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1 Application of Double Loop Electrochemical Potentio-kinetic

2 Reactivation for characterizing the intergranular corrosion

3 susceptibility of stainless steels and Ni-based alloys in solar nitrate

4 salts used in CSP systems

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13 Abstract

14 In this study, the sensitivity of four corrosion resistant candidate alloys; austenitic stainless steels
15 (AISI 321 and AISI 347) and Ni-based alloys (IN 625 and In 825) to degrade by intergranular
16 corrosion when used with molten salts in conditions of CSP systems were investigated at different
17 temperatures. This was achieved by implementing the Double loop electrochemical potentiokinetic
18 reactivation (DL-EPR) technique to quantitatively measure the degree of sensitisation (DOS) in the
19 selected alloys by aging in air with and without Solar Salts (60 wt% NaNO₃ and 40 wt% KNO₃) at
20 550 - 750°C for 2 h. Electrochemical etching technique was implemented further to verify the results
21 from DL-EPR. The results show that DL-EPR and microstructural evaluation techniques can be
22 used to assess the synergy of temperature and molten salt electrochemical activities on the tendency
23 for intergranular corrosion attack to occur in CPS systems. IN 625 showed the highest intergranular
24 corrosion resistance among the alloys investigated in both air and molten salt; especially at
25 temperatures higher than salt stability temperature. Samples aged in molten salts showed higher
26 DOS than samples aged in air across all temperatures and linked to Cr-consuming corrosion and
27 chemical reactions that drives molten salt – alloy interaction in CSP plants.

29 1. Introductions

30 With the rapid growth of world's population, increased industrialisation of emerging economies and
31 the limitation of conventional energy sources, as well as the concern of potential impact of fossil
32 fuel on global warming, there is strong motivation to explore alternative and renewable sources of
33 energy [1]. In addition to other renewable resources (e.g. wind, geothermal and ocean), solar energy

34 is showing great promise. This is stimulated by the great amount of solar energy reaching the Earth
35 [1, 2]. According to some estimates from International Energy Association, solar energy, if it is fully
36 harnessed alone, can satisfy the world's total energy demand [3]. Electricity generation from solar
37 irradiation is usually achieved by photovoltaic (PV) and photo-thermal [4] systems. However,
38 concentrating solar power (CSP) has gained particular interest for large scale applications due to its
39 advantage in terms of solar thermal energy production efficiency, low operation cost and low
40 environmental impact. CSP systems are also integrated with thermal energy storage (TES) and heat
41 transfer (HTF) systems [3] that rely on molten salts (solar salts) at temperatures $\geq 550^{\circ}\text{C}$. CSP
42 systems are being deployed to mitigate the intermittence of supply of solar thermal electricity.

43 The electro-chemical aggressiveness of molten salts, high temperature conditions within CSP plants
44 and the continuous interaction of molten salts with material surfaces increases the risk of corrosion,
45 catastrophic failure of metallic components and reduce CSP plant efficiencies. Stainless steels and
46 Ni-based alloys are widely used in CSP plants due to their good mechanical properties, high
47 corrosion and oxidation resistance. Ni-based alloys are known to have superior resistance to pitting
48 corrosion, crevice attack and stress corrosion cracking than stainless steels [1].

49 Intergranular corrosion is a form of localised corrosion which starts from the surface and develops
50 inwards along the grain boundary to reduce cohesive stress, causing strength loss of material. It is
51 linked with the segregation of impurities and/or depletion of one of the alloying elements along the
52 grain boundaries (GBs). This is known as sensitisation and often used in reference to austenitic
53 stainless steels and Ni-based alloys when operating in temperature range between $482\text{-}815^{\circ}\text{C}$ [5].
54 Many researchers have concluded that the mechanisms and rate controlling step of classical
55 intergranular corrosion is the chromium depletion and/or carbide precipitation [6]. Among reported
56 theories in literatures, it was widely accepted that Cr carbides was the main cause of intergranular
57 corrosion [7]. It is also believed that the process of precipitation of Cr carbide may be divided into
58 reaction theory [8] and kinetic theory [9]. M_{23}C_6 carbide is the most prevailing carbide in stainless
59 steels and its formation follows the reaction:



60 The precipitation process of M_{23}C_6 includes the diffusion and reaction of Cr and C at the
61 M_{23}C_6 /matrix interface and the growth of M_{23}C_6 [10]. The diffusion coefficient of carbon is 10^4
62 larger than that of chromium due to the fact that carbon is present interstitially and chromium
63 substitutionally [11]. S. Kolli [12] deduced that the preferential precipitation along the GBs is
64 controlled by two factors, thermodynamics of the M_{23}C_6 formation and the difference in the
65 diffusivities of Cr and C. After the formation of M_{23}C_6 at the grain boundaries, they become a kind
66 of crystal defects with a higher Gibbs energy [10]. To reduce the Gibbs energy of the system, GBs
67 tended to interact with other lattice defects (dislocations, vacancies and foreign atoms) [13] and thus
68 lower the corrosion resistance of the material. Efforts and techniques have been taken to control or
69 mitigate sensitisation of susceptible alloys, such as high temperature solution heat treatment,
70 reducing carbon content to reduce carbide formation and incorporating strong carbide formers or
71 stabilising elements such as niobium or titanium [6, 14-17]. Thorvaldsson and Dunlop [18-20] found
72 that M_{23}C_6 was more stable than TiC and less than NbC, which is consistent with the finding
73 formation of M_{23}C_6 in 321 after long term aging by Grot [21]. It is very important to determine the
74 stabilised temperature to cause effective (Ti/Nb)C precipitation. Perrard [22, 23] found the kinetic

75 of NbC precipitation depend strongly on temperature and he built time–temperature transformation
76 diagram to reveal the reaction rate between 600-800°C.

77 There has been limited research focused on characterising and understanding the relationship
78 between molten salt chemistries, conditions encountered in CSP systems, the occurrence of
79 sensitisation and the propensity for intergranular corrosion to occur in materials used in CSP systems.
80 Chromium-depletion theory suggest that annealing at critical temperature or cooling slowly leads
81 to the precipitation of carbides along the GBs [11], thus resulting in the local Cr content dropping
82 below a critical level of 12 wt.% [15, 17]. In the region adjacent to GBs after precipitation, a
83 minimum chromium content is unavailable to provide the passive Cr₂O₃ layer for corrosion
84 resistance [12]. The working temperature range for molten salt is partly overlaid with the
85 sensitisation temperature. This provides the basis for material degradation to be driven by the
86 synergy of high temperature degradation and molten salt corrosion. The occurrence of sensitisation
87 has been well researched for most alloys under high temperature conditions [15, 24]; particularly
88 relating to alloy metallurgical and manufacturing processes [25]. Some authors have also reported
89 intergranular corrosion attack in molten chloride [26, 27] and nitrate [28] salts. However, the
90 propensity for sensitisation to occur in materials used with molten salt under real conditions in CSPs
91 has not been researched and accurately characterised. Whilst the corrosion mechanism between
92 chloride and nitrate salts has some similarities in terms of chromium removal from the alloy [29],
93 the role of impurities in these salts introduces some distinct effect on material degradation;
94 particularly for chloride molten salts [30]. Such research information is vital to guide material
95 design and selection processes, improve CSP plant efficiency and lower energy production costs.
96 Various standard tests have been developed to characterise the intergranular corrosion behaviour of
97 stainless steels at different conditions. However, as a quick material selection filter, the double loop
98 electrochemical potentiokinetic reactivation (DL-EPR) test can be used to quickly assess the
99 synergy of electrochemical activity of molten salt and high temperature degradation of alloys used
100 in CSP systems.

101 **2. Experimental Methods**

102 **2.1 Materials**

103 The materials used in this study were AISI 321 and AISI 347 austenitic stainless steels, and Inconel
104 625 and Incoloy 825 with nominal composition provided in Table 1. The as-received samples were
105 heat treated by supplier at stabilised temperature for 5 h to cause effective (Ti/Nb) C precipitation
106 [31]. These materials represent the main candidate materials used in CSP plants for molten salt
107 transport and thermal collector pipes and accessories. The samples were cut from as – received pipes
108 supplied by Zhejiang JIULI Hi-tech Metals Co., Ltd, China. Samples of approximately 1 cm² area
109 were obtained from seamless pipes as shown in Figure S1. In this study, Solar salt (60 wt.% NaNO₃
110 and 40 wt.% KNO₃) was selected as experimental salt, which was purchased from Shanghai
111 Chemical Reagents Limit Company with analytical reagent purity. The main impurities in this salt
112 mixture includes 0.004% insoluble, 0.0001% IO₃⁻, 0.004% Ca²⁺ and 0.001% NO₂⁻. The salts were
113 weighed according to the ratio and separately dried at 120 °C for 24 h in a furnace. Afterwards, they
114 are heated at 300°C for 24 h to a homogeneously mix of salt for further use.

115 2.2 DL-EPR test procedure

116 Prior to the DL-EPR test, the test samples were grounded with SiC paper up to 2000 grit, polished
117 with 9 µm, 6 µm, 1 µm and 0.25 µm diamond suspension and then degreasing with acetone before
118 experiments. The as-received materials were each solution heat treated at 1050°C for 0.5 h to
119 dissolve all the potential NbC(N)/TiC(N), followed by water quenching (see Table 2) to get
120 homogenised austenite field and destroy the sensitivity to intergranular corrosion due to the carbides
121 entering into solution [11]. The treated samples were held and aged for 2 h at temperatures 550, 650
122 and 750°C in air without molten salt and in air with molten salt to simulate the temperature
123 conditions in current and future CSP plants. . It should be worth noting that the temperature chosen
124 in this study is based on the two key operational considerations. Firstly, although the decomposition
125 of nitrate salt [32] limits its use above 560 °C, the temperature at receiver panels (mainly made of
126 Ni-based alloy) can reach to 650 °C when all the mirrors are engaged in reflecting solar irradiation
127 at noon in the real solar power plants. A slightly higher limits are also possible with solar salt to
128 realise a higher CSP plant efficiency targets [33]. Secondly, scientists are considering higher
129 operation temperature (650 to 750 °C) of CSP plants in future [33] where hot tank, heat transfer
130 pipes and receivers are made of Ni-based alloys in contact with other chloride and carbonate salts.
131 The assessment of sensitization behaviours for Ni-based alloys or Stainless steels at higher
132 temperature will provide theoretical basis and guidance for the characterisation and selection of the
133 materials in the future.

134 DL-EPR tests were conducted in a three-electrode cell using a saturated calomel electrode (SCE) as
135 reference electrode and platinum plate as counter electrode. The sample materials were embedded
136 in epoxy resin and served as working electrode. The degree of sensitisation (DOS) of the aged
137 samples were investigated in a solution of mixture of 2 M sulfuric acid (H₂SO₄) and 0.05 M
138 potassium thiocyanate (KSCN) at 30 °C. The specimen was polarised anodically into passive region
139 at 100 mV/min after exposure at open circuit potential (OCP) for 5 minutes. Once the passivation
140 potential (typically 0.3V SCE) is reached, the scan was reversed from forward scan to reverse scan
141 (cathodic direction) back to OCP at the same rate.

142 The peak current for the reverse scan and forward scan are recorded and named as reactivation
143 current density (i_r) and activation current density (i_a) respectively. The ratio of reactivation (i_r) and
144 activation (i_a) current density is defined as the degree of sensitisation. This is presented in Equation
145 2. After DL-EPR test, visual evidence to characterise materials susceptibility to IGC is obtained.
146 The schematic DL-EPR curves is shown in Figure S2 obtained from the BS EN ISO 12732:2008
147 standard [34].

$$\text{DOS} = (i_r/i_a) \times 100\% \qquad \text{Equation 2}$$

148 The correlation of anodic current and reactivation current with DOS is classified to three levels.
149 DOS value less than 1% is an indication that material is ‘unsensitised’, 1%-5% means material is
150 ‘slightly sensitised’ and higher than 5% indicates that material is ‘sensitised’ [34].

151 **2.3 Metallographic etching procedure**

152 The oxalic acid etch test was used for classification of etch structures in austenitic stainless steels
153 according to ASTM A262 [35]. This etching procedure is usually used in conjunction with other
154 evaluation test to provide a quick method to qualitatively assess material susceptibility to
155 intergranular corrosion. 10% oxalic acid solution ($\text{H}_2\text{C}_2\text{O}_4 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$) was used to etch the surface of
156 the salt/air exposed samples, and a section from the bulk metal, at 1 A/cm^2 for 1.5 min to evaluate
157 any changes in microstructure to indicate material susceptibility to intergranular corrosion. The air-
158 exposed and salt-exposed samples all went through another polish process prior to etching and
159 examination, according to standard [35]. The microstructures obtained were classified into three
160 types: “step” structure with no ditches at grain boundaries; “dual” structure, with some ditches at
161 grain boundaries; and, “ditch” structure, with one or more grains completely surrounded by ditches
162 [5]. According to ASTM A-262 [35], “ditch” structure, with one or more grains completely
163 surrounded by ditches are more prone to IGC. These classification of microstructures after etching
164 are adapted from ASTM A-262 and shown in Figure S3 [35].

165 **2.4 Microstructure analysis**

166 The microstructural observation and analysis of samples after the DL-EPR test were conducted
167 using a Zeiss optical microscope (OM) (Axio Imager 2) and Carl Zeiss EVO MA15 scanning
168 electron microscope (SEM). The SEM was integrated with an Oxford Instruments Aztec Energy
169 dispersive X-ray (EDX) system with an 80mm X-max SDD detector which provided secondary and
170 backscattered imaging, EDX elemental mapping and line scans. The working voltage of SEM is set
171 at 20 kV and working distance of 12–13 mm.

172 **3. Result and discussion**

173 **3.1 The microstructure**

174 Figure 1, Figure 2, Figure 3 and Figure 4 show the SEM micrographs for as-received samples of
175 AISI 321, AISI 347, IN 625 and In 825. EDX/EDS mapping images are also presented in each figure.
176 Titanium stabilised AISI 321 and Niobium stabilised AISI 347 austenitic stainless steels have an
177 austenite phase with equiaxed-grain size about 40-50 μm prior to sensitisation treatment. Referring
178 to the backscatter image, there are some precipitates distributed along the GBs or inner grain.
179 SEM/EDX element mapping shows that the (Fe, Ni and Cr) depleted precipitate are identified as
180 TiN and TiC in AISI 321 and NbN in AISI 347, which is consistent with the reports by A.Pardo [14].
181 IN 625 and In 825 show the austenitic phase with equiaxial grains and some annealing twins formed
182 during the heat treatment process. There is also some precipitation along the GBs or inner grain,
183 which was identified as NbN or TiN in Figure 3 and Figure 4.

184 **3.2 DOS results**

185 The DL-EPR curves of sensitised samples of AISI 321 AISI 347 IN 625 and In 825 were shown in
186 Figure 5, Figure 6, Figure 7 and Figure 8, respectively. The critical current and DOS values
187 determined from the DL-EPR curves are summarised in Table S1 and plotted in Figure 9 and Figure
188 10 as function of temperature and effect of molten salt on degree of sensitisation. Referring to Figure
189 1, Figure 2, Figure 3 and Figure 4 and grade regulation for characterising DOS in BS EN ISO
190 12732:2008 standard [34], the solution treated as-received samples are unsensitised.

191 **3.2.1 AISI 321**

192 According to the DL-EPR curve shown in Figure 5, air-sensitised AISI 321 samples shows a
193 relatively small reactivation current density at the temperatures under focus. Referring to Table S1
194 and Figure 9, DOS value increase gradually from 0.1% to 0.18% with increase of temperature from
195 550°C to 750°C. In air, the AISI 321 clearly exhibited no tendency for intergranular corrosion to
196 occur after 2 h heat treatment at 750°C with a DOS value of 0.18%. These results are consistent with
197 the results of microstructure observation. In Figure 11 (a, b, c), the samples exhibited ‘step’ structure
198 without any Cr-depletion or Cr precipitation evidence at GBs. Ti-stabilised AISI 321 steels are less
199 prone to IGC and exhibited no obvious change in microstructure with increase in aging temperature
200 in air. However, the specimens exhibited higher tendency for IGC to occur in solar salt than in air
201 from the result of DL-EPR at same temperature in Figure 9. The DOS value of samples in solar salt
202 increases to 0.23% and 0.34% at 550°C and 650°C, respectively. However, these samples remained
203 ‘unsensitised’ as the DOS values are less than 1%. The results of microstructure also confirm this
204 conclusion as samples exhibited ‘step’ structure when aged at 550°C and 650°C in molten salt, as
205 shown in Figure 11 (d) and (e). It is worth mentioning that there is significant increase in DOS value
206 from 0.18% in air to 4.27% in solar salt at 750°C. At 750°C and in solar salt, the microstructure of
207 AISI 321 samples exhibited ‘dual’ structure with some ditches at GBs as shown in Figure 11 (f),
208 indicating the highest tendency for IGC to occur.

209 In this study, the DOS of AISI 321 increases with increasing temperature while the synergy of high
210 temperature and the aggressive nature of solar salt significantly increases the tendency for AISI 321
211 to degrade by IGC. As reported in the literature [36], chromium carbides precipitate most when
212 aging at temperature between 750-800 °C without any effective TiC precipitation in AISI 321
213 samples [31]. On one hand, the increase of temperature can enhance the formation of chromium
214 carbide thermodynamically and kinetically, resulting in significant increase of DOS value. On the
215 other hand, the chemical reaction with molten salt is also a Cr-consuming process that leads to the
216 formation of corrosion products such as iron chromium spinel and chromium nickel oxide [(Fe, Ni)
217 Cr₂O₄] [1, 37, 38]. Therefore, the degree of sensitisation, and hence the likelihood for AISI 321 to
218 degrade, could be enhanced by the synergy of increase of temperature and molten salt chemistry.
219

220 3.2.2 AISI 347

221 Figure 6 shows the DL-EPR curves of AISI 347 sensitised at 550, 650 and 750 for 2 h in air and
222 molten salt. The DOS value of air sensitised AISI 347 samples is 0.29%, 0.34% and 0.24% when
223 held at 550°C, 650°C and 750°C. Although this was slightly higher than the DOS of AISI 321
224 samples, AISI 347 also show lower tendency for IGC to occur with DOS less than 1% and therefore
225 considered as ‘unsensitised’, even at 750°C. These conclusions are consistent with the results from
226 microstructure observation. Air sensitised AISI 347 specimen shows ‘step’ structure in Figure 12
227 (a), (b) and (c) for test at 550°C, 650°C and 750°C, respectively.

228 In the molten salt system, AISI 347 samples show the ‘step’ structure at 550°C and 750°C and ‘dual’
229 structure when aged at 650°C in Figure 12 (d), (e) and (f). As mentioned before, specimens tend to
230 have a higher tendency for IGC to occur when they have ditch structure than dual structure and step
231 structures. The DOS value of samples in solar salts were 0.36%, 1.09% and 0.45%, which is slightly
232 higher than when samples were aged in air at corresponding temperature. The sample aged at 650°C
233 in molten salt also shows a ‘dual’ structure (shown in Figure 12 (e)) with highest DOS value,
234 indicating highest tendency of IGC to occur. This indicates that samples aged at 650 °C in both air
235 and molten salt showed higher DOS values and hence higher tendency for IGC to occur than samples
236 aged at 550°C and 750°C in both air and molten salt. This threshold effect with respect to DOS is
237 linked to the preferred temperature limit for NbC precipitation suggested by Perrard [22, 23] and
238 Stopher [39]. Both authors [22, 39] came to the conclusion that NbC precipitation depends strongly
239 on temperature and precipitation occurred fastest between 700-800°C (973K-1073K). More stable
240 NbC [40] precipitation could retard the precipitation of Cr carbides and thus reduce the IGC
241 tendency. From this study, it is clear that there is a “critical sensitisation” temperature of 650°C in
242 molten salts at which AISI 347 samples exhibited highest DOS and tendency for IGC to occur. This
243 is consistent with the findings of Perrard [23] and Stopher [39]. The trend of increase in DOS values
244 in molten salt in AISI 347 is similar to AISI 321 to highlight the contribution of molten salt
245 chemistries to the Cr-consuming interfacial phenomenon that increases the tendency for IGC to
246 occur.
247

248 3.2.3 IN 625

249 In addition to testing austenitic stainless steels, electrochemical test and etching method was also
250 used to investigate Ni-based alloy. These tests have been shown to be suitable for characterising the
251 DOS in Ni-based alloys [41, 42]. Referring to Figure 7 and Figure 8 for IN 625 and In 825
252 respectively, the DL-EPR curves and results of Ni-based alloys were significantly different from
253 austenitic stainless steels in terms of current density and reactivation process. The results indicate
254 that alloy composition has a strong effect on anodic and reactivation process even though
255 sensitisation may lead to similar chromium depletion.
256

257 IN 625 exhibited the lowest tendency for IGC to occur in air at 550-750°C without any reactivation
258 peaks (shown in Figure 7 (a)). The samples remained passive during anodic and reactivation scan.

259 The microstructure of IN 625 samples after aging in air shows a shallow ‘step’ structure in Figure
260 13 (a), (b) and (c) to confirm the results obtained from DL-EPR test. The DL-EPR curves of IN 625
261 samples aged in solar salt is shown in Figure 7 (b). Two reactivation peaks to obtain increase in
262 DOS values of 30.4% and 23.1% at 650°C and 750°C respectively between air and molten salt can
263 be observed. ‘Step’ structure for IN 625 at 550°C and ‘ditch’ structure at 650°C and 750°C is a clear
264 indication that IN 625 samples remained unsensitised at 550°C even with molten salt but severely
265 sensitised at 650°C and 750°C. This result shows that temperature plays a decisive role on
266 sensitisation behaviour of IN 625 in molten salt. More detailed analysis is provided in section 3.3.

267 **3.2.4 In 825**

268 Similar to IN 625, In 825 samples exhibited relatively small anodic and reactivation current in the
269 DL-EPR curves. In comparison with IN 625, DL-EPR tests on In 825 samples in air show the anodic
270 peaks and reactivation peaks at all temperature in Figure 8 (a). The DOS values were 10.0%, 31.6%
271 and 35.2% at 550, 650 and 750°C respectively, indicating that In 825 samples are “sensitized” in
272 air. ‘DL-EPR results and Ditch’ structure in Figure 14 (a), (b) and (c) for In 825 aged in air show
273 relatively higher tendency for IGC to occur. For DL-EPR tests with molten salt, the DOS value of
274 In 825 samples was 49.4%, 76% and 65.5% at 550, 650 and 750°C, respectively in Figure 8 (b).
275 These values are significantly higher than the DL-EPR test results on IN 825 samples aged in air at
276 all temperatures. Similarly, In 825 samples aged in solar salts exhibited ‘ditch’ structure after
277 electrochemical etching as shown in Figure 14 (d), (e) and (f). The width of Cr-depleted zones are
278 the largest and indicate the highest tendency for IGC to occur [8] among all the alloys investigated.
279 In 825 samples exhibit high sensitivity to temperature when aged in air and in molten salt. From
280 these results, it is believed that In 825, though a Ni-based alloy, exhibited a significantly higher
281 tendency for IGC to occur than Ti and Nb – alloyed austenitic stainless steels.

282 **3.3 Sensitisation mechanism with and without molten salt**

283 As earlier discussed, the sensitisation behaviour of stainless steels and Ni-based alloys are often due
284 to the precipitation of chromium carbides at grain boundaries. This therefore leads to a chromium
285 depleted area at/near the GBs, where a minimum chromium content is unavailable to provide the
286 passive film or passive films break during the reactivation process. Both scenarios could cause the
287 depleted area to be vulnerable to intergranular corrosion, exhibiting the rise of reactivation current
288 and high DOS value. For austenitic stainless steels, the most accepted explanation for sensitisation
289 is the Cr-depletion theory. Other researchers [43] have suggested that the size and Cr content of the
290 Cr-depleted zone are the main factors driving intergranular corrosion. Yin [8] later reported that the
291 degree of sensitisation of stainless steels is only determined by the width of Cr-depleted zone. The
292 formation of Cr-depleted area is due to the lower diffusion coefficient of chromium than that of
293 carbon.

294 In this study, the width of Cr-depleted area was not investigated, however, the results from post
295 experiment analysis shows evidence of the tendency for IGC to occur along the grain boundaries.
296 This has been observed in this study to increase with increasing of temperature and in synergy with

297 molten salt for AISI 321 (see Figure 11). The effect of temperature on sensitisation behaviour for
298 stainless steels is linked to the degree of carbide precipitation (Cr_{23}C_6 , TiC or NbC in Figure 1-
299 Figure 5) at critical temperature. The higher degree of sensitisation in molten salt was due to the
300 corrosion and chemical reaction kinetics that consumes Cr content. Solar salt is known to remain
301 stable at temperatures $\leq 565^\circ\text{C}$ and decomposes at higher temperatures into nitrite and oxygen ions
302 [29], which enhanced the corrosivity of salt. This process in synergy with the high temperatures
303 triggers aggressive reaction with bulk material to form corrosion products, such as mixed oxides of
304 (Cr, Fe and Ni) [44]. Chromium rich corrosion products could result in Cr-depleted zones, where
305 passive film breakdown occurs and are likely to corrode actively. For Ni-based alloys, the reason
306 why molten salt causes the increased degree of sensitisation is similar with that of stainless steels.

307 The sensitization mechanism is presented as a schematic illustration in Figure 15 to summarise the
308 mechanism of sensitisation behaviour and synergy of temperature and molten salt to influence the
309 tendency for IGC to occur. When “sensitised” samples precipitate Cr-carbide along GBs, inner
310 chromium is hindered more significantly in its ability to diffuse outwards than carbon, thus leading
311 to a Cr-depleted area. More Cr carbides aggregate at the grain boundaries due to the higher diffusion
312 coefficient of Cr with the increase of temperature, thus increasing the width of Cr-depleted area and
313 the tendency for IGC. While in molten salt, according to literature [1, 29, 45], oxidation was the
314 primary attack to the alloys and the formation of Cr and Fe oxides may protect the bulk material
315 against the corrosion. However, the subsequent dissolution of the Cr oxides into molten salt [29, 46]
316 causes the breakdown of this protective film and facilitates the interaction between molten salt and
317 bare metal/alloy to accelerate the consumption of Cr emanating from bulk material as temperature
318 increase. This corrosion/oxidation and dissolution process will remove chromium from the GBs first.
319 Then, due to faster diffusion through GBs at temperatures below about 800°C , it will lead to higher
320 sensitisation near the exposed surface. Therefore, in the presence of molten salt, more chromium was
321 consumed and Cr-oxides dissolved from the inner grain and along GBs, increasing the width of Cr-
322 depleted area and the tendency for IGC to occur. The dissolution of Cr-oxide into molten salt
323 resulted in higher DOS in molten salt than that in air by consuming chromium adjacent to GBs.

324 It is worth mentioned that the anodic and reactivation current of Ni-based alloy is almost four orders
325 of magnitude lower than that of stainless steels, indicating that the passive film is more stable than
326 that on stainless steels. We can conclude that the passive film on the surface of Ni-based alloys are
327 containing mixture oxides of chromium and nickel due to its higher nickel content, which exhibited
328 a more stable oxide layer at higher temperature; particularly for IN 625, than the chromium oxide
329 film on the surface of stainless steels. Further long-term immersion tests in molten salt are needed
330 to investigate the IGC behaviour to confirm this particular conclusion.

331 **4. Conclusion**

332 As a non-destructive and time saving test method, Double loop electrochemical potentiokinetic
333 reactivation test has been successfully deployed to quantitatively evaluate the degree of sensitisation
334 and characterise material susceptibility to intergranular corrosion.

335 The following conclusions have been deduced from this research:

- 336 1. The tendency for intergranular corrosion to occur in molten salt was shown to be influenced by
337 the synergy of temperature and molten salt chemistry for different alloys; AISI 321, AISI 347,
338 IN 625 and IN 825. Degree of sensitisation was higher for samples aged in molten salt than for
339 samples aged in air and linked to the relationship between the kinetics of metal carbide
340 precipitation and aging temperature in synergy with molten salt corrosion and chemical
341 activities.
342
- 343 2. The higher DOS value of samples aged in salts than samples aged in air is linked to can be
344 linked to the underpinning Cr-consuming reactions that drives electrochemical and chemical
345 interactions metals and molten salt. Therefore, more chromium was consumed both in the inner
346 grains and along GBs, increasing width of Cr-depleted area and promoting the likelihood for
347 intergranular corrosion to occur.
348
- 349 3. A temperature threshold effect was also observed for AISI 347 above which DOS and hence the
350 tendency for IGC to occur reduces. This was also observed in the microstructure change for
351 AISI 347 from a dual structure at 650°C to a step structure at 750°C in molten salt and linked
352 to the threshold effect of temperature on the kinetics of NbC precipitation. Increase in the
353 kinetics of NbC precipitation at 750°C decreases the kinetics of Cr-C precipitation and hence
354 decreased tendency for IGC to occur.
355
- 356 4. IN 625 has highest IGC resistance among these steels from the results of microstructure
357 observation and DL-EPR with or without molten salt in this study. Stainless steels exhibited
358 higher intergranular corrosion tendency when employed at sensitised temperature with molten
359 salt.

360 **Data availability**

361 The raw/processed data required to reproduce these findings cannot be shared at this time as the
362 data also forms part of an ongoing study.

363 **CRedit authorship contribution statement**

364 **Qingyang Liu**: Conceptualization, Methodology, Formal analysis, Investigation, Resources,
365 Writing - original draft. **Jiong Qian**: Review & editing. **Richard Barker**: Supervision, Writing -
366 review & editing. **Chun Wang**: Supervision, Writing - review & editing. **Anne**
367 **Neville**: Resources, Review & editing, Supervision. **Frederick Pessu**: Supervision, Methodology,
368 Writing - review & editing, Resources, Conceptualization.

369 **Declaration of Competing Interest**

370 The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest.

371 **Acknowledgement**

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373 through the Jiuli Hi-tech Metals Co – University of Leeds corrosion integrated centre.

374

5. Tables and figures

Table 1 Chemical compositions of austenitic stainless steels and Ni-based alloys

Material	C	Mn	Ni	Si	P	S	N	Al	Cr	Fe	Mo	Ti	Nb	PREN
AISI 321	0.018	1.44	9.24	0.519	0.0347	0.0011	0.014	-	17.33	Bal.	-	0.225	-	17.55
AISI 347	0.049	0.95	9.65	0.402	0.026	0.0043	0.086	0.0027	17.35	Bal.	-	-	0.656	18.7
IN 625	0.018	0.039	62.36	0.142	0.00059	0.0025	0.0075	0.261	21.69	3.06	8.65	0.211	3.31	50.36
In 825	0.008	0.673	40.18	0.258	0.0119	0.0009	0.0092	0.104	22.6	30.32	2.88	0.943	0.025	32.25

Notes: a. Titanium stabilized AISI 321 and niobium stabilized AISI 347

b. $PREN = Cr + 3.3 \times (Mo + 0.5 \times W) + 16 \times N$

Table 2 Time-temperature profile for sensitization test

Materials	Heat treatment	Temperature	Holding time(h)	Holding time(h)
		(°C)	without salt	in molten salt
AISI 321	Solution and water quenching	1050	0.5	0
AISI 347	As received			
In 825		550	2	2
IN625	DL-EPR experiment	650	2	2
		750	2	2

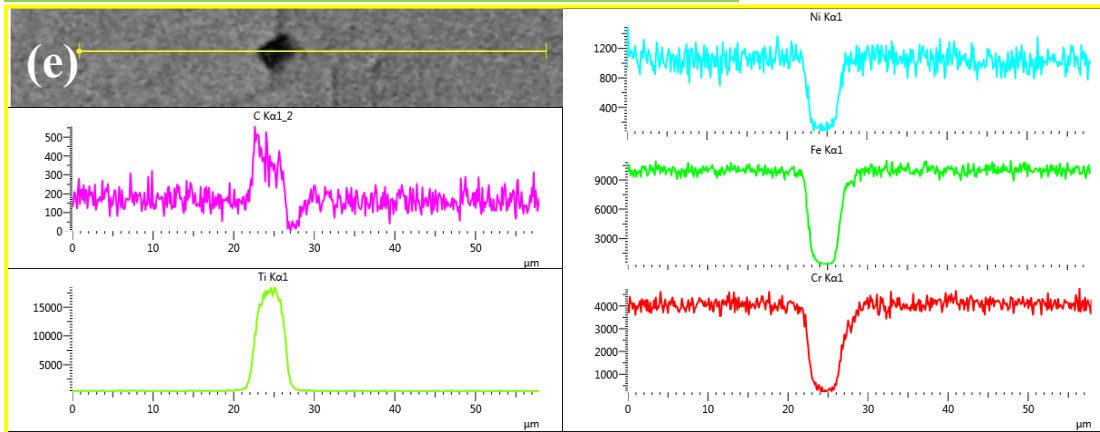
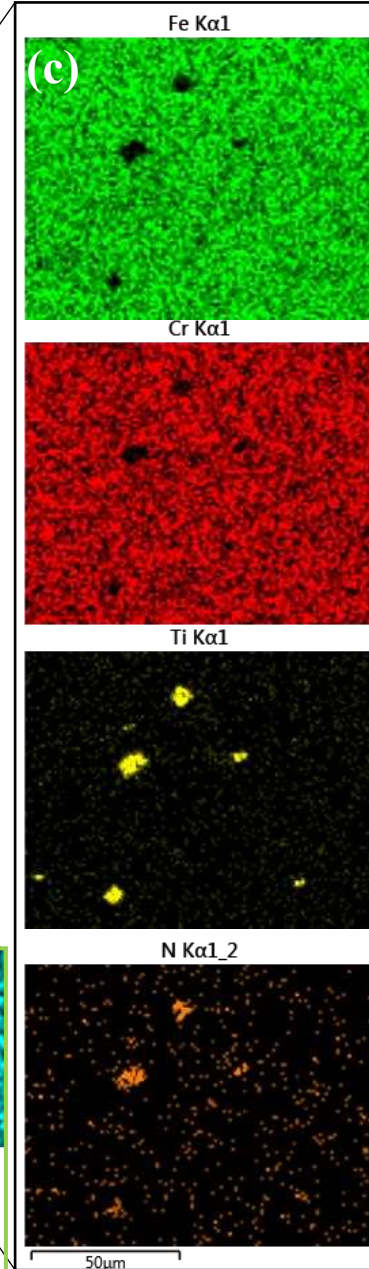
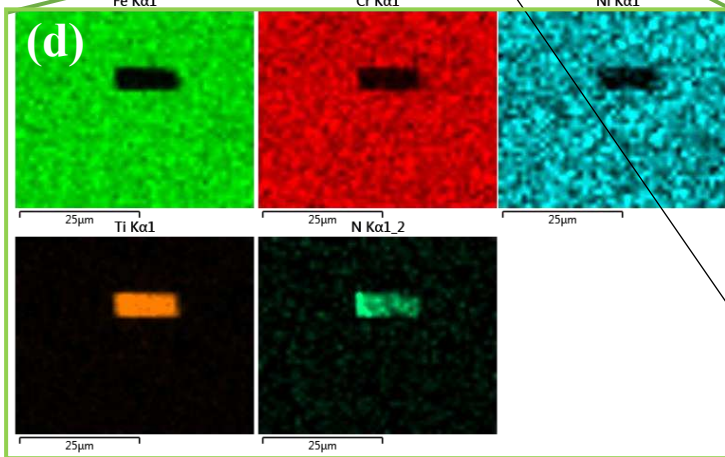
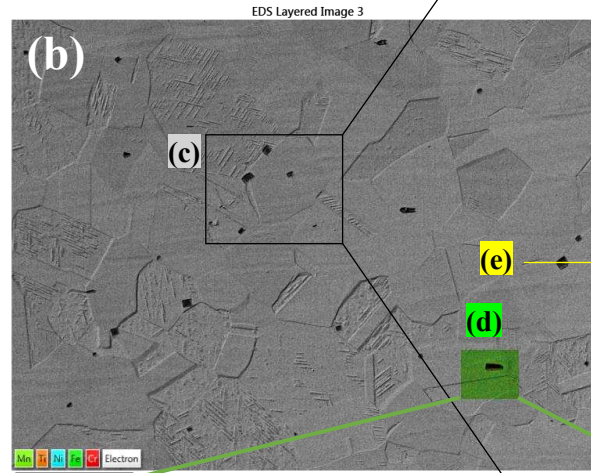
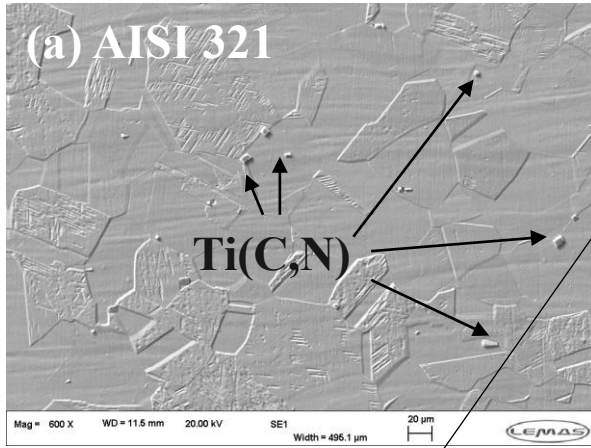


Figure 1 The microstructure of as-received AISI 321 (a) SEM image; (b)BSE image;(c) EDS element mapping of black box in (b); (d) EDS element mapping of green box in (b); (e) EDS line scan of yellow line in (b).

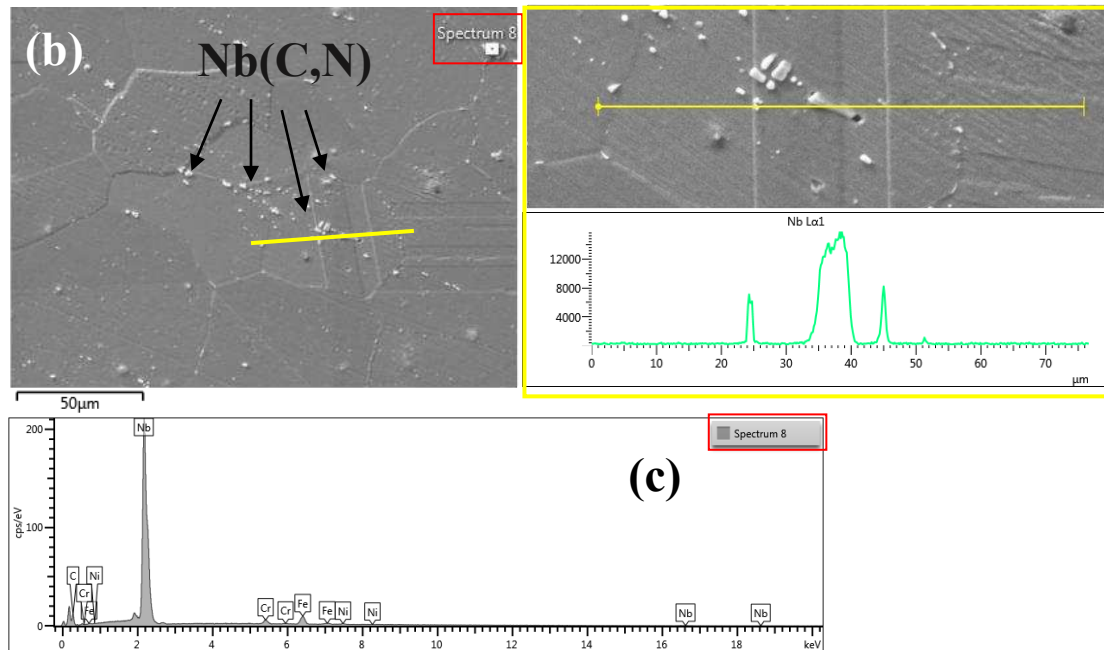
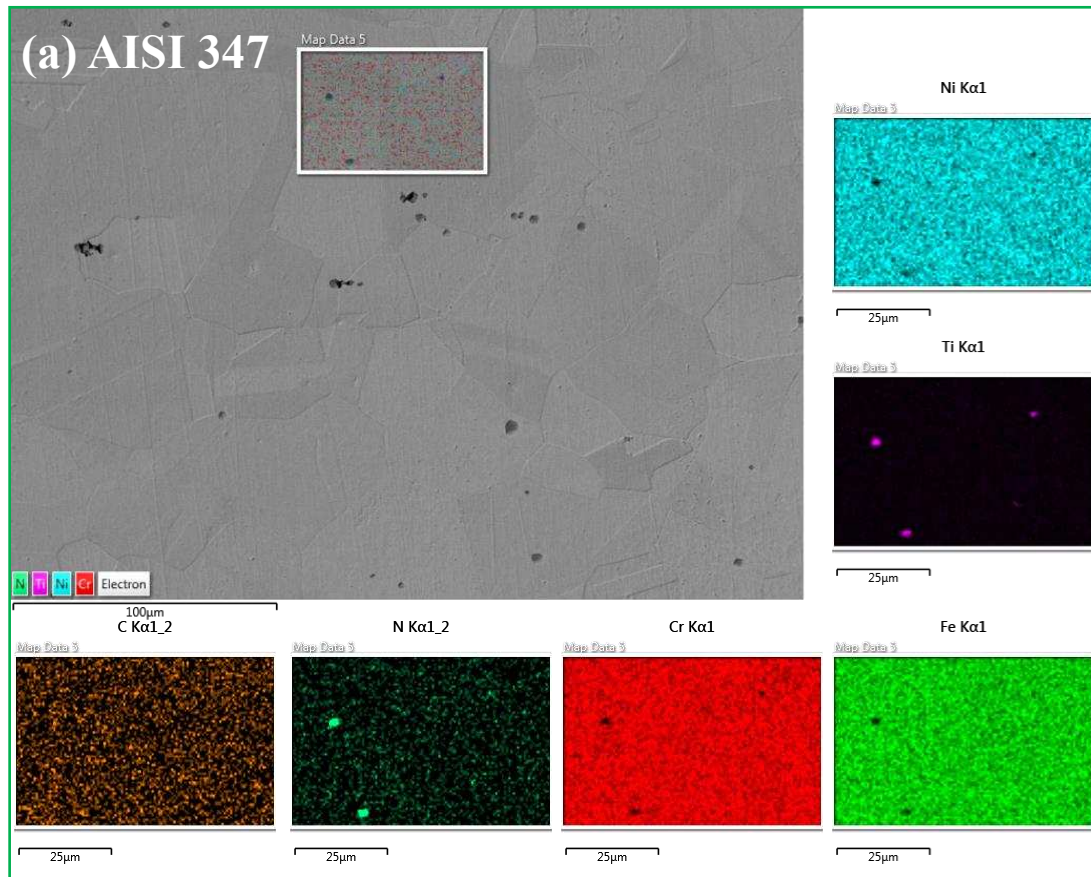


Figure 2 The microstructure of as-received AISI 347 (a) BSE image with element mapping; (b)SEM image with element line scan; (c) EDS point profile in (a)

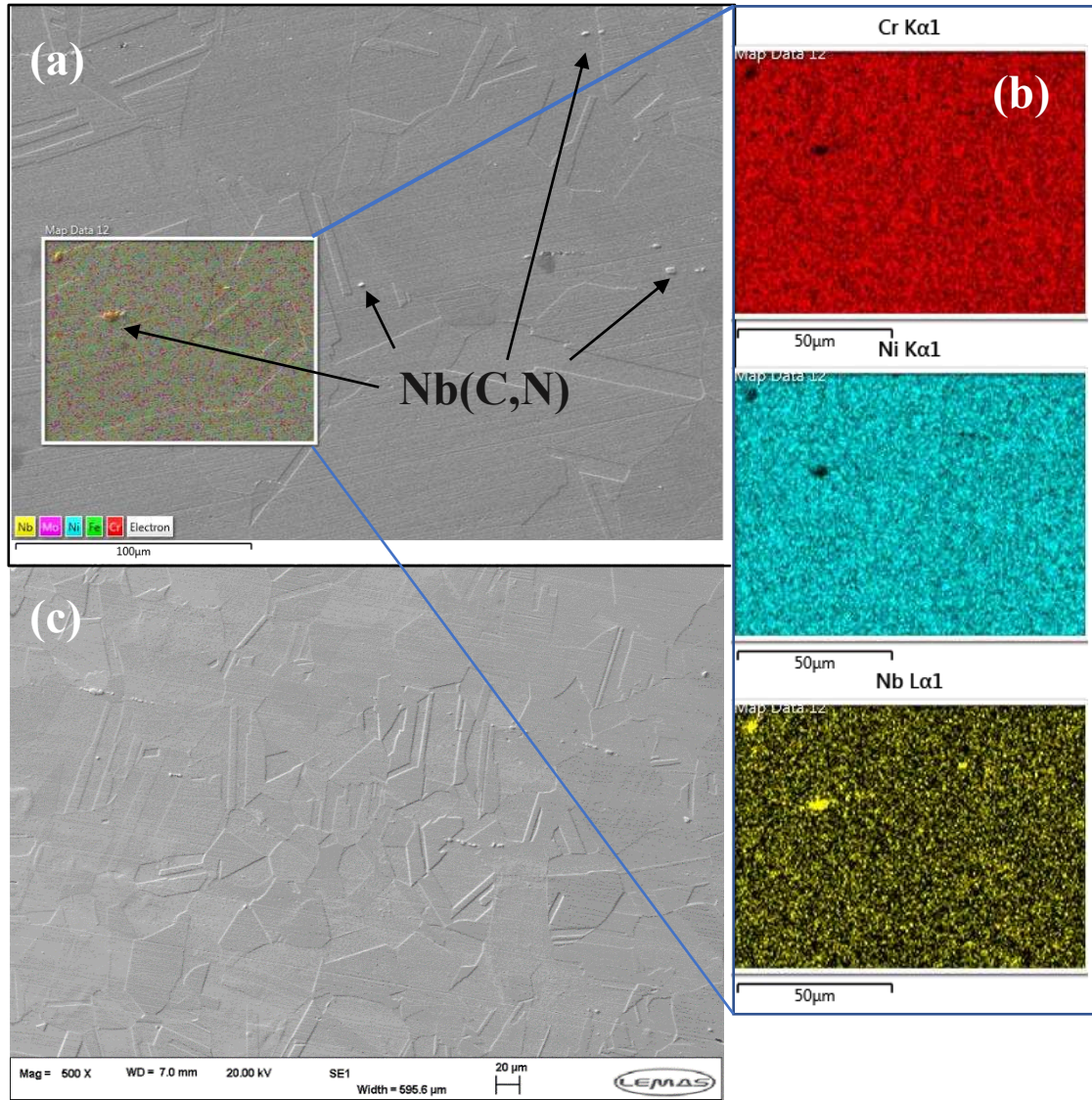


Figure 3 The microstructure of as received IN 625 (a) and (c) SE image (b) EDS mapping profile of white box in (a). Ti EDS mapping is unavailable due to lower content compared with Nb in IN 625.

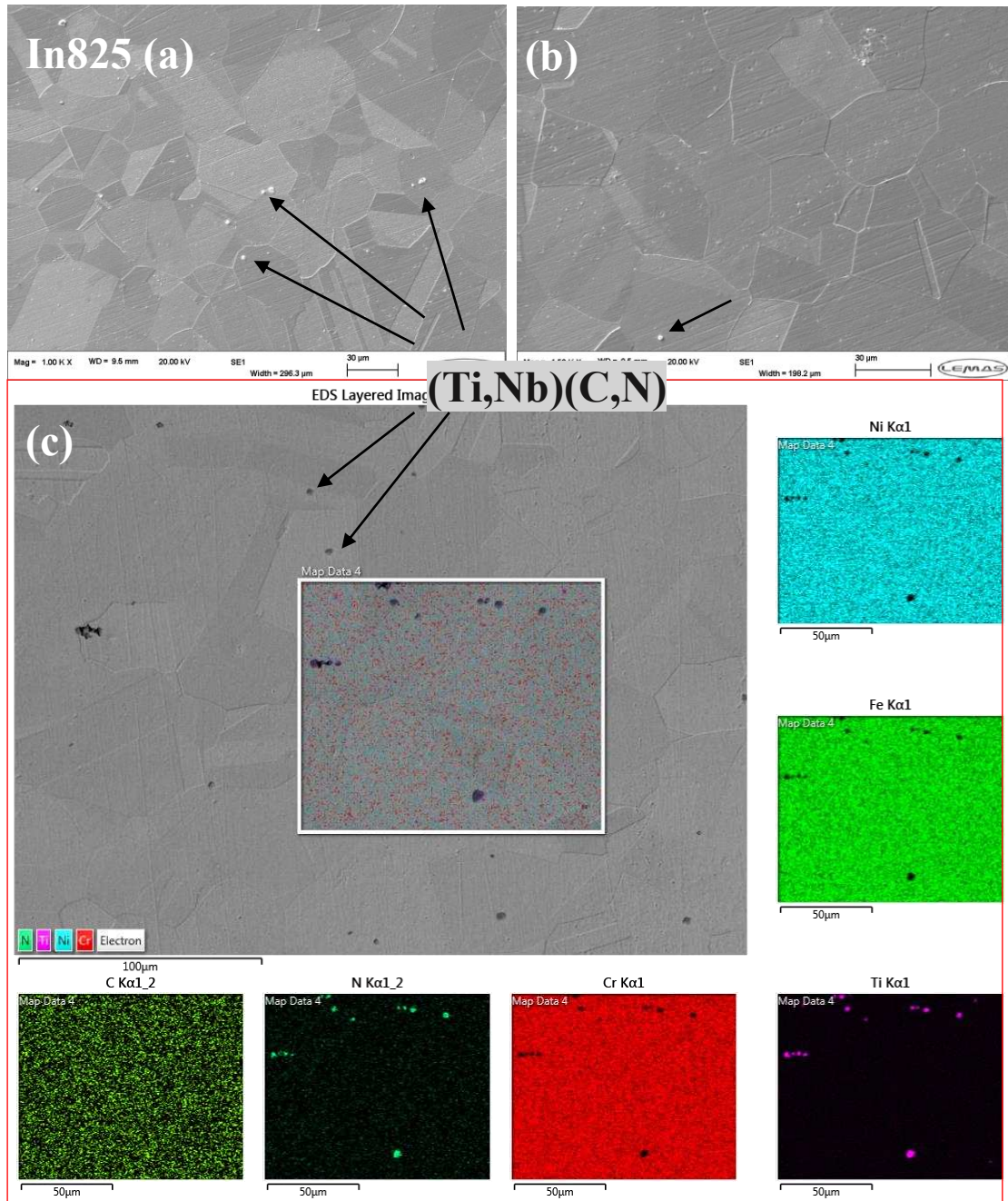


Figure 4 The microstructure of as received In 825 (a) and (b) SE images under different magnification; (c) EDS mapping profile. Nb EDS mapping is unavailable due to lower content compared with Ti in In 825.

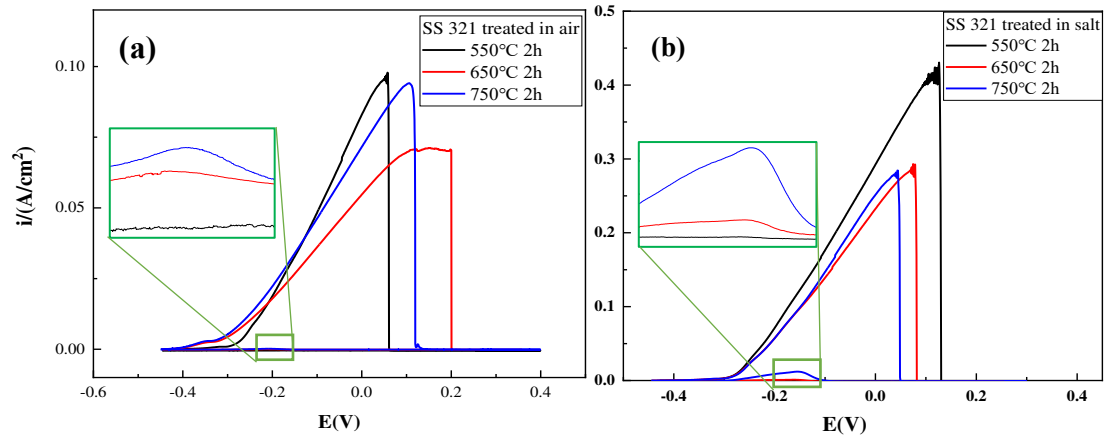


Figure 5 DL-EPR curves of AISI 321 sensitised at 550, 650 and 750 for 2 h in air and molten salt

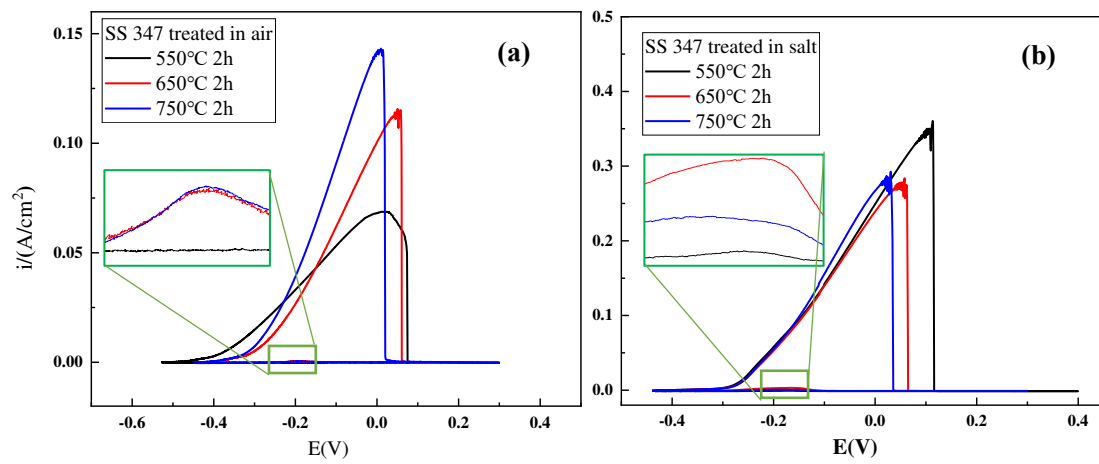


Figure 6 DL-EPR curves of AISI 347 sensitised at 550, 650 and 750 for 2 h in air and molten salt

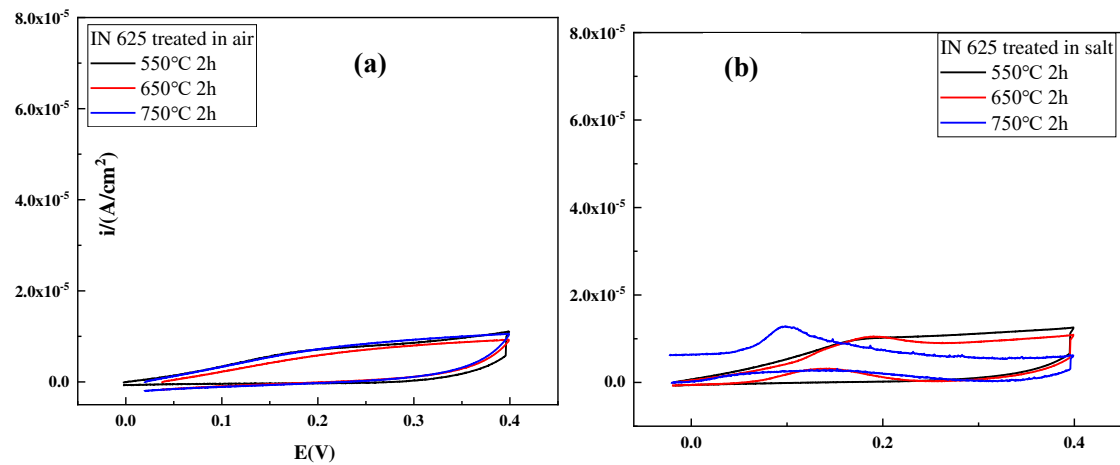


Figure 7 DL-EPR curves of IN 625 sensitised at 550, 650 and 750 for 2 h in air and molten salt

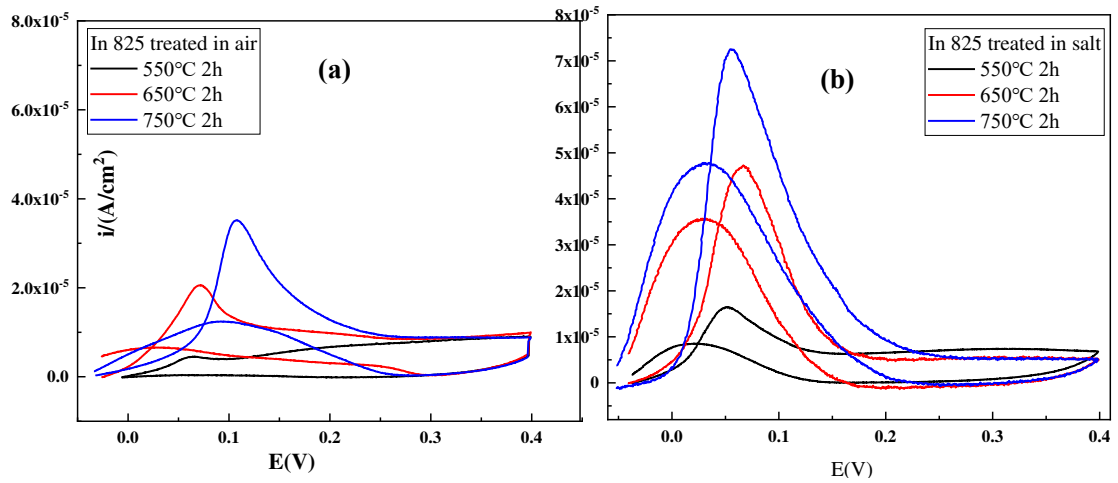


Figure 8 DL-EPR curves of In 825 sensitised at 550°C, 650°C and 750°C for 2 h in air and molten salt

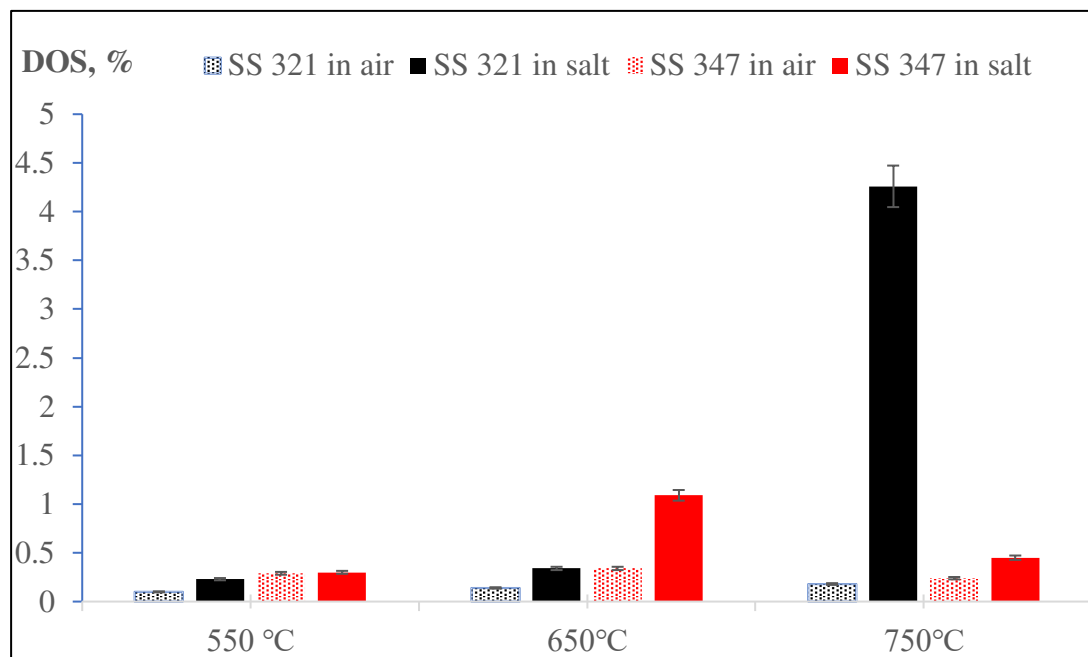


Figure 9 Bar chart of DOS value as function of temperature and molten salt for AISI 321 and AISI 347

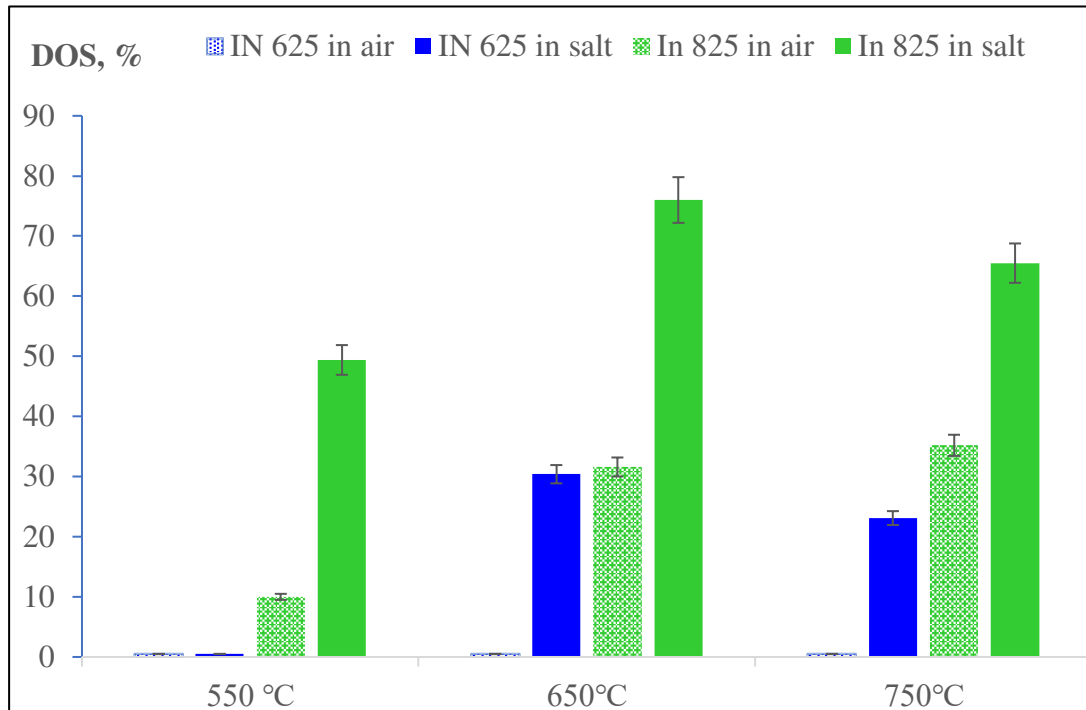


Figure 10 Bar chart of DOS value as function of temperature and molten salt for IN 625 and In 825

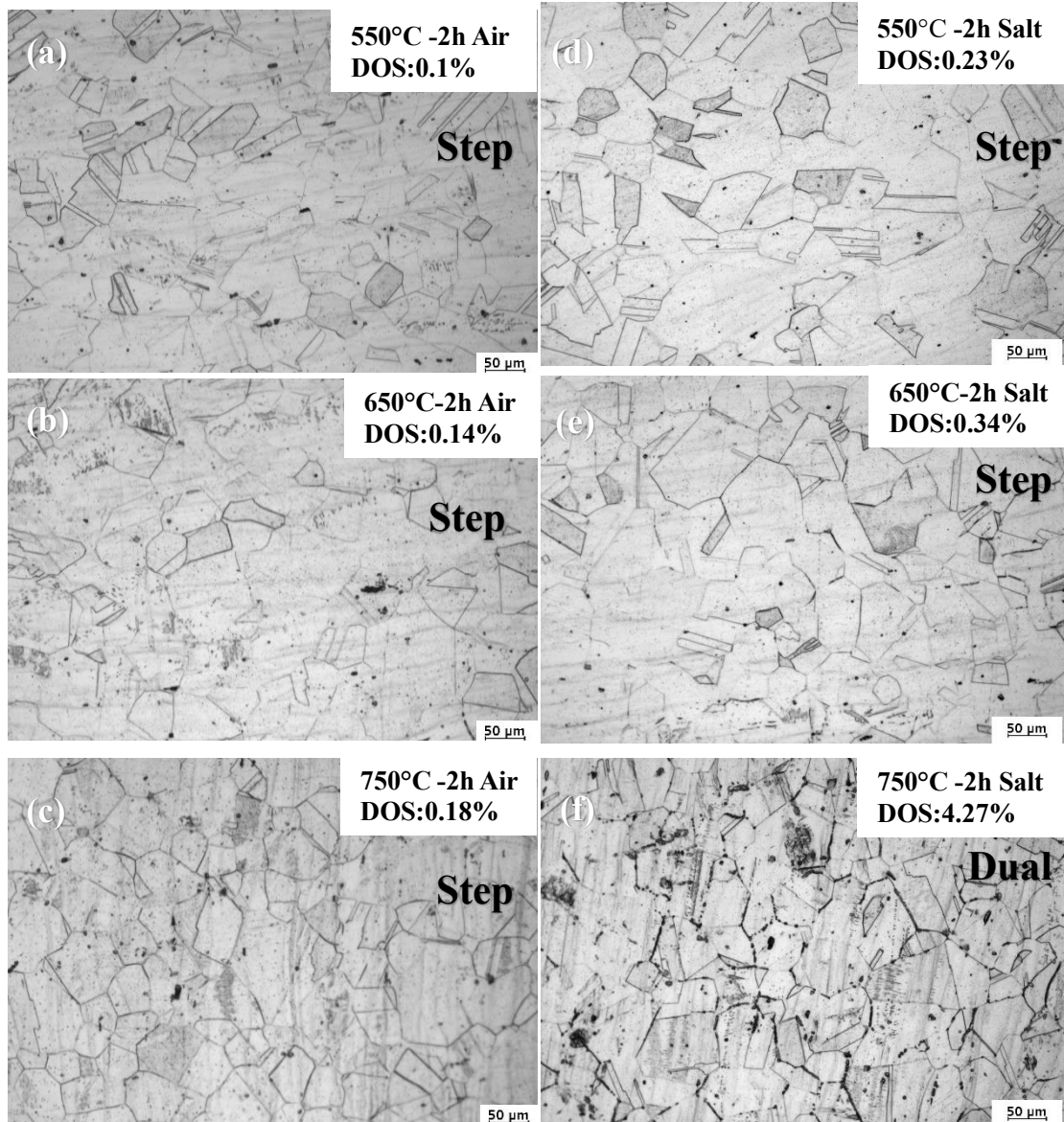


Figure 11 Oxalic etching microstructures for AISI 321 treated by (a) 550°C for 2 h in air; (b) 650°C for 2 h in air; (c) 750°C for 2 h in air; (d) 550°C for 2 h in molten salt; (e) 650°C for 2 h in molten salt; (f) 750°C for 2 h in molten salt, respectively.

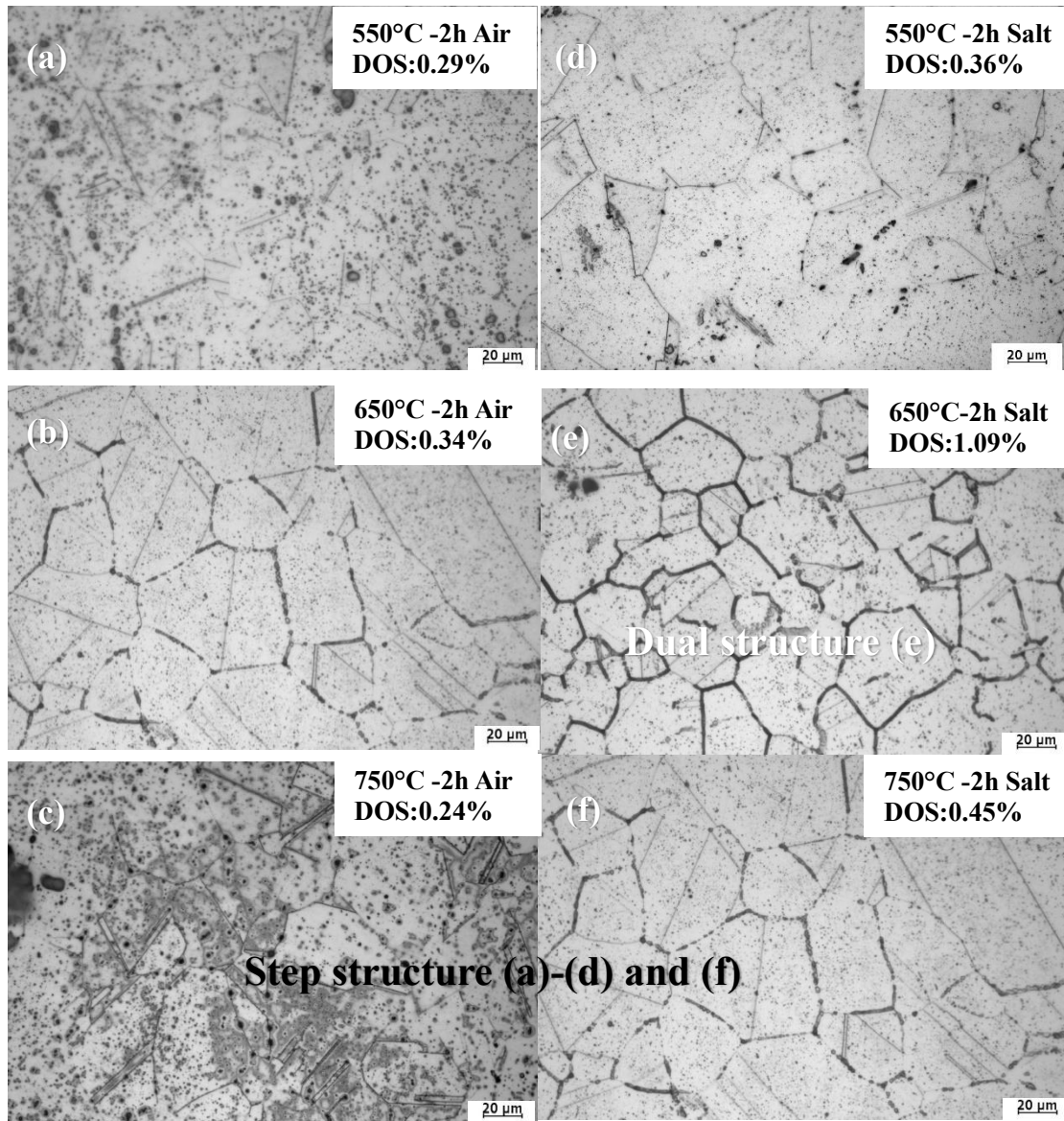


Figure 12 Oxalic etching microstructures for AISI 347 treated by (a) 550°C for 2 h in air; (b) 650°C for 2 h in air; (c) 750°C for 2 h in air; (d) 550°C for 2 h in molten salt; (e) 650°C for 2 h in molten salt; (f) 750°C for 2 h in molten salt, respectively.

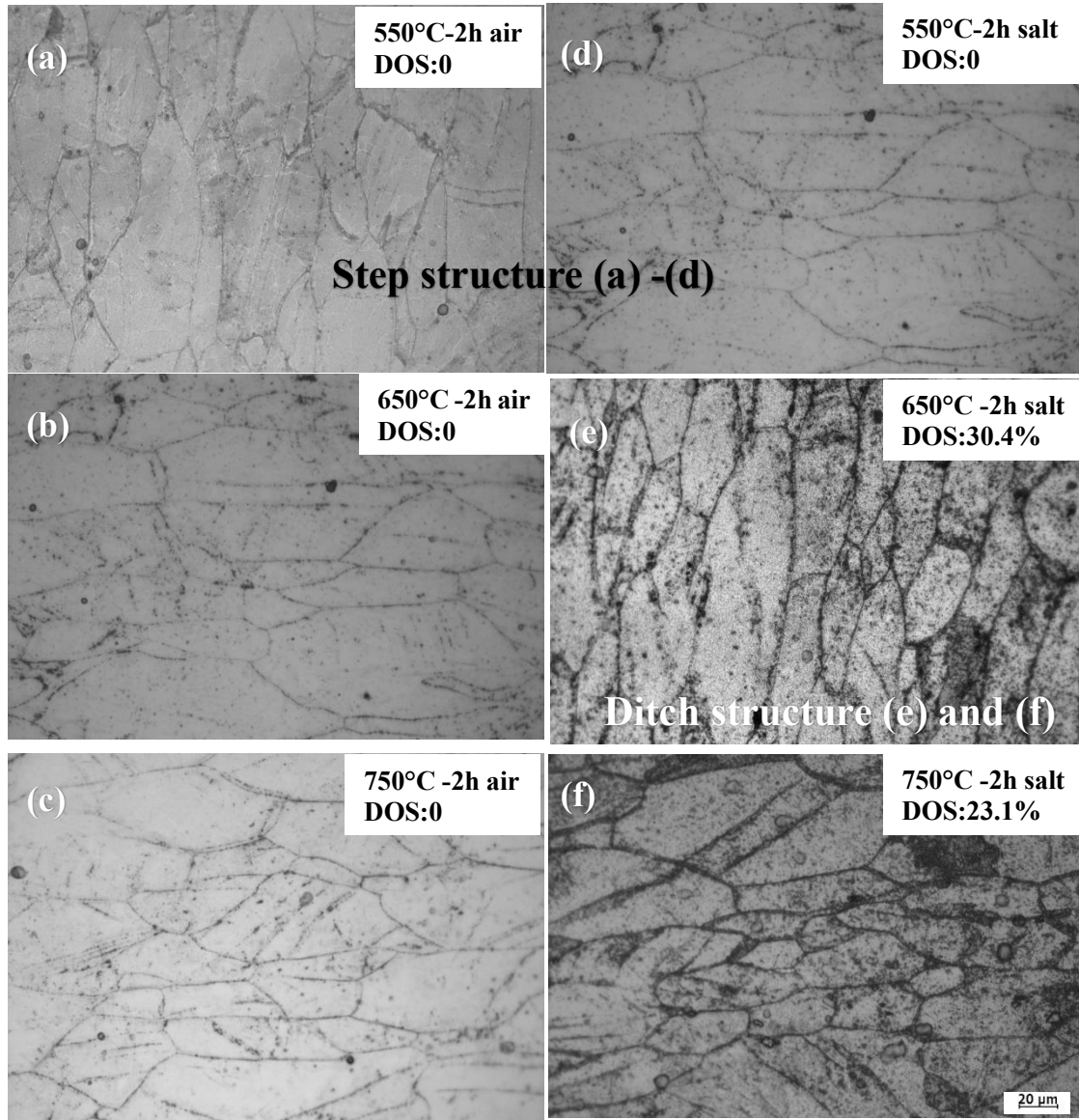


Figure 13 Oxalic etching microstructures for IN 625 treated by (a) 550°C for 2h in air; (b) 650°C for 2h in air; (c) 750°C for 2h in air; (d) 550°C for 2h in molten salt; (e) 650°C for 2h in molten salt; (f) 750°C for 2h in molten salt ,respectively.

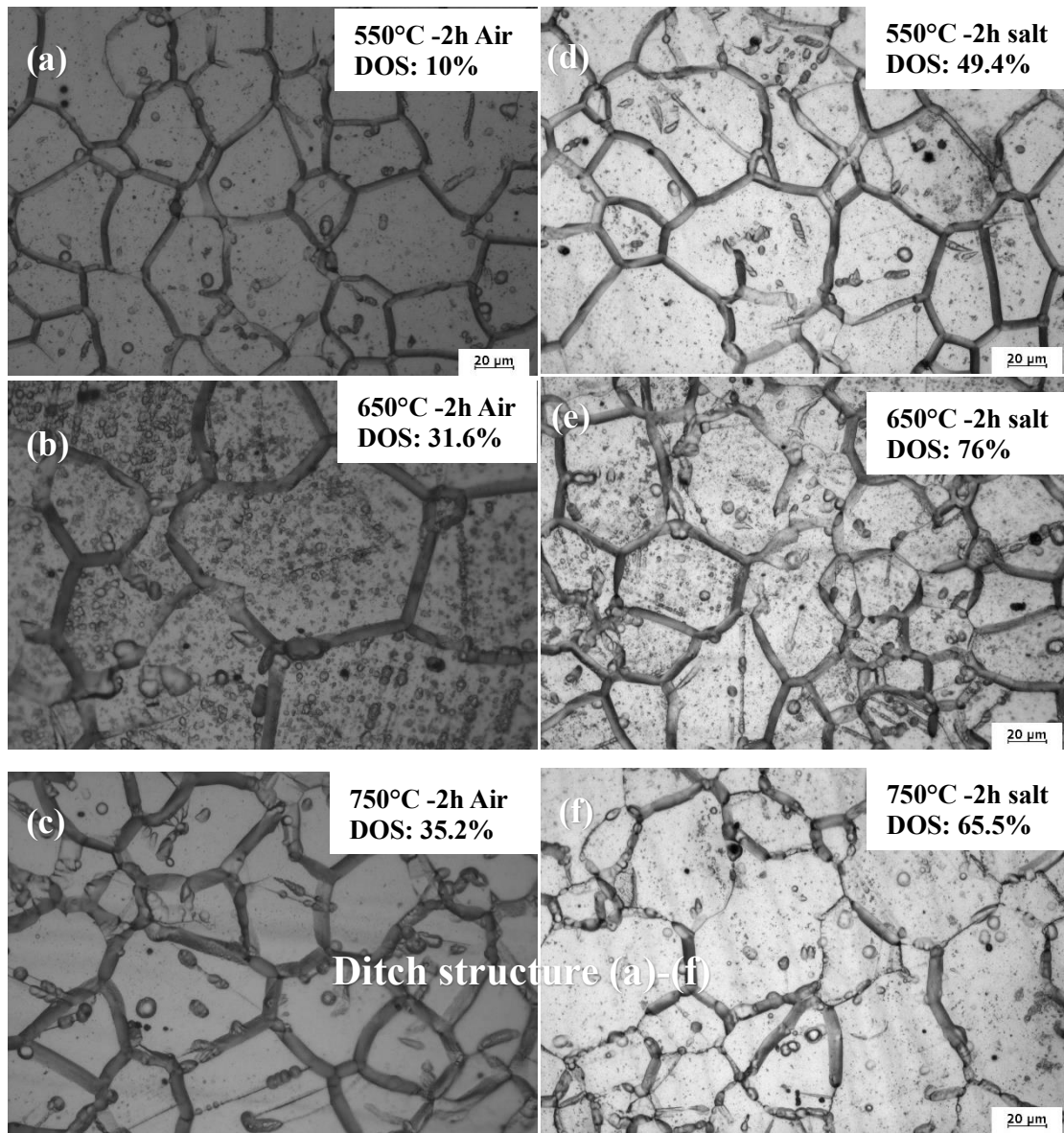


Figure 14 Oxalic etching microstructures for In 825 treated by (a) 550°C for 2 h in air; (b) 650°C for 2 h in air; (c) 750°C for 2 h in air; (d) 550°C for 2 h in molten salt; (e) 650°C for 2 h in molten salt; (f) 750°C for 2 h in molten salt, respectively.

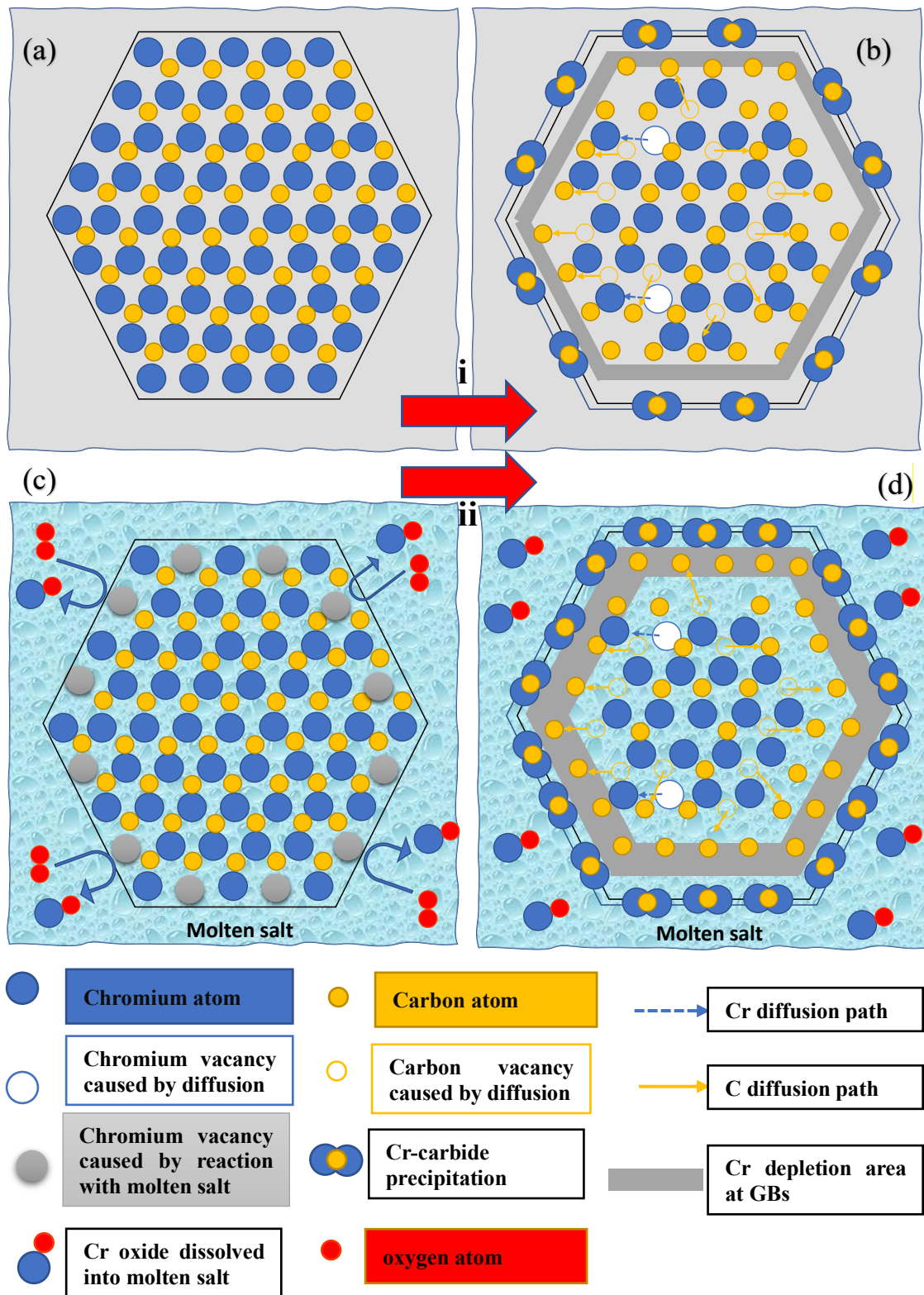


Figure 15 Schematic of sensitization mechanism on the surface of stainless steels/Ni-based alloys (a) and (b) in air, (c) and (d) in molten salts.

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