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"Thermal Barrier Coatings for Gas-Turbine Engine Applications-A Review"

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ABSTRACT

Thousands of possible types of coatings have been used in the protection and lubrication and thermal insulation of various structural engineering components from corrosion, wear and erosion. Thermal barrier coatings (TBCs) are one of the most difficult structures and must work in the most challenging aircraft and industrial gas turbine motors high-temperature environments. TBCs, which consist of multidimensional metal and ceramics, isolated turbine and hot gas stream turbine engine parts and enhance the sustainability and energy efficiency of these engines. Enhancing TBCs would require better understanding of the dynamic structural changes and the features that emerge under operating conditions resulting in their failure. In this article, the different thermal barrier coatings on blades increase the life of the engine components.

Introduction:

The gas temperature of a turbine cannot available bandwidth be increased because the melting paths of the super alloys used in the construction of the turbine are limited. These super alloys have melting paths from 1230⁰C to 1315⁰C. The components are refreshed with compressor releasing air to prevent failure by crepes, oxidation, thermal fatigue or even fusion. However, too much cooling decreases the gas turbine's performance. To increase the thermal efficiency of a gas turbine by increasing the gas temperature or limiting refreshing air, turbine components are coated with thermally insulating layers which maintain a lower temperature level of the components. Thermal barrier coatings (TBC's) are these temperature surfaces. TBC consists of a ceramic top coating of less than 2Wm⁻¹K⁻¹ with poor thermal

conductivity and a metal bond coat.

TBCs have been used for 20 years primarily in gas turbines, both in stationary gas turbine and in jet engines. The covered sections are the combustion rooms and the liner and vanes for combustion. In rocket engines, where some parts are coated with thermally separating surfaces, a new application can be found of TBCs.

In addition to increasing thermal efficiency and minimising cooling, the implementation of TBC has two additional benefits. The turbine materials lower their thermal loading and thermal fatigue, which can result in longer service life or less costly application of the material. The TBC is also safe against corrosion and oxidation of the super alloy. Thus, by using TBC, a wide variety of fuels may be used. This is especially important for stationary gas turbines, where heavy fuels that can create many corrosive combustion products which be used instead of jet fuel.

THERMAL BARRIR COATINGS (TBC) [1]

Generally speaking, TBCs are an yttria stabilized zirconia (YSZ) cover mounted on an alloy-resistant bonding alloy first used on a nickel-based alloy composition (Figure1). In diesel engines applications where temperatures are typically lower, the YSZ coating is used directly to the alloy. There are two main forms of coating used. The coatings can be used in relatively small components including blades and vanes for the vapour processing of electron-beam turbines (EB-PVD). In general, the layers are applied via plasma screwing to large composites, such as combustion chambers, pallets and stationary turbine power generators (PS). The choice of materials and production is mature technology of materials in many respects. As their capacities increase, new TBC systems are becoming increasingly evident for next-generation turbines. To pave the way for future progress, we first investigated the materials range in current YSZ coatings, some new insights into the failure of YSZ lacquers and then explored approaches for developing next generation TB CT systems.

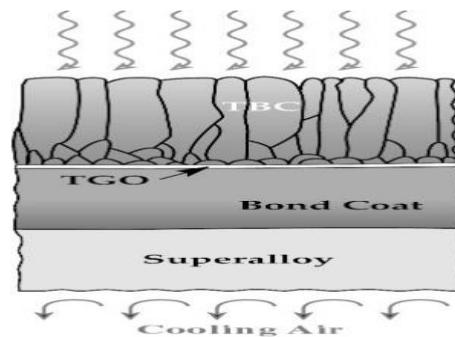


Figure1. Schematic illustration of a TBC and the associated bond-coat on a superalloy in a thermal gradient.[1]

PRINCIPAL REQUIREMENTS OF A THERMAL BARRIER COATING

The main requirement of a TBC is for turbine designers to have a limited thermal conductivity and ideally low density to reduce centrifugal loads for rotating

components. This means three additional specifications at the materials design stage. Firstly, the material needs to respect strain in order to withstand thermal expansion distortions of the substrate and the thermal cycling underlying alloy. The usage cycle, both maximum temperature and tempering cycles, obviously varies between aircraft and turbines, but the coating can nevertheless satisfy the main thermal cycling strains. The need to remain compliant with the strains is demonstrated in Figure 3 where zirconia, alumina and a variety of alloys, including nickel-based superalloys, are thermally cross-plotted. If strain compliance is absent, for example, the large elastic difference will cause very large pressure and spontaneous failure to cool off due to the decreased elastic modulus. Secondly, the coating material must be thermodynamically compatible with the oxide, typically aluminium oxide, formed at high temperatures of the bond-coat alloy. Thirdly, with the on-going search for higher-temperature engines and with growing difficulties in increasing metal temperatures, designers are increasingly likely to pursue "prime-sensitive," namely coatings which can be used to make sure they do not break apart. The main thermal reliant are required to stop the metal's temperature reaching its optimum temperature much like the tiles in the space shuttle prevent visibility of the underlying aluminium aircraft at temperatures above its re-entry melting temperature. As aircraft motors are premium in weight, thin layers with the smallest heat conductivity possible are important. On the other hand, a desired temperature drop can be achieved in stationary ground-based engines with less consideration of weight simply by increasing TBC thickness. In operation, the thickness of the TBC is normally variable from place to place in both engine types to provide the desired thermal insulation. Erosion of both ingested particles, including sand, from the operating environment and particles that come loose from the degrading combustion liner is a continuing concern, especially when the particles are big enough to cause impact damage. In some occasions, inborn fine particles, mostly stainless steel and sand, mix into the layer as a moisture silicate and may weaken the layer. These silicates are also called CMAS, usually forms of Si-Al-Mg-Ca oxides which are the main elements of sand. A recent recognised requirement that many materials in gas turbines be subjected to high temperatures is long-term steam stability. This is partially a result of water generation during combustion but it benefits from the use of steam injecting to increase the performance of turbines in a variety of designs. Nothing is known about the influence on turbine materials of long-term exposure to steam. However, the studies have shown that certain silicon-based compounds, including SiC, are unstable for the formation of volatile SiO. As shown by the thickening of the components over long operating periods the substance can be slowly removed. This phenomenon of active oxidation and evaporation prohibits the use of silicon compounds in coatings, unless otherwise covered. The effects of corrosion, especially in airborne species and those such as sulphur and vanadium, in the fuel itself are more difficult to monitor. Most soil-based natural gas turbines,

though the use of alternative fuels, such as coal-gas, is becoming more and more costly. Just now have their implications for coatings been investigated. Their effects are being studied.

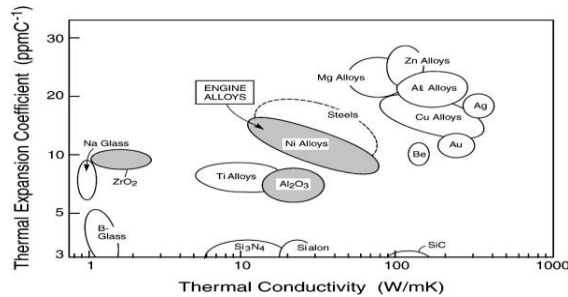


Figure 2 The thermal expansion coefficients and thermal conductivity of a range of materials illustrating the differences in thermal expansion and conductivity of the principal components in TBC systems.[1]

METHODS OF THERMAL BARRIER COATINGS [2]

TBC's are applied in diesel engines, with column crowns and valves being coated, besides effective use in gas turbines. In addition, the temperature can be increased and the cooling rate decreased so that the performance is increased.

Plasma can be defined as a partially or fully oxidised gas with approximately equal number of particles charged positive and negatively. Some scientists have named plasma the "fourth state" because plasma is neither gas nor liquid, but it does not have the same properties as gases and liquids.

Two types of plasma emerge: high temperatures and low temperatures. Lightning is a clear example of the natural high-temperature plasma. This form of plasma can be produced artificially using a high voltage high-temperature arc that would be the basis for the corona discharge process and the vaporisation plasma torch.

Ionized gases are oxidized gases produced at pressures of between 0.1 and 2 torr., which are used in the modification of the surfaces and organic cleaning. These kinds of plasmas operate in a vacuum chamber in which atmospheric gases are normally evacuated to 0.1 torr. Low pressures allow for an accelerated electron and ion relatively long free path. Since there are ions and neutral particles with or close to ambient temperatures and the long free path of electrons at high temperature or high electron-volt levels, the reaction is relatively low at this pressure.

Plasma jet generation:

- Direct current (DC plasma), where the energy is transferred to the plasma jet by a direct current, high-power electric arc
- Induction plasma or RF plasma, where the energy is transferred by induction from a coil around the plasma jet, through which an alternating, radio-frequency current passes

Plasma-forming medium:

- Gas-stabilized plasma (GSP), where the plasma forms from a gas; typically argon, hydrogen, helium or their mixtures
- Water-stabilized plasma (WSP), where plasma forms from water (through evaporation, dissociation and ionization) or other suitable liquid
- Hybrid plasma - with combined gas and liquid stabilization, typically argon and water

Spraying environment:

- Air plasma spraying (APS), performed in the ambient air
- Controlled atmosphere plasma spraying (CAPS), usually performed in a closed chamber, either filled with inert gas or evacuated
- Variations of CAPS: high-pressure plasma spraying (HPPS), low-pressure plasma spraying (LPPS), extreme case of which is vacuum plasma spraying (VPS, see below)
- Underwater plasma spraying

Another variation consists of having a liquid feedstock instead of a solid powder for melt, this technique is known as Solution precursor plasma spray.

Plasma spray process:

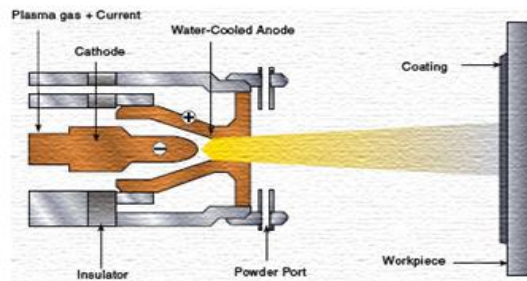


Figure3. Air plasma spray process

A specified material (in powder form), where the temperature is about 10,000K, is supplied to the plasma jet spray stream. The material is then melted and propelled into the ready-mixture (Super Alloy), which forms a state-of-the-art shield.

Super alloy is relatively cool because energy is required to melt the material. Plasma spray is used to manufacture highly advanced surface coatings to avoid wear, corrosion, degradation, heat. It also can alter the surface appearance and electrical or mechanical characteristics, replace worn-out materials and more. In addition, plasma coatings are added when a coating is required to withstand a tough chemical or to wear conditions and to adjust surface characteristics for non-stick or traction protection.

Thermal Barrier Coating:

Another prominent application is "Thermal barrier coatings" produced from plasma, that sprays different types of ceramic materials, such as zirconia for heat protection and oxidation. Thermal barrier coating, as shown in Fig.4, consists of two layers. A metallic first layer is a binding coat, which has the function of shielding the raw material from oxidation and corrosion. In the second layer is a ceramic oxide

layer glued or connected to the super alloy by means of a metallic bond coat. Zirconia oxide (ZrO_2) and the yttrium oxide are the widely used oxides (Y_2O_3). The metal bond coat is a resistant oxidation/hot corrosion layer. The bond coat is empirically represented as MCrAlY alloy.

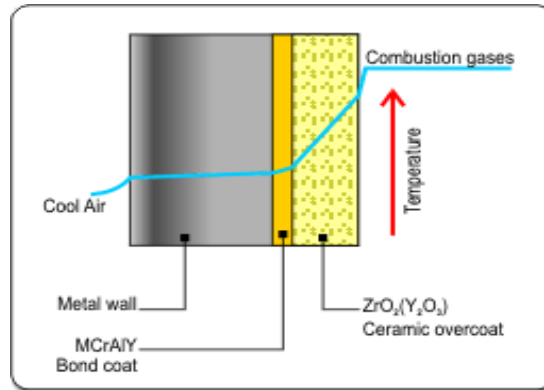


Figure 4. Thermal Barrier Coating

Bond coat:

The MCrAlY bond coat is deposited by air, low pressure or vacuum plasma spraying (APS, LPPS or VPS). More recently, Air Plasma Spray process (APS) has been used for the bond coat. The bond coat is required to improve top coat adhesion by mechanical interlocking and to prevent or delay oxidation of the substrate material by forming a dense oxide layer that acts as an oxygen diffusion barrier.

GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THERMAL BARRIER

Usually, the TBC coverings are constructed of four layers (Figure 2):

Inner ceramics region for low thermal conductivity. ZrO_2 oxide is in most instances strengthening with a Y_2O_3 (YSZ) content with one of the lowest high-temperature thermal conductivity values of $2.3 \text{ Wm}^{-1}\text{K}^{-1}$ at 1000°C at a 100% density of thermal expansion and $11 \cdot 10^{-6} \text{ }^\circ\text{C}^{-1}$ at a thermal stage, which allows for the reduction of thermal stress [3]. Normal in the range $250\text{-}375 \mu\text{m}$ thickness of an external ceramic layer [4]. Bond coat type Ni (Co) CrAlY or spreadsheet type (Ni,Pt)Al in the range $75\text{-}125 \mu\text{m}$. Typically for ceramic materials, the small benefit of thermal conduction decreases the temperature in a joint zone with a coat material which is responsible for oxidation strength and hot corrosion, an effect which is high aluminium and chrome content. A bonding layer should also have low susceptibility to the production of fragile phases and a high resistance to diffusion of layer and substrate alloy components.

Barrier oxide layer, which is formed on a surface area between a ceramic outer layer and the bonding coat, as an effect of oxidation of the bond coat during oxidation or thermal shocks due to the temperature increase TGO. Its role is to prevent a bond coat oxidation process. It is made primarily from the Al_2O_3 oxide, which is a consequence of an oxygen dissemination, but it is not certain if the oxygen is derived

from the air or from the YSZ disintegration and out-of-core aluminum dissemination at ambient temperature.

Nickel-based superalloys are typically substrate materials, or probably cobalt content. Steel components can also be applied in a Ti-Al framework, titanium alloy and alloy matrix in a matrix of intermetallic levels.2. Scheme of barrier layer coating construction and function for individual sub-layers [5]

Materials	Coating	Function	
ZrO ₂ + (6-8%)Y ₂ O ₃	Ceramic top coat	Thermal insulation	TBC
Al ₂ O ₃	TGO	Oxidation barrier	
MCrAlY (20%Cr-12%Al) or Ni-aluminides	Bond coat	Bonding of TBC, oxidation protection	
Ni superalloys (8%Cr-5%Al)	Substrate	Thermo-mechanical loading	

Fig.5. Scheme of coating construction of barrier layers and a role of individual sub-layers [5].

The surfaces of the TBC are often generated using the APS (Air Plasma Spray) Thermal Plasma spray process, at the Low Pressure Plasma Spray (LPPS) or EB-PVD (Electron Beam Physical Vapour Deposition). Barrier coatings are produced with the use of plasma pistols and spinning blades using the EB-PVD technology on elements of a combustion chamber and guiding blades of a turbine. Appliance with the EB-PVD method allowed the structure of the pillar to become 10 times longer than the best TBC layers in terms of the cyclic temperature changes [6]. Entire thermal barrier cover characterisation of the layers and degrading mechanisms of these layers often includes a detailed explanation, including in particular the bonded coat and the ceramic outer layer, of the characteristics, microstructures and the role of individual components. This section includes thorough conclusions and internal studies so much that the reader will replicate these works if the findings are verified. Ultrafine particulate borders, cereal boundaries and porosity are due to increased resistantness and lower transmission compared to CVD films. [10].

The microstructure and durability of a thermal barrier coating (TBC) produced by the thermal spray method have been characterized. Upon exposure, the bond coat chemistry and microstructure change by inter-diffusion with the substrate and upon thickening of the thermally grown oxide (TGO). A wedge impression test, in conjunction with observations by scanning electron microscopy, has been used to probe the failure mechanisms. At short exposure times, when the TGO thickness is less than about 5 μm , the growth of the TGO does not affect the crack patterns in the

TBC and delamination induced by wedge impression propagate within the TBC about $30\ \mu\text{m}$ from the interface. An amorphous phase at the splat interfaces promotes this failure mode. As the thickness of TGO increases during exposure, cracks form in the TBC around imperfections at the interface. Moreover, induced delamination will develop a trajectory close to the interface, propagating not only through the TBC but also within the TGO and along the interfaces. A scaling result based on the misfit around imperfections caused by TGO growth has been used to rationalize the critical TGO thickness when the TBC fails [7].

The SPPS solution provides the prospect of highly sustainable thermal barrier coatings (TBCs) of low thermal conductivity. A Taguchi experiment design has been used in this study to optimise the SPPS process. The spall life of SPPS TBCs on a Ni-base super-alloy substrate covered with MCrAlY was demonstrated to be 2,5 times as that of a conventional plasma TBC sprayed in the same suspension and bonding coat under optimised processing conditions. The superior durability of the SPPS TBCs is associated with their new microstructures, i) a ceramic matrix with porosity micrometre and nanometre, ii) very fine flats with diameters of 0.5 to $5\ \mu\text{m}$, iii) through-dense cracks, and, ii) ceramic improves bond adhesion. The SPPS TBCs are superior durability. SPPS TBCs are broken inside the ceramic top layer near the ceramic/bond layer interface. Humps spallation is the mode of failure observed for all samples tested. The SPPS process has also been demonstrated to deposit thick ($>2\ \text{mm}$) and durable TBCs [8]. For use as materials for thermal barrier coatings at operating temperatures $>1300^\circ\text{C}$, zirconates with high melting points were examined. Powder from SrZrO_3 , BaZrO_3 and $\text{La}_2\text{Zr}_2\text{O}_7$ were synthesised and synthesised into variously porous compacts. The findings showed that the investigated products were promisingly low-sintering. These dense materials have determined their thermal properties. Thermal expansion coefficients of SrZrO_3 and BaZrO_3 were significantly less than the Y_2O_3 -stabilized ZrO_2 (YSZ); they were equivalent or considerably higher than the YSZ thermal expansion coefficients. The $\text{La}_2\text{Zr}_2\text{O}_7$ was conductivity lower thermally. After the phase transition at temperatures between 700° and 800°C , SrZrO_3 was not suitable in application as a thermal barrier covering. Dense BaZrO_3 and $\text{La}_2\text{Zr}_2\text{O}_7$ samples showed mechanical properties (dureness, tough fracture and modulus of Young) by indentation techniques, and lower hardness and modulus of Young than YSZ. Powders BaZrO_3 and $\text{La}_2\text{Zr}_2\text{O}_7$ have been optimised to be used as plasma pulverisers. Coatings were formulated and characterized with plasma spray. A major attack on the BaZrO_3 coating with the loss of Boa demonstrated the thermal cycling with 1200°C gas burner. The $\text{La}_2\text{Zr}_2\text{O}_7$ coating showed, on the other hand, excellent stability in thermal and thermal shock compatibility [9]. With an affordable plasma spray solution precursor that has the capacity to manufacture high-throughput coats as well as microstructures [10] ZnO coatings with very good electrical and optical properties have been successfully deposited. In_2O_3 single crystals and nanostructured coatings were successfully

developed with precursors based on InCl_3 using calcination technology and DC plasma spraying techniques. Alternatively, sensor applications could occur through In_2O_3 coatings with large porosity surfaces, ultra-fine particulate boundary and nanostructured materials [11]

Zirconia (YPSZ) is the most advanced method for thermal barrier coatings currently intended for use on hot turbo engine components. While it is now known for its great thermo-mechanical resistance in high temperatures, this efficiency is not completely understood to apply to the microstructure of such complex coatings. Air plasma sprays with the NiCrAlY low-pressure plasma bond coat on a casting alloy substrate using transmitting electron microscopy on thin, electron and x-ray diffraction and scanning electric microscopy have been performed to make a first step towards this understanding. After air clothing at 1100°C , 1200°C and 1400°C , evolution of the coated microstructure was examined. The creation of the ceramic-bond coat interface microstructure and the Al_2O_3 scale that develops in oxidation conditions were given special attention. This was done in particular. The as-spray PSZ consists mainly of columnary, micro-spray, high grain, metastable, tetragonal (t'), formed by a quick diffusion and less transformation during plasma spraying. Grain growth and polygonization take place at annealing and new fine micro ways appear: chevron-like elongated precipitation and a tweed-like, very fine microstructure (t''). The martensitic transformation of this process into a single-clinic is, however, confined by the presence of the non-transformable matrix around the precipitate, which is very low in yttrium at 1400°C . A dense Al_2O_3 scale is formed at the interface between the ceramic bond cover and the ceramic. These findings provide valuable insight into the evolution of temperature of these coatings. In future, the relationship between the temperature, phase contents (t') and coating durability should be more accurately formulated[12].

The surface morphology described is two plasma yttrium stabilised zirconia coatings. The structures differ greatly because the density of the coating is regulated, and a macro crack pattern that segments the structure is created in one case. Thermal properties were measured between room temperatures of 1200°C , including thermal expansion, thermal diffusion and specific heat. From these properties, thermal conductivity has been determined. The first heating cycle showed a slight increase in thermal conductivity and this effect was investigated with the crystal structure. [13].

MATERIALS DESIGN OF FUTURE THERMAL BARRIER COATINGS

Gas turbine engines used for aircraft and power generation work at extremely high temperatures to maximise energy efficiency well beyond the melting point of the metal alloys from which they are produced. This is partly carried out through the deposition, up to around 40 000 hours prior to failure, of a multi-component heat

barrier (TBC). Mechanisms for failing to understand will help to design techniques for circumvention. The findings from the quantum-mechanical computation were presented by S.M., Gupta et al. [14] for the test of impurities which damage TBCs and TM additives which make TBCs more robust. They have found a variety of positions, such as HF & Y additives, performed by Pt and early TMs to prolong TBCs' lives. In particular, Fundamental understanding of the essence of the bonding produced by such additives and its effect on TBCs' high-temperature production led to the development of principles that can be used to develop materials for even better vehicles.

Nicholls et al,[15] briefly reviews the advantages of the thermal barrier coating. They analysed the thermal and mechanical properties of candidate Zirconia alloys critically. Since the coatings now in use consist of a tetragonal stage, the long-term stability of the phase structure and the avoidance of the nonclinical stage as well as the long-term effect of ageing on thermal properties have been dealt with. The relation between microstructure and plasma coating properties was investigated.

An atmosphere and temperature-controlled plasma pulverisation DSC/TGA and XRD studies were carried out in which Zirconia TBC (thermal barrier coatings) was Stabilized, Ytria thermal stability was achieved. As-sprayed coats of zirconia were extremely distorted and under-stoichiometric. The thermal analysis showed that various endogenous and exothermic phenomena occur with ceramic heating. TGA demonstrated strong weight gains in the oxygen recovery process, while DSC also observed structural relief and XRD improvements. [16].

A 0.127 mm TBC protected blade of the jet engine which is stated by Miller on the decrease in air temperature. The temperature reduction due to TBC of the part is 1890C. The part temperature decrease to 1,330C if the cooling air flow is decreased to 50% by its original value. [17].

Kvernes reports that the thermal efficiency of diesel engines with heat-resistant coatings will increase to 48 percent. However, thermal barriers still exist in the experimental process of application in diesel engines [18].

The solution precursor plasma spray technique could produce cobalt ferrite splats. The topography investigation revealed unmolten, partially molten, and completely molten splats. It was shown that the use of chelating agents strongly affected the degree of splashing and equivalent diameter of the splats; however, chelating agents influenced the phase composition of cobalt ferrite splats and the highest percentage of cobalt ferrite (CoFe_2O_4) splats were observed with using CA [19]. Deposition of pure spinel phase, photocatalytic zinc ferrite films on SS-304 substrates by solution precursor plasma spraying (SPPS) has been demonstrated for the first time. The highly porous nature of the films favored its photocatalytic performance as indicated by methylene blue de-coloration under solar radiation. These immobilized films display good potential for visible light photocatalytic applications [20].

Experience with current TBC systems provides a number of directions for the

materials selection and design of future coatings. Having to operate at higher temperatures, the kinetics of microstructural evolution of coatings as well as the system dynamics will become even more important than they are today. Although there is some prospect of having a no-bond-coat system by appropriately surface alloying the superalloy components prior to TBC deposition, it is likely that the performance of TBCs will remain limited by the distortions of the bond-coat that develop during exposure and thermal cycling. There is a clear need for an inter diffusion barrier layer between the bond-coat and the superalloy to limit the inward diffusion of aluminum from the bond-coat into the superalloy and the outward diffusion of nickel and other elements, such as W, Ta, into the bond-coat/oxide interface.

There is also increasing evidence that when the bond-coat/TGO morphological instabilities on thermal cycling are suppressed, the life of a coating becomes limited by the thickness of the thermally grown oxide. The idea that failure will occur when the thermally grown oxide reaches a critical thickness has been current in the industrial community for several years. Whereas the critical thickness as a fracture mechanics criterion has been developed to describe failure of films stressed by a variety of mechanisms, ranging from lattice coherency to thermal expansion mismatch, the pertinent parameters to describe the failure of TBCs have yet to be fully developed and quantified. Nevertheless, the idea that there may be a maximum critical thickness has motivated TBC processing and the choice of bond-coat alloys that minimize the thickening rate of the TGO on oxidation.

Thus, impurities introduced during the preparation of Pt Ni Al bond-coats prior to EB deposition have been found to enhance the growth rate of the TGO. Similarly, maximizing the grain size of the TGO is important to minimize its thickening rate. At this stage, with the recent focus on developing coatings with lower thermal conductivity than that of YSZ, it is difficult to anticipate which material, if any, will replace YSZ in future coating systems. Co-stabilized YSZ, simultaneously doped with several different rare-earth ions, has been shown to have significantly lower thermal conductivity than 7YSZ [21]. However, although it is believed that they are thermodynamically compatible with an alumina TGO, all the co-stabilized coatings made to date, whether by EB or PS, have exhibited thermal cycle lives inferior to that of 7YSZ. The purpose 7YSZ is still unsolved and will clearly be at the centre of much study in future years for the longer life of all alternative concentrations of rare-earth doping. The zirconates of pyrochlore, like $Gd_2Zr_2O_7$ and $Sm_2Zr_2O_7$, are also lower thermal conductivity than YSZ and have an extra benefit that both existing EB technology and PS can provide them. They are therefore thermodynamically incompatible with alumina and should most possibly be used for long-term destabilisation with the intervening YSZ sheet. Whatever material is chosen for use in future TBC systems as the thermally insulating process, it may also require some kind of sensor use power. Although an active turbine and a combustor is extremely

aggressive, some kind of sensing is highly desirable though rudimentary. A variety of theories have been suggested based on the introduction of fluorescent dopant ions. The calculation of the coating temperature, for example, has been proposed by incorporating a tiny rarity of an Earth into YSZ and the application of Luminescence Life as a locale temperature measurement. Another idea is to create a layer covering by another luminescent ion in each layer and to monitor the wear of the sheet, as successive layers are eroded by tracking light changes. Fortunately, these doping methods are consistent with the technique of producing co-stabilized YSZ coatings and are also compatible with pyrochlore zirconate crystal chemistry. When combined with a need to minimize radiative heat transfer it is likely that the present monolithic YSZ coating will be replaced by a highly structured coating having the form shown in Figure 5.

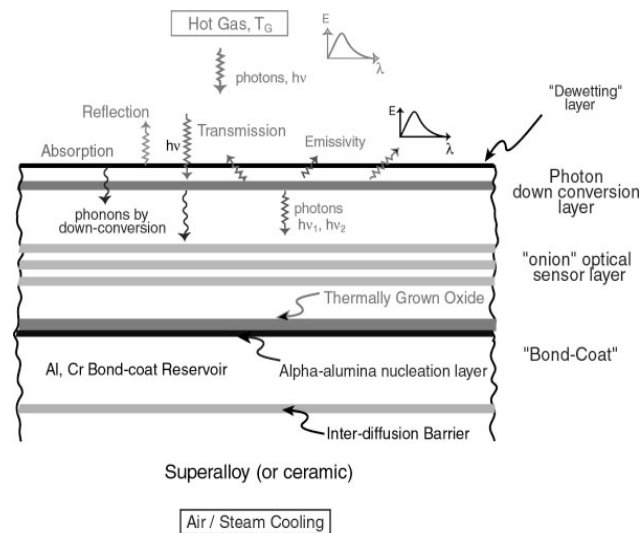


Fig5. Schematic illustration of a possible future multifunctional TBC embodying many of the features designed to maximize life at elevated temperatures, reduce radioactive heat transport, and provide some sensor capabilities.

CONCLUSIONS

TBCs have been commonly used in gas turbines, both stationary and jet turbines, for 20 years. Combustion chambers and combustion liners and vanes are protected by parts. The heat exchangers rocket motor nozzles, exhaust collectors, jet engine parts and nuclear energy components can also be used for thermal-barrier coatings on furnace components, heat processing equipment. The uncoated blades were used to drive the Space Shuttle Main Engine's high-pressure hydrogen turbo pump. The efficiency of TBC turbine and diesel engines and other heat engines have greatly improved with a thorough study of coating stresses and regulated process. Improved TBC control and development processing is important. Further studies are required in order to obtain thermal barrier coating which is even more tolerant to high temperature and thermal stresses in the mechanisms of adherence control and

degradation of the coating in clean and dirty environments, the composition and structure effects of the coating properties and the correlating model tests of engine. Future trends can be concentrated by modelling the plasma spray process: expansions of application areas in jet engines, alternative allocations, application procedures and optimization techniques of plasma scrap sheets.

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