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Attached is a reprint of the section on lead and lead alloys prepared by the Lead Industries Association and published in the September 1955 issue of "Industrial and Engineering Chemistry," official publication of the American Chemical Society.

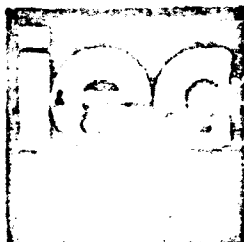
The section is part of the Ninth Annual Materials of Construction Review. Additional copies are available as long as our supply lasts.

Yours very truly,

Robert L. Ziegler
Robert L. Ziegler
Secretary



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Lead and Its Alloys

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LEAD supply continued plentiful and at a reasonable price. The American Society for Testing Materials Committee (ASTM) Subcommittee H are now working on a proposed revision of ASTM Standard Specifications for pig lead (B 20-65). The revision involves a reduction in the number of grades specified inasmuch as some two listed are no longer commercially available (1).

Research Progress

High Purity Lead. Several research papers were published last year on the subject of high purity lead. Fagnant (11) described the production and application of superpure lead, along with its physical and chemical properties. Applications included the chemical industry, lead-salt batteries, and others.

Hughes (12) evaluated the various methods of preparing high purity lead and, based on analytical results, described a combination of procedures that result in lead of extremely high purity. The method involves the electrolytic displacement of bismuth and other elements from lead salt in solution by treatment with metal, coprecipitation of numerous impurities as lead sulfate, conversion to metal, and final vacuum distillation.

De Souza Santos (13) showed how refined lead of 99.99+% is being manufactured in Brazil. Purity requirements, composition of lead bullion, sequence of refining operations, descriptions of equipment used, sampling, chemical analyses, and composition of the refined lead were all given.

Davey (14) described the desilverizing of lead bullion, going into the theoretical aspects of the silver-lead-tin system and the fundamental laws of various desilverizing procedures.

Kramer (15) described several processes for the production of lead alloys and crude soft lead in Germany, along with techniques for the removal of copper, tin, and antimony.

For certain specialized experimental work involving radioluminescence and radiation detection equipment, commercially purified leads which may contain minute traces of radium-dosimetry series elements can introduce indications of radioactivity, harmful for all common purposes and undetectable by conventional devices but of high enough radioactivity to upset extremely sensitive detectors. To alleviate this situation, the Atomic Energy Commission at the Oak Ridge National Laboratories has asked the Lead Industries Association for its assistance in a cooperative research program, the purpose of which will be to evaluate all of the commercially available leads as to the presence of detectable trace radioactivity. It is anticipated that such factors as geological age, proximity of ore deposits to uranium minerals, methods of refining, and presence of "thorium" and other radioactive contaminants, will all have a bearing on the investigation.

Physical Characteristics of Lead. Douglas and Davis (16) measured the heat content relative to 0° C. of a sample of 99.9% lead at low temperatures to 800° C. and derived the heat of fusion and the heat capacity of the solid and liquid from the data. The heat capacity, entropy, heat content, and free energy are tabulated at intervals over the range of 2-27° to 1250° K.

Feinberg (17) determined the heat capacity and resistance measurements for lead and aluminum wires. Measurements at

temperatures ranging from room to near melting point were determined for each metal. The author showed that both heat capacities and temperature coefficients of resistance increased in temperature in such a way as to suggest that they are influenced by a single activated process rather than by imperfections.

Some measures of sound velocity in single crystal specimens of lead and particularly the effect of cold work surfaces on ultrasonic echoes were given by Kaminer (18).

Bordens and Nerve (19) determined the dissipation of elastic waves in lead at high temperature. The damping of extensional vibrations in lead was measured in ranges from 10 to 60 Kc for temperatures between 300° and 600° K. by means of electrostatic methods.

Mastek (20) described the determination of oxygen content in lead by the hydrogen reduction method and others.

McKewen (21) described an accelerated method of determining the endurance limits of lead and lead alloys using a standard fatigue specimen and Wohler-type machine.

Advances in Lead Physical Metallurgy. Berman and Jones (22) reported on the role of inverse segregation and redistribution of solute atoms in the freezing of hypoeutectic lead-antimony alloys. They show that there are possible harmful effects in storage battery grids caused by the concentration of antimony in the surface of the alloy. The effect appears to be caused by interdiffusion of solute atoms in the alloy having non-uniform composition to the gap left between the remelted crust and the solid face during solidification.

Tiedema and Bergers (23) studied precipitation in lead-tin alloys and confirmed with x-ray photographs of aging single crystals of lead in tin alloys the fact that the rate of decomposition is maximum at definite undercooling. The precipitation process is discontinuous and accompanied by recrystallization. For slow rates of precipitation the resulting fine grained material showed the texture to be related to the orientation of the original single crystal lattice.

Kay and Farver (24) investigated the titanium-lead system in the region 0 to 66% lead and from 800° C. to liquidus temperatures.

Creep Characteristics. Duffin (25) issued a progress report on an investigation of creep, fracture, and bending of commercial lead alloys for cable sheathing considered in cooperation with the Edison Research Committee of the Commonwealth Edison Co. and the Department of Theoretical and Applied Mechanics of the University of Illinois.

In lead-tin-copper tests of commercial alloys, just as for other lead and lead alloys, at stress of 300 lb. per sq. inch or less, there seem to be three well defined stages: a preliminary stage during which creep starts at a relatively high rate and diminishes in rate as the stage proceeds; a stage during which the creep may remain nearly constant, diminishes gradually at a greatly reduced rate for several thousand hours, or gradually increases for a long period; and a third stage during which the creep rate increases, the specimen tends to "creek down," and final fracture occurs. The creep rate during the second stage, which is the minimum creep rate during the entire test, is usually taken as the index of creep resistance of the metal. Low creep rate means high creep resistance.

C creep deformation in lead alloys results from the combination of two mechanisms; creep within the grains, which occurs as crystallographically directed slip, or translation; and plastic flow at the grain boundaries. At higher stresses creep deformation which precedes failure is more a result of slip, whereas with the lower stresses reported in the creep tests, grain boundary flow becomes the major mechanism of deformation. The alloying constituents tend to form a mechanical lock with the grains, retarding slip due to stresses below certain limits. Failure then takes place at the grain boundaries.

Dr. J. C. Fisher (14) points out that metals that form appreciable alpha and solute phases tend to have a lower creep resistance than lead. Under the influence of heat and stress, unless the alloy is artificially aged, precipitation takes place and a higher creep rate is observed. If the precipitation is discontinuous highly localized boundary flow leads to early fracture. Evenly dispersed particles of solute or stable intermediate compounds greatly enhance the creep resistance of lead.

The presence of other metals in lead retards recrystallization. Arsenic gives the lead an extremely fine grain size and also retards recrystallization. When recrystallization does occur the grains are small in comparison to other alloys of lead. The self-annealing tendency of armature lead is a slow recrystallization spread over a long period of time. The elevated creep properties of the armature leads at lower temperatures (110° F.) are due to the ability of these materials to retain considerable work hardening from the lead process. At the higher temperatures (above 110° F.) some recovery and slow recrystallization take place which increase the creep rate and lead to greater elongation.

Multiple strip bending machines operating at 110° F. with 10-min. and 1-sec. cycles were used to measure the bending resistance of a longitudinal strip cut from sheeting. In the range of strains commonly met in service (0.3 to 0.8%), the superiority in bending resistance of the armature leads was demonstrated. Alloys prone to discontinuous precipitation have poor bending resistance in this range of strains. Slightly overaged alloys are more resistant to bending. Some of the alloys that tended to lose ductility under low stress conditions had good bending resistance in the range of stresses. Very good bending resistance was obtained with both copper-bearing and tellurium-bearing armature leads in which the arsenic content was slightly higher than the tin content.

Preheating of the press during straining affects the creep properties of the sheeting. Even if the sheeting is quenched some distance from the die block, a section of the sheeting may become overaged due to slow cooling near the die block. The creep resistance of this section is lower and failure occurs here. For an inch or two before the press mark the sheeting is not cooled as much and retains a more severe quench when the press is started. This section is slightly overaged but more nearly to the point of maximum creep resistance.

Brook (15) demonstrated the effect of grain size on creep rate and the effect of stress and grain boundary sliding on two similar specimens of lead containing 0.5% tin. One specimen tested at a stress of 300 lb. per sq. inch, crept 51% in 13,000 hours, whereas the other specimen tested at 300 lb. per sq. inch crept only 21% in the same time. The author attributed the surprising drop in creep rate at the higher stress to recrystallization which occurred during the test.

Hodges and Threlson (16) continued their work on the creep and fatigue properties of lead and lead alloys investigated the effects of some constitutional factors. Because of the complexity of factors at work it was too difficult to produce results in a quantitative way. Qualitative generalization only was attempted.

Bell, Drayton, and Watkins (17) assigned to the British Non-Ferrous Research Association the task of a patent on a process for lead coating formed on copper and nickel. This process involved that metal subjected to a chemical solution containing a solution of lead on lead particles. Lead particles of the size of the grain size as a measure of the surface area of the metal. The process described that a solution of lead in a solution of 0.5% tin in lead. The tin solution produced a metal coating of 0.001 to 0.002 inch. This system forms no stable intermetallic compounds with the metal to be coated. Any type of solution, gas or liquid, or high temperature alloy may be substituted in the solution. The presence of arsenic, antimony, or bismuth in the lead apparently has little or no effect on the existing microstructure of the metal-lead. The metal may be added to the solution lead in the form of metal, as a metal, or as a metal-lead compound. The metal to be coated are prepared in the usual manner by first degassing and pickling using hot 10% sulfuric acid for the latter. Copper was pickled by dipping in ferrous sulfate or chloride solutions. After pickling the metal is fixed with aqueous zinc chloride or zinc-ammonium chloride. According to the patent the lead coatings are smooth, continuous, and relatively free from pores. The inventors declare that no other method of lead coating by hot dipping hitherto employed gives coatings so free from porosity in the case of steel, steel, and copper. The coatings are uniformly from 0.001 to 0.002 inch thick and are not destroyed by subsequent working of coating even above the melting point of lead.

Low Grid Alloys. One of the reasons storage batteries were not in service is economic of the lead-antimony positive grids. To compensate for this, there has been a trend toward reduction of the antimony content of grid alloys as a means of increasing battery life. Roberts (18) found that by substituting small percentages of silver and arsenic for some of the antimony content, service life was increased materially by improving the resistance of positive grids to corrosion.

Lowest battery grid alloys contain from 8 to 12.5% antimony, according to the patents by adding between 0.45 and 1.25% arsenic, the antimony content can be lowered to between 4.5 and 8.5%. By adding silver in the order of 0.04 to 0.6% in addition to the arsenic and antimony, the battery life due to lowered grid metal corrosion is not only increased but the evolution of undesirable chlorine and arsenic gases is reduced. Figure 1 shows how the service life of a lead-acid battery is influenced by the presence of arsenic and silver of varying percentages in the grid alloy.

Corrosion Characteristics

Roll (19, 20) summarized the principal applications and significant characteristics of lead and lead alloys as used in the chemical process industries, in the form of a series of two reference sheets published by the American Institute of Chemical Engineers. The first covered the grades and forms in which lead is employed in chemical construction, including its characteristics, properties, and common types of construction. Lead valves, castings, cladings, and sheet construction are detailed. Heat treatment, availability, temperature limitations, and mechanical and physical properties are also given. The second reference sheet was devoted principally to the corrosion characteristics of lead and lead alloys. It included tabulated data showing the performance of lead with commercially used acids and alkalis, organic gases, organic materials, and others.

Kate (21) reviewed the corrosion characteristics of lead, as



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MATERIALS OF CONSTRUCTION

Porcelain enameled aluminum ... possible by low fusing temperature of lead film

partially the exposure of corrosion of lead is neutral, acid, and alkali solutions. Surface reactions were detailed.

In *Lead*, a publication of the Lead Industries Association, reactions of several basic and industrial wastes operating at high temperatures were described (17). One of the wastes described was lead. A waste treated lead and the effect of 15% lead in waste on lead. The waste was a basic waste, rich in chlorides, cyanides, and some hydrochloric acid and operated at 500° F. Another waste, produced with a lead and lead being, was having 25% sulfuric acid and acid base of 150° F. and after 12 years service was in perfect condition. The waste containing 60° C. have been in service for about 6 years in perfect condition.

The *Lead* Association of Chemical Engineers (18), through the work of the Lead Committee in 1940, published the report to a comprehensive study to problems used in making corrosion tests in an industrial lead plant. Information was provided on test procedures, criteria and materials, along with recommendations based on reports from 22 companies and Electrolytic Corporation.

Huover (19), speaking at the 27th Annual Meeting of the Lead Industries Association, discussed the outlook for lead in electrical engineering. He pointed out the need to encourage the use of bonded lead equipment where lead physical installations are at a minimum and cost is still in line with competitive materials. The use of bonded lead has increased from between 1500 and 1500 tons per year 3 years ago to between 2000 and 2500 tons per year at present.

Blagoev (19) reviewed the manufacture and application of bonded lead alloys for the handling of sulfuric acid.

Corrosion by Liquid Lead. In conjunction with studies of the solubility of liquid metals for high temperature heat transfer systems, an investigation was made by Gungler (17) to determine the resistance of 13 ceramics and cermets, 13 refractory metals, and 9 high temperature alloys to attack by lead-bismuth eutectic alloy (44.1% Pb and 55.9% Bi) in a dynamic system at temperatures of 1500° or 2000° F. With the exception of zirconium carbide all the ceramics and cermets were resistant to attack by the molten alloy at 2000° F. Of the thirteen refractory metals only zirconium monoxide exhibited resistance to lead-bismuth at 2000° F. All nine high temperature alloys had poor resistance at 1500° F.

Cuthbert and Masly (17) described a satisfactory new testing technique devised for comparing the corrosion characteristics of a series of metals in liquid lead, one of several dynamic liquid metals used as coolants in nuclear reactors. The apparatus is reported to be simple, easy to construct and relatively inexpensive and apparently affords a means of studying metals such as chromium and molybdenum which could not be successfully tested by more conventional techniques. The apparatus and test results are detailed.

Lead Protective Paints. The Red Lead Technical Committee of the Lead Industries Association developed five new formulations for the protective coating of metal, weathered, or treated and galvanized surfaces, according to a preliminary report by Cherry (7). Prior work on red lead paints specifically suited to weathered iron and steel has been limited. The present formulations are the result of 3 years of separate tests. Three of them are for one-coat application; two are for use under a top coat. The paints are versatile in that they serve as active sacrificial coatings for galvanized surfaces which are already rusted from weathering or they serve as protective coatings for new

galvanized metal that has been properly treated. Testing of the new formulations is continuing and a full report by the Committee is expected some time next year. Detailed formulations for five different systems are given in Red Lead Technical Letter No. 9 published by and available from the Lead Industries Association.

Porcelain Enameled Aluminum. Considerable activity has taken place in application of porcelain enameled aluminum, a new material made possible by the low fusing temperatures of lead film (17). It is sufficient to require use for lining and certain wall construction, use of porcelain enameled tile, which is reported during the year. Porcelain enameled tile, which is announced as a new material, is being used in New York City subway cars, airport runway markings, and just about to come on the market are enameled aluminum roofing—e.g., roofing utensils where outside are porcelain enameled coated.

Earfield and Horvath (21) described the supply picture of lead, reported in detail where and how the metal is mined, its treatment at concentrating mills, smelters, and refineries, and the importance of secondary lead. Lead reserves were also discussed as well as consolidated and fabricated forms with particular reference to solid-type bearings, storage batteries, and red lead primers for railroad use.

Engineering Advances

Zahn (17) showed how casting quality can be improved through better permanent mold techniques. Defects in the casting of storage battery grids caused by solidification stresses, segregation effects, and impinging of hot metal by mold ejectors were eliminated through redesign of the grid and better casting control.

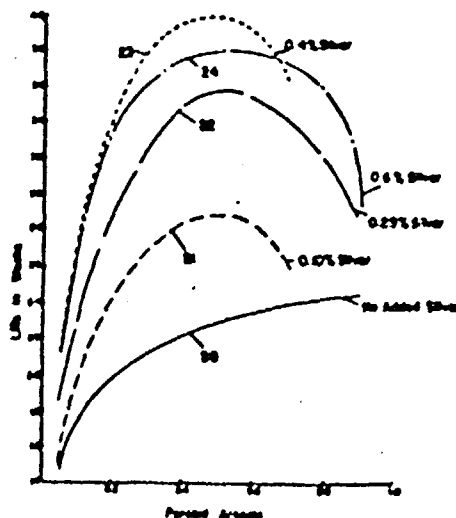


Figure 1. Effect of silver and arsenic in grid metal on service life of lead-acid storage batteries

