

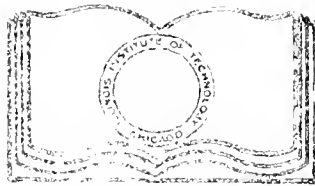
Test of a New Type of
Storage Cell

A. J. Allyn
R. S. Torrance

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Test of a New Type of
Storage Cell

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**“ TEST OF A NEW
TYPE OF STORAGE CELL.”**

A THESIS

PRESENTED BY

A.J. ALLYN & R.S. TORRANCE.

TO THE

PRESIDENT AND FACULTY

OF

ARMOUR INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY

FOR THE DEGREE OF

BACHELOR OF SCIENCE IN ELECTRICAL ENGINEERING

HAVING COMPLETED THE PRESCRIBED COURSE OF STUDY IN

ELECTRICAL ENGINEERING

JUNE, 1906.

C. E. Freeman
Prof. E. E. Snow

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THEMIS.
THE LEAD ACCUMULATOR.

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HISTORICAL OUTLINE.

It seems necessary, in writing on a subject of this kind, that a short sketch of the history and development of the storage battery, or lead accumulator, as it is sometimes called, be given in order to give the reader a better understanding of the ultimate conditions of operation of the test, and to gain a better understanding of the action of the cell.

The first battery of any sort to be invented was the voltaic pile. This was composed of a pile of metallic sheets, between which were interposed pieces of blotting paper saturated in the electrolyte. This had hardly been discovered than it was also noticed that there was some resisting force developed in it, which tended to choke or hinder the flow of the current. It was further noticed that, if the pile was connected to some metallic electrodes dipping in some salty or saline conducting fluid, these electrodes became electrified, so to speak, or obtained the power of giving a momentary current after the pile had been disconnected. This was the phenomenon of the secondary battery, and was first discovered by Cautherot in 1801. This same thing was also noticed some two years later by another man, Ritter, and he forthwith constructed what he termed his secondary pile. This was built in the same manner as the voltaic pile, with a change in the electrolyte. This pile was capable of giving out currents of considerable strength, for a short time, when charged by a

primary pile composed of a larger number of elements than itself.

Following this investigation, there were numerous inventors at work along these lines, and it was at this period that the famous Daniell, Grove, and Bunsen cells were invented. The first man, however, to investigate polarisation with a view to finding a use to which they could be put, was Gaston Plante, and in 1859 he commenced his series of investigations that have made him famous. It was not, however, until 1881 that the lead accumulator became a commercial proposition, and it was not well defined at that time. Therefore we will study the history of the cell from that time on. This study practically means a study of the different forms of electrodes and plates that were used from this time.

There have, of course, been many types of electrodes used, some of them too expensive to be of any commercial importance, but the one that is in common use today is the lead plate type.

The first cells were constructed of pure unalloyed lead, but in one of his 1881 patents, Mr. J.S. Sellon claims the use of electrodes constructed of alloys of lead and antimony. This claim however, does not appear to have been upheld as the construction material of the electrodes has been alloys of lead ever since, and is now used in general practice. Many other materials have been tried, and some of them with more success than the lead materials, but these have been mostly too costly. Gold and silver alloys, platinum, and even carbon have all been tried, but have been found wanting in some particular. This brings us to the subject of active materials. In the case of a lead cell, the active materials are always the same, although the way or the material from which they are prepared may differ through a wide range.

In designing an electrode, it was first found that if plates of solid lead were subjected to a forming charge, the negative plates were turned to spongy lead, while the positive plates were acted upon in such a way as to produce a granular structure which was not self supporting, and would fall to the bottom of the cell. The theory of this action will be taken up later. This condition of things of course brought up the problem of the support of the active material, and to this end there were various types of supporting plates constructed. There were about as many ways also tried of producing the active material. The first of these ways was to subject plates of alloyed lead to a forming charge, thereby producing the active material in the cell. This, however was found to be an expensive process, and interfered with the cost of production of the cell, so there were other ways devised. In 1881 Plante proposed to heat the electrodes during formation, and in 1887, Brush put forward the same idea. In 1888, a patent taken out by H.C. Tudor shows that the formation of the plates may be accelerated by carrying it out in an electrolyte containing a small percentage of sulphuric acid. This process, however, presupposes the preliminary treatment of the electrodes in such a way that they may be rapidly oxidised, or else their formation in some special oxidising electrolyte.

In 1888 Plante patented a preliminary treatment of the electrodes in nitric acid. In 1893, P.J.K. Dujardin proposed a forming solution consisting of dilute sulphuric acid, with potassium or sodium nitrate added to it, and in 1899 Epstein took out a patent for a preliminary boiling in a 1 per cent solution of nitric acid, followed by a forming charge in a sulphuric acid electrolyte. All of these schemes are based on the formation of the

active material from the electrodes themselves. The first to introduce the idea of the preparation of the active material not prepared from the plates was Faure. He proposed to employ any lead salt that could be utilized, such as lead sulphate or lead oxides. This he proposed to mix to a paste and use with some suitable form of support as the active material of both positive and negative electrodes. The liquid used in the mixing of this paste was dilute sulphuric acid. All these forms of active material tend toward the use of sulphuric acid as an electrolyte, but chlorides have also been used.

In the use of these pasted electrodes, it was found that a considerable saving of the current necessary for the formation of the plate could be obtained by the substitution of litharge in the place of the sulphates and oxides for the negative plates. Faure appears to have tried all kinds of substances and salts in the construction of his battery.

There is also another class of raw active materials, and those are those salts of lead which are readily fusible. The only one of these which has received any practical attention is the chloride. In 1898, F. Maxwell Lyte for the use of lead chloride, using it either cast in pieces of a suitable size, and a lead frame cast round these afterward, or using it direct without any frame at all. There have been many attempts to prepare active materials of sufficient mechanical stability to be self-supporting, but it has been found that the action of the cell destroys this quality, and hence, supports of some character are used in every type of cell in present use.

In the first pasted plates used by Faure, the supports were nothing more nor less than plain sheets of lead with the active

material pasted on their surfaces. This method, however, found to be inefficient, and hence some other type of grid was devised. There were two classes of the so-called grid plates devised at almost the same time. These were the cellular and the grooved types. The first or cellular type consisted of a plate of lead with hexagonal openings straight through from one side to the other, and their walls at right angles to the sides of the plate. There was found to be faulty owing to the fact that the active material would shrink away from the cell walls, and in their use was destroyed, as the material would fall out. This was especially found to be true of the positive plates. In view of this fact, Tollen, in 1896, devised a grid that had a cellular construction, but the opening of the cells was smaller in the center of the grid than at the outside. He thought that this construction would grip the material and hold it in place. The first ones had flat sides, coming to an edge in the center. He also devised some convex grids. The cells in this case had convex surfaces, making a smaller opening in the center that would prevent the falling out of the material. These grids are very successful at first, but it was observed that the corners taper of the cells made the cross-section of the material at the center point so small that there was continual trouble with the cracking of the material at that point, and a consequent falling out. It was at this point that Tollen brought his concave grid. This was of the reverse construction of the convex grid, having the cell surfaces concave. This made the opening in the center of the grid larger than the opening in the surface of the plate. Various other forms of grid were devised at this time, such as the Menges grid in 1897. This grid had V-shaped bars, and partook more

of the channel than in small sized cells. The first appearance of the barbed wire which is in general use at the present time. In 1874, I learned, from a plot, with the wire about section bars, with sharp points, which were pointed toward the top of the wire, which, in effect, amounted to the same as a wire of the same diameter, but with the tapered sides. It was not until the year 1880, that I first that more active material could be obtained or, later, about 1885, crossing it's size. To produce a good wire, it is necessary to have the various forms of wire that are used at this time would fill much more space than the wire of the same size. I will consider that these types of wire are not suitable for electrical.

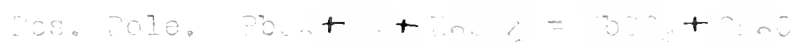
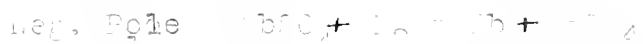
We have, then, a wire which is made of iron, and from the first part of the wire, and up to the end of the wire, and construction.

THEORY.

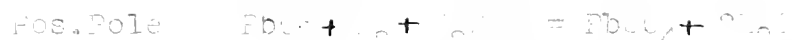
The theory of the last section is very much the present time one that is open to discussion of all points. The one that is most common, the more usual, and is used in the theory by a Russian, DCLAZELIK. This, I think, is the most probable of those we have investigated, and it will be used as the general theory of the action of the cells that are used by the present of this paper.

There has been some theories advanced as to the origin of the electric current, and among them is the chemical theory. It is a well known fact that electrical current may be produced by the chemical action of certain elements. This process was also found, with certain other elements, to be a reversible one. The principal credit for the reactions in a storage cell, must

to Plante. During the charge of cell there are two reactions present. The essential reaction consists of the oxidation of the reduction of the lead plates, and the other reaction is the decomposition of the water in the electrolyte into its components. The liberation of the oxygen in the water oxidizes the lead of the positive plate to lead peroxide, while the negative is charged to spongy lead. The process is somewhat similar in the case of the discharge, the lead peroxide being changed into a state of still lower oxidation while the spongy lead is converted to lead oxide. This theory is in part correct, but it was opposed by J. M. Latimer, and R. Tribel. The theory of these men was that during the charge the sulphuric acid is decomposed into H_2 and SO_2 , the first being set free at the positive pole and the latter at the negative pole. These radicals then act upon the plates according to the following:



During the discharge the current flows in the opposite direction so that the radicals are set free at the opposite poles. Then



This, it will be noted is the reverse reaction of that which took place before, so that we have the surfaces of both of the plates covered with sulphate, and the current production ceases. From the equations we can then combine them and form the equation of the lead accumulator as given by Latimer:



This gives the change during charge reading from left to right, and that for discharge, from right to left.

In order to understand the above equation, and to appreciate the physical and chemical significance of the work done in the reactions in the production of current, it is necessary to consider these actions separately, and their relation to the production of the current. To do this, we must show that these actions really take place in the cell during charge and discharge, and that the formation of these substances is concerned in the formation of the current. Since we have seen that the process is reversible, we must consider both the formation and the decomposition of the substance appearing in the equation. The first quantity that appears in the equation is lead peroxide, and we will consider it first. The first observation is that during the electrolysis of a Daniell cell with lead electrodes, lead peroxide and spongy lead are formed, and it is an evident fact that the spongy lead is formed, since it is directly apparent on the plates after the solution is filtered, and there has never been question of the solution of the lead in acid that have been taken from the positive electrode during charge or discharge, it has been demonstrated that the quantity of the lead peroxide formed is very nearly proportional to the current through the plate. It may be also observed that the density of the acid in the cell varies almost directly with the current. This change in the density of the acid is evidently due to the presence or absence of water. From this we deduce that water is formed during one stage of the action, and decomposed at another. It would appear that the formation of the peroxide takes place during the discharge, and that its decomposition takes place during the charge, since the density of the acid rises on charge, and falls on discharge. There is one other quantity that it is necessary to show

takes a part in the reaction of the cell, this could be lead sulphate. In fact, it is shown that by taking account of the mass of active material one finds in the course of the reaction sulphate in it by analysis. This amount is not accounted for by leadstone and water. They are doubtless the direct products of the sulphuric acid, and are, not only in the case of the cell, but that the cell is not actively converted into lead sulphate. This could be a general conclusion. It is also found that the temperature of the cell is proportional to the current which flows through it. This fact was determined by several measurements.

Having no doubt that the reaction is not a simple one, but that it is more complicated, we must proceed to a consideration of the various kinds of reactions which can occur in the M.F. Plants noticed the fact that the cell, when in full operation, on the surface of the active material, and that after the completion of the discharge of the cell, the active material carries out any extensive work which is done in the cell, and showed that the active material of the cell is in direct proportion to the amount of the reaction which takes place. In fact, if we assume it as such, we can see that the cell is not converted for theoretical. This is shown by the fact that the active material of the thermodynamic cell, which is the cell, when charged with sulphuric acid at a higher concentration, and by comparing the heat energy formed on the discharge of one cell to the other, and knowing the amount of the reaction of sulphuric acid, we equate this to the heat energy which is produced by the reaction of the sulphuric in the cell of high density. When by measuring the voltage of the cells, he finds that the statement of the rise and

fall of the E.M.F. with the density of the acid in the cell is, theoretically speaking, true. This has also been found to be true, by the actual experiment.

Another line of research was opened when the question of the effect of temperature on the E.M.F. of the cell was brought into question. It was shown by several different investigators that the E.M.F. of the cell is independent of the temperature. The question of temperature effects also brought up the pressure question. This has also been shown to have no effect on the E.M.F. of the cell.

We will now consider the behaviour of the cell during charge and discharge. It has been found that the E.M.F. of the cell is several tenths volts lower during discharge than during charge. From this fact we infer that there is a constant loss of energy accompanying the operation of a cell, and that, therefore, the efficiency can not rise above a certain point. This loss in potential is explainable along the line of a change in the resistance of the cell. This is, however not the case, for the resistance would have to change about 70 times the amount to produce the change in the voltage that does occur. The only other explanation is then, by assuming polarization of the plates. Several views have been put forward to explain this matter, but the one that seems plausible is the idea of the change being due to the change in the concentration on the surface of the acid. As we have established the fact that the E.M.F. of the cell changes with the density of the acid, it seems probable that this would be the cause of the difference between the charging and the discharging potentials.

The behaviour of a cell in operation, may be expressed in somewhat the following manner.

when the charging current is sent through the cell, the voltage is seen to rise rather abruptly, and then to fall slightly to a point at which it continues until the end of the charge is neared, at which point it begins to rise rapidly again. The sudden rise at the first is probably due to the rapid concentration of the acid contained in the active material. This would be the apparent result, since we now know that the E.M.F. varies with the density of the acid, and we also know that the active material is spongy metal, and that the acid formed in it can only get out by diffusion, and that slowly, so that it would seem that the sudden concentration of the acid contained in the active material would be responsible for the abrupt rise in the voltage at the beginning of the charge. It has also been noticed that during rest, there is a slight film of sulphate formed over the surfaces of the plates, and that this will offer a resistance to the passage of the current. Then we may account that the slight drop in the voltage, shortly after the charge has been started, is due to the destruction of this film of sulphate by the charging current. The discharge of the cell works in just the reverse manner. The discharge voltage drops abruptly at first, then rising higher, at which value it remains until nearing the end of the discharge when it drops rapidly. The first drop of the curve is probably due to the limitation of the sulphate in the immediate proximity of the plate, and a consequent decrease in the density of the acid. This limitation in the density causes a decrease in the voltage, which is proportional to it. The final falling off of the voltage of the cell is due in a like manner to the decrease in the density of the cell's acid.

After considering the effect of the cell on the conditions of charge and discharge, it must also take into account changes that take place in the cell when it is inactive. There are several changes that take place in the cell under inactive conditions. One of these is the recovery of the cell. When a cell has been subjected to discharge, and the plates are at rest it will be found that the E.M.F. of the cell will rise. This rise is called the recovery of the cell. This rise will be observed to be rather rapid at first, but as it progresses the rate of increase becomes slower and slower. Mr. B. has shown that the recovery curve of a cell will rise and then level off at a voltage recovery as ordinates. The time to have a recovery that the E.M.F. of the cell varies approximately directly with the density of the acid in the cell, it is at once evident that the recovery of the E.M.F. reaches its maximum value when the E.M.F. has reached a value corresponding with the density of the acid that is present in the cell at that point. This recovery effect is probably due to the fact that the acid density in the active mass of material is much lower than that of the acid in the cell surrounding the plates. This is due to the rapid absorption of the acid by the active material during discharge, which takes place faster than the acid from the outside of the active mass can circulate through it. Then when the charge is stopped, the acid in the mass is at a lower density than that outside, and as the outside acid gets into the mass, the E.M.F. rises in proportion to the density in the mass.

Another effect in the open cell is the effect of self discharge. It has been observed that, if a cell be allowed to remain idle,

the density of the acid will gradually decrease. There will, therefore, be a consequent drop in the E.M.F. of the cell, since we have seen that it varies with the acid density. This discharge will vary under different conditions existing in the cell. If the acid in the cell be pure, the discharge will range from one to two per cent of the quantity of electricity in the cell. This rate is per day. If the acid contains impurities, the rate of self discharge will reach as high as fifty per cent, running higher in some cases. This will, of course, vary with the amount of impurities in the acid. Probably the discharge of the negative, or spongy lead electrode is of the greater importance, since it has been observed that the effect in that case is the more pronounced. If the acid be impure, due to the presence of some strong negative metal, this metal will be precipitated by and on the spongy lead. This precipitation forms a local battery in itself, and this element is short-circuited on itself, thereby causing the change of the spongy lead into lead sulphate. This action is accompanied by a strong effervescence of hydrogen. There has been advanced by Nernst that the potential difference of a metal against its solution depends not only on the nature of the metal, but upon the amount of the metal ions in the electrolyte surrounding the metal. Lead can, according to this theory, precipitate other metals in sulphuric acid, but can not do so in the presence of soluble lead salts. Now since the evolution of hydrogen is accompanied by the presence of a voltage, it remains to be seen the voltage present when this action takes place with the various metals, thereby determining the metals which can cause the self-discharge of a lead electrode. The voltages of evolution of hydrogen have been measured by Nernst, and it has been

found that at a potential having a voltage of less than .75 v. causing the evolution of hydrogen, can cause the self-discharge of a lead plate. The metals that have been determined as producing this effect are:

Platinum --	.65 volts.
Gold--	.60 "
Iron--	.60 "
Silver	.15 "
Nickel	.61 "
Copper	.65 "

From the above, it will be seen that the self-discharge is not rapid in the case of gold, iron, or the slowest, in the case of copper. This has also been observed in the practical operation of batteries. This condition, in the case of platinum, should be especially noted, as some sulphuric acid is concentrated in platinum retorts, and it is well known that, in a case of this kind, that there will be platinum or antimony in the acid. This quality, in purchasing acid for storage battery use, should be carefully guarded against.

We must consider at this point, the self-discharge of the positive plate. This effect is not so markedly as that of the negative, as it takes place much more slowly, and consequently will not give as much attention, as it is of much less importance in the practical operation of the battery. Since metallic substances that might be present in the acid are not precipitated by lead peroxide, they are not of importance at this point, having no action on the discharge of the plate. The self-discharge of a positive plate is due to the fact that the lead peroxide is electro-positive to the lead composing the supporting frame or

grid that lies underneath the active material. This fact shows the formation of a local battery in the plate itself, the lead forming one pole and the peroxide the other. Then the oxidizing action of the peroxide on the lead forms a short-circuited cell, and the electrolytic action of this cell is to turn both the lead and the peroxide into lead sulphate. From this action it will be seen that the lead grid is gradually destroyed. This action is, however, not of much practical importance, since it takes place so slowly that it is scarcely perceptible. In wells of the best modern construction, this feature is practically eliminated, on account of the heavy covering of the lead peroxide. In this case the acid cannot circulate with any degree of freedom around the lead grid, hence the action of the peroxide on the lead is hindered. From this we may infer that this self-destruction of the plates, as it might be called, is not of practical importance in plates of heavy construction.

Another effect that is noticeable in the cell as it stands on open circuit, is the sulphating action of the acid on the plates. If an attempt is made to recharge a cell that has stood on open circuit for some time in a discharged condition, it will be found that the internal resistance of the cell has materially increased. This effect is noticeable for some time after the charging current has been turned on. This effect is due to the sulphating of the cell, and this fact will be noticed if the plates are discharged and allowed to stand for some time in that condition. The principal fact that will be noted in this connection is the fact that the plates become of a lighter color as they are allowed to stand. This change in color is due to the formation of a thin layer of lead sulphate on the surface of the plates.

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Another effect that influences the... the thickness of the plate.

From the previous discussion it is stated that the active material be distributed in a thin layer over the surface of the plate, thus giving great surface area to the action of the acid, the acid can more easily penetrate it, than if it were spread out in a thickness of smaller surface, and it is seen that thin plates are more or less better than the other point of the capacity of the cell. It should be, however, another consideration that must be kept in mind, and that is the limit of the plate. It has been previously said that the penetration of the acid into the active material has a tendency to soften the lead plates supporting grids. Thus, in the case of thin plates there is the question of the limit of the plate strength in view of. It has been found that plates constructed with this material are very short lived, and to get around this difficulty the thicker plate is used in the best cell construction.

The density of the acid in the cell is another influence that influences the capacity. This was first investigated by Neim, using a rubber cell. He found that the capacity of the cell was increased by an increase in the density of the acid up to a certain point, after which it fell off rapidly. This point he determined to be at a specific gravity of about 1.20. This effect must now be explained theoretically. It would seem at first glance that the capacity of the cell would rise continuously with the increase of the density. This, as shown by this experiment is untrue. At the start of the discharge, the current, following the path of least resistance, follows the outer layers of the active material, and at the discharge continues, the current penetrates deeper and deeper into the mass. This is due to the polarization of the outer layers of the mass, and is a result of

that the local potential in the pores is the same as on the outside. The density of the acid is proportional to the polarization potential in the outer layers of the active material. It is evident that this condition is present since the mass of active material is a very good conductor, and therefore has the same potential in the pores as on the outside.

Another influence on the capacity is that of temperature. This effect is due to the change in the conductivity of the acid with a change of temperature. Since the conductivity of the acid increases with a rise of temperature, it is also evident that the capacity of the cell rises greatly with an increase of the temperature. This is due also to the fact that the temperature has an effect on the diffusion of the acid into the pores of the active material, increasing with the temperature.

Now since we have considered some of the changes that take place in the cell during its action, we are in a position to consider the changes that take place during the formation of the plates. This consideration, properly, comes first, since the formation of the plates make up the working action of the cell, but it was necessary to consider the other conditions first in order to obtain a knowledge of these actions so that we can apply them to the changes that take place during the formation of the cell.

We saw at the beginning of the discussion that there are two kinds of plates used; one in which the active material is formed by the forming current from the lead plates themselves, and another in which the active material is formed from lead compounds placed on lead supporting grids. We will first consider the action of the first type of cell, then, leading up to the second class which is of a later development. The first

The first set of experiments is due to Plante, and is well known before. This method consisted of subjecting lead plates to the electrolytic action of dilute sulphuric acid. Plante formed his elements by charging the cells three or four times during the first day, and at intervals of six or eight days thereafter, to keep the plates from becoming too hard. After a few days the plates were well charged, and during this method of treatment until the cells were in a maximum condition of capacity, which was visually ascertained, the plates were kept connected in series, and the current was allowed to run in an opposite direction, until the plates had become so hard that the lead is brittle and will break only by the aid of a hammer, and the plates are then connected in series, and the current is allowed to run in the same direction, and consequently the charging, or recharging, of the current must be reversed. After the cells have reached the capacity before mentioned, the charging process is continued until the plates are placed only in its proper direction, and the charging process takes place in accordance with paragraph 1, and is illustrated by experiments, and it is therefore a disadvantage of this method, inasmuch as it is open to objection, which consists in the advantage over other methods that the plates are not affected by the action of other, and detrimental compounds which are liable to be present when the active material is exposed to the atmosphere, and is applied to the plates before charging. The plates are, however, the disadvantage of this process is the excessive rate of formation and a greater expenditure of electrical energy.

It will not take up the formation of plates composed of active material formed either by the cell and plates of the plates. This method of construction is due to Grove, and is made possible by mixing lead peroxide in contact with dilute sulphuric acid, and

applying this to lead plates. This reaction will continue for several hours, during which time the sulphate lead will be formed. The lead peroxide formed is a black substance which hardens. This of course, is not a suitable material for use as a positive plate in the cell. The plates are immersed in a solution of dilute sulphuric acid, and by electrolysis the lead sulphate of the former is converted to lead sulphate on the negative plate. It is the object of this experiment to show that the reaction is reversible. It is to be shown by experiment that if a current is passed through a lead sulphate cell, a large part of the current will be used in the formation of the plates in each direction. This is to be done by passing the current at the beginning of the cell in one direction, and then reversing it. It is to be shown that the electrolysis takes place, and that a small amount of lead is formed at the first end of the cell, and a small amount of hydrogen is evolved at the other end. If the current is reversed, the lead is formed at the other end, and the hydrogen is evolved at the first end. It is to be shown that the rate of reaction is more rapid in the immediate vicinity of the electrodes, and that the mass of sulphate diffused is small. The result is that the concentration of the lead ions increases, and the potential increases. This action will continue until the reaction is complete. It has been obtained for the evolution of hydrogen, and it is to be shown that action will take place. These facts would lead to the conclusion that the reaction would take place more rapidly in a neutral electrolyte than in the acid. This gives the formation of the negative plate.

decreases only very slightly with increasing dilution, and a noticeable change does not appear until very high dilutions are used and the currents become exceedingly low, of the order of 100 μs.

The degree of efficiency is also affected by the resistance of impurities in the acid, and in the case of very impure acid it may be as low as low as .7. This is so-called efficiency of such low importance than the efficiency proper. The efficiency proper is the ratio of the work that may be done by the battery after charges to the work that would be done by the battery if it were to charge a standard. These efficiencies of the work done in the work input are obtained by plotting the curves of charge against time, and the area enclosed by the curve, the axis of ordinates, and the axis of abscissae represents the work done, and the ratio of these two areas gives the efficiency of the cell. The losses that occur in this manner varies from 25 to 35 per cent. The losses that occur in the cell are, as we have seen, due to the polarization at the electrodes, and also due to the loss in voltage of the cell. The loss in voltage due to the internal resistance of the cell is very slight or conduct of the small internal resistance. There is another loss in the cell due to the expansion of the acid. This heat is not work done directly, but heat according to Joule's law, but is the heat of dilution of the acid in the cell. This is due to the continual dilution of the acid as the water is produced by electrolysis in the cell, and as this water dilutes the other acid in the cell there is a heating effect present. If a current of constant strength is used, the E.M.F. of the cell is also constant, so we infer that the concentration difference in the plates is also constant.

Therefore, the acid is replaced or carried away just as fast as it is consumed or formed by the cell. Now since the rate of equalization ~~XXXXXXXXXX~~, is proportional to the current, and since the rate of formation is proportional to the feeding current, the energy loss becomes $e = C \frac{f}{k} - I^2 t \times \text{lt-coulombs}$. where C is a constant depending on the cell under test. This is the relation of the efficiency to the mechanical construction of the cell, and is independent in great measure to the capacity of the cell. From this reasoning, it will be seen that we will obtain a condition of minimum energy loss when we use a more dilute solution during the period of charge, and a more concentrated solution during the discharge, since the acid in the mass of material is more concentrated during the charge, and less concentrated during the discharge. Following this line of argument, we see that for a condition of good operation the acid should be used at the concentration of maximum conductivity. This point is at a specific gravity of about 1.294. This points to the fact that the conductivity of the electrolyte is the determining factor for the efficiency of the cell, as well as for the capacity. The investigations of Heim show that the maximum efficiency is obtained by using acid of a 70 per cent solution, when measured in a charged condition. Other experiments, however, point to the use of 50 per cent acid, measured in a charged condition. From the previous discussion on the effect of the conductivity of the acid on the penetration of the action into the interior of the active mass, it will also follow that when the acid used is of the maximum conductivity, the current can spread itself upon a maximum area, and therefore the polarization becomes a minimum, hence the efficiency is a maximum.

Temperature also has an effect on the efficiency of the cell.

This effect has been seen to be proportional to the rise in temperature, and also that the efficiency falls off on the addition of substances such as gelatinous silicic acid. In order to get an exact expression for the efficiency of the cell, it would be necessary to introduce the quantity denoting the effect of the shrinkage of the pores of the active mass. There is, however, a lack of sufficient measurements to accurately determine the shrinkage of these parts, so this equation may not be derived. We can, however, get an expression that will give us an approximation of the relations existing between current and the loss of work. If we take the Joule's effect as being included in a constant in the equation, we may consider the loss of work as being proportional to the square of the current.

We have now studied all of the actions and effects of the action and operation of the cell, and have made an attempt to account for them theoretically, so that we must now take up the study of the ways of measuring these various quantities. The best proof of our theoretical derivations and conclusions is the subjection of them to experimental proof. This, of course, must be carried out along some system of regular measurements. We must first determine some standard of measurements of the different quantities that we have classed before us, and then all of our measurements of the cells must be based on a comparison by these measurements. One of the first quantities that confronts us is the measurement of the ϵ , β , of the cell. The ordinary way of measurement is by means of a voltmeter, but if we are to use these measurements for comparison with the results derived by theoretical computation, we must have some more accurate means of measurement, since a voltmeter is accurate only to .001 volt.

review of it is that the Weston Instrument Co., New York, has a precision voltmeter, which is, however, about as accurate as any of the ordinary voltmeter. The following method is, however, a more preferable method, but it is more difficult to apply than it is affected by the earth field, and it is very sensitive to interference by other conductors in the field. The following is a more accurate means of measuring the potential of a cell, and is a simple plan to carry out. A resistor of 100 ohms is connected in series with the cell, and the potential of the cell is measured to the limit of the balance; the potential of the cell is then measured during the discharge, at intervals of 10 minutes, and in 100 of the above. The cell is then a preferable from some reasons. First, the current may be drawn. This is preferred for the purpose of the cell. If the potential of the cell is measured during the discharge, the error is reduced to a minimum. The error is reduced to a minimum if the curves will represent the level of electrical activity in the cell. These errors are, however, reduced by the use of a cell, by the use of by counting the small squares contained in the cell. The method is preferable.

The measurement of the internal resistance of a cell is not as simple a matter as would be at first glance. The position would naturally be that it could be measured in the same manner as an open circuit circuit, but as the internal resistance of the cell is so small, the contact resistance of the connections makes itself felt to a considerable degree. The best method that has been devised is the method employing the use of an alternating current and a telephone. This method makes use also of

a slide-wire bridge. This bridge is adjusted, after making the proper corrections, until there is a point reached at which the telephone gives the minimum sound. This is the condition of balance. No cells are needed in this method, and arranged in such a manner that their I. P.'s. connect each other. This prevents their discharge through the slide-wire of the bridge. By this method it is possible to measure resistances down to .001 ohm.

PART II.

Particular Types of Cells.

Having now considered and discussed the general action of the accumulator, we will turn our attention to the particular type of cell that has been employed for this thesis. The cell was furnished for this purpose through the courtesy of the UNIVERSAL ELECTRIC STORAGE BATTERY CO. PAID.

"Construction":

The cell is that is designated by the manufacturers as their "Automobile Type" of cell. In their catalogue they list this type as "Type E" having 11 plates. This is also rated at 100 ampere hours capacity at a four hour rate of discharge. As I have just stated, the cell contains 11 plates, of 5-7/4" x 9-6/8" size, of which six are negative plates, and five are positive plates.

The negative plate is constructed of a lead grid of the size mentioned, and the spaces are filled with a composition of litharge, mixed with a dilute solution of sulphuric acid. This mixture is placed in the plates in the form of a paste, and then the plates are placed in a rack, and allowed to stand for twenty four hours. Then they are considered as sufficiently "set" to be placed in the cell for which they are designated.

The construction of the positive plates, which is considered by the company to be the principal strong point of the cell, is of a somewhat different character. In this case there is a very different construction used. To begin with, the plates are constructed of a number of small grids. These grids are in the shape of a rectangle, having a dove-tail at each end. They are of the same formation as if a piece of sheet lead about $1/4$ inch wide was folded into the shape of a rectangle, with its ends joined. The grid-bars are placed in it, or rather cast in it in somewhat the same manner as the rungs of a ladder are placed in it. These small grids are filled with a paste of lead peroxide mixed with dilute sulphuric acid. These are allowed to stand for about the same length of time as the negatives. Then these small grids are taken to a person who places them face to face, with the surfaces of the peroxide facing each other. Between each of the grids is placed a piece of cellulose paper next to the surface of the peroxide, and between the papers is placed a wooden strip with corrugated sides. The cellulose paper is placed there for the purpose of retaining the active material when it becomes granular through the electrolytic action of the cell. The wooden strip is used to separate the surfaces of the peroxide so that the acid may have free access to them. The corrugations assist the circulation of the acid, and increase the diffusion coefficient of the cell. This will be seen, from our recent argument on that point to be of advantage to the action in the cell. After a sufficient number of these small grids have been placed together to make up a plate of the requisite height, they are placed in a frame or mould, and an outer strip of lead is cast around them.

Then they are finished up and allowed to stand for a short length of time

of time, when they are placed in a cell and the connecting lugs are burned on. This burning operation is rather a delicate operation and must be performed with great care so as not to over heat the plate. The negatives are subjected to a like treatment. The two sets of plates, positive and negative, are then placed in a forming bath. The operation of forming the plates is the ticklish part of the manufacture of a battery. There will be, in every lot, a number of cells that will not "come up". That is to say, their voltage does not rise with the rest of the lot. This fact means that cells, in the process of formation, need constant watching, and frequent readings of the voltage of each cell must be taken. The cells that are "slow" must then be taken out of the lot, and subjected to an additional charge on the formation. The operation of forming is carried on in a large room which is open to the air on all sides. The reason for this is on account of the large quantities of gas that are evolved when a large number of cells are being formed at the same time. They are not formed in the jars in which they are to be used, as is generally supposed, but are placed in large earthen jars with very thick walls. The reason for this is on account of the large quantity of heat that is developed during the formation, and this would injure rubber jars, and if they were of glass they would probably crack. In commercial forming, the voltage of the cells is taken with an ordinary voltmeter, and these readings are considered as being sufficiently accurate.

The type of cell that is used in this test, is put up in a rubber jar, having cast in the bottom, rubber strips in the shape of triangular prisms. The edge of these prisms is placed up, and the plates are allowed to rest on it. The object of this strip

is to keep the plates off the bottom of the jar. There is quite a considerable deposit of "mud" in the bottom, and if the plates were allowed to come in contact with this, it would form a local circuit in the cell, with a consequent discharge of the cell. This mud is composed, in most cells, of a deposit of the active material that becomes loosened, through the electrolytic action of the current, and falls to the bottom. In the cell under test, it was found that the active material was put into the plates in such a way that it did not become loosened readily, and hence there was very little deposit of it. There was, however, a great quantity of the "mud". This was due to the action of the acid on the cellulose paper used in the separators. The plates, being in such close proximity, have to be separated from each other in some manner. In this cell this was done in the following manner. After the plates were placed together, there was inserted between them, a piece of perforated rubber. This was about 1/32 inch in thickness, but it had corrugations on one side. Thus, the perforations were placed directly against the negative plate, while the corrugations were placed against the positive plates. Now it is known that the active material in the positive plates becomes loosened much more readily than that of the negatives. Thus it was necessary to provide some other means of keeping it in place. This was accomplished by placing next to the positive plate, a cellulose separator. This practically amounts to a sheet of paper, since it is very thin. The action of the battery, in our test showed that this cellulose was inefficient, since after about 30 discharges, there was no trace of it left between the plates when they were taken out for observation. This, then was what composed the greater part of the "mud" that gathered in the bottom of

When a substance is cooled, it's test
process is called a crystallization.
Crystallization is a phase change.
It's a reversible process. Crystallization

• Crystallization is a phase change.

the jar. This paper was supposed to have been inserted in such a manner, before its insertion into the cell, that the action in the cell would not injure it. Now this erratic contraction of the paper, indicates either one of two things. Either the paper is not the right kind of substance to use for this purpose, or it was not properly prepared. We are inclined to the latter assumption, since we have said it is very successfully used in other cells. We would, however, recommend the use of thin wood separators in place of this paper for this type of cell. We make this recommendation in view of the conditions that the cell is required to meet. It is distinctly an "automobile cell". This fact is shown by the heavy construction, which is evidently designed to stand hard usage. Now in automobile operation, a cell has to meet conditions that are not to be encountered in any other field in which the storage battery is used. It must be able, if necessary, to meet a condition of considerable over-discharge, without injuring the cell to any appreciable extent. It must be able also, to be charged at high currents, and at short time rates. This must be accomplished without very great gas formation, as this is waste of energy. It must be highly efficient. Now it is evident that it is a difficult matter to obtain a cell that will not fall down in some one of these requirements, and it is for this reason that the construction employed in this cell has been adopted. The very construction of the positive plates makes them secure as far as any loosening of the active material, due to the shaking of the cell, is concerned. The plates are placed in a jar that they fit rather tightly, and there is no room for them to shake around in it. This small jar has also another advantage, and that is the economy in the amount of the acid needed for each cell. At first

glance it would seem as if this is too small a factor to notice, but in the manufacture of large quantities of cells, any item that will cause a saving, no matter how small, is not to be overlooked. There is, however, a disadvantage to be considered in this connection, and that is the temperature effect in small jars. From the discussion on the theory of the cell, it will be seen that the effect of temperature is a large one, and therefore is worthy of consideration. The manufacturers allow a rise of 100 degrees F for their cells, and guarantee that if the temperature be kept within this limit, there will be no injury to them from it. They also claim that the efficiency of the cell is highest between ordinary temperatures and this limit, therefore, if the cell will radiate the heat generated sufficiently fast to keep the temperature down to this limit, the best of the cell will show that this size of jar is allright for use.

THIS:

In making our tests of the cell, we endeavored to keep the conditions the same as would be met in usual practice. To this end we used all of our tests in the small jars, and subjected the cell to all the varying conditions of load. We made several runs, both charge and discharge, at the different rates, and compared the results thus obtained with the manufacturers rating at these rates. To get a satisfactory comparison, we found it necessary to obtain the manufacturers rating of charge and discharge for different times of charge and discharge. Then we obtained their voltage and acid density limits, as well as their temperature limits. In making our tests, then, we kept ourselves strictly within these limits in order to get values that would give a good comparison.

A curve was obtained from the first run, in which the plotted current rate as ordinates, and time as abscissae. This will give the current necessary for either charge or discharge for any given time rate. Curves were also obtained for the following:

Abscissae	Ordinates.
Time	Current
"	Current

The second trial was a battery charge and discharge. We also plotted another curve with time of discharge as abscissae, and the capacity of the cell in ampere hours as ordinates. We made all these tests at 150, 100, 75, 50, 25, and 5 ampere rates, determining the capacity of the cell in each case. In each case we allowed the voltage to fall only to 2.75 volts on discharge, and allowed it to rise only to 2.85 on charge. The density was allowed to rise to 1700 on charge, and to fall to 1500 on discharge. The temperature was kept below 100 F.

Tables giving the data obtained from these curves compiled from them will be found hereafter, and a discussion will follow, showing the various characteristics of the cell.

Life Test:

Another test that was attempted was a test intended to show the life of the cell. From the curves at rates we obtained the current necessary to charge the cell in one hour, and also the current necessary to discharge it in one hour. Following these values, we designed an amp rate which would automatically charge the cell for one hour, and then throw it over and discharge it for one hour. This was accomplished by means of a self-inducing clock, two relays, and a solenoid switch. The solenoid

with... cell... 110 volt...
 that will operate on 110 volt...
 decided that it would lift the...
 carry 110 current, together with...
 structure of...
 when it was full...
 this...
 made...
 to...
 the...
 110 volt...
 the...
 110 volt...
 the...
 not...
 right, so...
 right...
 school...
 non...
 electric...
 the...
 falls...
 thick...
 arranged...
 apart...
 discharge...
 alternately...
 apparatus... and every other day...
 efficiency of the cell...
 regret to state that, through some difficulties...

function of the relative rate of growth of the population
 life expectancy at birth, which is by no means a constant.
 But we append our data on life expectancy at birth to our data on

0.5 0. 1 1.5

0.5	0. 1	1	1.5	0.5	0. 1	1	1.5
0.1	1500	00	7	0.1	1500	00	7
0.1	1500	00	8	0.1	1500	00	8
0.10	1500	00	9	0.10	1500	00	9
0.115	1500	00	10	0.11	1500	00	10
0.105	1500	00	11	0.105	1500	00	11
0.085	1500	00	12	0.08	1500	00	12
0.07	1500	00	13	0.075	1500	00	13
0.081	1500	00	14	0.085	1500	00	14
0.050	1500	00	15	0.055	1500	00	15
0.07	1500	00	16	0.07	1500	00	16
0.015	1500	00	17	0.025	1500	00	17
1.05	1500	00	18	0.03	1500	00	18
1.07	1500	00	19	1.07	1500	00	19
1.01	1500	00	20	1.07	1500	00	20
1.78	1500	00	21	1.115	1500	00	21
1.70	1500	00	22	1.00	1500	00	22
			23	1.30	1500	00	23

TABLE (continued)
S:7 11/11/1911

L. .F.	Gravity.	Temp.	Dir.	L. .H.	Gravity.	Temp.
0.01	1100	65	1	1.0	1100	65
0.005	1100	65	1	1.00	1100	65
0.045	1100	65	1	1.015	1100	65
0.055	1100	65	1	1.020	1100	65
0.045	1100	65	1	1.025	1100	65
0.005	1100	65	1	1.0	1100	65
0.005	1100	65	1	1.0	1100	65
0.070	1100	65	1	1.07	1100	65
0.105	1100	65	1	1.105	1100	65
0.145	1110	65	1	1.00	1100	65
0.10	1105	65	1	1.025	1100	65
0.05	1150	65	1	0.000	1100	65
0.07	1045	65	1	0.07	1100	65
0.005	1100	65	1	0.000	1100	65
0.704	1100	65	1	0.000	1100	65
0.875	1100	65	1	0.000	1100	65
0.640	1100	65	1	0.000	1100	65
0.400	1100	65	1	0.000	1100	65
0.400	1100	65	1	0.000	1100	65
			11	0.000	1100	65

DATA (continued)

ST. ALBANS DISCHARGE

# 1.			# 2.			
S. N.	Crevice.	Temp.	Time hours	S. N.	Crevice.	Temp.
0.10	1500	85	0.0	0.10	1500	85
0.00	1500	85	0.5	0.00	1500	85
0.00	1500	86.75	1.0	0.00	1500	85
0.00	1507	86.75	1.5	0.00	1507	85
0.01	1507	86.75	2.0	0.00	1507	85
0.00	1507	86.75	2.5	0.01	1507	86.00
1.00	1505	87.75	3.0	0.00	1505	86.75
1.00	1505	87.75	3.5	1.00	1505	86.75
1.00	1500	87.75	4.0	1.00	1505	87.75
1.00	1500	87.75	4.5	1.00	1500	86.00
1.00	1507	87.75	5.0	1.00	1500	86.75
1.00	1550	86.75	5.5	1.00	1510	86.75
1.00	1505	86.00	6.0	1.00	1514	86.75
1.00	1500	86.00	6.5	1.00	1500	86.00
1.04	1100	86.75	7.0	1.00	1500	86.75
1.00	1150	86.00	7.5			

EXHIBIT 1)
DEAF - CH. R. L.

L.O.F.	#1, Crewing.	Temp.	Time Hours.	L.O.F.	#2, Crewing.	Temp.
1.8	1100	88.85		1.8	1100	88.85
1.9	1110	88.85	1.0	1.9	1110	88.85
1.9	1100	88.85	1.5	1.9	1110	88.85
1.91	1150	88.85	2.0	1.98	1100	88.85
1.97	1140	88.85	2.5	1.97	11011	88.85
1.97	1150	88.85	3.0	1.97	1170	88.85
1.97	1100	88.85	3.5	1.97	1100	88.85
2.00	1170	88.85	4.0	1.99	1100	88.85
2.10	1100	88.85	4.5	2.00	1101	88.85
2.11	1100	88.85	5.0	2.00	1100	88.85
2.12	1000	88.85	5.5	2.00	1000	88.85
2.14	1005	88.85	6.0	2.15	1000	88.85
2.15	1000	88.85	6.5	2.15	1000	88.85
2.18	1070	88.85	7.0	2.18	1000	88.85
2.20	1000	88.85	7.5	2.21	1000	88.85
2.20	1000	88.85	8.0	2.25	1000	88.85
2.50	1000	88.85	9.5	2.30	1000	88.85
2.50	1000	88.85	10.0	2.50	1000	88.85
2.40	1000	88.85	10.5	2.40	1000	88.85
2.50	1000	88.85	10.0	2.51	1000	88.85
2.50	1000	88.85	10.5	2.50	1000	88.85
2.50	1000	88.85	10.0	2.50	1000	88.85

DATA (continued)

50. MEAN DIAMETER.

# 1.				# 2.		
I.P.F.	Gravity.	Temp.	Time, hours.	I.P.F.	Gravity.	Temp.
1.08	1500	84.5		1.09	1500	86
1.09	1500	84.7	.25	1.08	1500	86
1.07	1500	84.7	.50	1.07	1500	86
1.055	1500	84.6	.75	1.05	1500	86.3
1.04	1500	84.6	1.00	1.045	1500	86.7
1.01	1500	84.6	1.50	1.010	1500	86.8
1.00	1500	84.7	1.75	1.000	1500	86.7
1.00	1500	84.5	2.00	1.00	1500	86.5
1.00	1500	84.5	2.25	1.00	1500	86.7
1.00	1500	84.5	2.50	1.00	1500	86.3
1.005	1500	84.6	2.75	1.005	1500	87.0
1.055	1500	84.6	3.00	1.050	1500	86.5
1.00	1500	84.0	5.25	1.000	1500	87.0

DATA (continued)
50 AMPERE CURRENT.

" 1.				" 2.		
L. F.	Gravity.	Temp.	TIMEs. hours.	L. F.	gravity .	Temp.
1.70	1875	86.0		1.70	1875	87.0
1.80	1875	86.0	.5	1.80	1875	87.5
1.91	1875	86.0	1.0	1.91	1875	87.5
1.95	1875	86.0	1.5	1.95	1875	87.5
1.964	1875	86.1	2.0	1.97	1875	87.5
1.99	1875	86.1	2.5	1.99	1875	87.5
1.99	1875	86.0	3.0	1.99	1875	87.5
1.99	1875	86.0	3.5	1.99	1875	87.5
2.01	1875	86.5	4.0	2.00	1875	87.0
2.15	1875	86.0	4.5	2.15	1875	88.0
2.19	1875	86.0	5.0	2.20	1875	88.5
2.27	1875	86.5	5.5	2.25	1875	88.5
2.50	1875	87.5	6.0	2.50	1875	88.5
2.56	1875	87.5	6.5	2.55	1875	88.5
2.40	1875	87.5	7.0	2.40	1875	88.5
2.45	1875	87.5	7.5	2.45	1875	88.5
2.48	1875	87.5	8.0	2.50	1875	88.5
2.54	1875	87.5	8.5	2.50	1875	88.5
2.50	1875	87.5	9.00			

DATA (continued)

75-201-10-5-10-10

No.	Crewit.	L. No.	Time, hours.	No.	Crewit.	L. No.
1,04	1005	50		1,05	1010	
1,05	1005		1,15	1,06	1000	
1,06	1005		1,20	1,07	1010	
1,08	1005		1,15	1,08	1000	
1,09	1010		1,20	1,09	1015	
1,025	1010		1,15	1,15	1010	
1,030	1030		1,10	1,16	1015	
1,050	1005		1,15	1,17	1020	
1,700	1030		1,10	1,18	1010	51.5
1,05	1010	1		1,19	1010	51.5
1,06	1010		1,05	1,20	1010	
1,08	105		1,10	1,21	1010	
1,09	1035		1,15	1,22	1010	
1,05	1010		1,20	1,23	1010	
1,07	105		1,15	1,24	1010	
0,00	105		1,10	0,10	1015	
0,13	1010		1,15	0,15	1015	
0,13	1015		0,00	0,15	1015	
0,55	1000		1,05	0,50	1015	
0,50	1000		0,50	0,10	1005	
0,10	1000	1,70	1,05	0,10	1000	55.05

DATA (continued)

100 H.P. DISCHARGE

W.P.	Crevice	Temp.	Time XXXXX min.	W.P.	Crevice	Temp.
1.28	1500	8		1.28	1500	53
1.28	1500	9	5	1.28	1500	56
1.30	1500	25	10	1.30	1505	56.5
1.32	1505	27.75	15	1.32	1505	57.0
1.34	1505	30.0	20	1.34	1505	57.0
1.34	1505	32.25	25	1.34	1505	57.5
1.35	1505	34.5	30	1.35	1505	57.0
1.37	1500	38.0	35	1.37	1505	58.5
1.38	1500	40.75	40	1.38	1500	58
1.38	1500	43.0	45	1.38	1500	58.5
1.38	1505	45.0	50	1.38	1505	59.0
1.355	1500	47.0	55	1.360	1500	59.5
1.360	1500	49.5	60	1.350	1500	59.55
1.380	1500	52.0	65	1.370	1505	59.0
1.380	1500	54.75	70	1.380	1505	59.55
100 H.P. DISCHARGE						
1.38	1510	56.0	75	1.38	1510	59.0
1.38	1515	57.75	80	1.38	1515	59.5
1.34	1520	59.0	85	1.37	1520	59.0
1.38	1525	60.75	90	1.38	1525	59.5
1.38	1530	62.0	95	1.38	1530	59.0
1.38	1535	63.75	100	1.38	1535	59.0
1.38	1540	65.0	105	1.38	1540	59.0
1.38	1545	66.75	110	1.38	1545	59.0
1.38	1550	68.0	115	1.38	1550	59.0

DATA (continued)

150 PSI RELATIVE HUMIDITY

# 1.				# 2.		
L.H.F.	Gravity.	Temp.	Time in.	L.H.F.	Gravity.	Temp.
1.76	1500	67.0	20	1.76	1500	67.0
1.84	1500	67.0	25	1.85	1500	67.5
1.88	1500	67.0	30	1.817	1500	67.5
1.805	1500	67.0	30	1.803	1500	67.0
1.700	1500	67.5	10	1.707	1500	68.0
1.780	1500	68.0	15	1.780	1500	68.0
1.775	1500	68.0	10	1.785	1500	68.5
1.755	1500	68.0	21	1.745	1500	68.5
1.745	1500	68.0	24	1.755	15700	68.0
1.750	1500	68.0	27	1.755	1500	70.0
1.718	1500	70.0	30	1.718	1585	70.5
1.700	1585	71.0	35	1.700	1585	71.0

150 PSI RELATIVE HUMIDITY

1.80	1585	71.5	40	1.81	1585	72.0
1.81	1585	72.0	45	1.82	1585	72.0
1.82	1585	72.5	10	1.84	1585	72.0
1.85	1500	73.0	15	1.87	1500	73.0
1.85	1500	73.5	20	1.81	1500	73.5
1.88	1500	74.0	15	1.86	1500	74.0
1.82	1500	74.5	20	1.805	1500	74.5
1.87	1500	75.0	25	1.86	1500	75.0
1.85	1500	75.5	40	1.85	1500	75.5
1.80	1500	76.0	45	1.82	1500	76.0
1.80	1500	77.0	55	1.85	1500	77.0
1.80	1500	78.0	65	1.80	1500	78.0



EFFICIENCY

This data is compiled from the curves obtained from the charge and discharge of the cells individually. The efficiency is expressed by the ratio of the area under the discharge curve to the area under the charge curve, both being plotted on the same scale. This efficiency is called "amp-hour efficiency."

Discharge curve			Charge curve		
#1.	#2.	Area	#1.	#2.	Area
17.75	11.75	150	14.00	14.75	20.0
18.00	18.00	100	14.75	14.75	20.0
5.00	5.00	5	10.0	7.00	20.1
0.00	0.00	0	10.0	11.00	25.0
0.00	0.00	0	00.5	01.00	10.0

Judging from the values obtained, the efficiency is higher for the higher voltage, but of course under supposition. These values, however, indicate a number of things, but are not sufficient to show the efficiency of the discharge or charge curves. It is possible to form a curve of efficiency versus voltage, but it will give a general large idea of the efficiency of the cells. It is possible to find a similar curve for the efficiency of the cells. It will be seen that as the voltage increases, the efficiency of the cell falls. This will be true for the general average of the efficiency curve, and the efficiency varies inversely as the capacity.

now we have seen how the capacity varies with the
rate, and the efficiency varies with the capacity, we have
the efficiency varying directly with the rate. Which comes closest
to the conditions existing.

APPENDIX.

At the end of 45 runs, cell #1 was rendered useless. This was caused by the voltmeter wires, the copper sulphating and dropping down into the cell. The copper formed on the negative plate, acting as a positive thus short circuiting the cell internally.

At this stage, we took a new set of rate and capacity curves to determine any changes that had taken place in the capacity of the cell. This was done for the different rates as before, with the exception that 150 amperes could not be gotten out of cell #2, because of the low voltage a rheostat could not be obtained to regulate the current at a 150 ampere discharge rate. A six inch carbon rheostat was used in the first case and was all right where the two cells were in series. The rates taken were the 30, 75, 50, and 25 ampere rates.

It was noted that the capacity was materially decreased. Curves were plotted on the same sheet with the first rate and capacity curves, for comparison. See curves.

The method of obtaining the efficiency was to take the ratio of the output in watts, to the input in watts. The area of the charge and discharge curves were integrated by means of a planimeter, and if the curve of ordinates were started at 1.5 the area from 0 to 1.5 was added on to each of the charge and discharge areas. (The charge and discharge areas are the areas under the charge and discharge curves, This method as are all the other methods, is rather approximate on account of the varying conditions that are going on in the cell, To get a true efficiency, the voltage on charge should come to

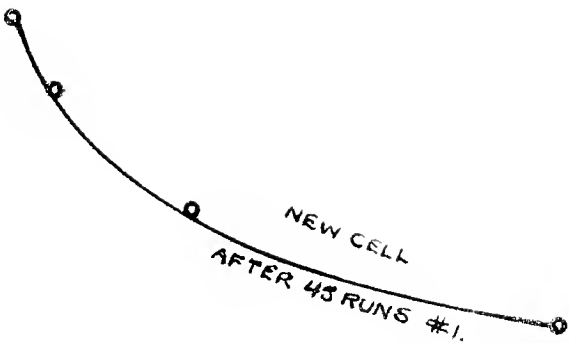
2.55 volts, the gravity should come up to what it was at the beginning of the discharge, the temperatures should return to the starting point. All these conditions cannot be fulfilled simultaneously, hence the approximation. (Note. The voltage that the cell is discharged down to each time should be the same)

The latest method of charging storage cells is by the gravity method. A recording hydrometer is put in one of the cells of the set, and when they are charge up to the proper mark, the power is shut off. This indicates that the accurate indicator of the condition of a cell is the hydrometer reading.

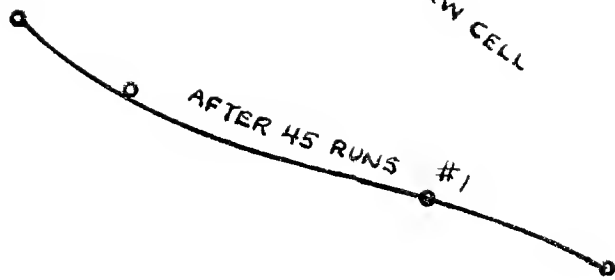




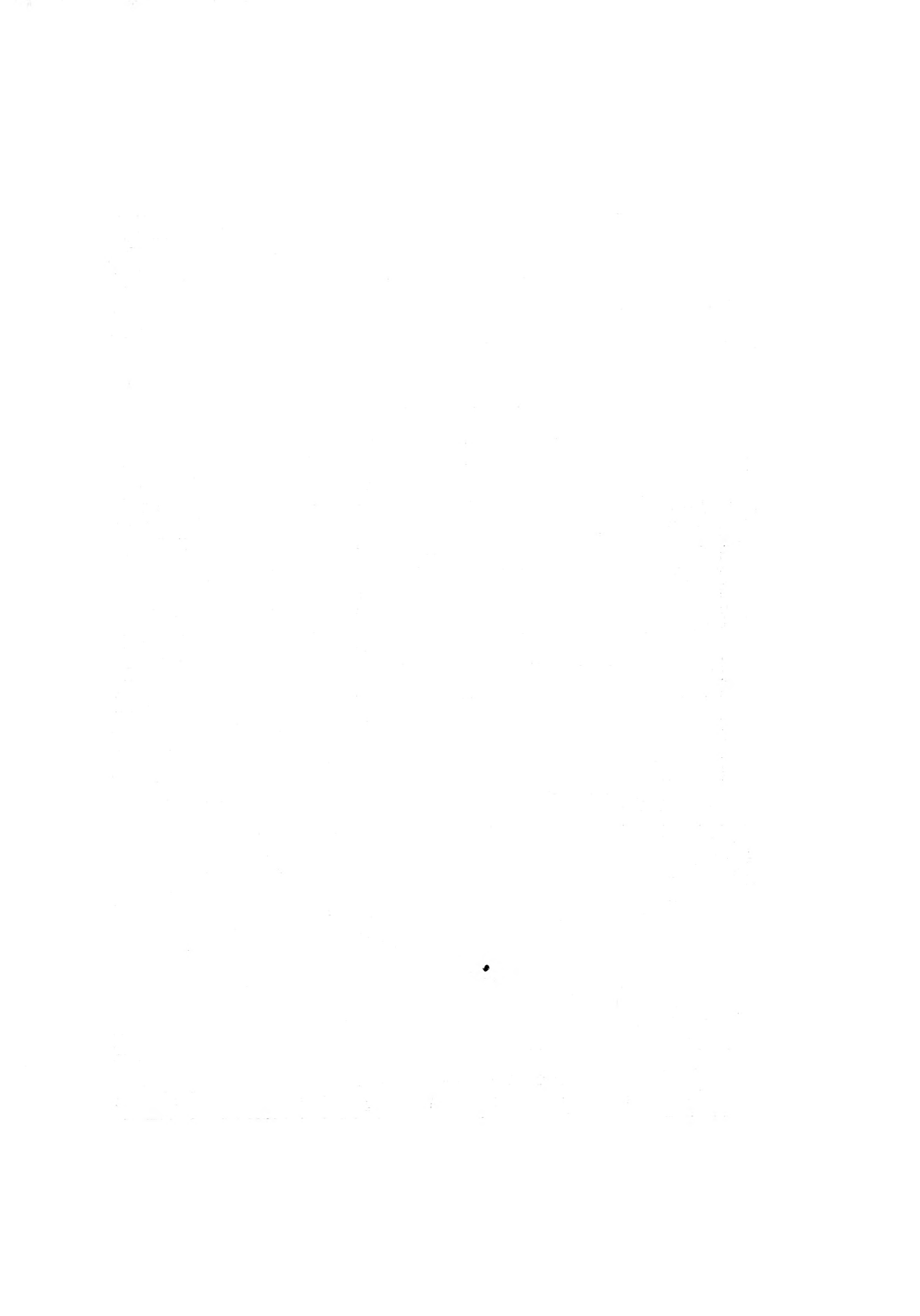




NEW CELL



AFTER 45 RUNS #1







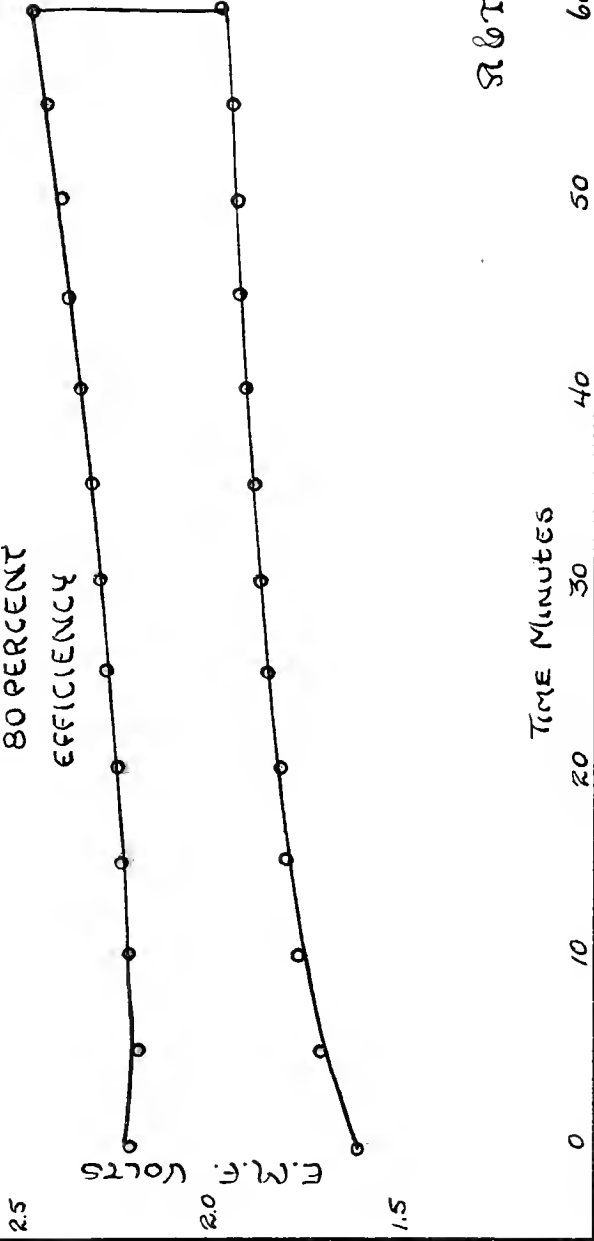
(NO. I. AFTER 30 TESTS

AT 100 AMPS.

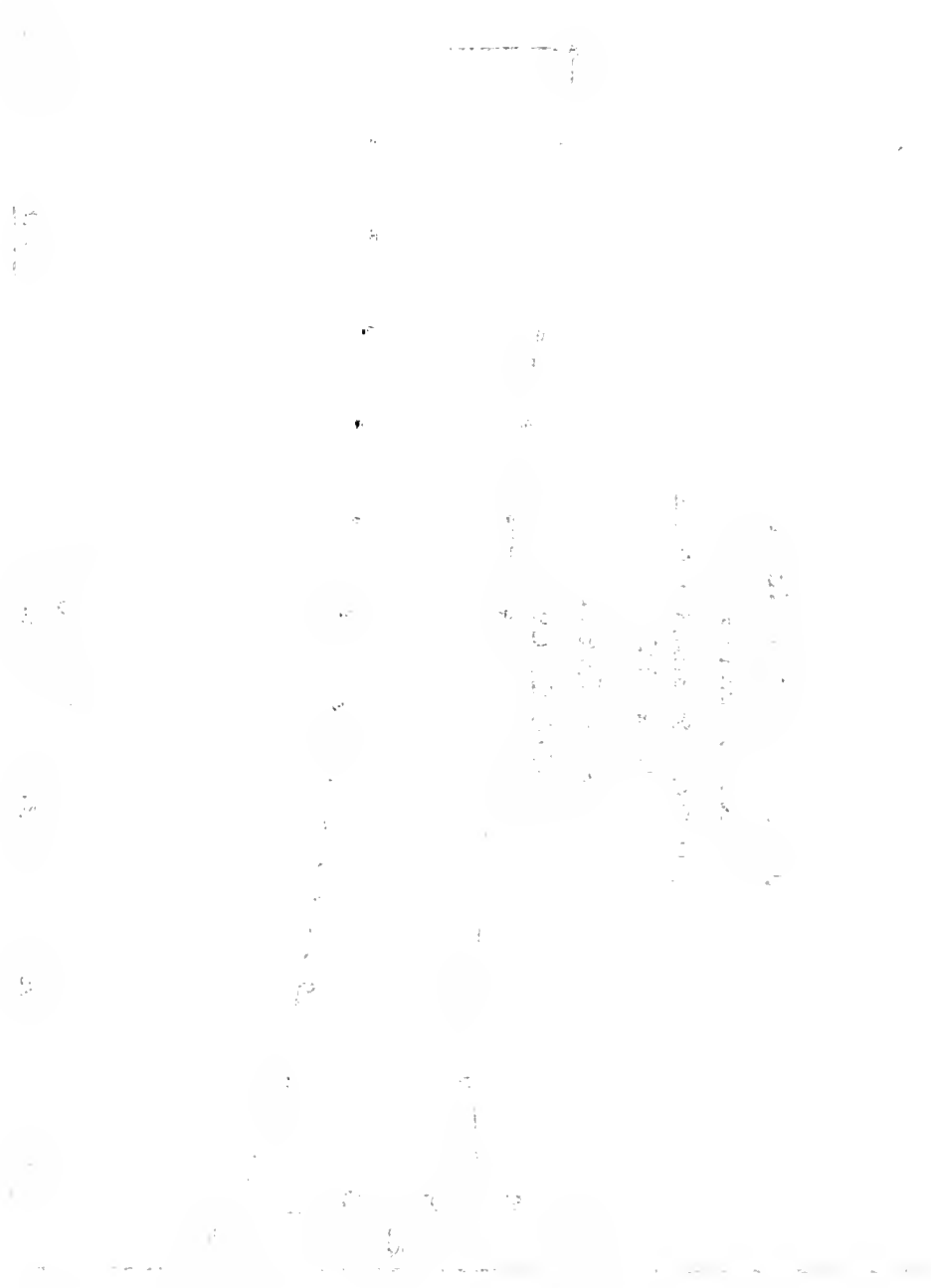
CHARGE & DISCHARGE
CURVES

80 PERCENT

EFFICIENCY



STGT



1
2
3

A
B
C
D
E
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G

1
2
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4
5

A
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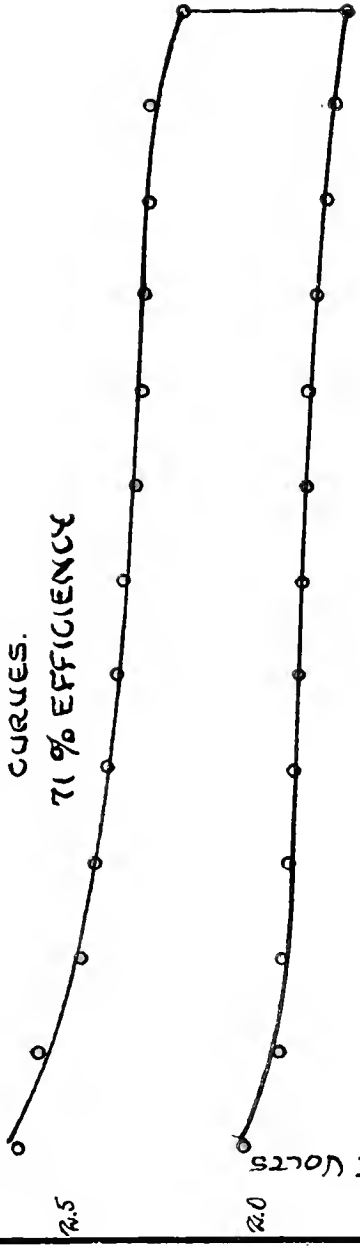
No.I. AFTER 45 TESTS

AT 100 AMPS.

CHARGE & DISCHARGE

CURVES.

71 % EFFICIENCY



1.5

2.0

2.5

TIME MINUTES

60

50

40

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