



# Electrochemical and metallurgical characterization of $\text{ZrCr}_{1-x}\text{NiMo}_x\text{AB}_2$ metal hydride alloys



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## ABSTRACT

The effects of partial replacement of chromium by molybdenum was studied on the structure and electrochemical kinetic properties of  $\text{ZrCr}_{1-x}\text{NiMo}_x$  ( $x = 0.0, 0.3$  and  $0.6$ ) metal hydride alloys. The arc-melting prepared alloys were metallurgically characterized by X-ray diffraction and energy dispersive spectroscopy microanalysis, which showed  $\text{AB}_2$  (with hexagonal C14 structure) and  $\text{Zr}_x\text{Ni}_y$  ( $\text{Zr}_7\text{Ni}_{10}$ ,  $\text{Zr}_9\text{Ni}_{11}$ ) phases. After a partial substitution of chromium by molybdenum, secondary phases monotonically increase with the C14 unit cell volume indicating that most of molybdenum atoms locate in the B-site.

The alloys were electrochemically characterized using charge/discharge cycling, electrochemical impedance spectroscopy and rate capability experiments that allowed the determination of hydriding reaction kinetic parameters. The presence of molybdenum produces a positive effect for hydrogen diffusion in the alloy lattice, and  $\text{ZrCr}_{0.7}\text{NiMo}_{0.3}$  alloy depicts the better kinetics associated with a fast activation, lower charge transfer resistance and the best high rate discharge behavior. This fact would be related to a lower diffusion time constant and a bigger value of the product between exchange density current and surface active area. There is a trade-off in the amounts of secondary phase and Laves phases in order to improve the kinetic performance.

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## 1. Introduction

One of the most used technologies in hybrid electrical vehicles (HEVs) are nickel metal hydride (Ni/MH) batteries. Although having a disadvantage in its low specific energy, they are safe and stable with a useful price.  $\text{AB}_2$  metal hydride alloys were proposed as the candidates to substitute the present commercial  $\text{AB}_5$ -type alloys to increase the discharge capacity [1–3].  $\text{AB}_2$  alloys employed as the negative electrode in Ni/MH batteries are multi-element (like Zr and Ti for A atom and Cr, Ni, Mn and V for B atom), and multi-phase materials (integrated for Laves phases and secondary non-Laves phases) [1–6]. It was demonstrated that the

electrocatalytic performance of Zr-based alloys are based on the presence of  $\text{Zr}_8\text{Ni}_{21}$ ,  $\text{Zr}_7\text{Ni}_{10}$ ,  $\text{Zr}_9\text{Ni}_{11}$  and  $\text{ZrNi}$  as secondary phases [7–11]. These electrodes need several charge–discharge cycles to achieve the maximum capacity and also show bad high rate discharge (HRD) behaviors. In order to enhance the kinetic and thermodynamic properties of electrodes, a number of methods have been applied before, such as, partial substitution, different element incorporation in the alloy composition, surface chemical treatment and different phases and rare earths or nickel powder additions [12–16]. Diverse investigations have found that elements such as copper, iron and molybdenum enhanced the  $\text{AB}_2$  MH performance [17–21]. The addition of a small amount of molybdenum in the  $\text{AB}_2$  alloy system induces a positive effect, increasing hydrogen storage capacity, improving activation characteristics, leading a maximum discharge capacity, and increasing cyclic durability [22,23]. Moreover, molybdenum containing

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alloys, lowers the plateau pressure, changes the microstructures of the alloys and increases the surface porosity [24–27]. Probably, these facts induce a large effect on the electrochemical properties of alloy electrodes [25]. However, other studies revealed that molybdenum addition shortens the cycle life [28–30], decreases high-rate dischargeability behavior, increases self-discharge rate and the charge-transfer resistance at the surface of the alloy electrodes [23]. Since the results of AB<sub>2</sub> molybdenum containing alloys behavior seem to be inconsistent, our investigation was focused on structural and electrochemical kinetic studies of molybdenum content in a simple AB<sub>2</sub> metal hydride alloys.

## 2. Experimental

### 2.1. Synthesis of alloys

The alloys were prepared by arc melting with adequate proportions of the composition elements (purity better than 99.9%) inside a copper-cooled hearth under high purity argon (99.998%). The alloys were remelted for the purpose of homogenization. After then, they were mechanically pulverized them for the electrode formation.

For the electrochemical characterization, the electrodes were prepared by compacting a mixture of 100 mg of sample powders with equal amounts of teflonized carbon (Vulcan XC-72), inside a cylindrical device to a pressure of 250 MPa at room temperature, resulting a total electrode surface of 2 cm<sup>2</sup> (geometrical area) and a thickness around 1 mm. A nickel wire was used as current collector. Further details of electrode preparation can be revised in Petrov's work [31]. Four alloys were synthesized replacing chromium by molybdenum (ZrCr<sub>1-x</sub>NiMo<sub>x</sub>): AB<sub>2</sub>M0 (Mo 0% w/w), AB<sub>2</sub>M1 (Mo 13% w/w) and AB<sub>2</sub>M2 (Mo 25% w/w).

### 2.2. Structural and microstructural characterization of MH electrodes

The prepared electrodes were characterized by X-ray diffraction using a Rigaku ULTIMA IV, 285 mm radius, powder diffractometer operating in Bragg Brentano geometry. CuK<sub>α</sub> radiation ( $\lambda = 1.5418$  Å), monochromatized with a diffracted beam bent germanium crystal, was used to collect data over the 10–110° 2 $\theta$  range, in steps of 0.02°, using a scintillation detector. Fixed slits of 2/3° were used for data collection to prevent beam spillage outside the 2 cm long sample (along the beam-path) at low angles. The first step consisted of identifying the composition of the samples and the determination of the structures, which were similar in cell parameters and symmetry. After this, the structural models for the full pattern profile fitting were prepared, using the Rietveld method [32] by means of the EXPGUI-GSAS suite [33,34]. This methodology allowed extracting precise and relevant structural parameters and corresponding weight crystalline fraction in the case of multiphase systems.

**Table 1**

Atomic ratio corresponding to the different phases in AB<sub>2</sub> M0, AB<sub>2</sub> M1, AB<sub>2</sub> M2 alloys from energy dispersive spectroscopy studies (See Fig. 1).

	Zr	Cr	Ni	Mo
AB <sub>2</sub> M0 (I)	1	0.04	0.94	0
AB <sub>2</sub> M0 (II)	1	0.63	0.82	0
AB <sub>2</sub> M0 (III)	1	7.55	0.59	0
AB <sub>2</sub> M1 (I)	1	0.06	0.88	0.05
AB <sub>2</sub> M1 (II)	1	0.59	0.62	0.27
AB <sub>2</sub> M2 (I)	1	1.92	0.23	6.05
AB <sub>2</sub> M2 (II)	1	0.04	0.91	0.07

Before electrochemical testing of electrodes, the surface alloy microstructures were examined by means of a scanning electron microscope (SEM, JEOL JSM 5900) employing a 25 kV secondary electron imaging mode and energy dispersive spectroscopy (EDS) microanalysis.

### 2.3. Electrochemical characterization

The hydride forming electrodes were mounted as detailed elsewhere [31], pressing the mixture onto a nickel mesh at room temperature.

Electrochemical measurements were run in a three-compartment cell placing the working electrode (metal hydride electrode), counter electrode (nickel mesh) and reference electrode (Hg/HgO electrodes). In this work, potentials are referred to the Hg/HgO reference electrode and all the experiments carried out at room temperature. The electrolyte, 6 M KOH solution, was prepared from reagent grade KOH and Millipore-MilliQ<sup>®</sup> plus water. Before performing the electrochemical impedance spectrum (EIS) measurements, the electrodes were charge–discharge cycled at constant current for 40 cycles.

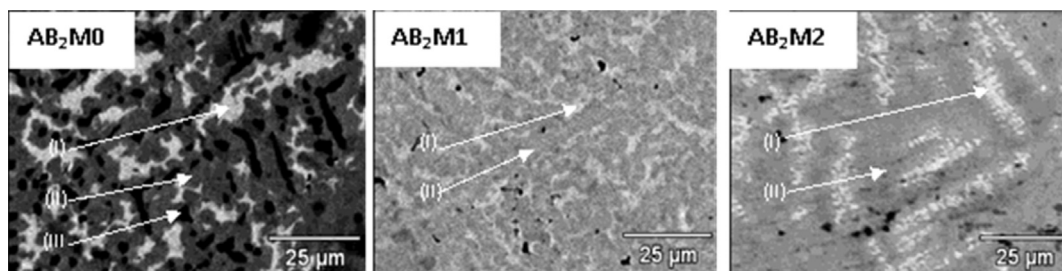
During charge–discharge experiments, constant density currents of –80 mA/g and 26 mA/g were used respectively, with a charge time of 5 h and a cut-off potential of –0.6 V, during discharge. After cycling the electrodes, they were discharged to a state of charge (SOC) of 70%, and left at open circuit potential ( $E_{ocp}$ ). The EIS spectra were recorded, at  $E_{ocp}$ , in the 50 kHz–1 mHz frequency range, with a 6 mV amplitude, ten points per decade. Zview program was employed in order to fit EIS experimental data.

High rate capability (HRD) experiments were performed at discharge rates in the 0.1C to 1C range. The currents were often related to the maximum discharge capacity of the electrode using the  $C_{rate}$ . The  $C_{rate}$  can be calculated using the following equation;

$$C_{rate} \left[ \frac{1}{h} \right] = \frac{I [mA/g]}{C_{max,dc} [mAh/g]} \quad (1)$$

where  $C_{max,dc}$  is the maximum discharge capacity.

All the electrochemical experiments were performed using a PGZ 301 Voltalab<sup>®</sup> potentiostat-galvanostat device.



**Fig. 1.** SEM back-scattered electron micrographs for studied alloys. I, II and III indicate the different phases reported in Table 1.

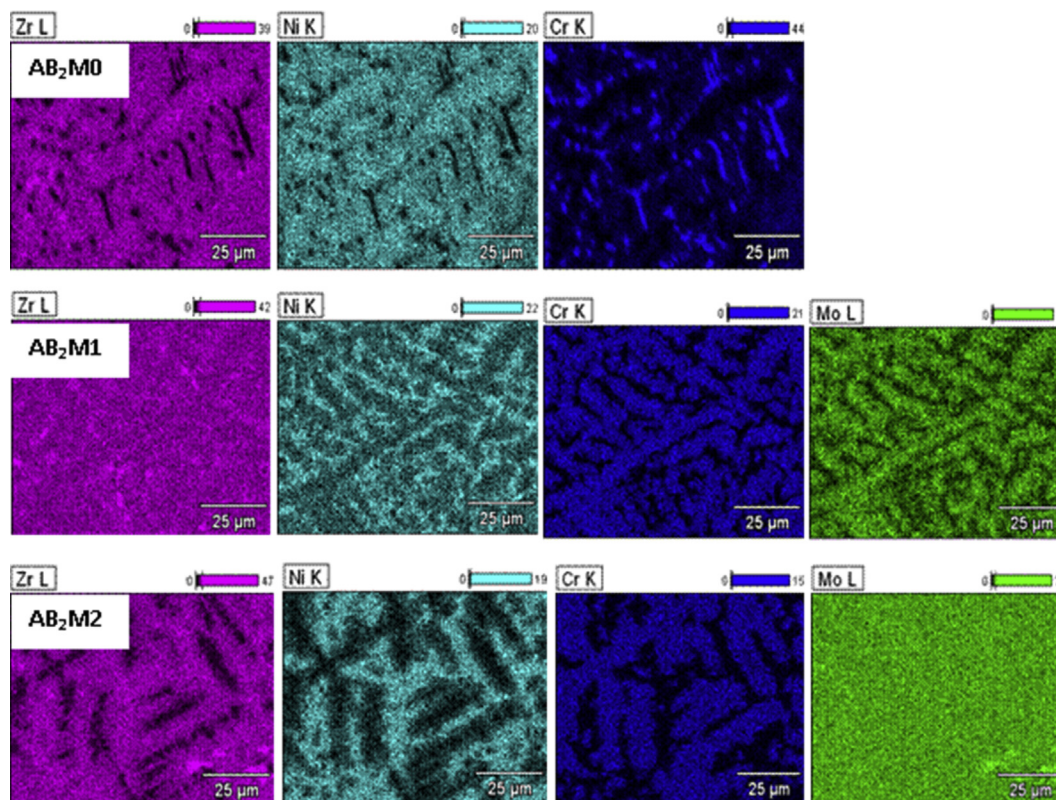


Fig. 2. EDS mapping studies for AB<sub>2</sub>M0, AB<sub>2</sub>M1 and AB<sub>2</sub>M2 alloys.

### 3. Results and discussion

#### 3.1. Metallurgical characterization

The microstructures of ZrCr<sub>1-x</sub>NiMo<sub>x</sub> with AB<sub>2</sub>M0 (Mo 0% w/w), AB<sub>2</sub>M1 (Mo 13% w/w) and AB<sub>2</sub>M2 (Mo 25% w/w) alloys were studied by SEM (back-scattered electrons, BSE) (Fig. 1). Samples were mounted and polished on epoxy blocks; Table 1 depicts the results of several EDS analysis performed on different sample regions, concluding that the stoichiometry for the three alloys studied was the expected one. The microstructure investigation presented in Fig. 1 shows a main matrix and one or two segregated phases (light gray (I), gray(II) and dark gray(III)). The alloys are mainly composed of AB<sub>2</sub> (with B/A around 2.0) and Zr<sub>x</sub>Ni<sub>y</sub> phases. There is one high-chromium phase found in AB<sub>2</sub>M0 alloy (phase III in Fig. 1). All phases are randomly distributed within the matrix. The analyzed mapping elements are presented in Fig. 2.

XRD patterns shown in Fig. 3, reflect the existence of the phases reported in Table 2. Almost all peaks can be fitted into a hexagonal C14 structure (MgZn<sub>2</sub> type, Space group P6<sub>3</sub>/mmc) and Zr<sub>x</sub>Ni<sub>y</sub> phases (can be Zr<sub>7</sub>Ni<sub>10</sub>, Zr<sub>9</sub>Ni<sub>11</sub>). The lattice constants, *a* and *c*, determined from the XRD patterns are listed in Table 2. As the amount of Mo increases, both *a* and *c* for Laves phases increase due to the larger Mo atomic radius [34–37]. This is proof that most molybdenum atoms locate in the B-site, because this element is smaller than zirconium, but larger than chromium (B-site element). If most of molybdenum atoms substitute zirconium in the A-site, the lattice constants will significantly be reduced. The unit cell volume of hexagonal structure (Space group P6<sub>3</sub>/mmc) also increases as molybdenum content raises. AB<sub>2</sub> M2 alloy presents insignificant amounts of Mo<sub>1-x</sub>M<sub>x</sub> alloy cubic phase with Im-3m space group, being M other metals. These outcomes are in

accordance to EDS results where molybdenum is seeing to be homogeneously distributed (see Fig. 2). Due to the very low crystalline contribution, this phase is not included in data reported in Table 2.

For AB<sub>2</sub> Zr/Ni based alloys, secondary non-Laves phases developed in addition to the main Laves phases, being Zr<sub>7</sub>Ni<sub>10</sub>, Zr<sub>9</sub>Ni<sub>11</sub>, the one observed here. It is worth noticing that kinetics and thermodynamic behavior negatively affected after removing the secondary phases. The electrocatalytic properties deteriorate due to the reduction of synergetic effects between the main storage and secondary non Laves phases [7,14,38–42]. The term “synergetic effect” employed by Nei et al. [43], is used to describe the discharge capacity enhancements or high-rate dischargeability (HRD)

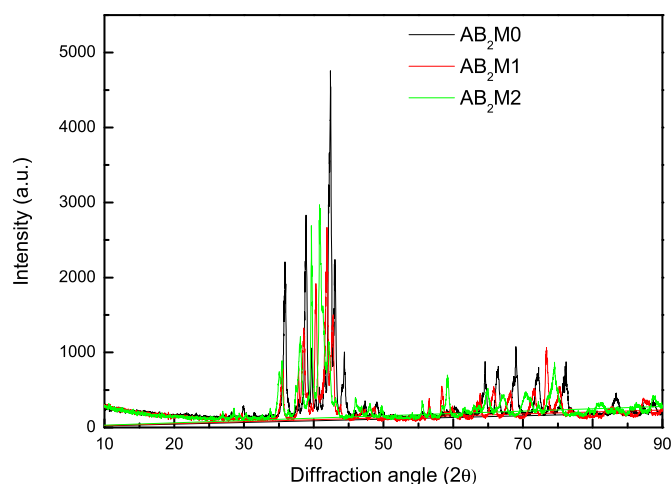
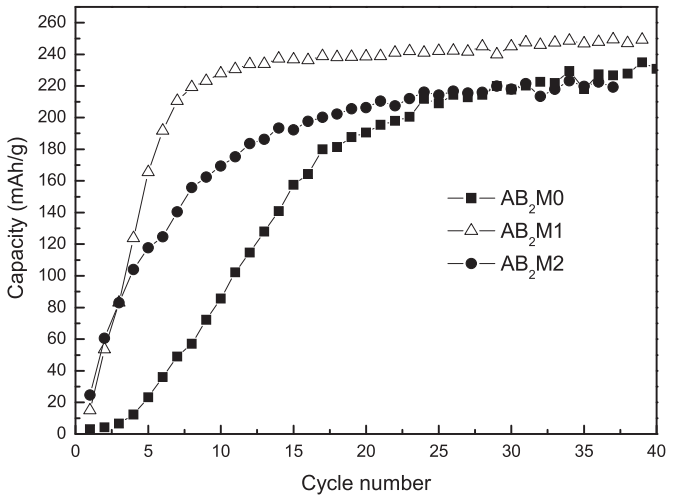


Fig. 3. X-ray diffraction patterns for AB<sub>2</sub>M0, AB<sub>2</sub>M1 and AB<sub>2</sub>M2 alloys.

**Table 2**  
-Results obtained from the Full Profile Pattern Refinement obtained from the Rietveld Method. Cell parameters, Space Group, Fraction Weight and statistical resume for samples AB<sub>2</sub> M0, AB<sub>2</sub> M1 and AB<sub>2</sub> M2.

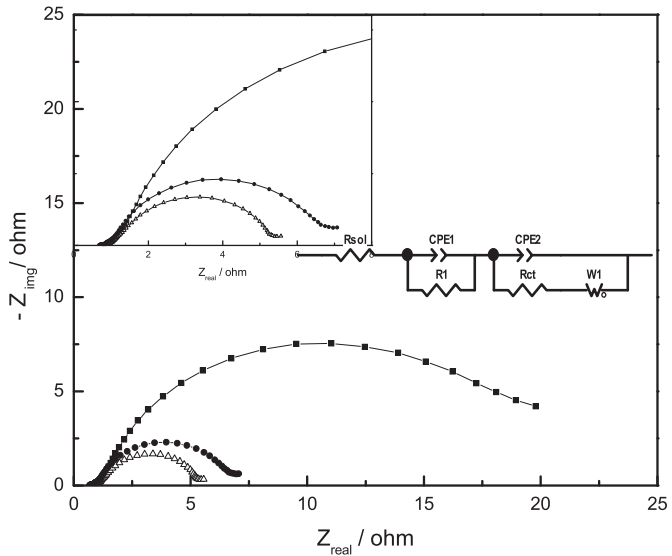
		AB <sub>2</sub> M0	AB <sub>2</sub> M1	AB <sub>2</sub> M2
Laves Phase	Space Group	AB <sub>2</sub> :P6 <sub>3</sub> /m m c	AB <sub>2</sub> :P6 <sub>3</sub> /m m c	AB <sub>2</sub> :P6 <sub>3</sub> /m m c
	a(Å)	5.0167	5.0579	5.1067
	b(Å)	5.0167	5.0579	5.1067
	c(Å)	8.2170	8.2708	8.3795
	V(Å <sup>3</sup> )	179.10	183.24	189.249
Zr <sub>x</sub> Ni <sub>y</sub> Phase	Weight (%)	94.5(5)	69.5(3)	35.5(3)
	Space Group	Ni <sub>11</sub> Zr <sub>9</sub> : I4/m	Ni <sub>10</sub> Zr <sub>7</sub> : Pbca	Ni <sub>11</sub> Zr <sub>9</sub> : I4/m
	a(Å)	9.8945	12.3523	9.8443
	b(Å)	9.8945	9.1985	9.8443
	c(Å)	6.6053	9.1916	6.6134
Statistical Parameters	V(Å <sup>3</sup> )	646.67	1044.37	640.913
	Weight (%)	5.5(5)	30.5(3)	64.5(3)
	wRp	0.2199	0.2801	0.2142
	Rp	0.1619	0.2052	1.1629
	R(F <sup>2</sup> )	0.3341	0.5869	0.3640
	Nobs	464	1051	462
	χ <sup>2</sup>	13.51	17.80	12.04

positively contributing to the overall performance of the AB<sub>2</sub> phase in the presence of Zr<sub>x</sub>Ni<sub>y</sub>. The occurrence of these phases offers additional catalytic sites for the gaseous phase hydrogen storage and electrochemical reactions [38–42]. Consequently, understanding these secondary phases behavior is crucial for future

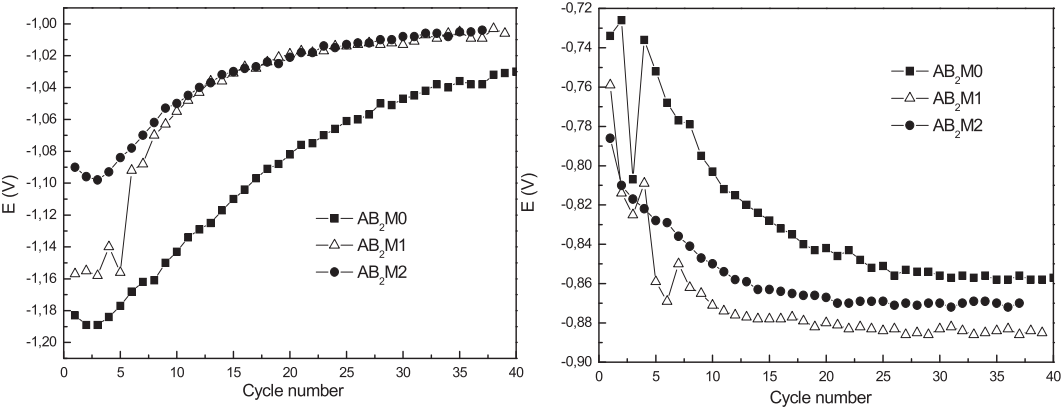


**Fig. 4.** Discharge capacities as a function of charge–discharge cycle number for AB<sub>2</sub>M0, AB<sub>2</sub>M1, and AB<sub>2</sub>M2 alloys at current density of 26 mA/g.

development of AB<sub>2</sub>MH alloys. It can be observed that partial replacement of chromium by molybdenum (in the studied amounts) promotes the segregation of Zr<sub>x</sub>Ni<sub>y</sub> phase.

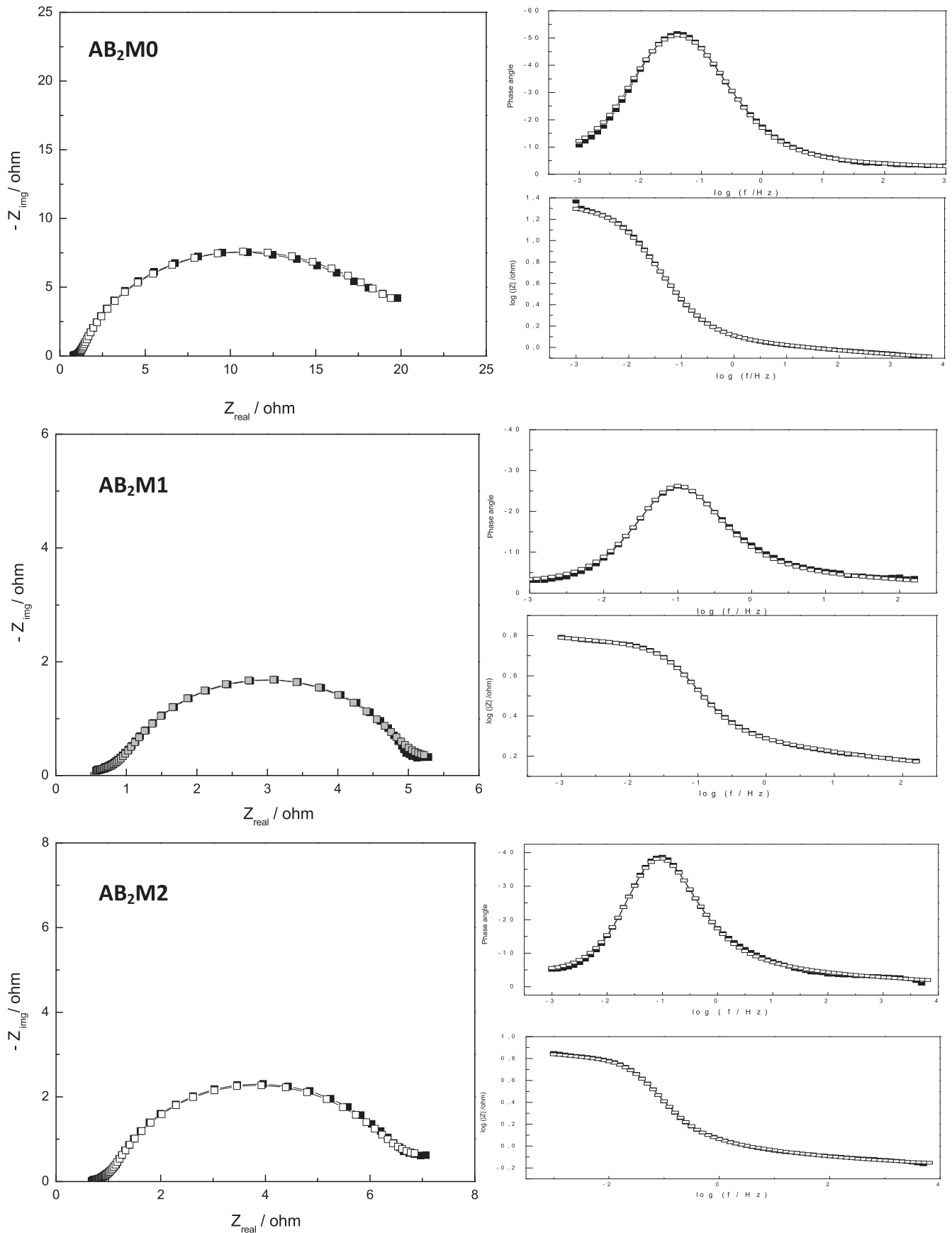


**Fig. 6.** Nyquist plot for 70% state of charge (SOC): AB<sub>2</sub>M0 (full squares), AB<sub>2</sub>M1 (open triangles), and AB<sub>2</sub>M2 (full circles) alloys.



**Fig. 5.** Charge ending potential (left) and half discharge potential (right) as a function of charge–discharge cycle number for AB<sub>2</sub>M0, AB<sub>2</sub>M1, and AB<sub>2</sub>M2 alloys.





**Fig. 7.** Experimental (open squares) and modeled (full squares) data in Nyquist and Bode (Module and Phase) plots for AB<sub>2</sub>M0, AB<sub>2</sub>M1 and AB<sub>2</sub>M2 alloys.

### 3.2. Electrochemical characterization

The discharge capacities of the alloys samples are plotted as a function of the number of charge–discharge cycles in Fig. 4. It is worthwhile that maximum capacity values for AB<sub>2</sub>M0, AB<sub>2</sub>M1 and AB<sub>2</sub>M2 are similar.

AB<sub>2</sub>M1 alloys required less number of cycles for reaching a stabilized full discharge capacity, leading to a faster activation. Many studies indicate that the number of activation cycles increases with the increase of the Zr/Ni ratio [9,40–43]. AB<sub>2</sub>M1 alloy has Zr<sub>7</sub>Ni<sub>10</sub> as secondary phases in contrast to AB<sub>2</sub>M0 and AB<sub>2</sub>M2 alloys which have Zr<sub>9</sub>Ni<sub>11</sub>, which is in accordance with these results.

The evolution of charge ending potential and half-discharge potential with the number of charge–discharge cycles is presented in Fig. 5. It can be observed that AB<sub>2</sub>M1 has a charging potential closer to the reversible value than that of the AB<sub>2</sub>M0 sample. Considering the half-discharge potential, it has also been found than AB<sub>2</sub>M1 rapidly approaches to the reversible potential. Hence, overpotential values decrease with growing the cycle number for all samples, except for the very initial sets. The decrease in the overpotential is more significant in AB<sub>2</sub>M1 alloy and this sample also depicts the lowest overpotential value.

Fig. 6 shows Nyquist plot and the electric equivalent circuit of AB<sub>2</sub> alloy electrodes with two depressed semicircles. The studied alloys display a distorted semicircle at high frequencies which is associated with different facts such the contact resistances between the current collector and the alloy, particle-to particle resistance, contact surfaces and oxide layer thickness [44–46], etc. It is worth noticing that, up to now, researches do not agree with the source assignment of this small semicircle.

The second capacitive response is associated to the interface capacity relaxation in parallel with the charge transfer resistance ( $R_{ct}$ ). As it can be observed, AB<sub>2</sub>M1 depicts the smallest semicircle diameter, indicating that this sample has the lowest  $R_{ct}$  value. As a result, it can be concluded that AB<sub>2</sub>M1 has the largest value for the product between exchange density current and surface active area ( $j_0 \cdot A_a$ ). Therefore, AB<sub>2</sub>M1 depicts the best electrocatalytic properties for the hydriding processes. Fig. 6 also shows the equivalent electric circuit for EIS data of metal hydride electrodes. It consists of at least four components: electrolyte resistance, two resistive components and a Warburg term.

Nyquist and Bode diagrams for experimental and fitting data are depicted in Fig. 7. From Warburg parameters' values diffusion specific time constants were calculated, the term  $W_T$  is defined as  $R^2/D$ , being  $R$  the particle radius and  $D$  the diffusion coefficient. The smallest diffusion time constant is for AB<sub>2</sub>M1, whereas the biggest Warburg resistant ( $W_R$ ) is obtained for AB<sub>2</sub>M0 (see Table 3). These results indicate that hydrogen diffusion occurs easier in AB<sub>2</sub>M1 than in AB<sub>2</sub>M0 samples. Moreover, the formation of secondary phases affects hydrogen diffusion paths from surface to metal bulk.

Fig. 8 presents high-rate discharge curves. For 1C rate discharge AB<sub>2</sub>M1 depicts 80% of its maximum capacity and AB<sub>2</sub>M2 55% of its maximum discharge capacity. However, molybdenum-non containing alloy (AB<sub>2</sub>M0) retained only 35% of it. The improvement in HRD can possibly be attributed to the presence of secondary phases, which enables the bulk hydrogen diffusion in the alloy. The AB<sub>2</sub>/Zr<sub>x</sub>Ni<sub>y</sub> can be related with the higher or smaller bulk diffusion constant. For analyzing hydrogen transfer rate in the alloy, and comparison of hydrogen diffusion specific time constant value with that resulted from EIS model, we are going to use analytical solutions derived from second Fick's law assuming a spherical shape for the particle alloy:

$$\frac{d(RC_H)}{dt} = D_H \frac{\partial^2(RC_H)}{\partial R^2} \quad (2)$$

where  $C_H$  is the hydrogen concentration in the alloy,  $t$  is time,  $D_H$  is an average hydrogen diffusion coefficient,  $R$  is the distance from the center of the sphere to the bulk of the material. Supposing a uniform initial hydrogen concentration in the bulk of the alloy and constant surface concentration for large times, Eq. (2) reduces to the hydrogen current intensity,  $I_H(t)$ , time dependent expression [47]:

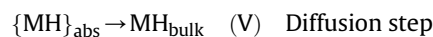
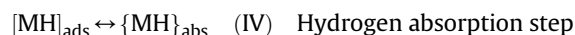
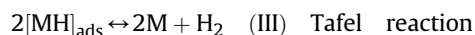
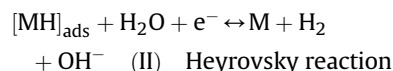
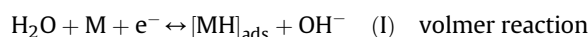
$$I_H(t) = F \frac{D_H \Delta C_H}{\delta R^2} - \frac{\pi^2 D_H}{R^2} C(t) \quad (3)$$

With  $\delta$  the width of the diffusion layer,  $F$  the Faraday's constant and  $C(t)$  the capacity of the alloy

$$C(t) = \int_0^t I_H(t) dt \quad (4)$$

From Eq. (3),  $R^2/D$  may be evaluated from the slope of the curves plotted in Fig. 8, where it is clear for AB<sub>2</sub>M0 alloy depicts two distinct slopes. Thus, in order to calculate diffusion time constant for long time experiments, additional tests were run in  $C_{rate}$  ranging from 0.05 to 0.3C. Table 4 shows these results which are clearly similar to those resulting from EIS modeling, being the AB<sub>2</sub>M1 diffusion time constant the lowest one of all.

In general, the main reaction steps during charging/discharging processes or hydrogen absorption/evolution reactions are:



Volmer step denotes the charge transfer reaction at the surface of the alloy particles. Thus, the electrochemical reaction of hydrogen absorption/evolution process is strongly dependent on the surface of the alloy particle. On the other hand, the structure characteristic of the metal hydrides determines the hydrogen diffusion rate in the bulk of the alloys [48]. Reaction (IV) represents the reversible transport of hydrogen from adsorption sites on the electrode surface to absorption sites in the near-surface region [49]. (V) step characterizes the diffusion of absorbed hydrogen from the nearby-surface region to metal bulk. This route denotes the gradual transfer of hydrogen atoms diffusing into the alloy bulk and

**Table 3**  
EIS parameters  $R_{ct}$ ,  $W_R$ ,  $W_T$  and ( $j_0 \times a$ ) for AB<sub>2</sub>M0, AB<sub>2</sub>M1 and AB<sub>2</sub>M2 alloys obtained from the equivalent electric circuit shown in the inset of Fig. 6.

	$R_{ct}(\Omega)$	$W_R(\Omega)$	$W_T(s)$	$j_0 \times a \text{ (Acm}^{-3}\text{)}$
AB <sub>2</sub> M0	17,5	23	2,5E+04	1,5E-03
AB <sub>2</sub> M1	3,4	1	8,0E+03	7,5E-03
AB <sub>2</sub> M2	4,6	1	1,0E+04	5,5E-03

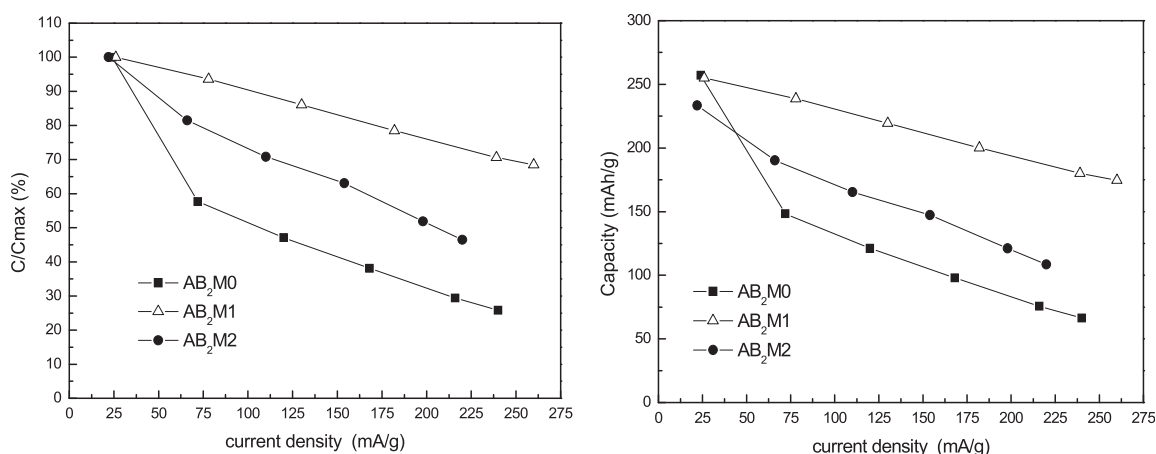


Fig. 8. High rate discharge (HRD) curves expressed as a percentage of maximum capacity and in mAh/g for AB<sub>2</sub>M0, AB<sub>2</sub>M1, and AB<sub>2</sub>M2 alloys.

occupying the interstitial sites in the crystal structure. After then, the transformation from metal–solution ( $\alpha$ ) phase to hydride ( $\beta$ ) phase occurs.

Thus, it can be concluded from experimental results that hydrogen diffusion is likely to be the rate-limiting step of the charging/discharging reaction in the AB<sub>2</sub> alloy.

#### 4. Conclusions

- The stoichiometry for AB<sub>2</sub> alloys experimentally found is similar to the theoretical composition.
- Metallurgical characterization evidences the presence of segregated Zr<sub>x</sub>Ni<sub>y</sub> type, as well as hexagonal C14 structures. The partial replacement of chromium by molybdenum promotes the segregation of Zr<sub>x</sub>Ni<sub>y</sub> phase.
- AB<sub>2</sub>M1-molybdenum containing alloy depicts the best kinetics performance as a result of a fast activation, lower  $R_{ct}$  (EIS studies) and the best HRD behavior. This enhancement is attributed to the higher diffusion coefficient and bigger ( $j_0 \cdot A_a$ ) parameter, improving the hydriding processes.
- The specific diffusion time constant for AB<sub>2</sub>M1 alloys is the smallest one. Besides, values calculated from HRD experiments are similar to those analyzed from equivalent electric circuit in EIS.
- The incorporation of molybdenum to the alloys has a helpful impact in hydrogen diffusion process within the alloy lattice.
- Electrochemical experiments demonstrate the catalytic effect of segregated phases on the electrochemical hydrogen absorption properties of AB<sub>2</sub> alloys.
- The large hydrogen diffusivity observed in AB<sub>2</sub>M1 is the consequence of the generation of an adequate path as a consequence of secondary phase's segregation in straight connection with AB<sub>2</sub> phase. Therefore, there is a trade-off in the amounts of

secondary phase and Laves phases in order to improve thermodynamic and kinetic performances.

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Table 4

Retaining percentage in  $C_{rate}$  range 0.05–0.3C and diffusion time constant, as  $R^2/D$ , for AB<sub>2</sub>M0, AB<sub>2</sub>M1 and AB<sub>2</sub>M2 alloys.

	AB <sub>2</sub> M0	AB <sub>2</sub> M1	AB <sub>2</sub> M2
$C_{rate}0.05$	100	100	100
$C_{rate}0.10$	93	99	95
$C_{rate}0.15$	88	99	90
$C_{rate}0.20$	84	99	87
$C_{rate}0.25$	78	98	81
$C_{rate}0.30$	73	97	77
$R^2/D$	3,8E+04	4,2E+03	3,5E+04

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