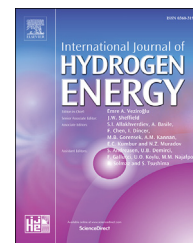




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# Effect of nickel on hydrogen permeation in ferritic/pearlitic low alloy steels

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## ABSTRACT

Nickel offers several beneficial effects as an alloying element to low alloy steels. However, it is, in the oil and gas industry, limited by part 2 of the ISO 15156 standard to a maximum of 1 wt% due to sulfide stress cracking resistance concerns.

Hydrogen uptake, diffusion, and trapping were investigated in research-grade ferritic/pearlitic low alloy steels with Ni contents of 0, 1, 2 and 3 wt% by the electrochemical permeation method as a function of temperature and hydrogen charging conditions.

Qualitatively, the effective diffusion coefficient,  $D_{eff}$ , decreased with increasing Ni content. The sub-surface lattice hydrogen concentration,  $C_o$ , decreased with increasing Ni content in all charging conditions while the trend between the sub-surface hydrogen concentration in lattice and reversible trap sites,  $C_{OR}$ , and Ni content varied with the charging conditions. Irreversible trapping, evaluated by consecutive charging transients, was not observed for any of the materials. Lastly, the possible influence of an increasing fraction of pearlite with increasing Ni content is discussed.

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## Introduction

Low alloy steels (LAS) are widely used in the oil and gas industry due to their excellent combination of mechanical and technological properties and cost [1]. Part 2 of the ISO 15156 standard [2] regulates the use of carbon steel (CS) and LAS in H<sub>2</sub>S-containing environments. The standard restricts the allowable nickel (Ni) content to maximum 1 wt%, due to controversial concerns regarding sulfide stress cracking (SSC) resistance [1,3]. Despite extensive investigations from the mid-1960s to late 1980s, the engineering community has yet to reach consensus as to whether the cap on Ni is scientifically

justified. ISO 15156 allows the use of steels that exceed the strength, hardness, and composition requirements if successfully qualified as per the procedures described in Annex B of the specification. In practice, however, the 1 wt% Ni limit excludes LAS families with superior mechanical and technological properties that contain above 2–3 wt% Ni, such as ASTM (American Society for Testing and Materials, West Conshohocken, PA) A508 Grade 4, 10GN2MF2 and UNS K32047, from sour service applications [4]. In this regard, Ni improves LAS hardenability, fatigue life and toughness, and lowers the ductile to brittle transition temperature with a moderate penalty on weldability [1]. Qualifying LAS with Ni contents

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above 1 wt% could benefit the development of sour reservoirs with severe temperature and pressure conditions [1]. A comprehensive overview of the effects of nickel on LAS performance can be consulted elsewhere [1].

Hydrogen embrittlement (HE) is a generic term referring to the embrittlement of a material caused by the presence of atomic or nascent hydrogen [5]. HE groups various environmentally assisted cracking mechanisms such as hydrogen stress cracking (HSC) and SSC [5]. HSC results from the combination of tensile stress and atomic hydrogen in the metal [6]. Hydrogen uptake, diffusion, and trapping have been shown to affect cracking resistance [7–11]. In this regard, SSC is considered a form of HSC in the presence of H<sub>2</sub>S [12]. Ni affects these properties, both directly as an element in solid solution, and indirectly due to its refining effect [13] on the microstructure. As part of a broader effort to quantify Ni's role on the overall HE susceptibility of LAS, this work focuses on the effect of Ni in solid solution in the body center cubic (bcc) ferrite phase on hydrogen permeation.

LAS are primarily used in the quenched and tempered (QT) condition. The effect of Ni on hydrogen permeation in such steels has been investigated previously by, e.g., Wilde et al. [14] and Yoshino and Minozaki [15]. In both cases, the effective diffusion coefficient,  $D_{eff}$ , decreased with increasing Ni content.  $D_{eff}$  is the apparent diffusion coefficient found from fitting a hydrogen permeation transient to Fick's second law as described in section Analysis of the results. However, no conclusions can be drawn about the effect of Ni present in solid solution in the ferrite phase from the results on QT steels.

Beck et al. [16] investigated hydrogen permeation in pure Fe-Ni alloys at temperatures from 27 to 90 °C. The authors assumed purely ferritic microstructures up to 8 wt% Ni, which was later questioned by others [17,18].  $D_{eff}$  decreased and the hydrogen content increased with increasing Ni content. Dresler and Froberg [17] performed permeation experiments at 25 °C on Fe-Ni alloys, which, according to the authors, had ferritic microstructures up to 5 at% (~5 wt%) Ni.  $D_{eff}$  decreased slightly with increasing Ni content. However, hydrogen concentrations were not estimated. Likewise, consecutive permeation transients to evaluate whether trapping was reversible or irreversible were not performed in either of the investigations. Moreover, all CS and LAS contain interstitial carbon, which may influence hydrogen permeation alone [19] and in combination with Ni in solid solution.

Quantifying the effects of Ni as a solid solution element in the ferrite phase on hydrogen uptake, diffusion, and trapping is essential to gain a fundamental understanding of the HE performance of nickel-containing LAS. This work describes the electrochemical hydrogen permeation testing of ferritic/pearlitic research-grade LAS whose chemistries differed only by their Ni contents.

## Experimental

### Materials

Research-grade LAS plates that varied only in their Ni content were fabricated for the project. The nominal Ni

concentrations were 0, 1, 2 and 3 wt%. The actual chemical compositions are shown in Table 1. The alloys were vacuum induction melted in an alumina crucible at 1600 °C. They were fully "killed" (i.e., deoxidized) and fine grain treated by aluminum addition. Calcium was added for inclusion shape control.

Impurity levels were analyzed by glow discharge mass spectroscopy. Calculated X- (Bruscato) and J- (Watanabe) factors [20], presented in Table 1, reflect the ultra-low level of impurity elements present in the samples. As suggested by Kohno et al. [21], the materials can be considered immune to temper embrittlement for the purpose of this work.

### Heat treatment

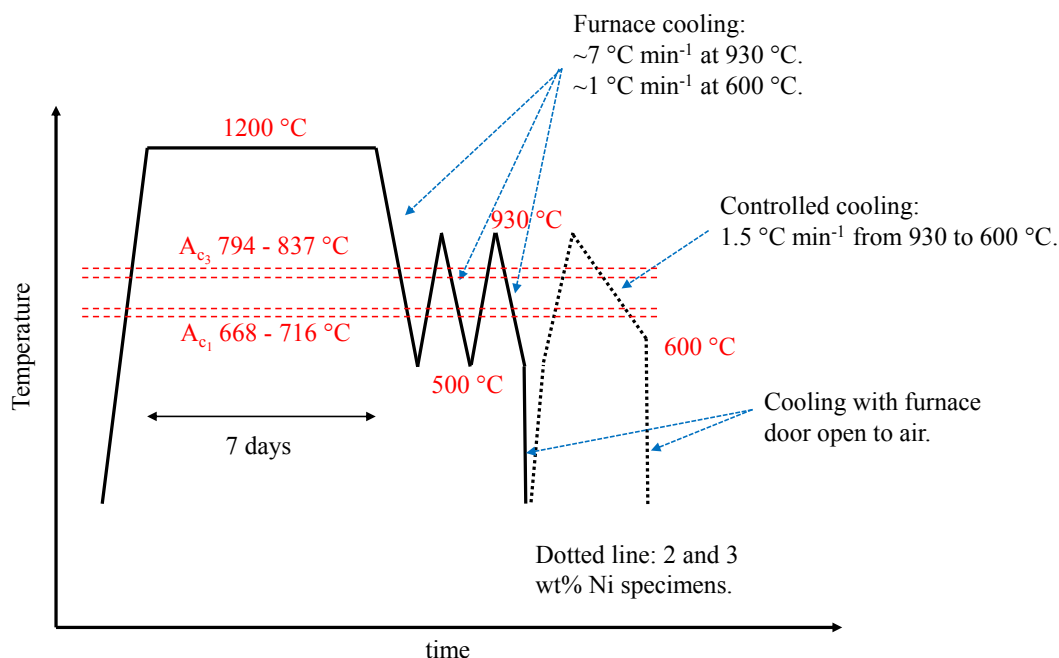
Materials were delivered as plates with a thickness of approximately 1 cm after casting and hot-rolling. The rolling operation resulted in plates with banded microstructures in the as-received condition. All samples were subsequently homogenized by prolonged stepwise heat treatments to eliminate the observed banding. Samples were first heated to 1200 °C for 7 days. Furnace cooling to 500 °C (i.e., below the lower transformation temperature,  $A_{c1}$ ) and reheating to 930 °C (i.e., above the upper transformation temperature,  $A_{c3}$ ) twice to refine the microstructures, followed the homogenization step. Coupons were encapsulated in quartz glass, providing a vacuum atmosphere to minimize oxidation and decarburization of the samples during homogenization. Because Ni has a strong grain refinement effect [13], a third re-austenitization step, followed by controlled cooling down to 600 °C, at a rate slower than that obtained by furnace cooling, was applied to the 2 and 3 wt% Ni samples to obtain comparable microstructures for all Ni contents. The full heat-treatment process is shown in Fig. 1.

### Characterization of microstructures

The degree of banding in the as-received materials was documented in a 2 wt% Ni spare sample. The as-received material was heated to 930 °C followed by furnace cooling to 500 °C, before cooling with the furnace door open to air until reaching room temperature. Micrographs were taken normal to the rolling direction by scanning electron microscopy (SEM) using secondary electron imaging. The removal of banding by the homogenization treatment was confirmed by microstructure investigations in the SEM normal to the rolling direction in samples of all Ni contents. Likewise, the microstructures of the tested samples, one of each Ni content, were documented in the SEM after permeation testing.

**Table 1 – Chemical compositions of research-grade LAS. Analyzed by manufacturer with methods specified in ASTM E1019-11/CO [22] and ASTM E1479-99/CTP3101/ICP [23].**

Alloy	Ni [wt%]	Mn [wt%]	Si [wt%]	C [wt%]	X-factor	J-factor
0 wt% Ni	0.00	1.30	0.24	0.17	0.47	6.99
1 wt% Ni	0.97	1.30	0.24	0.17	0.48	7.05
2 wt% Ni	1.85	1.28	0.23	0.17	0.43	6.56
3 wt% Ni	2.86	1.30	0.24	0.17	0.59	9.09



**Fig. 1 – Heat treatment temperature-time procedure. All samples were heat treated according to the solid temperature-time line. Samples with 2 and 3 wt% Ni were also heat-treated as to the dashed line. Lower,  $A_{c1}$ , and upper,  $A_{c3}$ , austenite transformation temperatures upon heating estimated by equations from Andrews [24] for 0 and 3 wt% Ni materials are included in the figure. The lowest values of both  $A_{c1}$  and  $A_{c3}$ , 794 and 668 °C, respectively, are for the 3 wt% Ni material.**

The characterization of grain size, interlamellar pearlite spacing, and pearlite fraction was done on a different set of samples, one of each Ni content, that was heat treated identically to the permeation samples, Fig. 1. These samples were from the same material batch as the samples for permeation experiments but prepared as rectangular rods of 1 by 1.2 by 10.2 cm.

The grain sizes were evaluated by the Heyn lineal intercept procedure and the planimetric method, both described in ASTM E112 [25]. For the line-intercept procedures, between 190 and 270 intercepts were calculated for each Ni content. In the planimetric approach, one rectangular field of microstructure was evaluated for each Ni content with an area of 0.11 mm<sup>2</sup>. Pearlite colonies were counted as grains. The number of grains in the areas ranged from 300 to 550. The ASTM grain size no. of the materials was found by the average of the two methods.

The fractions of pearlite in the materials were evaluated by the area fractions in single fields of 0.11 mm<sup>2</sup>. For non-oriented microstructures, the average area fraction of a phase from plane sections in the structure equals the volume fraction of that phase [26].

The pearlite interlamellar spacing was estimated as recommended by Underwood [26], through determining the mean random spacing to estimate the mean true spacing. Unbiased field selection was performed to 15 pearlite colonies in each material, a number from which Voort et al. [27] obtained adequate accuracy. Circular test grids with diameters of 2.55 μm were used to measure the mean random spacing values. The mean true spacing was, then, approximated by the half value of mean random spacing [26,27].

All microstructures were revealed by electropolishing. Before electropolishing, the samples were ground to US grit 600 (European P1200) and polished with diamond suspensions of 3 and 1 μm particle sizes. Electropolishing was performed in a commercially available electropolishing machine at 40 V for 30 s. The electrolyte was a commercial product based on perchloric acid, ethanol, and 2-Butoxyethanol designed for steels.

### Hydrogen permeation experiments

#### Sample preparation

Samples for the permeation experiments were made using wire electrical discharge machining (EDM). All samples had diameters of 29 mm, with an exposed area of 4.91 cm<sup>2</sup>. Sample thickness varied and is described in section [Electrochemical hydrogen permeation experiments](#). Sample thicknesses were measured at five evenly distributed locations around the circumference to give average values. The cathodic side of the samples was ground to US grit 600 (European P1200) as recommended in ASTM G148-97 [28] and rinsed in ethanol.

The need for using a Pd coating on the anodic side of the samples to ensure efficient oxidation of hydrogen in permeation experiments has been demonstrated previously by Manolatos et al. [29] and was, therefore, applied in this work. The Pd solution was made following the process proposed by Bruzzoni [30]. In short, an aqueous solution of Na<sub>2</sub> [Pd(NO<sub>2</sub>)<sub>4</sub>] was prepared by dissolving 0.18 g PdCl<sub>2</sub> in five drops of HCl (37%), approximately 0.25 ml. The solution was, then, brought to a boil, before adding 0.40 g NaNO<sub>2</sub> and 150 ml distilled water and boil for another 10 min. Subsequently, 0.20 g NaCl were

added and the solution taken off the heating plate. Finally, distilled water was added to give a total volume of 200 ml.

Before Pd deposition, samples were ground with SiC paper to U.S. grit 600 (European P1200), sonicated in ethanol and dried. Pickling was performed in volumetric 50/50 mix of 37% HCl and deionized (DI) water for the 20 s before rinsing in DI water and drying with hot air immediately before the Pd coating process. Pd electrodeposition was performed in the same cells (Fig. 2) as the hydrogen permeation experiments, using only one compartment. The deposition procedure was adapted from the methodologies first proposed by Bruzzoni et al. [31] and later Castaño Rivera et al. [32]. The deposition compartment was filled with 0.1 M NaOH and cathodic polarization was initiated at  $-100 \mu\text{A cm}^{-2}$ . Nitrogen gas was purged through the deposition compartment at a flow rate of  $25 \text{ ml min}^{-1}$ . After 5 min, 7 ml of the  $\text{Na}_2 [\text{Pd}(\text{NO}_2)_4]$  solution was added to the cell to give a concentration of 0.35 mM. The nitrogen flow was reduced to  $12 \text{ ml min}^{-1}$  30 s after adding the Pd-solution. The cathodic current density was fixed at  $-100 \mu\text{A cm}^{-2}$  during the total Pd-deposition time of 60 min.

Energy dispersive spectroscopy (EDS) was used to verify the presence of Pd in one of the coated samples. A low acceleration voltage of 5 kV was used to restrict the analysis to the coating and reduce the impact of the underlying substrate. Two dummy samples of 0 wt% Ni and two dummy samples of 3 wt% Ni were weighted before and after the deposition process using a scale with a precision of 0.1 mg to provide estimates of the Pd coating thickness. Cross-sectional images of the coating were captured in the SEM. To obtain a cross-section of the coating, a 50  $\mu\text{m}$  thick pure iron sheet (without grinding) was coated in the same way as the permeation samples and subsequently torn into small pieces.

Since the Pd-deposition process introduced hydrogen to the steel membranes, they were degassed overnight before the permeation experiments. Degassing was performed following Castaño Rivera et al. [32] at  $120^\circ\text{C}$  for 16 h, which was  $10^\circ\text{C}$  above the temperature used by the authors. According to a local equilibrium model [33], i.e., hydrogen in

traps in equilibrium with hydrogen at interstitial lattice sites, the degassing process should remove hydrogen from traps with energies up to  $60\text{--}70 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ . Castaño Rivera et al. [32] claimed to detect traps with energies up to  $75 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$  after degassing at  $110^\circ\text{C}$ . In this regard, traps with energies above  $60 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$  are usually considered irreversible [34]. Since the time scale of the permeation discharge transients in this work was of hours, traps with energies somewhere in the range of  $50\text{--}60 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$  and above should be detected as irreversible, due to slow H leakage from these traps at ambient temperatures, as discussed by Turnbull [35].

#### Electrochemical hydrogen permeation experiments

Electrochemical hydrogen permeation experiments, as first described by Devanathan and Stachurski [36], were conducted in the custom-made glass cell assembly shown in Fig. 2. The experiments were performed in accordance with the ISO 17081 [37] and ASTM G148 [28] recommendations. The sample was clamped between two individual semi-cells and was sealed by rubber O-rings. The white polymer ring seen in Fig. 2 ensured reproducible mounting of the samples for all experiments and included the pin for the electrical connection to the sample. Each compartment had a volume of about  $100 \text{ cm}^3$ , hence satisfying the ASTM G148 recommendation of a solution-volume-to-surface-area-ratio greater than  $20 \text{ ml cm}^{-2}$  [28]. The electrolyte temperature was controlled using water circulation through the outer walls of the glass cells. Thermocouples were installed inside the anodic and cathodic cell compartments to monitor the actual temperatures. Platinum foils with total surface areas of about  $3.4 \text{ cm}^2$  were used as counter electrodes (CE). Luggin capillaries with reference electrodes were inserted into the ports on both compartments seen in Fig. 2. The Luggin capillaries were filled with the same electrolyte as the cell compartments in which they were located. The reference electrodes were placed above the cell compartments and kept at room temperature. The type of reference electrode used varied, depending on the composition of the electrolyte. In 0.1 M NaOH the reference

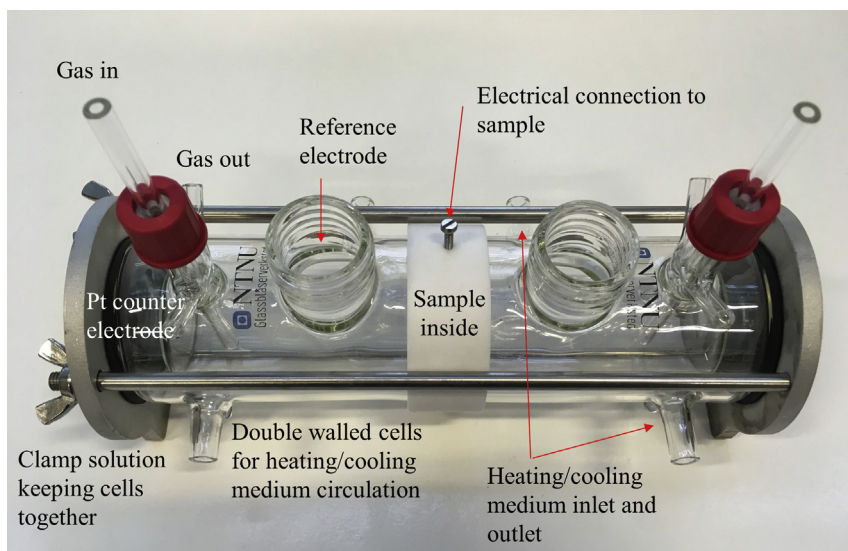


Fig. 2 – Image of custom-made glass cell assembly for electrochemical hydrogen permeation experiments.

was the mercury-mercurous electrode (MME) ( $\text{Hg}/\text{Hg}_2\text{SO}_4/\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  in saturated  $\text{K}_2\text{SO}_4$  solution) with potentials +0.41 V vs. the saturated Calomel electrode (SCE) and +0.65 V vs. the standard hydrogen electrode (SHE) at 25 °C [38]. In chloride containing electrolytes, the reference electrode was silver-silver chloride ( $\text{Ag}/\text{AgCl}$ ) ( $\text{Ag}/\text{AgCl}/\text{Cl}^-$  in saturated KCl solution) with potentials –0.04 V vs. SCE and +0.20 V vs. SHE at 25 °C [38].

All hydrogen permeation experiments were performed with a 0.1 M NaOH electrolyte in the anodic compartment. The anodic compartment was, in all cases, continuously purged with nitrogen gas and the sample always polarized to +300 mV<sub>SCE</sub>, i.e., above the reversible hydrogen oxidation potential. The duration of hydrogen discharge before and between hydrogen charging transients varied depending on temperature and sample thickness, but were always sufficient to ensure stable background currents before charging transients. Two potentiostats with floating grounds controlled either potential or current as explained for each experiment. Experimental procedures were identical for all Ni contents under each experimental condition, (i) to (iii) described in this section.

Three types of permeation experiments were performed, and are described in i) to iii) below:

(i) *0.1 M NaOH in the cathodic compartment*: (pH = 12.2 for the aerated solution). Samples of all Ni contents were tested at 15, 45 and 70 ± 0.1 °C. For each Ni content, the same sample was used in all three temperatures, starting at 15 and ending at 70 °C. Three charge-discharge transients were performed at each temperature. At 15 °C, the consecutive transients were used to evaluate reversible and irreversible trapping as described in ISO 17081 [37]. At higher temperatures, the consecutive transients were used to test the repeatability and average the results. The initial step consisted in filling the electrolyte in both compartments and stabilize both sides at +300 mV<sub>SCE</sub>. The Pd-coated anodic side stabilized at background current densities of around 0.1, 1 and 4  $\mu\text{A cm}^{-2}$  at 15, 45 and 70 °C, respectively. Nitrogen was purged through the compartments both before and during the experiments to avoid oxygen contamination. The cathodic charging current density was 500  $\mu\text{A cm}^{-2}$ . The cathodic side was polarized to +300 mV<sub>SCE</sub> during hydrogen discharge between the transients. Sample thicknesses were about 1.9 mm. The goal of these experiments was to evaluate hydrogen uptake, diffusion, and trapping as a function of Ni content at different temperatures. Specifically, evaluating  $D_{\text{eff}}$  at three different temperatures allowed quantitative estimations of the number and strength of reversible traps in the materials as described in section [Analysis of the results](#).

(ii) *Aerated 3.5 wt% NaCl in the cathodic compartment*: (pH = 5.4). Samples with 0 and 2 wt% Ni were tested at 15 ± 0.1 °C. These experiments started by stabilizing the anodic side at +300 mV<sub>SCE</sub> with no electrolyte in the cathodic compartment. Nitrogen gas was purged through the cathodic compartment to minimize oxidation of the steel surface. When the background current was stable on the anodic side, the 3.5 wt% NaCl electrolyte, pre-cooled to 15 °C, was introduced into the cathodic compartment, and hydrogen charging started immediately at a potential of –1050 mV<sub>Ag/AgCl</sub>.

Nitrogen flow through the cathodic compartment was stopped at this point. Potentiostatic charging was used since the electrolyte was not deaerated. When the hydrogen permeation transient was complete, the setup was disassembled and the sample stored in a desiccator overnight. Then, the cathodic side of the sample was re-ground using SiC paper to U.S. grit 600 (P1200) and the permeation experiment repeated. Sample thicknesses were about 1.1 mm with a negligible material loss from re-grinding the cathodic sides between the transients. The objective of these experiments was to evaluate hydrogen uptake and diffusion in a different electrolyte than the conventional 0.1 M NaOH solution, tested using an identical cathodic sample surface for both transients to better evaluate reversible vs. irreversible trapping.

(iii) *Hydrogen recombination poison in the cathodic compartment*: The electrolyte in the cathodic compartment was 5 wt% NaCl + 0.5 wt% acetic acid to which thiosulfate ( $\text{S}_2\text{O}_3^{2-}$ ) was added to a concentration of 10<sup>–3</sup> M. The pH of the solution was 2.6 when aerated. The tests were performed at 15 ± 0.1 °C using 0 and 2 wt% Ni samples. Acidic thiosulfate solutions are known as alternatives to testing with H<sub>2</sub>S gas [39,40] as H<sub>2</sub>S gas forms locally at the steel surface [39]. A thiosulfate concentration of 10<sup>–3</sup> M added to a 5% NaCl + 0.5% acetic acid solution has been found to give the highest amount of absorbed hydrogen in LAS samples at the open circuit potential (OCP) [40]. Herein, experiments started by stabilizing the anodic side at +300 mV<sub>SCE</sub> without electrolyte in the cathodic compartment. Nitrogen gas was purged through the cathodic compartment to minimize oxidation of the steel surface. When the background current was stable on the anodic side, a 5 wt% NaCl electrolyte, pre-cooled to 15 °C, and free from acetic acid and thiosulfate, was introduced into the cathodic compartment. Deaeration of the cathodic compartment with nitrogen continued for 15 min. After 15 min, 96% acetic acid was injected into the cathodic compartment by syringes through a septum, followed by a thiosulfate mix (2.2 wt% Na<sub>2</sub>S<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> in distilled water). The NaCl solution was deaerated before adding the thiosulfate to prevent the oxidation of thiosulfate with oxygen [39]. The setup seen in Fig. 2 was modified slightly before these experiments by placing the CE inside a glass tube with a glass sinter bottom. Separating the CE via a porous membrane, allowed ion exchange while preventing oxygen production in the cell as a result of the reaction at the CE during the cathodic polarization of the sample. Acetic acid and thiosulfate should not be mixed in their concentrated forms since thiosulfate produces elemental sulfur in acids [39]. After the injection of thiosulfate, hydrogen charging was immediately commenced galvanostatically at –150  $\mu\text{A cm}^{-2}$ . Thiosulfate was used to increase hydrogen absorption during cathodic polarization as done by others [41], and not to investigate the behavior at OCP in an electrolyte simulating exposure to H<sub>2</sub>S. The gas outlet of the cathodic cell was forced through a sodium hydroxide solution (caustic trap) to neutralize any accompanying H<sub>2</sub>S. When the hydrogen permeation transient was complete, the setup was disassembled. The sample was stored in a desiccator overnight. Then, it was re-ground on the cathodic side and the permeation experiment repeated. Sample thicknesses were about 1.1 mm with a negligible material loss from re-grinding the

cathodic sides between the transients. The objective of these experiments was to evaluate hydrogen uptake and diffusion with higher hydrogen concentrations in the materials.

Multiple transients were conducted at each test condition, but only one set of experiments was performed per nickel content.

The test matrix was designed to investigate bulk material properties, i.e., the influence of surface processes should be minimized. The significance of surface processes as a rate-determining step increases with decreasing sample thickness [28], and diffusion experiments with samples thinner than approximately 1 mm have shown progressively decreasing diffusion coefficients with decreasing sample thicknesses [42]. Materials with faster diffusion require larger thicknesses [37], and since testing with 0.1 M NaOH in the cathodic compartment was performed up to 70 °C, it was decided to use thicker samples at the expense of the recommended 10:1 radius-to-thickness ratio in ISO 17081 [37]. The same consideration was made previously by Turnbull and Carroll [43] to ensure that the transients reflected hydrogen transport through the volume of the material and not surface controlled processes.

The reason for not selecting the extremes of Ni content when performing permeation experiments in aerated 3.5 wt% NaCl and electrolytes containing a hydrogen recombination poison was that the 2 wt% Ni samples had a microstructure closer to that of 0 wt% Ni than the 3 wt% Ni samples, as seen in section [Materials characterization](#).

#### Analysis of the results

The sample sub-surface hydrogen concentration at lattice sites,  $C_0$  in mol m<sup>-3</sup>, which, as stated by Turnbull [44], is a direct reflection of the severity of the environment, was calculated using Equation (1) [37].

$$J_{ss} = \frac{I_{ss}}{FA} = \frac{D_1 C_0}{L} \quad (1)$$

$I_{ss}$  is the measured steady-state permeation current in Amperes and  $J_{ss}$  is the corresponding steady-state hydrogen flux in mol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>, both considered independent of trapping [9].  $A$  is the exposed sample area in m<sup>2</sup> and  $L$  is the sample thickness in meters.  $F$  is Faraday's constant, 96485 C mol<sup>-1</sup>.  $D_1$  is the ideal lattice diffusion coefficient in m<sup>2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> and can be calculated using Equation (2) [44].

$$D_1 = D_0 \exp\left(\frac{-E_1}{RT}\right) \quad (2)$$

Where  $D_0$  is the frequency factor in m<sup>2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>,  $E_1$  is the activation energy for jumps between interstitial lattice sites in J mol<sup>-1</sup>,  $R$  is the gas constant in J mol<sup>-1</sup> K<sup>-1</sup> and  $T$  is the temperature in Kelvin [44].  $D_1$  has been considered to be the same as for pure annealed iron, independent of metallurgical treatment and alloying, as long as the steel has a bcc structure [43]. At temperatures from -40 to 80 °C, the best representation of bcc iron is found from  $D_0$  and  $E_1$  values of 7.23 10<sup>-8</sup> m<sup>2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> and 5.69 kJ mol<sup>-1</sup>, respectively [43].

If irreversible trapping is insignificant and the trap occupancy low (discussed in section [Experimental challenges and considerations](#)) so that the permeation transient is described by Fick's second law, the sub-surface hydrogen concentration

in lattice and reversible trap sites,  $C_{OR}$  in mol m<sup>-3</sup>, can be approximated by the rearrangement of Equation (3) [28,44].

$$J_{ss} = \frac{D_{eff} C_{OR}}{L} \quad (3)$$

$D_{eff}$  is the effective diffusion coefficient in m<sup>2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>. Three methods to determine  $D_{eff}$  are described in ISO 17081 [37], and two of those have been used in this work. The  $t_{lag}$  method defines  $D_{eff}$  from the time ( $t_{lag}$  in seconds) it takes to reach  $J(t)$   $J_{ss}^{-1} = 0.63$ , and is calculated from Equation (4).

$$D_{eff} = \frac{L^2}{6 t_{lag}} \quad (4)$$

The  $t_b$  method defines  $D_{eff}$  from the time it takes for hydrogen to be detected on the anodic side after commencing hydrogen charging on the cathodic side. The breakthrough time,  $t_b$  in seconds, is determined by extrapolating the linear portion of the rising permeation transient to zero permeation flux, and  $D_{eff}$  is calculated using Equation (5).

$$D_{eff} = \frac{L^2}{15.3 t_b} \quad (5)$$

Trap density,  $N_r$  in sites m<sup>-3</sup>, and trap strength,  $E_b$  in J mol<sup>-1</sup>, in a material can be estimated analytically by Equation (6) as proposed by Oriani [45]. However, there are several assumptions in this model. Namely, there must be only reversible trapping, the trap occupancy must be low and the system must be in the domain of local equilibrium [32,45,46]. Additionally, the model assumes only one type of trapping site and the traps are considered saturable, i.e., each trap can hold one H atom [32,45]. Under these conditions,  $D_{eff}$  is given by

$$D_{eff} = \frac{D_1}{1 + \frac{N_r}{N_l} \exp\left(\frac{-E_b}{RT}\right)} \quad (6)$$

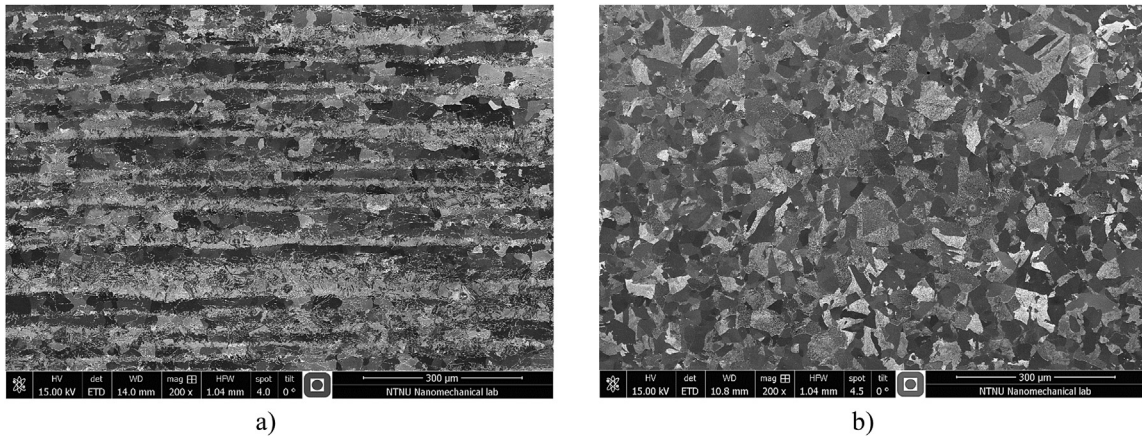
where  $N_l$  is the density of lattice sites in sites m<sup>-3</sup>. Hydrogen atoms primarily occupy the tetrahedral interstitial sites in bcc iron at ambient temperatures (<100 °C [44]) with the corresponding  $N_l$  value of 5.2 10<sup>23</sup> sites cm<sup>-3</sup> [9]. Equation (6) can be re-arranged to give Equation (7). If  $D_{eff}$  is measured at several temperatures, a plot of the left hand side value of Equation (7) against the inverse of the temperature should fit to a straight line with a slope  $a$  and an intercept  $b$ , from which the values of  $N_r$  and  $E_b$  are found [32].

$$\ln\left(\frac{D_1}{D_{eff}} - 1\right) = -\frac{E_b}{RT} + \ln\left(\frac{N_r}{N_l}\right) \quad (7)$$

## Results

### Materials characterization

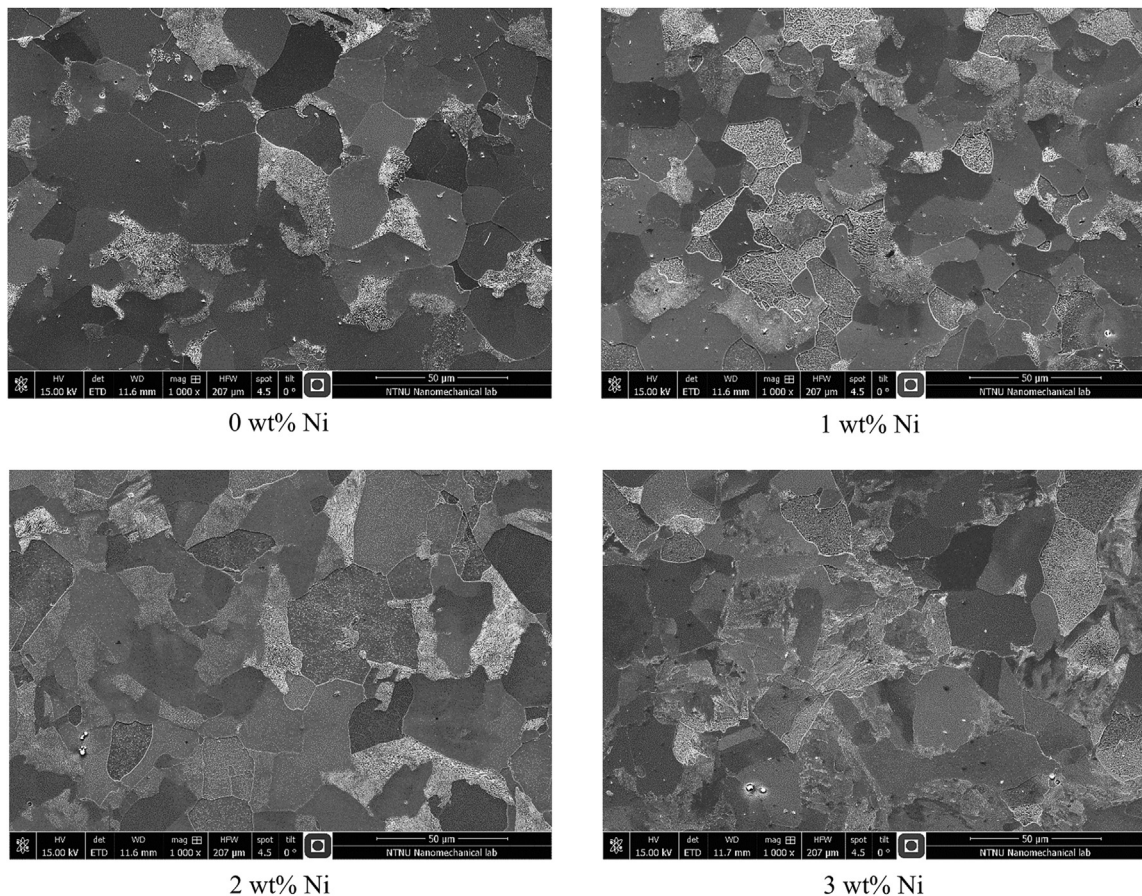
The received plate materials had severe banding along the rolling direction. Fig. 3a shows the banding microstructure in an as-received 2 wt% Ni sample heated to 930 °C followed by furnace cooling to 500 °C. The homogenization heat treatment successfully removed the banding, as confirmed by micrographs both normal and parallel to the plate rolling direction in samples of all Ni contents. Fig. 3b illustrates the removal of banding in a 2 wt% Ni sample after heat treatment as described in Fig. 1.



**Fig. 3** – Micrograph normal to the rolling direction in a) an as-received 2 wt% Ni sample heated to 930 °C followed by furnace cooling to 500 °C and b) a 2 wt% Ni sample heat treated as described in Fig. 1.

Fig. 4 shows SEM micrographs of the permeation samples tested with 0.1 M NaOH in the cathodic compartment. All the materials had ferritic/pearlitic microstructures. The 3 wt% Ni sample had some acicular micro-constituents. In the 2 wt% Ni samples, acicular features could only be seen in a few locations.

Table 2 gives the ASTM grain size no. of the materials. The effect of Ni in refining the microstructure is seen in the difference in grain size from 0 to 1 wt% Ni, as they were heat treated following identical procedures. In contrast, samples with 2 and 3 wt% Ni were given an additional heat treatment, as described in Fig. 1. Consequently, the grain size of the 2 wt%



**Fig. 4** – SEM micrographs of the permeation samples, 0 to 3 wt% Ni, tested with 0.1 M NaOH in the cathodic compartment, at 1000X magnification.

**Table 2 – ASTM grain size no. for the LAS with different Ni contents.**

Alloy	ASTM grain size no.
0 wt% Ni	8.4
1 wt% Ni	9.3
2 wt% Ni	8.8
3 wt% Ni	9.1

Ni samples fell in between the grain sizes of the 0 and 1 wt% Ni samples. The acicular and disordered microstructure in the 3 wt% Ni material reduced the reliability of quantified grain size, pearlite content and interlamellar pearlite spacing in this material.

Fig. 5 shows the pearlite fraction in the different LAS. The pearlite fraction increased from 20% to 30%, i.e., a 1.5X increase, when the Ni content changed from 0 to 3 wt%.

Fig. 6 shows the mean true interlamellar pearlite spacing of the materials. As seen in Fig. 6, the interlamellar spacing decreased in the following order: 0 wt% Ni, 2 wt% Ni, 1 wt% Ni and 3 wt% Ni.

#### Pd deposition

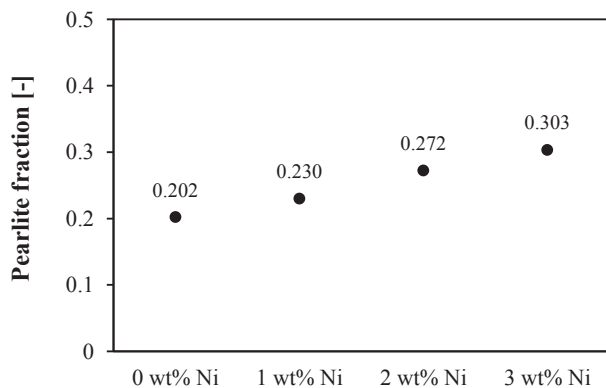
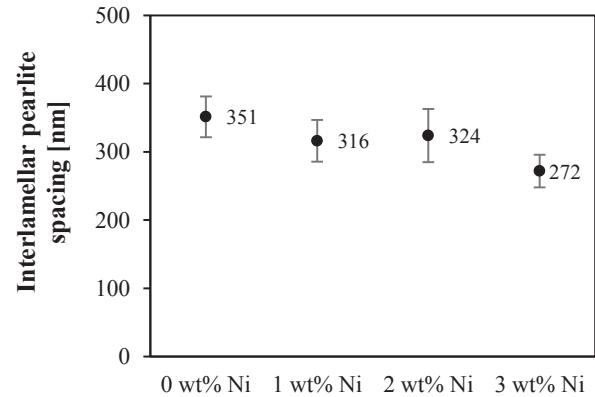
Four samples were weighted after Pd electrodeposition and the average gain was 0.25 mg (the scale had a precision of 0.1 mg). Using the density of bulk Pd of  $12.0 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$  [47], and considering the coated area, 0.25 mg corresponded to coating thicknesses of roughly 42 nm.

The Pd coating was visible to the naked eye, and EDS confirmed the presence of Pd. A surface view of a Pd-coated sample, and a cross-section of the coating obtained after tearing the 50  $\mu\text{m}$  thick pure iron sheet, are shown in Fig. 7a) and b), respectively. From a cross-sectional image with higher magnification, the coating thickness was estimated to be around 200 nm. Possible reasons for the discrepancy between the theoretically estimated thickness of 42 nm and the observed 200 nm can be coating porosity, inhomogeneous Pd coverage or artifacts caused by the tearing of the iron sheet.

#### Hydrogen permeation experiments

##### 0.1 M NaOH in the cathodic compartment

Fig. 8 shows the effect of Ni on the hydrogen permeation transients at 15 °C. Fig. 8 shows the second, out of three,

**Fig. 5 – Pearlite fraction in the LAS with different Ni contents.****Fig. 6 – Mean true interlamellar spacing for the LAS with different Ni contents. The error bars indicate the 95% confidence intervals for the mean values.**

consecutive permeation transients for each material to facilitate data visualization. Nevertheless, all permeation transients gave comparable results. The breakthrough time,  $t_b$ , increased with increasing Ni content. The permeation current density,  $i$ , decreased with increasing Ni content, except that the value for the 2 wt% Ni sample increased to roughly the same as that of the 1 wt% Ni sample after 5000 s.

The effect of temperature on hydrogen permeation is illustrated in Fig. 9. In Fig. 9, the second permeation transients recorded on the 3 wt% Ni samples were plotted for 15, 45 and 70 °C.  $t_b$  decreased and  $i$  increased with increasing temperature.

A challenge, seen in both Figs. 8 and 9, was that  $i$  did not stabilize at clear steady-state values. When using the  $t_{lag}$  method, the calculated  $D_{eff}$  values strongly depend on how the steady-state permeation current densities,  $i_{ss}$ , were selected. To circumvent such experimental limitations,  $D_{eff}$  values were determined by the  $t_b$  method as it is insensitive to  $i_{ss}$ . In the calculation of  $C_{OR}$  and  $C_0$ ,  $i_{ss}$  values were selected 2000, 800 and 500 s after starting hydrogen charging on the cathodic side at 15, 45 and 70 °C, respectively. These times were the same for all materials when charging in 0.1 M NaOH.

With  $i_{ss}$  determined as described above and  $D_{eff}$  determined by the  $t_b$  method,  $C_{OR}$  and  $C_0$  were obtained from all transients at all tested temperatures according to Equations (1) and (3). Fig. 10 shows  $D_{eff}$  as a function of Ni content and temperature.  $D_{eff}$  decreased with increasing Ni content at all temperatures, and the variations between the consecutive transients (seen by the error bars, which are hidden by the markers in most cases) were smaller than the variations between Ni contents.

Fig. 11 shows  $C_{OR}$  as a function of Ni content and temperature. As seen in Fig. 11,  $C_{OR}$  was independent of Ni content when charging hydrogen galvanostatically in 0.1 M NaOH. Average  $C_{OR}$  values between all Ni contents increased from 0.014 to 0.018–0.036 ppm (wt) when the temperature increased from 15 to 45–70 °C under the same charging current density.

Fig. 12 shows the thickness-normalized steady-state hydrogen permeation fluxes,  $J_{ss} L$ , as a function of Ni content and temperature.  $J_{ss} L$  decreased with increasing Ni content at all temperatures, except for 1 and 2 wt% Ni samples at 45 °C.  $J_{ss} L$  increased with increasing temperature for all Ni contents.



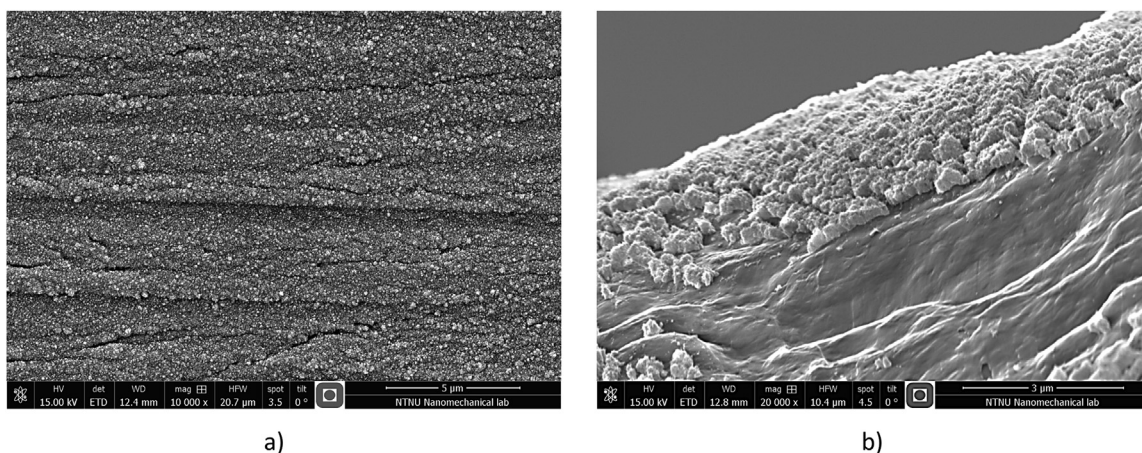


Fig. 7 – SEM images of the Pd coating used on the anodic side of the samples, a) seen top down on a permeation sample and b) seen cross-sectional after tearing a coated 50  $\mu\text{m}$  thick pure iron sheet.

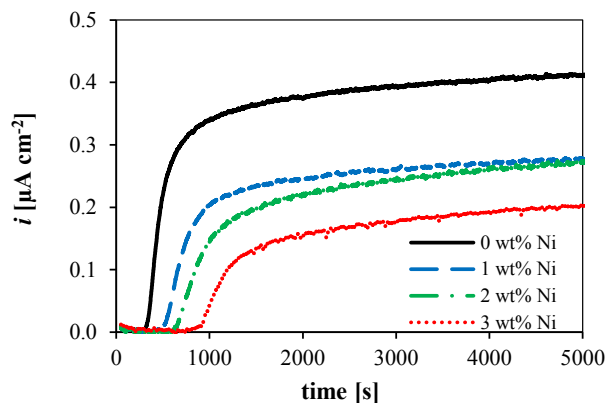


Fig. 8 – Second permeation transients (out of three consecutive), for all Ni contents, when charging in 0.1 M NaOH at 15  $^{\circ}\text{C}$ . The largest difference in sample thickness between two samples was 0.02 mm [1% of total sample thickness], hence normalized axes are not used.

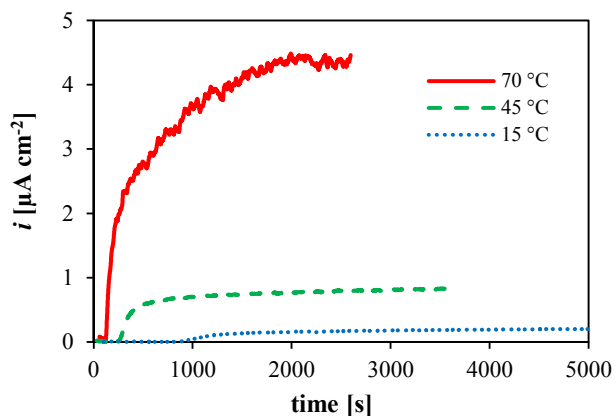


Fig. 9 – Second permeation transients for 3 wt% Ni sample when charging in 0.1 M NaOH at 15, 45 and 70  $^{\circ}\text{C}$ .

Fig. 13 shows  $C_0$  as a function of Ni content and temperature.  $C_0$  increased with increasing temperature for all Ni contents. At each temperature,  $C_0$  decreased with increasing Ni content in the same manner as  $J_{ss}$ .

Three consecutive permeation transients for each material were performed at 15  $^{\circ}\text{C}$  to evaluate irreversible trapping. Fig. 14 shows the permeation transients for the 3 wt% Ni sample at 15  $^{\circ}\text{C}$  plotted as steady-state normalized permeation flux ( $J$ ) vs. the logarithm of normalized time. The time is normalized to the sample thickness ( $L$ ) and to the Fe bcc lattice diffusion coefficient ( $D_i$ ), Equation (2). Ideal Fe bcc lattice diffusion, calculated from the solution of Fick's second law given in ISO 17081 [37], is plotted for comparison. There was a short time shift between the first and the second, and between the second and third transients. The time shift was seen for all the materials except in the 0 wt% Ni case where all the transients overlapped. However, the time shifts were smaller than

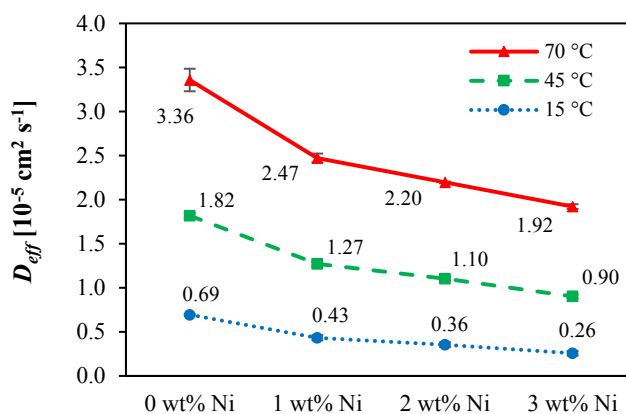
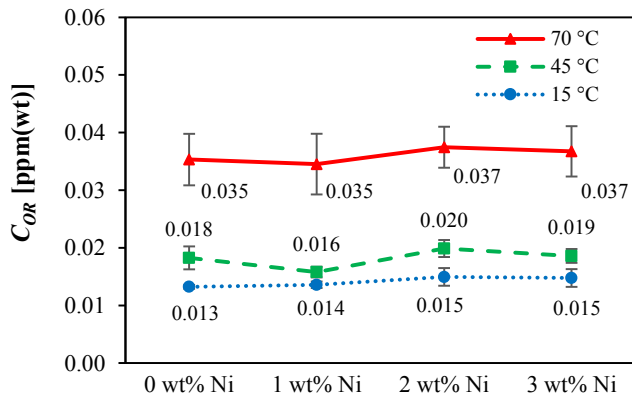
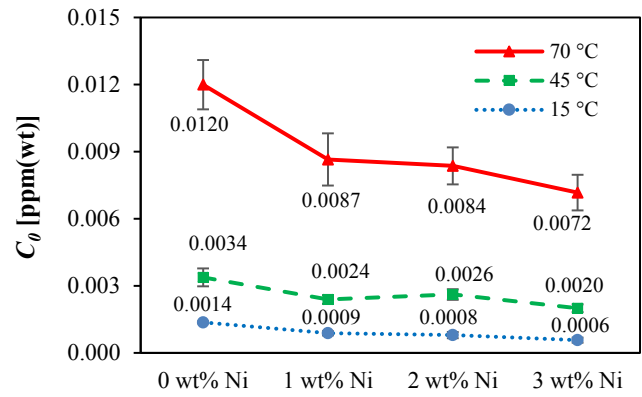


Fig. 10 –  $D_{\text{eff}}$  calculated by the  $t_0$  method for samples when charging in 0.1 M NaOH at 15, 45 and 70  $^{\circ}\text{C}$ . The markers represent the average of three consecutive permeation transients. Error bars show the standard deviations, which are smaller than the markers in most cases. Lines added to aid visualization.



**Fig. 11** –  $C_{OR}$  for samples when charging in 0.1 M NaOH at 15, 45 and 70 °C. The markers represent the average of three consecutive permeation transients. Error bars show the standard deviations. Lines added to aid visualization.



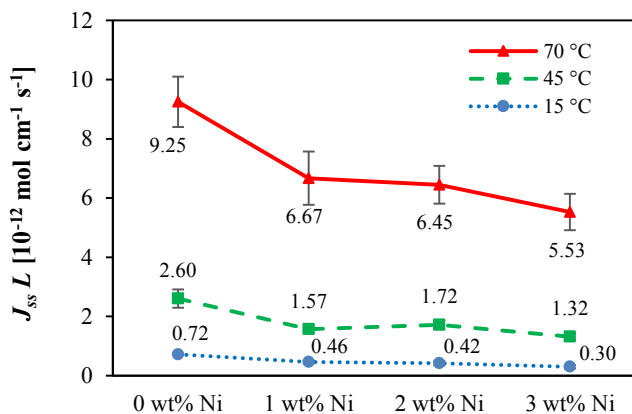
**Fig. 13** –  $C_0$  for samples when charging in 0.1 M NaOH at 15, 45 and 70 °C. The markers represent the average of three consecutive permeation transients. Error bars show the standard deviations, which are smaller than the markers in some cases. Lines added to aid visualization.

what would be expected if resulting from irreversible trapping as discussed in section [Effect of Ni on hydrogen permeation](#).

Evaluating the dependence of  $D_{eff}(t_b)$  with temperature, as described in section [Analysis of the results](#), allowed the number and strength of reversible traps in the materials to be estimated. The linear fit of  $D_{eff}$  with temperature according to Equation (7) was excellent, with coefficients of determination ( $r^2$ ) [48] above 0.999 in all cases. Table 3 shows  $N_r$  and  $E_b$  values as a function of Ni content in the LAS.  $E_b$  values are expressed as negative values as commonly done [44].  $|E_b|$  increased, while  $N_r$  decreased with increasing Ni content.

#### Aerated 3.5 wt% NaCl in the cathodic compartment

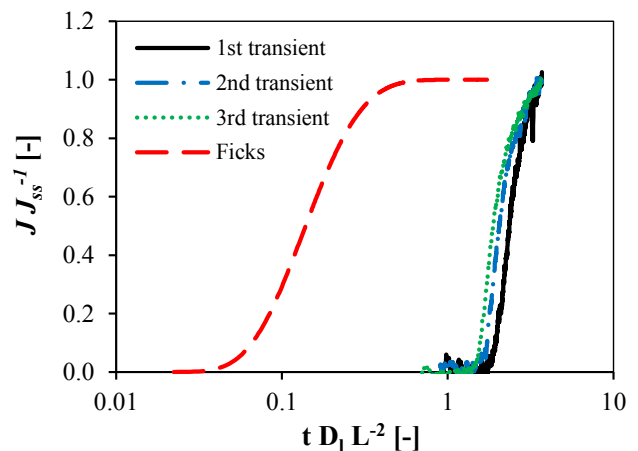
Fig. 15 shows the permeation transients for 0 and 2 wt% Ni samples at 15 °C when charging in aerated 3.5 wt% NaCl.  $t_b$  was shorter for 0 wt% Ni than for 2 wt% Ni.  $i_{ss}$  was about 3 times larger for the 0 wt% Ni sample than for the 2 wt% Ni sample. As seen in Fig. 15, the two permeation transients for 0 wt% Ni were identical. The two permeation transients for



**Fig. 12** –  $J_{ss} L$  for samples when charging in 0.1 M NaOH at 15, 45 and 70 °C. The markers represent the average of three consecutive permeation transients. Error bars show the standard deviations, which are smaller than the markers in some cases. Lines added to aid visualization.

2 wt% Ni stabilized at slightly different  $i_{ss}$ , but when plotted as steady-state normalized permeation flux vs. the logarithm of normalized time they were identical, without any time shift between the transients.

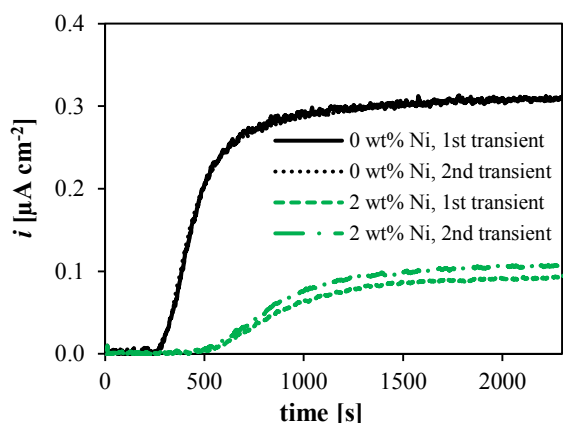
When hydrogen charging was done in aerated 3.5 wt% NaCl, the transients had well-defined  $i_{ss}$  values, allowing the use of the  $t_{lag}$  method to determine  $D_{eff}$ . Table 4 shows  $D_{eff}$  values calculated from both  $t_{lag}$  and  $t_b$  methods, together with  $J_{ss} L$ ,  $C_0$  and  $C_{OR}$  values. For both calculation approaches,  $D_{eff}$



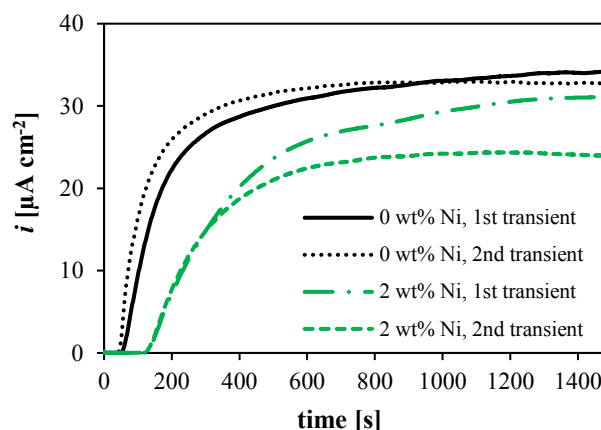
**Fig. 14** – Permeation transients for 3 wt% Ni sample at 15 °C plotted as steady-state normalized permeation flux vs. the logarithm of normalized time. Ideal Fe bcc lattice diffusion ("Ficks") is plotted for comparison.

**Table 3** – Estimated values of  $E_b$  and  $N_r$  of the LAS.

Alloy	$E_b$ [ $\text{kJ mol}^{-1}$ ]	$N_r$ [ $\text{sites cm}^{-3}$ ]
0 wt% Ni	-22.5	$3.84 \cdot 10^{20}$
1 wt% Ni	-23.7	$3.78 \cdot 10^{20}$
2 wt% Ni	-24.6	$3.27 \cdot 10^{20}$
3 wt% Ni	-27.1	$1.58 \cdot 10^{20}$



**Fig. 15** – Permeation transients for 0 and 2 wt% Ni samples when charging in aerated 3.5 wt% NaCl at 15 °C. The curves for the 1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> transients on the 0 wt% Ni sample overlap and cannot be distinguished. Sample thickness for 0 and 2 wt% Ni samples differed only by 0.02 mm [ $< 2\%$  of total sample thickness], hence normalized axes are not used. Time zero is when a cathodic current was supplied from the potentiostat.



**Fig. 16** – Permeation transients for 0 and 2 wt% Ni samples when charging in the electrolyte containing a hydrogen recombination poison at 15 °C. Note the 100X increase in  $i$ -scale compared to Fig. 15. Sample thickness for 0 and 2 wt% Ni samples differed only by 0.02 mm [ $< 2\%$  of total sample thickness], hence normalized axes are not used. Time zero is when a cathodic current was supplied from the potentiostat.

was about twice as large for the 0 wt% Ni material as for the 2 wt% Ni sample.  $C_{OR}$ , whether calculated with  $D_{eff}$  from  $t_{lag}$  or  $t_b$  methods, was about 1.6 times larger for the 0 wt% Ni sample than for the 2 wt% Ni sample.

#### Hydrogen recombination poison in the cathodic compartment

Fig. 16 shows the permeation transients performed at 15 °C when charging in the electrolyte containing a hydrogen recombination poison.  $t_b$  was shorter for 0 wt% Ni than for 2 wt% Ni.  $i_{ss}$  was higher for the 0 wt% Ni sample than for the 2 wt% Ni sample, but the transients on the 2 wt% Ni sample showed a large variation of  $6.8 \mu\text{A cm}^{-2}$ . Dark surface films formed on the hydrogen charging sides of the samples whose extent varied from test to test. Slightly changing surface conditions yielded the consecutive permeation transients slightly different, but there was no significant time shift between them.

When charging in the electrolyte containing a hydrogen recombination poison, the transients obtained well-defined  $i_{ss}$  values within a reasonable time and  $D_{eff}$  was calculated by both the  $t_{lag}$  and the  $t_b$  method. Table 5 shows  $D_{eff}$  values calculated by both methods, together with  $J_{ss} L$ ,  $C_0$  and  $C_{OR}$  values. For both calculation methods,  $D_{eff}$  was more than twice as large for the 0 wt% Ni sample than for the 2 wt% Ni

sample. Likewise,  $C_{OR}$ , whether calculated with  $D_{eff}$  from  $t_{lag}$  or  $t_b$  methods, was about twice as large for the 2 wt% Ni sample than for the 0 wt% Ni sample.

## Discussion

### Materials characterization

As explained by Samuels [49], banding can be described as "the preferential grouping of ferrite and pearlite in alternate bands aligned in the rolling direction", and is a consequence of an inhomogeneous distribution of alloying elements. The received plate materials had severe banding as seen in Fig. 3, which was successfully removed by the homogenization heat treatment. It was considered important to remove the banding since it may have a direct effect on hydrogen diffusion [50] and steels containing Ni are prone to banding [49].

### Effects of Ni on phase equilibria

The refining effects of Ni on the microstructure of LAS, as seen in Fig. 4, are well known [13]. Ni does not form secondary phases and remains in solid solution in the ferrite phase up to about 7 wt% [1,13]. Because Ni is an austenite stabilizing

**Table 4** – Data resulting from hydrogen permeation transients on 0 and 2 wt% Ni samples when charging in aerated 3.5 wt% NaCl at 15 °C.

	$D_{eff}(t_{lag})$ [cm <sup>2</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> ]	$D_{eff}(t_b)$ [cm <sup>2</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> ]	$i_{ss}$ [μA cm <sup>-2</sup> ]	$C_{OR}(t_{lag})$ [ppm (wt)]	$C_{OR}(t_b)$ [ppm (wt)]	$J_{ss} L$ [mol cm <sup>-1</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> ]	$C_0$ [ppm (wt)]
0 wt% Ni, 1 <sup>st</sup> transient	$4.50 \cdot 10^{-6}$	$2.74 \cdot 10^{-6}$	$2.99 \cdot 10^{-1}$	$9.94 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$1.63 \cdot 10^{-2}$	$3.50 \cdot 10^{-13}$	$6.65 \cdot 10^{-4}$
0 wt% Ni, 2 <sup>nd</sup> transient	$4.45 \cdot 10^{-6}$	$2.80 \cdot 10^{-6}$	$3.01 \cdot 10^{-1}$	$1.01 \cdot 10^{-2}$	$1.60 \cdot 10^{-2}$	$3.51 \cdot 10^{-13}$	$6.66 \cdot 10^{-4}$
2 wt% Ni, 1 <sup>st</sup> transient	$2.20 \cdot 10^{-6}$	$1.49 \cdot 10^{-6}$	$9.29 \cdot 10^{-2}$	$6.23 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$9.29 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$1.07 \cdot 10^{-13}$	$2.04 \cdot 10^{-4}$
2 wt% Ni, 2 <sup>nd</sup> transient	$2.28 \cdot 10^{-6}$	$1.55 \cdot 10^{-6}$	$1.06 \cdot 10^{-1}$	$6.81 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$1.01 \cdot 10^{-2}$	$1.22 \cdot 10^{-13}$	$2.31 \cdot 10^{-4}$

**Table 5 – Data resulting from hydrogen permeation transients on 0 and 2 wt% Ni samples when charging in the electrolyte containing a hydrogen recombination poison at 15 °C.**

	$D_{eff}(t_{lag})$ [cm <sup>2</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> ]	$D_{eff}(t_b)$ [cm <sup>2</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> ]	$i_{ss}$ [μA cm <sup>-2</sup> ]	$C_{OR}(t_{lag})$ [ppm (wt)]	$C_{OR}(t_b)$ [ppm (wt)]	$J_{ss} L$ [mol cm <sup>-1</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> ]	$C_0$ [ppm (wt)]
0 wt% Ni, 1 <sup>st</sup> transient	1.03 10 <sup>-5</sup>	1.41 10 <sup>-5</sup>	35.23	0.50	0.37	4.05 10 <sup>-11</sup>	7.69 10 <sup>-2</sup>
0 wt% Ni, 2 <sup>nd</sup> transient	1.56 10 <sup>-5</sup>	1.73 10 <sup>-5</sup>	32.80	0.31	0.28	3.75 10 <sup>-11</sup>	7.11 10 <sup>-2</sup>
2 wt% Ni, 1 <sup>st</sup> transient	5.14 10 <sup>-6</sup>	6.08 10 <sup>-6</sup>	31.84	0.91	0.77	3.66 10 <sup>-11</sup>	6.94 10 <sup>-2</sup>
2 wt% Ni, 2 <sup>nd</sup> transient	6.51 10 <sup>-6</sup>	6.11 10 <sup>-6</sup>	24.30	0.54	0.58	2.78 10 <sup>-11</sup>	5.27 10 <sup>-2</sup>

element, it expands the austenite region in the phase diagram and lowers the eutectoid temperature [51]. As a result, the LAS grain sizes are refined with increasing Ni content [13], as it can be seen when comparing the materials cooled at the same rate, i.e., 0 and 1 wt% Ni and 2 and 3 wt% Ni. A consequence of the lowered transformation temperature is that Ni also promotes the formation of acicular ferrite [13,52], which has been observed for Ni contents above 1 wt% in ferritic/pearlitic steels by others [13,52].

The interlamellar pearlite spacing is determined solely by the transformation temperature, with finer pearlite lamella forming at lower transformation temperatures [53]. The finer pearlite lamellar spacing in 1 wt% Ni compared to 0 wt% Ni, and in 3 wt% Ni compared to 2 wt% Ni can then be explained by the lowering of the eutectoid temperature with increasing Ni content. The decrease in eutectoid temperature causes the transformation to begin at lower temperatures for higher Ni contents when cooled at the same rate. The fact that the 2 wt% Ni samples had larger interlamellar spacing than 1 wt% Ni can be explained by the slower cooling rate, causing the transformation to progress at a higher temperature.

With the addition of Ni, the eutectoid composition is shifted towards a lower carbon content [51], and from the "lever rule", it can be inferred that the fraction of pearlite increased at the expense of ferrite. The influence of Ni on the eutectoid composition explains the increase in the pearlite fraction from about 0.2 to about 0.3 when the Ni content increased from 0 to 3 wt%, Fig. 5, which is an unavoidable complication when keeping the chemical composition, outside the Ni content, fixed.

### Experimental challenges and considerations

When charging in 0.1 M NaOH,  $i$  did not stabilize at clear steady-state values, but rose monotonically, as seen in Figs. 8 and 9. Challenges with unsteady surface conditions on the hydrogen charging side have been reported previously by Zakroczymski [54], who investigated the permeation of iron by cathodically generating hydrogen in a 0.1 M NaOH solution. In this case, a barrier layer formed on the sample surface at OCP, which hampered the entry of hydrogen after switching to cathodic charging. During cathodic charging, the surface barrier was gradually removed by a reduction process [54], although Zakroczymski et al. [55] showed later on that it was probably never completely removed. Zakroczymski et al. [55] found, using ellipsometry, that the surface layer changed with time during cathodic charging. As a result, the permeation current on the anodic side continued to increase for up to 50 h before a constant flux was obtained. Casanova and

Crousier [56] suggested that such changes could be related either to a low diffusion coefficient of the gradually diminishing surface layer or to a gradually changing surface coverage of adsorbed hydrogen with time.

The choice of  $i_{ss}$  when charging in 0.1 M NaOH affected the calculated values of  $D_{eff}$  (using the  $t_{lag}$  method) and  $C_{OR}$  directly. As an example, if  $i_{ss}$  was chosen at the end of the permeation transients for the 3 wt% Ni sample, Fig. 9, both at 45 and 70 °C, the resulting  $D_{eff}$  values, calculated from the  $t_{lag}$  method, were almost equal. When using the  $t_b$  method,  $D_{eff}$  was higher at 70 °C than at 45 °C as would have been expected. The large increase in  $i$  seen from about 300 to 2500 s at 70 °C may be due to a significant alteration of a surface barrier on the cathodic sample side at this temperature. Thus, only the  $t_b$  method was used to calculate  $D_{eff}$  from transients obtained when charging in 0.1 M NaOH to circumvent this challenge. With the same reasoning, Luppo and Ovejero-Garcia [34] chose the  $t_b$  method when performing hydrogen permeation tests on LAS with hydrogen charging in 0.1 M NaOH. The preferred use of the  $t_b$  method over the  $t_{lag}$  method when there are layers impeding hydrogen diffusion has been discussed by Boes and Züchner [57]. In this work, only values based on the  $t_b$  method are discussed throughout this section to facilitate the comparison between experiments performed with different electrolytes in the cathodic compartment.

Herein, single values of  $D_{eff}$  were used to define the entire permeation transients. This approach is only valid for low trap occupancy, i.e., the fraction of reversible traps occupied  $\ll 1$  [35,45]. Qualitatively, if trap occupancy is high, the diffusion coefficient will continually change during the permeation transient, appearing faster as traps fill up [35]. In such a situation, the estimated single  $D_{eff}$  values will depend on the part of the curve used for the fit [44]. In the same way, calculating  $C_{OR}$  from Equation (3) becomes increasingly inaccurate as trap occupancy increases [58]. Trap occupancy increases with increasing trap strength,  $|E_b|$ , and increasing hydrogen concentration in the lattice,  $C_0$  [35,45,59]. The trap occupancy can be approximated by dividing the value of  $C_{OR}$  (units recalculated from ppm (wt) to atoms cm<sup>-3</sup>) by the number of reversible traps,  $N_r$  [45]. The  $C_{OR}$  value of 0.013 ppm (wt) for the 0 wt% Ni sample charged in 0.1 M NaOH at 15 °C herein, Fig. 11, corresponded to about  $6.14 \cdot 10^{16}$  H atoms cm<sup>-3</sup>, and when divided by the estimated  $N_r$ , Table 3, the trap occupancy fraction was approximated to  $1.60 \cdot 10^{-4}$ . When charging in the electrolyte containing a hydrogen recombination poison, the trap occupancy increased due to the increase in  $C_0$ , but the approximated trap occupancy fraction was still very low,  $< 0.005$  for the 0 wt% Ni sample. Regardless of possible inaccuracies, it is acknowledged that it can be pragmatically useful to

calculate  $D_{eff}$  by simple analysis [35], e.g., to compare material variables under the same environmental severity on a qualitative basis [9].

### Effect of Ni on hydrogen permeation

When charging in aerated 3.5 wt% NaCl,  $C_0$  values were in the order of 0.001 ppm (wt), Table 4, which, according to Griffiths and Turnbull [58], is typical for cathodic protection of steels in neutral environments. Charging in 0.1 M NaOH at 15 °C gave  $C_0$  values of the same magnitude, Fig. 13. When charging in the electrolyte containing thiosulfate as a hydrogen recombination poison,  $C_0$  values were close to 0.1 ppm (wt), i.e., a 100 fold increase, which is characterized as severe charging [58]. Kappes et al. [59] performed hydrogen permeation experiments on American Petroleum Institute (API) X65 pipe steel exposed at OCP in 5 wt% NaCl + 0.5 wt% acetic acid with  $H_2S$  gas partial pressures ranging from 0.029 to 101.3 kPa. Testing was carried out at room temperature. The authors presented  $J_{ss}L$  values, which, from Equation (1), corresponds to  $C_0$  values in the range 0.01–0.1 ppm (wt). In other words, the results obtained by polarizing in the electrolyte containing a hydrogen recombination poison should give a fair representation of the materials performance in an  $H_2S$  environment.

Fig. 10 shows that  $D_{eff}$  decreased with increasing Ni content at all tested temperatures when charging in 0.1 M NaOH.  $D_{eff}$  was 2.7 times larger for 0 wt% Ni than for 3 wt% Ni at 15 °C, 2.0 times larger at 45 °C and 1.8 times larger at 70 °C.  $D_{eff}$  for 0 wt% Ni at 45 °C was 2.6 times larger than  $D_{eff}$  for 0 wt% Ni at 15 °C; hence the effect of increasing the Ni content from 0 to 3 wt% was comparable to the effect of a 30 °C increase in temperature. Upon increasing temperature, traps with increasing energy cease to trap hydrogen [33]. The fact that the relative difference in  $D_{eff}$  between 0 and 3 wt% Ni decreased with increasing temperature could on a qualitative basis mean that some reversible trap sites, whose number increased with increasing Ni content, were emptied when the temperature increased. It may also, however, be related to a larger relative impact of the surface effects discussed in section [Experimental challenges and considerations](#), at higher temperatures, which possibly affects all materials equally. A quantitative evaluation of reversible trap number and strength is discussed in section [Trap characterization and direct and indirect effects of Ni alloying](#).

Charging in aerated 3.5 wt% NaCl and in an electrolyte containing a hydrogen recombination poison at 15 °C with 0 and 2 wt% Ni samples, confirmed that the diffusivity decreased with increasing Ni content. In aerated 3.5 wt% NaCl,  $D_{eff}(t_b)$  for the 0 wt% Ni sample was 1.8 times larger than for the 2 wt% Ni sample. With the electrolyte containing a hydrogen recombination poison, the same factor was 2.6, while in the 0.1 M NaOH electrolyte, the factor was 2.0.

The  $D_{eff}(t_b)$  values were largest when charging in the electrolyte containing a hydrogen recombination poison. The values were 5.7 times larger for the 0 wt% Ni material and 4.0 times larger for the 2 wt% Ni material compared to those obtained when charging in aerated 3.5 wt% NaCl. The increase in  $D_{eff}$  observed when charging in the electrolyte containing a hydrogen recombination poison could be explained by the known dependence of  $D_{eff}$  with hydrogen concentration [58].

$C_0$  was approximately two orders of magnitude larger when testing in the electrolyte containing a hydrogen recombination poison compared to the aerated 3.5 wt% NaCl solution. The examples presented by Griffiths and Turnbull [58] showed that this can result in more than one order of magnitude increase in  $D_{eff}$ . Trap occupancy increases with increasing hydrogen content in the lattice [35,45,59] and  $D_{eff}$  then approaches the  $D_l$  value [59]. These facts deemed it relevant to investigate the effect of Ni under severe hydrogen charging conditions as done with the electrolyte containing thiosulfate as hydrogen recombination poison. Increasing the hydrogen concentration shifted  $D_{eff}$  towards  $D_l$ , but did not reduce the relative difference between the 0 and 2 wt% Ni materials.

The values of  $D_{eff}(t_b)$  obtained for both 0 and 2 wt% Ni samples when charging in 0.1 M NaOH at 15 °C, were about 2.5 times larger than those obtained when charging in aerated 3.5 wt% NaCl electrolyte, even though the  $C_0$  values were of similar magnitudes. Although  $D_{eff}$  values are inherently thickness independent [37], the observed difference may be a result of the thicker samples tested in the 0.1 M NaOH electrolyte (1.9 mm vs. 1.1 mm) with diminished relative delaying effects from surface processes for thicker samples [42], as discussed in section [Experimental challenges and considerations](#). Since the permeation transients cannot outrun diffusion, it is commonly reasoned that the highest value of  $D_{eff}$  is the most representative [33] at a similar charging severity.

The correlation between  $C_{OR}$  and Ni content varied with the hydrogen charging conditions. When charging in 0.1 M NaOH the  $C_{OR}$  values - determined from Equation (3) using  $D_{eff}$  from the  $t_b$  method - showed no clear trend with Ni content at either of the tested temperatures. When charging in aerated 3.5 wt% NaCl,  $C_{OR}$  was highest for the 0 wt% Ni sample, while  $C_{OR}$  was highest for the 2 wt% Ni sample when charging with the electrolyte containing a hydrogen recombination poison.

The variation of  $C_{OR}$  with Ni content depends on the relative trends of  $J_{ss}L$  and  $D_{eff}$  with Ni content according to Equation (3).  $J_{ss}L$  decreased with increasing Ni content in all charging environments, but the average ratio of the  $J_{ss}L$  values between 0 and 2 wt% Ni samples at 15 °C, varied from 1.7 when charging in 0.1 M NaOH, to 3.1 when charging in aerated 3.5 wt% NaCl and 1.2 when charging in the electrolyte containing a hydrogen recombination poison. At the same conditions, the average ratios of the  $D_{eff}(t_b)$  values between the 0 and 2 wt% Ni samples ranged from 1.8 to 2.6, thus showing less variation with the charging environment than the  $J_{ss}L$  ratios.

$D_l$  is generally considered to be independent of steel microstructure and composition as long as the steel has a bcc structure [43,44,60]. As such, the decrease in  $J_{ss}L$  with increasing Ni content seen in all charging conditions, is considered to result from a decrease in  $C_0$  with increasing Ni content according to Equation (1) [1].  $C_0$  increases with increasing surface coverage of adsorbed hydrogen,  $H_{ads}$  [61]. The surface coverage of  $H_{ads}$  is determined by details of the mechanism for the hydrogen evolution reaction and the kinetic properties of the sample surface in the different electrolytes [61]. Ni generally enhances the kinetics of the hydrogen evolution reaction relative to Fe [38] by promoting the hydrogen desorption reaction [14]. However, a detailed evaluation of the effect of Ni on the surface coverage of  $H_{ads}$

under the different charging conditions is complicated and outside the scope of this work. Since different mechanisms may control hydrogen entry to the LAS in the different charging conditions, it is not surprising that the relative impact of Ni on  $C_0$  varies between the three charging conditions. In particular, when charging in the electrolyte containing the thiosulfate recombination poison, hydrogen entry involves the formation of  $H_2S$  and iron sulfide films [39,40], which processes may show a different dependence on Ni content in the LAS than cathodic hydrogen evolution in 0.1 M NaOH or aerated 3.5 wt% NaCl.

Since  $D_{eff}$  decreased with increasing Ni content in all charging conditions, Equation (3) suggests that  $C_{OR}$  would have increased with increasing Ni content if all LAS were charged to the same value of  $C_0/J_{ss}L$  in each environment. The effect of Ni on hydrogen uptake in service environments, e.g., at OCP in acidic brine containing  $H_2S$ , is another important aspect concerning the effect of Ni on SSC resistance [14,15]. A recent literature review [1] pointed out that in various environments, including acidic brine containing  $H_2S$ , adding Ni to QT LAS decreased the value of  $C_0$ . Similar results were obtained herein for ferritic/pearlitic LAS in three different charging conditions.

Irreversible trapping was evaluated by performing consecutive charge/discharge transients. There was a short time shift between the consecutive transients when testing in 0.1 M NaOH at 15 °C for all the materials except 0 wt% Ni, where all the transients were equally fast. The time shifts were exemplified by the 3 wt% Ni sample in Fig. 14. Time delays from the first to the second transients suggest irreversible trapping [37], but time delays from the second to the third transients would not be expected. Together with the fact that irreversible trapping is expected to delay the permeation transients in the range of 2–3 orders of magnitude [62], variations in surface conditions on the charging surface between the transients as discussed in section [Experimental challenges and considerations](#) are a more likely explanation. Manolatos et al. [63] have previously discussed how variations in the surface conditions may lead to erroneous conclusions concerning trapping. Testing in aerated 3.5 wt% NaCl and electrolytes containing a hydrogen recombination poison confirmed the absence of irreversible trapping. In these cases, the input surface conditions were identical for the first and the second transients and no time shifts were seen.

According to Turnbull et al. [9], it is unlikely that irreversible traps can be neglected in steels, as they observed a clear time delay in the first compared to the subsequent permeation transients when testing a martensitic stainless steel. Nevertheless, others have not observed this time shift. Bolzoni et al. [62] investigated two pipeline steel materials (API 5L X65 and ASME SA-182 F22) in as-received, fully quenched and annealed conditions, and did not observe time shifts between the permeation transients for any of the materials. Chan [19] performed permeation tests on martensitic Fe-Mn alloys with various carbon contents (Mn content not specified). The difference between the first and second permeation transient was absent for a material with 0.23 wt% C, but became increasingly evident as the carbon content increased up to 0.93 wt%. Chan suggested that, when the carbon content

increased, quenching produced more microcracks, microvoids, and retained austenite that acted as irreversible traps.

#### *Trap characterization and direct and indirect effects of Ni alloying*

Because all alloying elements, including Ni, affect the phase equilibria of LAS, there were some microstructural dissimilarities between the materials, as discussed in section [Materials characterization](#). Grain size and interlamellar pearlite spacing were not direct functions of Ni content, but the fraction of pearlite increased monotonically with increasing Ni content. The amount, location, and morphology of cementite affect hydrogen uptake and diffusion in steels [50,64–66]. Luppó and Ovejero-García [34] revealed a preferential accumulation of hydrogen at cementite and ferrite-cementite interfaces over ferrite itself using a hydrogen microprint technique. Chan and Charles [64] investigated ferritic/pearlitic steels and found that the hydrogen content increased and the apparent (effective) diffusion coefficient decreased with increasing pearlite content, obtained by increasing the carbon concentration.

The quantitative trap characterization of the LAS provided  $E_b$  and  $N_t$  values as seen in Table 3.  $|E_b|$  values from 15 to 18 kJ mol<sup>-1</sup> associated with the ferrite/pearlite interface have been reported in the literature [65,67]. In this regard, the  $|E_b|$  value of 22.5 kJ mol<sup>-1</sup> for the 0 wt% Ni sample herein is not unlikely.  $|E_b|$  values for Ni in solid solution (in pure Fe) have been estimated by Pressouyre [68] and Kedzierzawski [69] after the results of Beck et al. [16] and Dresler and Froberg [17], respectively.  $|E_b|$  was about 8 kJ mol<sup>-1</sup> in the work of Beck et al. and roughly 18.4 kJ mol<sup>-1</sup> in the work of Dresler and Froberg. Herein,  $|E_b|$  increased with increasing Ni content in the LAS. Considering the fact that  $|E_b|$  values of Ni in solid solution (in pure Fe) presented in literature are similar to, or smaller than the  $|E_b|$  values associated with pearlite, the average trap energy was not expected to increase with increasing Ni content in the LAS.

The  $N_t$  values herein were one order of magnitude lower than those found by Castaño Rivera et al. [32] in a cold-rolled API 5L X60 steel with a QT microstructure, while Robertson and Thompson [67] reported a one order of magnitude lower value than herein of  $2 \cdot 10^{19}$  traps cm<sup>-3</sup> in a pearlitic steel with 0.43 wt% C by a rough estimate. Castaño Rivera et al. [32] made rough approximations on the expected number of traps from dislocations, ferrite-cementite interfaces and grain boundary sites in the QT API 5L X60 steel, but obtained  $N_t$  values that were one and two orders of magnitude smaller than those of the LAS herein. Estimating the number of traps with basis in the interfacial area between ferrite and pearlite in the LAS herein would be rather arbitrary and beyond the scope of the current work, but the number of traps is expected to increase as the fraction of pearlite increased in the LAS. Similarly, the number of traps from Ni in solid solution must increase with increasing Ni content, and 1 wt% Ni in solid solution corresponds to about  $8.5 \cdot 10^{20}$  atoms cm<sup>-3</sup>. Both the direct and indirect effects of Ni alloying are expected to increase the number of traps in the LAS, and it is difficult to explain, with the results presented herein alone, the decrease found in  $N_t$  with increasing Ni content.

As experienced by Castaño Rivera et al. [32], assigning  $E_b$  and  $N_r$  values to a particular microstructural feature in the LAS is difficult. Although the values of  $E_b$  and  $N_r$  are of the same magnitudes as found by others, the trend with Ni content is questionable. One assumption for the analysis of trap number and strength was the presence of a single type of trap. Considering the complex microstructure of the LAS, it would be challenging to resolve the trend of  $E_b$  and  $N_r$  with Ni content with this model. The deconvolution of the direct effects of Ni in solid solution from its indirect influence on altering the phase equilibria of LAS is difficult, both by qualitative and quantitative means and it is the topic of future work.

#### Implications of the results

de Santa Maria and Turnbull [7] found that the cracking resistance of an AISI 410 steel (measured by slow strain rate testing) decreased with increasing  $J_{ss}$  L values (measured by permeation studies) when charged in brine of varying pH and  $H_2S$  concentration. The decrease in  $J_{ss}$  L with increasing Ni content observed herein, and by others [1], is considered beneficial [1,14]. However, since the material is indeed different when the Ni content changes - the trend of  $C_{OR}$  with Ni content varied with the charging conditions - a decrease in  $J_{ss}$  L with increasing Ni content does not necessarily imply a decreasing cracking susceptibility with increasing Ni content.

Nanis and Namboodhiri [70] demonstrated the essential role of the diffusion rate when hydrogen was not initially available at a location sensitive to cracking. Considering that the results of this investigation showed that Ni alloying delayed the hydrogen transport in the LAS, it would be tempting to assume that Ni could improve HSC resistance. However, the relationship between experimentally obtained  $D_{eff}$  and  $C_{OR}$  values and the resistance of a material to HSC or SSC is not fully understood. As stated by Koh et al. [71], SSC results from the combined action of hydrogen and metallurgical defects that are sensitive to HE. The sensitivity of a microstructural characteristic, e.g., Ni in solid solution, to HSC/SSC is not revealed by permeation experiments alone. Mechanical HE testing of the same materials is the scope of a separate publication [72].

## Conclusions

The effect of nickel in ferritic/pearlitic research-grade low alloy steels on hydrogen uptake, diffusion, and trapping was evaluated by the electrochemical permeation method. Based on the results presented above, the following conclusions were drawn:

- The effective diffusion coefficient,  $D_{eff}$ , decreased with increasing Ni content at all tested temperatures and charging conditions.
- The sub-surface lattice hydrogen concentration,  $C_0$ , decreased with increasing Ni content in all charging conditions, while the dependence of the sub-surface hydrogen concentration in lattice and reversible trap sites,  $C_{OR}$ , with Ni content varied with the charging conditions.

- Irreversible trapping, evaluated by consecutive permeation transients, was not observed for any of the materials under any of the charging conditions.
- The fraction of pearlite increased with increasing Ni content. Separating the effect of Ni in the bcc lattice from the effect of the increasing pearlite fraction with increasing Ni content is difficult, and is the topic for future work.

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