

1 *Review*

2 **Porosity and Its Significance in Plasma Sprayed** 3 **Coating: A Review**

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13 **Abstract:** Porosity in plasma sprayed coatings is vital for most engineering applications. It is either
14 advantageous or disadvantageous depending on the functionality of the coating and the immediate
15 working environment. Consequently, the formation mechanisms and development of porosity has
16 been extensively explored to find out modes of controlling porosity in plasma sprayed coatings. In
17 this work, a comprehensive review of porosity on plasma sprayed coatings is established. The
18 formation and development of porosity on plasma sprayed coatings are governed by set spraying
19 parameters. Optimized set spraying parameters have been used to achieve the most favorable
20 coatings with minimum defects. Even with the optimized set spraying parameters, defects like
21 porosity still occur. Here, we discuss other ways that can be used to control porosity in plasma
22 sprayed coating with emphasis to atmospheric plasma sprayed chromium oxide coatings.
23 Techniques like multilayer coatings, nanostructured coatings, doping with rare earth elements, laser
24 surface re-melting and a combination of the above methods have been suggested in adjusting
25 porosity. The influences of porosity on properties of plasma sprayed coatings and the measurement
26 methods of porosity have also been reviewed.

27 **Keywords:** porosity; atmospheric plasma spraying; chromium oxide; porosity measurement; multi-
28 layer coatings; nano-coatings

30 **1. Introduction**

31 Plasma spray coating techniques has been widely used in surface engineering to ensure efficient
32 processing and reduced cost of operation and maintenance in many engineering industries. Surface
33 coating is ever increasing in transportation industries (ship building and marine structures,
34 automotive and aeronautical fields), mechanical manufacturing and tooling, chemical processing and
35 biomedical industries etc. Coatings have vital role in engineering by providing protection against
36 wear and reducing friction. They are also used for thermal protection in high temperature
37 environments. Most products are confronted with harsh, corrosive and high temperature
38 environment during their service life[1, 2]. Therefore, it is essential that these coatings are protected
39 from any deterioration to ensure enhanced reliability and uphold superior performance of
40 engineering components. Any flaw on the plasma sprayed coatings is thus abated so that the
41 intended purposes of the coatings are realized. Typically, the intrinsic defects of plasma sprayed
42 coatings, such as pores (porosity), un-molten or partially melted particles and cracks have adverse
43 effects on the mechanical, physical and chemical properties of the coatings. The porosity being one
44 of the features that plasma sprayed coating has, can deteriorate the protective performances of the
45 coatings in harsh working environments, and the set spraying parameters is one of the influencing
46 factors [3]. In this work, porosity development in plasma sprayed coatings and the impacts of varying

47 set spraying parameters on porosity were studied. Characterization and porosity measurement
48 techniques of porosity in coatings have been summarized based on the related literatures. A review
49 of the current processes used in controlling porosity in plasma sprayed coatings have been studied
50 with an aim of coming up with methods to regulate porosity levels on plasma sprayed chromium
51 oxide coatings.

52 2. Applications of plasma spray coatings

53 Plasma sprayed coatings play important roles on the applications of industrial products in harsh
54 environments by increasing the resistances of products to corrosion, oxidation and wear. Plasma
55 sprayed coatings play important roles of protection against corrosion, friction and wear, thermal and
56 oxidation to many industrial products that are used in harsh environmental conditions. During
57 service life, a product can be exposed to a combination of environmental conditions such as abrasive
58 wear combined with high thermal stress as in turbines, corrosive marine environment and high
59 temperatures as in the case of offshore mining. In other cases, corrosive marine environment with
60 biofouling microorganisms for ocean going vessels and offshore platforms and rigs. Also, for oil and
61 gas transportation and power generation plants (geothermal plants) corrosive gases accompanied
62 with high temperature. The products mentioned above require protection to ensure their
63 functionality. The presence of pores on plasma sprayed coatings is inevitable and so its control is
64 necessary depending with the area of product application. The next section outlines engineering
65 fields where plasma sprayed coatings are used.

66 2.1. Applications of plasma spray coatings

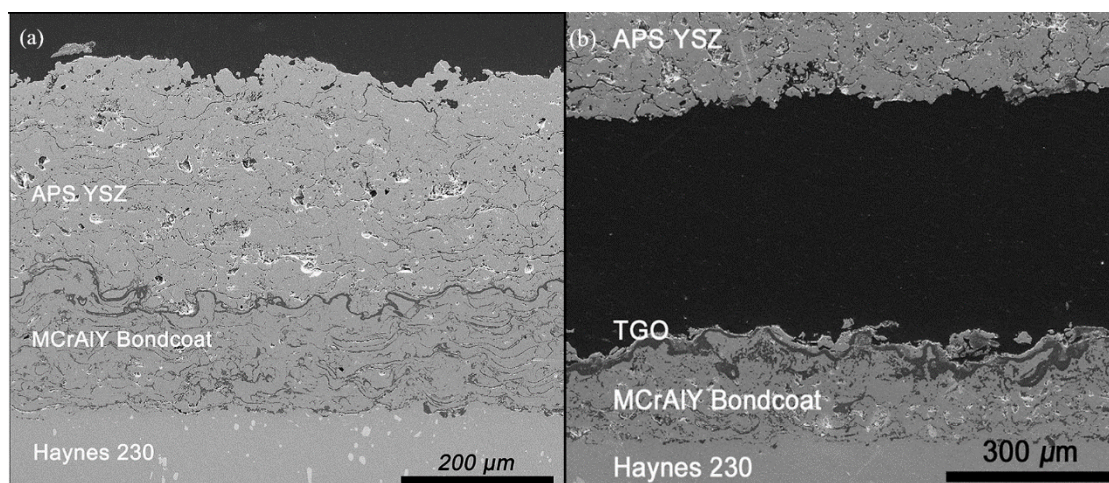
67 Plasma spray coating have been widely used for corrosion and wear protection. The function of
68 the coatings is to protect components surfaces from corrosion and erosion during service life.
69 Corrosion and erosion has led to degradation and eventual total failure of industrial components
70 hence a lot of money lost during repairs and also down times. Each design is usually different
71 depending on the immediate environment where the particular component is used. In the design, the
72 thickness of the coating, the surface defects and the feedstock will determine the efficiency of
73 protection. Corrosion protection can be achieved by two kinds of designs, sacrificial coating and non-
74 sacrificial coatings. In both cases, atmospheric plasma spraying has be used [4]. For sacrificial coating,
75 the amount of porosity in the coating does not affect the functionality of the base metal. Any corrosion
76 activities will occur on the metal being sacrificed since such coatings must have a cathodic behaviour
77 comparatively to the ions of the metal to be protected. For the case of non-sacrificial coating, the
78 presence of porosity will affect the base metal especially the interconnected pores. This is remedied
79 by always minimizing porosity in these kinds of coating. Exchange of corrosive media to the base
80 metal is limited by designing a protective bond coat that separates the base metal and the top coat or
81 having a dense protective coat. Moreover, sealing methods can be provided for the coating. This
82 ensures that any pores are filled by a suitable sealant and hence no interaction of corrosive media
83 with the substrate.

84 Plasma spraying coating has also been used for wear protection [5-7]. Wear associated challenges
85 have been minimized by either using sturdy and abrasion resistant alloys or by surface modification
86 via choosing a suitable coating material which is hard enough to resist any further frictional damages
87 and is also relatively cheaper than the high cost wear resistant alloys. It is recommended that low
88 cost metals which possess same mechanical and physical characteristics as the high cost wear
89 resistant counterparts be used with a wear protective coat. hardness and adhesion strength are two
90 vital properties of a coating that need consideration when it comes to wear resistance[8]. Hard
91 ceramic like chromium oxide, does not abrade easily. Moreover, when bonded perfectly onto a
92 substrate the component can have a longer service life.

93 Novel valves for high pressure acid-leach services have been coated with a blend of chromium
94 oxide top and titanium oxide bond coat[9]. The method of spray was APS. The hard chromium oxide
95 surface coating is a good abrasion resistant and for its good tribological behaviour even in high
96 temperature regions and was found to have superior performance on these titanium base metal ball

97 valves in terms of hardness, adhesion on the bond coat and corrosion resistance. Fuel cladding in
98 nuclear power station- against corrosion resistance and neutron irradiation resistance. In their study
99 to improve the safety of nuclear facilities, Wang et al. [10] coated Accident Tolerant Fuel (ATF) using
100 Cr and FeCrAl using APS because of its suitability in high temperature regions to improve oxidation
101 resistance of Zircaloy-4 cladding substrates.

102 Thermal barrier coatings of ceramic (TBCs) can be fabricated by plasma spray technique with
103 the appreciable mechanical property, thermal barrier property and oxidation resistances in high
104 temperature environments. During plasma spraying of the TBCs, several processing steps are usually
105 taken i.e. sprayed metallic bond coating and subsequent sprayed ceramic protective coating, in which
106 metallic bond coating for the good adhesive strength between base materials with coatings and
107 ceramic coating for the protective roles at high temperature as shown in Fig. 1.



108

109 Figure 1 showing the components of TBC (a) before oxidation (b) after oxidation with the inclusion of TBC

110

111 TBCs typically consist of three layers: the metal substrate, metallic bond coat and ceramic
112 topcoat. Fig. 1 shows a SEM images outlining the four constituents of TBCs, before oxidation and
113 after oxidation. An effective TBC should be able to have the following qualities: high melting point,
114 no phase transformation between room temperature and operating temperatures, low thermal
115 conductivity, chemical inertness, similar thermal expansion match with the metallic substrate, good
116 adherence to the substrate and low sintering rate for a porous microstructure [11, 12].

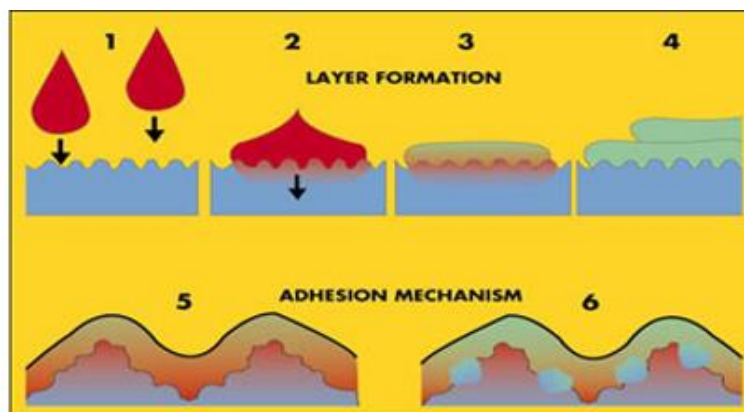
117 TBCs have been widely used in the hot section of aero-turbine engines to protect the base
118 material from severe heat effects or high temperature oxidation [13, 14]. Khan et al. [15] investigated
119 the influence of plasma sprayed on NiCr–Cr₂O₃ and Al₂O₃–40% TiO₂ (A40T) coatings on Inconel
120 617 at elevated temperatures. The resulting coating was found to possess superior resistance to hot
121 corrosion and also the thermal effects on the general material was reduced. Nickel based alloys that
122 are frequently used in gas turbine parts in aeronautical and nuclear industries have been modified
123 by doping with rare-earth elements to improve their functionality in harsh conditions to solve hot
124 erosion/corrosion and thermal fatigue problems. A good example is Nd₂O₃ doped into plasma-
125 sprayed NiCr–Cr₂O₃ composite coating[16]. Also titanium alloys coated by APS have been used in
126 gas turbine components, especially areas that are prone to hot corrosion. A protective thermal coating
127 has been used to reduce chances of oxidation during the service life of these components. For a period
128 of time, plasma sprayed coatings like calcium phosphate ceramics coatings have been used in fields
129 of rehabilitation orthopedics medicines through improving the surface biocompatibility of the
130 feedstock materials like titanium, cobalt and chromium[17]. HA (hydroxyapatite) and double layer
131 HA/Al₂O₃–SiO₂ have also been coated on titanium implants to improve the surface roughness and
132 hydrophilicity of the implants. APS is one of the techniques that has been customarily used to
133 produce such surfaces. It has been studied that the coatings have enhanced biological behaviour
134 without hampering the fundamental quality of the implants. On a broader view, APS has been used
135 for high temperature coatings in metal processing industries, chemical industries, electrical utilities,

136 ceramic and glass manufacturing, aerospace, land based turbines. It has also been used to provide
 137 protection against combined corrosive and erosive wears[18].

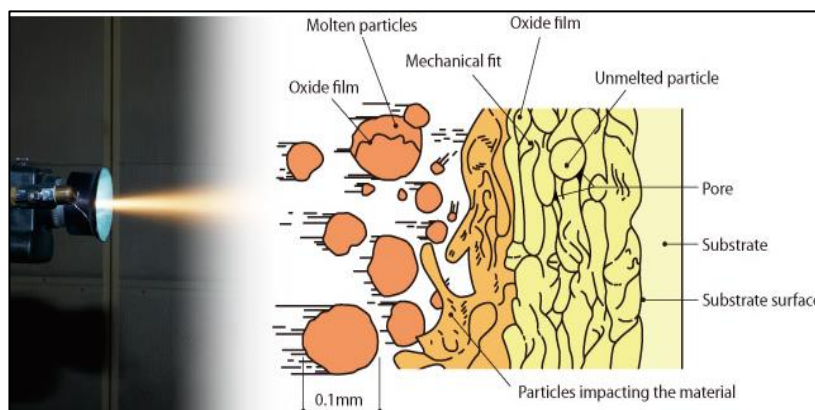
138 3. Porosity in plasma sprayed coating

139 3.1. Formation of porosity in plasma spray coating

140 Plasma spray process (see Fig. 2) involves melting of the feedstock particles at high temperature,
 141 in the presence of a primary gas carrier usually argon or argon/hydrogen mixture, which impel the
 142 molten and semi-molten particles onto the substrate surface. Consequently, layers are formed on top
 143 of the previously molten particles which spread and flatten on the surface. As this process continues
 144 with increasing number of spray passes, a coating is eventually formed. Entrapped air sacks, voids
 145 and unmolten particles leads to various sizes and shapes of pores [19]. This is illustrated in fig. 3. The
 146 porosity in plasma sprayed coating can also result from both mechanical interlocking and diffusion
 147 bonding during spraying process. Interlocking comes to play because of the grit blasted surface. Due
 148 to the difference in nature of the particles from the molten powder and the substrate, bonding is
 149 required to ensure that a firm coat is formed which does not easily experience spallation. During
 150 solidification of the coatings, the pores can be formed by the air sacks and solidification shrinking.
 151 Micro-cracks can also be counted as pores since they also compromise the integrity of the coating in
 152 similar ways [20, 21].
 153



154 Figure 2 Schematics of Coating formation during plasma spray coating: 1. Transport of spraying particles;
 155 2. Impact on the surface of substrate; 3. Thermal transfer from particles to substrate; 4. Solidification and
 156 contraction of particles; 5. Mechanical bond; 6. Local fusion [22]
 157
 158



159 Figure 3 Coating formation by plasma spray [22]
 160

161 3.2. Effects of porosity on the microstructure of a plasma sprayed coating

162 Porosity has direct impact on the plasma sprayed coatings. This can be advantageous if
163 incorporated in the design [20] or deleterious if not [23]. Porosity characteristics such as morphology,
164 pore sizes, pore distributions, microcracks sizes and orientations and lamellar splats are governed by
165 spray process parameters. Furthermore, pore distributions is also be affected by the nature of
166 elements and the bonding mechanisms [24]. Mozhegov et al. [25], Ghasemi and Hamideh [19], and
167 Jamali et al.[26] noted that splats structure and morphology, cracks morphology and size of porosity
168 have a direct effect on adhesion and cohesion strength of plasma sprayed coatings. These factors have
169 a base relation to the coating process parameters which need to be optimized to obtain a coating with
170 desirable qualities. Gas entrapments in plasma sprayed coating influence thermal behaviour in TBC.
171 It was found that nanostructured TBCs had lower diffusivity due to smaller splat sizes and nano-
172 pores existing in this structure compared to the one for conventional TBCs [19]. It has been reported
173 in other literatures [27-31] that the pores in nano-zone retards heat transfer in nanostructured TBC.
174 Porosity in Suspension Plasma Sprayed (SPS) topcoats was found to affect not only the thermal
175 conductivity and strain tolerance but also the mechanical properties such as hardness and toughness
176 of the TBC [32-34].

177 Porosity level in plasma sprayed coatings significantly affects the density of the segmentation
178 cracks [35, 36], it also affects the thermal diffusivity and thermal conductivity [37]. Increasing porosity
179 in TBCs can decrease residual stress from thermal expansion mismatch between the substrate and
180 ceramic[38]. Cernuschi F. et al.[39] argued that thickening of TGO led to crack propagation, which
181 compromised the adhesion bonds between bond coat and the top ceramic coat.

182 3.3. Influences of spray parameters on plasma sprayed coating structure

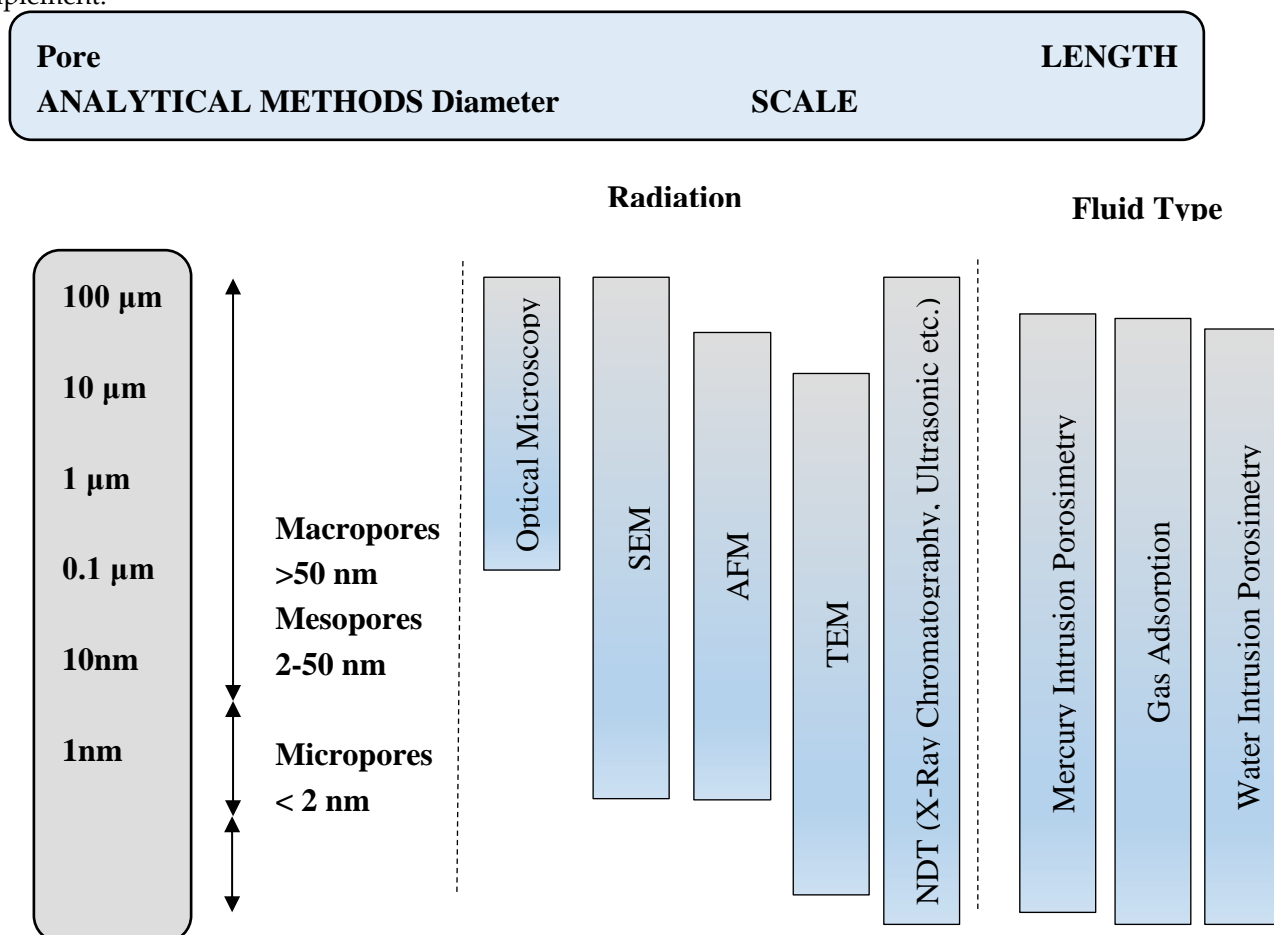
183 Set spraying parameters for instance power, powder feeding rate, gas flow rate and distance
184 between sputtering and base materials have great influences on the microstructure of the plasma
185 sprayed coatings [23]. With increase in spraying power, the coating becomes more compact and the
186 bonding strength also increases up to an optimal power. Nonetheless, too much power caused
187 overheating of the previously deposited coating thereby compromising the quality by the
188 introducing cracks and pores [40]. Critical plasma spray parameters (CPSP) [41, 42] as the quotient
189 of input power (W) to the primary gas flow rate (nLPM) as well as the standoff distance (SOD) has
190 effect on the final microstructure hence the porosity and wear resistance. CPSP and SODs are
191 commonly used to quantify the spray powder temperature within the plasma flame region.

192 Increasing output power increases the plasma jet temperature which ultimately increases
193 particle temperature[43], besides reducing primary gas flow rate increases particle in flight dwell
194 time thereby increasing particle temperature. High particle temperatures ensures that the particles
195 are sufficiently molted for uniform coating[44]. J.L. Sui et al. suggested [45] that the standoff
196 distance directly affects melting of the feedstock particles. Long standoff distance, guarantees
197 complete melting of feedstock hence uniformity in microstructure of the plasma sprayed coatings.
198 Conversely, the already molten particles can re-solidify inflight if the standoff distance is too long.
199 This could lead to non-melted particles being lodged into coating [46]. Shorter SOD occasioned fully
200 molten and semi-molted particles which developed coating which were bimodal in nature[47].
201 Moreover, Y. Chen et al. [48] found out that porosity decreased with the spray angle but increased
202 with the velocity of the gun scanning velocity. From the above, spraying parameters are crucial for
203 the quality of coating in terms of microstructure, physical and mechanical properties of the end result
204 component. Varying any of the plasma spray parameters has an effect on the coating quality and
205 hence the percentage of porosity a coating has [42, 47, 49-54].

206 4. Methods of Measuring Porosity

207 The integrity of any coating can be ascertained by measuring porosity and porosity related
208 features. This is done by considering the following parameters: (a) the percentage porosity (Pm), (b)
209 pore density per unit area (PDm), (c) maximum pore diameter (Dm), (d) Equivalent pore radius (Rm),
210 (e) Pore size and pore classification, (f) Pore analysis. The above constitute a pore system.

211 The models of evaluation and analysis can be broadly classified as the direct and the indirect
 212 methods. In direct method, the samples are physically subjected to the measurement process whereas
 213 in indirect methods, it is via imaging analysis of the sample. Most of the methods portrayed in Fig. 4
 214 can be applied in varying ranges from macro level to nano levels with others overlapping to
 215 complement.



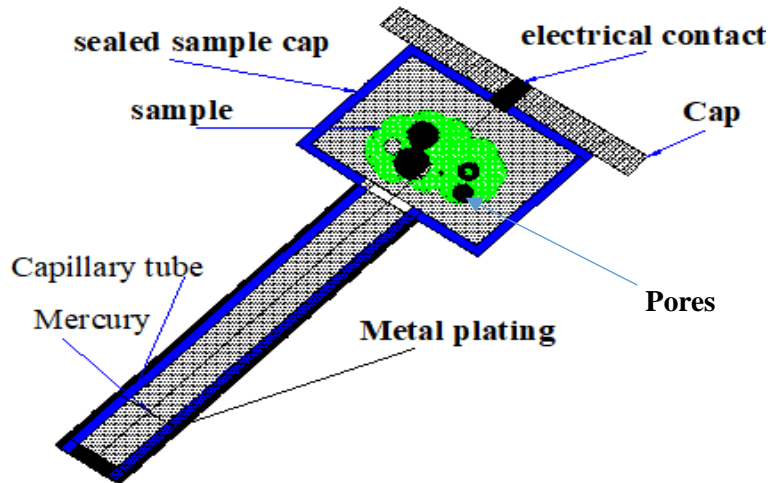
216 Figure 4 Methods used to determine porosity and pore size distribution (PSD), (Modified) [55]
 217
 218
 219

220 Fig. 4 gives a summary of the most common methods for used in characterizing porosity on
 221 materials. They include: image analysis (of micrographs from SEM, AFM and TEM), electrochemical
 222 impedance spectroscopy (EIS), Archimedian method, neutron scattering, nondestructive testing
 223 method, thermoporometry etc. The method chosen depends on availability, its applicability in the
 224 length scale range and the skills. Some need more skill in the analysis than others. In the next section,
 225 several methods are discussed outlining their merits and demerits.

226 4.1. Liquid intrusion

227 4.1.1. Mercury Intrusion Porosimetry

228 Mercury porosimetry can be used both in mesopores and macropores diameter analysis. It has
 229 been used for assessing surface area and particle distribution. Additionally, the information such as
 230 pore shape, network effects, skeletal and bulk densities can be obtained by mercury porosimetry. Fig.
 231 5 shows the cross-sectional view of a mercury penetrometer. This is commonly used for porous
 232 materials. For plasma sprayed coatings and most of the thermal spray coating the principle of use is
 233 the same.



234 Figure 5 Cross-sectional view of a mercury penetrometer

235 The non-wetting liquid (mercury) requires pressure application to get into the pores and voids.
 236 The method can be used to measure pore diameters of up to $0.0070\mu\text{m}$ [55]. Total porosity is
 237 computed by considering the total volume of mercury intruded into the voids in the samples and the
 238 bulk volume of the sample. It is taken as a percentage by the following equation[56].
 239

$$240 \quad \text{Porosity (\%)} = \frac{V_t}{V_b} \times 100 \quad (1)$$

241 Where V_t is the total volume of mercury in the voids and V_b is the bulk volume of the sample.
 242 For volumetric distribution of pores Washburn equation is used. As mercury pressure is increased,
 243 the mercury intrudes into the voids in decreasing order. Hence, if ΔV is the volume intruded
 244 between P and $P + \Delta P$, it will equal the volume of pores with radii between r and $r - \Delta r$ related
 245 to the following Washburn equation below [57, 58]:

$$246 \quad r = \frac{2\sigma\cos\phi}{P} \quad (2)$$

247 Where σ is taken as the surface tension of mercury, usually for pure mercury,
 248 484mN/m and ϕ the contact angle depends on the material used.
 249

250 Since mercury poses health and environmental issues, other intrusive liquids with the can be
 251 used to substitute use mercury. Other safer metals that can be used are Gallium, Indium, Galinstan
 252 (Gallium, Indium and Tin), Wood's metal (Bismuth, Lead, Tin and Cadmium) and Field's metals
 253 (eutectic of Bismuth, Indium and Tin)[59].

254 4.1.2 Water intrusion porosimetry

255 Water intrusion in hydrophobic materials have been suggested. Its use is based on the same
 256 principle as that of mercury intrusion [59, 60]. This method has been reported by various researchers
 257 as a dependable, productive and not time consuming method. The principle is a very simple one,
 258 where samples are submerged in water. If there are pores in the sample, especially the interconnected
 259 or networked pores or microcracks, the sample will act like sponge. As air from the air sacks, pores
 260 or microcracks diffuse out, water will diffuse into the samples causing the weight of the samples to
 261 increase. The more and larger the number of interconnected pores the more the weight gain in the
 262 samples. The weight gain can be taken to be directly proportional to the volume of the pores and
 263 hence the apparent porosity of the samples. Enclosed pores cannot be accounted for through this
 264 method, although the apparent porosity is usually as close to the total porosity as long as the closed
 265 porosity is as small as possible [61].

266 4.2. Nondestructive testing (NDT)

267 Nowadays, NDT methods also have gained ascendancy in evaluating and assessing the extent
 268 of porosity in plasma sprayed coatings. Methods such as magnetic particle testing, dye penetrant and

269 eddy current methods have been used to assess cracks and integrity of materials, especially in the
 270 inspections of materials quality and integrity of structures. The specialized and developed techniques
 271 for example ultrasonic and X-ray testing methods are also in use. Parthasarathi et al. [62] applied X-
 272 ray Computed Tomography (CT) to investigate density and porosity distribution in plasma sprayed
 273 alumina coatings. The method uses the x-ray attenuation coefficients to reconstruct images of an
 274 internal cross section of a sample. The images obtained can be used to analyze pores sizes, pore
 275 shapes and orientations. Table 1 shows the reliability concepts of each NDT method in application
 276 phase. Liquid penetrant is applicable to almost all kinds of engineering materials. It can be used to
 277 detect any surface defects like cracks and pores on the surfaces with limited penetration. It is an
 278 easy less time consuming method, thou limited when it comes to pore depth analysis and evaluation
 279 of pore orientation. Magnetic particle testing is applicable for both surface and subsurface defects
 280 with limited penetration. It is only applicable to ferrous materials. The method cannot be used where
 281 depth sizing and pore orientation is investigated. Eddy current can also be used to check defects on
 282 plasma sprayed coatings. It has an advantage over liquid penetrant and magnetic particle testing
 283 since both pore depth sizing and orientation evaluation can be achieved. It is applicable for
 284 electrically conducting materials. Radiography and Ultrasonic testing methods which have also
 285 developed with advancement in technology, are versatile and are applicable to every kind of
 286 material. The detection capability of defects including pores is volumetric. They are both applicable
 287 for depth sizing and orientation evaluation.

Table 1 Reliability of Non-Destructive Testing Methods

Properties	Liquid penetrant	Magnetic Particle	Eddy current	Radiography	Ultrasonic
Material applicable	ALL			ALL	ALL
Detection capability	Surface	Surface and Sub-surface	Surface and Sub-surface	Volumetric	Volumetric
Depth sizing	NO	NO	YES	YES	YES
Orientation Evaluation	NO	NO	YES	YES	YES

289

290 4.3. Image Analysis -Microscopy

291 Microscopy provides a more dependable examination of pore geometry and morphology in the
 292 mesopores, macropores and nanopores ranges through direct observations of thin cross-section
 293 specimens of solid materials. Optical microscopy can be used when not much intricate information
 294 is required, since the wavelength in optical microscopy has a resolution of 200nm. Scanning Electron
 295 Microscopy (SEM) and Atomic Force Microscopy (AFM) are applicable for micrometric and
 296 nanometer scale defects. The samples are prepared in thin sections which allow for the analysis of
 297 small components at all depths and levels. Where contrast between the metal matrix and pores is a
 298 challenge, various ways are used to improve the contrast such as surface replication, shadowing or
 299 impregnation of pores space with fluorescent resin. Moreover, non-conducting samples need
 300 coating with thin metallic coatings for instance the polymeric membranes[63]. For a comprehensive
 301 characterization of pore geometry, pore morphology and size distribution, quite a large number of
 302 samples and measurements are required. The micrographs obtained are then analyzed using
 303 available commercial imaging software for automatic 2D image processing[57].

304 Image analysis via microscopy provides direct measurement which does not require models or
305 making additional assumption. However, it also has its challenges or demerits; it is a destructive
306 method since the sample has to be either a thin plane cross-section in nature or the application of
307 metallic coating for polymeric membranes is required. Furthermore, the analysis depends entirely on
308 sample preparation and handling which requires skillful workmanship in contrast enhancement
309 (metal coating procedures) and thin sectioning for viewing through microscopy. Another aspect is
310 having the right equipment which will allow the right resolution to be achieved. Lower resolution
311 implies that all the details will be captured [24, 64].

312 5. Controlling porosity in plasma sprayed coating.

313 As one of the widely used plasma sprayed coating, chromium oxide coatings have excellent
314 properties such as chemical inertness, high mechanical strength, high hardness and good corrosion
315 and wear resistance [65, 66]. Nevertheless, plasma sprayed chromium oxide coatings also suffer from
316 porosity defects, which are considered to have negative impact on properties of coatings like
317 hardness, strength, wear resistance and corrosion resistance [62]. It is thus necessary to reduce
318 porosity hence improve the service life of chromium oxide coatings.

319 Porosity in plasma spray coating can be minimized by optimizing the set spraying parameters
320 for instance spraying power, feed gas pressure (for primary gas-argon and the auxiliary gas-He/H),
321 powder feed rate, stand-off distance(SOD), number of spray passes and preheating passes etc.[67,
322 68]. From earlier researches over the years, several ways of reducing porosity have been studied and
323 other researches are still on going. Johanna Ekberg et al. [34] used heat treatment as a post treatment
324 method to reduce porosity in their work. They found out that fine pores were reduced but coarser
325 ones increased. They agreed that coalescence of pores occurred during heat treatment for the cases of
326 coarser pores. They also suggested the use of finely-grained feed stock to reduce porosity. Ganvir A
327 et al. [69] agreed with Johanna Ekberg that heat treatment caused microstructural changes such as
328 densification, coarsening and grain growth . Other researchers [34, 37, 70], also used suspension
329 plasma spraying as a way of reducing porosity in plasma sprayed coating. The working principle is
330 to ensure a dense coating with regular packing of splats and minimum voids. The cases that will
331 provide a dense lamellae will have the least porosity. This idea has been used experimentally to
332 achieve a coating with the least percentage porosity as possible. In the literature, porosity can be as
333 high as 20% or as low as 3 % [38, 71-73] depending on the spraying technique, the material used or
334 the skills of operation.

335 Currently many researchers have used following: (i) Multilayer coating [74, 75] (ii) Doping using
336 other elements-Co-doping [74, 76-78] (iii) Nanostructured coating in (Multicomponent coating,
337 Gradient coating, Nanocomposite coating, Super-lattice coating, Duplex coating, Adaptive coating)
338 [8, 16, 30, 79].

339 In this work, these methods are proposed and trusted to have the potential of reducing porosity
340 in chromium oxide coating.

341 5.1. Multilayer coating

342 Multilayer coating, as the name suggests is the application of more than one identical or different
343 layers on a substrate. Typically the layers are alternated after the bond coat, as represented in fig. 6.
344 It has been used to reduce residual stresses to a large extent and inhibit the proliferation of cracks
345 across a coating [74, 75]. Multilayer coating have a reduced grain size. Zhou et al. [80] linked the
346 increased hardness and endurance of multilayer coating to Koehler Hall-Petch effect. The boosted
347 characteristics are accredited to the increased volumetric density as a result of refined grain sizes,
348 which increases the resistance to dislocation movements. The function of the multilayers is to reduce
349 the chances of defects such as microcracks, pinholes or pores propagating to the substrate [81].

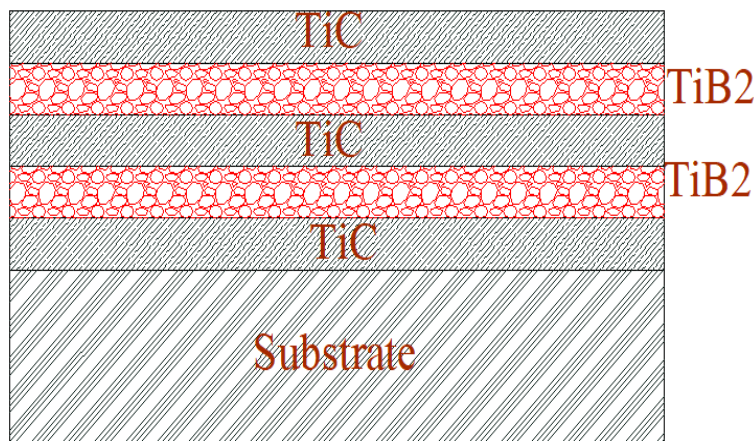


Figure 5 A representation of multilayer coating where two different coating materials are alternated.

The main merits of multilayered coating comes from the kind of layers exhibited by the coating. Multilayer coating can have various approaches. Interface layers; gives a transition from substrate to the following coat, usually providing for a better adhesion of a coating to the substrate and ensuring a smoother transition from coating properties to the substrate material at the substrate/coating boundary. The interface layers also act as inhibitors to further reactions besides, they also impart some special wear-protecting layers to the substrate and minimize the chances of microcracks and pinholes extending to the previous layer. The interface layers can be consisted of a large number of various layers which have different physical or chemical properties. When various layers combined into a whole interface layer, they can work together and avoid the individual disadvantages. Thereby complementing each layer by improving on the stress concentration and reduction of chances of crack propagation through layers.

Another group of multilayered coatings is the diverse property layers. This is unique and is gaining use in the industry where the surfaces can be improved by depositing layers of coating that have dissimilar effect on the substrate. For example, coatings that are for wear protection coupled with corrosion protection. Another case is thermal insulation coating with electrical conductivity, or diffusion barrier with adhesion enhancers to substrate [82-84]. Examples of elements that can be used in these cases are carbon, silicon and vanadium, which are mostly used for alloying.

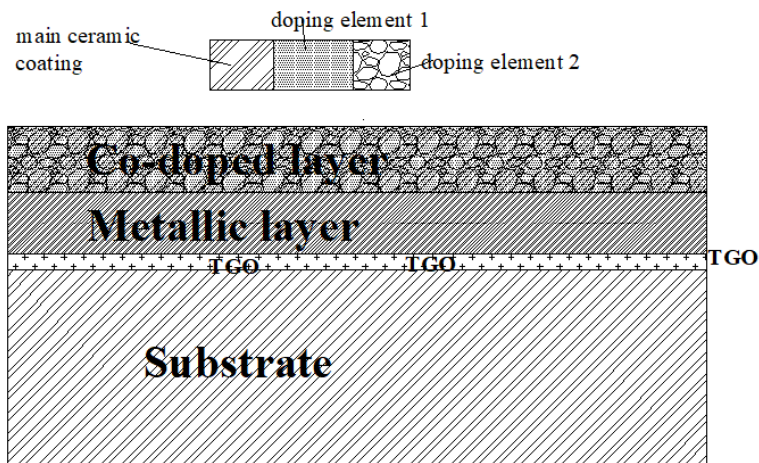
5.2. Doping of chromium Oxide coating

Doping is the intentional insertion of impurity elements into the main parent element. The impurity elements can change some of the overall physical properties of the established materials such as density, electrical or optical properties of the overall material. Fig. 7 shows a schematic representation of co-doping coating.

Porosity levels of chromium oxide coating can be reduced by doping modification and changing of the microstructural scale. Previously Yang Et al. [85] improved wear resistance of chromium oxide by doping modification and changing the microstructural scale of the coating. They used CeO_2 and Nb_2O_5 which also had improved effects on the porosity of coating [86]. From the above criteria, doping can also be used in densification of the top coat by the way of reducing the level of porosity. Yang et al. [8] noted that modification through doping, for instance $\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_3 - 3\%\text{TiO}_2$ and $\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_3 - \text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ not only improved wear resistance but also reduced porosity significantly. Sadri E et al. [87] and Leclerc C [88] in their investigation on self-lubrication by adding solid lubricants such as CaF_2 and nano-Ag respectively, found out that there is a direct relations between improved wear resistance and reduction in porosity. All of them illustrated that the decrease of porosity and the improvement of the hardness are beneficial to the wear resistance of coating [89-91].

The microstructural properties of chromium oxide coating after doping can be improved by post-heating e.g. heat treatment or laser remelting to densify the deposited powder. It has also been found by that chromium vaporization can be reduced by spraying with Cobalt based, Manganese

388 based and spinel coatings, when used for doping [77]. Some of the elements that can be used in
 389 doping of chromium oxide are cerium, niobium, silver, calcium, fluorine, titanium etc.

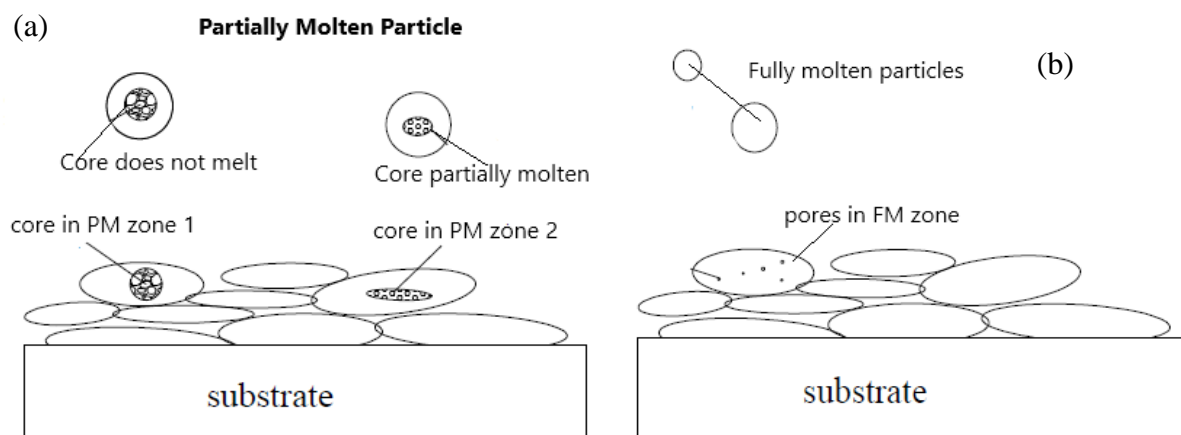


390
 391 Figure 6 Schematic representation of codoping coating

392 5.3. Nanostructured coating

393 The microstructural length scale for nanostructured feedstock fall between 1-200 nm[92].
 394 Nanostructured powder may cause agglomeration before they are used in plasma spray so, not all
 395 the particles are molten, which have been proved by the previous studies. Thus, the sprayed coatings
 396 are made up of the molten powders and some semi-molten powders. It has been noted that this
 397 special structures of sprayed coatings benefit the properties of nanostructured coating, especially the
 398 improvement of denser coating with better hardness surface and better strength [93-95].

399 From these previous work, it is evident that nanostructured materials produce better coating
 400 compared to the conventional ones [8]. From this backdrop, it is evident that nanostructured
 401 chromium oxide will have a denser coating and lower porosity level. Nanostructured coatings can
 402 be further treated by sintering the top coat using heat. This has been recorded by Jamali et al. [26] as
 403 a viable practice. They also agreed that nanoparticles resulted to a bimodal structure which improved
 404 bonding strength together with porosity network. Fig. 8 shows a representation of nanostructured
 405 coating. In nanostructured coating, there arise two kinds of powder. One that is fully molten and the
 406 other which is partially molten.



407
 408 Figure 7 Schematic illustration of the creation mechanism of nanostructured coating with bimodal
 409 microstructure during plasma spraying of agglomerated nanostructured zirconia based powders. (a) Partially
 410 molten particles (b) Fully molten particles.

411 6. Challenges and future research trends

412 The proposed methods above are still undergoing research for different applications. Every area
413 of application has its own challenges. Nanostructured coatings have been lauded for their low
414 porosity coating. Because nanoscale feedstock have low mass, they have poor flowability during
415 deposition. They need to be agglomerate before they are feed into the plasma jet for deposition. This
416 increases the operation costs from consumable and machine parts configurations. Many research
417 work is still needed to achieve optimal results.

418 7. Conclusion

419 In this work, the origin of porosity in plasma sprayed coatings are comprehensively explained.
420 During fabrication of plasma sprayed coatings, the molten feedstock powder piles up to form layers,
421 leaving voids at interfaces which might be exaggerated as the lamellae solidifies and cools down. In
422 some cases, the porosity is desirably introduced in the design e.g. pharmaceutical products like
423 medicine, whereas the porosity plays deleterious roles in the case of structural materials. Lastly,
424 methods to minimize porosity in chromium oxide have been suggested.

425 Measurements methods of porosity mainly include Water Intrusion Porosimetry (WIP),
426 Mercury Intrusion Porosimetry (MIP), SEM, AFM, TEM and NDT Methods. Each measurement
427 method has its merits and demerits. Application of one could also be influenced by the level of skills
428 needed for the operator. In terms of length scale, for macro and to some extent micro sized pores,
429 Water Intrusion Porosimetry (WIP) and Mercury Intrusion Porosimetry (MIP) can be applied. For
430 micro to nano scaled pores SEM, AFM and TEM are suitable for determination of pore parameters.
431 Also advanced NDT methods like X-ray micro-tomography and ultrasonic testing methods can be
432 applicable. For most of the laboratory experimental works, SEM can be coupled with EDS to achieve
433 so many analysis. The methods that have been suggested for controlling porosity in plasma sprayed
434 coating which can also be used for chromium oxide coatings are: multilayer coating, doping with rare
435 earth elements and using nanostructured feedstock. It has been studied that these methods not only
436 improve on the microstructure of the coating but also reduces porosity and enhance other features
437 like hardness, wear resistance and adhesion onto the substrate.

438 This work can enrich the study of plasma sprayed coatings, guiding the research methods of
439 formation mechanisms, measurements and controlling of the porosity of the coating, which is greatly
440 meaningful and important for the widespread applications of the plasma sprayed coatings.

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