



# Effect of square wave potential polarity and amplitude on property of trivalent chromium conversion coating applied on Zn–Al hot-dip coating

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**Abstract:** The formation of Cr(III) chemical conversion coating (TCC) on Zn–Al hot-dip coating was unraveled and cathode or anode square wave potential ( $\varphi_p$ ) was applied during the TCC construction progress in terms of comparatively investigating the effectiveness of  $\varphi_p$ . Corrosion resistance of TCC in chloride-containing solution was obtained by EIS and polarization curve measurements, combined with the discussion of macro/micro-morphology using 3D microscope and chemical composition distribution analysis using XPS, AES, FTIR and Raman spectra. The results showed that the cathode  $\varphi_p$  enhanced the corrosion resistance and reduced the content of Cr(VI) on the surface of freshly-prepared TCC better than anode  $\varphi_p$ . Besides, the hydrophobicity of TCC and adhesion to epoxy primer were also improved due to the reconstruction of the micro–nano structure.

**Key words:** hot-dip coating; Cr(III) conversion coating; wave potential; surface roughness

## 1 Introduction

As one of the main protective alloy coatings on steel sheets, galvanized coating plays an important role in the sustainable development of automobile manufacturing industry, agriculture and ocean engineering. With the higher pursuit of corrosion resistance, the multiple-phase hot-dip Zn–Al alloy coating with 55 wt.% Al addition has been one of the best choices for protecting carbon steel substrate with unique appearance since the 1960s [1,2]. Galvanized coating can provide good cathode protection for steel substrate which has a lightweight design in terms of energy conservation, emission reduction and cost saving [3]. The researchers have studied the corrosion behavior and mechanism of Zn–Al alloy coating [4,5] and Zn–Al–Mg alloy coating [6,7] in chlorine/sulfur containing corrosive media or atmospheric environment [8], including cross section [9,10] and

different corrosion periods [11]. It has been proven that hot-dip Zn–Al coating was very sensitive to pitting in severe corrosive environment such as high chlorine or alternating wet–dry thin liquid film coverage [12,13]. Therefore, it is an efficient way to pre-treat the surface before developing more tolerant coating system and chemical conversion coating is one of the most crucial methods to improve the temporary corrosion resistance and adhesion to primers.

Although the traditional hexavalent chromium Cr(VI) conversion coating (CCC) has excellent corrosion resistance, Cr(VI) as a harmful carcinogen is explicitly prohibited by many environmental regulations, i.e., RoHS [14,15]. Therefore, trivalent chromium Cr(III) chemical conversion coating (TCC) and chromium free chemical conversion coating become the future oriented pretreatment process. At present, TCC has been proven to be the best choice to replace CCC and has been successfully applied on the surface

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of Zn alloy [16], Al alloy [17,18], Zn–Al–Mg coating [6] and galvanized coating [19,20]. Due to the condition that fresh formed TCC would appear in some Cr(VI) compounds, further limiting the trace Cr(VI) in TCC has arisen the attention in this research field. At present, relevant works have reported the various new conversion coating techniques including organosilane modified method [21], silsesquioxane-modified graphene oxide-incorporated method [22], rare earth [23] or lanthanide element oxygen-containing anion based bath [24] in order to replace CCC. But application of TCC is still plunging into the depth of people.

Differently from Al or Zn alloys, previous results [5] indicated a selectivity activity of the zinc rich interdendritic region (IDR) in acid environments compared to the aluminum rich dendritic region (DR), and this is then proven and discussed detailedly by ZHANG et al [4]. Therefore, this kind of non-uniform dissolution could also reasonably complicate the performance of Zn55Al during the process of chemical conversion, which may lead to the integrity and uniformity of TCC ensured by appropriate regulation methods.

Previously, we selected Zn–55%Al–1.6%Si (hereinafter referred to as Zn55Al) and carried out a systematically physicochemical and electrochemical research on the construction and performance of TCC [20]. In this work, based on the 3D surface morphology, surface and in depth distribution of chemical composition, the feasibility of external electro field regulation on TCC was discussed. The effect of anode square-wave potential  $\varphi_p$  is further explored in addition to the cathode  $\varphi_p$  by changing the polarity and amplitude in terms of corrosion resistance and Cr(VI) content on fresh formed TCC. Through the analysis of surface roughness, the relationship among the contact angle value, primer adhesion strength and the calculated surface energy was established.

## 2 Experimental

### 2.1 Materials and construction of conversion coating

Commercial passivator Alodine 5928 (Henkel, Germany), which contains 1–10 wt.% trivalent chromium salt and 0.1–1 wt.% fluorozirconate compounds, was diluted with deionized (DI) water to prepare 50 vol.% solution at pH 2.7. After being

degreased with ultrasonic cleaning in acetone and rinsing with DI water, the TCCs were constructed by immersing 50 mm × 50 mm Zn55Al panels in the Cr(III) chemical conversion process (TCP) bath at 40 °C for 180 s which is regarded as the optimal treating time [20], followed by a final DI water rinse in a glass beaker.

The polarity and amplitude of anode or cathode square-wave potential  $\varphi_p$  were set to be  $\pm 0.05$ ,  $\pm 0.10$  and  $\pm 0.20$  V (vs Ag/AgCl during the TCP process). Accordingly, the measured average current densities when applying cathode  $\varphi_p$  were  $-1.60 \times 10^{-3}$ ,  $-3.50 \times 10^{-3}$ , and  $-8.00 \times 10^{-3}$  A/cm<sup>2</sup>, and the current densities applying anodic  $\varphi_p$  were  $2.80 \times 10^{-3}$ ,  $5.30 \times 10^{-3}$  and  $1.10 \times 10^{-2}$  A/cm<sup>2</sup>, respectively. The frequency of the applied  $\varphi_p$  was 5 Hz, and the duty ratio was 0.2 s:0.2 s. When the deposition began, the open circuit potential dropped rapidly and gradually stabilized at  $-0.92$  V vs Ag/AgCl at  $\sim 20$  s, then the pulse potential was applied to the sheets, and the total deposition time was 180 s.

The oxidation–reduction potential (ORP) parameters and pH value of TCP bath were determined by Quanta (HACH, USA) portable water quality analyzer using standard platinum electrode and Ag/AgCl reference electrode. The monitoring distance of the chemical conversion solution parameter detection probe was always kept at  $\sim 2$  cm away from the sample under a solution stirring with 100 r/min.

### 2.2 Chemical and micro-morphological characterization

The morphology of the coating was examined by field-emission high-resolution scanning electron microscopy (JSM–7200F, Japan) with energy-dispersive X-ray (EDS) spectroscopy at 15 keV. X-ray photoelectron spectra were recorded using an ESCALAB 250Xi spectrometer (ThermoFisher USA) with an Al K $\alpha$  X-ray source. The micro focus monochromator was operated at a spot size of  $\sim 400$   $\mu$ m, including DR and IDR on TCC. In order to mitigate the influence of air pollutants and excess carbon on the test results, the Ar<sup>+</sup> ion sputtering depth was 5 nm and all data were corrected by C 1s binding energy at 284.8 eV.

AES measurements were performed on PHI 710 scanning auger nanoprobe (ULVAC–PHI, Japan) with a tungsten filament electron emission

source. A cylindrical mirror analyzer (CMA) was adopted and the test beam energy used for stimulating specimen signals and SEM imaging was 10 kV, and the current was 10 nA. All the Auger electron spectra were acquired with an energy analyzer resolution of <0.5%. The surface was sputtered using a 2.0 keV Ar<sup>+</sup> ion beam over an area of 2.0 mm × 2.0 mm and the emission current was 3.0 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>. The recorded spectra were analyzed with Multipak V9.0 software and the characteristic peak of element C (275.0 eV) was used for the calibration. The instrument used for Raman spectroscopy is a Horiba lab-RAM HR Evolution (HORIBA France) instrument. Argon ion laser was used as the laser ( $\lambda=514.5$  nm, and the output laser power was 1.0 MW). LWD50× was used as the objective lens, and the acquisition time was 30 s, which had been accumulated three times.

### 2.3 Surface roughness and contact angle measurement

The Zeta-20A 3D profiler instrument (Zeta Instruments, USA) was used to observe the 3D morphology and to compare the surface roughness of TCC with different immersion time. The field of view was 1164  $\mu\text{m}$  × 873  $\mu\text{m}$ . Surface profiles were obtained, repeatedly scanning a line extending from the untreated regions over the TCP-treated regions using a 10× objective lens with a scanning distance of 150  $\mu\text{m}$ . The roughness  $R_a$  was calculated by Zeta3D software (version 1.7.5), which is the arithmetic mean of the absolute ordinate values  $Z(x)$  ( $R_a = 1/l \int_0^l |Z(x)| dx$ ) within the sampling length according to the ISO 12085. The contact angles of 4  $\mu\text{L}$  pure water drops were measured by a contact angle goniometer (XG-CAMC, China) at room temperature to investigate the surface hydrophilicity. Samples were carefully air-cleaned to avoid surface contamination.

A pull-off adhesion tester (PosiTest AT-A, USA) was used following a direct pull-off standardized procedure according to ASTM D4541 to study the effects of surface roughness and texture on the adhesion of the epoxy zinc yellow primer to Zn55Al. The dolly size was ~20 mm and the pull rate was controlled at a speed of 0.2 MPa/s. All specimens were kept at ambient temperature for at least 24 h in laboratory air to ensure that the glue fully cured before the test.

### 2.4 Corrosion and electrochemical measurements

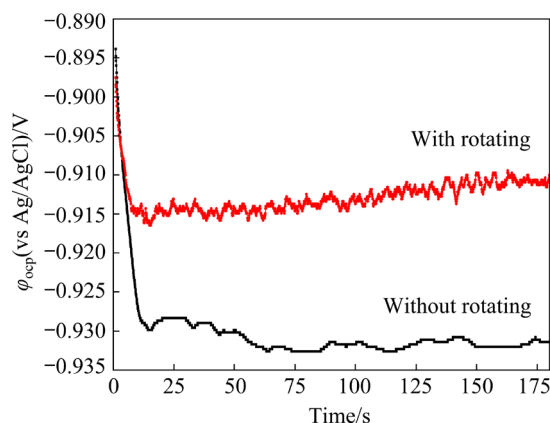
All electrochemical measurements were conducted using an Autolab PGSTAT302F potentiostat (Metrohm AG, Switzerland). The measurements were made in air-saturated 0.5 mol/L NaCl solution at room temperature. The counter electrode was a pure Pt electrode with 2 cm<sup>2</sup> working area, and the reference was an Ag/AgCl electrode (saturated KCl). The potentiodynamic scans were recorded at 0.16 mV/s with a limit from −60 to 60 mV (vs  $\phi_{\text{ocp}}$ ). The polarization curves with low polarized domain were fitted by three parameters fitting method according to Butler–Volmer polarization curve equation. The EIS measurements were carried out in a frequency range of 10<sup>−2</sup>–10<sup>5</sup> Hz, and the sinusoidal potential perturbation was 5 mV and Nova software (version 2.1.3) was used to fit the experimental data. EIS and Tafel polarization measurements were carried out once the monitored  $\phi_{\text{ocp}}$  was steady after ~20 min. Scanning vibrating electrode technique (SVET) measurements were performed using an M370 scanning electrochemical workstation (Uniscan Instruments, UK), using 0.05 mol/L NaCl + 0.05 mol/L Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> corrosion solution. The purpose of adding Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> was to increase the conductivity of the electrolyte to enhance the sensitivity of detective probe. Half of the sample was immersed in the chemical conversion solution to prepare TCC with the assistance of  $\phi_p$  regulation, while the other half was in the degreased state, and this created a natural dividing line as a result. The scan velocity was 10  $\mu\text{m/s}$ , and the scanning probe was placed within 50  $\mu\text{m}$  from the sample surface.

## 3 Results

### 3.1 Process and mechanism of TCC construction

The most intuitive feature at the beginning of TCC construction on Zn55Al is the mixed potential change of anode and cathode reaction that can be monitored by open circuit potential (OCP) in Fig. 1. Due to the coupling of two-phase on Zn55Al, a large number of cathode and anode micro reactions were formed. Figure 1 firstly showed a rapid and then a smooth downward trend with some turbulences. At the initial stage of TCP, a rapid decrease of  $\phi_{\text{ocp}}$  from above −0.895 V to below −0.930 V vs Ag/AgCl was detected within 10 s. According to the previous mainstream research of

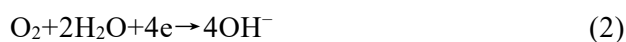
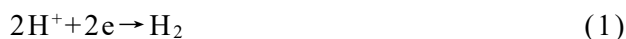
TCC on aluminum alloy, the change of  $\varphi_{\text{ocp}}$  during this period was attributed to the activation of fluoride on the substrate surface [25–28]. Then, the  $\varphi_{\text{ocp}}$  gradually decreased until the end of the TCP with continuous fluctuation of  $\sim 0.005$  V, and finally the TCC with a stable state was constructed.



**Fig. 1** Change of OCP as function of time in whole process of TCP with and without solution rotating

The following reactions were preferentially carried out at the same time in both the cathode and anode regions [29,30]:

Cathode reactions



Anode reactions

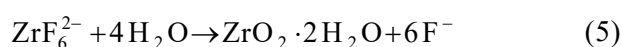
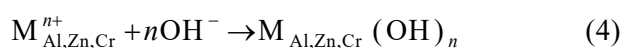


Since the beginning of TCP, the surface aluminum oxide film and aluminum matrix were continuously activated under the action of strong oxidation fluoride [31]. Due to the low bath pH, a lot of dissolved  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  combined with the hydroxyl groups to form the alkaline hydroxide, which was firstly deposited at the initial TCC formation points on cathode regions [5,32]. However, the mass fraction of Al in Zn55Al coating is 55 wt.%, which means that Al-rich cathode region with lighter density occupies most of the surface. Preferential dissolution of Zn and precipitation of its hydroxide may block the cathode reactions somehow, but with the proceed of chemical conversion, new anode and cathode regions emerge constantly, which leads to the fluctuation of potential change.

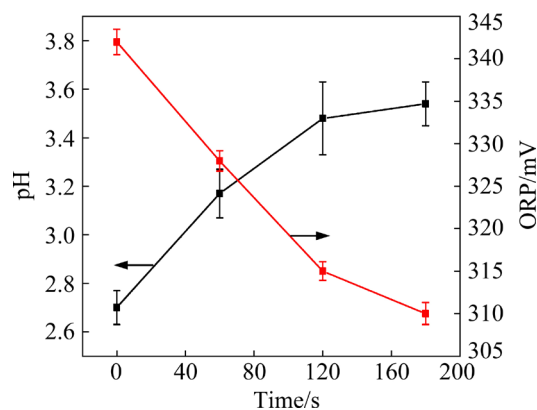
When 200 r/min solution rotating was applied to the TCP, the  $\varphi_{\text{ocp}}$  tended to be stable near  $-0.910$  V vs Ag/AgCl, which was slightly higher

than that of the stationary solution. This meant that the construction of TCC was less stable and the surface was active during the whole TCP. And the measured dissolved oxygen (DO) content of the conversion bath under agitation was 22.19 mg/L, higher than 6.72 mg/L of the static bath, which may increase the risk of Cr(III) oxidation. Therefore, high flow rate of the TCP solution is not conducive to the construction of the TCC.

Lower bath pH is the key to surface activation and also the power source of TCP. The change of mean pH value and oxidation–reduction potential (ORP) of the TCP bath near the TCC formation surface is shown in Fig. 2. The concentration of  $\text{OH}^-$  ion in the TCP bath increased due to cathode Reactions (1)–(2), which was consistent with the increase of pH value. This allowed the precipitation of Zr(IV) and Cr(III) hydroxides with the hydrolysis of the soluble fluorometalate precursor species, leading to the formation of a hydrated metal oxide coating [33]:



During 180 s TCP period, the increase of pH value is similar to that of the previous report [34], but ORP of the solution shows a significant contrary trend. ORP reflects the oxidizability of TCP bath. It can be seen that with the consumption of activated substances and the increase of pH value, the efficiency of TCC construction gradually decreases. To some extent, ORP value can be used as another index to evaluate the activity of the bath. Figure S1 in Supporting Information (SI) also shows the relationship between ORP and solution



**Fig. 2** Change of pH and ORP as function of time during whole process of TCP

temperature. From 34 to 37 °C, the redox potential fluctuated sharply, which reflected the change in the ratios of oxide and reducing substance. It is necessary to avoid the unstable temperature range or to conduct chemical conversion reaction after the diluted solution is stable.

### 3.2 Surface morphology and element distribution of TCC

The SEM image and EDS mapping analysis of TCC surface under the optimal TCP parameters are shown in Fig. 3. The coarse micro-cracks distributing along the edge of DR could be observed. Interestingly, the elements related to the composition of TCC were more concentrated in these regions, which indicated that the transition region between DRs provided more film-forming active points. Many studies on the aluminum alloys also recorded larger thickness of conversion coatings on the dispersed intermetallic compounds

(IMCs) and their edges [35–37]. The activation and dissolution of Zn or Al elements with different activity in acidic chemical conversion bath would produce a relatively strong local galvanic current, and this continuous power could be assumed stronger in the transition region [14].

In fact, at the initial stage of TCC construction, the micro-cracks were reflected on the edge of raised DR. EDS and SEM micro morphology analysis expressed this detailed in Fig. S2 in SI. Therefore, transition region between DR and IDR had the fastest film-forming speed and also very sensitive to micro-cracks. So, it is particularly critical to regulate the film-forming speed in order to avoid the possible decline of corrosion resistance caused by large amount of micro-cracks.

Figure 4 reveals the AES cross section distribution spectra acquired in DR. The signals of Al and Zn were stronger at the deeper ion sputtering depth, while the signal of O was stronger at the

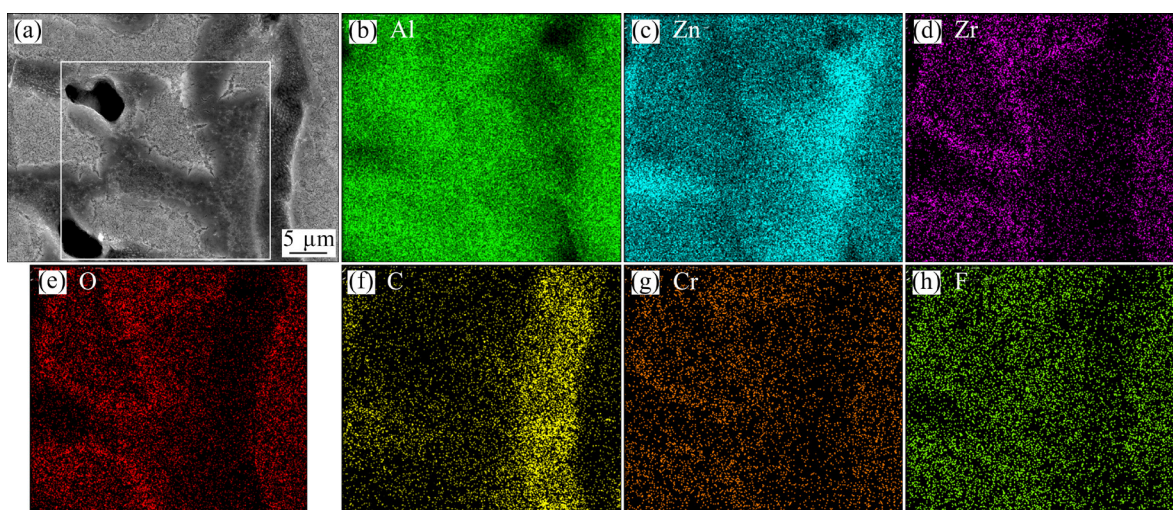


Fig. 3 SEM image (a) and EDS mappings (b–h) of main elements on TCC with TCP time of 180 s

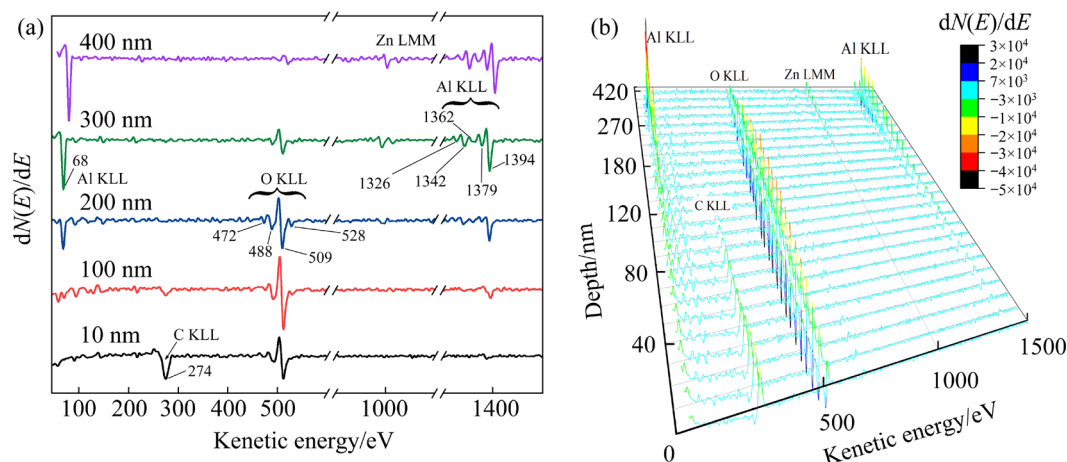


Fig. 4 AES survey spectra acquired at dendrite region: (a) Full spectrum; (b) Detailed distribution



middle level. This indicated that the middle layer (50–300 nm) without obvious stratification of TCC was probably mostly composed of oxides. Figure S3 in SI further confirmed this and showed that the TCC thickness of the raised Al-rich DR was smaller but denser than that of the IDR.

In Fig. 5(a), the unique micro–nano structure on the surface of TCC could be seen clearly. As previously analyzed, the surface of TCC was mostly composed of oxides with different film-forming elements. In IDR as shown in Fig. 5(b), there were micro-pores with different sizes of <100 nm, which may be caused by the preferential solution of zinc-rich particles in the acidic conversion bath. On DR as shown in Fig. 5(c), the size of micro-cracks was less than 1  $\mu\text{m}$ . Based on the cross-sectional morphology in Fig. 5(e), the depth of the micro-crack was close to the thickness of the TCC. Dense distribution of micro cracks on the DR detected by AES in Fig. 5(f) greatly weakened the durability of the TCC in corrosive media containing  $\text{Cl}^-$ . According to previous studies, the formation of micro-cracks may be caused by the dehydration of the TCC and SEM observation in vacuum environment would undoubtedly aggravate it. However, the surface morphology of multiple cracks obviously restricted the performance of TCC. It is very important to optimize the surface integrity by using other composite additives or external field control.

### 3.3 Microstructure and composition of TCC regulated by $\varphi_p$

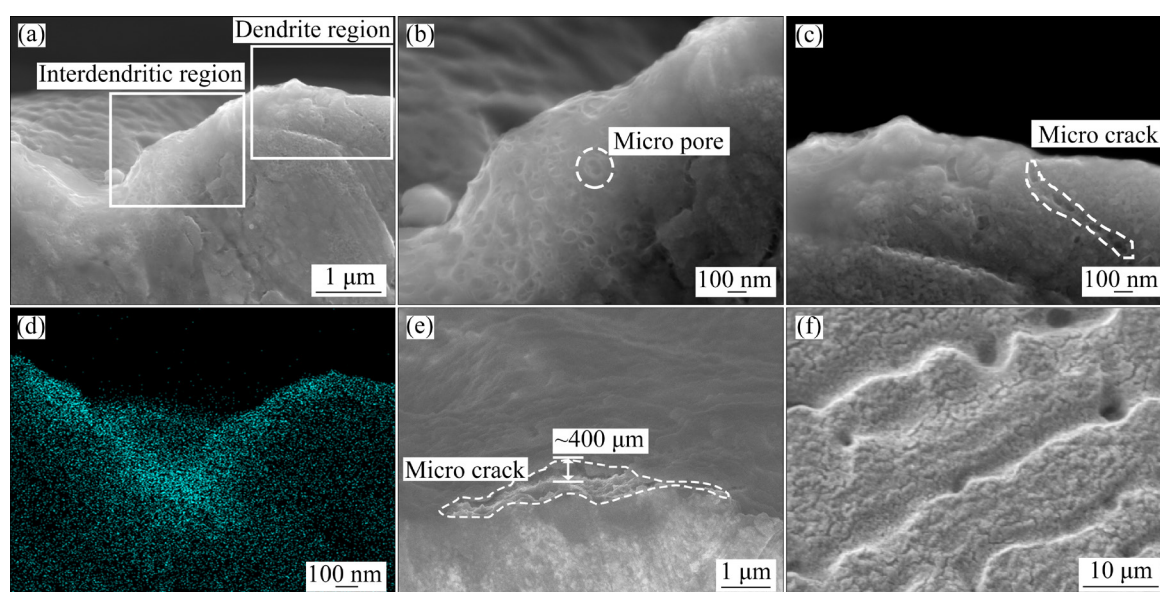
#### 3.3.1 Surface microstructure with different $\varphi_p$

The detailed micro-morphology of TCC regulated by  $\varphi_p$  is shown in Fig. 6. It can be seen that, the transition region between the raised DR and the IDR presented a brighter view. During the TCP, the number and size of micro cracks on Zn55Al sample further decreased with the cathode  $\varphi_p$  compared with anode  $\varphi_p$ , especially when the amplitude was  $-0.1\text{ V}$ . At higher applied potential, more textured micro-bumps grew on the surface of TCC.

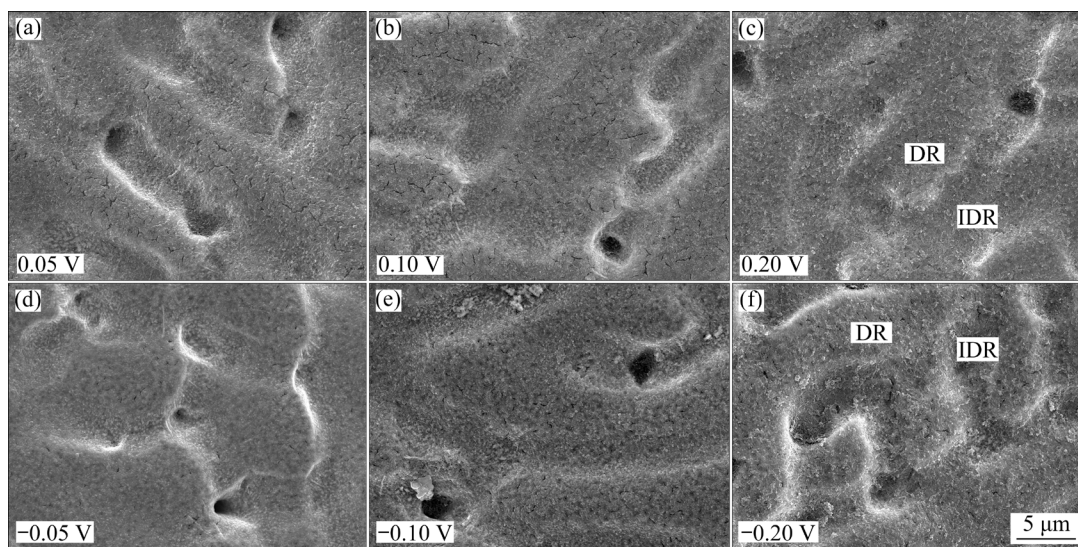
Figure 7 shows the 3D morphology and the roughness of TCC regulated with different  $\varphi_p$ . When  $\varphi_p = -0.20\text{ V}$ , the mean micro roughness  $R_a$  at DR increased by  $\sim 2.10$  times, while the corresponding height difference  $R_z$  between DR and IDR decreased. Under the regulation of  $\varphi_p$ , the macro-roughness of TCC decreased while the local micro-roughness increased compared with the original topography of Zn55Al. The corresponding contact angle value with  $\varphi_p = -0.2\text{ V}$  increased to  $112.30^\circ$ , which provided the TCC with a hydrophobic behavior.

#### 3.3.2 Surface composition with different $\varphi_p$

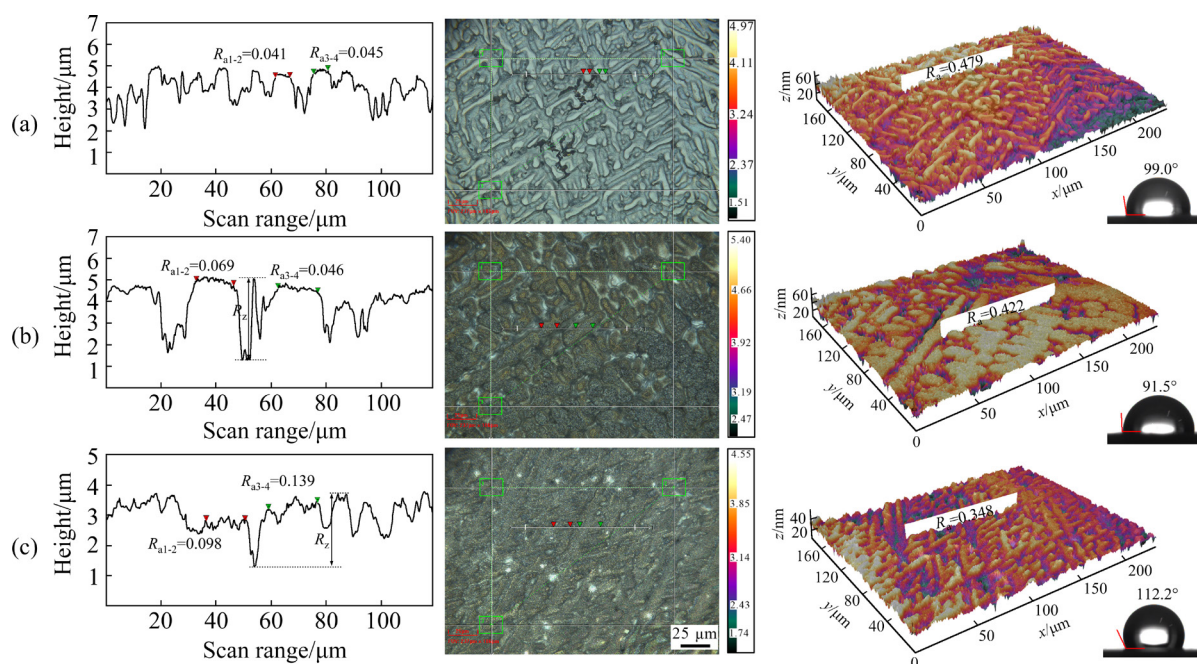
The distribution of main elements on the surface of the fresh TCC formed under different anode or cathode  $\varphi_p$  is shown in full XPS spectra in Fig. 8. Correspondingly, the molar fractions after



**Fig. 5** Micro-morphology and EDS mapping analysis of DR and IDR on TCC with TCP time of 180 s: (a) Cross section containing both regions; (b) Micro pores on interdendritic region; (c) Micro cracks on dendritic region; (d) O element distribution; (e) Micro crack with  $\sim 400\text{ }\mu\text{m}$  in thickness; (f) Micrograph with  $\text{Ar}^+$  ion sputtering for 30 min



**Fig. 6** Detailed surface micro-morphology of TCC-coated Zn55Al samples with effect of  $\phi_p$  adopting positive potentials vs OCP (a–c) and negative potentials vs OCP (e–f) (Brighter region is the transition area between IDR and DR)

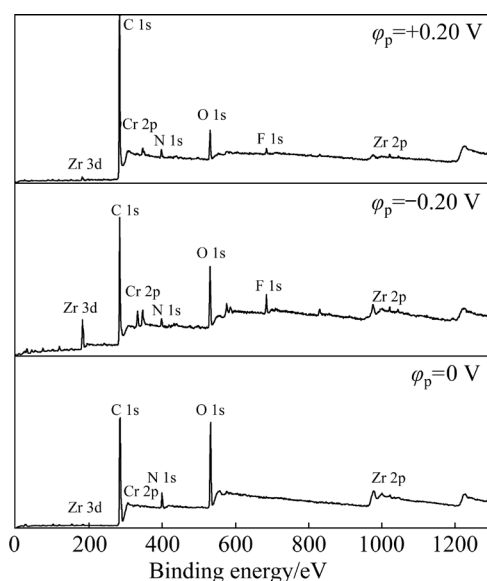


**Fig. 7** Surface topography, corresponding roughness and contact angle measurement results of TCC-coated Zn55Al samples with regulation of different  $\phi_p$ : (a) Degreased sample; (b)  $\phi_p=0$  V; (c)  $\phi_p=-0.20$  V

correction of C content are listed in Table 1. The XPS detection result included several DRs and IDRs, which was a reliable average mean value. The results showed that the signal of Cr, Zr, Al and F elements significantly increased by applying  $\phi_p$  regulation during the TCP, especially when the cathode potential  $\phi_p$  was applied.

For zirconium based TCC, one of the limiting factors and concerns is the valence of chromium in the newly constructed TCC. The XPS high-resolution spectra and fitting results of Cr 2p<sub>3/2</sub> are

shown in Fig. 9(a) and Table 2, respectively. Peaks were used to fit intensity in the region of 570.0–590.0 eV, including Cr(OH)<sub>3</sub> (577.2±0.2) eV, Cr<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> (575.3±0.2) eV, Cr(VI) oxides (578.3±0.2) eV and CrF<sub>3</sub> (580.1±0.2) eV [38–40]. As the detection depth of XPS was ~5 nm, the results validated that the regulation of  $\phi_p$  further reduced the trace content of Cr(VI) on the surface of TCC, especially when the cathode was applied. When  $\phi_p=-0.20$  V, the Cr(VI) component on newly constructed TCC was reduced by 30.20%, which was less effective



**Fig. 8** XPS full spectra of TCC regulated by  $\varphi_p$  during TCP

**Table 1** Main elements content on TCC surface regulated by different  $\varphi_p$  (at.%)

$\varphi_p$ /V	O 1s	N 1s	Cr 2p	Zr 3d	Al 2p	Zn 2p	F 1s
0	76.50	17.19	1.46	0.31	2.71	0.65	1.17
-0.20	37.91	40.39	3.07	4.19	7.00	0.64	6.80
+0.20	33.89	57.80	1.29	0.76	2.24	0.84	3.18

compared to the decrease of 34.99% reported using -0.10 V previously [41]. With the increase of chromium content, the decrease of harmful Cr(VI) fully proved the effectiveness of  $\varphi_p$  regulation. Although anode potential also had some effect, it was not as obvious as cathode potential. This result provided a crucial new idea: it is feasible to control the construction process of TCC through external electric field in terms of environment-friendliness. However, the parameters of electric field need to be further adjusted and optimized.

The XPS high-resolution spectra of Zr 3d<sub>5/2</sub> are shown in Fig. 9(b) and Table S1 in SI respectively. ZrO<sub>2</sub> (182.7±0.2) eV, Zr(OH)<sub>4</sub> (184.0±0.2) eV and ZrF<sub>4</sub> (185.3±0.2) eV for Zr 3d<sub>5/2</sub> were used to fit the curve [20,38,42]. Also, the presence of Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>-I, Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>-II, Al(OH)<sub>3</sub> and AlF<sub>3</sub> was indicated by the Al 2p<sub>3/2</sub> peaks at (73.0±0.2) eV, (74.7±0.2) eV, (73.9±0.2) eV and (76.3±0.2) eV, respectively, in Table S2 in SI and Fig. 9(c) [20,38]. The results revealed that the chemical forms of Zr and Al were mainly corresponding oxides, and  $\varphi_p$  regulation had

unobvious effect on the proportion of Zr oxides and hydroxides. On the contrary, under the influence of external electric field, the hydroxide composition of Cr greatly increased, especially when cathode  $\varphi_p$  was applied. By analyzing the O 1s data in Fig. 9(d) and Table 3, it was proven that the general proportion of OH<sup>-</sup> on the surface of TCC greatly increased by 52.46% after applying the cathode  $\varphi_p$ . As analyzed by SABABI et al [43] and FOCKAERT et al [44], the appearance of alkaline hydroxide on the surface of TCC could play an important role in regulating the surface free energy and improving the adhesion with subsequent epoxy primers.

### 3.4 Electrochemical properties of TCC regulated by $\varphi_p$

#### 3.4.1 Polarization measurement under narrow polarized domain

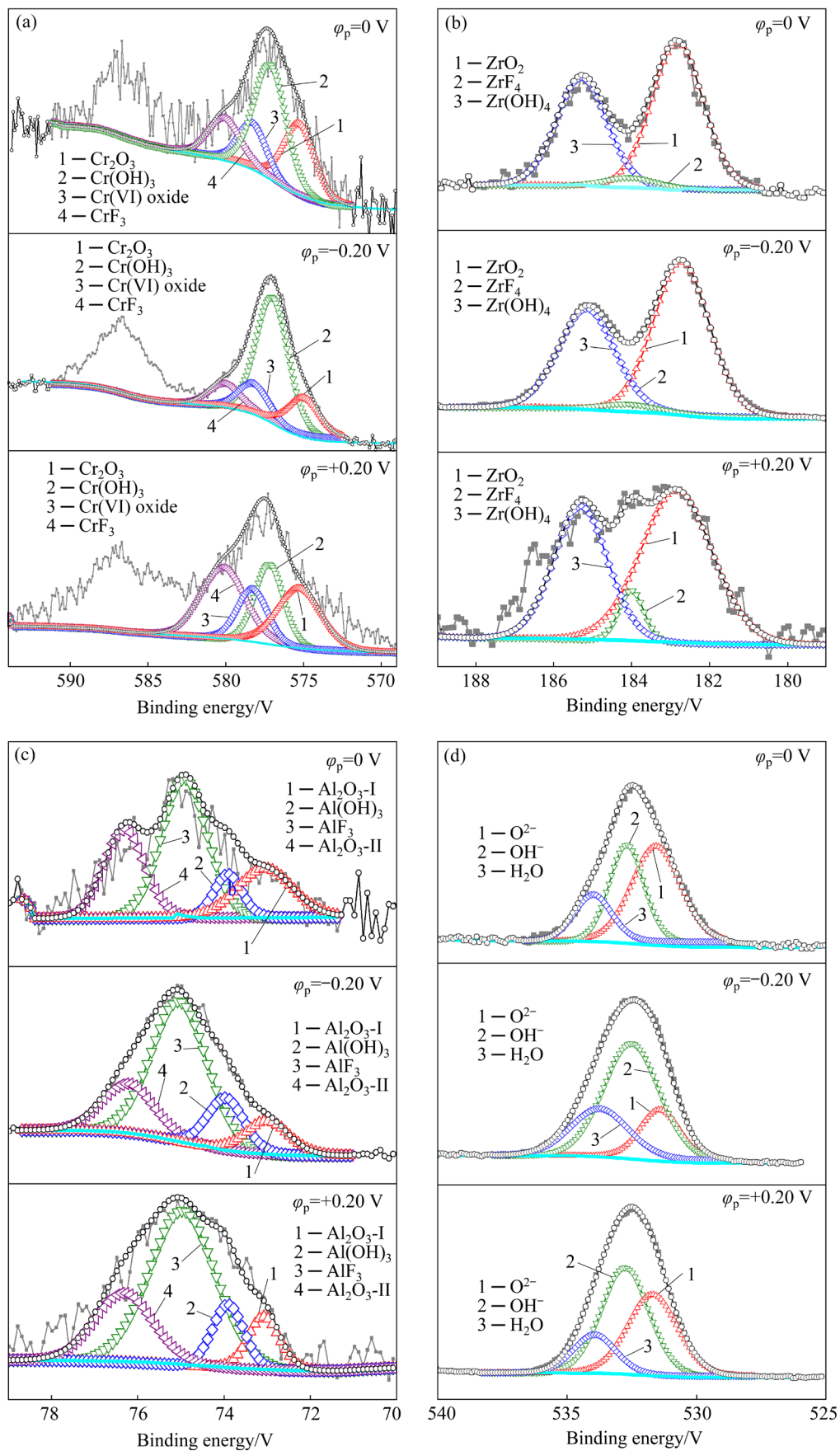
According to the results of the previous section, the thickness of the TCC constructed on the surface of Zn55Al was not particularly thick (≤500 nm); considering the sensitivity of TCC to strong polarization, the method of polarization measurement under narrow polarized domain was preferred. Figure 10(a) shows the polarization curves of TCC regulated under different cathode  $\varphi_p$  during the TCP. Because there was no Tafel zone by nonlinear fitting in the range from -0.06 to 0.06 V vs Ag/AgCl, the most accurate fitting parameters could be obtained with electrochemical kinetic equation [45]:

$$J = J_{\text{corr}} \left[ \exp \frac{2.303(\varphi - \varphi_{\text{corr}})}{b_a} \right] - \left[ \exp \frac{-2.303(\varphi - \varphi_{\text{corr}})}{b_c} \right] \quad (6)$$

where  $\varphi_{\text{corr}}$  is the corrosion potential,  $J_{\text{corr}}$  is the corrosion current density,  $b_a$  and  $b_c$  are fitting coefficients.

According to the fitting results of dynamic parameters listed in Table 4, the corrosion resistance of TCC was improved by applying the cathode  $\varphi_p$  during the TCP, and the lowest corrosion current density  $J_{\text{corr}}$  was 4.68×10<sup>-8</sup> A/cm<sup>2</sup> when the pulse potential  $\varphi_p$  = -0.10 V. Compared with the sample without  $\varphi_p$ , the corrosion current density of the TCC decreased by nearly an order of magnitude. The results showed that better corrosion resistance





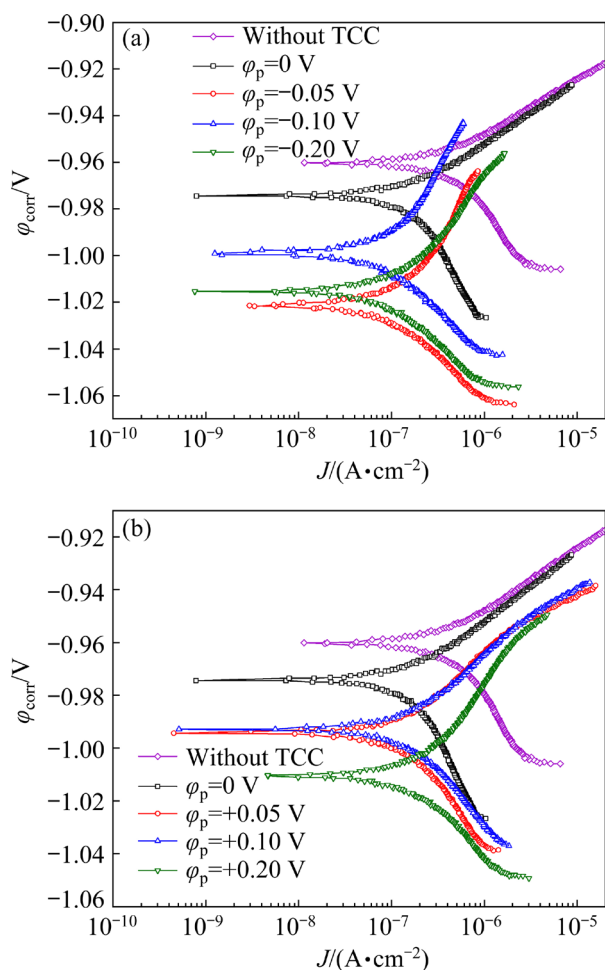
**Fig. 9** Fitting results of Cr 2p<sub>3/2</sub> (a), Zr 3d<sub>5/2</sub> (b), Al 2p<sub>3/2</sub> (c) and O 1s (d) on surface of TCCs regulated by different  $\phi_p$  during TCP

**Table 2** Proportion of different Cr 2p<sub>3/2</sub> species on surface of TCCs with different  $\phi_p$  (%)

$\phi_p/V$	Cr <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	Cr(OH) <sub>3</sub>	Cr(VI) oxide	CrF <sub>3</sub>
0	25.50	23.34	18.51	32.62
-0.20	17.60	58.84	12.92	10.65
+0.20	27.20	42.98	14.57	15.25

**Table 3** Proportion of different O 1s species on surface of TCCs with different  $\phi_p$  (%)

$\phi_p/V$	O <sup>2-</sup>	OH <sup>-</sup>	H <sub>2</sub> O
0	47.16	37.65	15.18
-0.20	17.18	57.40	24.82
+0.20	47.93	34.25	17.82

**Fig. 10** Polarization curves of TCCs in 0.5 mol/L NaCl solution regulated by cathode  $\phi_p$  (a) and anodic  $\phi_p$  (b) during TCP

could be obtained by applying cathode  $\phi_p$ . However, as shown in Fig. 10(b) and Table 4, the corrosion current density was  $3.30 \times 10^{-7} \text{ A/cm}^2$  when the

positive  $\phi_p$  of +0.05 V was adopted. It seems that anode  $\phi_p$  could also appropriately reduce the  $J_{\text{corr}}$  value, but this may have great limitations. Anode  $\phi_p$  accelerated the activation of Zn–Al surface during TCP, but it may indirectly reduce the density of TCC with the increase of thickness. Figure 6 comparatively showed that the application of  $\phi_p$  of 0.1 V caused coarser micro cracks on the surface of TCC compared with -0.1 V. Of course, the detailed effect of other option of amplitude and polarity on improvement of corrosion resistance needs further investigation.

**Table 4** Kinetic parameters for polarization curves of TCCs regulated by cathode  $\phi_p$ 

$\phi_p/V$	$\phi_{\text{corr}}/V$	$J_{\text{corr}}/(\text{A} \cdot \text{cm}^{-2})$	$b_a/(\text{mV} \cdot \text{dec}^{-1})$	$-b_c/(\text{mV} \cdot \text{dec}^{-1})$
Without TCC	-0.96	$2.11 \times 10^{-6}$	34.1	69.4
0	-0.97	$6.59 \times 10^{-7}$	52.9	293.6
-0.05	-1.02	$2.64 \times 10^{-7}$	99.3	91.3
-0.10	-1.01	$4.68 \times 10^{-8}$	35.4	35.0
-0.20	-1.02	$1.24 \times 10^{-7}$	65.6	67.9
+0.05	-0.99	$3.30 \times 10^{-7}$	58.1	124.9
+0.10	-0.99	$3.58 \times 10^{-7}$	58.0	108.1
+0.20	-1.01	$3.98 \times 10^{-7}$	66.3	82.2

The values of Adj.  $R$  obtained in the non-linear fitting of weak polarization curves is over 0.990

### 3.4.2 EIS measurement

Figures 11(a, b) show the Nyquist and Bode diagrams of TCCs regulated with different cathode  $\phi_p$  during the TCP. According to the characteristics of EIS, the equivalent circuit with two time constants was used to fit the electrochemical impedance test results [19,46].  $R_s$  is the solution resistance;  $C_{\text{dl}}$  is the electric double layer capacitance;  $R_{\text{ct}}$  is the charge transfer resistance;  $R_{\text{pore, sol}}$  and  $C_f$  are the reaction resistance and capacitance of the porous TCC, respectively. In addition, EIS data of TCC constructed under the regulation of anode  $\phi_p$  is shown in Fig. S4 in SI. In the low-frequency domain of impedance, there was an obvious phenomenon of diffusion impedance, so the Warburg impedance  $W$  was added in the equivalent circuit for these samples. In fact, it can be seen from Fig. 5 that the TCC on the surface of Zn55Al conformed to the surface characteristics of porous electrode, and these macro pores could be

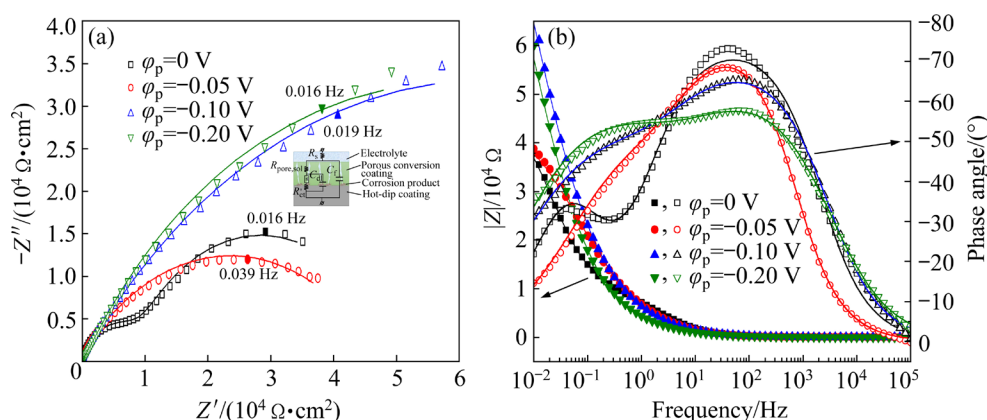
seen as semi-infinite diffusion physical model in the initial process of corrosion. The regulation of anode  $\varphi_p$  highlighted the diffusion phenomenon of TCC surface in corrosive electrolyte somehow.

Figure 11(a) showed that when the pulse square wave potential  $\varphi_p = -0.10$  V, the values of the real part in Nyquist diagram and  $\lg|Z|$  in Bode diagram were the largest, indicating that the corrosion resistance of the TCC-Zn55Al in chloride-containing solution could be significantly improved by appropriate pulse external electric field. Besides, Table 5 lists the values of each physical element obtained by EIS equivalent circuit fitting progress. When the pulse potential  $\varphi_p = -0.10$  V, the value of  $R_{\text{pore, sol}} + R_{\text{ct}}$  was the largest, increases by 2.69 times compared with that without  $\varphi_p$  regulation. At the same time, when  $\varphi_p = -0.10$  V, the  $C_{\text{dl}}$  value obtained by fitting appropriately increased, which indicated the smaller distance of the double layer capacitance between the sample surface and the electrolyte and this could also due to the increase of the surface micro-roughness

leading to the larger contact area with the electrolyte. The EIS results indicated the changes in the internal structure of TCC. From the results of the above electrochemical measurements, the physical barrier effect of TCC on corrosive electrolyte became better under the effect of cathode  $\varphi_p$ . Of course, whether this corrosion resistance can be maintained with the increase of corrosion time is worthy of further study.

## 4 Discussion

As mentioned, it has been proven that the application of cathode  $\varphi_p$  has more positive effect on the corrosion resistance and surface property regulation of fresh formed TCC. And the effect of  $\varphi_p$  regulation can be maximized by adjusting its polarity and amplitude. More importantly, the application of  $\varphi_p$  further reduced the content of trace Cr(VI) on fresh formed TCC, which improved the environmental friendliness of freshly-formed TCC.



**Fig. 11** EIS results of TCC in 0.5 mol/L NaCl solution regulated by cathode  $\varphi_p$  during TCP: (a) Nyquist diagram; (b) Bode diagram

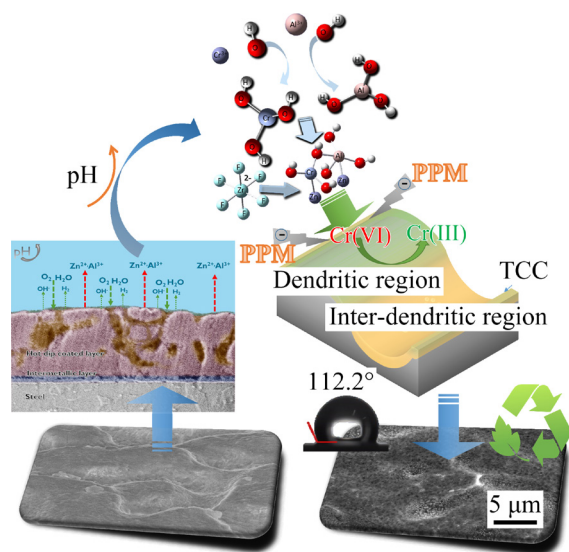
**Table 5** EIS fitting results of TCC regulated by anodic  $\varphi_p$  during TCP

$\varphi_p/\text{V}$	$R_s/(\Omega \cdot \text{cm}^2)$	$R_{\text{pore, sol}}/(\Omega \cdot \text{cm}^2)$	$C_f/(\mu\text{F} \cdot \text{cm}^{-2})$	$R_{\text{ct}}/(\Omega \cdot \text{cm}^2)$	$C_{\text{dl}}/(\mu\text{F} \cdot \text{cm}^{-2})$	$W/(\mu\Omega^{-1} \cdot \text{s}^{0.5})$
0	21.87	$1.09 \times 10^4$	11.97	$3.78 \times 10^4$	241.07	—
-0.05	44.22	$5.51 \times 10^3$	10.85	$4.19 \times 10^4$	65.15	—
-0.10	20.27	$7.02 \times 10^3$	14.68	$1.24 \times 10^5$	128.55	—
-0.20	20.71	$4.31 \times 10^3$	21.50	$1.12 \times 10^5$	68.29	—
+0.05	19.05	$1.19 \times 10^4$	6.67	$3.01 \times 10^4$	21.44	898
+0.10	18.22	$7.39 \times 10^3$	8.49	$1.52 \times 10^4$	111.33	—
+0.20	19.40	$1.00 \times 10^4$	10.07	$9.46 \times 10^3$	44.04	712

The Chi-Squared  $\chi^2$  of the fitting results is 0.014–0.017, and the estimated error is under 10%

#### 4.1 Effective $\phi_p$ regulation on surface micro-nano structure

Due to the continuous increase of pH detected during the TCP, the generation of hydroxyl ion revealed in Reactions (1)–(3) was proven as the main driving force. As shown in Fig. 12, by applying the cathode  $\phi_p$ , the construction speed of TCC was directly improved, and one important effect of pulse potential was reflected in the elimination of mass transfer barriers near the TCC-forming points. As a result,  $\phi_p$  regulation reduced the size and number of micro cracks on the surface of TCC and improved the density of TCC by adjusting its micro-nano structure, which made TCC have better corrosion resistance in later aging and corrosion environment. The detailed average potential gradient distribution was revealed by the SVET measurement. The result in Fig. S5 in SI further indicated the cathode  $\phi_p$  provided better uniformity of the potential distribution, which was consistent with the phenomenon that the surface of TCC became denser and the macro roughness decreased with the regulation of  $\phi_p$ .



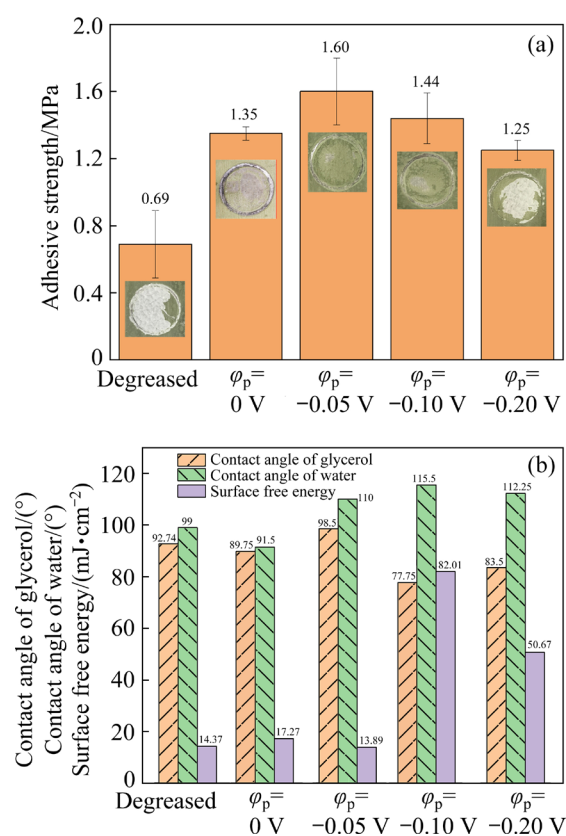
**Fig. 12** Schematic diagram of regulation mechanism of TCC construction by  $\phi_p$  on Zn55Al (PPM–Pulse potential method)

Figure 7 revealed the variation of micro-roughness of Zn55Al samples with and without the effect of  $\phi_p$ . Based on the result of contact angle and coating adhesion strength measurement, the calculation of surface free energy was also carried out in this work. Figure 13 reveals the relationship among micro-roughness, adhesive strength, hydro-

phobicity and the surface free energy. It can be seen from Fig. 13 that the bonding strength between the Zn55Al surface and the epoxy primer was increased by 18.52% when  $\phi_p$  was  $-0.05$  V. In addition, when  $\phi_p = -0.05$  V and  $-0.10$  V, the fracture presented a cohesive style, while that of degreased sample and samples with poor adhesion strength presented an adhesive style [47]. It was proven that the increase of micro-roughness and the decrease of macro-roughness worked together and improved the free energy on Zn55Al surface, which could be obtained by measuring the contact angle ( $\theta$ ) using pure water or glycerol and solving the equation [47,48]:

$$\gamma_{lv} (1 + \cos \theta) = 2\sqrt{\gamma_{sv}^d \gamma_{lv}^d} + 2\sqrt{\gamma_{sv}^p \gamma_{lv}^p} \quad (7)$$

where  $\gamma_{lv}$  is the liquid surface energy,  $\gamma_{sv}^p$  and  $\gamma_{lv}^p$  are the polar components of the solid surface energy (term to be solved) and the liquid surface energy, respectively, while  $\gamma_{sv}^d$  and  $\gamma_{lv}^d$  (known items) are the dispersion components of the solid surface energy and the liquid surface energy, respectively.



**Fig. 13** Relationship among micro-roughness, adhesive strength, hydrophobicity and surface free energy on surface of TCC regulated by  $\phi_p$ : (a) Variation of adhesive strength to epoxy primer; (b) Variations of adhesive strength, contact angle and surface free energy



#### 4.2 Effective $\phi_p$ regulation on surface chemical composition

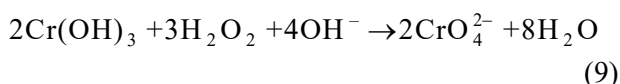
Previous studies about aluminum alloy have reported the double-layer structure of TCC [18,49]. The change of Cr/Zr molar ratio with the depth of TCC was calculated, as shown in Fig. S6 in SI. Compared with Zr, the content of Cr in the inner layer of TCC on Zn55Al surface was larger, while Zr was widely distributed at the middle depth of the TCC (mainly  $\text{ZrO}_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ).

Combined with the XPS analysis of fresh constructed TCC and previous studies on aluminum alloys, trace amount of hexavalent chromium is easy to appear at least on the surface of TCC, which may lead to the problem of usage limitation. The popular view is that in the process of TCP or corrosion, hydrogen peroxide generated by two electron reduction processes of oxygen on the surface of some cathode secondary phase oxidizes trivalent chromium to hexavalent chromium [49,50].

Two electron reduction reactions of oxygen:



Formation of hexavalent chromium:



Of course, this is possible because the micro cracks on TCC let the corrosion media especially the oxidation components reach the interface of the hot-dip coating through some narrow channels [51]. Whatever the reason, hexavalent chromium was detected on the surface of the fresh constructed TCC in this work, which was a more noteworthy conclusion. Although hexavalent chromium has a certain self-healing property in TCC, as shown in Reactions (10) and (11), the requirement of environmental protection regulations is more stringent [52]. However, during the process of TCP, the main cathode reaction on zinc rich region is 4-electron oxygen reduction. Due to the complex formation of hydrogen peroxide in acid medium, the appearance of hexavalent chromium needs to be further investigated [53].

Net redox reaction:

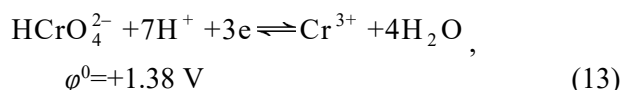
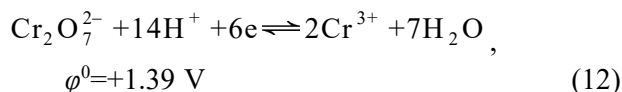


Consumption of electrons at corroding site:



Despite the pressure of the environmental

protection, the role of trivalent chromium in TCC is still irreplaceable. Based on equilibrium calculations, it was determined that Cr(VI) oxidizing substance reduction to trivalent chromium with higher reduction potential (Reactions (12) and (13)) was thermodynamically feasible promoted, especially under the influence of cathode potential [54,55]:



The Raman shift positions given in Fig. 14 clearly reflected the key fingerprint information of Cr(III)—O and Cr(VI)—O even though this cannot be regarded as a quantitative indicator of the Cr(III)/Cr(VI) ratio. The spectra clearly reflected that the peak of Cr(VI)—O bands (i.e.  $\text{CrO}_4^{2-}$ ,  $\text{HCrO}_4^-$  and  $\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7^{2-}$ , depending on the local pH) positioned at 840–904  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  decreased, which easily distinguished them from the Cr(III)—O bands at 520  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  (i.e.  $\text{Cr}(\text{OH})_3$ ) [49]. Of course, the local pH information during the TCP is also important. New local pH detection methods are studied, which can further guide the study of hexavalent chromium substance reduced during  $\phi_p$  regulation.

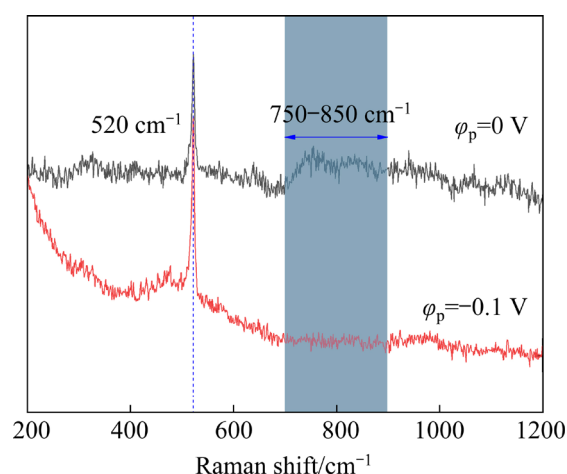


Fig. 14 Raman spectra of surface of freshly-formed TCC with  $\phi_p = -0.1 \text{ V}$  and  $\phi_p = 0 \text{ V}$

## 5 Conclusions

(1) The content of Cr(VI) on the surface of TCC-constructed Zn55Al was reduced after being regulated by square wave  $\phi_p$ . When cathode  $\phi_p = -0.20 \text{ V}$ , the content of Cr(VI) in TCC was further

reduced by 30.20%. Cathode  $\phi_p$  increased the content of  $\text{OH}^-$  on TCC by 52.46%, which was believed to effectively improve the adhesion of primer. The proportion of other main film-forming elements on TCC was also increased at the same time. The corrosion resistance in 0.5 mol/L NaCl solution was significantly improved and the regulation of cathode  $\phi_p$  was better than that of anode.

(2) The crack sensitivity of TCC was high, especially at the transition region of dendrite region and interdendritic region. AES depth analysis showed that TCC had multilayer structure, the thickness of TCC at interdendritic region (~450 nm) was greater than that at dendritic region (~350 nm), and the depth of surface micro cracks could be equivalent to that of the TCC.

(3) When the cathode  $\phi_p$  was applied, the micro-roughness of the TCC surface was further increased and the macro roughness decreased. The density and integrity of the TCC were improved while the micro cracks were reduced. The results provided guiding significance for developing the next generation conversion coating technology and breaking through the environmental protection barriers in the field of using TCP surface treatment.

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## Supporting Information

Supporting Information in this paper can be found at: [http://tnmsc.csu.edu.cn/download/14-p6067-2022-0290-Supporting\\_Information.pdf](http://tnmsc.csu.edu.cn/download/14-p6067-2022-0290-Supporting_Information.pdf).

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## 方波电位幅值和极性对锌铝合金热浸镀层表面三价铬化学转化膜性能的影响

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**摘 要:** 揭示热浸镀锌铝合金镀层表面 Cr(III)化学转化膜(TCC)的构建过程, 对比研究阴极和阳极方波电位( $\varphi_p$ )改善转化膜性能的作用效果。通过 EIS 和极化曲线测试获得 TCC 在含氯离子介质中的耐蚀性。结合表面宏/微观 3D 形貌观察和 XPS、AES、FTIR 以及拉曼光谱等化学组分分布分析, 系统讨论耐蚀性提升与表面组织结构之间的联系。结果表明, 阴极方波电位  $\varphi_p$  相较阳极电位在提高 TCC 耐蚀性和降低 TCC 表面 Cr(VI)含量方面的作用更为显著。另外, 由于微纳结构的重构, TCC 的疏水性以及与环氧底漆之间的结合力得到提升。

**关键词:** 热浸镀层; Cr(III)化学转化膜; 方波电位; 表面粗糙度

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