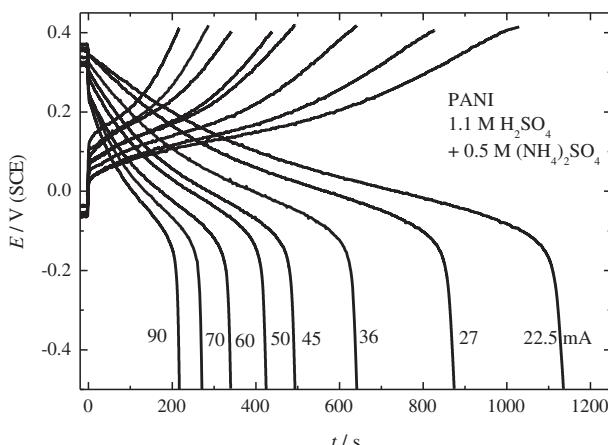


Fig. 2. Doping/dedoping curves of PANI electrode for different currents, marked in figure.

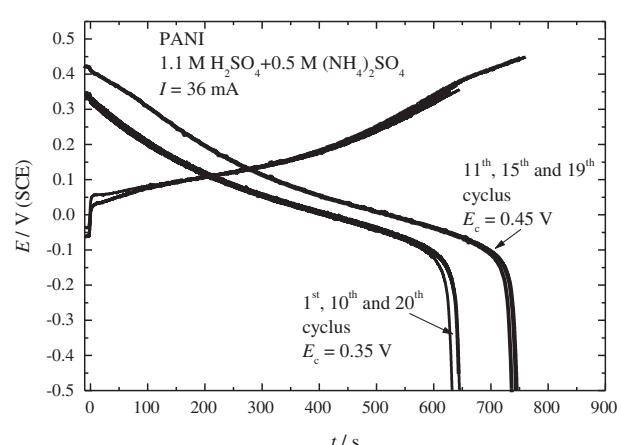


Fig. 4. Potential-current curves of PANI electrode during cyclization at a constant current of 36 mA for charging potential limits of 0.35 and 0.45 V.

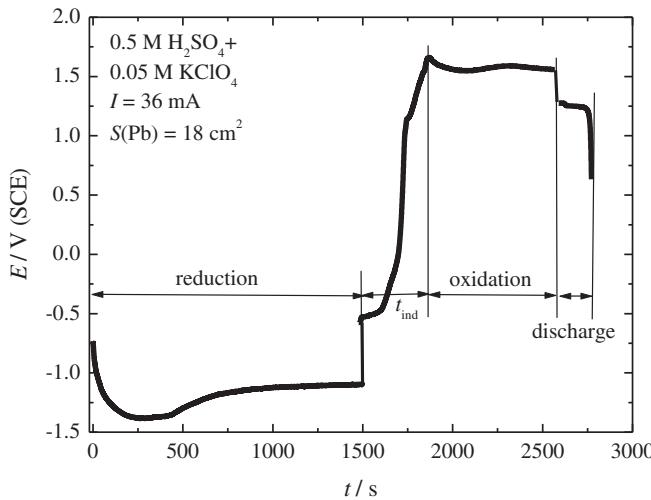


Fig. 5. Dependence of potential on time during galvanostatic formation of PbO_2 electrode.

remains, and oxygen evolution. Discharge of the PbO_2 occurred via one well defined potential plateau of $1.27 \pm 0.01 \text{ V}$.

From Fig. 6 the capacities of charge/discharge processes were calculated and shown in Fig. 7. Charge capacity increased non-linearly from 8.5 to 9.7 mA h with increasing current. On contrary, discharge capacity of $\sim 7 \text{ mA h}$ was practically independent on applied current. Coulombic efficiency of charge/discharge, shown in the insert of Fig. 6, for the current lower than 30 mA , ranged from 81 to 82.5%, while for the current higher than 30, decreased from 82 to 73%.

During the cyclization of PbO_2 electrode (Fig. 8), small decrease of charging and increase of discharging potentials, and practically constant capacity were observed. Decrease of the peak during cyclization, was also observed for the first 100 s of the charging process, and could be connected to oxidation of PbSO_4 phase.

3.3. Electrochemical characteristic of PANI/ PbO_2 cell

Comparing the results for PANI and PbO_2 electrode it can be concluded that disbalance in the charge/discharge time, for the same current existed. In Fig. 9 charge/discharge curves for PbO_2

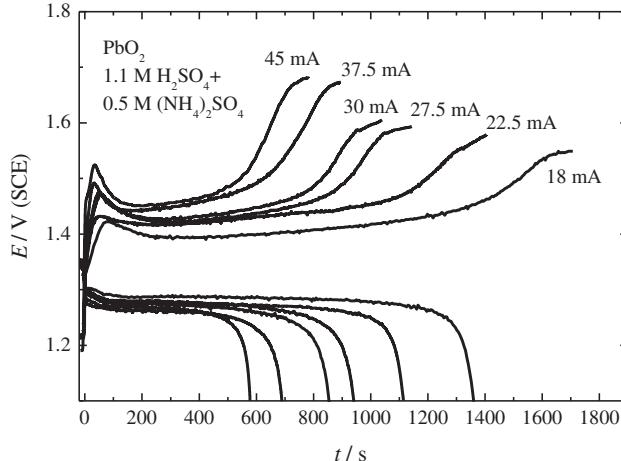


Fig. 6. Charge/discharge curve of PbO_2 electrode for different currents, marked in figure.

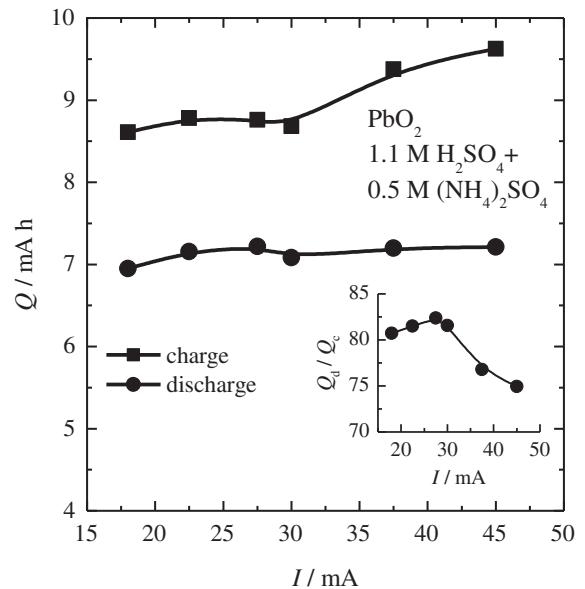


Fig. 7. Dependence of charge/discharge capacity of PbO_2 electrode for different current. Insert: Coulombic efficiency of charge/discharge.

electrode at current 22.5 mA ($j = 1.25 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$) and 27.5 mA ($j = 1.53 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$), and for PANI electrode of 22.5 mA ($j = 1.25 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$) are shown. As it can be seen, charge/discharge times, were practically equal for the PbO_2 current of 27.5 mA and 22.5 mA for the PANI electrode. To avoid this problem we reduced the surface area of PbO_2 electrode to 14.7 cm^2 . Now, for the overall cell current of 22.5 mA , current density for PbO_2 electrode was 1.53 mA cm^{-2} , and for PANI electrode 1.25 mA cm^{-2} .

With such surface reduced PbO_2 electrode, the charge/discharge characteristics of the complete cell, during ten cycles with current of 22.5 mA , were investigated and shown in Fig. 10. Charging of the cell started at $\sim 0.85 \text{ V}$, followed by voltage increase up to 1.5 V . The shoulder in the potential range of 1.5 – 1.8 V could be associated to behavior of PbO_2 electrode, and sharp increase of the voltage above

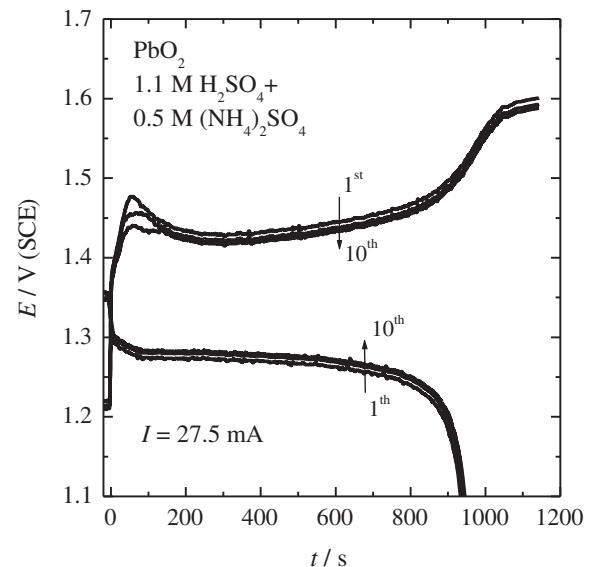


Fig. 8. Potential-current curves of PbO_2 electrode during cyclization at a constant current of 27.5 mA .

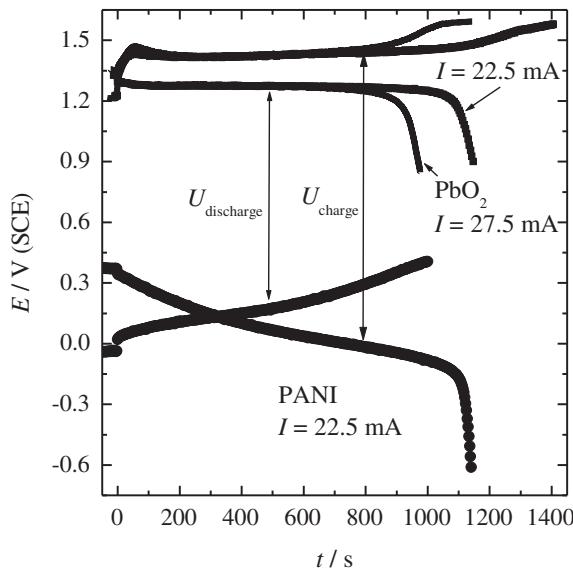


Fig. 9. Comparison of charge/discharge curves for PbO_2 and PANI electrode.

1.8 V to PANI electrode. Open circuit voltage of charged cell was 1.4 V. Discharge of the cell occurred in the potential range of 1.4 to 0.8 V, followed by the sharp decrease of the voltage, which can be connected to behavior of PbO_2 electrode. Average discharge voltage was ~ 1.1 V, comparable to those of cadmium/nickel oxide and metal hydride/nickel oxide batteries. It should be noted that discharge of the cell below 0.4 V could affect PANI electrode, due to the possibilities of degradation. Decrease of the charge/discharge times during cyclization was most probably connected to some electrode capacity disbalance, rather than active mass degradation.

Self discharge rate was investigated after five days, and results are shown in Fig. 11. After five days, decrease of the open circuit potential from 1.4 V to 1.32 V, and discharge time of 11% were observed, giving self discharge rate of 2.2% per day. The reasons of such high self discharge rate were probably connected to both electrodes. Thin film PbO_2 was probably discharged due to the presence of the organic impurities form PANI electrode. Self discharge of PANI electrode, as proposed by Rahamanifar et al. [14],

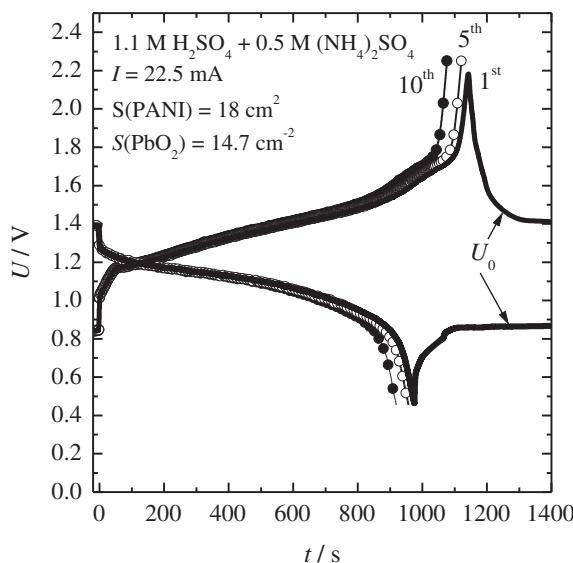


Fig. 10. Charge/discharge curves of PANI/ PbO_2 cell during cyclization.

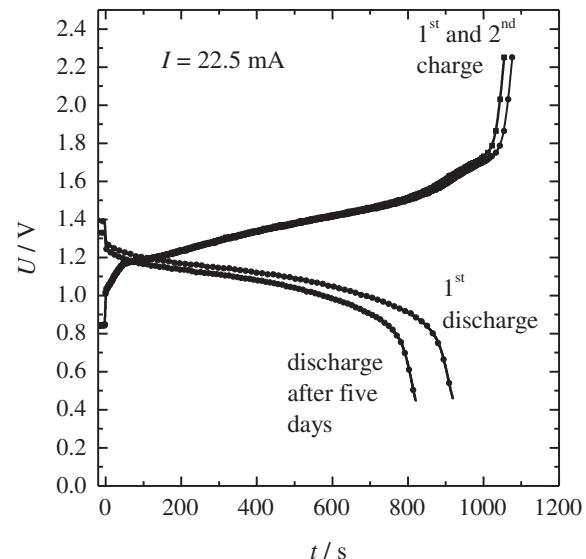
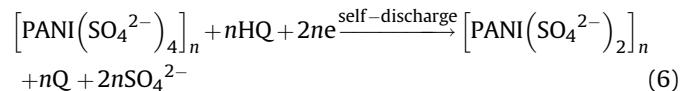


Fig. 11. Determination of the self discharge rate of PANI/ PbO_2 cell.

occurred as a consequence of the reaction of soluble hydroquinone (HQ) like species with pernigraniline salt form of PANI, giving protonated emeraldine, via simplified reaction:



Based on the above given redox reaction, HQ is formed under the conditions at which PANI existed in the pernigraniline form, and then the resulting HQ reacted with the remaining pernigraniline and converted it to the emeraldine conductive form. This could be the main cause of the reduced open circuit potential and the capacity.

Knowing the masses of PANI (0.0989 g) and PbO_2 (25.4 mg, initial mass of PbO_2 reduced for 18%) it was possible to draw the diagram of charge/discharge over specific capacity of the cell. As it

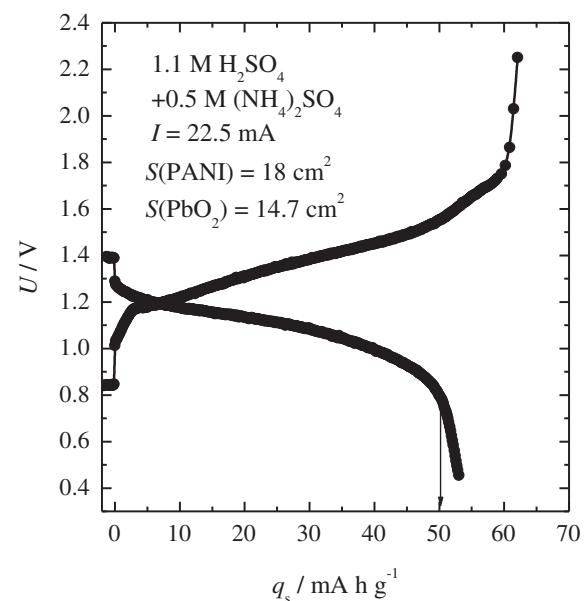


Fig. 12. Dependence of charge/discharge voltage on specific capacity of the PANI/ PbO_2 cell.

can be seen in Fig. 12 available specific discharge capacity was 50 mA h g⁻¹ of active electrode mass, with active mass utilization of 83%. For the average discharge voltage of 1.1 V, specific discharge energy of 55 W h kg⁻¹ was calculated.

4. Conclusions

Polyaniline and lead dioxide electrode were successfully synthesized from sulfuric acid based solutions. Charge/discharge characteristic of the separate electrodes was investigated in 1.1 M sulfuric acid and 0.5 M ammonium sulfate electrolyte. Based on this results, electrodes were balanced and characteristics of polyaniline/lead dioxide cell were investigated. At the charge/discharge current of 22.5 mA the average discharge potential of 1.1 V, specific capacity of 50 mA h g⁻¹, specific energy of 55 W h kg⁻¹, and self discharge rate of 2.2% per day were obtained. High self discharge rate was connected to reaction of soluble hydroquinone like species formed during the polyaniline charging.

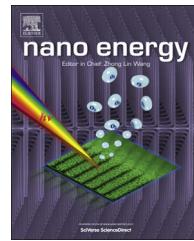
Acknowledgment

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RAPID COMMUNICATION

Enhanced oxygen evolution and reduction reactions of porous ternary NiCoFe foam electrodes prepared by dynamic hydrogen template deposition



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Nanodendritic foam structures

Abstract

Electrodeposition at high current densities provides excellent means for the production of deposits with a high surface area. Porous deposits attract great interest due to their wide range of possible applications in electrocatalysis. In addition, an advanced porous electrode should have both, micro and nanoscaled features. We report the synthesis of a multiscale open porous foam of NiCoFe and its excellent electrocatalytic performance. At a current density of 1 A cm^{-2} a 3D dendritic structure with open pores is obtained with pore walls having a morphology that consists of ‘cauliflower-like’ particles containing open multiscaled dendritic structures. Cyclic voltammograms of a smooth NiCoFe electrode are compared with those of the achieved nanodendritic NiCoFe foam electrode. The catalytic activity of the NiCoFe foam is strongly enhanced for both, the cathodic reduction of oxygen and the anodic evolution of oxygen and shows a good reversibility. Therefore the presented new material is promising as bifunctional catalyst in electrochemical energy conversion and storage devices.

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Introduction

Electrodeposition at high current densities provides excellent means for the production of deposits with a high

surface area in the form of powders or in the form of disperse layers on the substrate [1,2]. Different processing parameters can change chemical composition, crystallite size and morphology of the deposit, which significantly alter its physical and chemical properties [1]. High surface area porous materials attract great interest due to their wide range of possible applications in electrocatalysis [3-6]. Still, the rate of electrochemical reactions is not related directly in a simple way to the surface area of the electrode since in the case of porous materials the active surface and therefore the reaction rate can be even reduced by a decrease in accessible surface area. Therefore, an advanced porous electrode should have both, micro- and nanoscaled features [3]. Recently, the production of multiscale porous materials with nanoramified dendritic walls was achieved by dynamic hydrogen templating [7]. During electrodeposition of metals at high current densities hydrogen bubbles are formed in a cathodic side reaction and serve as a template for multiscale porous structures allowing the synthesis of bulk foams without introducing additional processing steps or use of hazardous chemicals. Silver [8] and gold [9] metal foam electrodes have been achieved by deposition directly on the electrode surface. Recently, we showed that CoNi dendritic alloys exhibit promising results as catalysts for oxygen evolution reaction that is of particular interest for electrochemical conversion and storage devices [10].

In this paper we report the synthesis of a multiscale open porous foam of NiCoFe and its excellent electrocatalytic performance. Oxidized FeCoNi ternary alloys have shown enhanced battery performances when used as anode in Li batteries [11]. The higher conductivity of cobalt oxy compounds in comparison to the nickel compounds leads to a better reversibility when used as positive electrode material for alkaline batteries [12]. The low thermal expansion coefficient of NiCoFe alloys allows applications as high temperature alloy [13]. It is the aim of the present work to synthesize a novel dendritic NiCoFe alloy foam electrode by dynamic hydrogen templating showing favorable features on multiple length scales: from micrometer pores to nanodendritic structures to nanograins with a high density of catalytic sites.

Experimental

The ternary alloy structures were prepared by electrodeposition on polycrystalline Ti cathodes at a constant current density of $j=1 \text{ A cm}^{-2}$ in ammonium sulfate-chloride solution ($0.09 \text{ M } \text{NiSO}_4 + 0.03 \text{ M } \text{FeSO}_4 + 0.053 \text{ M } \text{CoSO}_4 + 0.4 \text{ M } \text{H}_3\text{BO}_3 + 0.28 \text{ M } \text{NH}_4\text{Cl}$, at pH=2 adjusted with HCl) [14], at room temperature without stirring, using a Jaissle potentiostat, IMP 83 PC-10. For the synthesis of NiCoFe structures, Ti was used as a cathode and Ti/RuO_2 , TiO_2 was used as an anode. The electrolyte solutions were made from analytical grade chemicals and high purity water. All samples were carefully treated to prevent oxidation that can be caused by their high surface area exposed to oxygen and moisture in the air [15].

The polarization measurements were carried out by a computer controlled electrochemical system (PAR M 273 A) in a three-electrode compartment electrochemical cell at $(298 \pm 1) \text{ K}$ with a sweep rate of 1 mV s^{-1} . For the correction of the iR drop, a current interrupt technique was used with

a time of current interruption of 0.5 s . The working electrode was a Ti rod with a diameter of 2 mm embedded in a resin. A Pt-mesh with large surface was used as a counter electrode. The electrochemical characterization of the oxygen reduction/oxidation performance for the NiCoFe electrodes was done by linear sweep voltammetry (LSV) at a scan rate of 10 mV s^{-1} in 0.1 M KOH at pH=12.6.

The determination of the phase content and the crystallite size were conducted by X-ray diffraction in Bragg-Brentano geometry. The evaluation was done by Rietveld refinement [16] using the TOPAS software. The morphology was analyzed with a scanning electron microscope (SEM) equipped with a field emission gun. The profile and roughness measurements were carried out from stereoscopic images using MeX software (Alicona). To analyze the foam structures in detail transmission electron microscopy (TEM) studies were carried out at 200 kV in a CM200 (Philips). TEM bright field images and diffraction patterns were recorded from pieces of the sample that were transferred to a carbon grid. To determine the crystallite size from the electron diffraction patterns, the peak analysis using selected area diffraction (PASAD) software was used [17].

Results and discussion

Figure 1 shows the results on the electrochemical behavior of NiCoFe with a polarization curve of the ternary alloy. For comparison the polarization curves of the pure metals Ni, Co and Fe were obtained with the same concentration of the respective metal ions present in the solution. It is characteristic for the iron group metals (Ni, Co and Fe) and their alloys that electrodeposition from an aqueous electrolyte is accompanied by intensive hydrogen evolution, which is caused by their negative standard electrode potentials relative to hydrogen [18]. Therefore, it is necessary to correct all polarization measurements for the iR drop in the electrolyte during the process [19,20]. The standard redox potentials of Ni^{2+} , Co^{2+} , Fe^{2+} and H^+ are -0.50 , -0.52 , -0.68 and -0.24 V vs. a saturated calomel electrode (SCE), respectively. The linear sweep exhibits some similarities. As indicated in Figure 1, the potential shows at the beginning a region (i) of rather linear dependence on the logarithm of the current density up to a current density of about $10^{-2.5} \text{ A cm}^{-2}$; this is followed by a region (ii) with almost no dependence of the potential on current density until a limiting current density of about $10^{-0.5} \text{ A cm}^{-2}$ is reached. Thereafter, in region (iii) the potential decreases strongly with increasing $\log j$. The different regions are indicated for NiCoFe in Figure 1. Region (i) can be explained as mixed electron transfer and diffusion control of the metal reduction reaction coinciding with limited hydrogen evolution. Region (i) can be explained as electron transfer and region (ii) as mixed electron transfer and diffusion control of the metal reduction reaction coinciding with hydrogen evolution. Region (iii) is indicative of significant hydrogen evolution. The relative overpotentials for the hydrogen evolution reaction, after iR correction, at around 0.1 A cm^{-2} at this pH, increase from Co > Fe > Ni.

Figure 2 shows the structure and morphology of NiCoFe deposits obtained at different current densities. At a current density of 0.1 A cm^{-2} (sample A) a compact smooth

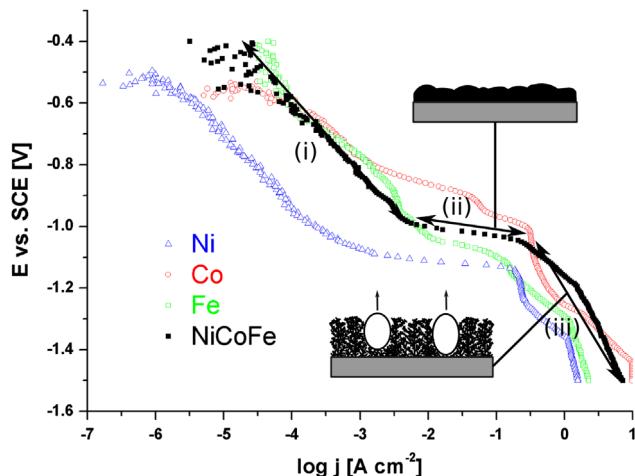


Figure 1 Linear sweep voltammograms for the electrodeposition of Ni, Co, Fe metal deposits and NiCoFe alloy deposits in ammonium sulfate-chloride solutions measured with an iR drop correction. In the case of NiCoFe, the different electrochemical regions are indicated with arrows marked (i), (ii) and (iii). Schematic representations of NiCoFe deposits obtained in region (ii) and (iii) at current densities of 0.1 and 1 A cm⁻², respectively, are shown.

deposit is formed (cf. Figure 2a). Only small protrusions are visible at higher magnification and the sample is completely dense (cf. insert Figure 2a). As shown in Figure 1 this current density represents the border between regions (ii) and (iii). Therefore mixed electron transfer and diffusion control is active leading to the formation of the smooth deposit. In contrast, at a current density of 1 A cm⁻² (sample B) a 3D dendritic structure with open pores is obtained (Figure 2b). The pore walls have a finer morphology consisting of ‘cauliflower-like’ particles containing open multiscaled dendritic structures (as shown in the insert of Figure 2b). The pores and microstructure are a consequence of the vigorous hydrogen gas evolution and diffusion-limited metal deposition active in region (iii) as concluded from Figure 1. It should be noted that the morphology of the compact smooth deposit does not change when deposition time is increased until the same charge is passed compared to the dendritic foam structure ($t=1800$ s).

The chemical composition was determined by energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy yielding a composition of $\text{Ni}_{20}\text{Co}_{45}\text{Fe}_{35}$ in the case of the smooth deposit obtained at a current density of 0.1 A cm⁻² (sample A). This indicates an anomalous co-deposition of the iron group elements [18] where the less noble metal is deposited preferentially to the nobler one. On the other hand in the case of the dendritic foam deposit obtained at a current density of 1 A cm⁻² (sample B) a composition of $\text{Ni}_{50}\text{Co}_{30}\text{Fe}_{20}$, corresponding to that of the electrolyte is obtained. Intensive hydrogen evolution causes gas stirring, changing the mass transfer conditions in the double layer and hence the local electrolyte composition at the electrode surface. Under pure diffusion control the composition of the deposit is determined by the composition of the electrolyte.

Figure 2c shows the X-ray profiles corresponding to the deposits. In the case of the smooth deposit (sample A) broad peaks corresponding to a mixture of FCC and BCC structure

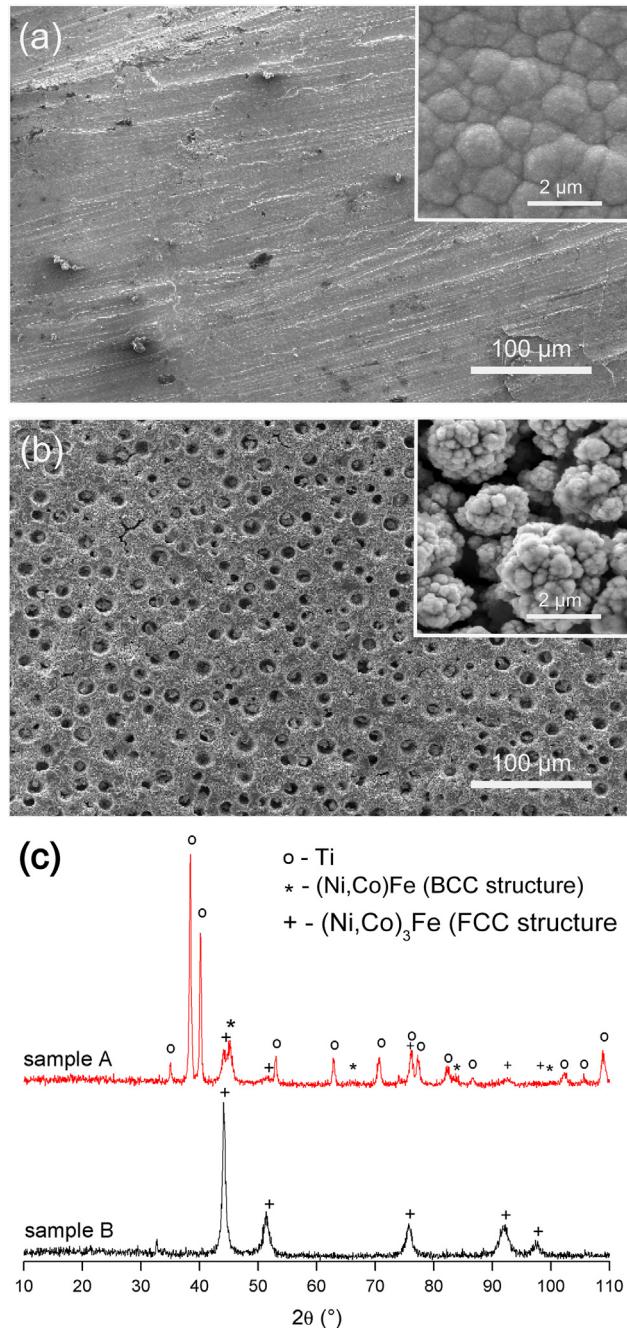


Figure 2 NiCoFe alloy deposits obtained by electrodeposition at different current densities on a Ti substrate (deposition time $t=180$ s): (a) SEM image of the rather smooth deposit obtained at $j=0.1$ A cm⁻² characterized by a compact morphology; only at higher magnification soft hills are visible (sample A). (b) SEM image of a dendritic foam deposit obtained at $j=1$ A cm⁻² showing an open porous ‘cauliflower-like’ morphology (sample B). (c) Corresponding X-ray profiles; the smooth deposit (sample A) shows broad peaks resulting from a mixture of FCC and BCC structure of the nanocrystalline $\text{Ni}_{20}\text{Co}_{45}\text{Fe}_{35}$ deposit and sharp peaks from to the Ti substrate; the dendritic foam deposit (sample B) shows broad peaks resulting from a mixture of FCC and BCC structure of the nanocrystalline $\text{Ni}_{20}\text{Co}_{45}\text{Fe}_{35}$ deposit.

is observed. The BCC structure of (Ni, Co)Fe solid solution is expected from the phase diagram for the given composition

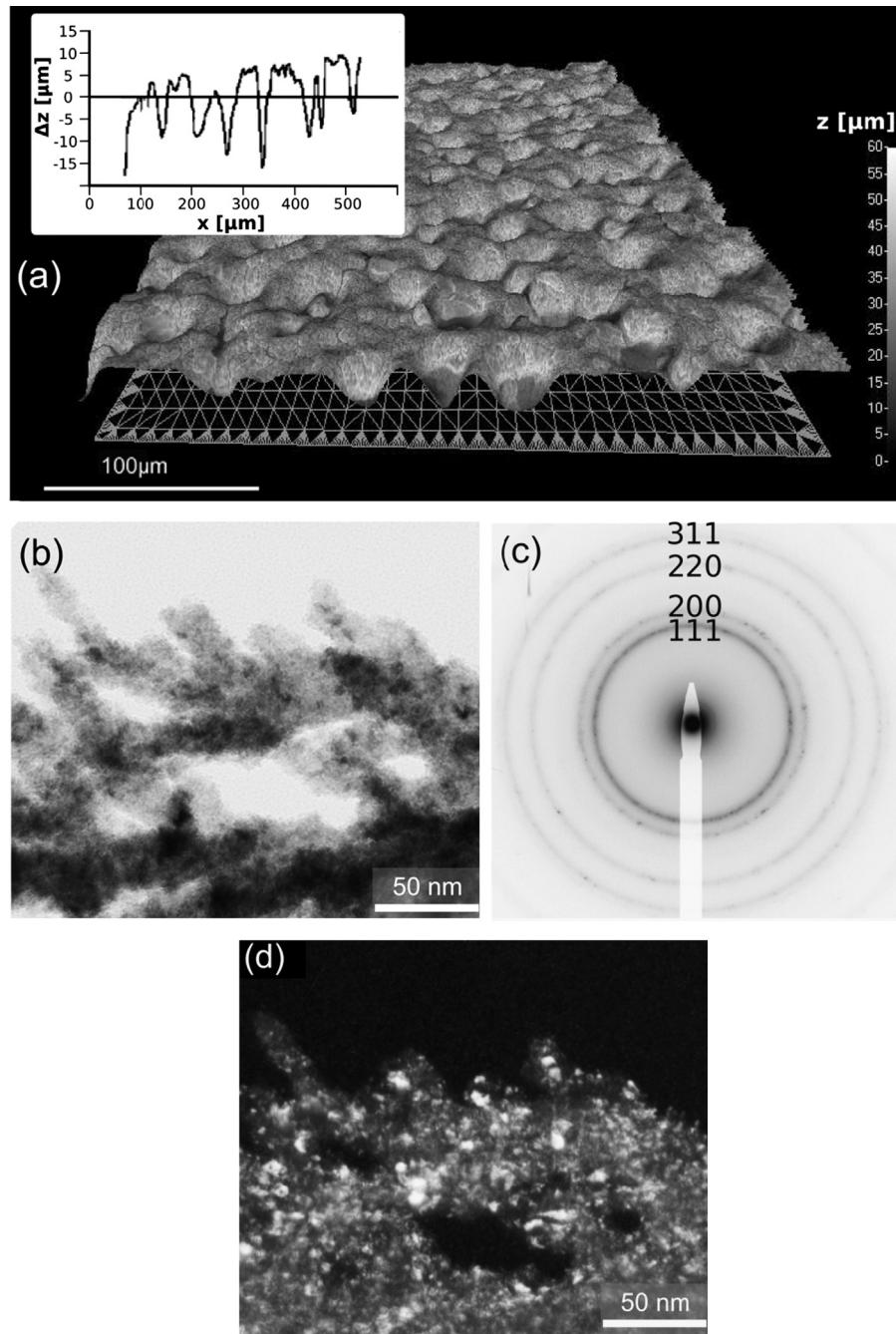


Figure 3 Open dendritic NiCoFe foam obtained by electrodeposition at a current density of $j=1 \text{ A cm}^{-2}$. (a) 3D SEM reconstruction of the surface showing the distribution of pores formed during hydrogen co-deposition. A roughness profile across the surface is shown as insert. (b) TEM bright-field image revealing a highly branched dendritic structure. The dendrites are very fine with branches down to 50 nm. (c) The corresponding TEM diffraction pattern shows FCC structure only. (d) TEM dark-field image of the same area as (b). The dendrites consist of a nanogranular structure with crystallites smaller than 10 nm.

($\text{Ni}_{20}\text{Co}_{45}\text{Fe}_{35}$) [21]. In addition the reflections arising from the Ti substrate are visible because the deposit is very thin (around 1 μm). The dendritic foam deposit (sample B) shows peaks corresponding to the FCC structure of the (Ni, Co)₃Fe solid solution in accordance with the significantly different composition obtained at the higher current density ($\text{Ni}_{50}\text{Co}_{30}\text{Fe}_{20}$). No reflections from the Ti substrate are visible because the deposit is thicker (around 20 μm).

In the case of the smooth compact layers delimitation can occur during electrodeposition because of oxidation of Ti substrates. Nevertheless, Ti substrate represents an excellent choice for the deposition of the nanodendritic foam structure showing a uniform distribution of the deposit. The crystallite size was evaluated from the X-ray profiles by Rietveld refinement leading to an area weighted mean of 7.4 ± 1 and $6.5 \pm 1 \text{ nm}$ in the case of sample A and B,

respectively. This can be correlated with the linear sweep voltammogram (cf. Figure 1). Deposition at a current density of 0.1 A cm^{-2} belongs to region (ii) with almost no dependence of the overpotential on current. Since from the nucleation theory, the crystallite size is mainly affected by the increase of overpotential [22], the crystallite size is not changed after reaching the plateau in the polarization diagram. The increase of the overpotential with increasing current after the plateau in region (iii) is connected with an increase in hydrogen bubble evolution only.

Figure 3 shows a detailed investigation of the dendritic foam deposit by methods of electron microscopy. The 3D SEM reconstruction of surface (Figure 3a) reveals pronounced circular depressions with about $20 \mu\text{m}$ diameter caused by the intensive gas bubble evolution. In addition a roughness on a smaller scale is encountered in the roughness profile shown as insert. Therefore to analyze the structure on an even finer length scale, a TEM investigation of the deposited FeCoNi foam was carried out. The resulting bright field image (cf. Figure 3b) reveals dendritic branches with sizes less than 50 nm containing nanocrystals smaller than 10 nm . The corresponding TEM diffraction pattern (cf. Figure 3c) is caused by a nanocrystalline FCC structure. The evaluation of diffraction patterns from different areas using the PASAD software [17] leads to the result that the deposit is homogenous in structure.

Recently, we investigated the morphology of NiCoFe powders obtained by electrodeposition. TEM methods yield the results that the particles have a highly branched dendritic structure extending from the micrometer scale to the nanoscale. Since the material is deposited far off the thermal equilibrium it contains a high density of stable defects such as grain boundaries and twin boundaries, as one nanograin contains about three twins [23]. All these defects provide active sites in the form of surface steps for electrochemical reactions [24]. Therefore, the achieved dendritic NiCoFe alloy foam provides in addition to the multiscaled high surface area also a high density of active sites.

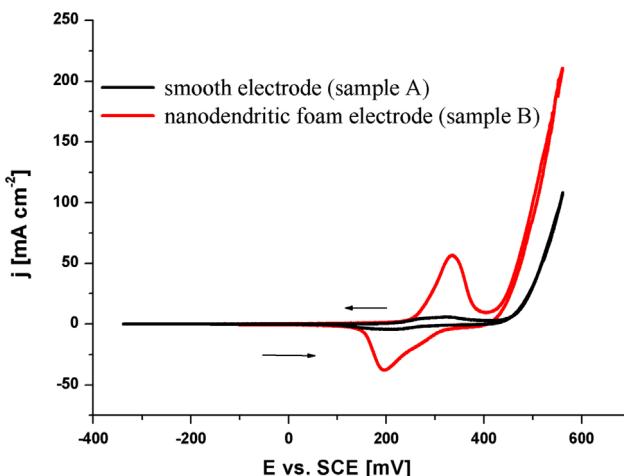


Figure 4 Cyclic voltammograms on smooth NiCoFe electrodes and dendritic NiCoFe foam electrodes recorded in 0.1 M KOH solution (scan rate of 10 mV s^{-1}). The nanodendritic foam electrode shows a significantly enhanced reaction rate attributed to the multiscale dendritic foam structure.

In Figure 4 cyclic voltammetry curves of both, the smooth electrode and the dendritic foam electrode are shown. The curves were recorded in a 0.1 M KOH solution at room temperature with a potential range from -400 mV to $+600 \text{ mV}$ vs. SCE at a sweep rate of 10 mV s^{-1} . The cyclic voltammograms show reversible redox processes; oxygen reduction in the cathodic region and oxidation of NiCoFe in the anodic region. The dendritic foam electrode demonstrates a significantly enhanced reaction rate when compared with the smooth electrode. Therefore the nano-dendritic NiCoFe alloy foam is a promising candidate as bifunctional catalyst in alkaline solutions. The catalytic activity is enhanced for both, the cathodic reduction of oxygen and the anodic evolution of oxygen. In the case of fuel cells, the performance of a smooth electrode is limited by the significant anodic overpotential required for oxygen evolution due to the presence of an oxide layer that covers the entire surface [25,26]. The achieved dendritic NiCoFe alloy foam on contrary shows a good reversibility and a high activity in the cathodic region. This is linked to processes involving the redox reaction between the redox couple $\text{M}^{\text{III}}/\text{M}^{\text{II}}$. The reversibility of the electrocatalytic processes offers the possibility to use non-noble NiCoFe transition metals for the fast electron transfer reaction between the oxidized NiCoFe dendritic alloy in dilute alkaline media that are of considerable interest for practical applications.

For the dendritic foam electrode the oxygen evolution potential is slightly positively shifted as compared to the smooth electrode and shows a significantly increased rate. Integration of the peak in the anodic region from 250 mV to 400 mV vs. SCE gives a charge of 500 mC cm^{-2} for the dendritic foam electrode. The formation of $(\text{Ni},\text{Co},\text{Fe})(\text{OH})_2$, which is most probable at this pH, would require a charge of around 0.07 mC cm^{-2} . The enhancement in reaction rate due to the high surface area of the foam electrode can be expressed as an effective roughness factor indicating the effective surface over the geometrical area. In the present case a value of about 7000 is achieved that can be attributed to the multiscale dendritic foam structure plus taking into account in addition to the high surface area, the fact that the reaction rate is further enhanced by the presence of a high density of defects providing active sites.

Conclusion

In summary we demonstrated the excellent electrochemical features of nanodendritic NiCoFe foam. Its catalytic activity is strongly enhanced for both, the cathodic reduction of oxygen and the anodic evolution of oxygen and shows a good reversibility. Therefore it is a promising candidate as bifunctional catalyst in electrochemical conversion and storage devices. Ternary NiCoFe alloys were deposited at different current densities. At a current density of 0.1 A cm^{-2} , corresponding to mixed electron transfer and diffusion control, a smooth electrode is formed. In contrast to that during galvanostatic deposition at a high current density of 1 A cm^{-2} a multiscaled foam structure is achieved with pore sizes around $20 \mu\text{m}$ and nanodendritic walls. The dendritic branches are very fine with sizes less than 50 nm and consist of nanocrystals containing a high density of defects. The achieved dendritic NiCoFe foam electrodes

show a significantly increased reaction rate for oxygen reaction when compared with the smooth NiCoFe electrode. The increase is ascribed to the multiscale 3D morphology and the defects formed during hydrogen template deposition. The resulting structure has a high surface area and a high density of active sites yielding a value of about 7000 for the effective roughness factor. In addition the composition of the achieved foam is in accordance to the chemical composition of the electrolyte, whereas the compact deposit obtained at a lower current density results in a distinct change of alloy composition content.

Acknowledgments

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Citrate-based zinc–polyaniline secondary cell: part I: optimization of the citrate/chloride electrolyte

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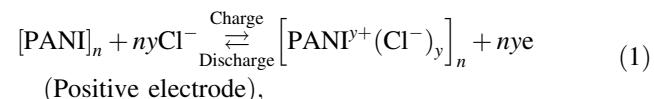
Abstract Electrochemical behavior of zinc and thin polyaniline (PANI) electrodes in citrate/chloride-contained electrolyte has been investigated by the means of electrolyte composition optimization. Electrolyte contained 0.8 M sodium citrate, 0.3 M ammonium chloride, and ~0.3 M zinc chloride has been found to be an optimum electrolyte for the further applications in the real zinc–polyaniline citrate/chloride-based secondary cell.

Keywords Polyaniline · Zinc · Batteries · Citrate · Chloride

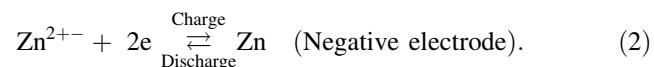
1 Introduction

According to the three E' criteria suggested by Rüetschi and Beck [1, 2], zinc–polyaniline (PANI) secondary cells have some potential advantages, in comparison with classical (protic and aprotic) cells, such as ecological acceptability, uses of water-based electrolytes, and relatively low manufacturing costs. The Zn | ammonium chloride, zinc chloride | PANI electrochemical system is

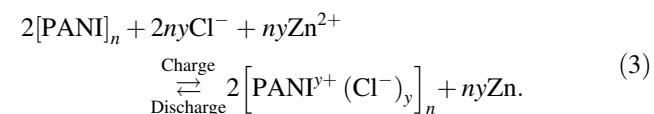
one of the most investigated [3], and is based on the following half-cell reactions:



where y is the doping degree, and



The reaction during charge/discharge of the complete cell can be given as follows:



Such system has been investigated by different authors [3–14]. It was concluded that zinc passivation and dendrite formation, as well as degradation of PANI at higher potentials are the main reasons why this system has not been commercialized till now.

In our previous articles [15, 16], it was shown that citrate/chloride-based electrolyte at pH ~5 has some potential advantages in comparison with pure chloride electrolyte. Due to the complexation of the free zinc ions, citrate anions produce negative shift of the open circuit potentials for more than 100 mV.

On the other hand, decrease of exchange current density and increase of deposition overpotential in chloride/citrate-contained electrolyte lower dendrite formation and probably zinc corrosion rate. In the cycling regime for the anodic potential limit of ~0.35 V (SCE), citrate/chloride electrolytes show better characteristic (higher specific capacity and Columbic efficiency of the PANI electrode) than the

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pure chloride electrolyte. Faster decrease of specific capacity in cycling regime for the anodic potential limits of 0.5 V (SCE) in citrate/chloride than in pure chloride electrolyte has been explained by higher hydrophilic effect of citrate anions. In citrate/chloride electrolyte, it seems that both anions are involved in doping of the PANI film, producing the broad peak. It was suggested that at the less positive potentials, doping proceeds with chloride, and at the more positive potentials with citrate anions, where faster degradation can occur [15].

In this article, we further investigated the behavior of the zinc and PANI electrode in citrate/chloride-contained electrolytes, mainly by the means of the electrolyte composition optimization, with the aim to obtain necessary data for preparation of the real cell, the characteristic of which will be given in the second part of this article.

2 Experimental

The working electrodes, zinc plate ($S = 2 \text{ cm}^2$), and cylindrically shaped graphite inserted in Teflon holder ($S = 0.64 \text{ cm}^2$) were mechanically polished with fine emery papers (2/0, 3/0, and 4/0, respectively) and then with polishing alumina (0.05 μm , Banner Scientific Ltd.) on the polishing cloths (Buehler Ltd.). After mechanical polishing, the traces of polishing alumina were removed from the electrode surface in an ultrasonic bath in ethanol during 5 min. For all the experiments, three-compartment electrochemical cells, with platinum foil ($S = 2 \text{ cm}^2$) as a counter and saturated calomel electrode, $E_r = 0.243 \text{ V}$ (SHE), were used as a reference electrode at room temperature. The electrochemical measurements were carried out using Gammry PC3 and PAR 386 potentiostat/galvanostat controlled by a computer via interface.

Corrosion rate of the zinc electrode was investigated by measuring the mass loss of the polished pure zinc plate ($S = 8 \text{ cm}^2$) after exposure for over 120 h in 200 ml of the investigated solution.

The zinc deposition efficiency was determined by measuring the mass difference of the polished copper substrate $2 \times 2 \text{ cm}$ ($S = 8 \text{ cm}^2$) after zinc deposition, and by applying the Faraday's law. In all the cases, the total deposition charge was the same (50 mA h cm^{-2}). For the current density of 5 mA cm^{-2} , the zinc deposition/dissolution efficiency was determined by measuring the potentials. Micrographs of the zinc deposits at different current densities were obtained with an optical microscope (LEICA-DC 150) connected to the computer.

Polyaniline thin film electrode was obtained from the 1 M hydrochloric acid solution with the addition of 0.25 M aniline monomer (p.a. Merck, previously distilled in the argon atmosphere), at a constant current density of

2 mA cm^{-2} for 1080 s. The total polymerization charge was 0.6 mA h cm^{-2} . After polymerization, the electrode with the current density of 1 mA cm^{-2} was discharged, washed with bidistilled water, and transferred into the second electrochemical cell for further investigations.

All the electrolytes were prepared from p.a. grade chemicals (Merck) and bidistilled water. pH of all the investigated electrolytes was ~ 5 , adjusted by 2 M sodium hydroxide, 1 M hydrochloric, or 1 M citric acid.

3 Results and discussion

3.1 Zinc electrode

3.1.1 Polarization and corrosion measurements

Figure 1 shows the polarization curves for the zinc deposition/dissolution reaction in the electrolytes containing 0.8 M Na-citrate and 0.3 M NH_4Cl with the addition of 0.05, 0.10, 0.30, and 0.50 M ZnCl_2 in comparison with the electrolyte containing 0.20 M $\text{ZnCl}_2 + 0.50 \text{ M NH}_4\text{Cl}$, at pH ~ 5 .

The zinc deposition/dissolution reaction of the chloride-contained electrolyte was characterized with an open circuit potential of -1 V (SCE) or -0.76 V (SHE), single anodic and cathodic Tafel slopes of $\pm 33 \text{ mV dec}^{-1}$, and exchange current density of $\sim 1.5 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$. These values provoke the growth of dendrites during deposition reaction, as it is shown in Fig. 2 and explained in more details in Jugović et al. [15].

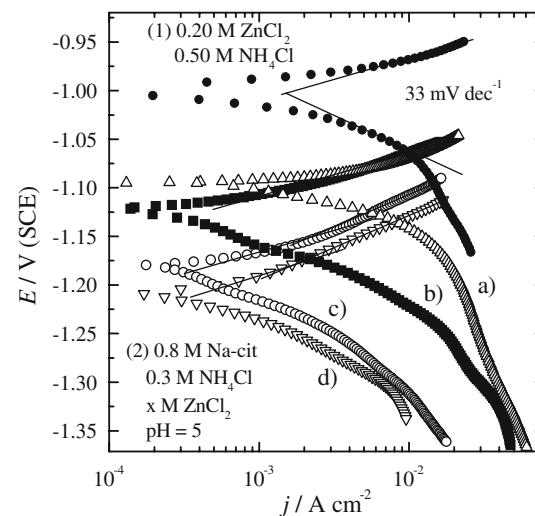


Fig. 1 IR-corrected polarization curve of the zinc electrode in the electrolytes containing (1) $0.5 \text{ M NH}_4\text{Cl} + 0.2 \text{ M ZnCl}_2$ and (2) $0.8 \text{ M Na-citrate} + 0.3 \text{ M NH}_4\text{Cl}$ with the addition of (a) 0.5, (b) 0.3, (c) 0.1, and (d) 0.05 M ZnCl_2

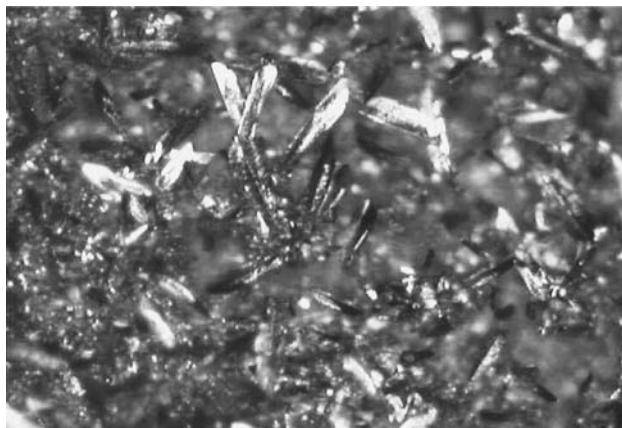


Fig. 2 Micrographs of the zinc deposits from $0.20\text{ M ZnCl}_2 + 0.50\text{ M NH}_4\text{Cl}$. Deposition current density 3.5 mA cm^{-2} , deposition time 3 h, magnification 100 \times

Open circuit potential of the zinc electrode in citrate/chloride-contained electrolyte has more negative values in comparison with pure chloride electrolyte, which implies complexation of free zinc ions by citrate anions. For the same current density during polarization, it could be observed that anodic potentials (battery discharge) in citrate/chloride-contained electrolyte were significantly lower than that in the pure chloride electrolyte. This means that discharge voltage in citrate/chloride electrolyte will be higher. On the other hand, due to the more negative cathodic potentials (battery charge) in citrate/chloride electrolyte, charge voltage will be minimum 0.2 V higher than that in the pure chloride electrolyte.

Exchange current density was determined from the intercept of anodic Tafel line with open circuit potentials, since cathodic Tafel line was not well defined. In the separate experiments for all the citrate/chloride-contained electrolytes, the corrosion current density was determined as well. Determined values of equilibrium potentials, and exchange and corrosion current densities were summarized and shown in Table 1.

From the values given in Table 1, it can be observed that open circuit potential, and exchange and corrosion current densities decrease with decreasing zinc chloride concentration. Comparing the values of exchange and corrosion

Table 1 Determined values of open circuit potentials, and exchange and corrosion current densities of solid zinc electrode for different concentrations of zinc chloride in citrate/chloride-contained electrolytes

$c(\text{ZnCl}_2)/\text{M}$	$E_r/\text{V (SCE)}$	$E_r/\text{V (SHE)}$	$j_0/\text{mA cm}^{-2}$	$j_{\text{corr}}/\mu\text{A cm}^{-2}$
0.50	-1.094	-0.853	1.0	50
0.30	-1.122	-0.881	0.5	10
0.10	-1.180	-0.939	0.4	9
0.05	-1.209	-0.968	0.3	5

current densities, it can be concluded that the main reactions at the open circuit potential were deposition and dissolution reactions of zinc, while contribution of the corrosion was between 2% and 5%. From these results, it could be suggested that the low concentration of the zinc chloride will be beneficial from the anode point of view. However, on the other hand, under cathodic polarization, low concentration of the zinc chloride provokes relatively low value of the limiting current density. For example, in solution containing 0.05 M ZnCl_2 , the limiting current density was $\sim 10\text{ mA cm}^{-2}$, while in the electrolyte containing 0.5 M ZnCl_2 , the limiting current density was $>50\text{ mA cm}^{-2}$. Hence, based on the values of exchange, and limiting and corrosion current densities, as well as the value of the open circuit potential, the optimum zinc chloride concentration will be $\sim 0.3\text{ M}$.

Polarization curve of the solid zinc electrode in the “optimum electrolyte” containing 0.8 M Na-citrate , $0.3\text{ M NH}_4\text{Cl}$, and 0.3 M ZnCl_2 is shown in Fig. 3.

Anodic part of the polarization curve was characterized with the single Tafel slope of 60 mV dec^{-1} up to the current densities of 30 mA cm^{-2} . Cathodic part has few not well-defined waves, marked as (a–d), which could be connected with limiting currents. Hence, the value of cathodic Tafel line in this electrolyte cannot be determined. On the other hand, even the overpotential for the hydrogen evolution reaction on zinc is very high; some possibilities that hydrogen evolution could occur exist. At pH ~ 5 , the concentration of the free hydrogen ion corresponds to a negligibly small diffusion limiting current density. However, in the presence of the protonated citrate species (such as HCit^{2-}) which could serve as a proton donor, the

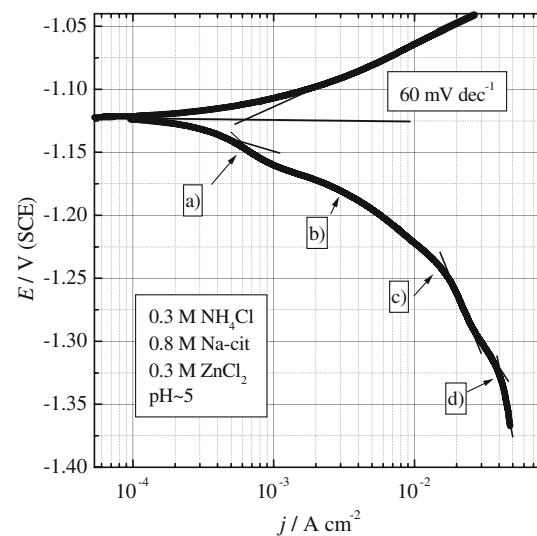


Fig. 3 IR-corrected polarization curve of the zinc electrode in the electrolyte containing 0.8 M Na-citrate , $0.3\text{ M NH}_4\text{Cl}$, and 0.3 M ZnCl_2

limiting current density for hydrogen evolution could be significantly higher [17, 18].

For this reason, the influence of deposition current density and morphology on deposition current efficiency was investigated.

3.1.2 Current efficiency and morphology of the zinc deposits

Figure 4 shows determined current efficiency of zinc deposition reaction for the different deposition current densities. Copper substrate was applied to avoid possible oxidation of the zinc substrate which could affect the results, and to determine zinc deposition/dissolution efficiency. In all the cases, the total deposition charge was the same (50 mA h cm^{-2}).

Inset of Fig. 4 shows electrode potentials during zinc deposition. The electrode potentials were similar to the one obtained from polarization curves. For the same current density of 5 mA cm^{-2} dependence of the deposition and dissolution potentials of the zinc on copper over time was measured in order to obtain Columbic efficiency. It was observed that the Columbic efficiency for deposition/dissolution (charge/discharge) reaction was $\sim 100\%$.

From Fig. 4, one can see that the current efficiency of zinc deposition reaction for low current densities of 2 mA cm^{-2} was relatively small (80%). By increasing the deposition current density to 5 mA cm^{-2} , the current efficiency increases up to 98%. Further increases of the current density provoked a small decrease of the current efficiency, from 97 to 94%.

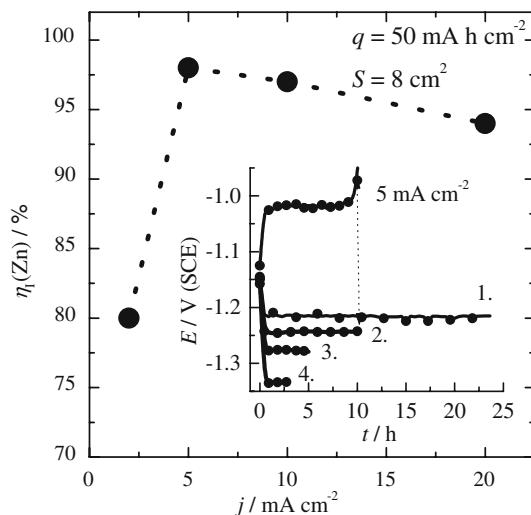


Fig. 4 Determined current efficiency of zinc deposition reaction on the copper electrode for the different deposition current densities. Inset: galvanostatic curves for zinc deposition at current densities of (1) 2, (2) 5, (3) 10, and (4) 20 mA cm^{-2} and for dissolution at a current density of 5 mA cm^{-2}

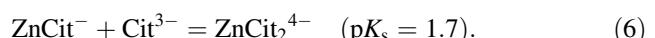
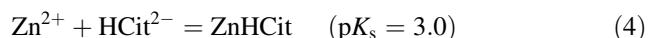
These results could be connected with the morphology of zinc deposits, shown in Fig. 5. A deposit obtained at a relatively small current density (2 mA cm^{-2}) was coarse and porous, with a lot of cavity induced by hydrogen evolution. Further increase of current density to 5 mA cm^{-2} and above, coarsens the deposit and decreases its porosity.

It should be noted that at the dendrite formation was not observed in any current density, even when the deposition charge was ~ 5 times higher than that in the pure chloride electrolyte (see Fig. 2).

3.1.3 Mechanism of the zinc deposition reaction

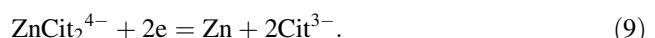
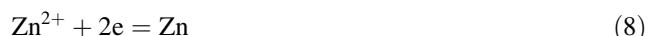
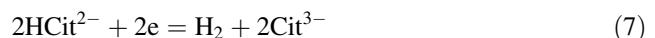
Considering the polarization measurements, deposition current efficiency, and morphology, the following mechanism for zinc deposition reaction could be suggested.

At pH ~ 5 in the presence of citrate in solution, zinc ion forms different types of complex with suggested species [19]:



Due to the values of stability constants, it could be suggested that the main species in the solution was ZnCit^- , and the concentration of ZnHCit is considerably smaller, while the concentration of ZnCit_2^{4-} and free zinc ions are rather low. Since deposition current density and potential depend on the concentration of the reacting species, decreasing the concentration provokes the decrease of the deposition current density, and at some point, the limiting current could be observed. Hence, the few waves in the cathodic part of the polarization curve (Fig. 3) could be assigned to the reduction of different species from the solution.

According to this analysis, it could be suggested that at relatively low current densities ($\sim 2 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$), simultaneous deposition of zinc ($\sim 80\%$) from less stable complex or free zinc ion and hydrogen evolution ($\sim 20\%$) from protonated citrate species occurred, for example, via the following reactions:

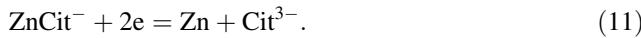
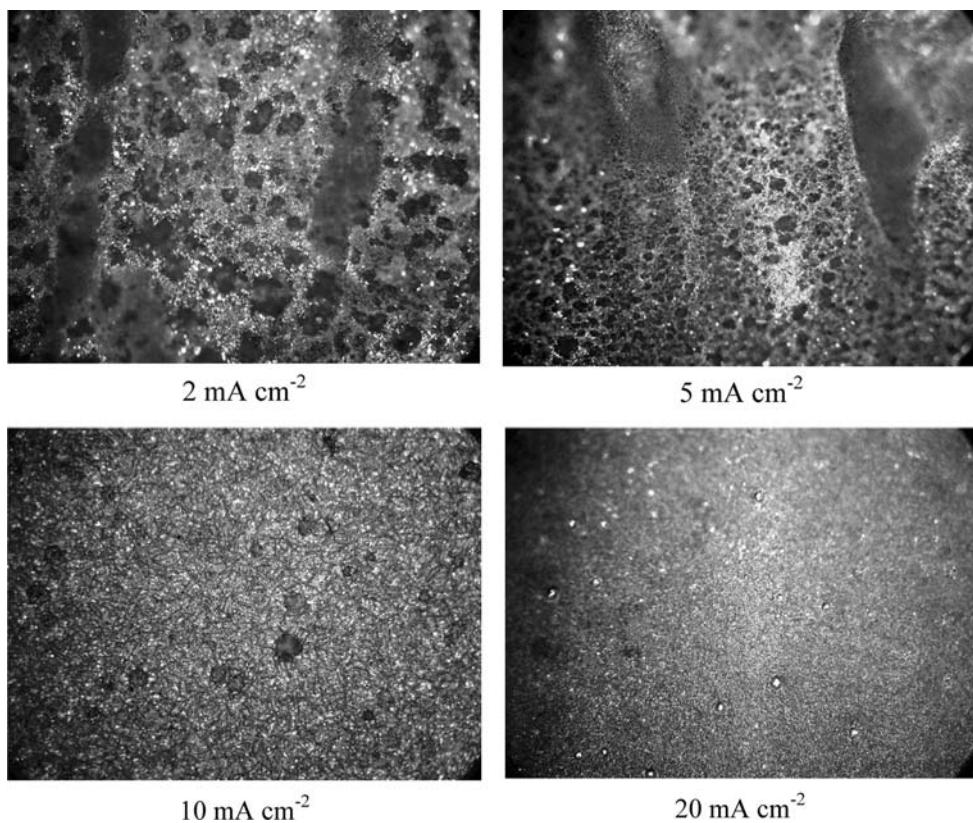


Further increase of the current density ($\sim 5\text{--}15 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$) leads to increases of the zinc deposition rate from more stable complex forms, such as



or more probably,

Fig. 5 Micrographs of the zinc deposits for different current densities in citrate/chloride-contained electrolyte, magnification 100 \times



At the same time, the hydrogen evolution rate from protonated citrate species, which is now under the domination of limiting current, tends to much lower potentials, and practically does not affect the current efficiency. For the current density of 20 mA cm^{-2} and above, due to the negative potentials, the possibilities of hydrogen evolution from water molecule now exists, which influence further decrease of the zinc deposition current efficiency.

Considering the presented analysis, it could be suggested that some optimum zinc deposition current densities (battery charge) lie in the range of $\sim 5\text{--}15 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$. On the other hand, any anodic current density (battery discharge) in the range of 0.5 up to 30 mA cm^{-2} could be applied.

3.2 Polyaniline electrode

On the basis of determined “optimum composition of the electrolyte” for the zinc electrode, the electrochemical behavior of PANI electrode in the same electrolyte was investigated. Figure 6 shows galvanostatic curve of the aniline polymerization from the solution containing 1 M HCl and 0.25 M aniline monomer on graphite electrode at a current density of 2 mA cm^{-2} with a polymerization charge of 0.6 mA h cm^{-2} . Polymerization starts at the

potential of $\sim 0.6 \text{ V}$ and proceeds in the potential range between 0.72 and 0.68 V.

After polymerization, electrode with 1 mA cm^{-2} was discharged, washed with bidistilled water, and transferred into the three-compartment electrochemical cell with chloride/citrate electrolyte. After transfer, the electrode

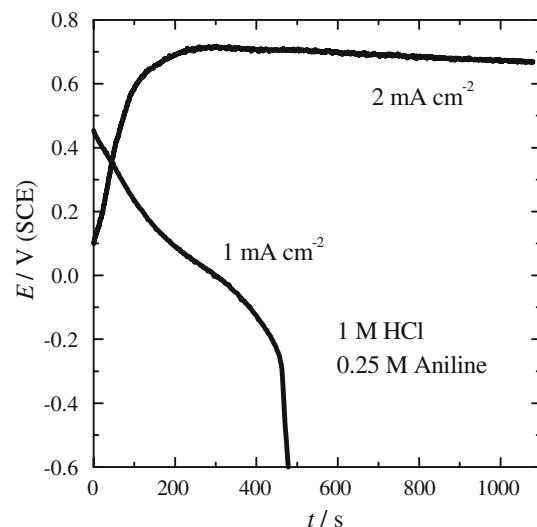


Fig. 6 Galvanostatic curves (2 mA cm^{-2}) for the aniline polymerization and discharge (1 mA cm^{-2}) in the solution containing 1 M HCl and 0.25 M aniline on graphite electrode

was conditioned at a potential of -0.6 V for 600 s to be completely discharged.

Figure 7 shows typical charge/discharge curves of PANI electrode for the different current densities. The potentials were limited to 0.35 V for charge and to -0.3 V for discharge. Charge of the discharged PANI electrode starts in the potential range between ~ -0.1 and ~ 0.02 V depending on the applied current density. Potential increases practically linearly up to 0.35 V. Discharge of the electrode occurred in the potential range between ~ 0.3 and ~ 0.2 V with an average discharge potential of ~ 0 V. For the potentials more negative than -0.2 V, diffusion limitations provoke the sharp decrease of the potentials.

Times of charge/discharge for different current densities determined from Fig. 7 are shown in Fig. 8. Calculated Columbic efficiency for the charge/discharge, shown in the inset of Fig. 8, was affected with the applied current density.

Assuming the limitations of anion diffusion through polymer film, it was possible to extrapolate the maximum electrode capacity by plotting the reciprocal square root values of the determined electrode capacity (shown in the inset of Fig. 9) with applied current densities. As it can be seen in Fig. 9, the determined maximum electrode capacity (q_0) of PANI electrode was ~ 0.15 mA h cm $^{-2}$. On the other hand, some operating electrode capacity was in the range of 0.08–0.13 mA h cm $^{-2}$ depending on the applied current density. All the investigated current densities (0.75–3 mA cm $^{-2}$) could be applied, but lower values will be favorable due to the higher capacity and Columbic efficiency.

Charge/discharge curves at a constant current density of 1 mA cm $^{-2}$ versus the cycle number were shown in Fig. 10. The cycling potentials were limited to 0.35 V for charging and to -0.6 V for discharging. As it can be

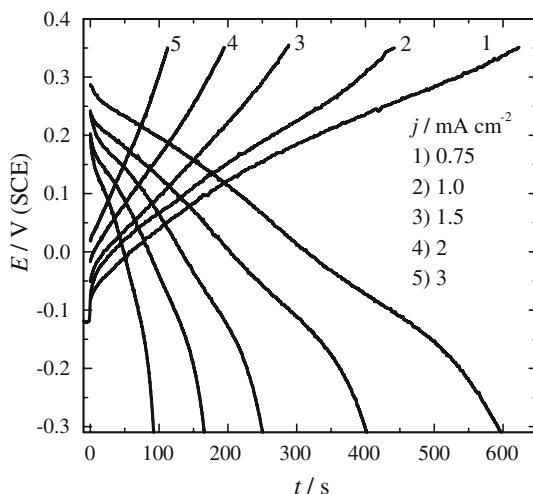


Fig. 7 Charge/discharge curve of the PANI electrode in citrate/chloride electrolyte for different current densities (marked in figure)

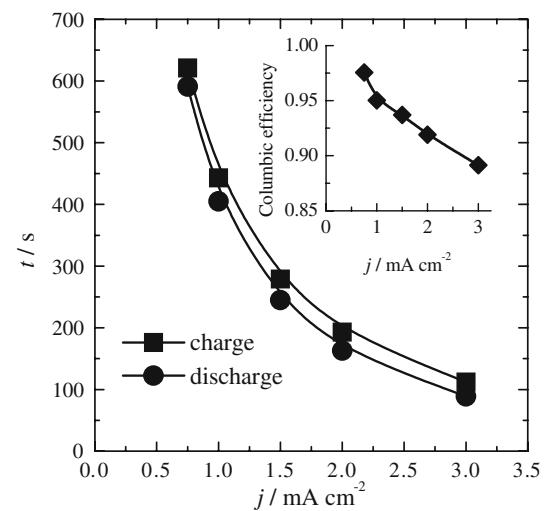


Fig. 8 Times of charge/discharge reaction determined for different current densities. Inset: dependence of columbic efficiency during charge/discharge on the applied current density

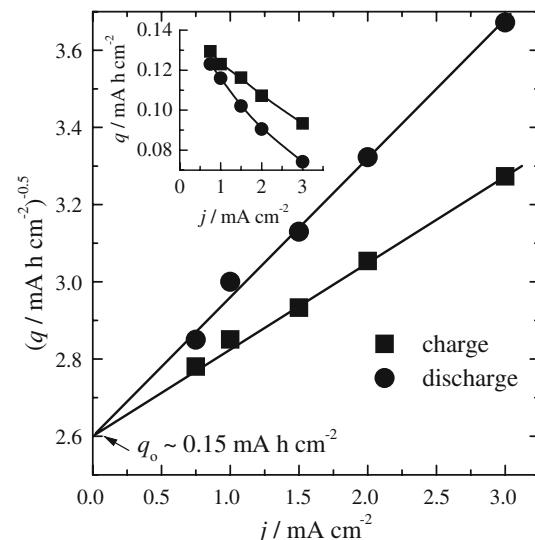


Fig. 9 Dependence of the reciprocal square root values of the electrode capacity (shown in the inset) on applied current densities

observed during the twenty cycles, the electrode capacity practically has a constant value without degradation. The same could be concluded from the cyclic voltammograms, shown in the inset of Fig. 10, since before the first and after twenty cycles, there were no changes in the shape of the voltammograms.

3.3 Possible characteristics of the real cell

Considering the above presented results for the zinc and PANI electrode in the optimum composition of the electrolyte, the possible electrochemical characteristics of

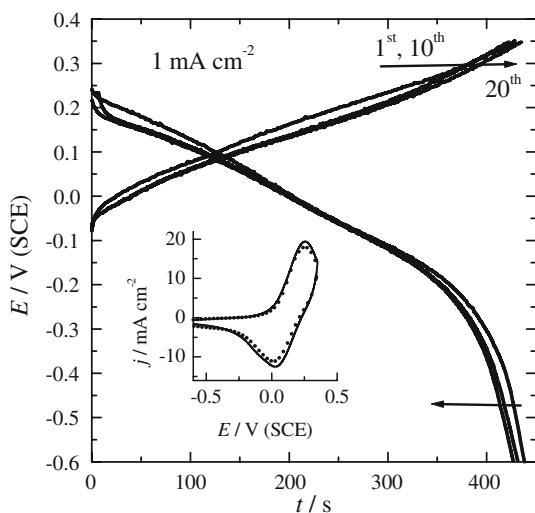
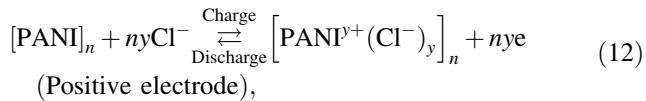


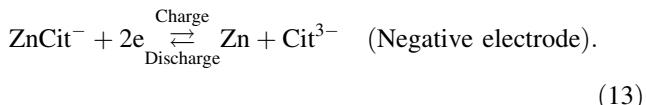
Fig. 10 Charge/discharge curve at a constant current density (1 mA cm^{-2}) versus cycle number in citrate/chloride electrolyte for the anodic potential limit of 0.35 V . Inset: cyclic voltammograms ($v = 20 \text{ mV s}^{-1}$) of PANI electrode before first (—) and after twenty cycles (.....)

Zn|PANI secondary cell necessary for the cell optimization was discussed and simulated.

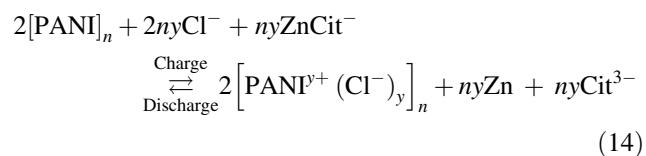
The Zn | 0.8 M Na-citrate, 0.3 M NH_4Cl , and 0.3 M ZnCl_2 | PANI electrochemical system will be mainly based on the following half-cell reactions:



where y is doping degree, and



The reactions during charge/discharge of the complete cell will be as follows:



The citrate anion was not considered as a doping anion for the PANI electrode during charge, because it was suggested that at less positive potentials, doping proceeds with chloride and at the more positive potentials ($>0.35 \text{ V}$) with citrate anions, where faster degradation could occur [15].

It should be noted that the cell has to be formed in the discharged state.

For the given optimum composition of the electrolyte, the operating current densities will be in the range of $\sim 0.75\text{--}3 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ for the PANI electrode and

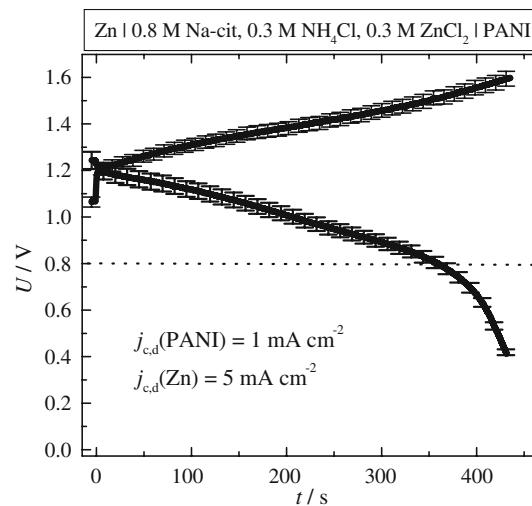


Fig. 11 Simulation of the possible charge/discharge characteristic of Zn|PANI cell in citrate/chloride-contained electrolyte

$5\text{--}15 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ for the zinc electrode. Due to the differences in the current densities, the area of PANI electrode should be at least five times higher than that for the zinc plate electrode. On that manner, Fig. 11 shows the simulation of charge/discharge curve with possible errors, for the complete Zn|PANI cell in chloride/citrate electrolyte for the current density of 1 mA cm^{-2} for PANI and 5 mA cm^{-2} for the zinc electrode. Data were extrapolated from Figs. 4 and 10, and simulation was done according to the procedure given in [20].

As it can be seen from Fig. 11, charge of the cell will occur in the voltage range between ~ 1.05 and $\sim 1.62 \text{ V}$. After charge, the open circuit voltage will be $\sim 1.25 \text{ V}$. Discharge will occur at the voltage range between 1.2 and $\sim 0.4 \text{ V}$, with the most of the capacity ($\sim 85\%$) delivered above 0.8 V .

4 Conclusion

By investigating the polarization characteristic of the zinc deposition/dissolution reaction and corrosion rate from electrolytes containing 0.8 M sodium citrate, 0.3 M ammonium chloride, and different concentrations of zinc chloride (0.05–0.5 M), it was suggested that there will be some optimum electrolyte composition with $\sim 0.3 \text{ M}$ of zinc chloride.

Based on the determined deposition current efficiency and morphology of zinc deposits, it was suggested that some optimum deposition (charge) current density will be in the range of $\sim 5\text{--}15 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$.

In the optimum electrolyte, PANI electrode shows satisfactory characteristics for potential application as a positive electrode in the Zn|PANI secondary cell. Operating electrode

capacity in the range of 0.8 to 0.13 mA h cm⁻² depending on the applied current density (0.75–3 mA cm⁻²) was determined. All the investigated current densities could be applied, but lower values will be favorable due to the higher electrode capacity and Columbic efficiency.

According to the differences in the electrodes optimum current densities, the area of the PANI electrode should be at least five times higher than that for the zinc electrode.

By the simulation of the charge/discharge characteristic of the real cell, it was suggested that charge will occur in the voltage range between ~1 and ~1.6 V. After charge, the open circuit voltage will be ~1.25 V, and discharge will occur in the voltage range between 1.2 and ~0.4 V, with the most of the capacity (~85%) delivered above 0.8 V.

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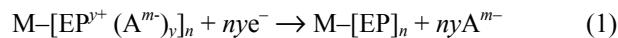
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SINTEZA I KOROZIONO PONAŠANJE POLI-ANILINA NA MEKOM ČELIKU, BAKRU I ALU-MINIJUMU IZ BENZOATNIH RASTVORA

U radu je ispitivana elektrohemisna sinteza polianilina (PANI) na mekom čeliku, aluminijumu i bakru iz rastvora natrijum-benzoata i monomera anilina. Ustanovljeno je da se tanki, dobro adherentni, filmovi polianilina mogu formirati na svim ispitivanim metalima pri anodnim gustinama struja od 0,5–1,5 mA cm⁻². Ispitivano je koroziono ponašanje metala sa prevlakom polianilina u rastvoru 0,5 mol dm⁻³ NaCl (3%). Ustanovljeno je da ove prevlake pružaju korozionu zaštitu svim ispitivanim metalima u dotoj korozionoj sredini.

Primena filmova elektroprovodnih polimera kao jednog od načina zaštite metala od korozije predstavlja novi vid zaštite baziran na potpunoj ili delimičnoj zameni katodnih reakcija korozije, redukcije kiseonika (u atmosferi odnosno kiselim, neutralnim i alkalnim rastvorima) ili vodoničnih jona (u kiseloj sredini) katodnom reakcijom redukcije (dedopovanja) elektroprovodnog polimera [1–3]:



gde je EP elektroprovodni polimer, A anjon (dopant), a y stepen dopovanja, uz odgovarajuću reakciju anodnog rastvaranja metala:



Za razliku od klasičnih premaza, kod prevlaka na bazi elektroprovodnih polimera tokom vremena dolazi do povećanja otpornosti filma (usled dedopovanja, odnosno otpuštanja anjona iz elektroprovodnog polimera) i povećanja stepena zaštite od korozije [2,3].

Osnovni problem pri elektrohemiskom dobijanju filmova elektroprovodnih polimera na metalima predstavlja visok potencijal elektropolimerizacije od približno 0,7 do i preko 1 V, što uslovljava intenzivno rastvaranje metala. Iz tog razloga, pri sintezi se moraju koristiti rastvori elektrolita koji pasiviraju metal, čime se umanjuje rastvaranje, ali pri tome formirani film ne sme imati izolatorska svojstva čime bi se sprečilo taloženje elektroprovodnog polimera. Jedan takav primer je oksalna kiselina u čijim rastvorima su dobijene zadovoljavajuće karakteristike filmova polipirola ali uz znatno rastvaranje čelika u početnom periodu taloženja (tako-zvani indukcioni period) [2–5]. Polianilin, sa druge

strane, predstavlja izazovan materijal zbog znatno niže cene polazne sirove (monomera anilin) od pirola. Camaleta je u seriji radova [6–8] ispitivao uslove taloženja polianilina na čeliku iz rastvora para-toluensulfonske kiseline, oksalne kiseline, kao i litijum-perhlorata. Iz svih rastvora dobijena je prevlaka, ali uz primetno rastvaranje čelika u početnom periodu polimerizacije.

U prethodnim radovima, ustanovljeno je da se tankе prevlake, od nekoliko μm polianilina mogu dobiti iz rastvora natrijum-benzoata na mekom čeliku, kao pod-sloja za kataforetsko nanošenje epoksidnih prevlaka [9]. Ovakva kombinacija je pokazala neuobičajeno poboljšanje korozionih karakteristika sistema u odnosu na klasične kataforetske prevlake u kiselim i neutralnim rastvorima [10,11].

Cilj ovoga rada je da se ispitaju uslovi elektropolimerizacije tankih filmova polianilina iz rastvora natrijum-benzoata i korozione karakteristike na čeliku, aluminijumu i bakru kao jednih od najznačajnijih konstrukcionih materijala.

EKSPERIMENTALNI DEO

Elektrohemiska sinteza polianilina ispitivana je u 0,5 M natrijum-benzoata (p.a. Merck) uz dodatak anilina (predhodno destilisanog u atmosferi argona) koncentracije 0,1 M. Svi eksperimenti su urađeni u trodelnoj staklenoj elektrohemiskoj čeliji zapremine 150 cm³ u prisustvu vazduha. Radne elektrode su bile od mekog čelika Č1212, aluminijuma i bakra (p.a. čistoće). Korišćene su elektrode dimenzija 1×1 cm sa ukupnom površinom od 2 cm². Kontra elektroda je bila mrežica od platine površine oko 5 cm², a referentna elektroda je bila zasićena kalomelova elektroda. Eksperimentalna debljina filma polianilina je procenjena merenjem mase uzorka pre i posle elektropolimerizacije. Koroziono ponašanje metala sa prevlakom polianilina je ispitivano u 3%

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rastvoru ($0,5\text{ M}$) NaCl snimanjem polarizacionih krivih. Temperatura elektrolita u svim eksperimentima je bila sobna $22 \pm 3^\circ\text{C}$.

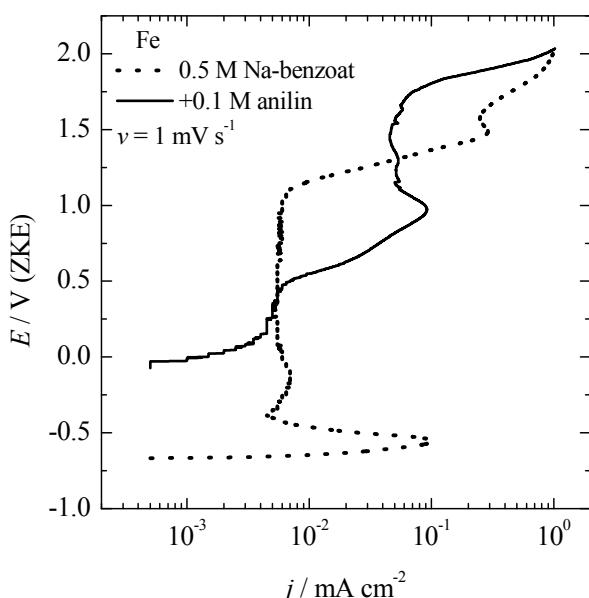
U svim eksperimentima je korišćen potenciostat/galvanostat PAR M273 u interaktivnoj vezi sa računarnom.

REZULTATI I DISKUSIJA

Sinteza polianilina na mekom čeliku, aluminijumu i bakru

Sinteza polianilina na mekom čeliku

Na slici 1 prikazane su anodne polarizacione krive mekog čelika u rastvoru natrijum-benzoata i uz dodatak anilina počevši od korozionog potencijala do vidljivog izdvajanja kiseonika. Anodna polaraciona kriva u rastvoru natrijum-benzoata ima tipičan izgled pasivacione krive za metale.

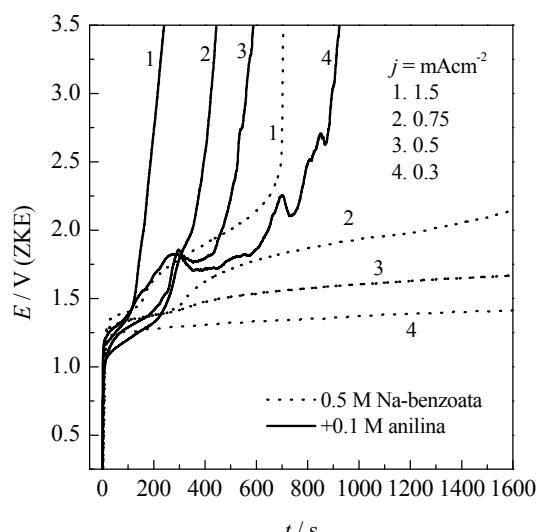


Slika 1. Anodne polarizacione krive za meki čelik u rastvoru $0,5\text{ M}$ natrijum-benzoata i uz dodatak $0,1\text{ M}$ anilina.

Figure 1. Anodic polarization curves for mild steel in $0,5\text{ M}$ sodium benzoate and with addition of $0,1\text{ M}$ aniline.

Početak pasivacije u $0,5\text{ M}$ rastvoru natrijum-benzoata odigrava se pri potencijalima od $\sim -0,500\text{ V}$ (ZKE). Gustina struje početka pasivacije je iznosila $0,09\text{ mA cm}^{-2}$, dok je srednja vrednost gustine struje pasivne oblasti iznosi oko $5\text{ }\mu\text{A cm}^{-2}$. U prisustvu anilina korozioni potencijal se pomera ka pozitivnijim vrednostima za skoro $0,7\text{ V}$. To bi moglo da ukaže da monomer anilina deluje kao inhibitor korozije u ispitivanom rastvoru. Elektropolimerizacija anilina se odigrava u oblasti potencijala od $0,4$ do $\sim 1,7\text{ V}$.

Na slici 2 prikazane su galvanostatske krive rastvaranja mekog čelika i elektropolimerizacije anilina pri različitim gustinama struja taloženja.



Slika 2. Galvanostatske krive mekog čelika u rastvoru $0,5\text{ M}$ natrijum-benzoata (tačkaste linije) i u rastvoru $0,5\text{ M}$ natrijum-benzoata i $0,1\text{ M}$ anilina (pone linije) pri različitim gustinama struja.

Figure 2. Galvanostatic curve of the mild steel in $0,5\text{ M}$ sodium benzoate (dotted line) and in $0,5\text{ M}$ sodium benzoate and $0,1\text{ M}$ aniline (full line) for different current densities.

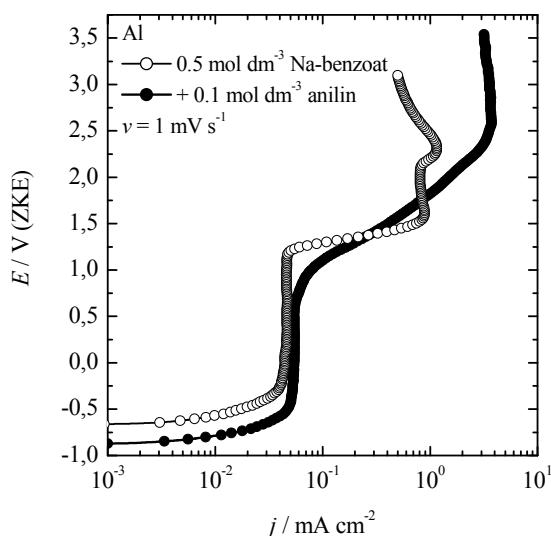
Sa slike se može videti da ne postoji indukcioni period, odnosno da ne dolazi do rastvaranja gvožđa pre polimerizacije anilina. Za razliku od taloženja polipirola iz oksalatnih rastvora [1–3] gde ne dolazi do porasta potencijala tokom vremena, iz rastvora na bazi Na-benzoata i anilina potencijal formiranja polianilina je znatno viši i iznosi u početnom periodu oko $1,2\text{ V}$. Nakon početnog perioda dolazi do blagog povećanja potencijala što je praćeno prekrivanjem slobodne površine mekog čelika prevlakom polianilina. Nakon što je celokupna površina prekrivena prevlakom polianilina, što je ustanovljeno vizualnim posmatranjem, dolazi do naglog porasta potencijala i do vidljivog izdvajanja kiseonika. Ovo je verovatno posledica male provodljivosti formiranog filma gvožđe-benzoat-polianilin i znatnog usporavanja dalje polimerizacije anilina na već formiranom filmu. Da bi se izbegla visoka preoksidacija filma svi uzorci predviđeni za koroziona ispitivanja su taloženi sa gustom strujom od $1,5\text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ do potencijala od 3 V .

Sinteza polianilina na aluminijumu

Na slici 3 prikazane su anodne polarizacione krive aluminijuma u $0,5\text{ M}$ natrijum-benzoata i uz dodatak $0,1\text{ M}$ anilina.

Korozioni potencijal bez anilina je iznosio $-0,66\text{ V}$, a pri dodatku anilina, za razliku od mekog čelika, negativirao se za $\sim 200\text{ mV}$ ($-0,87\text{ V}$). U osnovnom rastvoru natrijum-benzoata nije primećena tipična pasiva-

cionalna kriva za metale. Pri potencijalima između –0,3 do 1,3 V opažen je plato sa vrednošću gustine struje od oko $40 \mu\text{A cm}^{-2}$ koji se može pripisati formiranju poroznog hidratisanog filma aluminijum-oksida. Pri višim potencijalima od 1,3 V opažaju se još dva platoa sa gustoma struje od $\sim 80 \mu\text{A cm}^{-2}$, koji su verovatno posledica transformacija u hidratisanom oksidnom sloju. Pri dodatku monomera anilina, polimerizacija započinje pri potencijalu od oko 0,7 V, a polarizaciona kriva pokazuje karakteristike slične taloženju metala. Granična gustoma struje difuzije iznosila je oko 4 mA cm^{-2} .



Slika 3. Anodne polarizacione krive aluminijuma u rastvoru $0,5 \text{ M}$ natrijum-benzoata i uz dodatak $0,1 \text{ M}$ anilina.

Figure 3. Anodic polarization curves of aluminum in 0.5 M sodium benzoate and with addition of 0.1 M aniline.

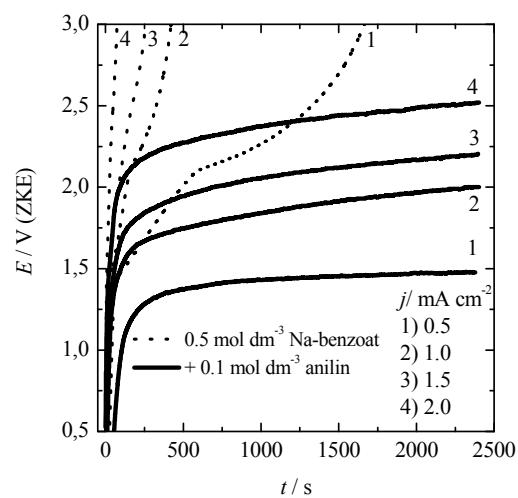
Na slici 4 prikazane su galvanostatske krive oksidacije aluminijuma u natrijum-benzoatu i uz dodatak anilina. Kao što se sa slike može videti u odsustvu anilina, visoki potencijali se veoma brzo dostižu pri bilo kojoj primjenjenoj gustomi struje. Krive su okarakterisane sa nekoliko prevojnih tačaka, koje verovatno odgovaraju transformaciji hidratisanih oksida i na višim potencijalima izdvajajanju kiseonika. Dodatkom monomera anilina, galvanostatske krive polimerizacije ukazuju da dolazi do sinteze polianilina, ali konstantni nagib tokom produžene oksidacije takođe ukazuje da se verovatno simultano odigrava i oksidacija aluminijuma. Za dalja ispitivanja korišćeni su uzorci dobijeni pri gustoma struja od $1,5 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$.

Sinteza polianilina na bakru

Na slici 5 prikazane su anodne polarizacione krive bakra u $0,5 \text{ M}$ natrijum-benzoata i uz dodatak $0,1 \text{ M}$ anilina.

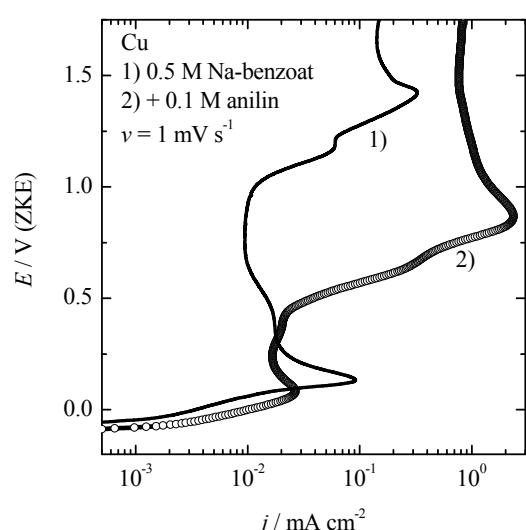
Anodna polarizaciona kriva u rastvoru natrijum-benzoata ima tipičan izgled pasivacione krive za metale. Korozioni potencijal je iznosio $-0,06 \text{ V}$, a početak

pasivacije se odigrava pri potencijalima od $\sim 0,14 \text{ V}$. Gustoma struje početka pasivacije je iznosila $100 \mu\text{A cm}^{-2}$, dok je srednja vrednost gustoma struje pasivne oblasti iznosi oko $10 \mu\text{A cm}^{-2}$. Pri potencijalima višim od 1 V uočava se transpasivna oblast, usled verovatne transformacije površinskog filma bakra i izdvajanja kiseonika. U prisustvu anilina korozioni potencijal se vrlo malo pomera ka negativnijim vrednostima. Elektro-polimerizaciji anilina koja se odigrava u oblasti potencijala od $0,25$ do $1,25 \text{ V}$, verovatno predhodi formiranje slabo rastvornog bakar-benzoata pri potencijalima nižim od $0,25 \text{ V}$.



Slika 4. Galvanostatske krive aluminijuma u rastvoru $0,5 \text{ M}$ natrijum-benzoata (tačkaste linije) i u rastvoru $0,5 \text{ M}$ natrijum-benzoata i $0,1 \text{ M}$ anilina (deblje linije) pri različitim gustoma struja.

Figure 4. Galvanostatic curve of the aluminium in 0.5 M sodium benzoate (doted line) and in 0.5 M sodium benzoate and 0.1 M aniline (thicker line) for different current densities.

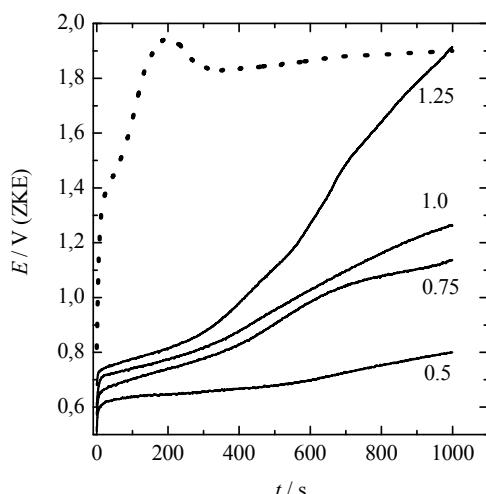


Slika 5. Anodne polarizacione krive bakra u rastvoru $0,5 \text{ M}$ natrijum-benzoata i uz dodatak $0,1 \text{ M}$ anilina.

Figure 5. Anodic polarization curves of copper in 0.5 M sodium benzoate and with addition of 0.1 M aniline.

Na slici 6 prikazane su galvanostatske krive oksidacije bakra u natrijum-benzoatu i uz dodatak anilina.

Kao što se sa slike može videti, u odsustvu anilina visoki potencijal se veoma brzo dostiže i pri veoma niskoj gustini struje ($0,5 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$). Krive elektropolimerizacije anilina su okarakterisane sa nekoliko prevojnih tačaka, koje se verovatno mogu pripisati transformacijama različitih stanja polianilina. Za dalja ispitivanja korišćeni su uzorci dobijeni pri gulinama struja od $1,0 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$, s obzirom da pri višim gulinama struja dolazi do znatnog porasta potencijala i izdvajanja kiseonika.



Slika 6. Galvanostatska kriva bakra u rastvoru $0,5 \text{ M}$ natrijum-benzoata pri gustini struje od $0,5 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ (tačkasta linija) i elektropolimerizacije anilina na bakru iz rastvora $0,5 \text{ M}$ natrijum-benzoata i $0,1 \text{ M}$ anilina pri različitim gulinama struja (mA cm^{-2}) označenim na slici.

Figure 6. Galvanostatic curve of the copper in 0.5 M sodium benzoate at current density of 0.5 mA cm^{-2} (dotted line) and in 0.5 M sodium benzoate and 0.1 M aniline for different current densities marked on the figure.

Karakteristike polianilinskog filma na ispitivanim metalima

Na svim metalima dobijene su prevlake polianilina crne boje. Metodom savijanja je ustanovljeno da su prevlake adherentne pošto pri pucanju osnovnog metala nije došlo do odvajanja prevlake od osnovnog metala.

Na osnovu određenog priraštaja mase po jedinici površine tokom elektropolimerizacije i uz pretpostavku da je gustina polianilina dopovanog benzoatnim anjona

nima $\rho \approx 1,5 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$ [12] procenjene su debljine, δ , filmova polianilina. Teorijska debljina filma je izračunata korišćenjem jednačine [9]:

$$\delta = \frac{jt(M_m + yM_A)}{(2+y)F\rho} \quad (3)$$

gde je M_m molarna masa anilina ($93,13 \text{ g mol}^{-1}$), M_A molarna masa benzoatnog anjona ($121,12 \text{ g mol}^{-1}$), t vreme elektropolimerizacije, a y procenjeni stepen dopovanja benzoatnim anjonima. S obzirom na visoke potencijale elektropolimerizacije za proračun je predpostavljeno da se dobija perningranilin sa stepenom dopovanja od ~ 1 [12]. Rezultati procenjenih eksperimentalnih i teorijskih debljina filmova polianilina sumarno su prikazani u Tabeli 1.

Poređenjem eksperimentalno dobijenih i teorijski procenjenih debljina filmova, koje odgovaraju masi polianilina, procenjeno je iskorišćenje struje elektropolimerizacije. Kod bakra i mekog čelika iskorišćenje struje $\eta_{(j)}$ tokom elektropolimerizacije je procenjeno na oko 80%, dok je kod aluminijuma procenjeno na $\sim 70\%$.

Koroziono ponašanje

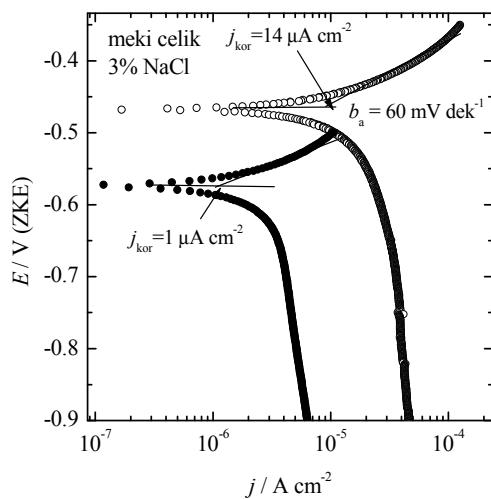
S obzirom da se tanke prevlake polianilina predviđaju za upotrebu kao podsloj za taloženje kataforetskih epoksidnih prevlaka, ispitivanja korozionog ponašanja su ograničena na relativno kratki vremenski period od 10 časova.

Na slikama 7–9 prikazane su uporedne polarizacione krive ispitivanih metala i metala sa prevlakom polianilina u 3% rastvoru natrijum-hlorida koji je sadržavao rastvoreni kiseonik iz vazduha. Kod svih čistih metala katodna reakcija je redukcija rastvorenog molekularnog kiseonika pod uslovima dominantne difuzione kontrole, dok je anodna reakcija aktivaciono kontrolisano rastvaranje metala. Iz preseka anodne Tafelove linije sa korozionim potencijalom određene su gustine struje korozije koje su sumarno date u tabeli 2. Na istim slikama (slike 7–9) date su i polarizacione krive ispitivanih metala sa prevlakom polianilina. Sa slike se može videti da su polarizacione krive metala sa prevlakom polianilina veoma slične polarizacionim krivama za osnovne metale posebno u anodnom delu, ali sa znatno nižim gulinama struja. S obzirom na relativno niske vrednosti korozionog potencijala (redoks potencijal za polianilin iznosi oko $0,3 \text{ V}$) može se smatrati da se po-

Tabela 1. Priraštaj mase pri različitim gulinama struja elektropolimerizacije anilina, procenjena eksperimentalna i teorijska debljina filma i iskorišćenje struje elektropolimerizacije $\eta_{(j)}$
Table 1. Increase in mass at different current densities of the aniline electropolymerization, the estimated experimental and theoretical film thickness and current efficiency of the electropolymerization $\eta_{(j)}$

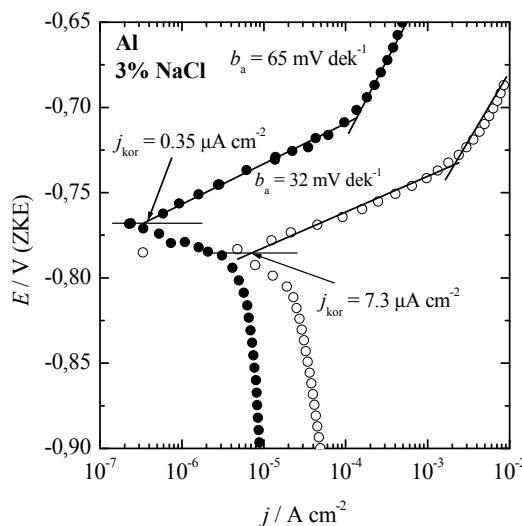
M-PANI	$j / \text{mA cm}^{-2}$	t / s	$m / \text{mg cm}^{-2}$	$\delta_{(\text{exp})} / \mu\text{m}$	$\delta_{(\text{teor})} / \mu\text{m}$	$\eta_{(j)} / \%$
MČ	1.50	215	0.20	0.13	0.16	81.2
Al	1.50	2400	1.8	12	17.7	70.6
Cu	1.00	1080	0.65	0.43	0.53	81.1

lianilin nalazi u delimično dedopovanom stanju, ali koji još uvek poseduje određenu provodljivost ($\gamma > 0$).



Slika 7. Polarizaciona kriva za meki čelik (○) i meki čelik sa prevlakom polianilina (●) debeline 0,13 μm u 3% rastvoru NaCl.

Figure 7. Polarization curve of mild steel (○) and mild steel with polyaniline (0.13 μm) coatings (●) in 3% NaCl solution.



Slika 8. Polarizaciona kriva za aluminijum (○) i aluminijum sa prevlakom polianilina (●) debline 12 μm u 3% rastvoru NaCl.

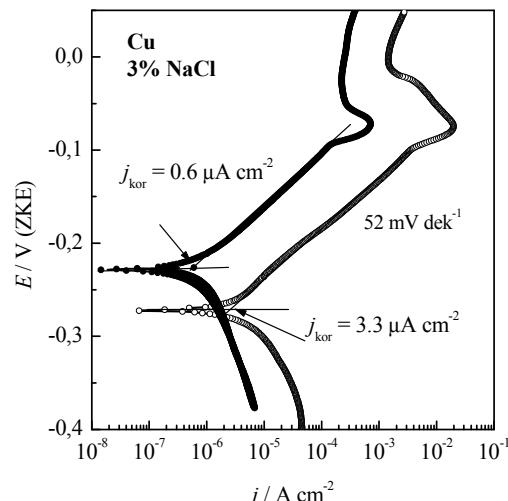
Figure 8. Polarization curve of aluminum (○) and aluminum with polyaniline (12 μm) coatings (●) in 3% NaCl solution.

Na osnovu izloženih rezultata i sličnosti polarizacionih krivih korozionih reakcija, može se zaključiti da se rastvaranje metala odigrava kroz pore filma polianilina, a redukcija korozionog agensa verovatno na samoj površini filma smanjene provodljivosti. To ukazuje da polianilin u zaštiti ispitivanih metala od korozije ima prevashodno barijerni zaštitni efekat, odnosno smanjenje izložene površine metala korozionom agensu.

Na osnovu određenih vrednosti gustina struje korozije moguće je izračunati stepen zaštitnog dejstva izraženih u procentima preko sledeće jednačine:

$$Z = \left(\frac{j_{\text{kor}}^{\text{M}} - j_{\text{kor}}^{\text{M(PANI)}}}{j_{\text{kor}}^{\text{M}}} \right) \times 100 \quad (4)$$

gde su $j_{\text{kor}}^{\text{M}}$ i $j_{\text{kor}}^{\text{M(PANI)}}$ gustine struje korozije za metale i metale sa prevlakom polianilina.



Slika 9. Polarizaciona kriva za bakar (○) i bakar sa prevlakom polianilina (●) debline 0,43 μm u 3% rastvoru NaCl.

Figure 9. Polarization curve of copper (○) and copper with polyaniline (0.43 μm) coatings (●) in 3% NaCl solution.

Stepen zaštitnog dejstva može poslužiti i za procenu poroznosti prevlaka polianilina prema jednačini:

$$\text{Poroznost} \approx 100 - Z \quad (5)$$

Sumarni rezultati određenih gustina korozije čistih metala, metala sa prevlakom polianilina, zaštitni efekat i procenjena poroznost su prikazani u Tabeli 2.

Zahvaljujući korozionoj stabilnosti filma polani-

Tabela 2. Određene vrednosti gustina struje korozije ispitivanih metala bez i sa prevlakom polianilina, izračunati stepen zaštitnog dejstva i procenjena poroznost prevlake polianilina

Table 2. Determined corrosion current density of investigated metals without and with polyaniline coatings, calculated protection degree, and estimated porosity of polyaniline coatings

Metal	$j_{\text{kor}} / \mu\text{A cm}^{-2}$	$d(\text{PANI}) / \mu\text{m}$	$j_{\text{kor}}(\text{PANI}) / \mu\text{A cm}^{-2}$	$Z / \%$	Poroznost, %
Fe	14	0,13	1,0	92,9	7,1
Al	7,3	12	0,35	95,2	4,8
Cu	3,3	0,43	0,6	82,0	18

lina koji ne pokazuje klasične mane epoksidnog premaza (bubrenje i degradacija tokom vremena) moguće je predpostaviti ranije uočenu dugotrajnost veoma tankih filmova polianilina u zaštiti metala od korozije [9–11]. U prvim trenucima nakon kontakta sa korozionim agensom, usled relativno niskog korozionog potencijala metala, dolazi do brzog dedopovanja površine filma polianilina. S druge strane, difuziono usporeno dedopovanje zaostalih količina anjona u dubini filma polianilina i smanjenjivanje provodljivosti, može objasniti ranije primeni porast impedanse tokom vremena kao posledice usporavanja reakcije redukcije kiseonika na slabo provodnom filmu polianilina [9–11].

ZAKLJUČAK

Na osnovu rezultata može se zaključiti da se iz rastvora na bazi natrijum-benzoata i monomera anilina mogu dobiti dobro adherentni filmovi polianilina na svim ispitivanim metalima. Ispitivanjem korozionog ponašanja čistih metala i metala sa prevlakom polianilina u 3% rastvoru natrijum-hlorida, zaključeno je da do smanjenja brzine korozije metala dolazi uglavnom zbog barijernog efekta relativno poroznog filma. Kroz pore filma odigrava se anodna reakcija rastvaranja metala, a redukcija agensa korozije se verovatno odigrava na površini filma polianilina smanjene provodljivosti.

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SUMMARY**ELECTROCHEMICAL SYNTHESIS AND CORROSION BEHAVIOR OF THIN POLYANILINE FILM ON MILD STEEL, COPPER AND ALUMINUM**

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(Scientific paper)

The electrochemical synthesis of polyaniline (PANI) on mild steel, aluminum and copper from the sodium benzoate solutions has been investigated. It has been shown that thin, highly adherent, polyaniline films on the investigated metals could be obtained by anodic oxidation with current densities in the range of 0.5 and 1.5 mA cm⁻². The corrosion behavior of mild steel, aluminum and copper with polyaniline coating in 0.5 mol dm⁻³ NaCl (pH 3) solutions, has been investigated by polarization technique. The corrosion current densities, porosity and protection efficiency was determined. It has been shown that polyaniline coating provided corrosion protection of all mentioned metals.

Ključne reči: Polianilin • Meki čelik

• Bakar • Aluminijum • Korozija

Key words: Polyaniline • Mild steel

• Copper • Aluminum • Corrosion

Развој титанских RuO₂/TiO₂ анода и уређаја за *in situ* производњу активног хлора

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Извод

У раду је дат преглед развоја активних титанских анода за реакцију оксидације хлоридних јона у истраживачким лабораторијама у Србији. Приказани су и нови резултати истраживања ефекта температуре термичке обраде, састава и дебљине активне RuO₂/TiO₂ превлаке на титану на њена микроструктурна својства и одраз ових својстава на каталиничку активност, јонсективност и корозиону стабилност у процесу добијања активног хлора. Установљен је и ефекат кинетичких и оперативних параметара процеса електролизе разблажених растворова натријум-хлорида на иско-ришћење струје и енергије по активном хлору. На основу ових испитивања конструисана је ћелија за електролизу и утврђене су оптималне вредности технолошких параметара процеса производње активног хлора. Свеобухватна истраживања резултирала су конструкцијом различитих типова постројења за *in situ* производњу активног хлора.

Кључне речи: дезинфекција, активни хлор, анода.

Доступно на Интернету са адресе часописа: <http://www.ache.org.rs/HI/>

Микробиолошки неисправна вода за пиће и вода која се користи у процесу производње у погонима прехранбене индустрије узрок је честих епидемија заразних болести. Зато је за добијање здравствено безбедних производа неопходна ефикасна дезинфекција воде, као и дезинфекција објекта и опреме. У свету се у многим земљама вода дезинфекције гасовитим хлором. Због потенцијалне опасности од избијања инцидената, у Европској Унији је забрањен транспорт и складиштење токсичног гасовитог хлора. Вишегодишња истраживања у лабораторијама факултета и института у Србији [1–31] резултирала су развојем домаћих уређаја за производњу дезинфекцијоног средства – активног хлора од нетоксичне сировине – воденог раствора натријум-хлорида. У овим уређајима се електролизом разблаженог, неутралног воденог раствора натријум-хлорида добија раствор хипохлорита и хипохлоритне киселине, снажног оксидационог средства које уништава микроорганизме. Овај технолошки поступак не загађује околину и нема штетних утицаја на здравље радника.

У процесу добијања активног хлора електролизом разблаженог раствора натријум-хлорида на

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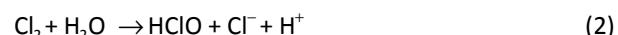
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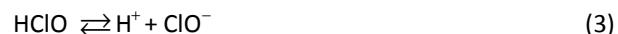
аноди се анодном оксидацијом хлоридних јона издваја хлор:



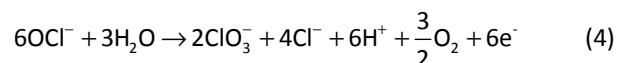
Издвојени хлор дифундује кроз анодни дифузиони слој ка маси раствора и притом симултано хидролизује. Хидролиза је брза реакција тако да при pH вредностима раствора већим од 6,5 готово сав хлор хидролизује у анодном дифузионом слоју реакцијом:



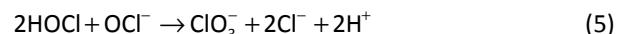
Успоставља се равнотежа дисоцијације хипохлоритне киселине:



Настала хипохлоритна киселина и јони хипохлорита (активни хлор) из дифузионог слоја дифундују са једне стране ка аноди, где се оксидују до хлората:



а са друге стране у масу раствора, где подлежу хемијској конверзији до хлората:



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Рад прихваћен: 2. јул, 2012

Дифузија и хидролиза хлора и дифузија активног хлора одређују концентрациони профил активног хлора у анодном дифузионом слоју. Овај профил одређује флукс активног хлора на анодној површини, а тиме и анодне губитке струје настале оксидацијом активног хлора [3–5,9–11,23]. Губици струје настају и анодном оксидацијом воде [3–5,9–11,23]:



У процесу добијања активног хлора температура електролита је релативно ниска ($t < 30^\circ\text{C}$) што успорава реакцију хемијске конверзије активног хлора до хлората [3–5,9–11,23]. При вредностима pH око 6,2 конверзија је најбржа, јер је у тој области однос концентрација хипохлоритне киселине и јона хипохлорита такав да обезбеђује максималну брзину хемијске конверзије активног хлора до хлората [11]. Зато се процес производње активног хлора изводи у алкалној средини. Међутим, у многим случајевима у пракси, јако алкални раствори активног хлора не могу да се користе. Део активног хлора се транспортује на катоду где се редукује до хлоридних јона што узрокује губитке активног хлора који се у литератури, ради лакшег обрачуна укупног искоришћења струје, означава као катодни губици [8–11,14–17]:



Пошто је концентрација натријум-хлорида у процесу добијања активног хлора обично мања од $30,0 \text{ g dm}^{-3}$, значајне анодне губитке струје узрокује и анодна оксидација воде.

ЕКСПЕРИМЕНТАЛНИ ДЕО

На подесно припремљеној титанској основи термичким поступком је формиран активни филм од оксида рутенијума и титана [3–5,8]. Глатке титанске плоче су, после пескирања и одмашћивања са засићеним раствором NaOH у етанолу, нагризане 20 min у кључалој 20 мас. \% HCl . На овако припремљене плоче наношен је раствор $\text{RuCl}_3 \cdot 3\text{H}_2\text{O}$ и TiCl_4 у 2-пропанолу концентрације 20 g dm^{-3} рачунато на чисте метале. Састав раствора је варирао од 5,0 до 100 mol% Ru. Раствор је наношен више пута, све док се не постигне дебљина превлаке која одговара маси од 1,0 до 20 g m^{-2} чистих метала. После наношења сваког слоја раствора, плоче су сушене на 50°C , а затим печене 10 min на испитиваној температури. Након последњег наношења раствора плоче су печене 60 min на испитиваној температури која је варирила од 300 до 800°C . Кристална структура формиране превлаке испитана је рендгенском структурном анализом на Philips дифрактометру са графитним монокроматором и $\text{CuK}\alpha$ зрачењем.

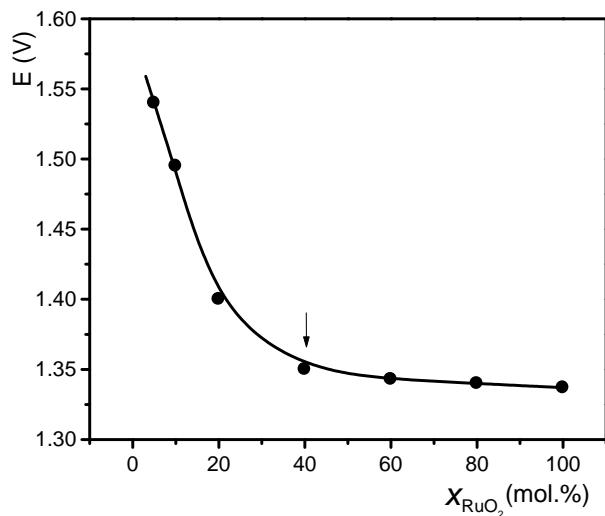
Електрохемијска мерења вршена су у класичној електрохемијској ћелији запремине $1,0 \text{ dm}^3$ са посебним делом за референтну засићену каломелову електроду. Радне електроде биле су у облику плоча површине 4 cm^2 , а помоћну електроду је чинила паралелно постављена титанска плоча. Сви потенцијали у тексту и на сликама дати су према стандардној водоничној електроди. Током електрохемијских мерења коришћено је стандардно електрично коло састављено од програмера са потенциостатом (RDE Potentiostat Pine instrument Co., Grove City, Pennsylvania), X-Y писача (Hewlett Packard 7035B) и дигиталног волтметра (Pro's Kit 03-9303C). Раствори су прављени од три пута дестилисане воде и Merck хемикалија. Анодно, катодно и укупно искоришћење струје одређивано је на основу састава гасне смеше која излази из електролизера [5]. Кумулативно искоришћење струје одређивано је на бази концентрације активног хлора у раствору. Концентрација активног хлора одређивана је потенциометријском титрацијом натријум-арсенатом(III) [5].

РЕЗУЛТАТИ И ДИСКУСИЈА

Испитиван је утицај природе анодног и катодног материјала, кинетичких и оперативних параметара на електродне пренапетости, пад напона у електролиту, катодно, анодно и укупно искоришћење струје и на потрошњу енергије по јединици производа активног хлора. На основу добијених резултата утврђена је оптимална конструкција ћелије и оптималне вредности технолошких параметара процеса. Коначни исход истраживања на овом пројекту је конструкција нових постројења за производњу активног хлора [1–31].

У току реализације пројекта примењена је домаћа технологија израде активираних титанских анода за електролизу разблажених раствора хлорида у алкалној средини. Снимањем анодних поларизационих криви при електролизи разблажених раствора хлорида испитан је утицај садржаја RuO_2 у превлакама на њихову катализичку активност. На основу тих поларизационих кривих одређена је зависност анодног потенцијала на густини струје до $1,0 \text{ kA m}^{-2}$ од садржаја RuO_2 (слика 1). Превлаке са садржајем 40 mol% имају велику катализичку активност. Са повећањем садржаја RuO_2 изнад 40 mol% катализичка активност се значајније не мења. Међутим, повећање садржаја RuO_2 поспешује издвајање кисеоника анодном оксидацијом воде што смањује јонселективност превлака. Појачано издвајање кисеоника смањује и стабилност анода, јер издвојени кисеоник убрзава раствање RuO_2 и формирање слабопроводног међуслоја од нестехиометријских оксида титана. При садржајима RuO_2 мањим од 40 mol% потенцијал нагло расте са сма-

њењем садржаја RuO_2 због повећања електричне отпорности превлаке и смањења броја активних центара за реакцију оксидације хлоридних јона.



Слика 1. Зависност Јошенцијала $\text{RuO}_2/\text{TiO}_2$ анода од садржаја RuO_2 у превлакама ($30 \text{ g dm}^{-3} \text{ NaCl}$, $\text{pH } 7.0$, $t = 25^\circ\text{C}$, $j = 1.0 \text{ kA m}^{-2}$).

Figure 1. $\text{RuO}_2/\text{TiO}_2$ anode potential as a function of RuO_2 content in the coating (30 g dm^{-3} , $t = 25^\circ\text{C}$, $j = 1.0 \text{ kA m}^{-2}$, $\text{pH } 7.0$).

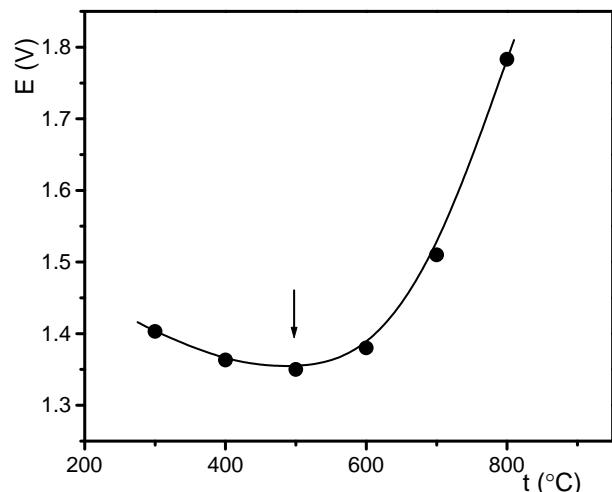
Анализа експерименталних резултата указује да најбоља електрохемијска својства поседује титанска анода са превлаком састава 40 и 60 mol% TiO_2 (слика 1).

Ове превлаке садрже минималне количине племенитог метала рутенијума који им обезбеђује велику каталитичку активност, добру јонселективност и добру корозиону стабилност при електролизи водених растворова натријум-хлорида [3–5,8].

Ренгенском анализом испитан је утицај садржаја RuO_2 и температуре формирања на микроструктурна својства превлака. Све превлаке са рутенијумом формирани су на температурима нижим од 600°C садрже фазу метастабилног чврстог раствора $\text{RuO}_2-\text{TiO}_2$ са величином кристалног зrna око 10 nm, са великим минималним густином хаотично распоређених дислокација и великим средњом вредношћу микронапрезања. Превлаке са садржајем RuO_2 мањим од 10 mol% поред рутилне структуре чврстог раствора садрже и фазу анатаса TiO_2 . Са порастом садржаја RuO_2 од 5 до 40 mol% у превлакама формираним на 500°C повећава се просечна димензија кристалних зrna са 12 на 26 nm. При даљем повећању садржаја RuO_2 до 100 mol% величина кристалних зrna се значајније не повећава [3,4]. Превлаке формирани на температурима вишем од 700°C садрже две фазе рутилне структуре: фазу чистог RuO_2 и фазу чистог TiO_2 . Са порастом температуре формирања превлака од 500 на 700°C расте средња

димензија кристала са 26 на 75 nm. При формирању превлака на температурима нижим од 400°C хлориди рутенијума и титана се не конвертују у целости у оксиде, па ове превлаке имају мању електричну проводљивост. Превлаке формиране на температурима вишем од 550°C такође имају мању електричну проводљивост због формирања нестехиометријских оксида титана у међуслоју титан-активна превлака [3,4].

Најбоља електрохемијска својства поседују превлаке добијене термичким поступком – конверзијом хлорида рутенијума и титана растворених у 2-пропанолу у њихове оксиде, и то у уском температурном интервалу од 420 до 500°C (слика 2). У том интервалу температура формира се метастабилни чврст раствор оксида рутенијума и титана високе компактности и добре адхезије. Рутилна структура чврстог раствора обезбеђује добра електрохемијска својства [3,4].

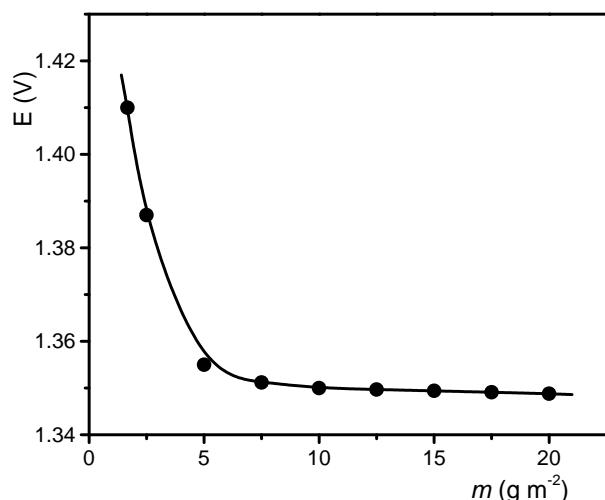


Слика 2. Зависност Јошенцијала 40 mol% RuO_2 , 60 mol% TiO_2 анода од температуре формирања превлака ($30 \text{ g dm}^{-3} \text{ NaCl}$, $\text{pH } 7.0$, $t = 25^\circ\text{C}$, $j = 1.0 \text{ kA m}^{-2}$).

Figure 2. Potential of 40 mol% RuO_2 , 60 mol% TiO_2 anode as a function of coating formation temperature ($30 \text{ g dm}^{-3} \text{ NaCl}$, $t = 25^\circ\text{C}$, $j = 1.0 \text{ kA m}^{-2}$, $\text{pH } 7.0$).

На слици 3 приказан је утицај дебљине превлаке на њену каталитичку активност за реакцију оксидације хлоридних јона. Дебљина превлака изражена је преко масе нанетих метала рутенијума и титана по јединици површине титанске плоче, као што је уобичајено. Са порастом дебљине превлаке њена каталитичка активност изражена потенцијалом при густини струје од 1 kA m^{-2} споро расте у интервалу дебљина од 5 до 20 g m^{-2} . Повећање каталитичке активности је знатно мање изражено од повећања реалне површине. Са повећањем дебљине превлака расте и дубина пора, па је отежан пренос хлоридних јона у њихову унутрашњост и пренос насталог хлора и активног хлора из пора у

масу електролита. Превлаке дебљине од 10 до 15 g m^{-2} су компактне, док превлаке дебље од 15 g m^{-2} имају пукотине и њихов број расте са порастом дебљине. Зато ове превлаке брже коридирају и лакше се пасивирају. Код превлака тањих од 5 g m^{-2} са смањењем дебљине катализичка активност нагло опада. Током термичког формирања танких превлака настају слабопроводни нестехиометријски оксиди титана. Ово узрокује брзу корозију и пасивацију танких превлака при електролизи разблаженых хлоридних растворова [3,4]. Приказани резултати показују да најбоља електрохемијска својства имају превлаке дебљине од 10 до 15 g m^{-2} [3,4].



Слика 3. Зависност потенцијала 40 mol% RuO_2 , 60 mol% TiO_2 аноде од дебљине превлаке ($30 \text{ g dm}^{-3} \text{ NaCl}$, pH 7,0, $t = 25^\circ\text{C}$, $j = 1,0 \text{ kA m}^{-2}$).

Figure 3. Potential of 40 mol% RuO_2 , 60 mol% TiO_2 anode as a function of coating thickness ($30 \text{ g dm}^{-3} \text{ NaCl}$, $t = 25^\circ\text{C}$, $j = 1,0 \text{ kA m}^{-2}$, pH 7.0).

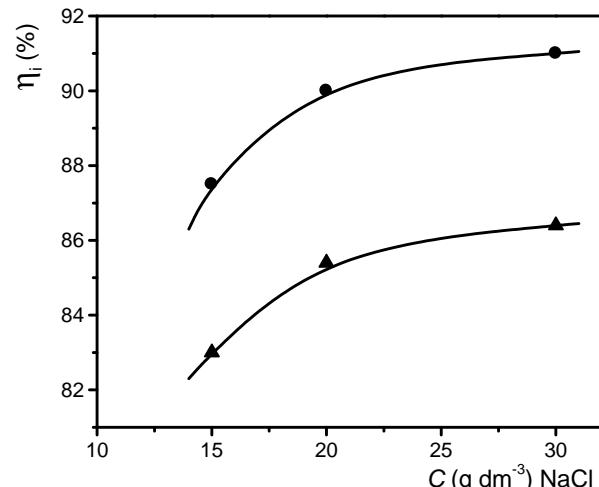
На основу поларизационих кривих симултаних реакција издавања хлора и кисеоника оксидацијом хлоридних јона и воде при електролизи разблаженог раствора натријум-хлорида (од 20 до 30 $\text{g dm}^{-3} \text{ NaCl}$) на 25°C и pH 7,0, одређена је оптимална област потенцијала за производњу активног хлора од 1,35 до 1,39 V којој одговара густина струје од 1,0 kA m^{-2} .

При електролизи раствора састава $30 \text{ g dm}^{-3} \text{ NaCl}$ и $5 \text{ g dm}^{-3} \text{ NaClO}$ густином струје од $1,0 \text{ kA m}^{-2}$ на $t = 25^\circ\text{C}$ и при pH 7,0 постиже се високо анодно искоришћење струје од 86% [4,5,8] и добија раствор који се може користи као ефикасан раствор за дезинфекцију.

Оптималне густине струје при електролизи раствора са садржајем NaCl од 10 до 30 g dm^{-3} при $6,5 < \text{pH} < 7,5$ на температури од 15 до 30°C одговарају области потенцијала од 1,35 до 1,39 V. Ове густине струје обезбеђују велику производност електро-

лизера са максималним искоришћењем струје уз велику катализичку активност и малу корозију анода [4,5,8].

Са смањењем концентрације NaCl у раствору фаворизује се оксидација воде, па опада искоришћење струје и производност ћелије за електролизу, а расте утрошак енергије по количини произведеног активног хлора (слика 4).



Слика 4. Зависност анодног искоришћења струје (η_i) од концентрација натријум-хлорида и активног хлора у раствору: ● – $1,0 \times 10^{-2}$ и ▲ – $5 \times 10^{-2} \text{ mol dm}^{-3} \text{ NaClO}$ ($t = 25^\circ\text{C}$, $j = 1,0 \text{ kA m}^{-2}$, pH 7.0).

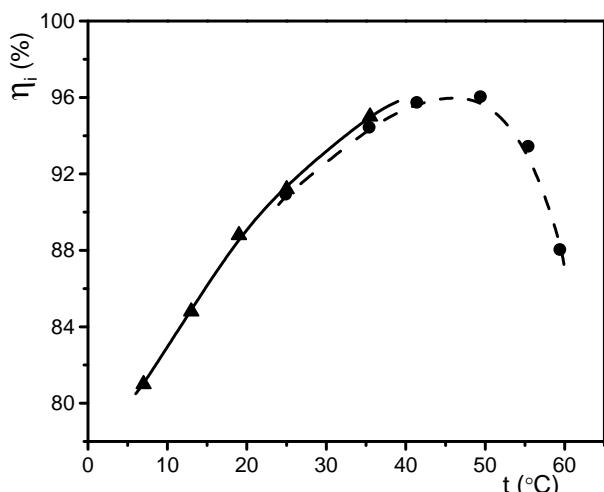
Figure 4. Anodic current efficiency (η_i) as a function of sodium chloride and active chlorine concentration in the solution: ● – $1,0 \times 10^{-2}$ and ▲ – $5 \times 10^{-2} \text{ mol dm}^{-3} \text{ NaClO}$ ($t = 25^\circ\text{C}$, $j = 1,0 \text{ kA m}^{-2}$, pH 7.0).

Раствор активног хлора са великим садржајем NaCl , већим од 50 g dm^{-3} често је због великог салинитета, неподесан за коришћење у дезинфекционе сврхе. Анализирајући квалитет произведеног раствора, производност ћелије за електролизу, утрошак енергије по јединици количине активног хлора и трајност анодне превлаке, установљена је оптимална концентрација натријум-хлорида у раствору за електролизу од 25 до 35 g dm^{-3} [3–5,8,12,26].

Температура електролита утиче на вредност анодног потенцијала и на анодно искоришћење струје по активном хлору. Анодни потенцијал опада са повећањем температуре док искоришћење струје расте (слика 5).

Дијаграм приказан на слици 5 указује на то да повећање температуре раствора знатно више убрзава реакцију оксидације хлоридних јона него реакцију оксидације воде и дифузију активног хлора. Са повећањем температуре интензивира се конверзија активног хлора у хлорат, што узрокује губитке активног хлора [4,5,8,11,23]. Ако се ови губици израчују и припишу анодним губицима, добија се да укупно анодно искоришћење струје расте са пове-

ћањем температуре до 50 °C, а при даљем расту температуре искоришћење струје опада (слика 5). Температурни интервал од 25 до 35 °C је оптималан интервал који обезбеђује максималну електрохемијску ефикасност електролизера за производњу активног хлора. Међутим, ако је захтевана температура раствора приметно већа од температуре околнине, у систему мора да постоји посебан уређај за загревање раствора. Укључивши и овај параметар у анализу ефикасности производње активног хлора закључује се да је оптимални температурни интервал од 15 до 30 °C.



Слика 5. Зависност искоришћења струје од температуре:
▲ – анондно искоришћење; ● – обрачунато укупно анондно искоришћење ($1.0 \times 10^{-2} \text{ mol dm}^{-3} \text{ NaClO}$, $30 \text{ g dm}^{-3} \text{ NaCl}$, $j = 1.0 \text{ kA m}^{-2}$, pH 7,0).

Figure 5. Temperature dependence of current efficiency:
▲ – anodic efficiency; ● – calculated total anodic efficiency ($1.0 \times 10^{-2} \text{ mol dm}^{-3} \text{ NaClO}$, $30 \text{ g dm}^{-3} \text{ NaCl}$, $j = 1.0 \text{ kA m}^{-2}$, pH 7,0).

У електролитичком процесу добијања активног хлора електролизом разблажених раствора хлорида у алкалној средини, на катоди се одвија реакција издвајања водоника и дифузиона контроверлисана редукција активног хлора. Анализом вредности пренапетости издвајања водоника, корозионе стабилности и цене коштања катодног материјала и могућности формирања биполарних електрода установљено је да је титан најподеснији материјал за израду катода [6,7,9,10].

Важно је истаћи да катоде од титана током електролизе апсорбују атомски водоник који постепено разара металну кристалну решетку, што се уочава појавом црног праха на површини катода. При густинама струје мањим од 1.2 kA m^{-2} овај процес је релативно спор, па се и након 10 година рада у ћелијама за производњу активног хлора титанске катоде значајније не оштете.

Облик ћелије, димензије електрода и међуелектродно растојање утичу на искоришћење струје и енергије. Анализом времена задржавања елемената запремине електролита у ћелији установљен је њен оптималан облик [1,2,13–17,27,28]. Димензије електрода зависе од капацитета електролизера. Повећањем висине електрода повећава се нагомилавање мехурива катодно издвојеног водоника у горњим деловима ћелије што узрокује неравномерну расподелу густине струје по висини електродних површина. Брзина кретања електролита дуж електродних површина зависи од односа висине и ширине електрода. При односу 3:1 обезбеђује се брзина кретања електролита која спречава нагомилавање мехурива водоника у горњим деловима ћелије и која обезбеђује ефикасно одношење активног хлора у прихватни резервоар. Ћелија се поставља у раствор на одређеној дубини тако да се отвор за улаз раствора налази у доњем, а излаз производа електролизе у горњем делу ћелије. Током електролизе у ћелији се налази смеша раствора и гасовитог водоника, а у прихватном резервоару око ћелије од њеног улаза до излаза, налази се само раствор. Услед разлике специфичних маса садржаја у ћелији и раствора у прихватном резервоару одвија се рециркулација раствора чија је брзина пропорционалана висини ћелије („лифтинг ефекат“). Аноде могу бити у облику мреже и у облику плоче. Активна површина аноде облика мреже је 1,3 до 1,6 пута већа од геометријске површине анода у облику плоча.

Катодни губици струје узроковани редукцијом активног хлора се смањују повећањем односа анонде и катодне површине. Технички је најједноставније да мали електролизери са анондом површином до $0,04 \text{ m}^2$, имају електроде у облику плоча [9].

Анализа конструкције ћелије, димензија електрода, механичке чврстоће и електричне отпорности титана указује на то да дебљина електрода од 2,0 до 3,0 mm обезбеђује чврсту конструкцију ћелије и релативно мали пад напона у титанским плочама. Пад напона у електролиту зависи од међуелектродног растојања. Смањење међуелектродног растојања узрокује: а) смањење електричне отпорности раствора услед смањења дужине пута којим се преноси наелектрисање и б) повећање отпорности услед смањења ефективне површине раствора кроз коју се преноси наелектрисање због повећања концентрације гасних мехурива катодно издвојеног водоника. Установљено је да је оптималан размак 3,0 mm [1,2,13–17,27,28].

На основу приказаних истраживања и закључака [1–31] конструисани су нови типови шаржних речиркулационих и проточних постројења за производњу активног хлора са потпуном аутоматизацијом

и даљинским управљањем. Капацитет и карактеристике постројења зависе од његове намене.

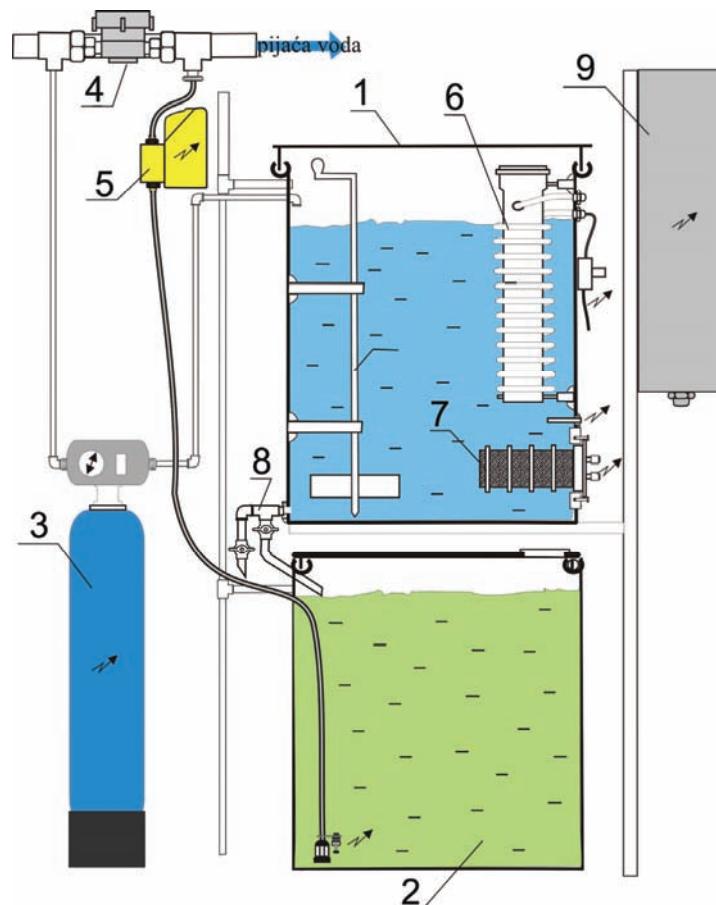
На слици 6 приказана је шема једног шаржног постројења произведеног у Србији. Уређај је конструисан на основу експерименталних резултата вишегодишњих испитивања изведених у лабораторијама неколико факултета и института у земљи.

Пре пуштања у рад овог уређаја, у реакциону посуду се дода одмерена количина натијум-хлорида и посуда напуни омекшаном водом. Уређај за омекшавање воде поред колоне садржи и аутоматизован систем за регенерацију јонизмењивачке масе. Током рада уређаја, у електролизеру настаје активни хлор који се струјањем раствора транспортује у реакциону посуду. На сваких седам минута електролизе аутоматски се укључи у рад измењивач топлоте. Кроз њега током троминутног рада противе хладна вода и хлади раствор у реакционој посуди. Процес електролизе траје 30 часова. За ово време добија се 80 dm^{-3} раствора NaClO концентрације $1,0 \text{ g dm}^{-3}$. Након завршене електролизе отварањем вентила (8) раствор прелази у прихватни резервоар

одакле се системом за дозирање убрзгава у предвиђени простор.

На слици 7 приказана је шема једног типа рециркулационог постројења произведеног у Србији. Овај тип уређаја је намењен за производњу активног хлора за дезинфекцију базенских вода у којима се налази од 3 до 6 g dm^{-3} NaCl .

Центрифугалном пумпом се на једном крају базена усисава базенска вода и потискује кроз пешчани филтер и измењивач топлоте у електролизер. Пешчани филтер се користи за одстрањивање механичких нечистоћа из воде, а измењивач топлоте са аутоматском регулацијом за њено хлађење или загревање. У електролизеру се производи активни хлор и убацује у базен струјањем раствора. У базену, активни хлор оксидује присутне микроорганизме и редукује се до хлоридних јона. Воду са насталим хлоридним јонима центрифугална пумпа усисава и поново потискује у електролизер. На тај начин се понавља циклус оксидације хлоридних јона и редукције активног хлора. Производња потребне количине активног хлора за ефикасну дезин-



Слика 6. Шема шаржног уређаја за производњу активног хлора: 1 – реакциона посуда; 2 – прихватна посуда; 3 – колона за омекшавање воде; 4,5 – систем за дозирање; 6 – измењивач топлоте; 7 – електролизер; 8 – вентил; 9 – исправљач и мерно-рејулациони систем.

Figure 6. A schematic of a batch-type device for active chlorine generation: 1 – reaction vessel; 2 – receptacle; 3 – water softening column; 4,5 – dosing system; 6 – heat exchanger; 7 – electrolyzer; 8 – valve; 9 – rectifier and measurement and regulation system.

фекцију базенске воде регулише се избором јачине струје и времена трајања електролизе. У најновијим типовима електролизера уградене су електроде са „самопречишћавањем“. То су титанске електроде са активним катализитичким слојем чији се поларитет током електролизе мења. У случају константног напајања, поларитет електрода се мења у тренутку укључења уређаја у рад док се код чоперског и прекидачког напајања поларитет мења након одређеног времена у временском распону од нула до осам часова. Код ових електролизера свака електрода једно време ради као анода, а потом као катода. У катодном циклусу, издвојени водоник разара каменач на електроди [31].

Раствори произведени у уређајима за производњу активног хлора могу да се користе за велике градске и мале сеоске системе водоснабдевања, за сеоске бунаре, за базене за купање, дезинфекцију опреме и објекта у прехрамбеној индустрији, за бељење текстила, у фармацеутској индустрији и у примарној пољопривредној производњи (за дезинфекцију семена и објеката у сточарској производњи), при преради отпадних вода, итд.

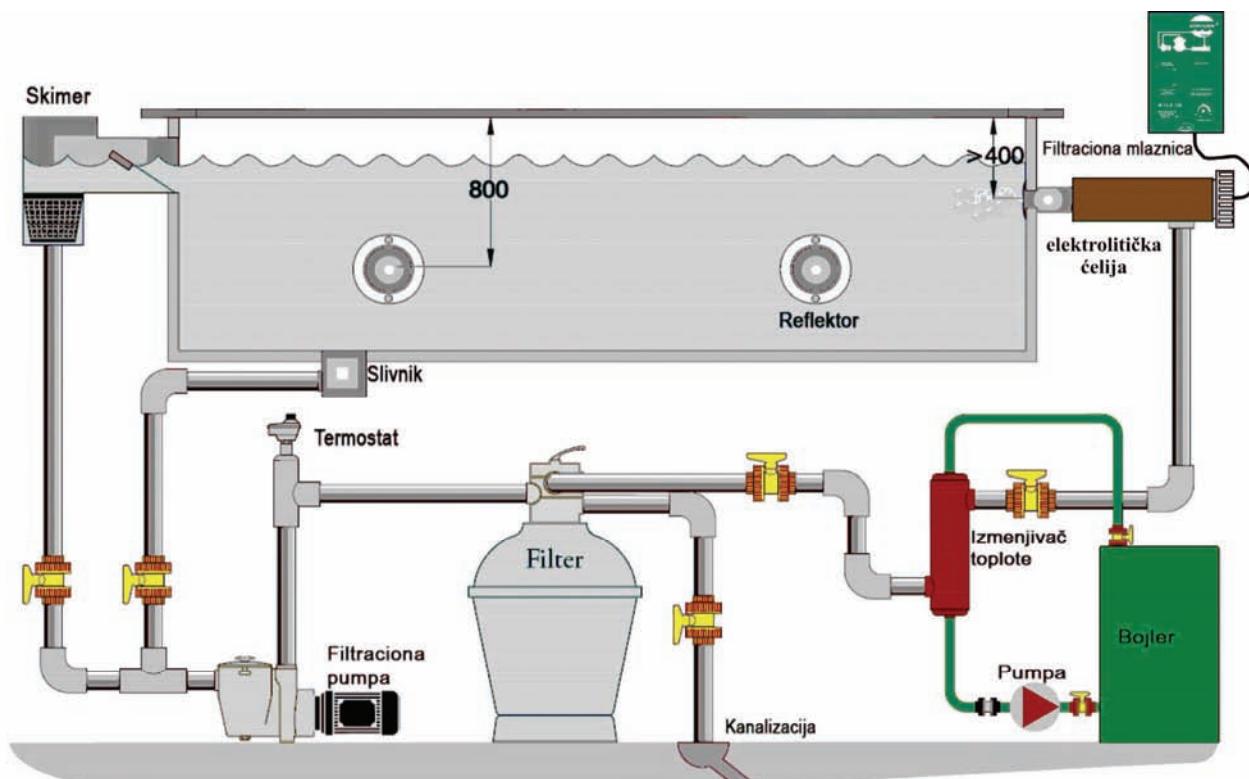
ЗАКЉУЧАК

На основу експериментално испитаног ефекта температуре термичке обраде, састава и дебљине

активне $\text{RuO}_2/\text{TiO}_2$ превлаке на њену катализитичку активност, јонселективност и корозиону стабилност у процесу добијања активног хлора електролизом разблаженог раствора натријум-хлорида одређене су оптималне вредности параметара термичког формирања чврстог раствора оксида рутенијума и титана. Најбоља електрохемијска својства имају нанокристалне превлаке чврстог раствора рутилне структуре, састава 40 mol% RuO_2 , 60 mol% TiO_2 , добијене на 500 °C. Превлаке су компактне и адхерентне, дебљине 10 до 15 g m⁻² са кристалима просечних димензија 26 nm. Установљен је и ефекат кинетичких и оперативних параметара електрохемијског процеса добијања активног хлора на искоришћење струје и енергије по активном хлору. На основу добијених резултата утврђене су оптималне вредности технолошких параметара процеса производње активног хлора. Свеобухватна истраживања резултирала су конструкцијом различитих типова постројења за производњу активног хлора.

ЗАХВАЛНИЦА

Аутори се захваљују Министарству просвете, науке и технолошког развоја Републике Србије на финансијској помоћи током израде овог рада (Пројекат број 172 057).



Слика 7. Шема рециркулационој уређају за производњу активног хлора.
Figure 7. A schematic of a recirculating device for active chlorine generation.

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SUMMARY**DEVELOPMENT OF RuO₂/TiO₂ TITANIUM ANODES AND A DEVICE FOR *IN SITU* ACTIVE CHLORINE GENERATION**Miroslav D. Spasojević¹, Tomislav Lj. Trišović^{1,2}, Lenka Ribić-Zelenović¹, Pavle M. Spasojević³¹*University of Kragujevac, Faculty of Agronomy Čačak, Serbia*²*Institute of Technical Sciences of the Serbian Academy of Sciences and Arts, Belgrade, Serbia*³*University of Belgrade, Faculty of Technology and Metallurgy Belgrade, Serbia*

(Scientific paper)

Chlorine is used worldwide for water disinfection purposes. However, due to its toxicity the EU has imposed a set of standards that must be applied when transporting and storing chlorine. In Serbia, numerous studies have been conducted attempting to develop the technology for the generation of active chlorine disinfectant, but with a non-toxic aqueous solution of sodium chloride as the raw material. This study provides an overview of the titanium anodes activated by thermally obtained solid solution of ruthenium and titanium oxide development. It also presents new findings on the effect of the temperature of thermal treatment, the composition, the thickness of an active coating on its microstructural properties, and consequently on the catalytic activity, ion selectivity, and corrosion stability during active chlorine generation through the electrolysis of dilute sodium chloride solutions at room temperature. The study also evaluates the effect of the kinetic and operational parameters of the electrochemical process of active chlorine generation on both current and energy efficiencies. The results obtained were used to determine optimal values of technological parameters of the production process. This comprehensive research resulted in the construction of different types of remote-controlled and fully automated active chlorine generating plants.

Keywords: Disinfection • Active chlorine
• Anode

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Characteristics of polyaniline lead - dioxide power sources

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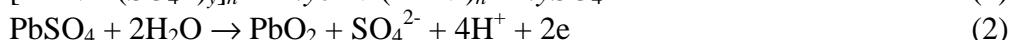
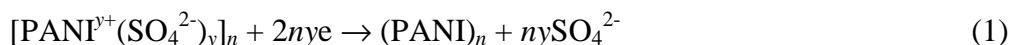
ABSTRACT:

Polyaniline (PANI) anode, electrochemically synthesized on graphite electrode from sulfuric acid solution, and electrochemically formed thin film lead dioxide cathode, were investigated for possible applications as electrode materials in $\text{PANI} \mid \text{H}_2\text{SO}_4 \mid \text{PbO}_2$ aqueous based rechargeable power sources. The stimulation of charge/discharge characteristics of the cell, based on half cell reactions investigations, was evaluated. Charging of the cell would occur in the voltage range of 1.2 and 1.7 V, while discharge would occur in the range of 1.3 and 1 V.

Key words: polyaniline, lead dioxide, power sources

INTRODUCTION:

Electroconducting (ECP) polymers due to their specific properties such as: low specific weight compared to classical inorganic compounds, high energy and power density and ability of reversible exchange of ions, have gained much attention as possible electrode materials in electrochemical power sources. The determining factors of a battery system are recognized as “three E criteria” (energy, economics, environment), which are likely to be accomplished in systems based on ECP, metals and aqueous electrolytes¹. Among numerous ECP, up to now only few of them has been investigated for possible use in electrochemical power sources. The most extensively investigated systems are based on polyaniline (PANI) combined to electronegative metals. In this work electrochemically synthesized PANI on graphite, as anodic material, and electrochemically synthesized lead dioxide as cathode were investigated for possible application in $\text{PANI} \mid \text{H}_2\text{SO}_4 \mid \text{PbO}_2$ rechargeable power sources. In such system, the half reaction for charging of the cell can be given as:



Is important to note that in fully charged $\text{PANI} \mid \text{H}_2\text{SO}_4 \mid \text{PbO}_2$ battery PANI is in its dedoped form.

EXPERIMENTAL: Polyaniline thin film electrode was formed by anodic polymerization from aqueous solution of 1.1 mol dm^{-3} H_2SO_4 and 0.2 mol dm^{-3}

aniline at constant current density of 2.5 mA cm^{-2} on graphite. Prior to use aniline (p.a. Aldrich) was distilled in argon. Cylindrically shaped graphite electrode was first mechanically polished with fine emery papers (2/0, 3/0 and 4/0) and than with polishing alumina ($1\mu\text{m}$ Banner Scientific Ltd.) on polishing cloths (Buehler Ltd.). After mechanical polishing, the traces of alumina were removed from the electrode surface in ethanol using ultrasonic bath. After polymerization, PANI electrode was dedoped with current density of 1.25 mA cm^{-2} , washed with bidistilled water and than investigated in $1.1 \text{ mol dm}^{-3} \text{ H}_2\text{SO}_4$. The lead dioxide electrode was prepared from pure 99.95 % lead, according to established Planté formation procedure described by Peterson et al.².

All experiments were carried out in three compartment electrochemical cells. Saturated electrode served as reference, while platinum foil ($S = 2 \text{ cm}^2$) was used as counter electrode. Electrochemical measurements were performed using GMRY PC3 potentiostat controlled by computer.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION:

Characterization of PANI electrode

In Fig. 1. charge/discharge curves of PANI electrode for different current densities of: $0.50 - 1.25 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ and anodic potential limit of 0.32 V in $1.1 \text{ mol dm}^{-3} \text{ H}_2\text{SO}_4$ are shown. Anodic potential limit was chosen bearing in mind that at potentials higher than 0.35 V degradation of PANI is expected³. Charging of the electrode starts at potential of $\sim 0.05\text{V}$ and discharging in the potential range between 0.3 and -0.3 V . Charging capacity, as seen in insert of Fig. 1., is independent on current density, while discharging capacity decrease with increasing current density. For current densities below 1.25 mA cm^{-2} , columbic efficiency is higher than 100 %. This observation could be connected to possibilities of hydrogen evolution and protonization of emeraldine at negative potentials and low current densities. This additional charge is easily discharged at open circuit potentials and has no contribution in further charging

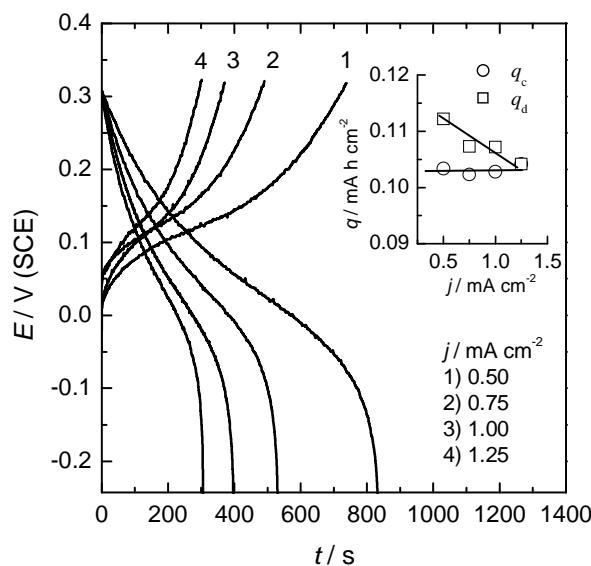


Fig.1. Charge/discharge curves of PANI electrode for different current densities in $1.1 \text{ mol dm}^{-3} \text{ H}_2\text{SO}_4$. Insert: Charge/discharge capacity

Cycling characteristics of PANI electrode obtained with constant current density of 1.25 mA cm^{-2} during 15 cycles is given in Fig. 2. Since, the degradation of PANI possibly occurs above potentials of $\sim 0.35 \text{ V}$, in order to investigate the influence of degradation, the cycling potential limits were extended to 0.45 V for charging and -0.6 V for discharging⁴.

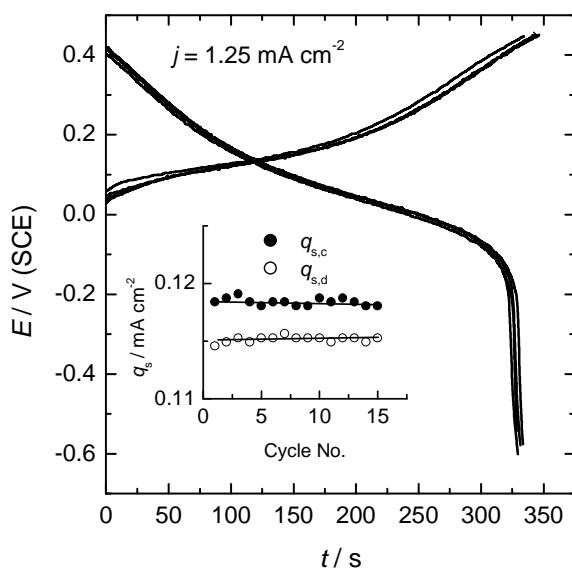


Fig. 2. Cycling characteristics of PANI electrode in $1.1 \text{ mol dm}^{-3} \text{ H}_2\text{SO}_4$ at constant current density of 1.25 mA cm^{-2} . Insert: Dependence of the electrode capacity on cycle number

As it can bee seen from Fig. 2. charge/discharge curves are practically the same during fifteen cycles, with almost constant values of electrode charging and discharging capacity, with columbic efficiency of $\sim 95 \text{ \%}$. Based on obtained results, it could be concluded that in investigated potential range degradation of PANI didn't occur, but it is expected to occur during prolonged cyclization, so it is recommended that the optimal potential limit for charging of PANI electrode should be $\sim 0.35 \text{ V}^4$.

Characterization of PbO_2 electrode

In order to investigate discharge characteristics of electrochemically formed PbO_2 electrode², the following procedure was applied. Electrode was always charged with current density of 2 mA cm^{-2} during 500 s, and than discharged with current densities between 1 and 4 mA cm^{-2} as seen in Fig. 3. Based on discharging times, the dependences of columbic efficiency and discharge capacity on applied current density were calculated and given in insert of Fig. 3. For lower current densities of 1.0 and 2.0 mA cm^{-2} columbic efficiency is $\sim 85 \text{ \%}$, while current efficiency and discharge capacity decrease for higher current densities, probably as a result of diffusion limitations. Thus, for further investigation discharge current of 2 mA cm^{-2} was used.

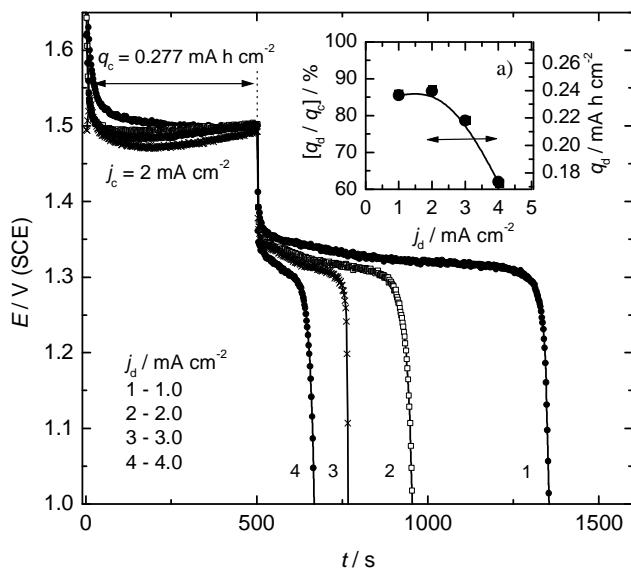


Fig. 3. Discharge characteristics of PbO_2 electrode in $1.1 \text{ mol dm}^{-3} \text{ H}_2\text{SO}_4$ for different discharge current densities. Insert. Dependences of columbic efficiency and discharge capacity on discharge current density.

In order to investigate cyclic characteristic, PbO_2 electrode was submitted to fifteen charge/discharge cycles in $1.1 \text{ mol dm}^{-3} \text{ H}_2\text{SO}_4$ with current density of 2.0 mA cm^{-2} and results are presented in Fig. 4.

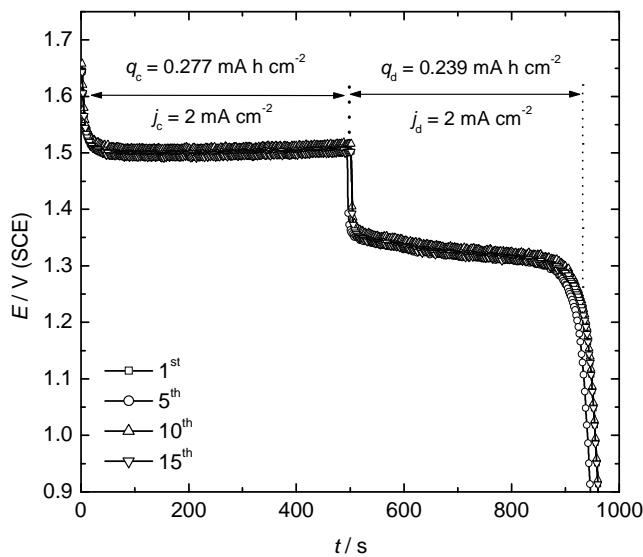


Fig. 4. Cycling characteristics of PbO_2 electrode in $1.1 \text{ mol dm}^{-3} \text{ H}_2\text{SO}_4$ at constant current density of 2.0 mA cm^{-2}

As it can be seen from Fig. 4., during fifteen cycles charge/discharge capacity has practically constant values, with constant columbic efficiency of $\sim 85\%$. These

findings suggest that electrochemically formed PbO_2 electrode accomplishes demands for potential application in $\text{PANI} \mid \text{H}_2\text{SO}_4 \mid \text{PbO}_2$ cell.

Possible characteristics of $\text{PANI} / \text{H}_2\text{SO}_4 / \text{PbO}_2$ power sources

Based on charge /discharge characteristics of PANI and PbO_2 electrodes (presented in Fig. 2. and Fig. 3.), simulation of the possible electrochemical characteristics of $\text{PANI} \mid \text{H}_2\text{SO}_4 \mid \text{PbO}_2$ cell were done for anodic current density of 1 mA cm^{-2} (PANI electrode) and cathodic current density of 2 mA cm^{-2} (PbO_2 electrode), assuming that for low current densities voltage loss resulted from additional ohmic drops can be neglected, and that PANI electrode was formed on carbon support with low roughness factor of 2. Obtained results are presented in Fig. 5.

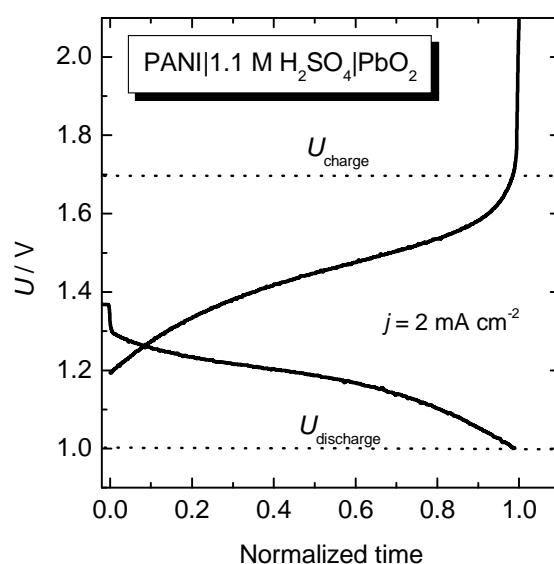


Fig. 5. Simultation of the possible electrochemical characteristics of $\text{PANI} \mid \text{H}_2\text{SO}_4 \mid \text{PbO}_2$ cell

As it can bee seen from Fig. 5. charging of the cell occurs in the voltage range between 1.2 and 2.1, but since there is no additional charge above 1.7 V, system should be charged only to that voltage. After charging open circuit voltage is ~ 1.35 V similar to metal hydride cells.

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Improved electrolyte for zinc-polyaniline batteries

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Electrochemical behavior of zinc and polyaniline (PANI) electrode polymerized from 0.1 M HCl and 0.1 M aniline on graphite electrode, in 0.2 M ZnCl₂ and 0.50 M NH₄Cl (chloride electrolyte) and with addition of 0.33 M Na-citrate (chloride/citrate electrolyte) were investigated. In the chloride/citrate comparing with chloride containing electrolyte for the zinc electrode negative shift of the open circuit potential of 150 mV, decreases of exchange current density for more than order of magnitude and increase of cathodic Tafel slope, due to the zinc ions complexation, were observed. In citrate/chloride electrolyte zinc dendrite formation were completely suppressed. PANI electrodes show better discharge characteristic in chloride/citrate electrolyte with determined maximum discharge capacity of 164 mAh g⁻¹

Key words: polyaniline, citrate, batteries

1. Introduction

Up to now zinc-PANI batteries has not been commercialized from few main reasons. First reason is degradation process of PANI at potentials more positive than ~0.5 V [1, 2], and second is zinc passivation, which is possibly related to the formation of the solid phases ZnCl₂·3NH₄Cl and ZnCl₂·2NH₄Cl on the anode surface [3]. On the other hand, in chloride containing electrolytes Zn electrodes form dendrites during charge-discharge cycles [5]. It results in decreased coulombic efficiency of batteries and charge life. Main reason for that are short circuit provoked by penetration of dendrites through separator to cathode or formation of the anodic slime.

It is well known that some organic anions can form complexes with the metal ions, that results much better quality of the metal deposits and suppress dendrite formation [7]. Probably, the best choice will be oxalic anions, due to the small ionic radius, good PANI doping-dedoping characteristics, etc [8]. Unfortunately, zinc oxalate is an insoluble salt.

In this paper we have investigated behavior of zinc and PANI electrodes in chloride containing electrolytes with addition of citrate anions, which at pH~5 that can form an soluble zinc citrate [ZnCit]⁻ complex.

2. Experimental

Polyaniline was obtained from hydrochloric acid solution (0.1 M) with addition of 0.1 M aniline monomer (p.a. Merck, distilled in argon atmosphere), at constant current density of 1 mA cm⁻² on graphite electrode. Electrolytes containing 0.5 M NH₄Cl, 0.20 M ZnCl₂ and with addition of 0.33 M Na-citrate were prepared from p.a. grade chemicals (Merck) and bidistilled water. For all experiments three compartment electrochemical cell, with platinum foil ($S=2\text{ cm}^2$) as a counter and saturated calomel electrode as a reference electrode at room temperature was used.

The working electrodes, graphite ($S=0.64\text{ cm}^2$) and zinc ($S=2\text{ cm}^2$), were mechanically polished with fine emery papers (2/0, 3/0 and 4/0, respectively) and then with polishing

alumina of 1 μm (Banner Scientific Ltd.) on the polishing cloths (Buehler Ltd.). After mechanical polishing the traces of polishing alumina were removed from the electrode surface in an ultra-sonic bath during 5 min. The electrochemical measurements were carried using a PAR 273A potentiostat controlled by a computer through a GPBI PC2A interface.

3. Results and discussion

On Fig. 1. comparison of zinc deposition-dissolution on graphite electrode from chloride and chloride/citrate containing electrolytes are shown. As it can be seen from chloride electrolyte, deposition processes starts at potentials around -1 V, thought one well defined peak, at -1.17 V, after at potentials more negative than -1.4 V proceed simultaneous zinc deposition and hydrogen evolution reactions. In anodic direction, zinc dissolution occurs at potentials more positive than -1 V through one pack and one shoulder. In citrate/chloride electrolyte deposition-dissolution reaction is shifted for ~0.15 V in negative direction and diffusion limited peak is two times smaller, than in chloride electrolytes. This behavior could be explained by zinc ions complexation and lowering of the free zinc ions activity, as well as diffusivity of zinc citrate complex comparing with chloride electrolyte.

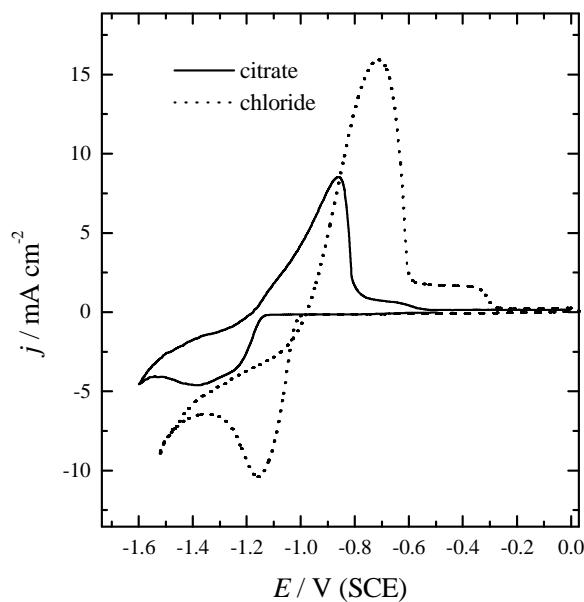


Fig. 1. Cyclic voltammograms of graphite electrode in 1) 0.50 M $\text{NH}_4\text{Cl} + 0.20 \text{ M ZnCl}_2$ and 2) with addition of 0.33 M Na-citrate. Sweep rate 20 mV s⁻¹.

In Fig. 2 micrographs of zinc deposits obtained from chloride and chloride/citrate electrolytes at a constant current density of 3.5 mA cm⁻² and with deposition charges of 10.5 mA h cm⁻² are shown.

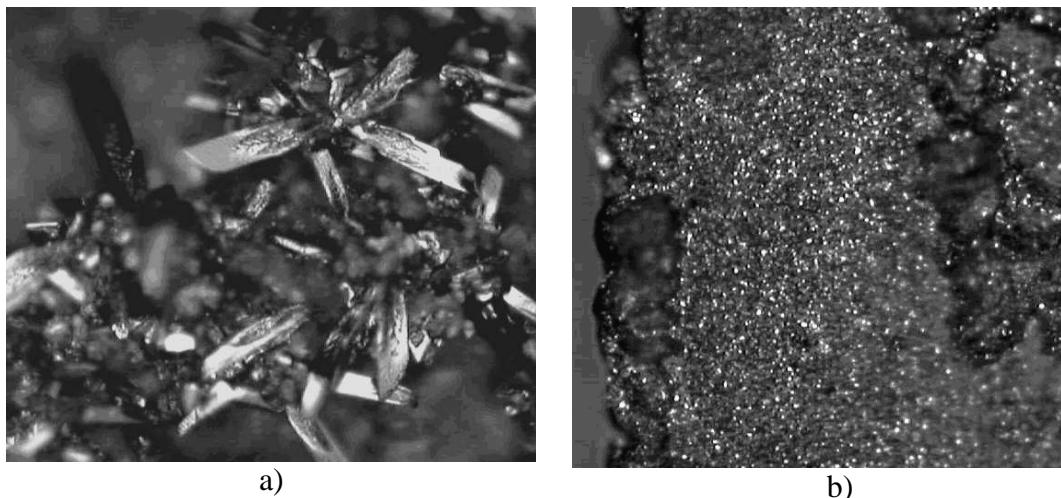


Fig. 2. Micrographs of the zinc deposits from a) 0.20 M ZnCl_2 + 0.50 M NH_4Cl and b) with addition of 0.33 M Na-citrate.

Deposition current density 3.5 mA cm^{-2} , deposition time 3 h, magnification 200 x.

In chloride electrolyte, Fig. 2a, obtained deposits are practically completely dendritic, so potential risk of fast dendrite growth through separator, during the longer charging times, and formation of short circuits with cathode is permanently present. On the other hand in chloride/citrate electrolyte, Fig. 2b, deposit is smooth without irregularities even in the edges where local current density due to the current distribution phenomena is higher than at the central surface.

The overpotential and the current density in activation-controlled deposition inside the Tafel region are related by:

$$\eta = \frac{b_c}{2.3} \ln \frac{j}{j_0} \quad (1)$$

Therefore, increasing b_c and decreasing j_0 leads to an increase in the deposition overpotential at the constant current density. It follows from all available data that the former effect is more pronounced resulting in deposits with a finer grain size with decreasing value of the exchange current density.

This analysis explain differences in deposit morphology for chloride and chloride/citrate electrolytes taking into account that Tafel slopes are -35 and -108 mV dec^{-1} , and exchange current densities are 0.38 and 0.027 mA cm^{-2} , respectively. Hence, in chloride electrolyte at 3.5 mA cm^{-2} deposition overpotential is only -30 V , while in chloride/citrate electrolyte is -220 mV .

Insert of Fig. 3. shows the galvanostatic curve for polymerization of aniline from solution containing 0.10 M HCl and 0.10 M aniline monomer on graphite electrode at current density of 1 mA cm^{-2} with polymerization charge of 0.3 mA h cm^{-2} . Polymerization starts at potential of 0.75 V and proceed in the potential range between 0.75 and 0.7 V . After polymerization, electrode was washed with bidistilled water and transferred in the three compartment electrochemical cell with chloride or chloride/citrate electrolyte. After transfer, electrode was conditioned at potential of -0.8 V for 600 s and cyclic voltammograms in the potential range between -0.8 and 0.4 V were taken as shown in Fig. 4. In anodic direction doping of the anions occur at potentials more positive than -0.2 V , with pronounced peak at 0.15 V . In cathodic direction dedoping of anions occur through one shoulder in the potential range of 0.4 to 0.05 V and one well defined peak with the maximum at -0.1 V . Dedoping of anions is finished at potentials of -0.4 V . Small differences in the shapes of cyclic

voltammograms between chloride and chloride/citrate electrolytes, could indicate that only chloride anions are involved in doping/dedoping reaction.

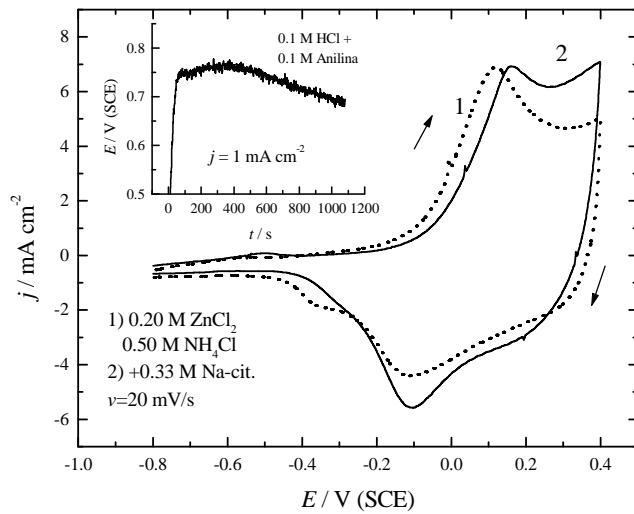


Fig. 3. Cyclic voltammograms of PANI electrode in 1) chloride and 2) chloride/citrate electrolyte ($v=20 \text{ mV s}^{-1}$). Insert: galvanostatic curve for aniline polymerization from 0.1 M HCl and 0.1 M aniline at 1 mA cm^{-2} on graphite electrode.

Figure 4. shows charge-discharge curves in chloride and chloride/citrate electrolytes at current density of 0.25 mA cm^{-2} . Charging curves in both solutions are practically identical, but discharging curve in chloride/citrate solution have higher discharge potentials and longer discharge time. Up to now we do not have explanation for that kind of behavior.

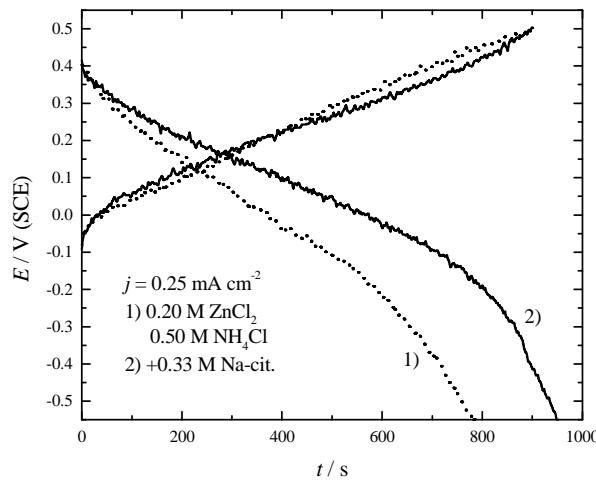


Fig.4. Charge-discharge curve for 1) chloride and 2) chloride/citrate electrolyte at current density of 0.25 mA cm^{-2} .

Charging/discharging characteristics of PANI film electrode are affected with applied current density, mainly because chloride anions diffusion limitation through PANI film. Charging/discharging reaction, assuming that only chloride anions are involved, can be given with following scheme [7]:



On Fig. 5 dependence of capacity during discharge processes for different discharging current densities are shown.

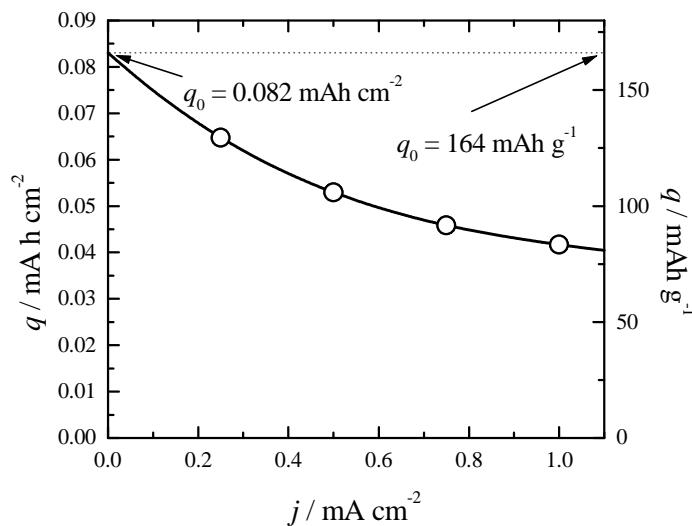


Fig. 5. Dependence of charge (left) and specific charge (right) at different discharge current density for PANI electrode in chloride/citrate electrolyte.

Discharge capacity increase with decreasing applied current density and for the limiting case when $j_d \rightarrow 0$, discharge capacity has a value of $0.082 \text{ mAh cm}^{-2}$.

Assuming the 100% current efficiency during the polymerization of aniline and using the equations [8]:

$$m = \frac{jt(M_m + yM_a)}{(2+y)F} \quad (4)$$

It could be calculated that mass of the PANI on graphite electrode was approximately 0.5 mg. Hence, for the limiting case with discharge capacity of $0.082 \text{ mAh cm}^{-2}$ specific discharge capacity could be estimate on 165 mAh g^{-1} . In the range of investigated current densities of 0.25 to 1 mA cm^{-2} , specific discharge capacity was in the range of 130 to 85 mAh g^{-1} , respectively.

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Electrochemical behavior of polyaniline in chloride/citrate electrolyte

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Abstract

Polyaniline electrode, was obtained by electrochemical polymerization at constant current density of 2.0 mA cm^{-2} from aqueous solution of 1.0 mol dm^{-3} HCl containing 0.25 mol dm^{-3} aniline. Electrochemical characterization of the polyaniline electrode in chloride and chloride/citrate electrolyte, for different anodic potential limits, was performed using cyclic voltammetry and galvanostatic measurements. It was observed that for anodic potential 0.32 V , higher electrode capacity in chloride/citrate was obtained. For anodic potential limit of 0.50 V , faster decrease of the electrode capacity in chloride/citrate electrolyte was also observed. It was suggested that influence of both chloride and citrate anions has to be taken into account.

Key words: polymers, electrochemical techniques, electrochemical properties

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1. Introduction

Due to their unique properties, such as: mechanical strength, electrical conductivity, corrosion stability, possibility of chemical and electrochemical synthesis, electroconducting polymers (ECP) were considered in wide area of practical application such as: microelectronics, optoelectronics, corrosion protection, sensors, electromagnetic shielding, and electrochemical power sources [1-8]

ECP could be synthesized by both chemical and electrochemical oxidative polymerization. However, electrochemical synthesis is favorable permitting the control of the reaction and polymerization without oxidizing agent together with doping by organic or inorganic ions in a single step.

Among large number of ECP, polyaniline (PANI) is the most investigated as cathode material in aqueous based electrochemical power sources [5-13]. Although systems consisted of PANI cathode combined to electronegative metal (mainly zinc) anode, are likely to accomplish most of the three E criteria: Energy (high energy content with respect to volume and weight), Economics (low manufacturing and maintenance costs, long service life), Environment (toxic free, safety, low energy consumption, easy to recycle) elaborated as the determining factors of an electrochemical power system success [14,15] they still have not been commercialized from several reasons.

2. Experimental

Electrochemical synthesis of PANI on graphite electrode ($S = 0.64 \text{ cm}^2$) was performed at constant current density of 2 mA cm^{-2} from aqueous solution of 1.0 mol dm^{-3} HCl (p.a. Merck) and 0.25 mol dm^{-3} aniline. After polymerization, PANI electrode was discharged in the same solution with 1 mA cm^{-2} to the potential of -0.6 V , than rinsed in bidestilled water, and transferred into electrochemical cell containing for further characterization. Prior to use aniline (p.a. Aldrich) was distilled in argon atmosphere. The working electrode, cylindrically shaped graphite inserted in Teflon holder was first mechanically polished with fine emery papers (2/0, 3/0 and 4/0,

respectively), and than with polishing alumina ($1\mu\text{m}$, Banner Scientific Ltd.) on polishing cloths (Buehler Ltd.), the traces of the polishing alumina were removed from the electrode surface in an ultrasonic bath during 5 min.

PANI electrode was characterized using cyclic voltammetry and galvanostatic cyclization measurements in chloride ($0.5 \text{ mol dm}^{-3} \text{ NH}_4\text{Cl}$ and $0.2 \text{ mol dm}^{-3} \text{ ZnCl}_2$) and chloride/citrate ($0.5 \text{ mol dm}^{-3} \text{ NH}_4\text{Cl}$ and $0.2 \text{ mol dm}^{-3} \text{ ZnCl}_2$ with addition of $0.3 \text{ mol dm}^{-3} \text{ Na-citrate}$). All experiments were performed in standard three compartment electrochemical cell at ambient temperature (22°C). Saturated calomel electrode was used as reference, while Pt wire served as counter electrode. The measurements were carried out using PAR 273A potentiostat/galvanostat interfaced to PC.

3. Results and discussion

Electrochemical polymerization of aniline on graphite electrode from 1.0 mol dm^{-3} and 0.25 mol dm^{-3} aniline at constant current density of 2.0 mA cm^{-2} during 1080 s is given in insert of Fig.1. After polymerization, PANI electrode was discharged with current density of 1 mA cm^{-2} , and transferred to another electrochemical cell for further investigation. Six successive cyclic voltammograms ($v = 20 \text{ mV s}^{-1}$) of PANI electrode are shown in Fig.1. Voltammogramms are characterized by constant charge increase as a result of formation of insoluble PANI, while anodic and cathodic correspond to different oxidation forms of PANI.

As seen in insert Fig.1, PANI polymerization occurred at potentials around 0.7 V , meaning that polymerization undergoes through formation of pernigraniline salt. Comparing the polymerization charge of 0.60 mAh cm^{-2} and discharge charge of $\sim 0.14 \text{ mAh cm}^{-2}$, it could be concluded that only 23% of the total mass was available for charge exchange, while rest of the charge refers to formation of inactive PANI oligomers and degradation products.

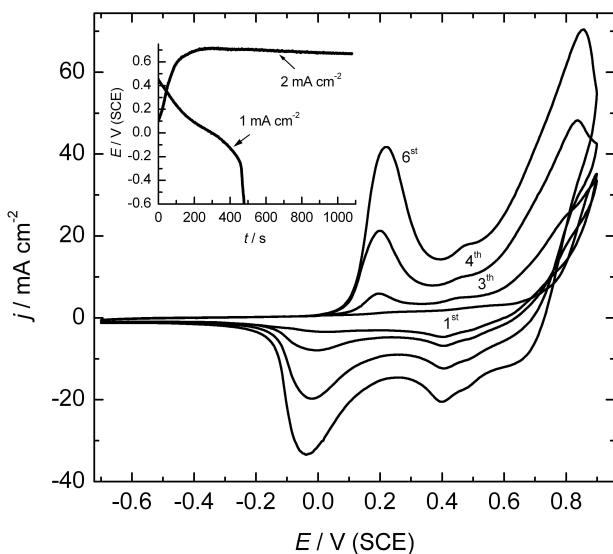


Fig. 1. Galvanostatic curve of electrochemical polymerization of aniline at graphite electrode in $1.0 \text{ mol dm}^{-3} \text{ HCl}$ and 0.25 mol dm^{-3} aniline, $j = 2.0 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$.
Insert: Cyclic voltammogram of PANI electrode in $1.0 \text{ mol dm}^{-3} \text{ HCl}$ and 0.25 mol dm^{-3} aniline ($v = 20 \text{ mV s}^{-1}$).

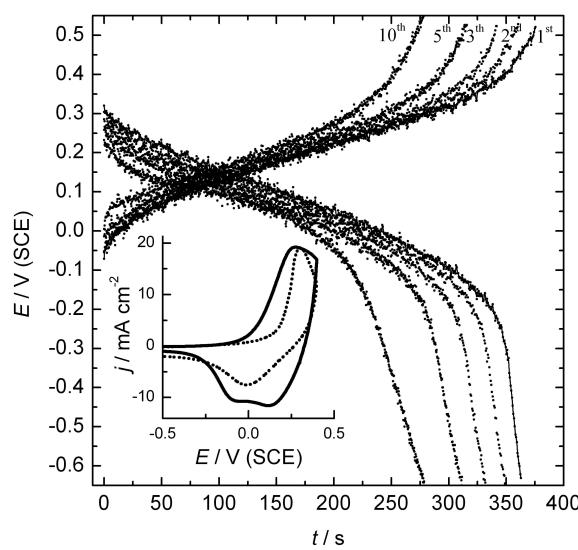


Fig. 2. Charge/discharge curves of PANI electrode during ten cycles, $j = 1 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ in chloride/citrate electrolyte for anodic potential limit of 0.50 V . Insert: cyclic voltammograms: (—)-before and (...) -after ten cycles, $v = 20 \text{ mV s}^{-1}$.

It was previously showed [10] that anodic potential limit had exhibited influence on charge/discharge characteristics of the PANI electrode, resulted in decrease of the electrode capacity during cyclization. Bearing in mind that addition of citrate anions had enhanced characteristics of negative zinc electrode [19], charge/discharge behavior of the PANI electrode were investigated in chloride/citrate electrolyte. In Fig. 2 and in Fig.3 charge/discharge curves of the PANI electrode in chloride/citrate electrolyte during ten cycles obtained by current density of 1

mA cm^{-2} and different anodic potential limits of 0.5 V and 0.32 V are given respectively. Inserts of Fig.2 and Fig.3 show cyclic voltammograms before and after ten cycles of the PANI electrode in chloride/citrate electrolyte.

As seen in Fig.2 and 3, anodic potential limit had great influence on charge/discharge behaviour of the PANI electrode in chloride/citrate electrolyte. For anodic potential limit of 0.5 V (Fig.2) time for charging/discharging constantly decreased over time. As seen in insert of Fig.2, cyclic voltammograms taken before and after ten cycles showed capacity lost, suggesting that strong PANI degradation had occurred. For anodic potential limit of 0.32 V (Fig.3) charge/discharge curves of the PANI electrode in chloride/citrate electrolyte were the same over ten cycles, meaning that electrode capacity remained practically constant. This finding indicates that degradation of PANI had not occurred. As seen in insert of Fig.2, cyclic voltammograms of the PANI electrode before and after ten cycles remained the same, confirming again the fact that there was no PANI degradation during cyclization. It is interesting to mention that charge/discharge capacities of the PANI electrode were almost two times higher in chloride/citrate than in chloride electrolyte (given in dot lines on Fig.3).

The dependences of calculated charge and discharge capacities of the PANI electrode from Fig. 2 and 3 on cycle number is given in Fig.4.

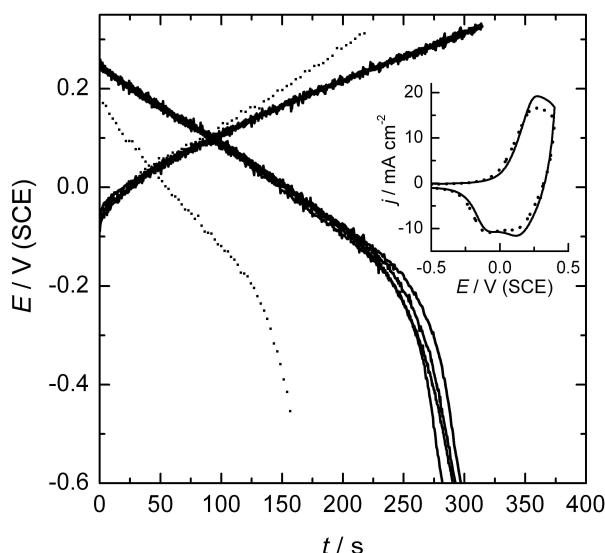


Fig.3. Charge/discharge curves of PANI electrode during ten cycles, $j = 1 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ in chloride/citrate-ful lines and chloride electrolyte-dot lines, for anodic potential limit of 0.32 V., dot lines-chloride. Insert: cyclic voltammograms:(—)-before and (...) -after ten cycles, $v = 20 \text{ mV s}^{-1}$.

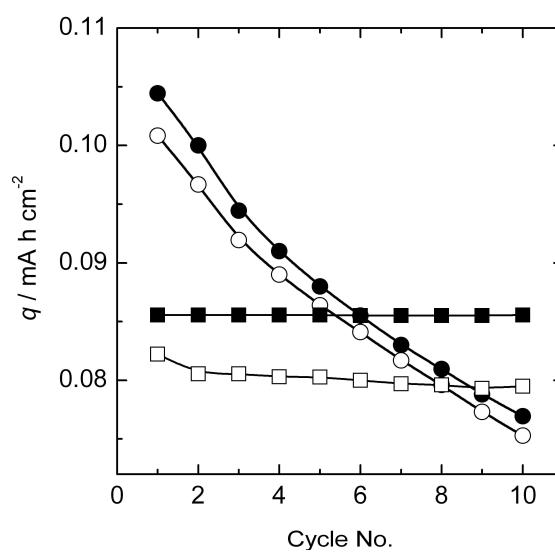
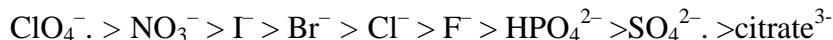


Fig.4. Dependences of PANI electrode capacities on cycle number in chloride/citrate electrolyte, for anodic potential limit of 0.5 V: (●)-charge, (○)-discharge and 0.32V (■)-charge, (□)-discharge. Insert: Columbic efficiency for anodic potential limit of: (●)-0.5 V and (■)-0.32 V.

As seen in Fig.5, for anodic potential limit of 0.50 V, permanent lost (around 25%) of capacity during ten cycles was observed even though the initial capacity was higher than for anodic potential of 0.50 V comparing to 0.32 V. On contrary, there was practically no capacity lost observed for the potential limit of 0.32 V. Since PANI was always polymerized under the same conditions, the decrease of the capacity for higher anodic potential limit of 0.5 V in chloride/citrate electrolyte could be connected to the presence of citrate anions. The effect of the doping anions, proposed by Yang et al. [16] could be attributed to the hydrophobic effect following the Hofmeister series [17]:



According to this, perchlorate ions are the most hydrophobic, citrate ions are the most hydrophilic, while chloride are in the middle. So, it was expected that chloride ions would form relatively stable ion pairs in oxidized PANI film, therefore PANI degradation could be limited to certain degree by dissociation of the ion pair, resulting in slower degradation kinetics of PANI in chloride than in chloride citrate electrolyte.

In Fig.5 cyclic voltammograms of the PANI electrode in chloride, chloride/citrate and in pure citrate (0.3 mol dm^{-3} Na-citrate) are given.

As it can be seen in Fig.5, doping of PANI by anions in all electrolytes started at the same potential of about -0.15 V. Peak potential of emeraldine salt in chloride and chloride/citrate electrolytes occurred at almost same potential of $\sim 0.25 \text{ V}$, while the peak potential in pure citrate electrolyte was shifted for more than 100 mV in positive direction. In chloride/citrate electrolyte doping preceded through broad peak, indicating that both chloride and citrate anions were involved in doping. It could be suggested that at lower potentials doping by chloride occurred, while at more positive potentials doping by citrate anions might have occurred. Comparing the values of the potentials in doping area for chloride and chloride/citrate electrolytes for the same value of current densities, it seems that doping reaction in chloride/citrate was shifted for about 30 mV in negative direction. This negative shift of the potential resulted in higher charge/discharge capacities obtained in chloride/citrate than in chloride electrolyte. On the other hand, in order to avoid fast PANI degradation and decrease in charge exchange ability, it is highly recommended that anodic potential limit during cyclization should not exceed $\sim 0.35 \text{ V}$.

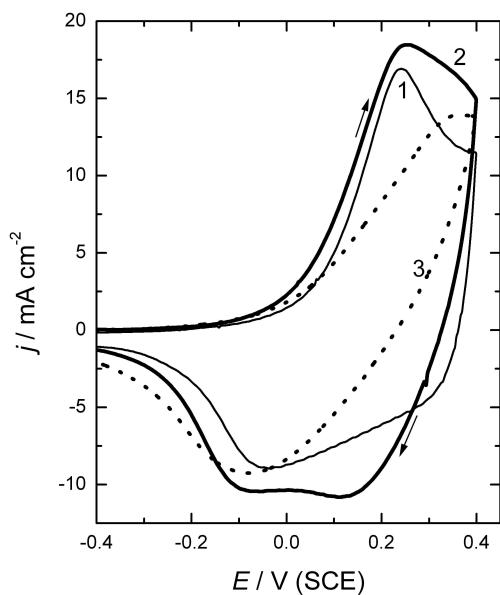


Fig.5. Cyclic voltammograms of PANI electrode in: chloride, 2-chloride/citrate and 3-citrate electrolyte, $v = 20 \text{ mV s}^{-1}$.

4. Conclusion

Electrochemical synthesis of PANI on graphite from aqueous solution of hydrochloric acid containing aniline monomer was performed galvanostatically. The polymerization charge was 0.60 mAh cm^{-2} while discharge charge was $\sim 0.14 \text{ mAh cm}^{-2}$, so it was concluded that only 23 % of the total polymer mass was available for charge exchange, while rest of the charge refers to formation of inactive PANI oligomers and degradation products. Based on electrochemical studies, it was concluded that in chloride/citrate electrolyte both citrate and chloride anions played role in doping. The faster decrease in charge/discharge capacity in chloride/citrate electrolyte compared to chloride for potential limit of 0.50 V was explained by hydrophilic effect of citrate ions, while higher charge/discharge capacities were explained by negative doping potential shift of about 30 mV. It was recommended that charging potential should not exceed 0.35 V .

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ELECTROCHEMICAL POLYMERIZATION OF PROTECTIVE POLYANILINE COATING ON COPPER

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Abstract

Conditions for galvanostatic electrochemical polymerization of protective polyaniline (PANI) coating on copper were investigated. It was observed that uniform film of PANI on copper could be obtained with current density of 1.25 mA cm^{-2} , from aqueous solution containing 0.3 mol dm^{-3} sodium benzoate and 0.2 mol dm^{-3} aniline monomer. Corrosion behavior of PANI coated copper in 3.0% sodium chloride solution was investigated using potentiodynamic and electrochemical impedance spectroscopy techniques. Thin ($5 \mu\text{m}$) PANI coating provided efficient protection (app. 96%), while unusual impedance behavior comparing to conventional organic coatings, was attributed to dedoping of benzoate anions from the coating.

Keywords: aniline, galvanostatic polymerization, copper, corrosion behavior

1. INTRODUCTION

Due to its high electrical and thermal conductivity and excellent formability, copper and its numerous alloys are widely used in industrial applications. Although copper exhibits good corrosion resistance, it corrodes in variety of aggressive environments. The corrosion protection strategy of copper and its alloys is usually based on usage of organic compounds (inhibitors) mainly benzotriazoles, amidotriazole and derivates. Inhibitors provide good protection, however they are quite toxic. In last decade, electroconducting polymers (EPP), in first place polypyrrole (PPY) and polyaniline (PANI) were investigated in various practical fields, including environmental friendly corrosion protection. Although both chemical and electrochemical oxidative polymerization are able in obtaining ECP, electrochemical synthesis is favorable permitting direct polymer film synthesis on metal surface without oxidizing agent. Generally, the basic problem in electrochemical polymerization of ECP on copper is occurrence of two competitive processes on anode: electrochemical synthesis and deposition of ECP and dissolution of copper on potentials necessary to oxidize the monomer. Therefore, it would be necessary to use electrolytes that can passivate copper and permit electrochemical polymerization. Although PANI, due to lower price of its monomer seems more challengeable, most of the studies were devoted to use of PPY [1-3], and only few to application of PANI and derivates in corrosion protection of copper and its alloys [4]. Since, it is evident that there is interest in application of PANI in corrosion protection of copper, the aim of this work was to consider conditions for electrochemical synthesis of protective PANI on copper from sodium benzoate electrolyte, which was proven to be efficient electrolyte for electrochemical synthesis of PANI on steel and aluminum [5,6].

2. EXPERIMENTAL

Potentiodynamic anodic polarization curves of copper electrode were recorded at scan rate 0.5 mV s^{-1} , in 0.3 mol dm^{-3} sodium benzoate without and with addition of 0.2 mol dm^{-3} aniline. Electrochemical synthesis of polyaniline (PANI) film on copper was performed by electrochemical polymerization from aqueous solution of 0.3 mol dm^{-3} sodium benzoate and 0.2 mol dm^{-3} aniline. The polymerization of aniline on copper sheet ($S = 2.0 \text{ cm}^2$) was achieved under galvanostatic conditions using current density range between 0.50 and 1.25 mA cm^{-2} . Before all experiments, copper electrode was first mechanically abraded by fine emery papers and then by polishing alumina on polishing cloths, traces of the polishing alumina were removed from the electrode surface ultrasonically. Potentiodynamic measurements and electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) were used for corrosion studies of copper electrode and PANI coated copper electrode in 3.0% sodium chloride solution. In order to avoid the edge effects, the surface area of the copper and PANI coated copper electrode used in corrosion measurements was reduced to 1.0 cm^2 . In all experiments standard three compartment electrochemical cell was used. Copper and PANI coated copper electrode served as working, standard calomel (SCE) as reference and platinum wire was used as counter electrode. EIS measurements were performed at open circuit potentials in the frequency range between 50 mHz and 100 kHz , while below 5 Hz the fast Fourier technique (FFT) was used. The EIS experiments were performed using PC controlled PAR263A potentiostat/galvanostat connected to PAR frequency response detector FRD100.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1 Electrochemical polymerization

Optimal concentration of sodium benzoate for electrochemical polymerization of aniline on copper was estimated from previously recorded anodic polarization curves of copper electrode in different concentration of sodium benzoate. In order to monitor the course of anodic polymerization of aniline, anodic polarization curves of copper electrode in 0.3 mol dm^{-3} sodium benzoate with addition of 0.2 mol dm^{-3} aniline, were recorded and presented in Fig. 1.

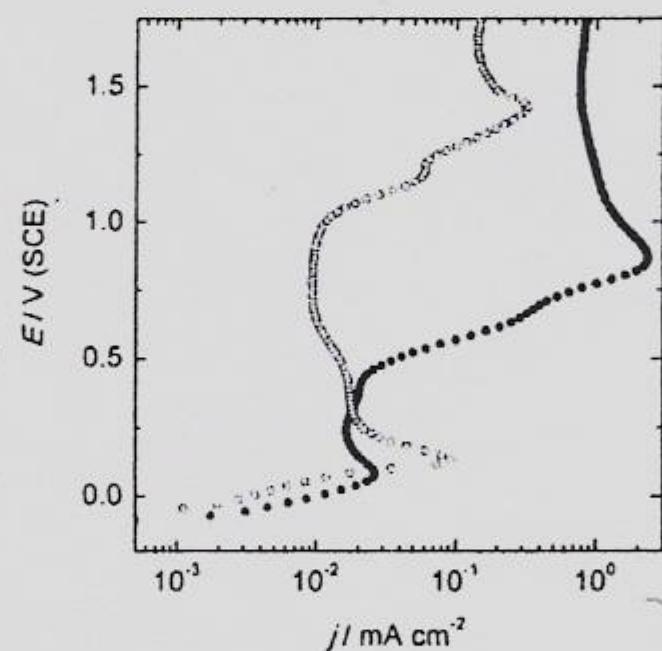


Figure 1. Potentiodynamic anodic polarization ($v = 0.5 \text{ mV s}^{-1}$) curves of copper in: (○) - 0.3 mol dm^{-3} sodium benzoate and (●) - 0.3 mol dm^{-3} sodium benzoate and 0.20 mol dm^{-3} aniline

The presence of aniline shifted open circuit potential of copper for $\sim 50 \text{ mV}$ in the negative direction, connected to anodic inhibitory effect of absorbed aniline monomer. After short passivation of copper, in aniline containing electrolyte, polymerization started at potentials more positive than 0.4 V (SCE) and proceeded up to the potential of 2.5 V (SCE). The observed pick at $\sim 0.7 \text{ V}$ (SCE) could be connected to existence of polyaniline in the form of pernigraniline salt, at potentials more positive than $\sim 2 \text{ V}$ (SCE), slow oxygen reduction reaction was observed.

Chronopotentiometric (galvanostatic) curves of electrochemical polymerization of aniline on copper electrode from aqueous solution of 0.3 mol dm^{-3} sodium benzoate and 0.2 mol dm^{-3} aniline, using different current densities during 1000 s are given in Fig.2.

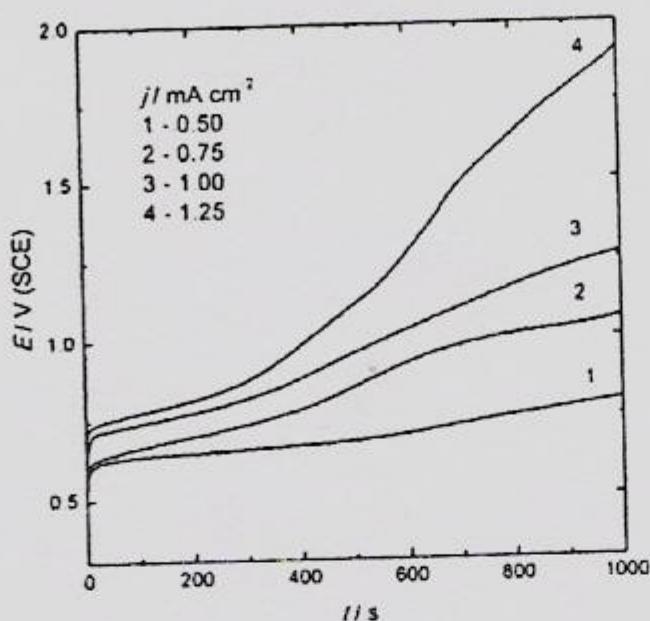


Figure 2. Galvanostatic polymerization of aniline on Cu electrode from 0.3 mol dm^{-3} sodium benzoate and 0.2 mol dm^{-3} aniline solutions using different current densities

Since, the completely uniform PANI films were obtained using higher current densities and in order to achieve lower extent of degradation, polymerization current density of 1.0 mA cm^{-2} was used in further experiments.

3.2 Corrosion studies

Potentiodynamic polarization curves ($v = 0.5 \text{ mV s}^{-1}$) of copper and copper coated by electrochemically deposited PANI film, after 24 h of immersion in 3.0 % NaCl are given in Fig.3.

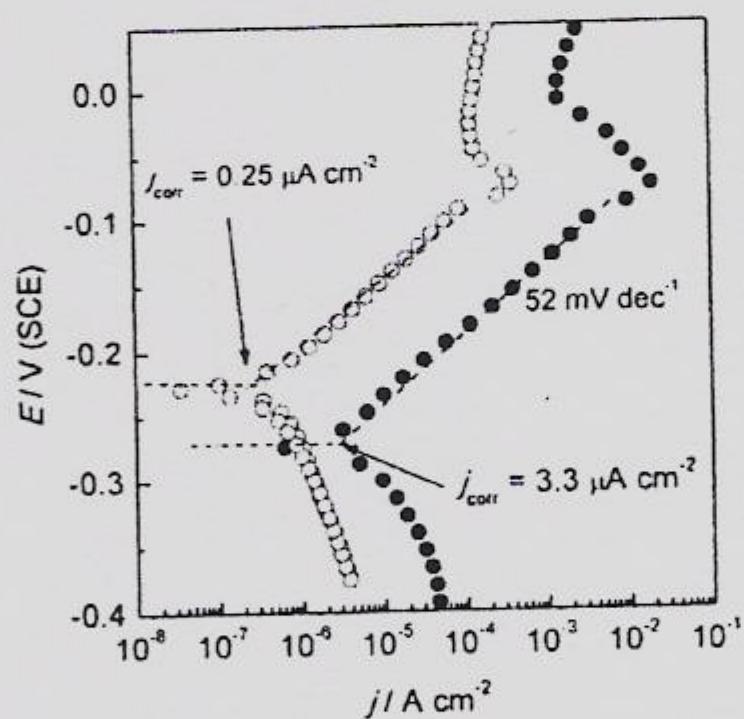
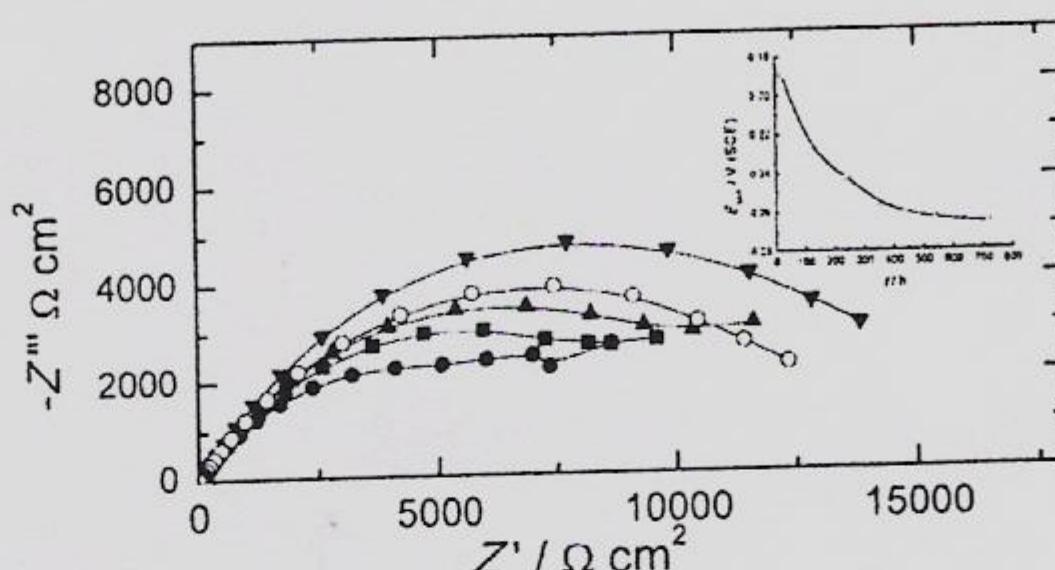
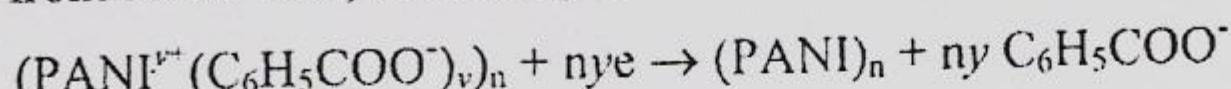


Figure 3. Potentiodynamic ($v = 0.5 \text{ mV s}^{-1}$) polarization curves of:
 (●) - Cu and (○) - PANI coated Cu in 3.0 % NaCl

Anodic polarization curves of copper and PANI coated copper are both under activation control, characterized by the Tafel slope of $\sim 54 \text{ mV dec}^{-1}$, connected to anodic dissolution of copper, while cathodic polarization curves are under mixed activation-diffusion control of oxygen reduction. The corrosion potential of pure copper was, $E_{\text{corr}} = -0.270 \text{ V (SCE)}$, while corrosion potential of PANI coated copper was $E_{\text{corr}} = -0.225 \text{ V (SCE)}$. Corrosion current densities were determined as intercept of anodic Tafel lines with corrosion potential. The protection efficiency of PANI was estimated to 96 %.

Complex plane spectra of PANI coated copper taken at different times of exposure in 3.0 % NaCl are given in Fig.4, while the time dependences of the corresponding open circuit (corrosion) potential, at which the impedance spectra were given in Insert.

The overall impedance of PANI coated copper, unusually to conventional organic coatings, firstly increased. The increase of the impedance might be a consequence of cathodic dedoping of benzoate anions from PANI film, according to:



*Figure 4. Complex plane impedance spectra of PANI coated Cu after:
 (●) - 120 h, (■) - 240 h, (▲) - 360 h, (▼) - 540 h and (○) - 720 h of exposure to 0.5 mol dm⁻³ NaCl.
 Insert: Time dependences of corresponding open circuit potentials.*

Dedoping lead the lost of the PANI film conductivity, reflected in the increase of the overall impedance. Since the shift of the open circuit potential to more negative values is characteristic of dedeoped state the observed decrease in corrosion potentials (Insert of Fig.4), also confirms the assumption of the dedoping process. After observed increase, the overall impedance of PANI started to decrease slowly, meaning that PANI started to act as conventional organic coating enabling barrier corrosion protection of the metal surface.

4. CONCLUSION

Electrochemical synthesis of PANI on copper was successfully performed from aqueous sodium benzoate solution containing aniline. PANI thin coating had provided high protection efficiency to copper. Based on potentiodynamic and EIS measurements, corrosion process of PANI coated copper in NaCl can be explained by the same processes of copper anodic dissolution and cathodic oxygen reduction occurring in parallel with slow cathodic dedoping of the benzoate anions from the PANI film, after dedoping, PANI coating started to act like conventional organic coating.

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ELECTROCHEMICAL WATER TREATMENT DEVICES

Tomislav Trišović, Branimir Jugović, Milica Gvozdenović, Jasmina Stevanović, Branimir Grgur

Abstract

Drinking water treatment plays an important role in maintaining public health. Chlorine is the most often disinfectant used for microbiological protection of water. Required residual chlorine concentration must be in treated water. The chlorine residual must be 0.5 mg/L at the entrance into the distribution system and 0.25 mg/l at consumers, according to the law. Any less and there is no guarantee that the water has adequate quality. The characterization of chlorinated by-products, particularly THMs (three-halo-methane's). The risks related to THMs formation force the community to look for alternative water sources, treatment methods or disinfectants. As an alternative disinfectant, ultraviolet germicidal irradiation (UV) commonly used in preoxidation. This study presents the results of combination UV and chlorine disinfection.

Key Words: water disinfection, water chlorination, UV disinfection

I. OVERVIEW OF THE EXISTING TECHNOLOGIES FOR WATER DISINFECTION IN THE WORLD

Four different technologies for water disinfection are used nowadays in the world:

- disinfection with gaseous or liquid chlorine;
- disinfection with ozone;
- disinfection with hypochlorite solution produced by the electrolysis of 3% solution of sodium chloride;
- disinfection with chlorine-dioxide (ClO_2).

The oldest and the most exploited one, which is known as conventional, is the disinfection with gaseous or liquid chlorine. During the last two decades ozonation has also been used, while only recently the other two technologies were used. The biggest producers of the equipment for the water treatment in the world (CAPITAL CONTROLS, WALLACE & TIERNAN, PROMINENT, TRAILIGAZ, etc.) mainly possess all mentioned technologies for water disinfection. The basic characteristics, i.e. the advantages and disadvantages of all technologies are given in Table 1.

The possible solution of the above given problem is removal of organic matter (formation of three-halo-methane's during the chlorinating) by strong and unstable oxidants in pre-treatment, and than application of oxidants with longer residual effect in main treatment. (1,2,3) Raw water firstly enters into device for magnetic treatment distorting the solvate shells of magnesium and calcium ions. After magnetic treatment, water enters photo-catalytical reactor in which several metastable compounds are formed.

The ultraviolet (UV) oxidation process is designed to destroy dissolved organic contaminants (4,5) through an advanced chemical oxidation process using ultraviolet radiation and hydrogen peroxide. Hydrogen peroxide is added to the contaminated water, and the mixture is fed into the treatment system. The treatment system contains one or more oxidation chambers. Each chamber contains one high-intensity UV lamp, mounted in a quartz tube. The contaminated water flows in the space

between the chamber wall and the quartz tube in which each UV lamp is mounted. UV light catalyzes chemical oxidation of organic contaminants in water by its combined effect upon the organic substances and reaction with hydrogen peroxide. First, many organic contaminants that absorb UV light may undergo a change in their chemical structure or may become more reactive with chemical oxidants. Second and more importantly, UV light catalyzes the breakdown of hydrogen peroxide to produce hydroxyl radicals, which are powerful chemical oxidants. Hydroxyl radicals react with organic contaminants destroying them and producing harmless carbon dioxide, halides, and water byproducts. The process produces no hazardous by-products or air emissions. The hydrogen peroxide oxidation equipment includes circular wipers attached to the quartz tubes. These wipers periodically remove solids that may accumulate on the tubes; a feature designed to maintain treatment efficiency.

Table 1. Advantagees and disadvantagees of the existing technologies for water disinfection

TECHNOLOGY	ADVANTAGES	DISADVANTAGES
Gaseous, or liquid chlorine	Very successful disinfection Relatively low cost of exploitation Medium investment expenses Removal of ammonia compounds from water	Risk of chlorine leaking during the transport and storage of gaseous chlorine (ecological catastrophe) Necessity of trained workers for handling Impossibility of storage of higher amount of gaseous chlorine Chlorinating plants must be located out of the towns Formation of three-halo-methane's during the chlorinating
Ozone	Very successful disinfection Production of ozone on the site of the ozonization Absence of three-halo-methane's in treated water Ecological technology	Very high investment expenses Very high cost of exploitation Necessity of trained workers for handling Short time of activity of ozone as a disinfectant (about 1h - it is usually combined with some other technology of disinfection, e.g. chlorinating)
Hypohlorite (HIPOGEN®)	Very successful disinfection Production of hypochlorite on the site of the chlorinating Ecological technology Removal of ammonia compounds from water Low cost of exploitation Medium investment expenses Possibility of storage of salt for a long time of exploitation (0.5 to 1 year) Unnecessity of trained workers for handling Completely operation automatized	Formation of three-halo-methane's during the chlorinating

	<i>Possibility of remote control</i>	
chlorine-dioxide ClO ₂	Very successful disinfection Production of ClO ₂ on the site of the chlorinating There is no formation of three-halo-methane's	Very high investment expenses Very high cost of exploitation Necessity of import of the raw materials for ClO ₂ production Impossibility of storage of higher amount of raw materials It does not remove ammonia compounds from water

Characteristics are mainly given for the system HIPOGEN®.

The chemical oxidation process in the hydrogen peroxide oxidation system is dependent upon a number of reaction conditions that can affect both performance and cost. The process variables that are related to the contaminated water condition are:

- Type and concentration of organic contaminant
- Total organic substances present
- Light transmittance of the water (turbidity or color)
- Type and concentration of dissolved inorganic substances (e.g., carbonates and iron)
- pH.

The process variables that are related to the treatment process design and operation are:

- UV and hydrogen peroxide dosage
- pH and temperature conditions
- Use of supplementary catalysts treatment mode (batch, recycle, or continuous).

After UV treatment and separation column, water is subjected to further treatment in two electrochemical reactors. One reactor serves for production of noble metal ions, while other produces ions of active chlorine (6).

Hipogen provides on site production of sodium hypochlorite, on demand from brine, which is safer to store than chlorine gas. Additionally when bulk salts are used the process requires no chemical handling. Up to 1kg capacity of equivalent chlorine per hour. Efficient operation giving 1kg of equivalent chlorine from as little as 2,5-3kg of salt (NaCl). Comprehensive alarm specification combined with a mimic control panel offering easy identification of system faults. Minimal maintenance requirements.

HIPOGEN presents a real alternative to gaseous chlorine, enabling completely safe disinfection with lower expenses. It can be used for drinking water disinfection, for waste textile and food industry waters treatments and also for swimming poll water disinfection.

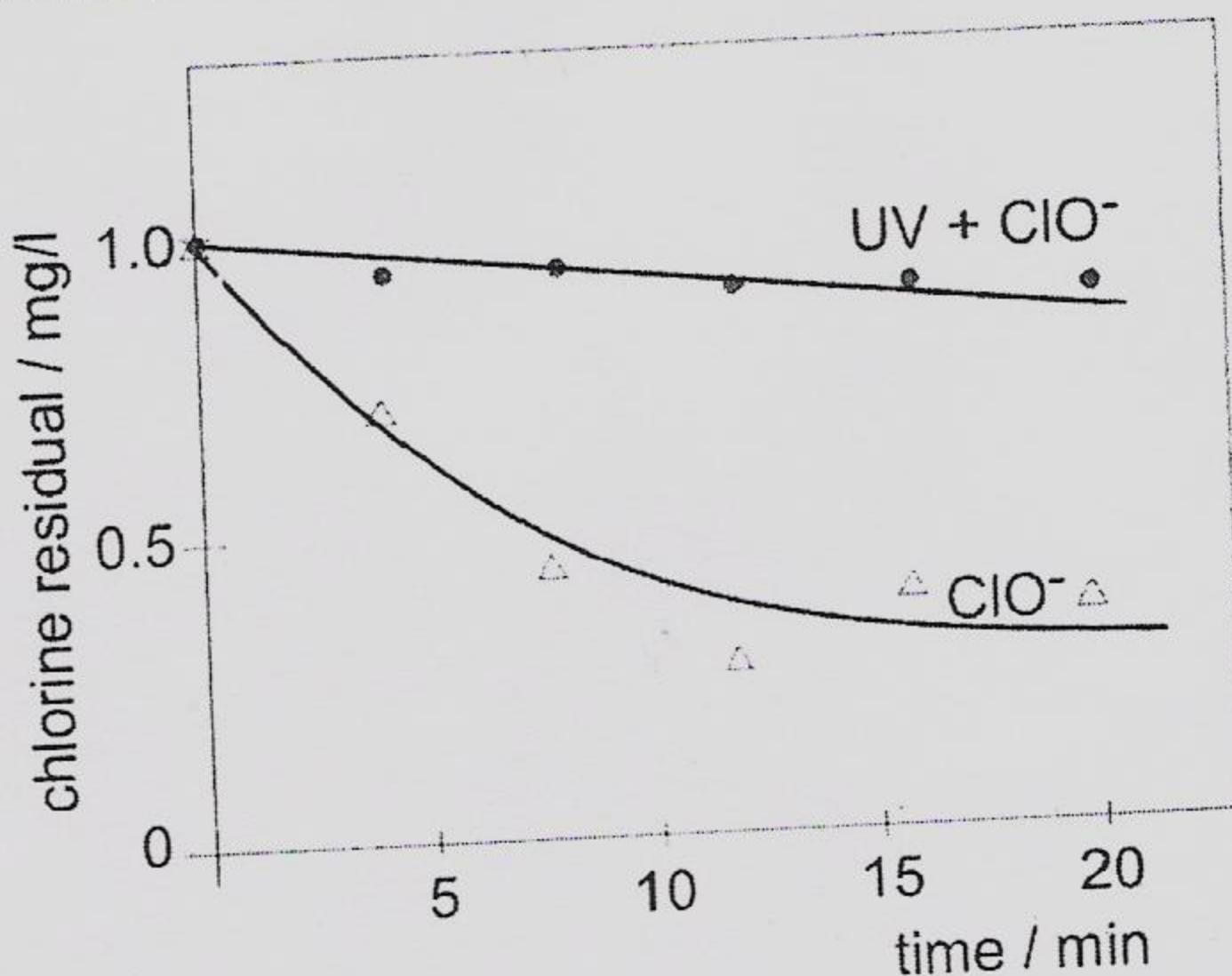


Figure 1. Experimental results for chlorine residual distribution in drinking water mains of "Obrenovic tim" Dobanovci a) UV irradiation (preoxidation) after that chlorination ClO^- b) only chlorination ClO^-

CONCLUSION

From the characteristics presented in this work it could be concluded that on site water chlorination combination with UV ray, has several advantages over the other technologies, with the most important one being ecological aspect of this technology.

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MODIFICATION OF THE DYNAMICS CHARACTERISTICS USING A REANALYSIS PROCEDURES TECHNIQUE – NEW RESULTS

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ABSTRACT

The present paper deals with the problem of dynamic improving characteristics for a sub-structure (bucket wheel excavator) of a complex mining structure. The procedure used in this paper is concerned with the analysis of the distribution of potential and kinetic energy in every element of structure, which gives prediction for which elements need reanalysis. Reanalysis technique can be done for the structure using finite element methods. Therefore, some information like material, size, and boundary conditions should be prepared before FE model is constructed. Because the optimum structure design has high natural frequency, the main aim of dynamic modification is to increase natural frequencies and to increase the difference between them.

Key words: Structural dynamic modification, reanalysis, FEM, eigenvalues, design variables

1. OVERVIEW OF THE EXISTING TECHNOLOGIES FOR WATER DISINFECTIONS

Dynamic analysis is more complex than static analysis, and the design requirements must include dynamic properties such as vibration level, resonance range, response properties, eigenvalues, dynamic stability and modal forms. To avoid dynamic problems, some modification will be done for structure in process of reanalysis. Reanalysis is a technique through which the dynamic response of the structure is improved. Finite element method is a powerful method to perform these processes using simple procedures. Modelling of complex structures using finite elements method is a helpful approach in solving problems in short time with reliable results.

The procedure of reanalysis depends on the concept of energy distribution through the structure. Study of the energy distribution leads to finding out the right place, which will be conducted by some modifications to improve the eigenvalues of the structure. Therefore, determination of distribution of kinetic and potential energies on the elements of whole structure is the main step in the reanalysis procedure. Complex structures need several steps during the analysis to reach the most accurate results. Starting with initial rough analysis of a structure which is followed by the precise analysis based on the sensitivity of each element of the structure. The improvement of dynamic characteristics, during the reanalysis steps, can be achieved by making some adjustment to the structure such as

geometrical modifications, material properties and boundary conditions. The process of analysis is done using a computer program, based on the using of finite element methods and the implementation of structure energy distributions. The distributions of potential and kinetic energies of elements of the whole structure give a clear view to the problem, which help to make appropriate decision for structure modifications. The decision of the final modification can be made according to the structure dynamic behaviour during reanalysis steps and its obtained results. Several studies have been addressed to the subject of modal reanalysis and structure dynamic modifications [1-6]

2. THEORETICAL CONSIDERATION

For the system with no damping and no external force, the equation of motion in the matrix form is:

$$[M] \cdot \{\ddot{Q}(t)\} + [K] \cdot \{Q(t)\} = \{0\} \quad (1)$$

Then, the eigenvalues of the previous differential equation for r-th mode can be expressed as:

$$[K] \cdot \{Q_r\} - \lambda_r [M] \cdot \{Q_r\} = \{0\} \quad (2)$$

Where λ_r - is the r -th eigenvalue, and Q_r - is the r -th eigenvector for the structure.

Now, by multiplying the left side of equation (2) by transposed value of r -th eigenvector and divided by 2 one can get:

$$\frac{1}{2} \{Q_r\}^T [K] \{Q_r\} = \frac{1}{2} \lambda_r \{Q_r\}^T [M] \cdot \{Q_r\} \quad (3)$$

Equation (3) is the balance equation of potential and kinetic energy for a structure in main modes of oscillation. Furthermore, the potential energy of a structure on r -th main oscillation mode, having in mind the previous equation, can be rewritten as:

$$E_{p,r} = \frac{1}{2} \{Q_r\}^T [K] \{Q_r\}. \quad (4)$$

In the same way, the kinetic energy is:

$$E_{k,r} = \frac{1}{2} \lambda_r \{Q_r\}^T [M] \{Q_r\}, \quad (5)$$

For free vibration case the modified system can be describe by a modified equation (perturbation equation) as:

$$[K]' \{Q_r'\} = \lambda_r' [M]' \cdot \{Q_r'\} \quad (6)$$

After some manipulations and neglecting the higher order terms, the change of i-th eigenvalue under system modification can be expressed as:

$$\frac{\Delta \lambda_r}{\lambda_r'} = \frac{\frac{1}{2} \{Q_r\}^T [\Delta K] \{Q_r\}' - \frac{1}{2} \lambda_r' \{Q_r\}'^T [\Delta M] \{Q_r\}'}{\frac{1}{2} \lambda_r' \{Q_r\}'^T [M]' \{Q_r\}'} \quad (7)$$

Where $[\Delta K]$ and $[\Delta M]$ are the corresponding changes in stiffness and mass matrices respectively, and $\Delta \lambda$ and $\{\Delta Q_r\}$ are changes of eigenvalues and eigenvectors, respectively. The previous equation has an important definition to understand the procedures of reanalysis and to define the position of elements that require modifications to improve the dynamic behavior of the structure. Because the denominator has the same value, the numerator is the main interest of analysis. Consequently, the modification (increase/decrease structure rigidity or mass) which will be done for the structure depends on the sign value of numerator in equation (7). The main point of improving dynamic behavior of the structure is increasing its natural frequencies and maximizing the interval between adjacent natural frequencies. Hence, study of energy distribution will be done for each element in the structure to determine places of modification. The main point of improving dynamic behavior of a structure is increasing its natural frequencies and maximizing the interval between adjacent natural frequencies. This request, as previously mentioned, can be achieved by changing the design parameters of the structure. The

procedure used in this paper is developed in PHD thesis [8] and concerned with distribution of potential and kinetic energy in all elements of structure. Calculations of main modes of oscillation were performed using KOMIPS software [7]. Structure has a good dynamic behavior when its first eigenvalue is high and the interval between adjacent eigenvalues is large.

2. DEMONSTRATION EXAMPLE

Crane bucket wheel excavator is a truss structure associated with one hand stationary hinge connection on the other lamella, which can be characterized as a elastic support. The dynamic behavior of the said excavator boom is interesting, because the natural frequencies and low stick close together and close to the frequency of coercive force digging. The figures 1 and 3 show the first and third main form of oscillation excavators and distribution of energy of the excavator boom, and on the basis of changes in the energy interval can be located segments for the modification of arrows. In this case it is technically feasible stiffening structure by adding new elements to the energy difference between the highest places.

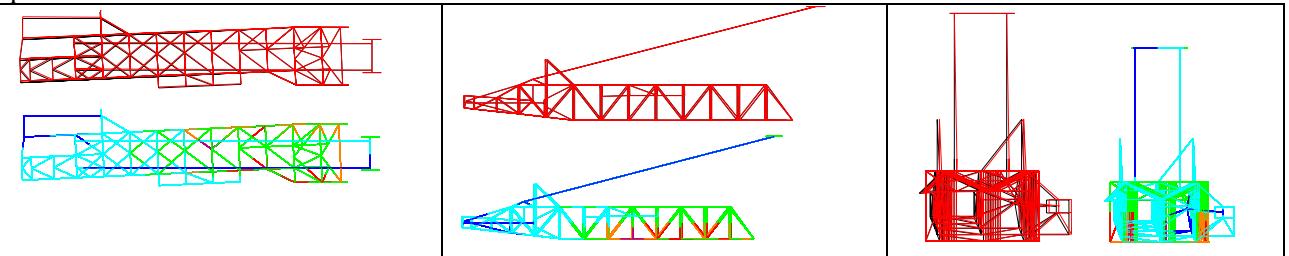


Figure 1. The first major form of oscillating boom bucket wheel excavator in the first frequency, $f_{01} = 1.6$ Hz. Diagram of distribution differences of potential and kinetic energy ($E_p - E_k$) [kNcm].

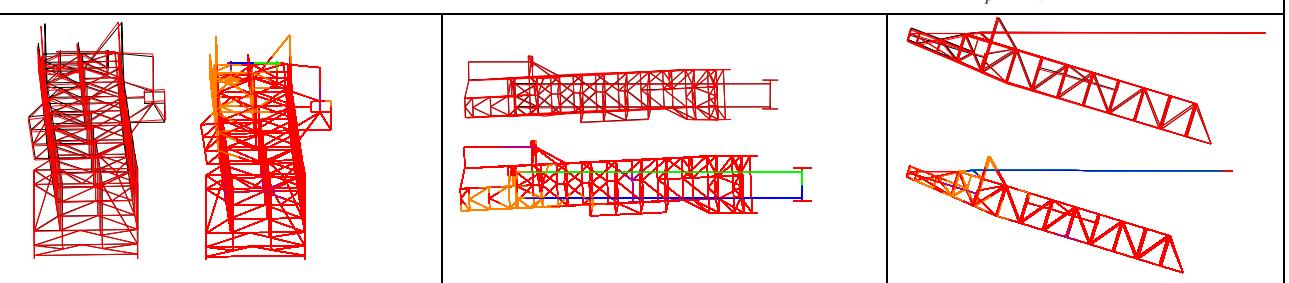


Figure 2. The third major form of oscillating boom bucket wheel excavator in the second position. The third frequency is $f_{03} = 1.6$ Hz. Diagram of distribution differences of potential and kinetic energy ($E_p - E_k$), boom bucket wheel excavators for the second position observed, III form of oscillation [kNcm].

Two kinds of the models are used in analysis. First one is initial, unmodified model and second one is arbitrary, uniformly modified model. It is important to note that changes must be small. Distributions of the increment difference of potential and kinetic energy evaluated for the arbitrary, uniformly modified structure and unmodified.

3. CONCLUSIONS

Studying the dynamic behavior of structures can be predicted responses due to changes in its shape, size or design elements change materials. The main goal of dynamic optimization is to increase natural frequencies and to increase the difference between them. Especially, the lowest frequencies are the most interesting and those whose values are close to frequency excitation force in the system.

Consequently these are further characteristic areas:

- I The elements with kinetics and potential energy, which values are negligible comparing to other elements.
- II Elements with the kinetics energy greater than the potential energy.
- III Elements with the potential energy greater than kinetics.
- IV Elements with kinetics and potential energy, which values are not negligible comparing to other elements.

By observing diagrams of the distribution difference of the increment potential and kinetic energy on the modes shape of interest, modification can be suggested. The application of mentioned procedure of real structures shows its practical side.

4. ACKNOWLEDGMENT

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UNIVERSAL MODULAR DEVICE FOR ELECTROCHEMICAL SYNTESIS OF THE DISINFICANT

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ABSTRACT

For the water disinfections practically four different technologies (chlorine, ozone, hypochlorite, chlorine dioxide) are used nowadays in the world. The oldest and the most exploited one, so called conventional, is the disinfection with gaseous or liquid chlorine. The biggest producers of the equipment for the water treatment in the world mainly possess all mentioned technologies for water disinfections. It is easy to conclude that the technology of water disinfections with the hypochlorite solution produced by the electrolysis of 3% solution of sodium chloride on the site of water chlorination is not only the most convenient from the point of economical aspects, but also from the point of the ecological aspect.

Keywords: water disinfections, water chlorination, *in situ* water chlorination, hypochlorite production.

1. OVERVIEW OF THE EXISTING TECHNOLOGIES FOR WATER DISINFECTIONS

The four main chemical substances used for the water disinfection nowadays in the world are:

- disinfection with gaseous or liquid chlorine;
- disinfection with ozone;
- disinfection with hypochlorite solution produced by the electrolysis of 3% solution of sodium chloride;
- disinfection with chlorine-dioxide (ClO_2).

The oldest and the most exploited one, which is known as conventional, is the disinfection with gaseous or liquid chlorine. During the last two decades ozonation has also been used, while only recently the other two technologies were applied. The biggest producers of the equipment for the water treatment in the world (CAPITAL CONTROLS, WALLACE & TIERNAN, PROMINENT etc.) mainly possess all mentioned technologies for water disinfection.

2. UNIVERSAL MODULAR DEVICE FOR ELECTROCHEMICAL SYNTESIS OF THE DISINFICANT

System comprises: hypochlorite reactor (electrolyzer), reactor storage tank, hypochlorite storage tank, rectifier with control panel for automatic control of operation, hypochlorite dosing pump,

electromagnetic valve, and ventilation system. This type of electrochemical generator is designed with upper, reaction, and lower, reception tanks, while between is modular electrolyzer, as shown on Figure 1. Above reception tanks two or more modular reactors in which dilute solutions of sodium chloride is converted in active chlorine by electrochemical reaction. Before electrolysis reaction tank is filed with water and specified quantity of sodium chloride. After starting, mixer prepares 3% NaCl solution in reaction tank followed by automatically connection of electrolyzer. After 60 h, electrolysis is finished, power supply is automatically switched off and active chlorine solution is ready for simply manual transfer in reaction tank and use by applying micro dosing pump. At the mean time, reception tank is again manually filed with water and specified quantity of sodium chloride. By this procedure, reception tank always contains some extra volume of active chlorine for unexpected situations.

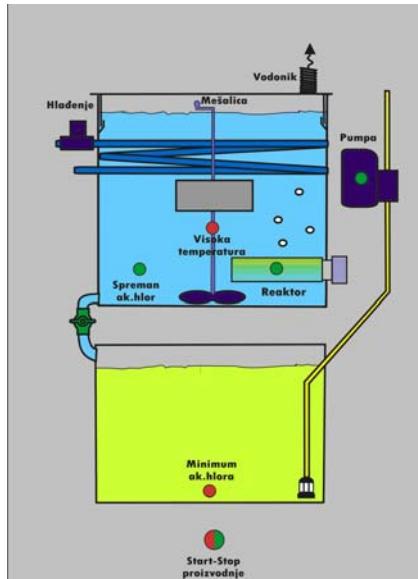


Figure 1. Schematic representation of the modular charge electrochemical generator for automatic production and dosing disinfectants with self cleaning electrodes

Basic components of MCEG

1. Modular electrolyser - reactor
2. Switch temperature
3. Reactor tank
4. Hypochlorite storage tank
5. Heat exchanger
6. Electromagnetic valve
7. Fan pipeline
8. Switch level
9. Dosing pump

Depending on the capacity of the devices a salt reactor tank can contain from 200 dm³ to 1000 dm³ of 3% NaCl. It should be refilled with the 3% NaCl every 15 – 60 days, depending on the capacity. Into the reactor tank which was previously filled with water from fountain, 6 to 30 kg crystals of common table salt-NaCl are added. By using the manual stirrer, salt is mixed until the complete dissolution of the salt. On the end of this operation, setting of the cover provides complete isolation of solution from the environment by the water valve. The only way to the solution to come into contact with air from atmosphere is through ventilating system. On the bottom of the reactor tank, 1 to 8 reactor modules depending on the capacity are placed. The temperature sensor is placed below the reaction modules. If the temperature go over the certain value, electromagnetic valve will active the function of the spiral heat exchanger in the reaction vessel. An electromagnetic valve closes after decreasing of the temperature, and consequently the process of cooling stops. These whole processing steps are necessary due to maintain the electrochemical reaction in optimal conditions which provides maximum efficiency. Gaseous hydrogen, produced on the cathode during the electrolysis, is vented out by the ventilation system. A temperature switch is also placed in the generator, switching off the system in the case of possible increase of the electrolyte temperature over the upper limit. The characteristics of the hypochlorite storage tank can contain from 200 dm³ to 1000 dm³ of 1,4% NaOCl. One switch are placed in the tank. When the hypochlorite level reaches the low-level switch, the brine pump and the rectifier are automatically being switched off and devices automatically being

stopped (alarm low level hypohlorite). Depending on the system capacity, the characteristics of the rectifiers are:

Voltage - 2 - 20 V; current - 0 - 160 A.

The operation of the rectifier is automatically controlled from the control panel. These pumps were made of materials resistant to the very aggressive solutions such as NaCl and NaOCl solution.

Among the capacities given in this brochure, we can produce our system which can satisfy much higher needs for equivalent chlorine, up to 10 kg per day. Such system comprises all other elements except the reactor tank and hypochlorite storage tank, which are to big and must be placed separately.



Figure 2. Picture of the modular charge electrochemical generator for automatic production and dosing disinfectants and with self cleaning electrodes

3. PRINCIPLE OF THE DEVICE FUNCTION

Into the reactor tank which was previously filled with water, crystals of NaCl are added. By using the manual stirrer, salt is mixed until the complete dissolution of the salt. On the end of this operation, setting of the cover through vessel provides complete isolation of solution from the environment by the water valve. Electrolysis process starts by pressing of the button START. Evolution of the chlorine on the anode undergoes to hydrolysis forming hypochlorite ions, until evolution of hydrogen occurs on the cathode and consequently throw the evolved gas into the atmosphere. Considering fact that part of electric energy is transform into the heat, spiral heating exchanger with water circulation is installed in the reaction tank. Circulation of the refrigerate fluid (water) is automatically provided by the measurements of the temperature during electrolysis. If the temperature go over the certain value, electromagnetic valve is opened until refrigerate fluid cooling the reaction solution to the certain stringer temperature, when is closed again. The device is turn off after 40 to 200 hours of constantly function, when the hypochlorite solution is ready to transfer by gravity into the hypochlorite tank. By using pump, the hypochlorite from the tank is dosing water in order to obtain disinfection. In addition, new batch is filled with reaction solution and parallel, new electrolysis-production of hypochlorite starts, too. After whole amount of the hypochlorite in the hypochlorite tank is consumed, alarm of low level of the present hypochlorite is turn on, which inform manipulator of the device about the situation and interrupt function of the pump. All stages in function of the device are connecting by internet and GSM net and are possible to send all the information about operating state of the device to the person in charge for the supervision or distance controller of the device.

The modular charge electrochemical generator is less expensive, trustful, drinking water disinfectant sources (based on the diluted hypo-chlorite solution) designed for the low population suburban areas. The electrochemical generator consist the preparation-reaction tanks, with adjustable volume depending on the required quantities of disinfectants, and the electrolyser. The electrolyte is prepared in the reaction tanks, filling with water up to the marked volume and adding required mass of commercially available sodium chloride. After manual adding of the required mass of sodium

chloride, the electrolyte should be manually mixed with stirrer while whole sodium chloride was dissolved (less than five minutes), and electrolysis units should be start up, simply by pressing start-up button on external power supply. Depending on electrolyte volume, electrolysis can take 40 to 80 hours. During electrolysis, if the temperatures cross the certain value, the cooling of the electrolyte is automatically applied.

By applying the automatic mode of the electrolysis (reverse current at the certain times) the electrodes could be cleaned from carbonate deposits which is the main problem for the efficiency in such types of electrolyzers.

After the electrolysis is completed, the dechlorinated solution is transferred into the storage tank, and used due to the requirements (using the dosing pump and active chlorine sensors).

REVERSE DSA (dimension stable electrodes) is predicted to work for anodic, as well as for cathodic reaction, so water softening is not necessary. Hence, by using this system, expensive ion exchange columns and their regeneration are avoided. This type of electrolyzers is designed for water-works and water pools where constant control and measurements of active chlorine concentrations is necessary due to the regulations. This installation is in trial use.

Technological scheme of the device with signal and alarm positions is placed on the control board. Green light bulb is indication of work of the device respective component. Suitable element of the device is not in function if there is no green light on the board. Alarming situations (unsuitable temperature, low level of hypochlorite) are assigned with red light bulb. Function of the device is normal if there is no indication of red light. Red light beside sensor element indicates switching off of the device and it will show light to the length of the manual reset of the device.

By pumping the water with 0.3% of NaCl from water units through mechanical (sand) filters and electrolyzer small amount of active chlorine is produced, which is used for continual disinfections of water in the rest of the water units. Power consumption is as small as 30 to 80 Wh.

4. CONCLUSION

This solution represents a confident technological answer which could be applied for synthesis of different organic and non-organic compounds. Innovation solves the problem of electrochemical synthesis obtainment with usage of modular reactor of simple construction which provides technical support during function of the device, as well.

The system can be applied for water disinfections, in disinfections of accessories in food and meat industry. The devices are attested and represent the lowest price devices for in site disinfections, comparing with similar ones which can be found at the market.

5. ACKNOWLEDGMENT

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THE INFLUENCE OF CURRENT DENSITY ON CHARGE/DISCHARGE CHARACTERISTICS OF POLYANILINE ELECTRODE

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ABSTRACT

Polyaniline (PANI) was electrochemically synthesized on graphite electrode galvanostatically from aqueous solution of 0.25 mol dm⁻³ aniline and 0.5 mol dm⁻³ p-toluenesulfonic acid. Charge capacity available for the exchange and the total theoretical weight of polyaniline polymerized on graphite electrode was determined. Characterization polianiline electrode was performed by cyclic voltammetry in 0.5 mol dm⁻³ HCl. Based on the PANI electrodes behavior during the cyclization, was tested the possibility of practical application of polyaniline doped p-toluenesulfonic acid as the anode material of secondary electrochemical power sources.

INTRODUCTION

Conducting polymers (CP) is very interesting group of polymers due to their specific characteristic including electrical conductivity, mechanical strength, corrosion resistance and the possibility of their chemical and electrochemical synthesis. Therefore, the study of the synthesis, structure and properties of these materials in the world pays special attention to the last twenty years. CP have found application in microelectronics, optoelectronics, the active protection of metals and alloys from corrosion and, lately as electrode materials for application in electrochemical energy sources [1].

Although the CP can be synthesized an the chemical and electrochemical oxidative polymerization, electrochemical synthesis is better because its performance is not the oxidizing agent is used directly in its conductive form [2]. CP can be electrochemically synthesized by different techniques: cyclic voltammetry, potentiostatic and galvanostatic technique. The most applicable is galvanostatic technique that allows control of polymerization in terms of thickness and morphology of the deposit.

The best known systems that are used in electrochemical energy sources using electrolytes based on aqueous solutions of the systems are composed of polymers based in polyaniline (PANI) in combination with electronegative metals (usually zinc) [3-10]. PANI is very interesting because of its unique charge transfer, an interesting behavior in aqueous solutions and features that no adverse impact on the environment. Although it appears that these systems can meet most of the 3-E criteria (Energetic, Economic and Environmental): energy (high specific and volumetric capacity), economic

(low cost of developing and maintaining a large number of cycles), the criteria of Environmental protection (intoxic, energy efficiency, ease of recycling) are the main factors of efficiency of electrochemical power sources [11-12], these systems have found practical application. The main reason is the appearance of degradation of polyaniline [13, 14].

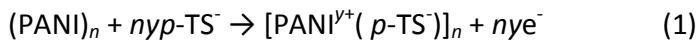
The aim of this paper is to investigate the influence of the current density on charge/discharge characteristic of polyaniline electrode.

EXPERIMENTAL

Polyaniline on graphite electrode was formed by anodic polymerization from aqueous solution of 0,5 mol dm⁻³ p-toluensulfonic acid and 0.25 mol dm⁻³ aniline at constant current density of 2.0 mA cm⁻². Prior to use aniline (p.a. Aldrich) was distilled in argon. The working electrode was first mechanically polished with fine emery papers (2/0, 3/0 and 4/0) and then with polishing alumina (1µm Banner Scientific Ltd.) on polishing cloths (Buehler Ltd.). The traces of the polishing alumina were removed from the electrode surface ultrasonically during 10 min. After polymerization, PANI electrode was dedoped with current density of 1.0 mA cm⁻², washed with bidistilled water and then investigated in 0.5 mol dm⁻³ HCl. The characterization of p-TS doped polyaniline was firstly characterized by cyclic voltammetry using different scan rates. The efficiency of charge/discharge process was investigated using different discharge current densities in the range of 0.25 – 2.0 mA cm⁻². The experiments were carried out in three compartment electrochemical cells. Saturated electrode served as reference, while platinum foil was used as counter electrode. All electrochemical experiments were performed using GMRY PC3 potentiostat/galvanostat controlled by PC.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Aniline electropolymerization on graphite electrode from 1.0 mol dm⁻³ HCl and 0.25 mol dm⁻³ aniline at constant current density of 2.0 mA cm⁻² during 1080. Electrochemical polymerization of aniline occurs together with insertion of *p*-toluen sulfonic anion (doping) according to:



After synthesis, electrode was discharged (dedoped) in the same solution. From the ratio of the charge delivered during discharge and the charge used for the synthesis it could be concluded that 30% of the overall mass is available for the current exchange.

Fig. 1. shows cyclic voltammograms of polyaniline electrode obtained using different scan rates in the potential range between -0.6 and 0.6 V vs. SCE.

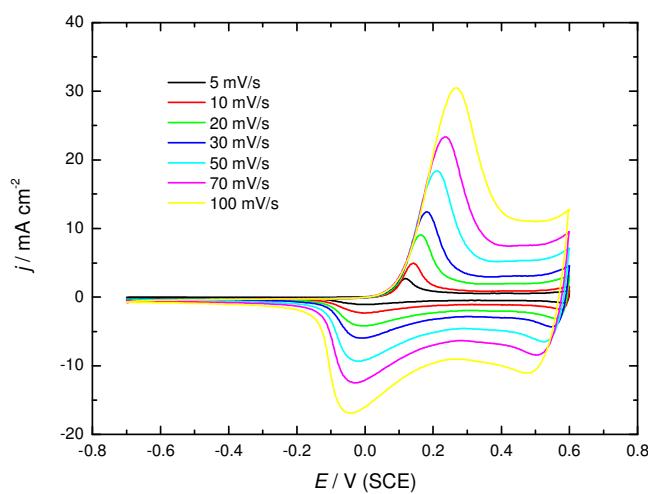


Fig. 1. Cyclic voltammograms of polyaniline electrode in 0.5 mol dm⁻³ HCl obtained by different scan rates (as marked in Fig.) in the potential range – 0.7 – 0.6 V.

From the data displayed at Fig. 1, dependences of peak current on square rt. of scan rate is given on Fig. 2.

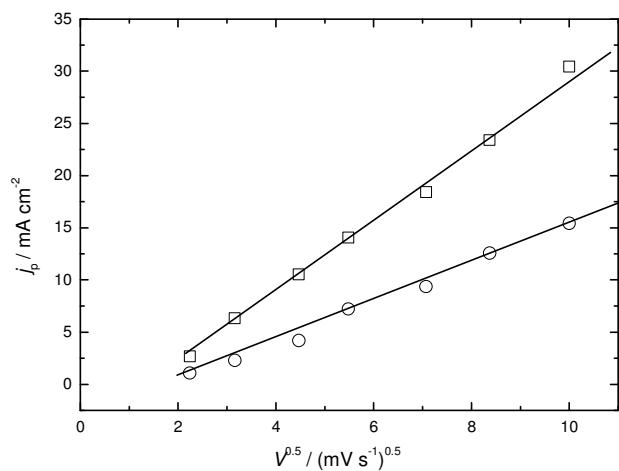


Fig. 2. Dependences of peak currents on square rt. of scan rate.

Linear dependences of current peak on sq. rt. of scan rate is linear indicating diffusion control of ions doping/dedoping process.

Polyaniline was subjected to charge / discharge by different current densities in the range of 0.25 to 2.0 mA cm⁻², charging process was performed until potential of 0.5 V was reached, while discharge was performed to potential of -0.4 V, and data are given in Table 1. and in Fig. 3.

Table 1. Charge and discharge time and capacities obtained by different current densities.

$j = 0,25 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$		
	Charge	discharge
t / s	1540	1520
$Q / \text{C cm}^{-2}$	0,385	0,380
$j = 0,5 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$		
	charge	discharge
t / s	810	790
$Q / \text{C cm}^{-2}$	0,405	0,395
$j = 0,75 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$		
	charge	discharge
t / s	590	550
$Q / \text{C cm}^{-2}$	0,442	0,412
$j = 1,0 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$		
	Charge	discharge
t / s	370	350
$Q / \text{C cm}^{-2}$	0,370	0,350
$j = 1,5 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$		
	charge	discharge
t / s	280	250
$Q / \text{C cm}^{-2}$	0,420	0,375
$j = 2,0 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$		
	charge	discharge
t / s	190	170
$Q / \text{C cm}^{-2}$	0,380	0,340

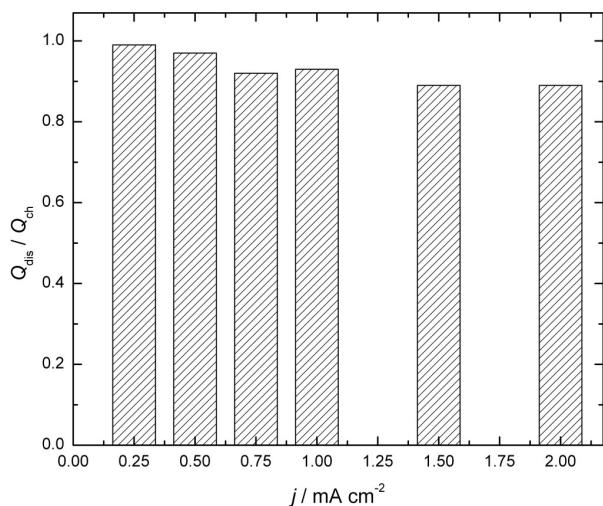


Fig 3. Calculated discharge/charge capacities ratio of polyaniline electrode in 0.5 mol dm^{-3} HCl, obtained by different current densities in the range of $0.5 - 2.00 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$.

As it could bee seen from both Table1 and Fig. 3. Maximum efficiency of charge/discharge process expreced as ratio of discharge and charge capacities was achieved at low current densities of 0.25 (practically all the charge is delivered during discharge process, $Q_{\text{dis}} / Q_{\text{ch}} \sim 100 \%$) after which the discharge/ charge ratio is lowered but remained constant with current densities in the range of $0.50 - 2.0 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$. This investigation is still in progress but obtained results suggested that polyaniline doped by *p*-toluen sulfonic acid could be considered as interesting material for rechargeable power sources.

CONCLUSION

Polyaniline electrode was successfully obtained by galvanostatic deposition of polyaniline from aqueous *p*-toluen sulfonic acid electrolyte containing aniline. Polyaniline electrode was investigated by cyclic voltammetry galvanostatic charge/discharge. It was observed that polyaniline doped by *p*-toluen sulfonic anion could be considered as anodic material for electrochemical rechargeable power sources.

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DISTILLATION PRODUCTS OF STANLEY PLUM OBTAINING

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Summary: The sort of plum used for distillation is Stanley picked in August 2013 in Gračac, Vrnjačka Banja, Serbia. 200 kg of ripe fruit was fermented with 40 dm³ of potable water. Wine was removed from the obtained product, and the solid part was washed with water. The mixture of wine and water, 240 dm³ was distilled to a soft brandy, where 36 dm³ was obtained with 30 % of the ethanol. After that, this soft brandy was redistilled after 44 dm³ of potable water was added. By this procedure, 20 dm³ with 50 % of the ethanol was distilled, which means that the yield was 10 dm³ of a brandy for 100 kg of plums.

Keywords: Stanley plum, fermentation, distillation, distillate, brandy.

1. INTRODUCTION

Serbia is a country well known for a large number of autochthonous plum sorts, the most famous are "požegača" and "crvena ranka". However, due to the problems with dry weather and pollution, now the most common is the imported Stanley sort. It is a high quality industrial sort, very useful and important in food industry – dried fruits, marmelades and fruit juices, as well as a high quality brandy. Domestic productions of the plum brandy are also well known and popular [1]. Unfortunately, this popular domestic procedures are often flawed by the inadequate equipment and low hygienic conditions, resulting with a product of the low quality.

The development of new distilleries of higher capacity would raise the quality of local plum brandy, so they could be successful on both domestic and international market. Contribution of the "know-how" on obtaining of the high quality of plum fruit distillate, plum brandy, is presented in this study. The distillation process was followed by measuring of the ethanol concentration, and the aim was obtaining of a high quality distillate and the presentation of concentration profile of the ethanol in a fractions of distillate and in a residue.

2. STANLEY PLUM

Stanley is the USA plum sort, dating 1912. It becomes ripe in the second half of August and in September, and it is generally resistant to dry, hot weather and viruses. The attractive appearance, with large fruits of dark blue color adds to the quality and high yield adds to its popularity. According to standards, brandy is the alcoholic beverage with at least 25 %, and at most 80 % of the ethanol. It is produced by fermentation and then distillation of a substrate, fruit, vegetables or cereal [2, 3].

3. PLUM BRANDY PRODUCTION

The production of plum brandy starts with fruit picking, their fermentation, then distillation and leaving the distillate to rest for sometime in order to obtain a quality product. The fruit is picked when it reaches the technological ripeness, with the optimal concentration of sugar and fruit acids, which can be confirmed by chemical analysis and morphological appearance. The fermentation, anaerobic degradation of carbohydrates to the ethanol and the carbon-dioxide is catalyzed by selected sorts of yeasts. The mechanism of the carbohydrate conversion is a complex one [4, 5]. In dry years, like 2013, the high level of sugar, fruit acids, and microelements enables successful fermentation by the yeasts which exist on the fruit skin, and such method can be carried out in a domestic production. The next phase, distillation, is based on mixture separation based on a different boiling points. The parameter which describes the concentration of the certain component in the mixture is the rectification coefficient $K_{ir} = K_i/K_r$, where K_i and K_r are coefficient of vaporization of components i and r . For multicomponent alcoholic beverages, it is the relation between ethanol (r) and other components (i). Components with $K_{ir} > 1$ have higher volatility than the ethanol, and those with $K_{ir} < 1$ have lower volatility than the ethanol. As it is empirically determined, the latter fraction usually damages a flavor and quality of beverage and should be removed from distillate. As too many components influence on K_{ir} , it has no standard value. Knowing the boiling points of different components, the fractions can be successfully separated. The so-called soft brandy, obtained by first distillation, is then redistilled, which is the key to obtaining a high quality brandy with an attractive flavor as a product [6]. The freshly made brandy is then laid to rest in a glass bottles or wood barrels, mostly made of the oak. Leaving the brandy in wood barrels leads to the faster loss of volatile components, but also of methanol which is harmful and deteriorates the brandy quality. The oxidation and partial decomposition of some components leads to the formation of various tasteful secondary aromas, like vanillin, which can only raise the quality of the beverage. That is why more than 10 years old brandy, left in a wood barrel, is often of a supreme quality.

4. EXPERIMENTAL

The sort of plum used for distillation is Stanley picked in August 2013 in Gračac, Vrnjačka Banja, Serbia. 200 kg of ripe fruit was fermented with 40 dm³ of drinking water. It was fermented for 24 days on 16–18 °C. The anaerobic conditions are obtained by adequate closing of the fermentation barrels. After the fermentation was complete, the wine was drained and the solid residue was washed with water added to the wine, resulting in 240 dm³ of liquid mixture ready for distillation. The distillation process is divided in two steps – soft brandy production and redistillation. The distillation was carried out in a boiler 120 dm³ heated by solid fuel, Figure 1.

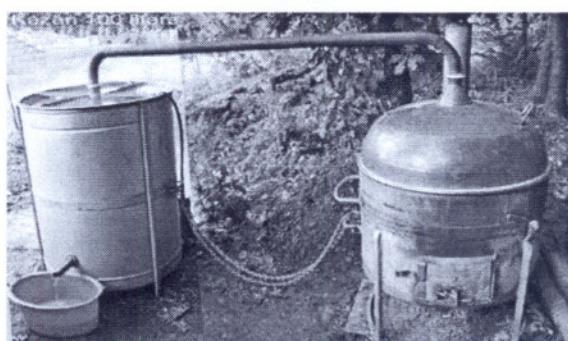


Figure 1: Distillation boiler

The boiler was filled with 120 dm³ of distillation mixture and heated. First fraction, about 0.2 dm³ was discarded. The process was continued with 9 fractions, each about 2 dm³, which were tested by the standard for the concentration of ethanol by the n-Richter Tralkles T15 C device. After measurement, the fractions were mixed giving the distillate which concentration of the ethanol was measured again.

5. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results of the measurement of ethanol concentration are given in Table 1. The phase diagram [7,8] was made based on the equilibrium data from which the concentration of ethanol in the boiler can be read from the concentrations in fractions, presented in Figure 2. Based on the data from Table 1, the concentration profile curves $c = f(v)$ for the basic distillation were made, and they are presented on Figure 3 and the concentrations in different phases in Table 2.

Table 1: Equilibrium data for the ethanol–water system for basic distillation

Temperature, °C	Ethanol liquid, % v	Ethanol vapor, % v
100.062	0	0
97.216	3.170	33.878
95.099	6.204	45.669
93.260	9.111	53.042
91.677	11.898	58.141
89.173	17.141	64.704
87.353	21.987	68.715
86.005	26.477	71.423
83.827	36.385	75.585
82.496	44.759	78.165
81.555	51.931	80.094
80.836	58.142	81.684
80.268	63.572	83.073
79.813	68.361	84.338
79.446	72.616	85.523
79.152	76.421	86.659
78.918	79.844	87.770
78.734	82.940	88.873
78.592	85.753	89.985
78.485	88.321	91.126
78.406	90.674	92.319
78.345	92.839	93.596
78.292	94.836	94.999
78.227	96.685	96.568
78.192	97.387	97.244
78.148	98.069	97.942
78.092	98.731	98.646
78.059	99.055	98.994
78.023	99.374	99.335
77.985	99.689	99.665
77.961	100	100

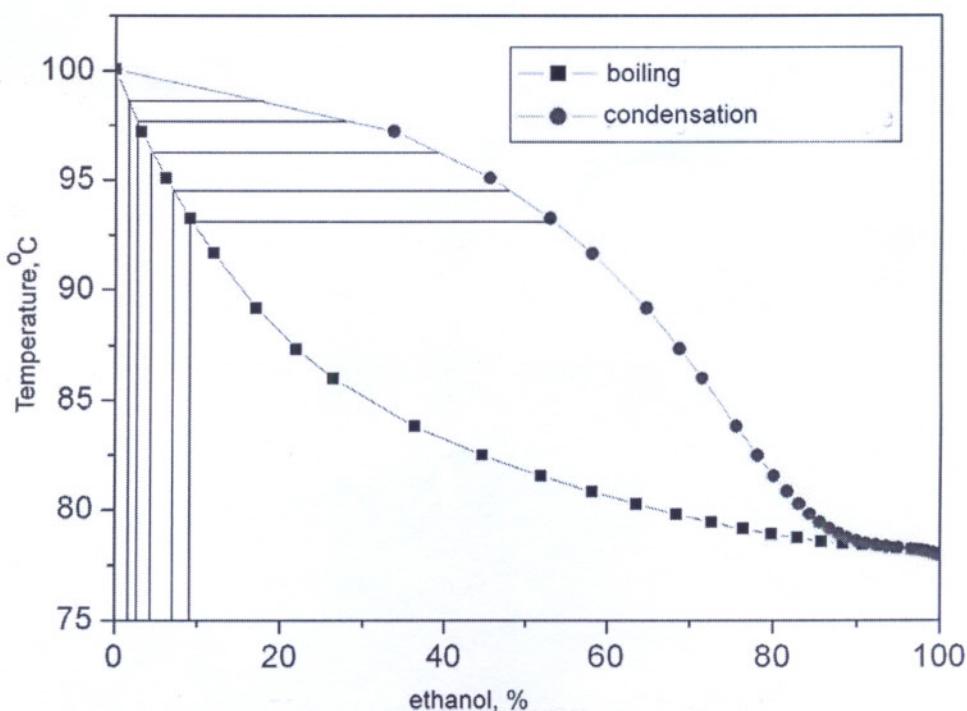


Figure 2: Phase diagram ethanol–water for the basic distillation

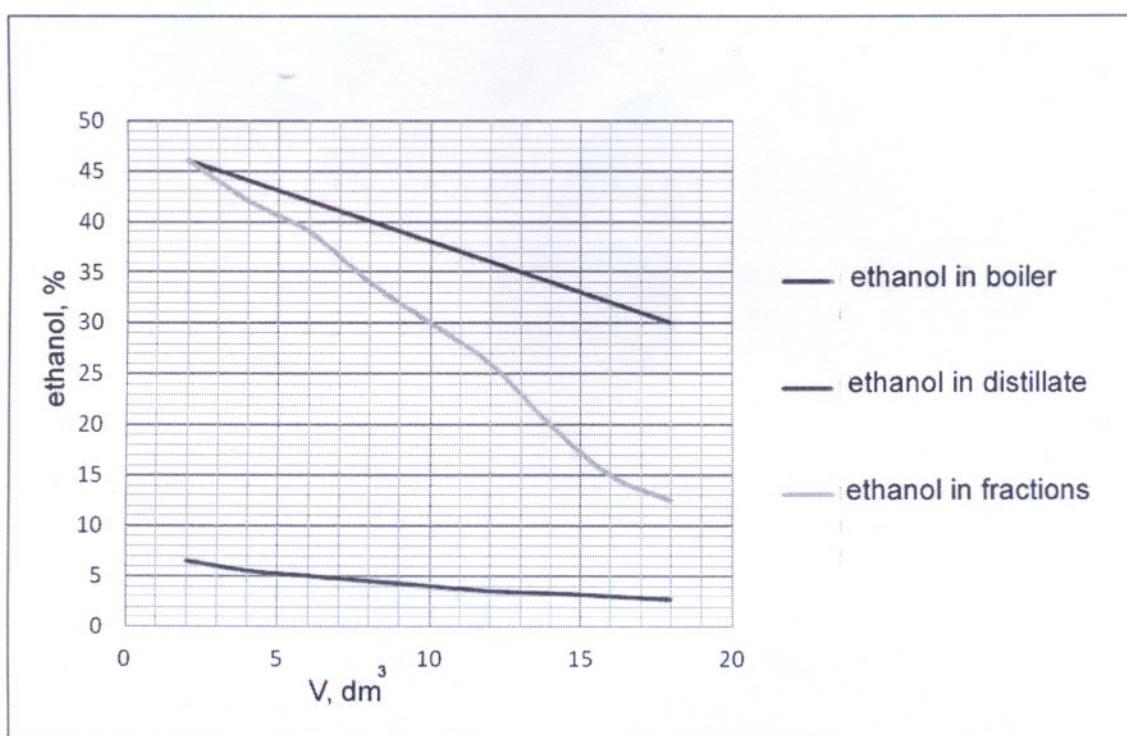
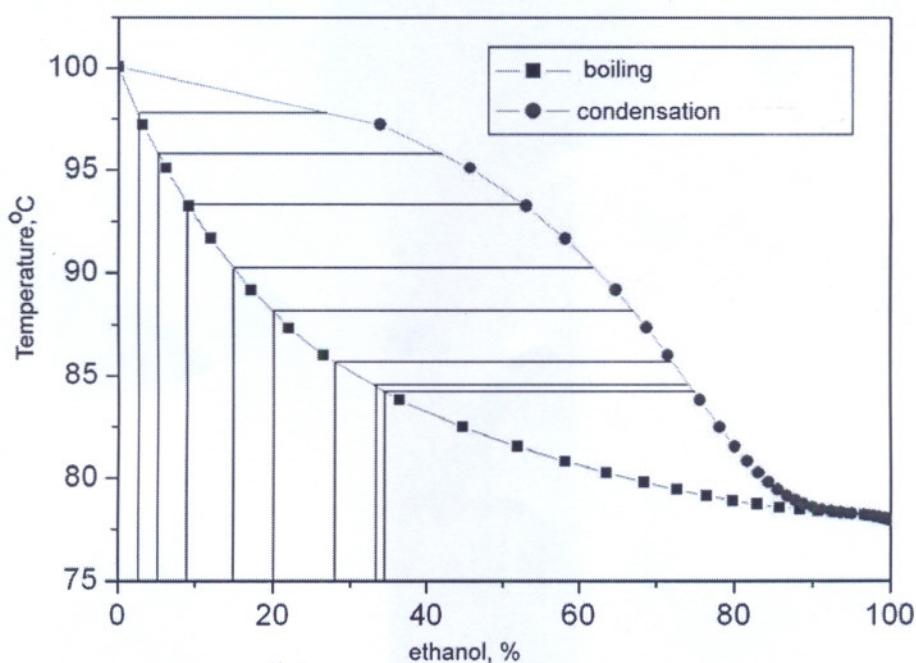


Figure 3: Concentration profile for basic distillation

The distillate obtained (so-called soft brandy) was 36 dm³, it was diluted with 44 dm³ of potable water and then redistilled in the same boiler. The first fraction of 0.3 dm³ was discarded, then 8 fractions were separated, about 5 dm³, and the concentration of ethanol was measured. The fractions were successively mixed giving the distillate in which the concentration of ethanol was measured again. Based on the concentrations of the ethanol in fractions, the concentrations in boiler were read from the phase diagram for redistillation, Figure 4. The concentrations of ethanol in the boiler, fractions and distillate are given in Table 3. Based on Table 3, the corresponding concentration profile curves were made, $c = f(v)$, Figure 5.

Table 2: Ethanol concentrations for basic distillation

V (dm ³)	Ethanol in boiler, %	Ethanol in fractions, % v	Ethanol in vapor, % v
2	6.50	46.00	46.00
4	5.50	42.00	44.00
6	5.00	39.00	42.00
8	4.50	34.00	40.00
10	4.00	30.00	38.00
12	3.50	26.00	36.00
14	3.30	20.00	34.00
16	3.00	15.00	32.00
18	2.70	12.50	30.00

**Figure 4:** Phase diagram ethanol–water for the redistillation**Table 3:** Ethanol concentrations for redistillation

V (dm ³)	Ethanol in boiler, %	Ethanol in fractions, % v	Ethanol in vapor, % v
5	13.50	60.00	60.00
10	11.00	55.00	57.50
15	9.50	48.00	54.33
20	7.50	37.00	50.00

The curves of concentration profile for ethanol in the distillate and in fractions point the decrease of the ethanol concentration during basic distillation and redistillation. The decrease of the ethanol concentration in the fractions is considerably sharper than in the distillate. The range of concentrations for basic distillation and redistillation is defined by the starting concentration of ethanol, which can be seen from the phase diagrams and concentration curves. Based on Table 3, the yield of 10 dm³ of 50 % of the ethanol is determined for 100 kg of Stanley plum.

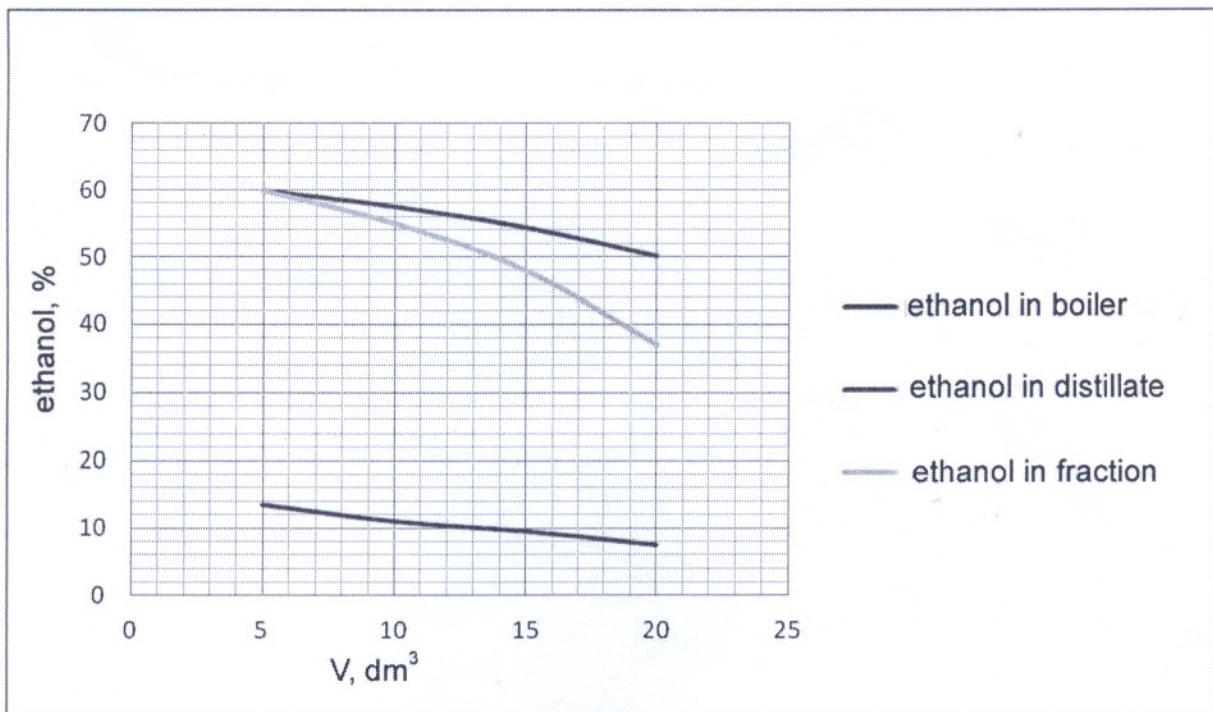


Figure 5: Concentration profile for redistillation

6. CONCLUSIONS

Using the equilibrium data of the water–ethanol binary system for a distillation, the concentration profile of the differential distillation can be determined. The concentration profile of the ethanol in fractions and in the distillate points the fact that the end of distillation can be more precisely determined from the fraction concentrations, as the change of that concentration is much faster at the end of a distillation process. The distillation products of a high purity and high ethanol concentration can be obtained in the classic boiler, so the production of a high quality plum brandy is possible in the domestic production.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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Electrochemical determination of ascorbic acid using electrochemically deposited polyaniline

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Introduction

Electroconducting polymers are promising materials to be used in various fields including: batteries, capacitors, electronic devices, corrosion, biosensors and sensors[1,6]. Polyaniline is probably the most investigated electroconducting polymer, due to low cost monomer, conductivity, environmental stability. Polyaniline can be obtained by chemical or electrochemical oxidative polymerization of aniline. Electrochemical synthesis is performed in anodic process directly from acidic aqueous electrolyte containing aniline. Polyaniline can be used as electrode material for electrochemical determination of ascorbic acid based on electrocatalytic oxidation of ascorbic acid.

Experimental

Electrochemical oxidative polymerization of aniline at graphite electrode was carried out galvanostatically, from acidic aqueous solution of 1.0 mol dm^{-3} HCl (p.a. Merck) containing 0.20 mol dm^{-3} aniline (p.a. Fluka). In order to estimate the optimal conditions for electrochemical formation of polyaniline (PANI) modified graphite electrode, both cathodic and anodic chronoamperometric curves, obtained at different current densities were recorded.

Prior to polymerization aniline was distilled in argon atmosphere, while cylindrical graphite electrode, inserted into Teflon holder, was mechanically polished by fine emery papers (2/0, 3/0 and 4/0, respectively) and polishing alumina ($1\mu\text{m}$, Banner Scientific Ltd.) on polishing cloths (Buhler Ltd.), the traces of the alumina were removed ultrasonically during 5 min.

Electrochemical characterization of PANI modified graphite electrode was performed by cyclic voltammetry (CV) in the potential range of -0.3 1.0 V (SCE) with different scan rates in buffered solution containing $10.0 \cdot 10^{-3} \text{ mol dm}^{-3}$ L-ascorbic acid. Stock solution of L-ascorbic acid, (p.a. Merk) was prepared in phosphate buffer solution (PBS), 0.1M at pH 6.8.

The dependence of the current signal on ascorbic acid concentration was evolved from linear scanning voltammetry (LSV) results, recorded at scan rate of 20 mV s^{-1} . The solutions with different concentration of ascorbic acid were obtained by diluting of the stock solution with PBS

All experiments were carried out at ambient temperature ($23 \pm 1^{\circ}\text{C}$) in three compartment electrochemical cell. Standard calomel electrode (SCE) served as reference electrode (all potentials in the text were referred to SCE), while Pt wire was used as counter electrode. The experiments were performed using SP-300 BioLogic Science Instruments, potentiostat/galvanostat connected to PC.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Electrochemical synthesis of PANI on graphite electrode

Electrochemical synthesis of polyaniline was performed galvanostatically with different current densities between 0.5 to 3.0 mA cm^{-2} , during 600s. In order to estimate the amount of conductive form of polyaniline i.e. emeraldine salt, all electrodes were discharged with the same current density of 1.0 cmA^{-2} (dedoped) in the same solution. The dependence of discharge and polymerization capacities ratio (which corresponds to amount of conductive form PANI, i.e. emeraldine salt) on polymerization current density is given in Fig. 1. The ratio decrease with increase of the polymerization current density, probably as a result of increase of the amount of formed nonconductive pernigraniline and degradation products due to higher potentials. Since the best results were obtained when polymerization was performed with 1.0 mA cm^{-2} , this current density was used in further experiments.

In order to estimate the optimal time of polymerization, electrochemical polymerization of aniline was performed at current density of 1.0 mA cm^{-2} during 300, 600, 900, 1200 and 1500 s. After polymerization, the electrodes were discharged with the same current density and ratio of discharge and polymerization charge was evaluated and presented in Insert of Fig 1.

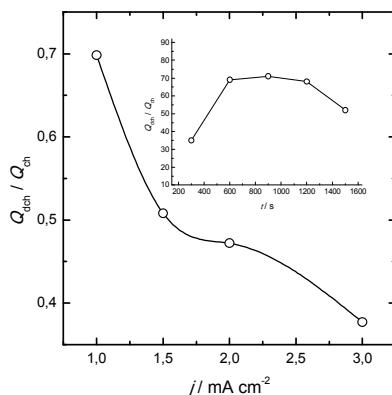


Fig. 1. Dependence of discharge and polymerization capacities ratio on polymerization current density. Insert: Dependence of discharge and polymerization capacities ratio on polymerization time.

As it can be seen the discharge and polymerization capacities ratio are nearly the same for polymerization time of between 600 and 1200 s, while for higher polymerization time, decrease of this ratio is due to lost of the polymer film from electrode. Lower polymerization time, on the other hand, led to nonuniformly deposited film. In order to achieve greater available charge, PANI modified graphite electrode was deposited with current density of 1.0 mA cm^{-2} during 1200 s and used in further investigations.

3.2. Electrocatalytic oxidation of ascorbic acid on polyaniline electrode

CVs of electrochemical oxidation of ascorbic acid on both graphite and PANI modified electrode is given in Fig. 2.

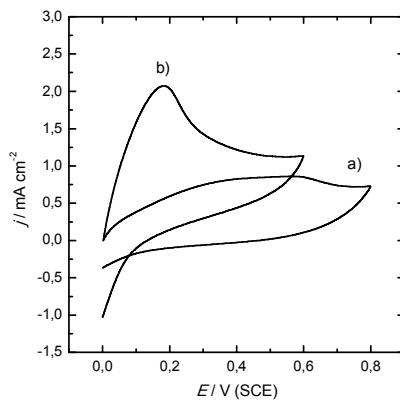


Fig. 2. Cyclic voltammograms ($v = 20 \text{ mV s}^{-1}$) in PBS (pH = 6.8) containing $10.0 \cdot 10^{-3} \text{ mol dm}^{-3}$ ascorbic acid on a) graphite and b) PANI modified graphite electrode

Electrochemical oxidation on graphite electrode is characterized by very broad response with not well defined current peak positioned at 0.5 V (SCE). On the other hand, electrochemical oxidation of ascorbic acid on PANI modified electrode proceeded with well defined anodic peak at potential of 0.18 V

(SCE). Electron transfer kinetics of ascorbic acid oxidation is highly dependent on surface properties of the electrode [6,9] therefore, both the increase of the peak current for ~ 2.5 times and shift of the oxidation potential for 0.32 V to less positive values, clearly indicates electrocatalytic oxidation of ascorbic acid on PANI modified electrode [14].

CVs of PANI modified electrode in PBS solution containing ascorbic acid, recorded with different scan rates are given in Fig. 2., while Insert of Fig.2. refers to dependence of the peak current density on square root of the scan rate.

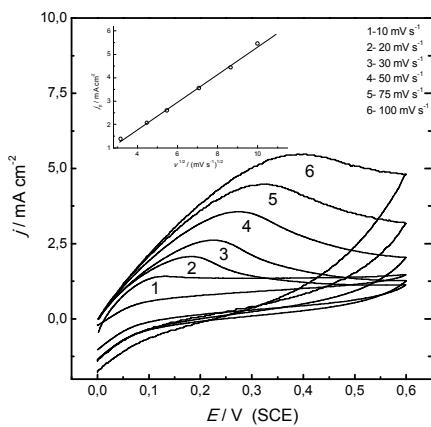


Fig. 2. Cyclic voltammograms of PANI modified electrode in PBS (pH = 6.8) containing $10,0 \cdot 10^{-3}$ mol dm⁻³ ascorbic acid obtained by different scan rates. Insert: Dependence of current peak density on square root of scan rate.

Position of the catalytic peak potentials shifts to more positive values for higher scan rates, while the values of the peak currents increase. Dependences of the peak current density on square root of the scan rate is linear indicating diffusion control of electrochemical oxidation of ascorbic acid on PANI modified electrode.

Response of PANI modified electrode in terms of current peak intensity on ascorbic acid concentration was obtained from anodic LSV curves and given in Fig.3. LSV curves were (Insert of Fig.3.) recorded in different concentration of ascorbic acid in PBS in the range of 0.5 – 50.0 at scan rate of 20 mV s⁻² (for simplicity only several curves are given obtained at concentrations marked on Fig.3)

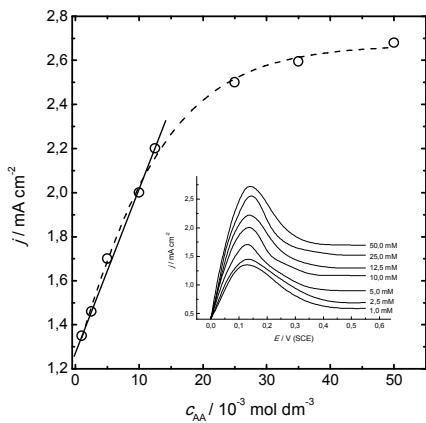


Fig. 3. Dependence of the current density peak on ascorbic acid concentration. Insert: LSV curves ($\nu = 20 \text{ mV s}^{-1}$) for electrochemical oxidation of ascorbic acid in PBS (pH = 6.8) on PANI modified electrode obtained in different concentration of ascorbic acid in the range of $0.5 - 50.0 \cdot 10^{-3}$ mol dm⁻³

As it can be seen, the intensity of the oxidation peak current increased by increasing ascorbic acid concentration ranging from 0.5 to $50.0 \cdot 10^{-3}$ mol dm $^{-3}$, with linearity in the range between 0.5 and 18.0 mol dm $^{-3}$.

3.3.1. Stability and real simple analysis

For estimation of the storage stability of PANI modified electrode, the electrode was refrigerated at 8^0C in PBS at pH 6.8, and LSV curves for ascorbic acid concentration of $10.0 \cdot 10^{-3}$ mol dm $^{-3}$ were recorded after 10, 15, 20 and 30 days and results, in terms of relative signal intensity, are given in Fig 4.

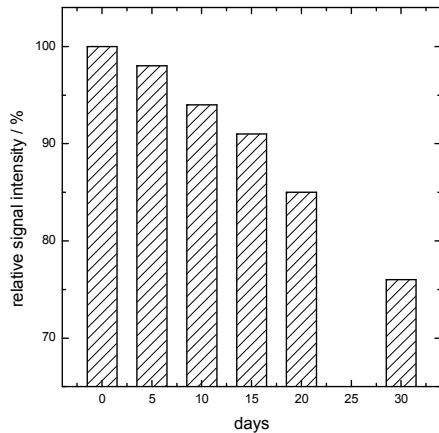


Fig. 4. Storage stability of PANI modified electrode.

As it can be seen, during first 5 days of storage PANI modified electrode lost about 2 % of the initial signal intensity, while after a month of storage electrode kept 75 % of signal. The decrease of the signal intensity during long term storage might be a consequence of the lost of PANI film conductivity and degradation at pH 6.8.

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Electrochemical characterization of polyaniline electrode for use in electrochemical power sources

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Polyaniline (PANI) electrode was formed by electrochemical synthesis on graphite under galvanostatic condition at current density of 2.0 mA cm^{-2} from aqueous solution of 1.0 mol dm^{-3} HCl and 0.25 mol dm^{-3} aniline. Electrochemical characterization of the PANI electrode was performed in 0.5 mol dm^{-3} HCl using cyclic voltammetry and galvanostatic measurements. The overall charge capacity of the PANI electrode was estimated to be $0.154 \text{ mA h cm}^{-2}$, corresponding to 25 % of the theoretical mass of PANI available for the dopant exchange. It was observed that during initial cyclization at low pH, the extent of PANI degradation products was insignificant and practically had no influence on the charge/discharge characteristics of the PANI electrode.

Keywords: electrochemical synthesis, polyaniline, rechargeable power sources

Electrochemical characterization of electrochemically polymerized polyaniline in citrate containing electrolyte

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Polyaniline electrode, was obtained by electrochemical polymerization at constant current density of 2.0 mA cm^{-2} from aqueous solution of 1.0 mol dm^{-3} HCl containing 0.25 mol dm^{-3} aniline. Electrochemical characterization of the polyaniline electrode in chloride and chloride/citrate electrolyte, for different anodic potential limits, was performed using cyclic voltammetry and galvanostatic measurements. It was observed that for anodic potential 0.32 V , higher electrode capacity in chloride/citrate was obtained. For anodic potential limit of 0.50 V , faster decrease of the electrode capacity in chloride/citrate electrolyte was also observed. It was suggested that influence of both chloride and citrate anions has to be taken into account.

Key words: electrochemistry, polymers, power sources



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ELECTROCHEMICAL CHARACTERISTICS OF POLYANILINE|LEAD-DIOXIDE POWER SOURCE

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ABSTRACT: Polyaniline (PANI) anode, electrochemically formed on graphite from aniline containing sulfuric acid solution, and electrochemically formed thin film lead dioxide cathode, were investigated for possible applications as electrode materials in PANI / H_2SO_4 /PbO₂ aqueous based rechargeable power sources. The stimulation of charge/discharge characteristics of the cell, based on half cell reactions investigations, was evaluated. Charging of the cell would occur in the voltage range of 1.20 and 1.70 V, while discharge is expected in the voltage range of 1.35 and 1.00 V.

KEYWORDS: polyaniline, lead dioxide, electrochemical power sources

INTRODUCTION

The determining factors of an electrochemical power sources success are often recognized as “three E” criteria: Energy (high energy content with respect to volume and weight), Economics (low manufacturing and maintenance costs, long service life), Environment (toxic free, safety, low energy consumption, easy to recycle) [1, 2].

Electrochemical power sources systems composed of electroconducting polymers (ECP), metals (Pb, Zn, Al, Mg) and aqueous electrolytes are likely to meet most of these demands. The unique properties of ECP such as: mechanical strength, electrical conductivity, high energy and power density compared to classical inorganic compounds, possibility of reversible exchange of ions etc., permitted them to be considered as possible electrode materials for electrochemical power sources [3].

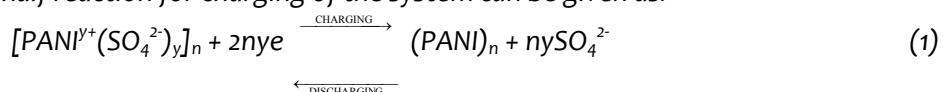
ECP can be obtained using both chemical and electrochemical oxidative polymerization. However, electrochemical synthesis is favorable, permitting synthesis without oxidizing agent followed by doping with inorganic or organic ions in a single step [4].

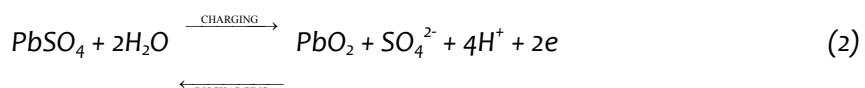
Among numerous ECP only few have been investigated for possible application in electrochemical power sources. Since the price of aniline monomer is scientifically lower comparing to other monomers, power sources based on polyaniline (PANI) metals (mainly zinc) and aqueous electrolytes are the most investigated systems [5-10].

Even the characteristics of these systems are principally very good, this type of electrochemical power sources have not been commercialized. The main reason is connected to degradation of PANI [11,12].

Lead acid batteries (Pb | PbO₂) are the first discovered and although they have lot of problems in exploitation, up to now they are the most large-scale electrochemical power sources. The problems in exploitation are mainly connected to negative Pb electrode, such as: dendrite formation provoking short circuit breakdown of the battery, passivation of the Pb electrode due to formation of inactive PbSO₄, water loss due to hydrogen evolution, etc. The use of PANI instead of Pb as negative electrode could overcome some of the mentioned problems. On the other hand, due to much smaller mass of PANI electrode, the specific energy and specific power could be significantly increased comparing to classical Pb | PbO₂ systems. The advantage of such power sources could be better ecological acceptance as a result of much smaller lead content and lower sulfuric acid concentration. It is interesting to note that after earlier works reported by Sima et al. [7], there are no studies concerning the use of PANI in lead acid power sources. Hence, the aim of this work is to investigate electrochemically synthesized PANI on graphite, as anodic material, and electrochemically synthesized lead dioxide as cathode for possible use in PANI / H_2SO_4 /PbO₂ rechargeable power sources.

In such system, the half reaction for charging of the system can be given as:





where y refers to doping degree (ratio between the number of charges in the polymer and the number of monomer units). Is important to note that in fully charged PANI / H_2SO_4 / PbO_2 rechargeable power source PANI is in its dedoped form.

EXPERIMENTAL

PANI electrode was formed by anodic polymerization from aqueous solution of 1.1 mol dm^{-3} H_2SO_4 and 0.2 mol dm^{-3} aniline at constant current density of 2.5 mA cm^{-2} on graphite ($S = 0.64 \text{ cm}^2$). Prior to use, aniline (p.a. Aldrich) was distilled in argon atmosphere. Cylindrically shaped graphite electrode was first mechanically polished with fine emery papers (2/0, 3/0 and 4/0) and then with polishing alumina ($1\mu\text{m}$ Banner Scientific Ltd.) on polishing cloths (Buehler Ltd.). After mechanical polishing, the traces of the polishing alumina were removed from the electrode surface in ethanol using ultrasonic bath during 5 min. After polymerization, PANI electrode was dedoped with current density of 1.25 mA cm^{-2} , washed with distilled water and then investigated in 1.1 mol dm^{-3} H_2SO_4 . The lead dioxide electrode (PbO_2) was prepared from pure 99.95 % lead, according to established Planté formation procedure described by Peterson et al [13,14].

All experiments were carried out in three compartment electrochemical cells at ambient temperature (22°C). Saturated electrode (SCE) served as reference, while platinum foil ($S = 2 \text{ cm}^2$) was used as counter electrode. The measurements were carried out using PAR 273A potentiostat/galvanostat interfaced to PC.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION. CHARACTERIZATION OF PANI ELECTRODE

In Fig. 1 charge/discharge (doping/dedoping) curves of the PANI electrode for different current densities of: $0.50 - 1.25 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ and anodic potential limit of 0.32 V in 1.1 mol dm^{-3} H_2SO_4 are shown. Anodic potential limit was chosen bearing in mind that at potentials higher than 0.35 V degradation of PANI is expected [11,12].

Charging of the electrode started at potential of $\sim 0.05 \text{ V}$ while discharging occurred in the potential range between 0.3 and -0.3 V . Charging capacity, as seen in insert of Fig. 1., is independent on current density, while discharging capacity decreases with increasing current density. For current densities below 1.25 mA cm^{-2} , columbic efficiency is higher than 100 %. This observation could be connected to possibilities of hydrogen evolution and protonization of emeraldine form of PANI at negative potentials and low current densities [11,12]. This additional charge is easily discharged at open circuit potentials and has no contribution in further charging. Since the columbic efficiency of nearly 100 % was achieved with current density of 1.25 mA cm^{-2} , for further investigation of cyclic characteristic of the PANI electrode this charge/discharge current was used.

Initial cycling characteristics of PANI electrode obtained with constant current density of 1.25 mA cm^{-2} during 15 cycles is given in Fig. 2. Since, the degradation of PANI is expected at the potentials above $\sim 0.35 \text{ V}$, in order to investigate the influence of degradation, the cycling potential limit for charging of the electrode was extended to 0.45 V for charging and -0.6 V for discharging.

As it can bee seen from Fig. 2. charge/discharge curves remained practically the same during fifteen cycles, with almost constant values of the electrode charging and discharging capacity, with columbic efficiency of $\sim 95 \text{ %}$. Based on obtained results, it could be concluded that in during initial cyclization in investigated potential range degradation of PANI could be neglected, but, based on

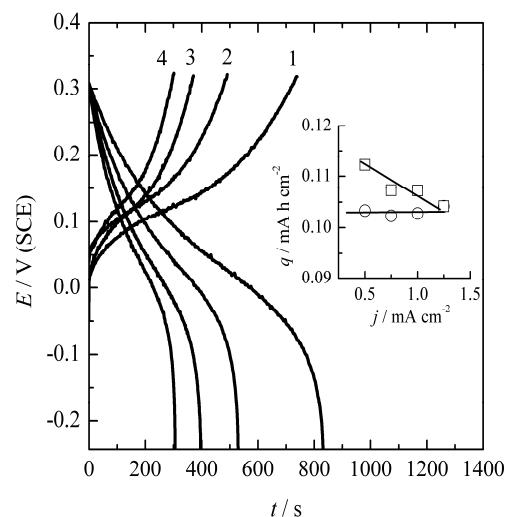


Fig. 1. Charge/discharge curves of PANI electrode in 1.1 mol dm^{-3} H_2SO_4 , where the numbers in the figure refer to different current densities as: 1)-0.50, 2)-0.75, 3)-1.00 and 4)-1.25 mA cm^{-2} .

Insert: Dependences of: (○)-charge and (□)-discharge capacity on current density

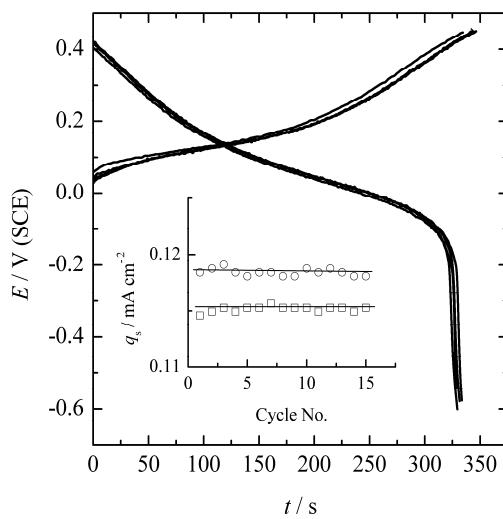


Fig. 2. Cycling characteristics of PANI electrode in 1.1 mol dm^{-3} H_2SO_4 at constant current density of 1.25 mA cm^{-2} . Insert: Dependences of (○)-charge and (□)-discharge capacity on cycle number

literature data[11,12], it is possible to be expected to occur during prolonged cyclization, therefore it is recommended that the optimal potential limit for charging of PANI electrode should not exceed 0.35 V.

CHARACTERIZATION OF PbO_2 ELECTRODE

In order to investigate discharge characteristics of electrochemically formed PbO_2 electrode [11,12], the following procedure was applied. Electrode was always charged with current density of 2 mA cm^{-2} during 500 s, and then discharged with current densities between 1 and 4 mA cm^{-2} as seen in Fig. 3. Based on discharging times, the dependences of columbic efficiency and discharge capacity on applied current density were calculated and given in insert of Fig. 3.

For lower current densities of 1.0 and 2.0 mA cm^{-2} columbic efficiency is $\sim 85\%$, while current efficiency and discharge capacity decrease for higher current densities, probably as a result of diffusion limitations. Thus, for further investigation discharge current of 2 mA cm^{-2} was used.

In order to investigate initial cyclic characteristic, PbO_2 electrode was submitted to fifteen charge/discharge cycles in $1.1 \text{ mol dm}^{-3} \text{ H}_2\text{SO}_4$ with current density of 2.0 mA cm^{-2} and results are presented in Fig. 4.

As it can be seen from Fig. 4, during fifteen cycles charge/discharge capacity has practically constant values, with constant columbic efficiency of $\sim 85\%$. These findings suggest that electrochemically formed PbO_2 electrode accomplishes demands for potential application in $\text{PANI}/\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4/\text{PbO}_2$ electrochemical power sources.

SIMULATION OF $\text{PANI}/\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4/\text{PbO}_2$ POWER SOURCE

CHARACTERISTICS

Based on charge /discharge characteristics of PANI and PbO_2 electrodes necessary data for estimation of the possible characteristics of $\text{PANI}|\text{PbO}_2$ power source are given in Fig.5.

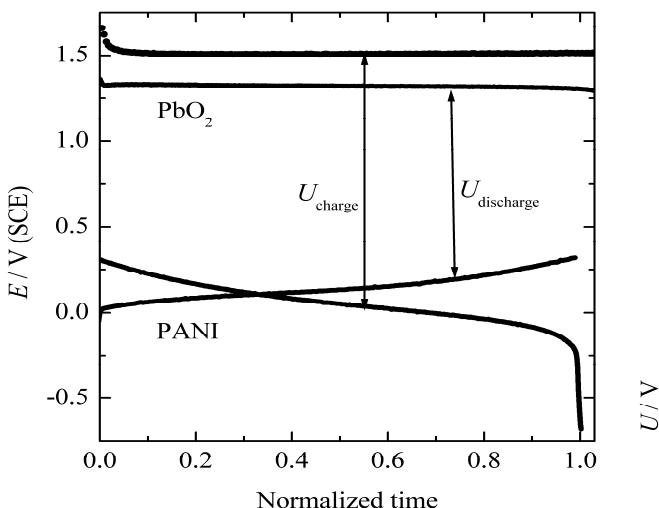


Fig. 5. Charge/discharge curves used for estimation of the possible characteristics of $\text{PANI}|\text{PbO}_2$ rechargeable power source

The possible voltage characteristics of $\text{PANI}/\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4/\text{PbO}_2$ rechargeable power source system were done for anodic current density of 1 mA cm^{-2} (PANI electrode) and cathodic current density

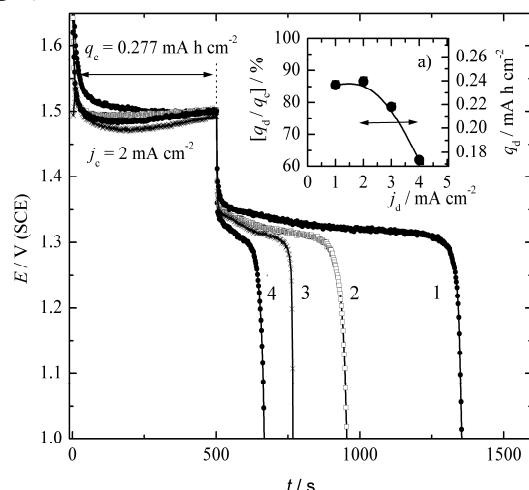


Fig.3. Discharge characteristics of PbO_2 electrode in $1.1 \text{ mol dm}^{-3} \text{ H}_2\text{SO}_4$, where the numbers in the figure refer to different current densities as:1)-1.0, 2)-2.0, 3)-3.0 and 4)-4.0 mA cm^{-2} .

Insert: Dependences of columbic efficiency and discharge capacity on discharge current density.

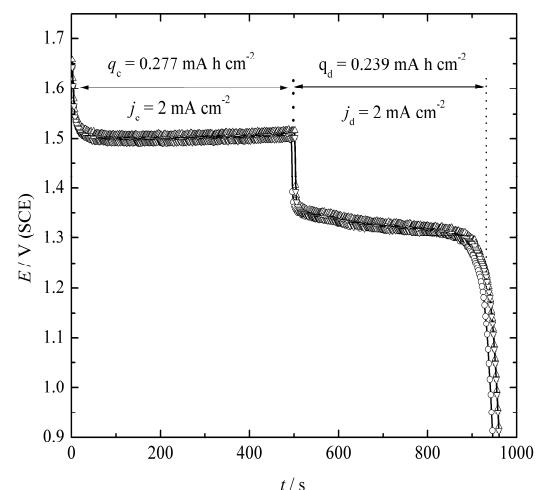


Fig.4. Cycling characteristics of PbO_2 electrode in $1.1 \text{ mol dm}^{-3} \text{ H}_2\text{SO}_4$ at constant current density of 2.0 mA cm^{-2}

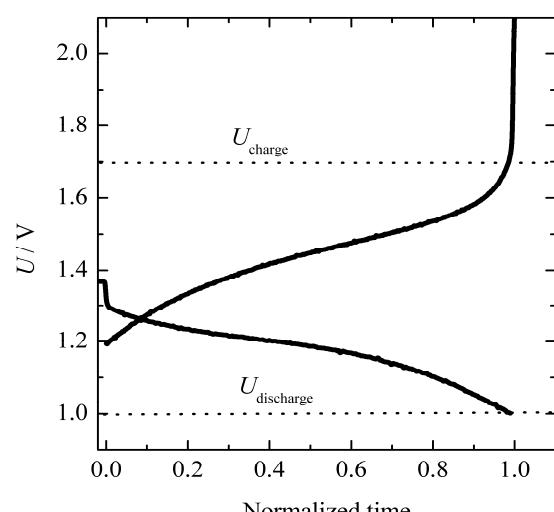


Fig.6. Possible voltage characteristics of $\text{PANI}|\text{PbO}_2$ rechargeable power source

of 2 mA cm^{-2} (PbO_2 electrode), assuming that at low current densities voltage loss resulted from additional ohmic drops can be neglected, and that PANI electrode was formed on carbon support with low roughness factor of 2. Obtained results are presented in Fig. 6.

As it can bee seen in Fig. 6 charging of PANI / H_2SO_4 / PbO_2 system would occur in the voltage range between 1.2 and 2.1, but since there is no additional charge above 1.7 V, system should be charged only to that voltage, charging of the system above 2V could provoke hydrogen evolution reaction. After charging open circuit voltage is ~ 1.35 V similar to metal hydride cells. Discharge of the system would occur in the voltage range between 1.35 and 1.0 V. For the discharge voltage below 1.0 V, corresponding to the PANI doping potentials of 0.32 V, the possibilities of PANI degradation are not excluded, so it is recommended that system should be discharge to 1.0 V.

CONCLUSIONS

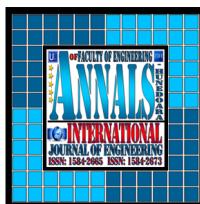
In the light of mentioned “three E” criteria, electrochemical rechargeable power sources based on PANI anode and lead dioxide cathode have some advantages comparing to classical Pb| PbO_2 systems, such as: much lower lead content and electrolyte concentration, easier manufacturing demands, ecological acceptability, and possibility of avoiding some problems connected to Pb electrode. Disadvantages of this systems comparing to commercial Pb| PbO_2 are in the first place, connected to smaller discharge voltage and relatively small PANI electrode capacity. Therefore, further investigations of PANI synthesis on high surface are materials or powered PANI carbon composites are required in order to increase the specific active mass of the PANI anode. On the other hand, determination of the cycle life of PANI / PbO_2 rechargeable power sources in real conditions would be the most important parameter in further testing.

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5. ZAKLJUČAK

U radu su predstavljeni bromati kao opasne supstance, jonska hromatografija kao način određivanja koncentracije bromata u vodi i metoda za određivanje bromata u vodi.

Takođe, prikazane su maksimalno dozvoljene koncentracije bromata prema Direktivama EU, Smjernicama SZO, preporkama US EPA i Pravilniku RS.

Bromati nastaju u procesu ozonizacije vode, oksidacijom bromida, složenim mehanizmom koji uključuje kombinaciju reakcija sa ozonom i OH radikalima. Potencijalni su kancerogeni, genotski i ne podliježe biodegradaciji na bioški aktivnim filterima.

Jonska hromatografija se pokazala kao uspješna metoda za određivanje bromata u vodi.

Analizirani su uzorci vode za piće i rječne vode. U svim analiziranim uzorcima koncentracija bromata je bila ispod granice detekcije. Koncentracije bromida su, takođe bile ispod granice detekcije.

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AUTOMATSKI UREDJAJI ZA ELEKTOHEMIJSKI TRETMAN VODA

T. Trišović¹, M. Spasojević², B.Grgur³, M.Gvozdenović³, L.Rafailović⁴, B.Jugović¹

Abstrakt

Osnovna mera u prevenciji oboljenja izazvanih higijenski neispravnom hranom i vodom je i dezinfekcija vode. Dezinfekcija vode je osnovni proces obrade vode, kojim se patogeni mikroorganizmi uništavaju ili inaktiviraju. Najčešće korišćeno sredstvo za dezinfekciju je gasoviti hlor. Gasoviti hlor se u vodu dodaje pod pritiskom, gde se meša sa vodom, hidrolizuje stvarajući natrijum hipohlorit i hipohlorastu kiselinu koji su zapravo agensi dezinfekcije vode. S obzirom, da se manipulacija sa gasnim hlorom ostvaruje pod pritiskom, često dolazi do incidenta naročito u mašinskim halama odakle se hlor dozira u vodu.

Cilj ovog rada bio je razvoj uređaja za proizvodnju dezinfekcionog sredstva aktivnog hlor-a korišćenjem sirovina koje su potpuno bezopasne i nisu štetne za okolinu i zdravlje radnika. Uredaji koriste razblažen rastvor natrijum-hlorida (kuhinjske soli) i elektičnu energiju kao sirovinu, kako bi proveli razblaženi rastvor aktivnog hlor-a – hipohlorita. Na ovaj način umesto skladištenja gasovitog hlor-a skladišti se bezopasna kuhinjaka so. Uredaji mogu biti različito konstruisani i različitih kapaciteta u zavisnosti od tipa vodovoda i količine vode koja se tretira. Pored tretmana pijačih voda, mogu se koristiti i za tretman voda u bazenima za kupanje, preradu otpadnih voda, dezinfekciju opreme i objekata u prehrabljenoj industriji, beljenje tekstila, kožnoj i farmaceutskoj industriji. Takođe, rastvor *in situ* proizvedenog aktivnog hlor-a je pH neutralan i može naći i široku primenu u primarnoj poljoprivrednoj proizvodnji.

U radu su data dva tehnička rešenja uređaja za elektrohemiju proizvodnju aktivnog hlor-a i to za male vodovodne sisteme sa oscilujućom potrošnjom (kapaciteta do 20 l/s) i za srednje vodovodne sisteme sa konstantnom ili oscilujućim protokom kroz cevovod (kapaciteta do 50 l/s). Ova istraživanja i projektovanje uređaja su rađena na osnovu analize i zahteva sa tržišta. Uredaji su potpuno automatizovani samostalni i jednostavni za rukovanje i održavanje.

Ključne reči: dezinfekcija, elektohlorinatori, aktivan hlor, elektrohemski tretman vode

1. UVOD

Komerčijalna sredstva za dezinfekciju su: gasoviti hlor, natrijum hipohlorit, hlor-dioksid i ozon. Zbog duže sterilnosti vode, hlorne jedinjenja nemaju alternativu i svi drugi postupci čine pomoćne postupke koji mogu manje ili više da smanje korišćenje hlornih jedinjenja, ali ne i da ih potpuno supstituišu. Kod dezinfekcije vode za piće hlorom ili hlor dioksidom dolazi do hemijskih reakcija tzv. dvostrukog delovanja. Pozitivni efekat, zbog kojeg se dezinfekcija izvodi, je uništavanje mikroorganizama, posebno patogenih, što dovodi i održava kvalitet vode unutar zakonodavnih normi. Negativni efekti se iskazuju u stvaranju dezinfekcionih nusprodukata od kojih neki mogu imati izražena karcinogena, mutagena ili toksična delovanja na živa bića.

Dezinfekcija sa hlornim jedinjenjima mora da bude izvedena na odgovarajući način što podrazumeva:

1. vodu veoma male mutnoće
2. što niži pH
3. nisku koncentraciju azota posebno amonijačnog azota

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4. ograničen sadržaj prirodnih organskih materija
5. obezbeđeno dovoljno dugo vreme kontakta

Uspešnost dezinfekcije pijaće vode daje tek mikrobiološka i hemijska analiza obrađene vode. Na ovaj način se konstatiše stanje ulazne vode i vode posle dezinfekcije kako u pogledu prisustva mikroorganizama tako i u pogledu nus-prodakata dezinfekcije. Pravilnicima je definisana maksimalna koncentracija dezinficijensa koja se sme dodavati vodi koju tretiramo da bi se sprečilo nastajanje sporednih proizvoda.

Svako sredstvo za dezinfekciju ima svoje korisničke limite koji se mogu grupno nazvati: zdravstveni, tehnološki, sigurnosni i finansijski. Tako i najčešće korišteni dezinficijensi hlor i hlor dioksid uz svoje pozitivno delovanje imaju i velik broj nepoželjnih svojstava. Ti problemi su doveli do postupka kojim se pokušalo dobiti novo sredstvo za dezinfekciju tzv. elektrohemski hipohlorit. Objedinio je najbolje karakteristike hlor-a i hlordioksid-a, a to su: delotvornost, proizvodnja na mestu korištenja (*in situ*), sigurnosne mere rada i niska cena proizvodnje.

Postupak dezinfekcije pomoću hipohlorita proizведенog elektrolizom 3% rastvora NaCl na mestu upotrebe je pogodniji od ostalih postupaka dezinfekcije vode, ne samo sa aspekta ekonomske isplativosti, već i sa ekološkog aspekta. Uredaji koji proizvode aktivan hlor procesom elektrolize su razvijeni poslednjih dvadeset godina posebno kad je Evropska Zajednica predviđala zabranu transporta gasovitog i tečnog hlor-a od 1998. godine, tako da će sadašnji konvencionalni postupak upotrebe hlor-a morati da se ukine. Elektroliza ne zahteva posebne mere zaštite, a delotvornost nastalog hipohlorita je jednaka ili bolja od učinka gasovitog hlor-a. Prema kalkulacijama, proizvod je jeftiniji od gasovitog hlor-a. Može se koristiti u javnim i privatnim vodovodima, bazenima za rekreaciju i za industrijske potrebe.

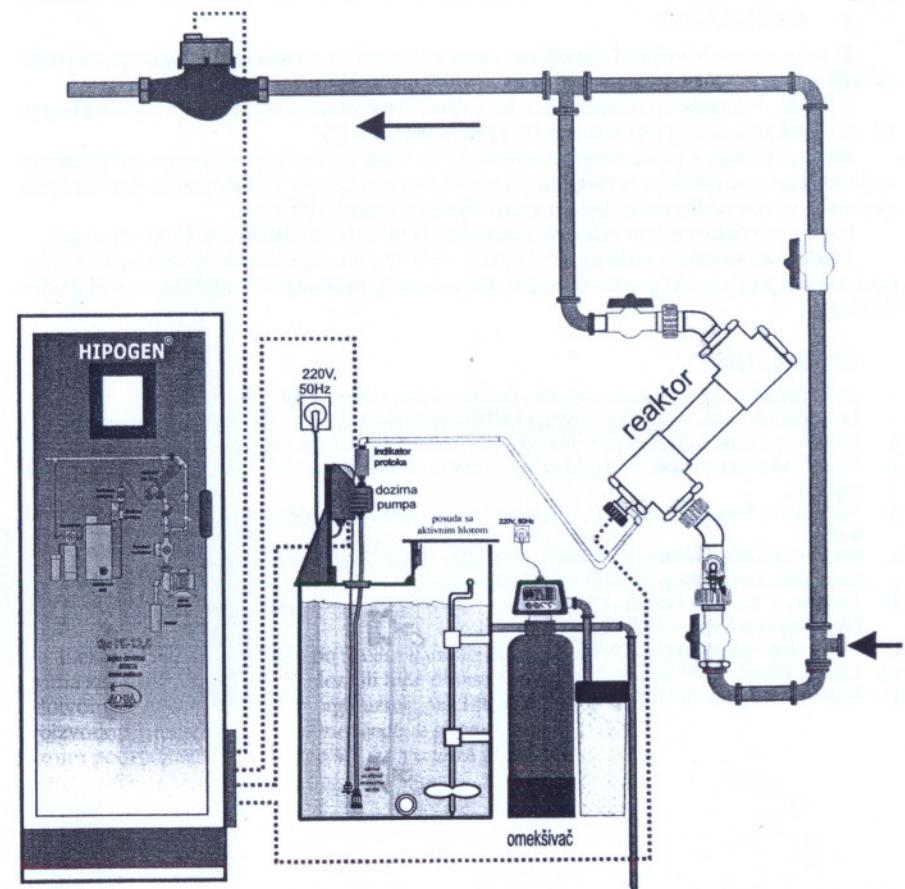
Proizvodnja na mestu korištenja, tj. na izvoristima, u tehnološkim procesima i sl. predstavlja najjeftiniju, pouzdanu i sigurnu alternativu postojećim sredstvima za dezinfekciju.

2. REZULTATI I DUSKUSIJA

Elektrohemski reaktor se projektuje na osnovu analize anodnog i katodnog materijala, kinetičkih i operativnih parametara, elektrodne prenapetosti, pada napona u elektrolitu, katodno, anodno i ukupno iskorišćenje struje, i potrošnje energije po jedinici proizvoda aktivnog hlor-a. Na osnovu dobijenih rezultata utvrđena je optimalna konstrukcija čelije i optimalne vrednosti tehnoloških parametara procesa. Ustanovljeno je iz eksperimentalno dobijenih rezultata da najbolja elektrohemski svojstva poseduje titanska anoda sa prevlakom rutenijum i titan oksida. Pri elektolizi rastvora sastava 30 g/l NaCl i 5 g/l NaOCl na $t=25^{\circ}\text{C}$ i $\text{pH}=7,0$, na gustini struje od 1000 A m^{-2} postiže se visoko anodno iskorišćenje struje od 85%.

Rastvor aktivnog hlor-a dobijen pod ovim uslovima¹⁻³ uspešno koristi kao efikasan rastvor za dezinfekciju. Analizirajući kvalitet proizведенog rastvora, ustanovljena je optimalna koncentracija natrijum hlorida od 25 do 35 g/l. Temperaturni interval od 25 do 35°C obezbeđuje maksimalnu elektrohemsku efikasnost elektrolizera za proizvodnju aktivnog hlor-a. Katodni gubici struje se smanjuju sa povećanjem odnosa anodne i katodne površine. Analiza dizajna čelije, dimenzije elektroda, mehaničke čvrstoće i električne otpornosti nosača ukazuje da debljina kolektora treba da bude od 2 do 3 mm. Ustanovljeno je i optimalni razmak između elektroda od 3 mm.

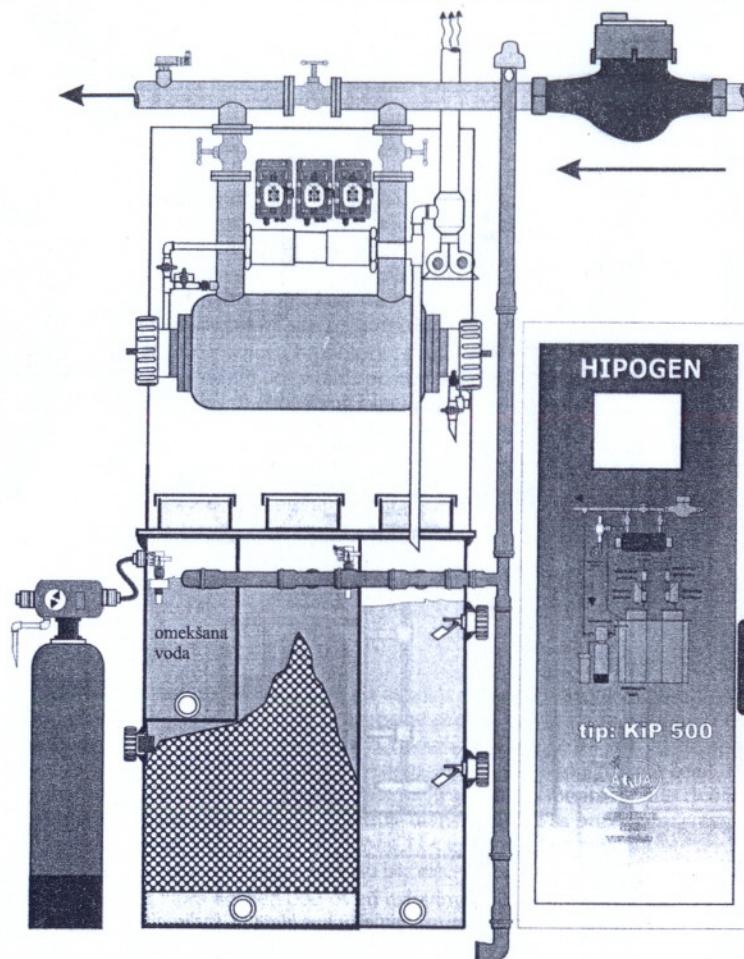
Uredaj za proizvodnju aktivnog hlor-a sa koaksijalnim reaktorom⁴ (Slika 1.) se sastoji od elektro-bloka, rezervoara sa natrijum hloridom i hidruličkog sklopa. Hidrulički sklop se sastoji od dozirnih pumpi, ulaznog ventila, senzora protoka, koaksijalnog reaktora. Iz rezervoara (3% ili 30% NaCl) se rastvor natrijum hlorida pomoću dozirnih pumpi transportuje cevovodom (meša sa čistom vodom) i ubrizgava u koaksijalni reaktor preko nepovratnog ventila. Ulaskom u reaktor hloridi se elektrohemski konvertuju u aktivni hlor na anodi dok se na katodi izdvaja vodonik. Svi produkti reakcije se preko nepovratnog ventila koji je na vrhu kućišta reaktora ubrizgavaju u vodu koju dezinfikujemo, a koja je istovremeno i rashladni fluid i izolacioni medij od eventualnog curenja aktivnog hlor-a u okolinu. Na ovaj način postižemo da se hloridni rastvor odnosno rastvor aktivnog hlor-a u kućištu reaktora održava na temperaturi (temperatura je obično između 15 i 30°C) na kojoj neće doći do termohemiske reakcije pretvaranja hipohlorita u hlorat, što su idealni uslovi za elektrohemski sintezu aktivnog hlor-a.



Slika 1. Blok shema uređaja za proizvodnju aktivnog hlor-a sa koaksijalnim reaktorom

Zahvaljujući ovim konstrukcijama temperaturski režim rada reaktora je takav da se ne dostiže kritična temperatura izlaznog elektrolita preko 30°C pa stoga termoregulator i izmenjuvač toplosti nije potreban. Nivo automatske je dosta pojednostavljen i svodi se na dva senzora i to za protok i nivoa. Uredaj može uključivati ili senzor protoka ili merač protoka ili elektroda koja meri koncentraciju hlor-a u vodi. Uredaj za elektrohemsku proizvodnju i doziranje aktivnog hlor-a sa koaksijalnim reaktorom se može primeniti za tretman vode sa protocima do 10 litara u sekundi.

Uredaj za proizvodnju aktivnog hlor-a sa koaksijalno-protočnim reaktorom^{5,6} u zavisnosti od potrebe može raditi na dva načina i to: 1. Kao uređaj sa koaksijalnim reaktorom i bez lagerovanja aktivnog hlor-a 2. Kao uređaj sa protočnim reaktorom i sa lagerovanjem aktivnog hlor-a. Oba načina rada zahtevaju autonomni sistem za dobijanje omekšane vode 2 koji ima zadatku da vodu koja napaja uređaj potpuno oslobodi jona kalcijuma i magnezijuma (da ukloni tvrdoću). U pomoćnom rezervoaru se nalazi usisna korpa dozirnih pumpi koje doziraju koncentrovani rastvor natrijum hlorida i omekšanu vodu. Ove pumpe su proporcionalne i mogu imati, ili konstantan protok, ili protok proporcionalan promeni protoka vode koji meri vodomjer.



Slika 2. Blok shema uređaja za proizvodnju aktivnog hlora sa koaksijalno-protočnim reaktorom

Ako je potrebno da uređaj radi kao uređaj sa koaksijalnim reaktorom, princip rada je identičan onom datom na slici 2 što znači manje komponenata na samom uređaju, pa je samim tim uređaj i jeftiniji. Ako je potrebno da uređaj radi kao uređaj sa protočnim reaktorom i lagerovanjem aktivnog hlora princip rada je sledeći. Dve dozime pumpe, jedna za omekšanu vodu, a druga za koncentrovani rastvor natrijum hlorida, potiskuju vodu/rastvor kuhinjske soli u koaksijalni elektolizer, gde se oksidišu hloridni joni i redukuju joni vode stvarajući natrijum hipohlorit na anodi i gasoviti vodonik na katodi. Ova smes tečnosti i gasa iz elektolizera ulazi u separator, gde se u uslovima podprtisika, oslobađa vodonik iz vodenog rastvora natrijum hipohlorita i potiskuje u atmosferu. Čist 1% rastvor natrijum hipohlorita se gravitaciono odlaže u prihvatu posudu za hipohlorit. Sve posude za vodu i rastvore (soli i hipohlorita) su smestene u zbirni rezervoar koji čini kompaktnu celinu kaku za instalaciju i transport i bilo kavu drugu manipulaciju. Iz posude za hipohlorit se, pomoću automatskog dozimog sistema, koji je upravljan direktnim ili indirektnim merenjem koncentracije rezidualnog hlora u vodi rastvor aktivnog hlora dozira u vodu.

U toku trajanja elektolize pneumatski prostor koji obuhvata elektolizer i posuda za prihvati aktivnog hlora, a koji je iznad vodene linije, se održava na podprtisku u odnosu na atmosferski pritisak. Održavanje podprtiska ima dve prednosti i to prvo što omogućuje kakšе izdvajanje mehurova vodonika iz vodenog rastvora aktivnog hlora, a drugo što ne postoji mogućnost curenja vodonika u prostoriju u kojoj se uređaj nalazi. Izbacivanje vodonika stvaranjem podprtiska daleko je pouzdano rešenje od produvanja ventilatorima sa nadpritskom, zbog mogućeg curenja vodonika u prostoriju u kojoj je istaliran uređaj. Uredaj za elektrohemiju proizvodnju i doziranje aktivnog hlora sa koaksijalno - protočnim reaktorom se može primeniti za kapacitete između 10 i 100 litara u sekundi protoka vode. Reaktorski moduli se mogu paralelno ili redno povezivati.

Osnovne prednosti su korišćenja uređaja za *in situ* dobijanje aktivnog hlora su:

- Siguran u radu za ljude u proizvodnji i za okolinu
- Smanjeni troškovi proizvodnje
- Sirovine za proizvodnju su: so (NaCl), voda i električna energija
- Moguća nadogradnja uređaja prema potrebi korisnika
- Jednostavno održavanje
- Garancija na elektrode 7 godina
- Zadovoljava sve uslove zdravstvenog i sigurnosnog zakonodavstva
- Poboljšava kvalitet vode
- Smanjeni broj dezinfekcijskih nusprodukata
- Garancija za funkcionalnost
- Proizvodnja elektrohemijskog hipohlorita prema potrebama korisnika
- Rad uređaja ne zavisi od nabavke specijalnih hemikalija

3. ZAKLJUČAK

Elektrohemski hipohlorit, po svojim karakteristikama, može biti efikasna alternativa sredstvima za dezinfekciju na bazi hlora ili hlor-dioksida. Mogućnost proizvodnje „na licu mesta“, delotvornost na patogene mikroorganizme, niski stepen sigurnosnih mera i niska cena troškova proizvodnje predstavljaju osnovne njegove glavne prednosti. Ova tehnologija je proverena u raznim područjima primene kao što su: vode za piće, bazeni za rekreaciju, prerada otpadnih voda, uređaji za hlađenje i slično.

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Прилог 10а. Техничка решења

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Чачак		Čačak
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Број: 1282/21-VIII
 Ч а ч а к, 05.07.2010.год.

Наставно - научно веће Агрономског факултета у Чачку на седници одржаној 05. 07. 2010. год. разматрало је позитивна мишљења два рецензента за прихватање техничких решења , па је на основу члана 59. Закона о научноистраживачкој делатности (Сл. Гласник РС бр. 110/05),Правилника о поступку и начину вредновања, квантитативном исказивању научноистраживачких резултата истраживача (Сл. Гласник РС бр. 38/2008)-Прилог 2. и чл.199. Статута Факултета (број 1635/2 од 28.09.2006.г., 1980/2-VII од 19.09.2008.г.и 818/2-IV од 04.05.2010.г.), донело је

ОДЛУКУ

Прихвата се и верификује научно истраживачки резултат на пројекту Министарства за науку и технолошки развој RS - РТР-2108В - Електрохемијски генератори средстava за дезинфекцију (активног хлора, јонског сребра и бакра) са шаржним рециркулационим типом реактора и IP8025 - Електрохемијско постројење за производњу средstava за дезинфекцију са модуларним реактором и реверсним електродама: "Електрохемијски уређај за дезинфекцију воде са рециркулационим типом реактора и реверсним електродама", аутора: Мирослава Спасојевић, Снежане Танасковић, Милице Гвозденовић, Томислава Тришовић у оквиру категорије Нови производ или технологија уведени у производњу (М81).

ОБРАЗЛОЖЕЊЕ

На основу презентованог и образложеног, горе наведеног оствареног резултата научноистраживачког рада и писаног позитивног мишљења два рецензента- др Раде Стевановић и др Ђорђе Јанаћковић, Наставно-научног већа се једногласно изјаснило за усвајање и верификацију резултата у новеденој категорији.

Достављено:

Ауторима
 Руководиоцу пројекта
 Архиви

Председник

Наставно-научног већа

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ОДЛУКУ

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ОБРАЗЛОЖЕЊЕ

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проф. др Мирољуб Спасојевић

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Прилог 10б. Текст техничких решења

GRUPA M80: TEHNIČKA REŠENJA

Kategorija: „Novi proizvod ili tehnologija“

Rezultat M82: Novi proizvod ili tehnologija uvedeni u proizvodnju

- 1. Ustanova/Autori rešenja:** Institut tehničkih nauka SANU, K.Mihajlova 35/4, 11000, Beograd, Tehnološko – metaluruški fakultet, Beograd; Institut za multidisciplinarnе studije, Beograd
Autori: Tomislav Trišović, Nedeljko Krstajić, Vladimir Jović, Branimir Grgur
- 2. Naziv i evidencijski broj projekta sa brojem aktivnosti, u kome je ostvaren rezultat iz kategorije M80:** Projekat Inovacioni "Elektrohemski postupak dezinfekcije vode za piće", MTNS I.5.0757, 1996-97.

3. Naziv tehničkog rešenja

Industrijsko postrojenje za elektrohemski dezinfekciju vode

4. Oblast na koju se tehničko rešenje odnosi:

Tehničko-tehnološke i biotehničke nauke

5. Problem koji se tehničkim rešenjem rešava

U svetu a i kod nas oko 80% velikih vodovoda (kapaciteti iznad 20 litara proizvedene vode u sekundi) dezinfekciju ostvaruje sa gasovitim hlorom. Razvijene zemlje zakonskom regulativom pokušavaju da redukuju korišćenje gasovitog hlorita sa drugim tehničkim rešenjima prvenstveno korišćenjem vodenog rastvora natrijum hipohlorita, hlor dioksida, ozona UV zračenja. Postoje dva razloga zbog kojih se potiskuje stara tehnologija gasnog hlorisanja vode. Prvi razlog je opasnost vezana za sadašnju tehnologiju po kojoj se proizvodi hlor. To je tzv. živina tehnologija koja je kod nas isključivo prisutna. Hlor i hipohlorit koji proizvode naše fabrike, a i mnoge fabrike u svetu, se dobija u reaktorima gde je živa kao katoda u direktnom kontaktu sa gasovitim hlorom. Zapravo u elektrohemskim reaktorima odnosno elektrolizerima pare žive i gasovitog hlorita odlaze u rezervoare za hlor. Takav hlor sa primesama žive (90 do 228g žive se nalazi po toni hlorita) se trenutno kod nas široko upotrebljava za gasovito hlorisanje piće vode. **Druga**, još veća opasnost, su incidentne situacije pri transportu, skladištenju i manipulaciji sa hlorom. Naime, ekspertske timove u EU su ispitivali i

dokazali sve opasnosti koje su prisutne pri gasovitom hlorisanju i opasnostima pri manipulaciji hlorom tako da je EU zabranila korišćenje uređaja za gasovito hlorisanje i transport hlora na teritoriji unije od 1998 godine.

Među prvima u svetu smo osvojili ovo tehničko rešenje za in situ proizvodnju "aktivnog hlora" na mestu njegove upotrebe koje se i danas plasira na našem tržištu. Rešenje potpuno zamenjuje dosadašnji način hlorisanja pijaće vode sa gasnim hlorom u velikim vodovodima. Uredaj je projektovan kao minijaturna fabrika koja kao ulaznu sirovину koristi slanu vodu (može i morska voda) i električnu struju da bi stvorio proizvod - razblaženi vodeni rastvor "aktivnog hlora" (tečno jedinjenje hlora koje nije u grupi opasnih materija). Dobijeni rastvor se pomoću dozirnog sistema dodaje u pijaču vodu u odgovarajućoj -maloj količini dovoljnoj da potpuno izvrši njenu dezinfekciju. Uređaji su potpuno automatizovani i imaju daljinski nadzor i upravljanje. Ovi uređaji uspešno zamenjuju uređaje za gasno hlorisanje koje predstavlja potencijalan izvor ekološkog zagađenja. Takođe ova postrojenja i u početnoj investiciji i eksploataciji najjeftinije rešenje dezinfekcije pijače vode.

6. Stanje rešenosti tog problema u svetu

Danas se u svetu koriste sledeći postupci za dezinfekciju vode u velikim fabrikama za proizvodnju pijače vode:

- dezinfekcija pomoću tečnog ili gasovitog hlora;
- dezinfekcija pomoću ozona;
- dezinfekcija pomoću hipohlorita proizvedenog elektrolizom 3% rastvora NaCl;
- dezinfekcija pomoću hlor-dioksida (ClO_2).

Najstariji i najšire primjenjen, može se reći konvencionalan, je postupak dezinfekcije pomoću gasovitog ili tečnog hlora. U novije vreme često se koristi i postupak ozonizacije, a nedavno je otpočela primena i preostala dva postupka. Najveći proizvođači opreme za vodo-snabdevanje u svetu (CAPITAL CONTROLS, WALLACE & TIERNAN, PROMINENT, TRAILIGAZ idr.) uglavnom poseduju sve pomenute tehnologije (postupke) za dezinfekciju vode. Osnovne karakteristike, odn. prednosti i nedostatci ovih postupaka prikazani su u Tabeli 1.1.

Tabela 1.1: Prednosti i nedostaci postupaka za dezinfekciju vode koji se danas koriste u svetu.

POSTUPAK	PREĐNOSTI	NEDOSTATCI
Gasoviti, tečni hlor	Veoma uspešna dezinfekcija Relativno mali troškovi eksplotacija Umereni investicioni troškovi Otklanjanje amonijačnih jedinjenja	Opasnost od curenja hlora pri transportu i skladištenju (ekološka katastrofa) Neophodnost obučene radne snage za rukovanje Nemogućnost skladištenja veće količine hlora Lociranje postrojenja van gradova Stvaranje trihalometana
Ozon	Veoma uspešna dezinfekcija Proizvodnja ozona na mestu upotrebe Ne stvara trihalometane Ekološki postupak	Veliki investicioni troškovi Neophodnost obučene radne snage za rukovanje Kratko vreme delovanja ozona kao dezinfektanta (oko 1 h)
Hipohlorit * (HLOROGEN®)	<i>Veoma uspešna dezinfekcija Proizvodnja NaClO na mestu upotrebe Mali troškovi eksplotacije Mogućnost skladištenja sirovine za duži period eksplotacije Nepotrebna obučena radna snaga Potpuno automatizovan rad Mogućnost daljinske kontrole i upravljanja procesom Nesmetana dezinfekcija vode i u vanrednim prilikama Otklanjanje amonijačnih jedinjenja Ekološki postupak</i>	<i>Stvaranje trihalometana</i>
hlor-dioksid ClO₂	Veoma uspešna dezinfekcija Proizvodnja ClO ₂ na mestu upotrebe Naročito pogodan za dezinfekciju vode iz akumulacionih sistema Nema stvaranja trihalometana	Veliki investicioni troškovi Neophodnost uvoza sirovine za proizvodnju ClO ₂ (hlorasta kiselina) Nemogućnost skladištenja veće količine sirovine za proizvodnju, veoma eksplozivan Ne otklanja amonijačna jedinjenja

* *Karakteristike se u najvećoj meri odnose na domaće postrojenje HLOROGEN®.*

Iz Tabele 1.1 može se zaključiti da je postupak dezinfekcije pomoću hipohlorita proizvedenog elektrolizom 3% rastvora NaCl na mestu upotrebe pogodniji od ostalih postupaka dezinfekcije vode, ne samo sa aspekta ekonomске isplativosti, već i sa ekološkog aspekta. Ovde treba naglasiti da je Evropska Zajednica predvidela zabranu transporta gasovitog i tečnog hlora od 1998. godine, tako da će sadašnji konvencionalni postupak upotrebe hlora morati da se ukine.

Osnovne prednosti primene navedenog postupka u odnosu na konvencionalni postupak gasovitim hlorom su sledeće:

1. Izbegnuta potencijalna opasnost kod transporta i skladištenja gasovitog hlora,
2. Nesmetana dezinfekcija vode u vanrednim prilikama (ratovi, zemljotresi, poplave...)
3. Potpuna automatizacija procesa.
4. Mogućnost primene i u malim prigradskim i u velikim gradskim vodovodima.
5. Mogućnost daljinske kontrole i upravljanja procesom.
6. Znatno niži eksploatacioni troškovi.
7. Ne zahteva prisustvo specijalizovanog osoblja, što omogućava primenu i u seoskim vodovodima.

7. Za koga je rešenje rađeno:

Rešenje je rađeno za industrijsko tržiste i „Fabriku vagona“ Kraljevo kao izvođača radova i montaže takvih postrojenja

8. Godina kada je rešenje urađeno i ko ga je prihvatio/primenjuje:

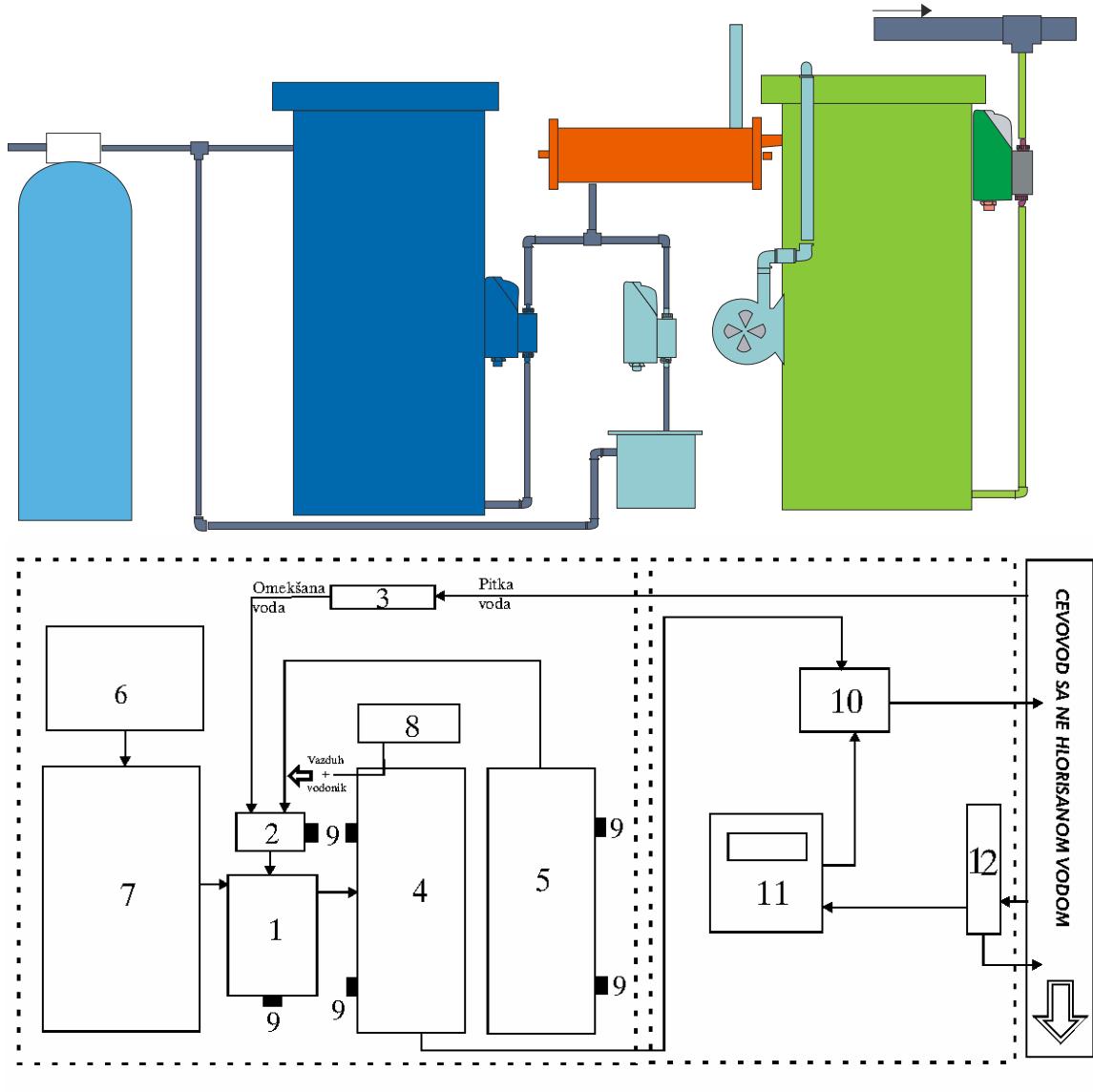
1997 god. pp „Sigma“ Kula

9. Kako su rezultati verifikovani (od strane kog tela):

Institut zaštite na radu u Nišu na osnovu podnete dokumentacije

10. Objasnjenje suštine tehničkog rešenja i detaljan opis sa karakteristikama

Kratki opis (uz pomoć blok šeme) bazicnog funkcionisanja «Hlorogen» uređaja:

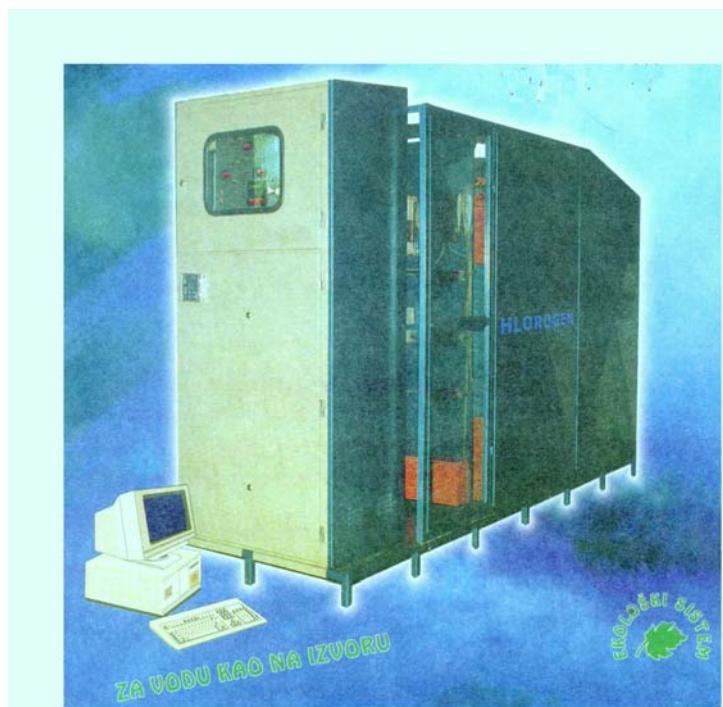


Slika 1. Shema postrojenja „Elektrohemski postupak dezinfekcije vode za piće“

Iz cevovoda (Slika 1) se transportuje voda u omešivač (3) gde se uklanjaju joni kalcijuma i magnezijuma i dobija se omešana voda. Omešana voda se dozirnom pompom dovodi do mešača (2) gde se meša sa koncentrovanim rastvorom natrijum hlorida (dozirnom pumpom doprema se iz rezervoara (5) gde je koncentrovani rastvor natrijum hlorida), pravi razblažen rastvor koji se ulazi u elektrolizer (9). U elektrolizera koji se napaja jednosmernom strujom iz energetskog dela «Hlorogena» (7) dolazi do elektrohemiske reakcije gde se hloridni anjoni konvertuju u hipohlorit koji se potom lageruje u rezervoar (4). U toku reakcije sinteze hipohlorita nastaje vodonik koji se ventilacionim sistemom (8) odvodi u atmosferu. Uz pomoć automatike (6) se ostvaruje optimalna proizvodnja hipohlorita i ostvaruje monitoring nad kompletnim radom postrojenja. Dobijeni rastvor hipohlorita se ubrizgava u cevovod uz pomoć membranskih pumpi (10) čija dinamika rada je komandovana sa amperometrijskom elektrodom (12) i

transmitemerom - analizator (11). Analizator (11) dobija informaciju o koncentraciji hlora od amperometrijske elektode (12) i preko pumpi održava njegovu zadatu koncentraciju u pijaćoj vodi. Na ovaj način je obezbedena kontinualna proizvodnja hipohlorita sa automatskom kontrolom procesa a takođe i automatsko doziranje i merenje rezidualnog hlora.

Kompletan rad postrojenja se pratiti preko računara. Procesorska jedinica upravlja i kontroliše kompletan tehnološki proces uz internu komunikaciju sa ostalim regulacionim jedinicama i PC-jem, sa slovnom i brojčanom displej indikacijom radnih stanja, merenih vrednosti kao i aktivnih alarmnih stanja. Komunikacijom sa PC-jem ostvaruje zatvoreni sistem kontrole tehnološkog procesa. Sa operaterom postoji i komunikacija pomoću GPRS-a i GSM gde se sva alarmna stanja šalju operateru i proizvodjaču onog trenutka kada se dogode.



Slika 2. Postojenje koje je nastalo kao rezultat inovacionog projekta „Elektrohemski postupak dezinfekcije vode za piće“

11. Kako je rešenje realizovano i gde se primenjuje / mogućnosti primene tehničkog rešenja, tj na koji način se koristi:

Rešenje primenjeno u sledećim fabrikama za proizvodnju pijaće vode:

1. IM "CARNEX" Vrbas 1997 god. Postrojenje kapaciteta 250 g/h
2. KP „VODOVOD“ Bezdan 1997 god. Postrojenje kapaciteta 500 g/h
3. JP „KOMUNALAC“ Kula 1998 god. Postrojenje kapaciteta 250 g/h
4. JP „KOMUNALAC“ Kula 2006 god. Postrojenje kapaciteta 250 g/h
5. SPC „VOJVODINA“ Novi Sad 2001 god. Postrojenje kapaciteta 1000 g/h
6. JKP „Beočin“ Beočin 2002 god. Postrojenje kapaciteta 1000 g/h
7. JKP „STANDARD“ Žabalj 2003 god. Postrojenje kapaciteta 125 g/h
8. JKP „STANDARD“ Žabalj 2003 god. Postrojenje kapaciteta 1000 g/h
9. JKP „STANDARD“ Žabalj 2004 god. Postrojenje kapaciteta 1000 g/h
10. JKP „VODOVOD“ Ćuprija 2004 god. Postrojenje kapaciteta 250 g/h
11. JKP „USLUGA“ Odžaci 2003 god. Postrojenje kapaciteta 1000 g/h
12. JKP „USLUGA“ Odžaci 2003 god. Postrojenje kapaciteta 1000 g/h
13. JKP „USLUGA“ Odžaci 2004 god. Postrojenje kapaciteta 1000 g/h
14. JKP „Beogradski vodovod“ CS Lipovica Postrojenje kapaciteta 1000 g/h
15. JKP „Vodovod“ Smederevo 2006 Postrojenje kapaciteta 1000 g/h
16. JKP „VODOVOD“ Prokuplje 2007 Postrojenje kapaciteta 1000 g/h
17. JKP „VODOVOD“ Vlasotinci 2007 Postrojenje kapaciteta 1000 g/h

GRUPA M80: TEHNIČKA REŠENJA

Kategorija: „Novi proizvod ili tehnologija“

**Rezultat M82: Novi proizvod ili tehnologija uvedeni u proizvodnju
ustanova/Autori rešenja:**

**Institut tehničkih nauka SANU, K.Mihajlova 35/4, 11000 Beograd;
Tehnološko – metaluruški fakultet, Karnegijeva 4, 11000 Beograd;
Institut za multidisciplinarne studije, Beograd , Physics of Nanostructured
Materials, Faculty of Physics, University of Vienna
Mašinski fakultet, Beograd, Kraljice Marije**

1. Autori: Tomislav Trišović, Lidija Rafailović, Milica Gvozdenović, Trišović
Nataša, Branimir Jugović

**2. Naziv i evidencioni broj projekta sa brojem aktivnosti, u kome je ostvaren
rezultat iz kategorije M80:**

„Elektrohemski generatori sredstava za dezinfekciju (aktivnog hlora, jonskog srebra i
bakra) sa šaržnim recirkulacionim tipom reaktora“, Inovacioni projekat, MNTRS, PTP-
2108B, 2005-2006. rukovodilac T. Trišović

3. Naziv tehničkog rešenja

Elektrohemski generatori sredstava za dezinfekciju sa šaržnim tipom reaktora

4. Oblast na koju se tehničko rešenje odnosi:

Tehničko-tehnološke i biotehničke nauke

5. Problem koji se tehničkim rešenjem rešava

Veliki problem predstavlja dezinfekcija tehnoloških i sanitarnih voda, kao i opšta
dezinfekcija radnih površina i opreme, tretman otpadnih industrijskih voda u
pogonima prehrambene industrije i dezinfekcija piјačih voda u prigradskim i
seoskim vodovodima i malim vodnim zajednicama. Ogroman problem predstavlja
kupovina i transport dezinficijena posebno u ruralnim sredinama koje su daleko
od gradskih sredina. Usluge transporta, skladištenja i rukovanja opasnim
hemiklajama često su skuplji od njihove jedinične cene. Takođe ovi korisnici
imaju veoma velike oscilacije u potrošnji sredstava za dezinfekciju u toku dana
čak i za red veličine od nekih jutarnjih do popodnevnih časova. Ovi uređaji su

prilagođeni da se mogu primeniti gde su veoma velike oscilacije u potrošnji sanitарne i tehnološke vode kao i potrebe za dezinfekcijom otpadnih voda i dezinfekcijom radnih površina. Korišćenjem ovih jednostavnih i jeftinih uređaja predstavljene ovim tehničkim rešenjem ovi problemi su rešeni jer oni sintetizuju sredstva za dezinfekciju polazeći od bezopasnih hemikalija kao što je kuhinjska so, metalno srebro i bakar i česmenska voda. Nabavka i transport ovih materijala je potpuno bezopasna i oni su veoma stabilni tokom više godina lagerovanja.

6. Stanje rešenosti tog problema u svetu

U svetu takođe nema adekvatnog a jeftinog rešenja za dezinfekciju voda u ruralnim sredinama, vojnim objektima, turističkim centrima. Javnosti su poznati podaci da u Srbiji postoji nekoliko hiljada registrovanih i još na desetine hiljada neregistrovanih vodovoda (prvenstveno seoski vodovodi) koji nemaju nikakav tretman pijaće vode. Od registrovanih 4500 vodovoda u Srbiji kapaciteta od 12 do 15 litara u sekundi samo 2% ostvaruje dezinfekciju pijaće vode a kontrola kvaliteta vode se ostvaruje na samo 3% ovih vodovoda. Iako se Srbiji troši za hlorisanje vode oko 100 tona mesečno hlora i tečnih jedinjenja hlora seoski i prigradski vodovodi nemaju tehničkih mogućnosti da rade dezinfekciju zbog teškoća pri upravljanju i održavanju postrojenja za hlorisanje. Jedini način da ti vodovodi obezbede dezinfekciju pijaće vode je instalacija ovakvih uređaja čiji je rad potpuno automatski i ne zahteva nadzor čoveka. Danas njihov plasman treba prvenstveno usmeriti prema vodovodima koji nemaju nikakvu obradu pijaće vode da bi se na vreme sprečile posledice upotrebe bakteriološki neispravne vode. Broj malih vodovoda je u porastu kao i broj individualnih bunara kod fizičkih i pravnih subjekata koji imaju tehničkih mogućnosti da crpe vodu sa svojih placeva. Ovaj trend povećanja bunara za sanitarnu I tehnološku vodu je prvenstveno zbog povećanja potrošnje vode i poskupljenja gradske vode.

U svetu i kod nas postoje rešenje za dezinfekciju voda na malim izvoristima i to sa hlor dioksidom i koncentrovanim aktivnim hlorom ali je cena takvih uređaja za naše siromašno tržište neprihvatljiva. Naše rešenje koje je verifikovano na tržištu je isplativo za najviše dve godine ako se uzmu svi troškovi neophodni da se process dezinfekcije ostvari sa drugim dezinficijensima.



Slika 3. Elektrohemski generatori sredstava za dezinfekciju sa šaržnim tipom reaktora

7. Za koga je rešenje rađeno:

Rešenje je rađeno za potrošačko tržište odnosno „Nobel corporation“ Beograd, Upotreba: dezinfekcija vode, dezinfekcija i pranje filtera i membrana koji se koriste u aparatima za dobijanje ultračiste vode, dezinfekcija radnih površina, dezinfekcija otpadne vode u pogonima prehrambene industrije.

Proizvodi AQUA CRYSTAL DOO Beograd

8. Godina kada je rešenje urađeno i ko ga je prihvatio/primenjuje:

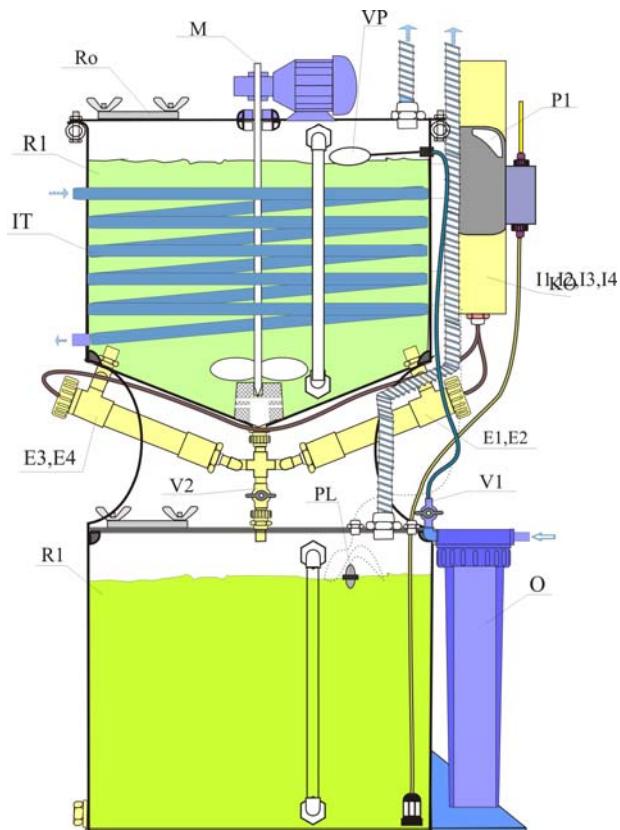
2006 gpd. „Nobel corporation“ 2008, „Obrenović tim“ 2010 god.

9. Kako su rezultati verifikovani (od strane kog tela):

„Kvalitet“ Nišu na osnovu podnete dokumentacije

10. Objasnjenje suštine tehničkog rešenja i detaljan opis sa karakteristikama

Uredaj se sastoji (Slika 4) od dve posude koje su postavljene jedna iznad druge. U gornjoj reakcionej posudi (R1) se nalazi mešalica (M) (ručna ili na elektro pogon) izmenjivač toplove (IT) i reaktori – elektolizeri (E1,E2,E3,E4) (mogu biti van ili unutar posude). U reakcionej posudi se takođe nalazi termo sonda koja pomoću termoregulatora uključuje ili isključuje elektromagnetni ventil (ili rashladni uređaj) koji održava temperaturu reakcionog rastvora u optimalnim granicama. U Prihvatnoj posudi (R2) se lageruje proizvedeno sredstvo za dezinfekciju koje se pomoću dozirne pumpe (P1) dozira u medijum koji treba dezinfikovati. Rad dozirne pumpe je on/off ili je spregnuta sa indikatorom protoka tako da radi samo kad postoji tok fluida u cevi. U slučajevima promenljivog protoka kad protok kroz cev osciluje od napr 1 do 20 litara u sekundi (slučaj u prehrambenoj industriji), dozirna pumpa (P1) mora biti spregnuta sa meračem protoka tzv impulsni vodomer koji na osnovu protoka komanduje sa dinamikom rada dozirne pumpe (P1). Dok je potrošnja sredstva za dezinfekciju iz rezervoara (R2) veoma neujednačena u rezervoaru (R1) se on proizvodi po uslovima kolika je njegova prosečna potrošnja u toku dana. Na ovaj nači je praktično ušteđeno u dimenzionisanju reaktora, izmenjivača toplove, napajanja i automatike a praktično potpuno pokrivena vršna opterećenja u potrošnji dezinficijensa.



Slika 4. Shema elektrohemijskog generatora sredstava za dezinfekciju sa šaržnim tipom reaktora

Kada se potroši sredstvo za dezinfekciju iz rezervoara (R2) i plovak (PL) padne na dno prihvratne posude (R1) tada prestaje rad dozirne pumpe (P1) i uključuje se alarmno stanje (eventualno salje SMS poruka korisniku) koje upozorava korisnika da je potrebno iz reakcionog rezervoara (R1) napuniti sredstvom za dezinfekciju (čija je sinteza već završena) prihvati rezervoar (R2). Ovo se ostvaruje što se otvoru ručni ventil (V2). Čim se plovak (PL) odvoji od dna prihvratne posude (R2) počinje automatizovano doziranje sredstva za dezinfekciju. Kada se potpuno isprazni reakcioni rezervoar (R1) prvo se zatvara ventil (V2) pa se puni omekšanom vodom koja se omekšava prolaskom kroz kolone (O) a potom dodaje kuhinjska so ako se radi o sintezi aktivnog hlora ili se ništa ne dodaje ako je sinteza koloidnog srebra naprimjer. Kada je to ostvareno pritiska se dugme Start kada počinje nov proces elektrohemijske sinteze dezinficijensa u periodu od 20 do 160 časova u zavisnosti od kapaciteta i vrste dezinficijensa. Ciklus rada automatike na uređaju je sledeći. Pritiskom na dugme start prvo se uključuje mešalica (M) koja deset minuta meša rastvor tako da u tom periodu dođe do potpunog rastvaranja soli koja je dodata u reakcional posudu (R1). Po isteku tog vremenskog perioda isključuje se rad mešalice a uključuje se rad četiri napajanja koja napajanju jednosmernim naponom reaktorske module (E1,E2,E3,E4). Uključenje reaktorskih modula je pokazano na komandnoj tabli pomoću signalnih sijalica (svetle četiri zelene signalne sijalice). U toku procesa elektrohemijske sinteze dolazi do izdvajanja vodonika i delimično kiseonika koji se ventilacionim vodom odstranjuju u atmosferu. Kontrola jačine struje pri elektrohemijskoj sintezi je ostvarena novim tipom prekidačkog izvora struje tako da strujni kontroler održava optimalne uslove sinteze bez obzira na varijacije napona u mreži. Drugi vazan parametar je temperatura reakcionalog rastvora koja se održava pomoću termoregulatora. Programabilni logički kontroler (PLC) je tako programiran da upušta u izmenjivač toplice rashladnu vodu tako da temperature ne pređe vrednost od 35 stepeni celzjusa. Ukoliko se to dogodi uređaj se privremeno isključuje i čeka da temperatura rastvora padne na 20 stepeni celzjusa kada se ponovo uključuje sve dok se ne dostigne vremenski uslov rada uređaja od 20 do 160 časova. Kada je vreme sinteze isteklo rad reaktora – elektolizera prestaje a pomoću GSM komunikatora se upućuje obaveštajna poruka operateru „sinteza je uspešno završena – dezinficijens je spreman“.

Operator tako upoznat da postoji rezerva sredstava za dezinfekciju i on čeka alarmno stanje (da je prihvatan rezervoar prazan) koje će dobiti GSM porukom „sredstvo za dezinfekciju je potrošeno šaržirajte prihvatan rezervoar (R2). U tom slučaju odlazi do uređaja i ponavlja gore objašnjene operacije.

11. Kako je rešenje realizovano i gde se primenjuje / mogućnosti primene tehničkog rešenja, tj na koji način se koristi:

Rešenje komercijalizovala pp Aqua crystal i primenjeno je u sledećim fabrikama:

1. Fabrika za preradu mesa „Obrenović tim“ Dobanovci instalirano 2010.
2. Nobel coropration Beograd instaliran 2008,
3. Polimark Beograd 2008

GRUPA M80: TEHNIČKA REŠENJA

Kategorija: „Novi proizvod ili tehnologija“

Rezultat M82: Novi proizvod ili tehnologija uvedena u proizvodnju

1. Ustanova/Autori rešenja:

Institut tehničkih nauka SANU, K.Mihajlova 35/4, 11000, Beograd

Agronomski fakultet – Čačak, Cara Lazara 4, 32 000 Čačak

Mašinski fakultet, Beograd, Kraljice Marije

Institut za hemiju tehnologiju i metalurgiju, Beograd, Njegoševa 4, 11000

Beograd

Autori: Tomislav Trišović, Branimir Grgur, Snežana Tansković, Nataša Trišović, Jasmina Stevanović

2. Naziv i evidencioni broj projekta sa brojem aktivnosti, u kome je ostvaren rezultat iz kategorije M80:

Elektrohemski postrojenje za proizvodnju sredstava za dezinfekciju sa modularnim reaktorom i reversnim elektrodama, Inovacioni projekat, MNTRS, IP8025, 2006-2007. rukovodilac T. Trišović

Automatski uređaj za fizičko-hemski tretman voda sa kombinovanim modularnim generatorima, Inovacioni projekat, MNTRS, **45-01-000-65/2008-01/88**, rukovodilac T. Trišović

3. Naziv tehničkog rešenja

Elektrohemski uređaj za proizvodnju dezinficijensa sa koaksijalnim plag reaktorom

4. Oblast na koju se tehničko rešenje odnosi:

Tehničko-tehnološke i biotehničke nauke

5. Problem koji se tehničkim rešenjem rešava

Procesi dodatne dezinfekcije i dohloranja u velikim vodovodnim sistemima, dezinfekcija tehnoloških, opadnih i sanitarnih voda koje se transportuju cevovodom u manjim industrijskim, dezinfekcija pijsačih voda u seoskim i prigradskim vodovodima i manjim vodnim zajednicama. Stanice za gasno hlorisanje i sistemi za doziranje hlor-

dioksida i hipohlorita nisu primenjivo rešenje dohlorisanje u pojedinim „džepovima” gradskih vodovoda posebno što moraju biti locirani u podrumima zgrada gde postoje veliki rizici od incidentnih situacija tj eventualnog izlivanja ili curenja opasnih hemikalija. Upotreba dozirnih sistema sa hipohloritom ili hlor-dioksidom podrazumeva njihovo lagerovanje u posude i rezervoare koji su izloženi uticaju atmosferske temperature i eventualno sunčevog zračenja. Lagerovanje u takvim uslovima izaziva termohemijsku reakciju u kojoj se od natrijum hipohlorita stvara hlorat koji ima tri puta manji učinak u procesu dezinfekcije vode. Ovaj problem je posebno izražen u vrelim letnjim mesecima kada temperatura vazduha prelazi preko 30 stepeni Celzjusa. Da bi sprečili degradaciju natrijum hipohlorita mora da se obezbede klimatizovani skladišni prostori i posude od materijala koji ne propušta UV zračenje. Pored zagađenja vode hloratom, manje dezinfekcione moći natrijum hipohlorita, skladištenje dodatno poskupljuje korišćenje ovog sredstva za dezinfekciju. Lagerovanje opasnih hemikalija se ostvaruje tamo gde nismo u mogućnosti da ih proizvedemo na mestu njihove primene.

Primenom elektrohemijskog uređaja za proizvodnju dezinficijensa sa koaksijalnim plag reaktorom otklonjeni su gore izneti problemi jer se proizvodi „aktivani hlor” u trenutku potrebe za njim ali bez njegovog lagerovanja kako bi se na obezbedila potpuna zaštita stanovnika od opasnih hemikalija u urbanim naseljima, sprečila degradacija lagerovanih hemikalija i zaštitili operateri prilikom manipulacija sa istim.

6. Stanje rešenosti tog problema u svetu

U svetu se ovaj problem rešava samo sa sistemima za doyiranje tako da postoji stalni problem šaržiranja takvih uređaja koje mora da obavlja stručno lice koje je obučeno da radi sa opasnim hemikalijama.

7. Za koga je rešenje rađeno:

Rešenje je rađeno za potrošačko tržište
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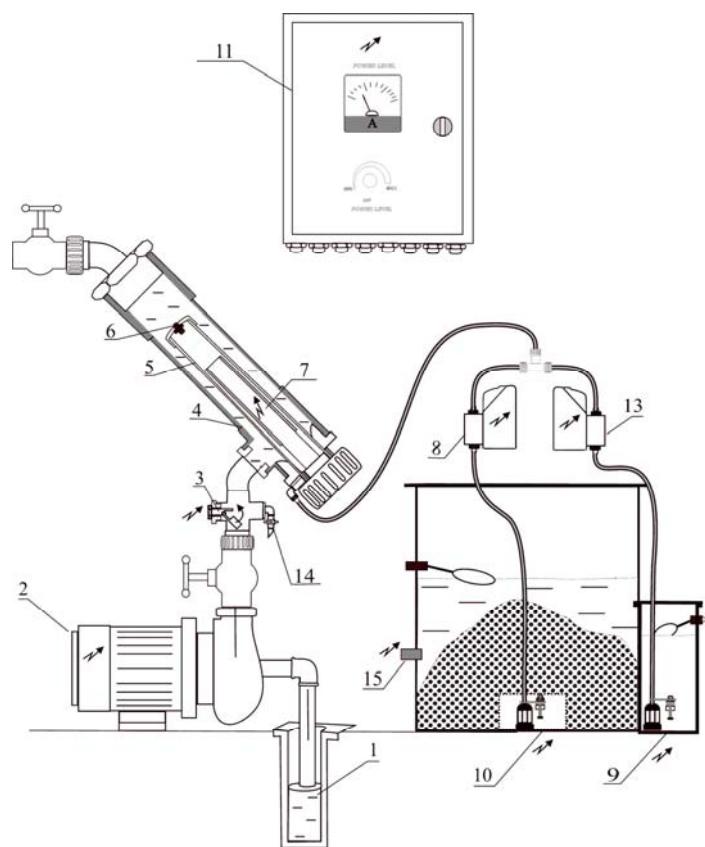
8. Godina kada je rešenje urađeno i ko ga je prihvatio/primenjuje:

Rešenje je urađeno 2008
Distribuita Elektodurović - Čačak
Proizvodi AQUA CRYSTAL DOO Beograd

9. Kako su rezultati verifikovani (od strane kog tela):
„Kvalitet“ Nišu na osnovu podnete dokumentacije

10. Objasnjenje suštine tehničkog rešenja i detaljan opis sa karakteristikama

Da bi se rešili gore uočeni nedostaci na postojećim rešenjima projektovali smo uređaj za proizvodnju aktivnog hlora sa koaksijalnim tipom reaktora koji proizvodi samo onoliko natrijum hipohlorita koliko se potroši u procesu dezinfekcije vode (nema lagerovanja natrijum hipohlorita). Prilikom elektrohemijiske sinteze aktivnog hlora moguće je zagrevanje elektrolita preko 35°C posebno u letnjim mesecima pa je neophodno u sam reaktor instalirati i izmenjivač topline.



Slika 5. Shema elektrohemiskog uređaja za proizvodnju dezinficijensa sa koaksijalnim plag reaktorom

U novom rešenju sa koaksijalnim tipom reaktora voda koja se hloriše opstrujava oko kućišta reaktora i praktično rastvor koji se elektolizira u reaktoru je blizak

temperaturi vodovodske vode. Na ovaj način izlazni rastvor natrijum hipohlorita na izlasku iz reaktora je ispod 30°C , jer je temperatura vodovodske vode obično u granicama između 10 i 20°C . Praktično voda koju hlorišemo je istovremeno i rashladna voda. Temperatura na izlasku iz reaktora manja je od 28°C što i predstavlja dozvoljenu temperaturu pri kojoj je minimalna termohemijska reakcija degradacije hipohlorita u hlorat. Na ovaj način umesto termoregulatora i izmenjivača toplice neophodan je samo senzor protoka vode kroz anularni prostor koaksijalnog reaktora što predstavlja znatno pojednostavljenje i znatnu uštedu materijala i automatskog upravljanja procesom.

Da bi se obezbedilo pravilan rad uređaja postavljena su samo dva senzora i to za protok vode (3) koju tretiramo (indikacija ispravnosti rada crpne pumpe) i minimum hloridnog rastvora da bi se sprečio rad na prazno dozirne membranske pumpe (9) i (10). Uslov za uključenje elektolizera (7) je da postoji protok kroz cevovod i da rastvor kuhinjske soli u rezervoaru hlorida je veći od minimalnog. Rešenje sa koaksijalnim reaktorom kog rashlađuje voda koja se hloriše omogućuju da se ne koristi senzor temperature, termoregulator i ogdovarajuća automatika koja to prati. Takođe ovo rešenje isključuje i separaciju vodonika i odgovarajuće ventilacione odvode ka atmosferi jer se svi proizvodi reakcije ubrizgavaju u sirovu vodu zajedno sa aktivnim hlorom.

Kada se uređaj uključi dozirna pumpa usisava razblazeni rastvor hlorida (Slika 6) ili postoje dve dozirne pumpe (8) i (13) od kojih jedna usisava čistu vodu a druga koncentrovani rastvor kuhinjske soli i neposredno pred ulaz u reaktor se ta dva toka mešaju praveći razblažen rastvor hlorida. U cevnom reaktoru (5) se elektrohemiskim putem hloridi konvertuju u hipohlorit i izlaskom iz cevnog reaktora i prolaskom kroz nepovratni ventil (6) ulaze u vodu koju tretiramo. Na osnovu protoka vode i pritiska u cevovodu podešava se protok dozirne pumpe i jačina struje u reaktoru. Uređaj se može instalirati na potisni ili usisni vod pumpe (2) koja crpi vodu (Slika 6) ili se može instalirati bilo gde na cevovodu stim što u tom slučaju umesto senzora protoka (3) potrebno je postaviti merač protoka koji će davati signal reaktoru kad da se uključi i kojim intenzitetom će raditi.



Slika 6. Elektrohemski uređaj za proizvodnju dezinficijensa sa koaksijalnim plag reaktorom

Jednostavno rešenje i modulalan sistem reaktora, jednostavan i brz servis omogućuju pouzdan rad ovakvog sistema.

11. Kako je rešenje realizovano i gde se primenjuje / mogućnosti primene tehničkog rešenja, tj na koji način se koristi:

Rešenje primenjeno u sledećim fabrikama za proizvodnju pijaće vode:

Prodat Manastiru Rakovica – Beograd gde i danas uspešno radi.

GRUPA M80: TEHNIČKA REŠENJA

Kategorija: „Novi proizvod ili tehnologija“

Rezultat M82: Novi proizvod ili tehnologija uvedena u proizvodnju

1. ustanova/Autori rešenja:

Institut tehničkih nauka SANU, K.Mihajlova 35/4, 11000, Beograd

Agronomski fakultet – Čačak, Cara Lazara 4, 32 000 Čačak

Physics of Nanostructured Materials, Faculty of Physics, University of Vienna

Autori: Miroslav Spasojević, Jasmina Stevanović, Lidija Rafailović, Tomislav Trišović

2. Naziv i evidencijski broj projekta sa brojem aktivnosti, u kome je ostvaren rezultat iz kategorije M80:

Elektrohemski generatori sredstava za dezinfekciju (aktivnog hlor, jonskog srebra i bakra) sa šaržnim recirkulacionim tipom reaktora, Inovacioni projekat, MNTRS, **PTP-2108B, 2005-2006.** rukovodilac T. Trišović

Elektrohemsko postrojenje za proizvodnju sredstava za dezinfekciju sa modularnim reaktorom i reversnim elektrodama, Inovacioni projekat, MNTRS, IP8025, 2006-2007. rukovodilac T. Trišović

3. Naziv tehničkog rešenja

Elektrohemski uređaj za dezinfekciju vode sa recirkulacionim tipom reaktora i standardnim elektodama

4. Oblast na koju se tehničko rešenje odnosi:

Tehničko-tehnološke i biotehničke nauke

5. Problem koji se tehničkim rešenjem rešava

Dezinfekcija vode u bazenima za kupanje.

PREDNOSTI KORIŠĆENJA SLANE VODE U BAZENIMA ZA KUPANJE:

- Nema više pogrešnih doziranja hlorom! Programska vođena dezinfekcija u najvećoj mjeri pojednostavljuje podešavanje ispravnog doziranja.
- Nema nikakvog rukovanja otrovnim hemikalijama! hlorni proizvodi su otrovni i posebno opasni za decu. Dezinfekcija solju ne traži nikakve hlorne proizvode, tako da ne otpada samo kupovina, već i transport i rukovanje opasnim supstancama.

- Za vreme kupanja nema više crvenih očiju! Radi jednostavnog podešavanja i ispravnog doziranja je voda u "ravnoteži" in ne nadražuje sluznicu. Upotrebljivost vode je duža.
- Koža se za vreme kupanja ne isušuje! Niska količina soli vodu čini mekanom i koža je izuzetno dobro podnosi. Primjereno za osobe koje pate od alergija!
- Voda ne miriše na hlor! Uz prirodni dezinfekcijski krug: so - hlor - so nestaje neugodan miris po hloru.
- Sistem deluje pH - neutralno! Sistem deluje gotovo pH-neutralno. Time ne otpadaju samo česte regulacije već i troškovi za regulatore. Ipak, preporučujemo postavljanje još i automatskog sistema za održavanje ispravne vrednosti pH vode.
- Sistem nije štetan po okolinu! Otpada kupovina, transport, skladištenje i rukovanje opasnim hemikalijama (hlor). So je prirodna i u prirodi je imamo gotovo u neograničenim količinama. Dakle, postupak ne samo što nije štetan po okolini, već je i isplativ. Osim navedenog, so vodi daje izvanredne karakteristike koje pozitivno deluju na našu kožu.

Dezinfekcija solju pomoću uređaja "HIPOGEN"

Sadržaj soli od 0,3 % je potpuno zadovoljavajući da bi uređaj za elektrolizu proizveo hipohlorastu kiselinu HOCl koja ima sposobnost dezinfekcije, to jest da uništava sve alge, klice i bakterije. Kod ove reakcije se ponovno stvara so. Na taj način imate pomoću Hipogena potpuno prirodnu dezinfekciju bazenske vode. Potrebna količina soli u vodi je vrlo niska (0,3 %). Morska voda na primer sadrži 3,5 % soli.

6. Stanje rešenosti tog problema u svetu

U svetu takođe postoje slični uređaji stim što su znatno skuplji tako da je naša prednost upravo u tome niska cena, kratki rokovi isporuke, dobra logistika i brz i efikasan servis od 0 do 24h.

7. Za koga je rešenje rađeno:

Rešenje je rađeno za tržiste potrošačko tržište, „Beta bazeni“, „Aqua stars“, „GMC“, „Aquapur“, „Alfa bazeni“...

Proizvodi AQUA CRYSTAL DOO Beograd

8. Godina kada je rešenje urađeno i ko ga je prihvatio/primenjuje:

Rešenje je urađeno 2006

Distribuita: Beta bazeni“, „Aqua stars“, „GMC“, „Aquapur“, „Alfa bazeni“...

Proizvodi AQUA CRYSTAL DOO Beograd

9. Kako su rezultati verifikovani (od strane kog tela):

„Kvalitet“ Nišu na osnovu podnete dokumentacije

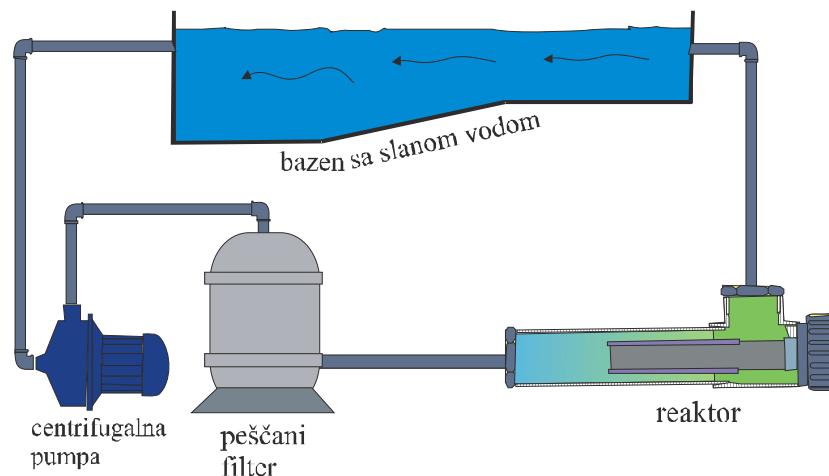
10. Objasnjenje suštine tehničkog rešenja i detaljan opis sa karakteristikama



Slika 7. Fotografija uređaja za proizvodnju za dezinfekciju vode u bazenima za kupanje sa recirkulacionim tipom reaktora i standardnim elektodama

Aparat proizvodi aktivani hlor vodenim rastvorom polazeći od 0,3% do 0,6% rastvora kuhinjske soli. Rastvor za elektrolizu je bazenska voda sa 0,3 do 0,5% kuhinjske soli koja uz pomoć pumpa struji kroz reaktor gde se elektrohemijski dobija aktivni hlor (Slika 8). Centrifugalna pumpa, sa jednog kraja bazena usisava vodu i potiskuje je kroz peščani filter gde se odstranjuju mehaničke nečistoće. Po izlasku iz peščanog filtera voda ulazi u reaktor gde se na elektrodama hloridni joni konvertuju elektrohemijskom reakcijom u aktivni hlor. Pri elektrolizi razblaženog rastvora kuhinjske soli na anodi se odvija reakcija izdvajanja metastabilna jedinjenja na bazi kiseonika i hlorova, dok se na katodi izdvaja gasoviti vodonik. Hlor, koji nastaje na anodi odmah hidrolizuje dajući uglavnom hipohloritni anjon (ClO^-) i u znatno manjoj meri hipohlorastu kiselinu (HClO). Ova dva produkta su u literaturi poznati i kao aktivni hlor. Aktivni hlor i hidroksiradikali kao i jonsko srebro, bakr i cink imaju algicidna i baktericidna svostva. Koncentraciju sredstava za dezinfekciju podešavamo regulacijom struje i vremena rada generatora. Po izlasku iz reaktora voda obogaćena dezinficijensima ulazi u bazen. Aktivni hlor u bazenu oksiduje bakterije, virusе i druga organska jedinjenja a sam se redukuje do hloridnog anjona. Na drugom kraju bazena pumpa usisava vodu zajedno sa hloridnim jonomima koji su odradili proces dezinfekcije, potiskuje vodu kroz peščani filter i ulazi u reaktor gde se ponovo u elektrohemijskoj reakciji dobija aktivni hlor. Na ovaj način imamo stalno kruženje odnosno nastajanje i razgradnju aktivnog hlorova odnosno oksidaciju i redukciju hloridnog jona pa se zbog toga ovaj tip uređaja naziva uređaj za proizvodnju aktivnog hlorova sa recirkulacijom elektrolita. Uslov uključenja uređaja za proizvodnju aktivnog hlorova je uključenje centrifugalne pumpe. Aparat sa standardnim elektrodama ima elektrode koje se mogu polarisati samo anodno ili samo katodno. Elektrode za katodu polarizaciju su na bazi hastel legure dok su elektrode za anodnu polarizaciju na bazi titan oksida I rutenijum oksida. Samo napajanje ih snabdeva konstantnom strujom ne menjajući polaritet u toku svog rada.

Čišćenje standardnih elektroda se vrši po potrebi kada se nahvata kamenac po reakcionim pločama najčešće jedanput nedeljno i predstavlja obavezu korisnika ili servisera da se strogo pridržava procedure date u uputstvu za korisnike ovih uređaja.



Slika 8. Shema instalacije uređaja za proizvodnju za dezinfekciju vode u bazenima za kupanje sa recirkulacionim tipom reaktora i standardnim elektodama

11.Kako je rešenje realizovano i gde se primenjuje / mogućnosti primene tehničkog rešenja, tj na koji način se koristi:

Rešenje se primenjuje na privatnim i javnim bazenima za kupanje na sledećim lokacijama:

1. Adžemović Srđan	Bgd	SRB	2003
2. Asanin	Kotor	Crna Gora	2001
3. Andelković Zorica	Jainci	Srbija	2002
4. Badžević	Beograd		2003
5. „Dibek“ Milan Beko	Beograd	Srbija	2005
6. COM TRADE Jevrosimović	Bdg	SRB	2006
7. Božinovski Goca	Bgd	SRB	2005
8. SPC „RC“ 3uredaja	Bgd	SRB	2007
9. „Voda vrnjci“ Gobeljić	Bgd	SRB	2006
10. „Telenor“ Eric Stein	Bgd	SRB	2008
11. „Heineken“ pivara	Bgd	SRB	2009
12. Miljan Miljanić	Bgd	SRB	2006
13. Karić Sreten	Bgd	SRB	2004
14. „Termoprodukt“ gen dir	Bgd	SRB	2006
15. Bašanović	Bgd	SRB	2007
16. Dušan Ivković – Duda	Bgd	SRB	2006
17. „Impamil“ Bućan Nikola	Bgd	SRB	2008
18. Danilović Predrag	Bgd	SRB	2007
19. „Diplomatski klub“	Bgd	SRB	2008
20. „Pirotehnika“ Đukanović	Bgd	SRB	2006
21. D. Milovanović	Požerevac	SRB	2008
22. Popović Saša	Bgd	SRB	2007
23. Pichler Rainmund	Bgd	SRB	2008
24. „OMV“ Rajević	Bgd	SRB	2007
25. Rade Đukić	Bgd	SRB	2006

26. Sekulovski Risto	Bgd	MAKD	2007
27. Škorić Boro	Loznica	SRB	2008
28. „Slobo“	Doboj	BIH	2007
29. „Navip“ Goran	Beograd	SRB	2009
30. Milan Brakoč	N.Sad	SRB	2010
31. „Omega“ Miša	Beograd	SRB	2008
32. „Tenis klub“ Košutić	Beograd	SRB	2006
33. Krstajić Milovan	Bgd	SRB	2007
34. Kocić Aca	Bgd	SRB	2009
35. Limun Branka	Bgd	SRB	2008
36. Mrđa Zoran	Bgd	SRB	2007
37. Miloš Vujanić	M.Ivanča	SRB	2010
38. Sity Oaza Wellness kajak klub Crvena Zvezda	Bgd	SRB	2010
39. Hotel „Residence“	Pržno	CG	2008
40. Dragan Marković	Kruševac	SRB	2009
41. Vladimir Atanacković	Bgd	SRB	2009
42. Zoran Bašanović	Bgd	SRB	2008
43. Pralica Zoran	Bgd	SRB	2008
44. Klub „S“,	Jakovo	SRB	2006
45. Vila “Rose”	Budva	Crna Gora	2009
46. Orinoco srl	Bukurest	Rumunija	2009
47. Komanija Agimi	Bujanovac	SRB	2007

Servisirano oko 130 stranih elektolizera – reaktora.

GRUPA M80: TEHNIČKA REŠENJA

Kategorija: „Novi proizvod ili tehnologija“

Rezultat M82: Novi proizvod ili tehnologija uvedena u proizvodnju

1. Ustanova/Autori rešenja:

**Institut tehničkih nauka SANU, K.Mihajlova 35/4, 11000, Beograd
Agronomski fakultet – Čačak, Cara Dušana 34, 32 000 Čačak
Tehnološko – metaluruški fakultet, Karnegijeva 4, 11000 Beograd;**

Autori: Miroslav Spasojević, Snežana Tanasković, Milica Gvozdenović, Tomislav Trišović

2. Naziv i evidencijski broj projekta sa brojem aktivnosti, u kome je ostvaren rezultat iz kategorije M80:

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Elektrohemjsko postrojenje za proizvodnju sredstava za dezinfekciju sa modularnim reaktorom i reversnim elektrodama, Inovacioni projekat, MNTRS, IP8025, 2006-2007. rukovodilac T. Trišović

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4. Oblast na koju se tehničko rešenje odnosi:

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Dezinfekcija solju pomoću uređaja "HIPOGEN"

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Proizvodi AQUA CRYSTAL DOO Beograd

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Rešenje je urađeno 2006

Distribuita: Beta bazeni“, „Aqua stars“, „GMC“, „Aquapur“, „Alfa bazeni“...

Proizvodi AQUA CRYSTAL DOO Beograd

9. Kako su rezultati verifikovani (od strane kog tela):

„Kvalitet“ Nišu na osnovu podnete dokumentacije

10. Objasnjenje suštine tehničkog rešenja i detaljan opis sa karakteristikama

Aparat sa samočišćućim elektodama tzv. „SELF CLEAN” predstavljaju daleko konformnije rešenje prvenstveno sa aspekta održavanja. Čišćenje elektroda kod uređaja tipa „SELF CLEAN” jednom u 3 nedelje što predstavlja daleko konformnije rešenje od aparata koji koriste standardne elektode. Ukoliko se u bazenu nalazi slabo tvrda voda ili omekšana voda čišćenje elektoda se obavlja jednom u šest meseci. Aparat u toku svog rada menja polaritet elektroda tj elektroda koja je bila na minus polu se prebacuje na plus pol i elektroda koja je bila na plus polu prebacuje se na minus pol izvora struje. Suprotnom polarizacijom elektrolizer pored proizvodnje dezinficijensa istovremeno razara stvoreni kamenac u ciklusu kad je elektroda radila kao katoda dok se na elektodi koja je u prvom ciklusu proizvodila hlor sada izdvaja vodonik. Promena polariteta je moguća ako su elektokatalizatori na površini elekoda selektivni na oksidaciju hloridnih anjona i ako dobro podnose anodnu i katodnu polarizaciju a da ne menjaju svojstva na duži vremenski rok. Elektokatalizatori koji imaju takve karakteristike su na bazi oksida titana iridijuma i platine.

Sama automatika na uređaju je definisana tako da se polaritet menja sa uključenjem uređaja u slučaju korišćenja linearnih napajanja ili se može menjati u rasponu od 0 do 8 sati u slučaju korišćenja čoperskih i prekidačkih napajanja. Napajanje na uređaju se prvo isključi promeni polaritet i ponovo uključi.

Aparat proizvodi aktivan hlor vodenim rastvorom polazeći od 0,3% do 0,6% rastvora kuhinjske soli. Rastvor za elektrolizu je bazenska voda sa 0,3 do 0,5% kuhinjske soli koja uz pomoć pumpa struji kroz reaktor gde se elektrohemski dobija aktivni hlor (Slika 1). Centrifugalna pumpa, sa jednog kraja bazena usisava vodu i potiskuje je kroz peščani filter gde se odstranjuju mehaničke nečistoće. Po izlasku iz peščanog filtera voda ulazi u reaktor gde se na elektodama hloridni joni konvertuju elektrohemskom reakcijom u aktivni hlor. Pri elektrolizi razblaženog rastvora kuhinjske soli na anodi se odvija reakcija izdvajanja metastabilna jedinjenja na bazi kiseonika i hlora, dok se na katodi izdvaja gasoviti vodonik. Hlor, koji nastaje na anodi odmah hidrolizuje dajući uglavnom hipohloritni anjon (ClO^-) i u znatno manjoj meri hipohlorastu kiselinu (HClO). Ova dva produkta su u literaturi poznati i kao aktivni hlor. Aktivni hlor i hidroksiradikali kao i jonsko srebro, bakr i cink imaju algicidna i baktericidna svostva. Koncentraciju sredstava za dezinfekciju podešavamo regulacijom struje i vremena rada generatora. Po izlaku iz reaktora voda obogaćena dezinficijensima ulazi u bazen. Aktivni hlor u bazenu oksiduje bakterije, virusе i druga organska jedinjenja a sam se redukuje do hloridnog anjona. Na drugom kraju bazena pumpa usisava vodu zajedno sa hloridnim jonima koji su odradili proces dezinfekcije, potiskuje vodu kroz peščani filter i ulazi u reaktor gde se ponovo u elektrohemskoj reakciji dobija aktivni hlor. Na ovaj način imamo stalno kruženje odnosno nastajanje i razgradnju aktivnog hlora odnosno oksidaciju i redukciju hloridnog jona pa se zbog toga ovaj tip uređaja naziva uređaj za proizvodnju aktivnog hlora sa recirkulacijom elektrolita. Uslov uključenja uređaja za proizvodnju aktivnog hlora je uključenje centrifugalne pumpe.

Uredaj se sastoji iz upravljačkog dijela na kojem se nalazi (Slika 3):

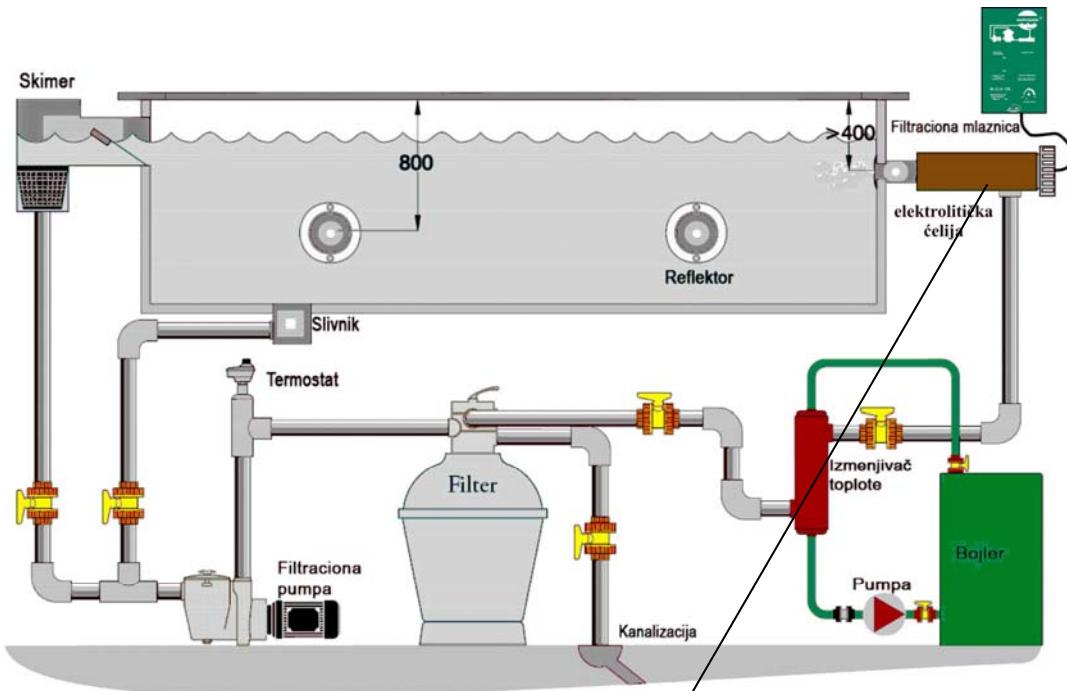
- Indikacija rada elektolizera (zelena sijalica svetli kada radi);
- automatski osigurač za zaštitu elektoda od preopterećenja;
- analogni ampermetar pokazuje intenzitet proizvodnje aktivnog hlora;
- dugme za podešavanje intenziteta proizvodnje aktivnog hlora;

HIPOGEN UREĐAJ SA TEHNIČKIM KARAKTERISTIKAMA

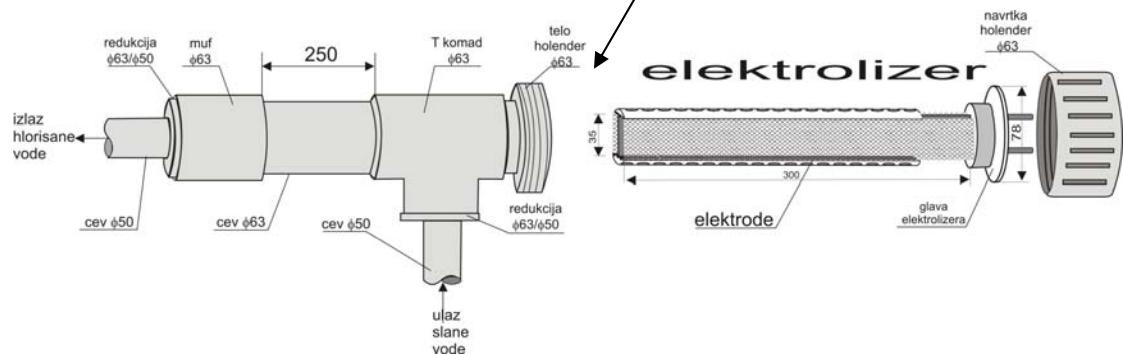
TIP	KAPACITET (g h ⁻¹) akt.hlora	ZAPREMINA BAZENA m ³	UKUPNA SNAGA W	BROJ REAKTORA V
HIPOGEN PS	12,5	50-100	100	1
HIPOGEN PR	12,5	50-100	100	1



Slika 9. Shema instalacije uređaja za proizvodnju za dezinfekciju vode u bazenima za kupanje sa recirkulacionim tipom reaktora i standardnim elektodama



a)



b)

Slika 10. Shema instalacije uređaja za proizvodnju za dezinfekciju vode u bazenima za kupanje sa recirkulacionim tipom reaktora i reversnim elektodama (a) i shema instalacije elektolizera (b)

4. Tehnički podaci

- *Ulazni elektrolit:* $\sim 3\text{-}6 \text{ g lit}^{-1} \text{ NaCl}$;
- *Izlazni elektrolit:* $0,05 - 0,1\% \text{ NaClO}$;
- **Stepen konverzije:** $3,5 \text{ kg NaCl / 1 kg NaClO}$;

- Radna temperatura: 10 - 38 ° C;
- Radna gustina struje: 30-100 mA cm⁻²;
- Radni napon: 3,5 - 10 V.
- Kapacitet 12,5g ak.hlora/h
- Snaga 190W
- Maksimalan pritisak 0,1bar

11.Kako je rešenje realizovano i gde se primenjuje / mogućnosti primene tehničkog rešenja, tj na koji način se koristi:

Rešenje se primenjuje na privatnim i javnim bazenima za kupanje na sledećim lokacijama:

1. „ERC comerc“ Pavlović	Bgd	SRB	2008
2. „Schengen boss“ Popović	Bgd	SRB	2009
3. Sparavalo Vlado	Bgd	SRB	2008
4. Stanišić Vlada	Bgd	SRB	2009
5. Stojkov Branko	Bgd	SRB	2010
6. Marković Toma	Bgd	SRB	2009
7. Mišković Vlada	Bgd	SRB	2009
8. Ćurčić Miša	Bgd	SRB	2008
9. Tomić Boriša	Bgd	SRB	2009
10. „Royal color“ Voja	Bgd	SRB	2002
11. Vučko Vranić	Bgd	SRB	2004
12. Vujović Svetlana	Bgd	SRB	2003
13. „USAID“ Ekmedžić	Bgd	SRB	2004
14. USAID	Podgorica	CG	2005
15. Ambasada Maroka	Bgd	SRB	2005
16. Belgeš Predrag	Bgd	SRB	2002
17. Kuveljić Bora	Čačak	SRB	2010
18. Srećko Grbavčić	Pula	Hrvatska	2010
19. Kuveljić Bora	Čačak	SRB	2010
20. Srećko Grbavčić	Pula	Hrvatska	2010

Servisirano oko 80 stranih elektolizera – reaktora.

GRUPA M80: TEHNIČKA REŠENJA

Kategorija: „Novi proizvod ili tehnologija“

Rezultat M82: Novi proizvod ili tehnologija uvedena u proizvodnju

16. Ustanova/Autori rešenja:

**Institut tehničkih nauka SANU, K.Mihajlova 35/4, 11000, Beograd
Institut za hemiju tehnologiju i metalurgiju, Beograd, Njegoševa 4, 11000
Beograd
Mašinski fakultet, Beograd, Kraljice Marije 16, 11000 Beograd**

Autori: Tomislav Trišović, Jasmina Stevanović, Branimir Jugović, Nataša Trišović,

17. Naziv i evidencioni broj projekta sa brojem aktivnosti, u kome je ostvaren rezultat iz kategorije M80:

Elektrohemski postrojenje za proizvodnju sredstava za dezinfekciju sa modularnim reaktorom i reversnim elektrodama, Inovacioni projekat, MNTRS, IP8025, 2006-2007. rukovodilac T. Trišović

Automatski uređaj za fizičko-hemski tretman voda sa kombinovanim modularnim generatorima, Inovacioni projekat, MNTRS, **45-01-000-65/2008-01/88**, rukovodilac T. Trišović

18. Naziv tehničkog rešenja

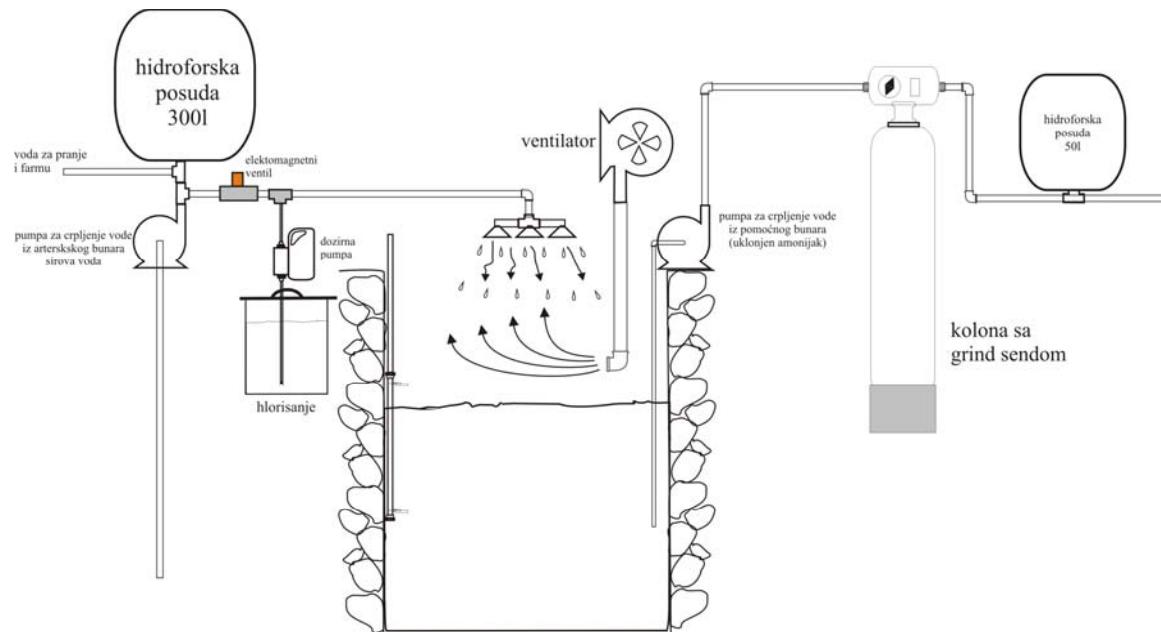
Uređaj za uklanjanje visokih koncentracija amonijaka, gvožđa i mangana iz pijaće vode

19. Oblast na koju se tehničko rešenje odnosi:

Tehničko-tehnološke i biotehničke nauke

20. Problem koji se tehničkim rešenjem rešava

Uklanjanje amonijaka, gvožđa i mangana u individualnim i malim vodovodima koristeći postojeću infrastrukturu uz minimalna ulaganja u novu opremu.



Slika 11. Shema uređaja za uklanjanje većih koncentracija amonijaka, gvožđa i mangana iz pijaće vode

21. Stanje rešenosti tog problema u svetu

U svetu se ovaj uklanjanje amonijaka rešava na nekoliko načina. Ekološki najprihvatljiviji postupak je biološkim putem pomoću bakterija koje amonijak prevode prvo u nitrir pa potom u nitrat. Drugi postupak predstavlja hiperhlorisanjem preko prevojne tačke kada amonijak prevodimo u mono di i tri hlor amine čija je koncentracija u pijaćoj vodi dozvoljena u većim koncentracijama nego li amonijaka. Treći način je metoda sorpcije tj prolaskom sirove vode kroz kolonu u kojoj se nalazi adekvatni sorbent za amonijak kao što je zeolit ili se radi o nekoj vrasti katalitičke oksidacije na mangan oksidu. Sva ova izložena rešenja su skupa i ne prihvatljiva za male i individualne vodovode malih pogona ili poljoprivrednih gazdinstava.

22. Za koga je rešenje rađeno:

Rešenje je rađeno za potrošačko tržište
Proizvodi AQUA CRYSTAL DOO i Hidrosanitas doo Beograd

23. Godina kada je rešenje urađeno i ko ga je prihvatio/primenjuje:

Rešenje je urađeno 2010 god
Izvođač radova Hidrosanitas doo Beograd

24. Kako su rezultati verifikovani (od strane kog tela):

,,Gradski zavod za javno zdravlje“ Šabac na osnovu podnete dokumentacije

i hemijske analize ulazne i vode posle tretmana

25. Objasnjenje suštine tehničkog rešenja i detaljan opis sa karakteristikama

Pijaće vode su najčešće sa povećanom koncentracijom amonijaka, mangana i gvožđa i to po nekoliko puta iznad maksimalno dozvoljene koja je propisana pravilnikom o ispravnosti pijačih voda. S obzirom da je potrošnja vode sve veća kako u gradskim tako i seoskim sredinama svi oni koji imaju tehničkih mogućnosti pokušavaju da prave bunare koji crpe vodu sa donjih horizonta. Takva voda često nije hemijski ispravna i uglavnom sa većim koncentracijama amonijaka gvožđa i mangana. Nas tim je razvio originalnu metodu koja iskorišćava sve postojeće infrastrukturne objekte koji se koriste u individualnim i malim vodovodima. Obično u skoro svim domaćinstvima i proizvodnim pogonima koji imaju sopstveni vodovod postoje stari bunari koji su zidani kamenom ili su oplaćeni betonskim kacama i dubina su od par metara do pedesetak metara. Iz tih bunara voda se crpi ili ručno pomoću vitla ili poloću potapajuće pumpe i hidroforskog sistema a uglavnom postoji i jedno i drugo rešenje. S obzirom na malu izdašnost ovih bunara danas se u njihovoј blizini izrađuju bunari koji crpe vodu sa znatno većih dubina i obično su oni znatno veće izdašnosti. Međutim takvi bunari često nemaju hemijski ispravnu vodu pa se mora pristupiti operacijama koje će je dovesti u stanje propisano standardima. Naše rešenje koje se odnosi na uklanjanje gvožđa, mangana i amonijaka se sastoji od sledećih komponenata (Slika 11).

Crpna pumpa koja crpi vodu iz arteškog bunara i komprimuje u hidroforsku posudu koja na sebi ima presostat koji isključuje rad crpne pumpe kada se dostigne odgovarajući pritisak u hidroforskoj posudi. Iz hidroforske posude se napajaju sistemi za zalivanje, pojenje stoke i pranja mašina i opreme. Drugi izvod iz hidroforske posude preko elektromagnetskog ventila je spojen sa starim bunarom. Posle elektromagnetskog ventila se nalazi injekcioni ventil za doziranje aktivnog hlorita koji dozira dozirna pumpa u slučaju otvorenog elektromagnetskog ventila. Uslov da se otvoriti elektromagnetni ventil je da se dostigne donji nivo vode u starom bunaru. Voda prolazi kroz elektromagnetni ventil pa se hlorise aktivnim hlorom a na samom ulazu u bunar raspršuje u sprej diznama. Sa dna bunara tj gornje kote nivoa vode se istovremeno uduvava svež vazduh. U ovom procesu u vazdušnoj zoni starog bunara dolazi do intenzivne oksidacije, aeracije i degazacije gde je veliki deo amonijaka oslobodi kao gas a takođe se i veliki deo gvožđa i mangana oksidiše. Kada nivo vode dostigne gornju višu kotu u bunaru ovaj se proces zaustavlja i voda odležava u bunaru gde joj je potrebno kontaktno vreme u reakciji sa aktivnim hlorom. Kada mala hidrortska pumpa povuče vodu iz starog bunara ona prvo vodu transportuje kroz kolonu sa grind sendom gde katalitički oksiduju i sorbuju joni gvožđa i mangana tako da voda izlaskom iz kolone je potpuno hemijski i bakteriološki ispravna.

26. Kako je rešenje realizovano i gde se primenjuje / mogućnosti primene tehničkog rešenja, tj na koji način se koristi:

Rešenje je primenjeno na sledećim lokacijama za proizvodnju pijaće vode:

1. EURO LINE – JAZOVNIK, ŠABAC primenjeno 2010 god.
2. POLJOPRIVREDNO GAZDINSTVO RANKOVIĆ – JAZOVNIK, ŠABAC primenjeno 2010 god.

Прилог 11. Извештај о цитираности

ИЗВЕШТАЈ О ЦИТИРАНОСТ РАДОВА ДР ТОМИСЛАВА ТРИШОВИЋА
Према базама података *Web of Science Core Collection* и *Scopus*, 7. октобра 2014. године

Радови др Томислава Тришовића цитирани су укупно 167 пута (151 хетероцитат и 16 аутоцитата)

[The morphology of different metals electrodeposited onto polyaniline films](#)

By: Jovic, VD; Trisovic, T; Jovic, BM; et al.

JOURNAL OF ELECTROANALYTICAL CHEMISTRY Volume: 408 Issue: 1-2 Pages: 149-155

Published: MAY 30 1996

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By: Wysocka-Zolopa, Monika; Gradzka, Emilia; Szymanski, Krzysztof; et al.
THIN SOLID FILMS Volume: 548 Pages: 44-51 Published: DEC 2 2013
2. [Electrochemical Preparation of Nanoparticle Deposits: Application to Membranes and Catalysis](#)
Arias-Pardilla, J., Berenguer-Murcia, A., Cazorla-Amorós, D., Morallón, E.
in Membranes for Membrane Reactors: Preparation, Optimization and Selection, pp. 395-407,
Wiley 2011, Print ISBN: 9780470746523, Online ISBN: 9780470977569 (поглавље у књизи)
3. [Metallic-Based Nanocomposites of Conductive Polymers](#).
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4. [Electrocatalytic oxidation of methanol on Cu modified polyaniline electrode in alkaline medium](#)
By: Nagashree, K. L.; Ahmed, M. F.
JOURNAL OF APPLIED ELECTROCHEMISTRY Volume: 39 Issue: 3 Pages: 403-410 Published:
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5. Electrosynthesis and Catalytic Activity of Polymer-Nickel Particles Composite Electrode Materials
By: Melki, Tahar; Zouaoui, Ahmed; Bendemagh, Barkahoum; et al.
JOURNAL OF THE BRAZILIAN CHEMICAL SOCIETY Volume: 20 Issue: 8 Pages: 1523-1534
6. [How to affect number, size, and location of metal particles deposited in conducting polymer layers](#)
By: Tsakova, V.
JOURNAL OF SOLID STATE ELECTROCHEMISTRY Volume: 12 Issue: 11 Pages: 1421-1434
Published: NOV 2008
7. [Functionalised hybrid materials of conducting polymers with individual wool fibers](#)
By: Kelly, Fern M.; Johnston, James H.; Borrmann, Thomas; et al.
JOURNAL OF NANOSCIENCE AND NANOTECHNOLOGY Volume: 8 Issue: 4 Pages: 1965-1972
Published: APR 2008
8. [Laterally Controlled Template Electrodeposition of Polyaniline](#)
By: Sehayek, Tali; Meisel, Dan; Vaskevich, Alexander; et al.
ISRAEL JOURNAL OF CHEMISTRY Volume: 48 Issue: 3-4 Pages: 359-366 Published: 2008
9. [Electrochemical and morphologic studies of nickel incorporation on graphite electrodes modified with polytyramine](#)
By: de Castro, Claudio M.; Vieira, Sabrina N.; Goncalves, Rafael A.; et al.
Conference: 5th Meeting of the Brazilian-Society-for-Materials-Research Location:
Florianopolis, BRAZIL Date: OCT 08-12, 2006

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Published: JAN 2008

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By: Kelly, Fern M.; Johnston, James H.; Borrmann, Thomas; et al.
EUROPEAN JOURNAL OF INORGANIC CHEMISTRY Issue: 35 Pages: 5571-5577
Published: DEC 2007
11. [Electrochemical fabrication of two-dimensional palladium nanostructures as substrates for surface enhanced Raman scattering](#)
By: Li, Yin; Lu, Gewu; Wu, Xufeng; et al.
JOURNAL OF PHYSICAL CHEMISTRY B Volume: 110 Issue: 48 Pages: 24585-24592
Published: DEC 7 2006
12. [Electroless silver deposition on polypyrrole and poly\(3,4-ethylenedioxythiophene\): The reaction/diffusion balance](#)
By: Ocupa, M.; Ptasinska, M.; Michalska, A.; et al.
JOURNAL OF ELECTROANALYTICAL CHEMISTRY Volume: 596 Issue: 2 Pages: 157-168
Published: NOV 1 2006
13. [Study of electrocatalytic properties of platinum-loaded poly-ortho-aminophenol film towards methanol oxidation and hydrogen evolution](#)
By: Panah, NB; Mahjani, MG; Jafarian, M; et al.
INDIAN JOURNAL OF CHEMISTRY SECTION A-INORGANIC BIO-INORGANIC PHYSICAL THEORETICAL & ANALYTICAL CHEMISTRY Volume: 44 Issue: 10 Pages: 2015-2023
Published: OCT 2005
14. [Polyaniline fibres as electrodes. Electrochemical characterisation in acid solutions](#)
By: Pauliukaitė, R; Brett, CMA; Monkman, AP
ELECTROCHIMICA ACTA Volume: 50 Issue: 1 Pages: 159-167 Published: NOV 15 2004
15. [Electronic, structural, and magnetic properties of cobalt aggregates embedded in polypyrrole](#)
By: Watanabe, N; Morais, J; Accione, SBB; et al.
JOURNAL OF PHYSICAL CHEMISTRY B Volume: 108 Issue: 13 Pages: 4013-4017
Published: APR 1 2004
16. [The preparation of polypyrrole coated brass and copper electrodes for electrocatalysis](#)
By: Tuken, T; Arslan, G; Yazici, B; et al.
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Published: MAR 2004
17. [Structure and properties of C-60-Pd films formed by electroreduction of C-60 and palladium\(II\) acetate trimer: evidence for the presence of palladium nanoparticles](#)
By: Winkler, K; Noworyta, K; de Bettencourt-Dias, A; et al.
JOURNAL OF MATERIALS CHEMISTRY Volume: 13 Issue: 3 Pages: 518-525
Published: 2003
18. [Preparation of Au/PAni/GC electrode and their electrocatalytic activity for the oxidation of formaldehyde](#)
By: Yang, HZ; Deng, YQ
ACTA CHIMICA SINICA Volume: 60 Issue: 4 Pages: 569-573 Published: APR 2002
19. [Electrochemical and quartz crystal microbalance studies of lead\(II\) deposition and stripping in the presence of copper on a gold electrode modified with 2,2'-bipyridyl in polyaniline](#)
By: Wagner, K; Strojek, JW; Koziel, K
ANALYTICA CHIMICA ACTA Volume: 455 Issue: 1 Pages: 69-81 Article Number: PII S0003-

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Published: MAR 18 2002

20. [Mechanism of underpotential deposition of metal on conducting polymers](#)
By: Liu, YC; Yang, KH; Ger, MD
SYNTHETIC METALS Volume: 126 Issue: 2-3 Pages: 337-345 Article Number: PII S0379-6779(01)00581-1
Published: FEB 14 2002
21. [Studies of processes during ASV determination of lead in the presence of copper on a solid electrode modified with 2,2'-bipyridyl in polyaniline](#)
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CHEMIA ANALITYCZNA Volume: 47 Issue: 3 Pages: 385-397 Published: 2002
22. [A polyaniline-modified electrode-based FIA system for sub-ppb-level chromium\(VI\) analysis](#)
By: Yang, YJ; Huang, HJ
ANALYTICAL CHEMISTRY Volume: 73 Issue: 6 Pages: 1377-1381
Published: MAR 15 2001
23. [Sulfonated polyaniline coated mercury film electrodes for voltammetric analysis of metals in water](#)
Fungaro, D.A.
2001 [Sensors](#) 1 (6), pp. 206-214
24. [Polypyrrole incorporating electroless nickel](#)
By: Abrantes, LM; Correia, JP
Conference: 3rd Electrocatalysis Meeting (ECS 99) Location: PORTOROZ, SLOVENIA Date: 1999
ELECTROCHIMICA ACTA Volume: 45 Issue: 25-26 Pages: 4179-4185 Published: 2000
25. [Synthesis and characterization of a composite of polyaniline and carbon black](#)
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JOURNAL OF APPLIED ELECTROCHEMISTRY Volume: 29 Issue: 6 Pages: 759-764
Published: JUN 1999
26. [Interaction of copper\(I\)-polypyrrole complexes prepared by depositing-dissolving copper onto and from polypyrroles](#)
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THIN SOLID FILMS Volume: 339 Issue: 1-2 Pages: 233-239
Published: FEB 8 1999
27. [Effect of temperature on the electrooxidation of some organic molecules on Pt doped conducting polymer coated electrodes](#)
By: Becerik, I; Ficicioglu, F; Kadırgan, F
TURKISH JOURNAL OF CHEMISTRY Volume: 23 Issue: 4 Pages: 353-359 Published: 1999
28. [Poly\(3-methylthiophene\) incorporating electrolessly deposited Ni-P particles](#)
By: Abrantes, LM; Correia, JP
SURFACE & COATINGS TECHNOLOGY Volume: 107 Issue: 2-3 Pages: 142-148
Published: SEP 10 1998
29. [A spectroelectrochemical study on polaron transformations in polyaniline in sulphuric and p-toluenesulphonic acids](#)
By: Abd El-Rahman, HA
POLYMER INTERNATIONAL Volume: 44 Issue: 4 Pages: 481-489
Published: DEC 1997

30. [Electrooxidation of methanol on platinum doped polyaniline electrodes: deposition potential and temperature effect](#)

By: Ficicioglu, F; Kadirgan, F

JOURNAL OF ELECTROANALYTICAL CHEMISTRY Volume: 430 Issue: 1-2 Pages: 179-182

Published: JUN 30 1997

Аутоцитати:

31. [Investigation of the polyaniline film porosity by the electrodeposition of cadmium on the film](#)

By: Jovic, VD; Jovic, BM; Stojilkovic, ER; et al.

JOURNAL OF THE SERBIAN CHEMICAL SOCIETY Volume: 64 Issue: 4 Pages: 265-273

Published: 1999

[Spectrophotometric study of the anodic corrosion of Ti/RuO₂ electrode in acid sulfate solution](#)

By: Gajic-Krstajic, LM; Trisovic, TL; Krstajic, NV

CORROSION SCIENCE Volume: 46 Issue: 1 Pages: 65-74 Published: JAN 2004

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Edited by: Hassan, MB
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Milica M. Gvozdenović, **Branimir Z. Jugović**, Jasmina S. Stevanović, Tomislav Lj. Trišović, Branimir N. Grgur, in Electropolymerization (Ewa Schab-Balcerzak, Eds.), INTECH, (2011), Chap. 4. pp. 77–96, ISBN 978-953-307-693-5.

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By: Ceric-Marjanovic, Gordana
SYNTHETIC METALS Volume: 177 Pages: 1-47 Published: AUG 1 2013
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HEMIJSKA INDUSTRIZA Volume: 66 Issue: 5 Pages: 749-757 Published: SEP-OCT 2012

Прилог 12. Сарадња с привредом

PROJEKTANT:

INSTITUT TEHNIČKIH
NAUKA
SRPSKA AKADEMIJA
NAUKA I UMETNOSTI

INVESTITOR:

JAVNO PREDUZEĆE ZA
KOMUNALNU PRIVREDU
"LAZAREVAC"

Јавно предузеће за комуналну привреду
"ЛАЗАРЕВАЦ"
Број 081-4042
Датум 29. 05. 2012
ЛАЗАРЕВАЦ

Институт техничких наук САНУ

Бр. 190/1
18. 5 20 12 год.
Кнез Михајлова 35/IV, Београд, ПФ 377
Тел: 2636-994, 2185-437, Факс: 2185-263

GLAVNI TEHNOLOŠKI PROJEKAT

*Hlorisanje vode za piće hipohloritom
dobijenim elektrolizom vodenog rastvora
natrijum-hlorida in situ u vodovodu
"Peštan" u Lazarevcu*



Beograd, 2012.

ИНСТИТУТ ТЕХНИЧКИХ НАУКА САНУ

Кнез Михаилова 35/IV, П.Ф. 377, 11000 Београд, Србија

Тел.: 011 21 85 437, 26 36 994; Факс: 21 85 263, мејл: its@itn.sanu.ac.rs, <http://www.itn.sanu.ac.rs>

Текући рачун: 840-1613660-30, 840-1613666-12, ПИБ: 100039438, матични бр. 07011016

FIZIBILITI STUDIJA ZA PROIZVODNJU NATIJUM HIPOHLORITA IZ GASOVITOG HLORA

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Zemunska 245v
11277 Ugrinovci, Beograd
telefon/fax: 011/ 3774655, 3774683
mail: office@bincommerce.rs

STUDIJU IZRADILI:

Dr Tomislav Trišović, viši naučni saradnik, ITN-SANU, Beograd

Dr Branimir Grgur, red. prof. Tehnološko metalurškog fakulteta, Beograd

Dr Milica Gvozdenović, docent Tehnološko metalurškog fakulteta, Beograd

Dr Branimir Jugović, viši naučni saradnik, ITN-SANU, Beograd

Бр. 348/1

23. 09

20 13 год.

Кнез Михајлова 35/IV, Београд, ПФ 377
Тел: 2636-994, 2185-437, Факс: 2185-263

УГОВОР

Закључен дана 23. септембра 2013. године у Београду.

УГОВОРНЕ СТРАНЕ

Bin commerce са седиштем у Београду, Устаничка 218, са основним подацима: матични број 17175025, ПИБ: 100023226, кога заступа директор Бојан Маравић (у даљем тексту: Наручилац),

и

Институт техничких наука САНУ, са седиштем у Београду, Кнез Михаилова 35/IV, са основним подацима: матични број 07011016, ПИБ 100039438, кога заступа директор Академик проф. др Зоран Ђурић (у даљем тексту: Извођач)

ПРЕДМЕТ УГОВОРА: Израда студије изводљивости за производњу натријум хипохлорита.

Члан 1.

Уговорне стране су сагласне да Извођач за рачун Наручиоца уради студију изводљивости за производњу натријум хипохлорита у обиму од 35 до 45 страна.

Члан 2.

Извођач је обавезан да уговорени посао уради у року од 35 радних дана од тренутка потписивања овог уговора.

Члан 3.

Уговарачи су сагласни да Наручилац плати Извођачу укупну цену урађеног решења у износу од :

- 136.800,00 динара без урачунатог ПДВ-а,
- порез на додатну вредност 27.360,00 динара,
- тако да је укупна уговорна цена 164.160,00 динара са ПДВ-ом.

Наведена уговорна цена је и фиксна са урачунатим ПДВ-ом по стопи од 20 %.

Члан 4.

Уплату уговореног износа Наручилац је дужан да плати Извођачу авансно.

Исплату уговорених износа Наручилац ће извршити уплатом на текући рачун Извођача на бр. 840-1613666-12 код Управе за јавна плаћања Филијала Стари Град.

Члан 5.

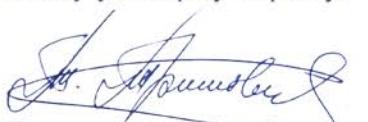
У свему осталом што није предвиђено овим уговором важе одредбе Закона о облигационим односима.

Члан 6.

Уговорне стране се споразумевају да све спорове настале из реализације овог уговора решавају споразumno.

Члан 7.

Овај уговор је сачињен у 4 (четири) истоветна примерка, од којих су по 2 (два) за сваку уговорну страну.



Руководилац пројекта
Др Томислав Тришовић

За Извођача
Директор
Академик Зоран Ђурић



печат и потпис



За Наручиоца
Директор
Бојан Маравић

печат и потпис



BASATA

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Beograd, Dobračina 59b

Tel/fax: 011/263 43 78, 263 49 34,
292 87 35, 292 87 38;
Mob: 063/33 95 29, 064 13 888 15
e-mail: basatabazi@eunet.rs
website: www.basata.co.rs

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IZJAVA

Ovim potvrđujemo da Tomislav Trisovic, sa nama saradjuje na problematici tretmana

Vode u bazenima za kupanje.

Beograd, 10.10.2014.



BASATA DOO

(Handwritten signature of Tatjana Kolakovic)
Direktor, Kolakovic Tatjana

PIB: 104345918 Matični broj: **20148985** Šifra delatnosti: **51180**
Tekući račun: 205-105953-98, 250-1580000455770-59



• **Hidrosanitas** • d.o.o.
PREDUZEĆE ZA TRETMAN VODA
BEOGRAD, Bulevar despota Stefana 68 b, Tel/Fax 011/2765-777, 2764-161
PIB: SR 100122128 Tekući račun: 220-2208-64

Tomislav Lj. Trišović

Beograd
Mirijevski Venac 6/22

Beograd, 09.10.2014. godine

Na zahtev Tomislava Lj. Trišovića, višeg naučnog savetnika u Institutu tehničkih nauka Srpske akademije nauka, Preduzeće za tretman voda "Hidrosanitas" d.o.o., sa sedištem u Beogradu, Bulevar despota Stefana 68-b, izdaje sledeću:

P O T V R D U

Kojom se potvrđuje da Tomislav Lj. Trišović učestvuje kao konsultant i saradnik na izradi projektno tehničke dokumentacije postrojenja za pripremu vode za piće, postrojenja za tretman otpadnih voda i nadzoru na izvođenju radova.

Direktor,
Miljković Milorad



Kosjerić
09.10.2014

IZJAVA O SARADNJI

Izjavljujemo da već duže vreme poslovno saradujemo sa firmom AQUA CRYSTAL doo iz Beograda i od njih kupujemo uredjaje za elektrochlorinaciju HIPOGEN tip SC. Uredjaji se instaliraju na bazenima za kupanje, koje mi proitzvodimo i ugradujemo, u cilju dezinfekcije bazenske vode. Veoma smo zadovoljni kvalitetom i učinkom uredjaja, a posebno ističemo dobro rešenje za bilo kakav servis.

Takodje sa G-dinom Tomislavom Trisovicem saradujemo na projektovanju, iznalaženju tehnoloških rešenja, konstrukciji za našu proizvodnju i izvođenju postrojenja za preradu otpadnih voda. (www.aquapur.rs)

Direktor

MgA Vidan Vranešević





PREDMET: Potvrda o saradnji

Privredno društvo AQUA LINES d.o.o. Beograd, Krunska 54, ogrank Kosjerić, Nikole Tesle 10 nabavlja od firme Aqua crystal doo uređaje za elektohlorinaciju HIPOGEN tip SC. Uređaji se instaliraju na bazenima za kupanje u cilju dezinfekcije vode. Takođe sa Tomislavom Trišovićem sarađujemo na projektovanju i izvođenju postrojenja za preradu otpadnih voda i izrade uređaja za proizvodnju aktivnog hlor-a velikih kapaciteta.



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BETA GROUP

princip slane vode

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Sanje Zivanovic 25, Beograd
tel/Fax : 011/ 8062404
mob. tel : 062/ 278987
www.betabazen.co.rs



Beograd, 10.10.2014. god.

From: Beta group

Subject: POTVRDA

Preduzece Beta group d.o.o., Beograd u saradnji sa Tomislavom Trisovicem proizvodi elektode i elektohlorinatore tipa S koje se koriste kod tretmana vode u bazenima za kupanje sa slanom vodom.

Uredjaji se instaliraju na bazenima za kupanje u cilju dezinfekcije vode.



Прилог 13. Предавање по позиву



CHAMBER OF COMMERCE AND INDUSTRY OF SERBIA

01-5/7



Belgrade, 3 February 2014

Dear Sir/Madam,

It is our pleasure to invite you to the scientific and technical conference, within the framework of implementation of the project Network of Young Innovators in the Agro-Food Sector (NO-BLE Ideas Network), "Using Knowledge to enhance the Agro-Food Sector in Serbia", which will be held on 28 February 2014 at the Chamber of Commerce and Industry of Serbia, Terazije 23, Large Hall, 2nd floor, at 11:00AM.

The Chamber of Commerce and Industry of Serbia is a partner on the IPA Project Network of Young Innovators in the Agro-Food Sector-NOBLE Ideas, implemented with 13 partners from 7 countries through the South East Europe Transnational Cooperation Program.

The aim of the Project is to improve cooperation between the scientific and the business sectors through development and promotion of innovative ideas in the agro-food sector in order to transfer knowledge and technologies and link science and economy, improve competitiveness of enterprises and comply with the EU legal regulations in the field of agriculture. Visibility of new innovative ideas is guaranteed by international presentations and the transnational competition, which provide an opportunity for young researchers-innovators to present their projects to companies and interested investors, who will support the most valuable ideas by financing pilot projects.

Eminent academics and scientists from university schools and institutes and successful innovation firms have been invited to the Conference, who will present the results of researches and support to implementation of innovation in economy.

We believe that the subject of the Conference will excite your attention and that you will be interested in participating in the Conference and the NOBLE Ideas project.

With regards,

Željko Sertić
President
Chamber of Commerce and Industry of Serbia



Young InNOvators Network for SustainaBLE Ideas in the Agro-Food Sector, NO-BLE Ideas
South East Europe Transnational Cooperation Programme, 4th Call, Ref. No. SEE/D/0335/1.3/X

Conference

Using Knowledge to enhance the Agro-Food Sector

28 February 2014

Chamber of Commerce and Industry of Serbia, Large Hall, 2nd floor, Terazije 23, Belgrade

AGENDA

11:00 – 11:30	PARTICIPANT REGISTRATION
11:30 – 12:00	WELCOME ADDRESS AND KEYNOTE SPEECH
	Željko Sertić, President of the Chamber of Commerce and Industry of Serbia
	Dragan Glamočić, Minister of Agriculture, Forestry and Water Management
	Representative of the Ministry of Education, Science and Technological Development
12:00 – 12:15	Young InNOvators Network for SustainaBLE Ideas in the Agro-Food Sector, NO-BLE Ideas, IPA Project
	Danica Mićanović, PhD, Country Project Manager, CCIS
12:15 – 12:30	The role of research and new developments in vegetable crops
	Bogoljub Zečević, PhD, Director of Institute for Vegetable Crops, Smederevska Palanka
12:30 – 12:45	Contribution of knowledge to improvements in fruit-growing in Serbia
	Svetlana Paunović, PhD, Director of Fruit-Growing Institute in Čačak
12:45 – 13:00	Beet juice as a product of a new technological process and entry in the EU market
	Nataša Milanović, CEO of BIOSIL D.O.O.
13:00 – 13:30	COFFEE BREAK
13:30 – 13:45	Using NS small grain seeds to increase the competitiveness of crop-raising in Serbia
	Prof. Novo Pržulj, PhD, Head of Small Grains Department at the Institute of Field and
	Vegetable Crops Novi Sad
13:45 – 14:00	Water as the source of life – Extraction and purification of ground water
	Prof. Tomislav Trišović, PhD, CEO of AQUA CRYSTAL D.O.O.
14:00 – 14:30	Innovative projects by NO-BLE members:
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Aleksandra Ivetić, MSc, Use of dry ice in ensilage of fodder • Marko Kostić, Use of BioSticks in the nutrition of home-grown plants • Ivan Karman, Expert Agriculture Network
14:30 – 14:45	Education and knowledge
	Prof. Miladin Kostić, PhD, Dean of State University of Novi Pazar
14:45 – 15:00	HORIZON 2020
	Prof. Viktor Nedović, PhD, Head of HORIZON 2020 Working Party, University of Belgrade
15:00	COCKTAIL

Jointly for our common future

Прилог 14. Чланство у уређивачким одборима



economics management information technology

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Грешни Милоје

РАЗГОВОР
СА АКАДЕМИКОМ ЈОВАНОМ ДЕРЕТИЋЕМ
О СТАЊУ У СРБСКОЈ
ПРАВОСЛАВНОЈ ЦРКВИ

Ревнитељ
Ниш, 2014.

Грешни Милоје
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О СТАЊУ У СРПСКОЈ ПРАВОСЛАВНОЈ ЦРКВИ

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