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ON THE SOLUBILITY OF HYDROGEN IN METALS AND ALLOYS

We review and analyse the factors affecting the solubility of interstitial atoms (H) in the metal alloys. The electronic structure and atomic ordering of the AB-type alloys, as well as methods of calculation of the solubility for ordering cubic alloys

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with octahedral interstitial pores are considered. We study the parameters of interstitial atoms, which make it possible to predict a decrease or increase in solubility, when the main role belongs to the ordering of the system. The parameters of the static distribution of atoms are determined. The relative solubility is represented as a function of the long-range order parameter (η), and the influence of bulk effects on this parameter is considered. The following systems are studied: Fe–Ni, Au–Cu, Pd–Au, Fe–Cr, Ti–Al, Cu–Zn, Ag–Zn, Fe–Al, Au–Ag, Fe–V, Pd–Pt, Ni–Mn, Ni–Fe, Cu–Au, Cu–Pd, Pd–Nb, Pd–Ag, as well as three-component alloys. As shown, through introducing impurities into the alloy, we can change significantly its physical-mechanical, electrical, magnetic, and other properties.

Keywords: metals, alloys, interstitial atoms, solubility, ordering, body-centred cubic (b.c.c.) structure, face-centred cubic (f.c.c.) structure, molecular kinetic theory.

1. Role of Impurities in the Properties' Modification

Solubility is one of the most important properties of metals and alloys. As known in reality, only solutions exist, and pure substances represent an ultimate state that can be approached. In many cases, it is necessary to have data on the maximum solubility of a specific element in a metal or alloy. This information allows us to determine the concentration range of the element within which it dissolves in the alloy without disrupting the homogeneity of the solid solution. By introducing impurities (alloying elements) into the alloy, we can significantly change its mechanical, electrical, magnetic, and other properties. Therefore, multicomponent solid solutions based on pure metals or binary alloys have great practical value and are known to be the main structural components of practically all used alloys.

There is already a significant amount of literature [1–27] describing the preparation [1–6] and processing [7–10] of metals and their alloys, as well as summarizing experimental [11–18] and theoretical [19–21] data on single-component [22–23] or multicomponent [24–27] systems. Studying these materials allows us to establish the nature of the influence of various impurities on the physical properties of metals or alloys. In addition, the available information allows us to consider metals and alloys as catalysts used to obtain a wide range of soluble (fullerenes [28–31], fullerites [32], endofullerenes [33]) and insoluble carbon nanostructures (graphene [34–35], nanotubes [36–37]) in various synthesis methods [38–46]. Such nanomaterials can be used in additive technologies [47–50], solar energy [51–53], as well as in the production of sorbents [54–62] in the medical-biological industry [63–68] and modern composite materials [69–72]. In addition, carbon nanostructures play an important role in hydrogen energy as materials for fuel cells [73–76] and hydrogen storage [77–81], where nanostructures compete with widely known advanced hydrogen storage materials [82–99].

From the beginning of studying solid solutions [100], it was found that impurities significantly affect the electrical properties of alloys. For example, the effect of gases dissolved in metals on their physical properties has been investigated. In most cases, gases increase the hardness and decrease the ductility of metallic materials, leading to brittleness [101, 102]. Thus, the failure of metallic products during operation is a consequence of the presence of gas impurities in them. In addition, the presence of Hydrogen (H_2) in an alloy can affect the processes of diffusion and atom ordering, as demonstrated in the case of Fe–Ni and Au–Cu alloy systems [103–106]. Hydrogen also changes the electrical resistance of alloys, *e.g.*, small amounts of hydrogen increased the resistance of the Pd–Au alloy [101]. The authors of Ref. [101] discovered a strong influence of gas on the thermoelectric power of metals.

Adding a third element to a binary alloy changes the phase diagram type. This circumstance should be taken into account [107], *e.g.*, for solving problems related to developing the heat treatment regimes for alloys, determining the possibility of metastable phases appearing, determining conditions for phase equilibrium, *etc.* In the case of ordering binary systems, adding a third element can expand or narrow the range of existence of the ordered phase. For example, adding V or Mo to Fe–Cr alloy increases the ordering temperature [108, 109], while adding Cr to Fe–V decreases this parameter [108]. Adding V or Nb to Ti–Al also reduces the ordering temperature, while increasing its heat resistance [110].

2. Factors Affecting the Solubility

Factors affecting the solubility of an element in a metal or alloy can be divided into external and internal. External factors affecting solubility depend on the conditions in which the system is located, *i.e.* on temperature, pressure. As shown in Ref. [111], the dependence of solubility S on temperature T is expressed by the equation

$$S = K_{\text{exp}} - \frac{E_s}{k_B T}, \quad (1)$$

where K is a constant, E_s is the heat of dissolution, and k_B is the Boltzmann constant.

Figure 1 schematically shows the dependence of hydrogen solubility in different metals, where a is the melting point, b is the phase transformation point in iron. In liquid metals, the gas dissolves better; the solubility of hydrogen in solid aluminium (Al) is very low. As can be seen from Eq. (1), the dependence of the logarithm of solubility on the reciprocal temperature should be linear. The slope of this straight line can be used to determine the heat of dissolution.

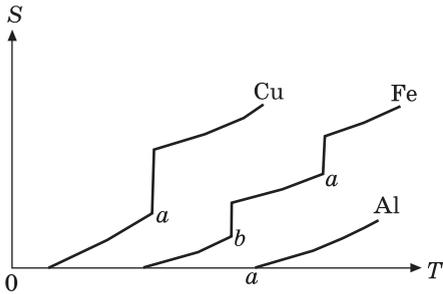


Fig. 1. Temperature dependence of hydrogen solubility in Cu, Fe and Al [111]

Gas usually dissolves in metals in small amounts, so that dissolved gas atoms do not interact with each other. In this case, solubility is proportional to pressure P , if the gas is monatomic, or proportional to \sqrt{P} , if the gas is diatomic, such as H_2 or C_2 .

Internal factors affecting solubility can be divided into geometric, chemical, and physical factors, where:

- geometric factor is the different size of atoms;
- chemical factors of solubility are electronegativity and valence;
- physical factors of solubility are the structure of the alloy, quantitative ratio of components, and atomic order.

These factors affect not only solubility but also each other. The presence of impurity atoms deforms the crystal lattice, causing its compression or stretching and thereby changing the lattice period. If the alloy atoms differ only in size, then, the average atomic diameter and lattice parameter are determined by the Vegard's rule, which was derived for inorganic salts and solid solutions, but works well for Cu–Zn and Ag–Zn alloys. However, if the pure components differ in compressibility, valence, and electronegativity, then, the average atomic diameter and lattice parameter will not be a linear function of the alloy composition. The presence of atomic ordering in the alloy makes the concentration dependence of the lattice parameter complex, with kinks or breaks appearing on the graph of this dependence. The dependence of atomic diameter on the nearest neighbour arrangement was discovered in the work [121]. In the Fe–Al alloys, a superstructure manifests itself, when impurity atoms are dissolved in them, and the dependence of the lattice parameter on the composition in these alloys is complex. Disruption of the periodicity of the crystal lattice caused by impurity atoms is a serious obstacle to solubility. Atomic ordering promotes the restoration of lattice periodicity, resulting in a denser packing and a decrease in the lattice parameter. Therefore, often, the phenomena of ordering and good solubility accompany each other and have a mutual influence.

It has been experimentally established that the electronegativity of an element x is determined by its valence n and atomic radius r .

$$x \propto \frac{n + 1}{r}.$$

Atoms with different valences (different electronegativity) have a greater affinity. This leads to an increase in the stability of the alloy and promotes atomic ordering.

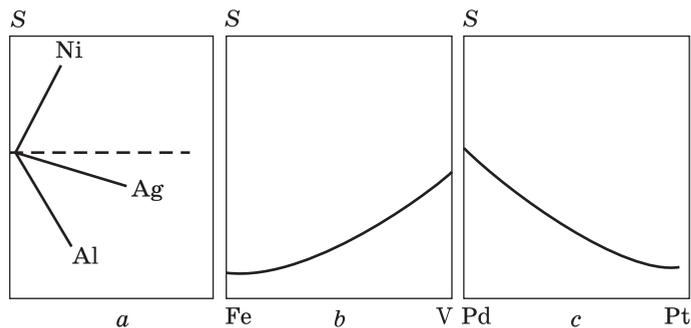


Fig. 2. Dependence of the solubility of hydrogen in a metal on the concentration of impurity metals [101]

Changes in the structure of the metal or alloy (phase transformation) cause a sharp change in solubility. Two elements form a continuous series of solid solutions if the crystal lattice of the solution is similar to the crystal lattices of the constituent elements. This is observed in the Au–Ag alloys.

The solubility of gas in a metal is strongly influenced by the presence of impurities from other elements. If the metal is a good solvent, its impurities will increase solubility, and vice versa.

Figure 2, *a* shows the dependence of hydrogen solubility in Cu on the content of Ni, Ag, or Al [101]. As seen from Figs. 2, *b* and 2, *c* showing the concentration dependence of hydrogen solubility in Fe–V and Pd–Pt alloys, respectively, the properties inherent to each specific metal are manifested (but not summed up) in the alloy. Impurity atoms affect the temperature dependence of solubility. For example, the temperature dependence of hydrogen solubility in iron–vanadium alloys is not determined by Eq. (1); a minimum is observed on the corresponding curve in the alloy with 22% vanadium at 900 °C (Fig. 3). However, despite the fact that, in most cases, there is an increase in the maximum solubility of components upon heating [124, 125], as Eq. (1) suggests, there are separate cases where the concentration range of solid solution narrows with increasing temperature of the alloy [108]. In these cases, phase transformations usually take place, where the effects of physical and chemical factors of dissolution should be taken into account.

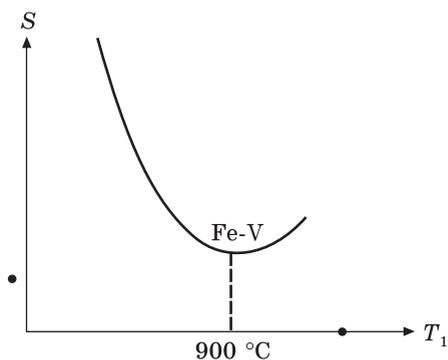


Fig. 3. Temperature-dependent hydrogen solubility in Fe–V alloys [124, 125]

To understand fully the mechanism of impurity dissolution, the electronic structure of the alloy must be taken into account. When an impurity atom enters a melt, it causes the appearance of a perturbing

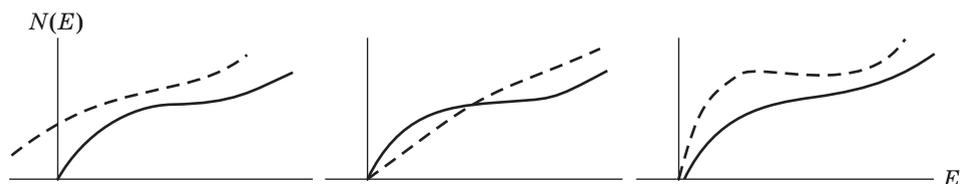


Fig. 4. Shifts in the density of state for different distributions of impurity atoms in the alloy, where dashed lines correspond to the random distributions [126]

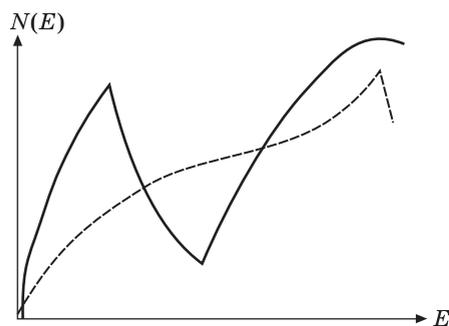


Fig. 5. Density of states of disordered (dashed line) and ordered (solid line) solid solutions [127]

field, altering the interaction between alloy atoms. This affects the distribution of electrons in bands according to energy levels and the density of states $N(E)$. If the distribution of impurity atoms in the alloy is disordered, there is a slight shift in the $N(E)$ curve as shown (by the dashed line) in Fig. 4 [126].

If a superstructure manifests in the alloy, there may be a split in the energy band. Figure 5 schematically shows the dependences $N(E)$ for disordered (dashed line) and ordered (solid line) solid solutions [127]. The presence of impurity atoms can cause the appearance of electronic irregularities and disrupt the periodicity of the distribution of electron charges in the crystal. This one results in the structural distortions, namely, displacement of atoms from equilibrium positions [128]. Such distortions (in turn) affect the solubility of impurities and the final properties of solid solutions. The consistent theory of solubility should take into account the electronic states of solid solutions.

3. Brief Theoretical Background for Studying the Solubility

To construct a theory of solubility, certain model representations are typically used. The model is considered better if its predictions are more accurate and in agreement with experimental observations. Usually, not all factors influencing the properties of alloys are taken into account in proposed models. The developed approximation can be considered correct if the influence of the unaccounted factors is weak. For this reason, molecular kinetic representations are often used in constructing theories of solid solutions.

Theoretical studies of some physical properties of alloys (including solubility) can be conducted without considering electronic states. Molecular kinetic theory (MKT) is constructed taking into account the

distribution, movement, and interaction of atoms using statistical physics methods with the application of thermodynamic functions.

Impurity atoms, depending on their sizes, can be located in the crystal-lattice sites or interstices. Therefore, substitutional and interstitial solid solutions are distinguished. Alloys of different metals represent substitutional solid solutions.

The dissolution of hydrogen, carbon, boron, nitrogen, and other elements with small atomic radii leads to the formation of interstitial solid solutions. As shown in Ref. [129], the atomic radius of the interstitial component must satisfy the condition

$$r_{\text{in}} < 0.59r, \quad (2)$$

where r is the average atomic radius of the alloy in which the impurity is dissolved.

In this case, the coordination of the interstitial atoms will be octahedral (6 nearest neighbouring atoms), if $0.41r < r_{\text{in}} < 0.59r$, and tetrahedral (4 nearest neighbouring atoms), if $r_{\text{in}} < 0.41r$.

Examples of interstitial alloys include ordered Pd–Pt, Fe–V, Ni–Mn, Ni–Fe, Cu–Au, and Cu–Pd alloys with hydrogen interstitial atoms. In the Pd–Nb, Pd–Ag, Cu–Au, and Cu–Pd alloys with hydrogen, short-range ordering of atoms can occur at high temperatures. Alloys based on V, Ti, Zn, and Nb with W or Mo can contain a large amount of interstitial C atoms, since they are formed as a result of mutual dissolution of so-called interstitial phases [129].

Impurity atoms come in a metal or alloy from another additive phase. The calculation of the solubility of impurity atoms is carried out assuming that the system is in a state of thermodynamic equilibrium. This can be either an alloy (metal) in equilibrium with a solid phase as the source of dissolved atoms, or a solid solution (metal) in a state of thermodynamic equilibrium with a coexisting gas phase. The condition for the equilibrium of two phases is the equality of temperatures, pressures, and chemical potentials.

The concentration of impurity atoms can be easily estimated if the impurity atoms in the alloy are located in interstices. In this case, the state function of the alloy is written as

$$Z = \sum_n \exp \frac{-E_n}{k_B T} = \sum_{\kappa} \exp \frac{-E_{\kappa}}{k_B T} \sum_T \exp \frac{-E_T}{k_B T}, \quad (3)$$

where $E_n = E_{\kappa} + E_T$ is the energy of the system in the n -th state. It consists of the configurational energy (E_{κ}) and the energy of thermal vibrations and electronic states (E_T). Adding an impurity atom to the structure changes the energy of the alloy. The configurational energy E_{κ} increases by μ (chemical potential), and the energy E_T increases by ν . The transfer of a C atom from the second phase to the AB alloy requires

energy expenditure,

$$u_i = -iA - (z - i)B, \quad (4)$$

determined by the sum of the energies of pair-wise interaction of the embedded C atom with the nearest A and B atoms in the alloy. In the last formula (4), $A = V_{AC}$ and $B = V_{BC}$ are interaction energies of atoms taken with opposite signs, z is the number of nearest neighbouring sites of the C atom in the alloy, of which i sites are occupied by A atoms and $z - i$ sites are occupied by B atoms. The difference $u_i - \mu - \nu$ determines the potential field, in which C atoms are distributed. Since only one C atom can enter each interstice, the distribution function of C atoms in interstices should be determined and described by a Fermi-type function. At low concentrations of C atoms, the Boltzmann distribution function can be used [130]. Then, the number of C atoms located in the i -th interstice will be equal to

$$n_i = N_i \exp \frac{-(u_i - \mu - \nu)}{k_B T}, \quad (5)$$

where N_i is the number of interstices in the alloy of type i (the i -th interstice is determined by the number of A atoms in the nearest sites). The total number of C atoms dissolved in the alloy is obtained by summing (5) over i :

$$n = \sum_i n_i = \lambda \nu \sum_i N_i \exp \frac{-u_i}{k_B T}, \quad (6)$$

where

$$\lambda = \exp \frac{\mu}{k_B T} \quad (7)$$

is the absolute activity, and

$$\nu = \exp \frac{\nu}{k_B T} \quad (8)$$

is a multiplier by which the vibrational part of the state function (formula (3)) increases upon embedding the C atom.

Calculation of the sum in Eq. (6) for an unordered alloy leads to the following result:

$$n_0 = \frac{m \lambda \nu}{a^3} \left(c_A e^{\frac{A}{k_B T}} + c_B e^{\frac{B}{k_B T}} \right)^z, \quad (9)$$

where m is the number of interstitial sites in the crystal lattice of the alloy, a is the lattice parameter, c_A and c_B are the atomic concentrations of components A and B .

Formula (9) was derived in Ref. [131] for alloys with f.c.c. structures. This formula is valid for all alloys whose crystal lattice is such that all z nearest neighbours to the interstitial site are equidistant from it. This is also applicable for h.c.p. alloys. If the interstitial site is surrounded by nearest neighbours located at different distances from it,

then the energy required to transfer atom C from the second phase to the interstitial site, also determined by the sum of the energies of pair-wise interactions of atom C with nearest neighbours A and B , will also contain energies $A = V_{AC}$, $B = V_{BC}$, $a = v_{AC}$, $b = v_{BC}$, corresponding to different distances from the interstitial site to the nearest neighbours. Calculation of the number of impurity atoms dissolved in an unordered alloy with an f.c.c. structure [131] yields the result:

$$n_0 = \frac{m\lambda v}{a^3} \left(c_A e^{\frac{A}{k_B T}} + c_B e^{\frac{B}{k_B T}} \right)^l \left(c_A e^{\frac{a}{k_B T}} + c_B e^{\frac{b}{k_B T}} \right)^{z-l}, \quad (10)$$

where l and $z - l$ are the numbers of nearest neighbours corresponding to different distances.

From formulas (9) and (10), it can be seen that for a pure metal, such as A , when $c_A = 1$ and $c_B = 0$, these relationships reduce to a formula of type (1). However, for an alloy, the dependence of $\ln n$ on the inverse temperature $1/T$ will not be linear. In Eq. (9), it is close to linear only when $|A - B|/(k_B T) \ll 1$. If $|A - B|/(k_B T)$ is of the order of unity and the energy parameters A and B have opposite signs, then, a minimum may be observed on the curve of solubility *versus* temperature, as shown in Fig. 3. The dependence of solubility on composition is monotonic, as observed in experiments (Fig. 2).

The difference in pair-wise interaction energies of atoms A - B can be estimated from the values of enthalpies of dissolution. Using the first law of thermodynamics, it can be easily shown that

$$\frac{A - B}{k_B} = \frac{\lambda_A - \lambda_B}{zR}, \quad (11)$$

where R is the gas constant. Knowing the enthalpies of dissolution λ_A and λ_B of atoms C in pure components A and B , one can estimate the energy parameter (11) that enters into Eq. (9) for solubility.

Atomic ordering in an alloy AB can both facilitate and hinder the dissolution of component C in it. The calculation of solubility for ordering alloys with an f.c.c. structure of type AB yields:

$$n = \frac{2\lambda v}{a^3} \left[\left(c_A + \frac{1}{2} \eta \right) e^{\frac{A}{k_B T}} + \left(c_B - \frac{1}{2} \eta \right) e^{\frac{B}{k_B T}} \right]^3 \times \left[\left(c_A - \frac{1}{2} \eta \right) e^{\frac{A}{k_B T}} + \left(c_B + \frac{1}{2} \eta \right) e^{\frac{B}{k_B T}} \right]^3, \quad (12)$$

where η is the long-range order (LRO) parameter in the arrangement of atoms. Figure 6, *a* shows the dependence of relative solubility

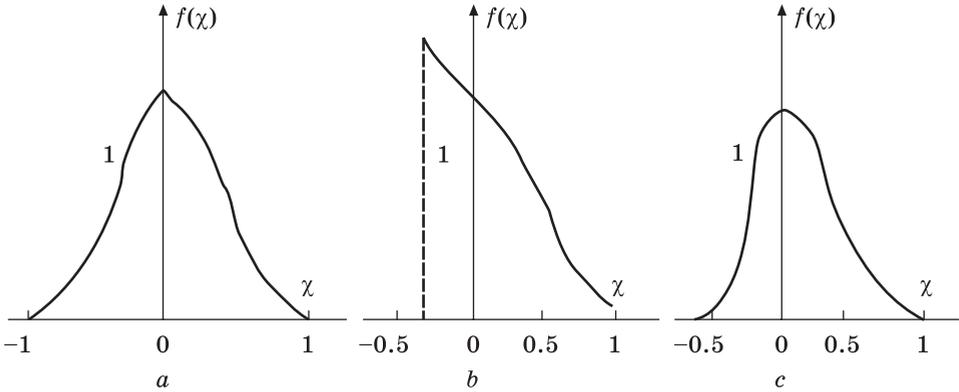


Fig. 6. Dependences of the relative solubility of interstitial atoms in the f.c.c. Cu₃Au-type alloy pores. Here, (a) solubility vs. parameter $\chi \propto \eta$, (b) and (c) octahedral and tetrahedral pores, respectively [131]

$$f = \frac{n}{n_0} = (1 - \chi^2)^3, \quad (13)$$

where

$$\chi = \frac{1}{2} \eta \frac{e^{\frac{A}{k_B T}} - e^{\frac{A}{k_B T}}}{c_A e^{\frac{A}{k_B T}} + c_B e^{\frac{A}{k_B T}}}, \quad (14)$$

on the parameter χ , proportional to the LRO parameter η . Since $-1 \leq \chi \leq 1$, it can be seen from the graph that a higher ordering parameter leads to a decrease in the solubility of C atoms. As $\chi \rightarrow \pm 1$ (which can happen when $\eta \rightarrow 1$), solubility drops to zero, *i.e.*, in a fully ordered alloy, solubility is practically impossible. Therefore, to dissolve C atoms in an alloy (*e.g.*, to change its physical properties), it is necessary to reduce η and increase the temperature. As shown in Ref. [131], ordering can promote impurity solubility in alloys with f.c.c. and b.c.c. structures. This can be seen from Figs. 6 and 7 showing the dependence of relative solubility of atoms occupying octahedral (Fig. 6, b) and tetrahedral (Fig. 6, c) sites in f.c.c. Cu₃Au-type structure, and in octahedral sites of b.c.c. CuZn- (Fig. 7, a) and Fe₃Al-type structures (Fig. 7, b) on the parameter χ (or χ_1 and χ_2). The parameters χ_1 and χ_2 are determined by formulas like (14), but for χ_2 in (14), energies $A = V_{AC}$, $B = V_{BC}$ must be replaced by energies $a = v_{AC}$ and $b = v_{BC}$. For alloys with a b.c.c. lattice, the multiplier 1/2 in this formula must be replaced by 1/4. For such alloys, the value of χ can range from $[-1/3, 1]$; and in the range $[-1/3, 0]$, the solubility of impurity atoms in octahedral sites increases with increasing alloy ordering. For alloys with an f.c.c. structure, the

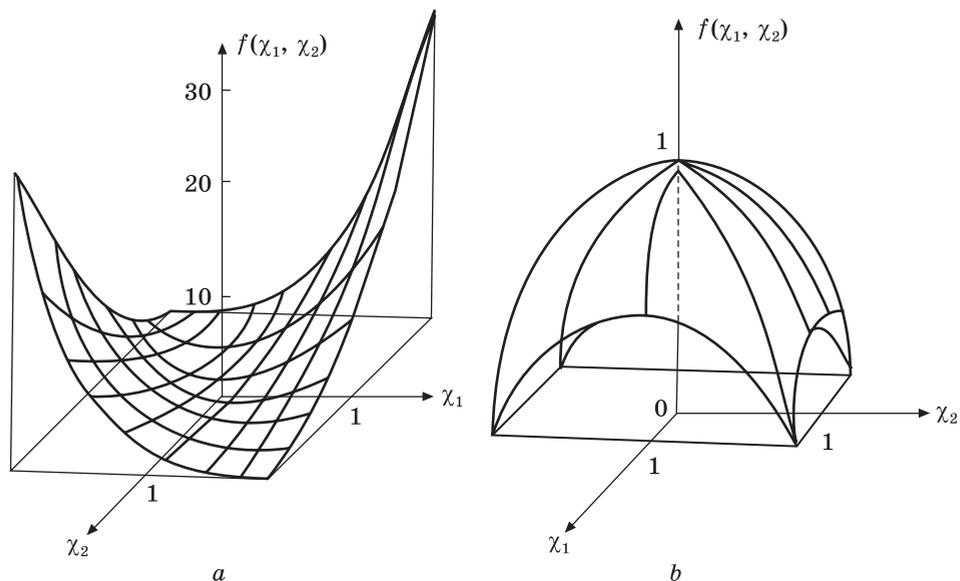


Fig. 7. Dependences of the relative solubility of atoms in the octahedral pores of the b.c.c. alloys, where *a* and *b* correspond to the CuZn- and Fe₃Al-type structures, respectively [131]

relative solubility is represented by the surface $f(\chi_1, \chi_2)$, and for alloys of CuZn type, ordering greatly increases solubility when χ_1 and χ_2 have opposite signs, *i.e.*, when the differences $A - B$ and $a - b$ are of opposite sign (this can happen if the potential curves $V_{AC}(r)$ and $V_{BC}(r)$ are significantly different).

In work [132], the concentration of dissolved *C* atoms in ordered *AB* alloys with an f.c.c. structure was determined for the case where the *C* atoms are located at the lattice sites:

$$c = \frac{\lambda_{\text{D}}}{2} \left[\left(\frac{c_A + \frac{1}{2}\eta}{c_A - \frac{1}{2}\eta} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \exp \frac{8V_{AC} - 4V_{AA}}{kT} + \left(\frac{c_A - \frac{1}{2}\eta}{c_A + \frac{1}{2}\eta} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \exp \frac{8V_{AC} - 4V_{AA}}{kT} \right]. \quad (15)$$

Equation (15) indicates that the ordering of alloy atoms contributes to an increase in the solubility of *C* atoms. This can be explained by the redistribution of *C* atoms on the first and second type of lattice sites.

Formulas (9), (10), (12), and (15) are valid for a static distribution of atoms in the alloy. Additionally, in these formulas, the energies of pair-wise interatomic interactions are considered as constant. However, an analysis of typical ternary solid solutions shows that they cannot be considered as systems with a static distribution of atoms. The interac-

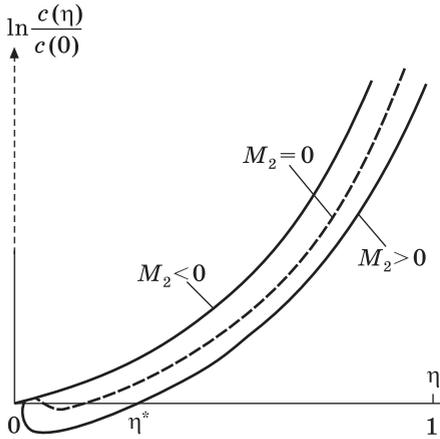


Fig. 8. Dependence of the concentration of dissolving impurity atoms on the LRO parameter (η) for substitutional b.c.c. alloys, where M_2 is an η -independent coefficient [148]

tion between alloy component atoms significantly influences the quantitative ratio of phases and, consequently, the overall construction of the ternary diagram [133]. As interatomic interaction depends on the alloy composition and order of atom placement on lattice sites, irregularities in the properties of continuous solid solutions occur with changes in their composition [134].

Among many classifications of binary and ternary metallic systems [100, 135–141, 142], conducted according to various criteria, such as the type of phase diagram, there is also a classification based on the nature of interatomic bonding [138].

These circumstances indicate the need to consider the dependence of interatomic interaction on composition and atomic order, when we study the impurity solubility in alloys.

In the works [143–145], authors studied the solubility in ordered substitutional and interstitial alloys taking into account the bulk effects. In papers [146, 147], the influence of comprehensive pressure on the solubility of a third component in binary ordered alloys was studied, which is important for understanding the process of impurity atom insertion into their crystalline lattice.

Bulk effects are taken into account by considering the dependence of atom interaction energies on the distance between them. In the literature, the energies of pair-wise atom interactions are often approximated by the widely used Lennard-Jones potential

$$V_{\alpha\beta}(r) = \frac{a_{\alpha\beta}}{r^m} - \frac{a'_{\alpha\beta}}{r^n}, \quad m > n, \quad \alpha, \beta = A, B, C, \quad (16)$$

where m and n are positive integers, $a_{\alpha\beta}$, $a'_{\alpha\beta}$ are positive constants, the lattice parameter r changes with the composition c and ordering parameter η of the alloy and, in alloys under pressure, it also changes with pressure P . The dependence of $r(c, \eta)$ was determined [148–150] by minimizing the free energy F to achieve equilibrium in the alloy:

$$\frac{\partial F}{\partial r} = 0. \quad (17)$$

Calculations showed that for most alloys, the relative change in lat-

tice parameter $\omega = (r - r')/r'$ (r' is the average lattice parameter determined by Vegard's rule) can be both positive and negative, and its absolute value decreases with increasing atomic ordering parameter in the alloy. This has been confirmed experimentally. The dependence of interatomic distance on pressure was assumed to be linear [151–154]: $r = r_0(1 - lP)$, $lP \ll 1$, where r_0 is the distance between neighbouring atoms in the alloy at $P = 0$, and l is determined by the compressibility χ of the alloy $l = \chi/3$, $\chi = -(1/v)(\partial v/\partial P)$, v is the volume of the alloy).

The influence of bulk effects and pressure on solubility largely depends on the potential curves $V_{\alpha\beta}(r)$, more precisely, on the values of parameters $a_{\alpha\beta}$, $a'_{\alpha\beta}$, m and n .

For the substitutional f.c.c. alloys, the concentration of dissolved impurity atoms is determined as in [148]:

$$c(\eta) = \lambda v(1 + \eta)^{\frac{1}{2}}(1 - \eta)^{\frac{1}{2}} \exp \frac{M_1 + M_2 \omega(\eta)}{k_B T}, \quad (17)$$

where M_1 and M_2 coefficients do not depend on η and are determined by parameters $a_{\alpha\beta}$, $a'_{\alpha\beta}$, m and n . When $M_2 = 0$, bulk effects in the alloy are absent. The last formula is written for an alloy of stoichiometric composition. Figure 8 shows graphs of the dependence of c on η at $M_2 > 0$. When $M_2 > 0$ in the interval $[0, \eta^*]$, the ordering of the alloy components reduces the solubility of impurity atoms. However, as a rule, the solubility increases with increasing the LRO parameter.

Bulk effects lead to some characteristic features in the temperature dependence of solubility. As indicated in work [132], the curves of dependence of $\ln c(\eta)$ on $1/T$ have a kink at the temperature T_0 of the order–disorder phase transformation, if it is a second-order phase transition. Bulk effects can lead to the order-disorder transition being of the first order [148]. In this case, the function determining the dependence of $\ln c(\eta)$ on $1/T$ will experience a jump at T_0 . The jump $\ln c(\eta_0) - \ln c(0)$, where $\eta_0 = \eta$ at $T = T_0$, will be positive.

The calculation of the solubility of impurity atoms shows that the graphs of relative solubility $f(\chi)$ or $f(\chi_1 \chi_2)$ (Figs. 6 and 7) flatten out due to bulk effects. This means that the relative solubility as a function of the of LRO parameter in the arrangement of atoms decreases where it is greater than one, and increases where it is less than one. Therefore, with a constant LRO parameter, bulk effects smooth out the effect of changing (decreasing or increasing) solubility with ordering. However, investigation has shown that bulk effects strongly affect the LRO parameter in the alloy. Changing the lattice parameter of the crystal promotes greater ordering in the arrangement of atoms in the alloy. An estimate of the solubility of impurity atoms in alloys with an f.c.c. structure and octahedral interstitial sites showed that for positive values of the χ parameter, significant (more than twice) reduction in solu-

bility can occur due to bulk effects, and for negative χ , an increase of approximately 1.5 times can occur. This can explain the approximately two-fold increase in hydrogen solubility in Ni–Mn and Ni–Fe alloys [155] upon their ordering.

In the b.c.c.-lattice-based alloys, an interesting effect is possible. If there is a strong difference in the potential curves $V_{AC}(r)$ and $V_{BC}(r)$, the parameters $\chi_1(\eta)$ and $\chi_2(\eta)$ can vary due to the bulk effects such that instead of, *e.g.*, decreasing solubility with ordering (without considering bulk effects), we will actually observe an increase in solubility with ordering (when considering bulk effects).

4. Pressure Effect on the Solubility

When we study the effect of pressure on the solubility of impurity atoms in ordered alloys, it should be noted that pressure strongly affects the LRO in the alloy [151]. Figure 9 exhibits possible dependencies of $\eta = \eta(P)$ for substitution f.c.c. alloys of stoichiometric composition, whereas the nonstoichiometric structures have been considered in Ref. [156]. Under pressure, the LRO parameter can either decrease (Fig. 9, *a*) or increase (Fig. 9, *b*). At certain pressure values P_0 (ordering pressure), a phase transition from order to disorder can occur in such an alloy, and there may be two such points, one at which order disappears and another at which it appears. Figure 10 shows graphs of the dependence of solubility on pressure, where dashed curves correspond to the disordered alloy and solid curves correspond to the ordered alloy. The solubility in the disordered alloy increases or decreases with pressure, and the graphs of this dependence have extreme or not, which is determined by the values of the parameters $a_{\alpha\beta}$, $a'_{\alpha\beta}$, m , and n in Eq. (16) for the energies of pair-wise atomic interactions. That is the dependence of solubility on pressure is determined by the nature of the dependence of potential energies of atomic interactions on interatomic distance.

All these cases have been studied in works [146, 147, 156, 157] (see also a wide reference list in the review [157]). At ordering pressures P_0 , kinks appear on the dependence curves of $c = c(P)$. For alloys with a b.c.c. lattice, jumps rather than kinks will be observed on the dependence curves of $c(P)$ at ordering pressures P_0 . In addition, in the case of interstitial alloys with a b.c.c. host lattice, the nature of the dependence of $c(P)$ will be different for octahedral and tetrahedral interstitial sites [147].

In a detailed review [157] (see also references therein), the authors developed the statistical-thermodynamic model of f.c.c. substitutional alloys with both magnetic components as well as models of kinetics of a relaxation of both short-range [158–163] and long-range [164–170] atomic orders of alloys at zero pressure considered with use of the self-

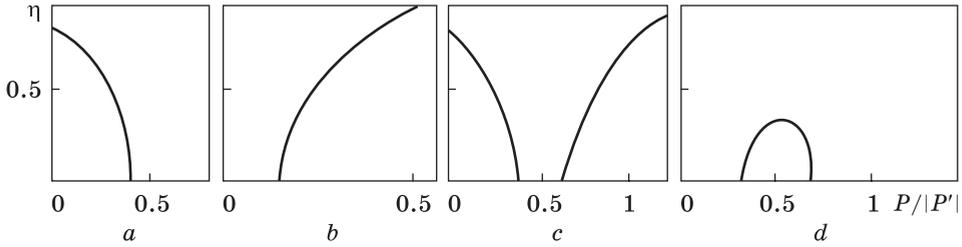


Fig. 9. The long-range order (LRO) parameter η vs. the reduced pressure, where η decreases (a), increases (b), decreases and then increases (c), increases and then decreases (d). In the last two cases (c, d), the order–disorder–order (c) and disorder–order–disorder (d) phase transformations occurs [146, 147, 151]

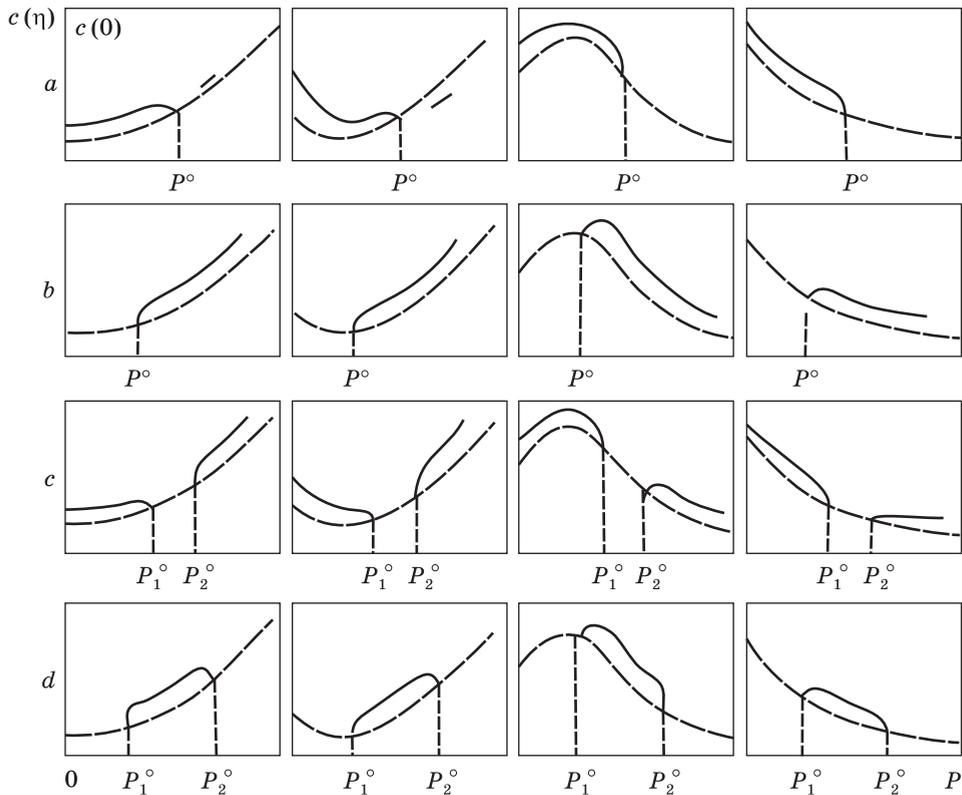


Fig. 10. Dependences of solubility ($c(\eta = 0)$ and $c(\eta \neq 0)$) on pressure (P) for disordered (dashed curves) and ordered (solid curves) alloys [146, 147, 151]

consistent field approximation. External pressure was taken into account in statistical-thermodynamic and kinetic models of f.c.c.- $L1_2$ - or h.c.p.- $D0_{19}$ -type orderings for two cases, namely, when dependences of volume of a sample of an alloy, V , on the LRO parameter, η , and com-

position are weak or essential, *i.e.*, when it is possible or it is impossible to neglect them, respectively. If this V weakly depends on η and composition, pressure P does not influence $\Delta\eta|_{T_0}$, *i.e.*, jump of the long-range order parameter. The pressure only displaces a point of the order–disorder phase transformation, T_0 , aside high or low values of T , depending on signs of those parameters, which characterize model. The $T_0(P)$ and $\eta(P)$ dependences can be nonmonotonic, *i.e.*, occurrence of two different points of order–disorder phase transformations appears possibly. If V significantly depends on η and composition, $\Delta\eta|_{T_0}$ is not a constant and can increase or decrease with increase of P . Dependence $T_0(P)$ is almost linear or nonlinear at low or high values of P , respectively. The pressure can contribute to the atomic ordering or *vice versa* act against it, change a kind of phase transition and symmetry of a crystal lattice of an alloy because of its transformation from tetragonal structure into rhombohedral one [156, 157].

5. Summary

Through experimental investigation of the solubility of the third element in the binary ordered alloys, a number of practically important questions can be clarified. Since the solubility substantially depends on the type of interaction potentials between the alloyed and matrix atoms, an experimental study of the solubility will provide some information on the nature of the dependence $V_{AC} = V_{AC}(r)$ and $V_{BC} = V_{BC}(r)$, the ratio of the energies of V_{AC} and V_{BC} , and the dependence of these energies on the LRO parameter for different compositions.

Additionally, it can reveal information about the type of phase transition from order to disorder. By investigating the solubility of impurity atoms in alloys under pressure, one can determine the nature of the pair-wise atomic interaction energies and their dependence on pressure, as well as predict possible patterns of solubility dependence on pressure and changes in alloy properties under pressure. The effect of pressure on the ordering processes and interatomic interactions can also be used to predict the possible dependence of solubility on pressure for specific alloys. By investigating the solubility of impurity atoms in alloys subjected to pressure, one can find out, *e.g.*, what is the nature of the dependence of the energies of pair interaction of atoms (or some of their combinations): whether order–disorder phase transformations occur under such conditions, how many points of such transformations exist in the alloy, what is the value ordering pressure, into which pores (octahedral or tetrahedral) for interstitial alloys the atoms of the dissolved element fall, *etc.* If the nature of the effect of pressure on the ordering processes and on interatomic interaction is known, for each specific alloy, it is possible to predict the possible regularities in the dependence

of the solubility of impurity atoms and, consequently, to predict a possible change in the properties of alloys under pressure.

However, it should be borne in mind that the conducted studies of the influence of bulk effects and pressure on solubility are purely qualitative, primarily because such are the possibilities of molecular kinetic theory, and it is impossible to consider an alloy simply as a source of a potential field acting on an ensemble of atoms of a dissolving element. The impurity atoms modify this field, which, in turn, affects the processes of ordering of the alloy atoms. In addition, when refining the theory, it is necessary to take into account the correlation between the filling of lattice sites with atoms of different types, and the change in the environment of the interstitial atom in the alloy, and the local distortion of the crystal lattice around the interstitial atom, and the interaction of intervening atoms not only with the nearest neighbouring atoms, but also with atoms in the following coordination spheres, and, finally, the interaction of dissolved atoms with each other.

If we compare the calculated data with the results of experimental analysis, we should keep in mind the possibility of formation of anti-phase domains in the alloy, as well as various phases in terms of the content of dissolved atoms (arising due to the manifestation of interaction between dissolved atoms), which will differ not only in the concentration of dissolved atoms, but also in the value of the lattice parameter and the order parameter. The presence of the latter significantly increases the solubility of impurity atoms. In addition, the results presented in the article are valid for alloys in which ordering reduces the lattice parameter. However, one cannot exclude the possibility of an increase in the lattice parameter with ordering, which will change the nature of the influence of volume effects and confining pressure on solubility in ordering alloys.

6. Conclusions

A review of a wide range of metals and alloys allows us to claim that the knowledge of the impurity solubility parameters makes it possible in the future to evaluate and predict many physical characteristics of multi-component alloys. In this respect, currently we can conclude as follows below.

Atomic ordering in the *AB* alloy can either promote the dissolution of the interstitial *C* component in it or hinder its dissolution. Formulas are given for determining the solubility of impurity atoms in ordering alloys with an h.c.p. *AB* structure.

Ordering reduces the solubility of interstitial *C* atoms to zero for alloy *AB* at the parameter $\chi \rightarrow \pm 1$ (this can be at the LRO parameter $\eta \rightarrow 1$). That is, in a completely ordered alloy, solubility is difficult,

therefore, in order to dissolve C atoms in the AB alloy, it is necessary to reduce η and increase the temperature of the alloy.

In alloys of the $CuZn$ type, the solubility increases strongly with increasing ordering of the system.

Formula (15) indicates that ordering contributes to an increase in the solubility of C atoms, which can be explained by the redistribution of C atoms on sites of the first and second types.

It has been established that formulas (9), (10), (12), and (15) are valid for a static distribution of atoms in the alloy. In addition, in these formulas, the energies of the pair-wise interaction of atoms are considered as constant.

Analysis of typical ternary solid solutions shows that they cannot be considered as systems with a static distribution of atoms. For such solid solutions, the interaction of the atoms of the alloy components has a significant effect on the quantitative ratio of the phases and, as a consequence, on the overall construction of the ternary diagram.

It is necessary to take into account the dependence of interatomic interaction on the composition and atomic order when studying the solubility of impurities in alloys.

Relative solubility, as a function of the LRO parameter (η), decreases where it is greater than one (>1) and increases where it is less than one (<1).

It has been established that volume effects greatly change the value of the LRO parameter (η) in the alloy.

A study of the solubility of impurity atoms in alloys with an f.c.c. structure and octahedral interstitial pores showed that at positive values of the parameter χ , due to volume effects, a significant decrease (more than two times) in solubility can occur, and at negative χ , an increase by about one and a half times. This can explain the increase in the ordering parameter in $Ni-Mn$ and $Ni-Fe$ alloys with increasing hydrogen solubility.

If the nature of the effect of pressure on the processes of ordering and on interatomic interaction is known for each specific alloy, it is possible to predict the possible patterns of the dependence of solubility and, therefore, to predict a possible change in the properties of alloys under pressure.

It is impossible to consider an alloy simply as a source of potential field acting on an ensemble of atoms of a dissolving element, since the dissolving atoms modify this field, which, in turn, affects the processes of ordering of the alloy atoms.

When we study the process of introducing of impurity atoms, it is necessary to take into account many factors. These are the correlation between the filling of lattice sites with atoms of different types, the change in the environment of the implanted atom in the alloy, the local

distortion of the crystal lattice around the implanted atom, the interaction of the implanted atoms not only with the nearest neighbouring atoms, but also with atoms in the following coordination spheres, and, finally, the interaction of dissolved atoms with each other.

The considered structures of the *AB* type can be used as a working fluid in hydrogen-based accumulators, which will make it possible to safely store and transport H for hydrogen energy.

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ПРО РОЗЧИННІСТЬ ГІДРОГЕНУ У МЕТАЛАХ І СТОПАХ

Оглянуто та проаналізовано чинники впливу на розчинність атомів втілення (H) у металевих стопах. Розглянуто електронну структуру й атомове впорядкування стопів типу АВ, а також методи розрахунку розчинності для упорядкованих кубічних стопів з октаедричними порами втілення. Вивчено параметри атомів втілення, що уможливають прогноз зменшення або збільшення розчинності, коли головну роль відіграє впорядкування системи. Встановлено параметри статичного розподілу атомів. Розглянуто відносну розчинність як функцію параметра далекого порядку (η) та вплив об'ємних ефектів на величину цього параметра. Розглянуто наступні системи: Fe-Ni, Au-Cu, Pd-Au, Fe-Cr, Ti-Al, Cu-Zn, Ag-Zn, Fe-Al, Au-Ag, Fe-V, Pd-Pt, Ni-Mn, Ni-Fe, Cu-Au, Cu-Pd, Pd-Nb, Pd-Ag, а також трикомпонентні стопи. Показано, що шляхом введення домішок у стоп можна значною мірою змінити його фізико-механічні, електричні, магнетні й інші властивості.

Ключові слова: метали, стопи, атоми втілення, розчинність, упорядкування, об'ємноцентрована кубічна (ОЦК) структура, гранецентрована кубічна (ГЦК) структура, молекулярно-кінетична теорія.