

## THE EFFECT OF PRECIOUS METALS IN THE NiAl COATING ON THE OXIDATION RESISTANCE OF THE INCONEL 713 SUPERALLOY

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### Abstract

The rhodium incorporated aluminide coating was produced by the rhodium electroplating (0.5  $\mu\text{m}$  thick layer) followed by the chemical vapor deposition process on the Inconel 713 superalloy. This coating is composed of the  $\beta\text{-NiAl}$  phase. A part of nickel atoms was replaced by rhodium atoms in the  $\beta\text{-NiAl}$  phase. The plain, rhodium and platinum incorporated aluminide coatings were oxidized at 1100  $^{\circ}\text{C}$  under the atmospheric pressure. The oxidation kinetics of the rhodium and platinum incorporated aluminide coatings were similar, but different than oxidation kinetic of the plain coating. The  $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$  was the main product both in rhodium and platinum modified coatings after 360 h of oxidation. Moreover, the  $\gamma\text{-Ni}_3\text{Al}$  phase, besides the  $\beta\text{-NiAl}$  phase, was identified. The presence of 4 at. % rhodium in the coating provided similar oxidation resistance as the presence of 10-20 at. % platinum. Both rhodium and platinum incorporated aluminide coatings produced by the chemical vapor deposition process offer good oxidation protection of the Inconel 713 superalloy.

**Keywords:** Superalloy; Platinum; Rhodium; Oxidation; Aluminides

### 1. Introduction

The inlet gas temperature in the turbine of jet engines can reach about 1650  $^{\circ}\text{C}$  [1]. Such high temperature and corrosive environment is the reason, why jet engine turbine blades are produced of Ni-based superalloys. However, the Ni-based superalloys are affected by thermal loads and damage due to oxidation [2]. High temperature resistant coatings on Ni-based superalloys are extensively used to prevent oxidation of engine turbine blades [3]. Deposition of thermal barrier coatings on the surface of turbine blades can improve their oxidation resistance [4]. Thermal barrier coatings are composed of metallic bond coatings and ceramic surface coatings. Metallic bond coatings are the Ni(Co)CrAlY type or aluminide ones [5]. Plain aluminides have low density, high thermal conductivity and high melting temperature [6]. An  $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$  is formed on the surface of plain aluminide coatings during oxidation. This oxide layer impedes oxygen inward diffusion. However,  $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$  that forms on the surface of the plain coating is not continuous. That is why, the oxide layer losses integrity under cyclic oxidation of the plain aluminide coating [7]. Metals of the platinum group (platinum, palladium or iridium) are added to plain aluminide to enhance oxidation resistance of coated superalloys [8-

9]. Up to now, platinum is commonly used modifier of aluminide coatings. It is considered that platinum addition improves the oxide layer adherence to the coating [10], inhibits the voids formation under the oxide layer [11], accelerates aluminum diffusivity and favors fast formation of  $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$  [12]. Layensa et al. [9] suggest that palladium and iridium act similarly to platinum in the oxidation improvement of aluminide coatings. Despite the beneficial effect of platinum on the oxidation resistance of aluminide coatings, Pint et al. [13] reported that lower rate of oxidation of aluminide coatings was obtained by the zirconium or hafnium incorporation. The minor addition of zirconium (0.04 % at.) to plain aluminide substantially increases oxide adherence to the coating during oxidation [13]. Zirconium segregates at the coating/oxide interface and at the oxide grain boundaries and eliminates stresses in the oxide layer. Yttrium, hafnium, and cerium are also added into the coatings to improve the oxide adherence during oxidation of coated superalloys [14-18]. These elements can be introduced to the superalloy substrates by melting or to the surface of superalloys by the ion implantation or by the MCrAlY overlay coatings deposition [14]. Kim et al. [14] performed yttrium modification of the aluminide coating on the Inconel 713 superalloy. Initially, the Inconel 713

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substrate was pack aluminized, then yttrium layer (1.8  $\mu\text{m}$  thick) was deposited by the ion plating. Hot corrosion test of the yttrium modified aluminide coating and plain aluminide on the superalloy was performed. The aqueous solution of  $\text{Na}_2\text{SO}_4$  (about 2  $\text{mg}/\text{cm}^2$ ) was sprayed on the coated samples. The sprayed samples were oxidized at 900 °C. It was found that yttrium modification was the effective method to improve corrosion resistance of the coated superalloy. Yttrium localized between  $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$  columns, improved the oxide adherence and strongly inhibited aluminum depletion in the aluminide coating. Hafnium reduced the detrimental sulfur effect on the oxide adherences [15]. Hafnium sulfides free energy formation value is negative, so hafnium dissolved in the aluminide coating and as a result, decreases sulfur activity in the superalloy [16]. Liu et al. [17] performed cerium modification of the aluminide coating on the DZ125 superalloy. The modified coatings were deposited by the pack aluminizing process using 1 wt.%, 2 wt.% and 3 wt.% of  $\text{CeO}_2$  in the pack mixture. Two-layer structure containing the outer and the diffusion layers was found. The thickness of the diffusion layer decreased when  $\text{CeO}_2$  pack mixture content increased. According to Zhang et al. thesis [18], the low content of  $\text{CeO}_2$  in the pack led to small diffusion of cerium atoms to the coating. The excess of  $\text{CeO}_2$  content in the pack ensured cerium atom packing layer formation on the surface of the sample. The increase of cerium content in the coating from 0.28 to 0.78 wt.% favored the oxidation resistance of the coated superalloy. Cerium reacted with oxygen and  $\text{CeO}_2$  formed at the oxide/coating interface. This oxide could prevent internal formation of voids. It is assumed that  $\text{CeO}_2$  formed alternative sites for vacancies. Thus vacancy content was limited. The decrease of voids, which resulted from vacancy coalescence, was the reason for the interfacial adhesive strength improvement. The coating with the smallest cerium content (0.28 wt.%) had the most voids, which were distributed at the oxide/coating interface, so it had the poorest oxidation resistance. The coating with the highest cerium content (0.78 wt.%) had the fewest voids, which were distributed at the oxide/coating interface, so the coating had the best oxidation resistance. Despite the good oxidation and hot corrosion resistance, aluminide coatings modified by reactive elements have not been introduced for commercial production.

Chan et al. [19] investigated hot corrosion resistance of the platinum-rhodium modified aluminide coating on the directionally solidified Mar M002 superalloy. Initially, a rhodium layer was electroplated on the superalloy, subsequently a platinum layer was electroplated on the surface of the rhodium coated substrate. The heat treatment of the

platinum-rhodium electroplated substrate was performed at 1100 °C for 1 h in the argon atmosphere. Then the aluminide coating was deposited. The hot corrosion resistance of platinum-rhodium modified aluminide coatings on the superalloy was tested at 900 °C in the sodium sulphate and the sodium chloride environments. The hot corrosion resistance of the platinum-rhodium modified coating was much better than that of only the platinum modified one. Platinum and rhodium acted synergistically in maintaining the  $\beta\text{-NiAl}$  phase stability during the hot corrosion test.

Rhodium modification of the aluminide coating was attempted by the Koo et al. [20]. The Inconel 738 superalloy was used as a substrate. A rhodium layer (2-3  $\mu\text{m}$  thick) was electroplated on the superalloy. The pack aluminizing process was used to obtain aluminide coatings on the rhodium electroplated superalloy. The coated specimens were oxidized at 1100 °C. The aluminide coating with rhodium addition showed slower oxidation rate than plain aluminide and aluminide coatings with palladium addition. The better oxidation resistance of the rhodium modified aluminide coating than the palladium modified one was also found on the CMSX 4 superalloy [21]. The rhodium modified aluminide coatings may be an alternative to palladium modified ones [21].

The crucial issue in improving oxidation resistance of protective coatings is successful implementation of the proper amount of modifiers [8-20]. Oxidation resistance of modified aluminide coatings strongly depends on the correctly carried out electroplating and aluminizing processes. Incorrectness in these processes may result in obtaining coatings with poor oxidation resistance. Unfortunately, until now, there is the lack of data concerning these processes. Therefore, the purpose of this work was to analyze effectiveness of rhodium electroplating followed by chemical vapor deposition processes in obtaining rhodium incorporated aluminide coatings on the Inconel 713 superalloy. The Inconel 713 superalloy was used as a substrate, because it is widely used in the aircraft industry, for instance for turbine blades of aerospace engines. The microstructure of rhodium incorporated aluminide coatings was investigated and the influence of rhodium on the oxidation behavior of the coated Inconel 713 superalloy was determined. There are no literature data whether small rhodium content in the aluminide coating could be as effective as platinum in the oxidation resistance improvement of coated superalloy. Therefore the high temperature oxidation rate of the rhodium incorporated aluminide coating was compared with the plain aluminide coating and platinum incorporated one on the Inconel 713 superalloy.



## 2. Experimental

A polycrystalline Ni-based Inconel 713 superalloy (chemical composition: 12.0 wt.% Cr, 0.05 wt.% C, 4.6 wt.% Mo, 1.96 wt.% Nb, 5.7 wt.% Al, 0.7 wt.% Ti, 0.19 wt.% Fe, 0.08 wt.% Co, balanced Ni) was the substrate. A rhodium layer (0.5  $\mu\text{m}$  thick) was deposited by the electroplating process on the surface of the Inconel 713 superalloy. The bath for rhodium electroplating was as follows: 0.1  $\text{g}/\text{dm}^3$  of rhodium sulfate  $\text{Rh}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$ , 0.15  $\text{g}/\text{dm}^3$  of sulfuric acid  $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$ , and 0.010  $\text{g}/\text{dm}^3$  of selenium acid  $\text{H}_2\text{SeO}_4$ . The rhodium electroplated samples were aluminized by the chemical vapor deposition method using the BPXPR0325S equipment manufactured by IonBond Company. Aluminum chloride vapors –  $\text{AlCl}_3$  were formed in an external generator at 330  $^\circ\text{C}$  [22]. The vapors were formed as a result of the flow of the hydrogen chloride - 0.2 l/min via granules of aluminum and then were transported in a hydrogen stream into the chemical vapor deposition reactor where samples of the Inconel 713 were placed. The aluminum chloride vapor reacted with nickel in the samples of the Inconel 713 superalloy and  $\beta$ -NiAl intermetallic phase was formed. Aluminizing in the chemical vapor deposition process consisted of three stages: heating from 20  $^\circ\text{C}$  up to 1040  $^\circ\text{C}$ , aluminizing at 1040  $^\circ\text{C}$  for 600 min, and cooling to the room temperature.

The rhodium incorporated aluminide coating on the Inconel 713 was oxidized at 1100  $^\circ\text{C}$ . The plain and platinum incorporated aluminide coatings were also oxidized [23]. The initial weight of the samples was measured. The oxidation tests were performed at 1100  $^\circ\text{C}$  in the furnace under the atmospheric pressure. The samples were placed in the alumina crucible and then were placed in the furnace heated to 1100  $^\circ\text{C}$ . The samples were kept at 1100  $^\circ\text{C}$  for 20 h

and then were cooled down to the room temperature [24]. The weight of the samples after each cycle of oxidation was measured. The samples were cooled down from 1100  $^\circ\text{C}$  to the room temperature in the air.

The cross-sectional microstructural analysis and surface analysis of the unoxidized and oxidized samples were investigated using the scanning electron microscope (SEM) and the energy dispersive spectroscope (EDS). The elemental mapping was analyzed using an electron probe micro-analyzer. The surface phase composition of unoxidized coatings and oxide layers were analyzed by the X-ray diffraction.

## 3. Results

### 3.1. Characterization of the aluminized coatings

Fig. 1 showed the cross-sectional microstructure and major elements' distribution of the rhodium incorporated coating. The coating had an evident two layer microstructure, which included an outer layer and a diffusion layer, below the outer one (Fig. 1a). A large nickel content (about 50 at. %) suggested that coating formation was mainly attributed to nickel outward diffusion (Fig. 1b). The outer and diffusion layers' depth was about 17 and 10  $\mu\text{m}$ , respectively. The highest rhodium content (4 at. %) was in the outer layer, close to the outer/diffusion layers' interface. The rhodium content decreased towards the coating's surface (only 0.3 at. % rhodium was found at the distance of 5  $\mu\text{m}$  from the surface). The separate light phases in the diffusion layer were analyzed (Fig. 1a). Light phases were enriched with chromium, niobium, and molybdenum (Table 1).

Nickel, aluminium, rhodium, and chromium were found in the outer layer. However, only  $\beta$ -NiAl crystal peaks were visible in XRD patterns (Fig. 2).

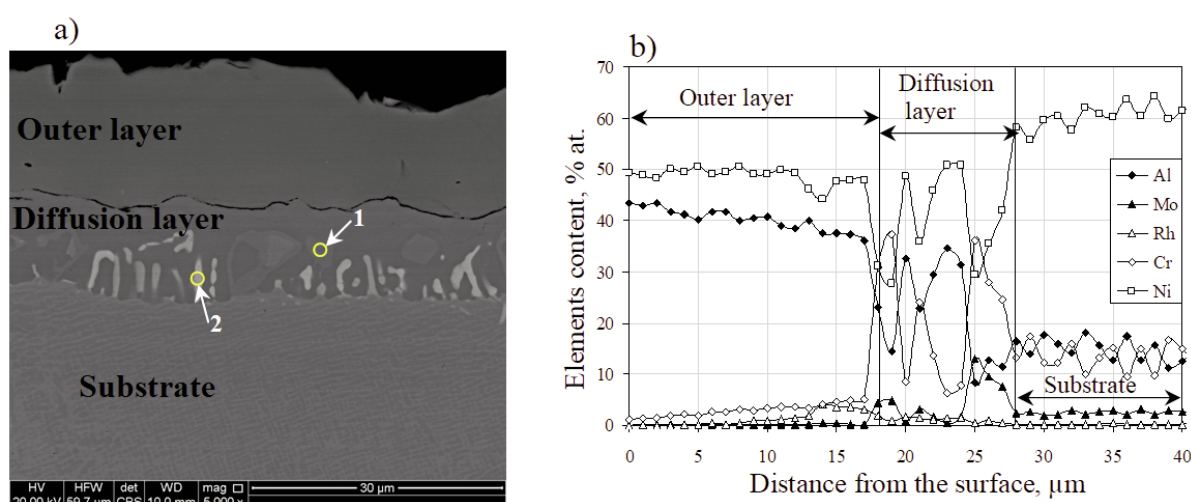


Figure 1. Cross-sectional microstructure (a) and elements' distribution (b) of the rhodium incorporated aluminide coating

Elements such as Cr, Mo, and Nb were localized in the diffusion layer (Fig. 3). Presence of alloying elements (Cr, Mo and Nb) in the diffusion layer was typical for aluminide coatings deposited on superalloys. It proved that alloying elements diffused from the substrate [22-24].

Similar two-layer structure was observed in the platinum modified aluminide coating on the Inconel 713 superalloy. In this case the highest platinum content (10-20 at. %) was in the outer layer of the coating [23].

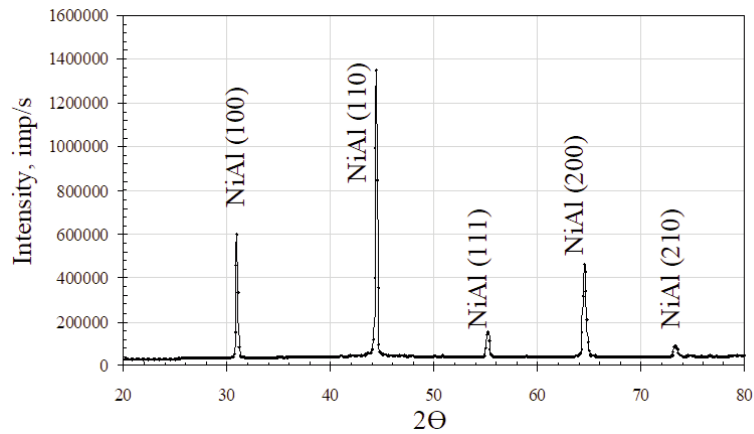
### 3.2. Kinetic curves of coatings' oxidation

Fig. 4 presented the weight changes of the rhodium incorporated aluminide coating on the Inconel 713 superalloy during oxidation at 1100 °C. The weight changes of the platinum were incorporated and plain aluminide coating were presented for comparison. The plain aluminide coating showed a rapid weight gain at the first 100 h of oxidation. A weight loss of the plain aluminide occurred after 180 h.

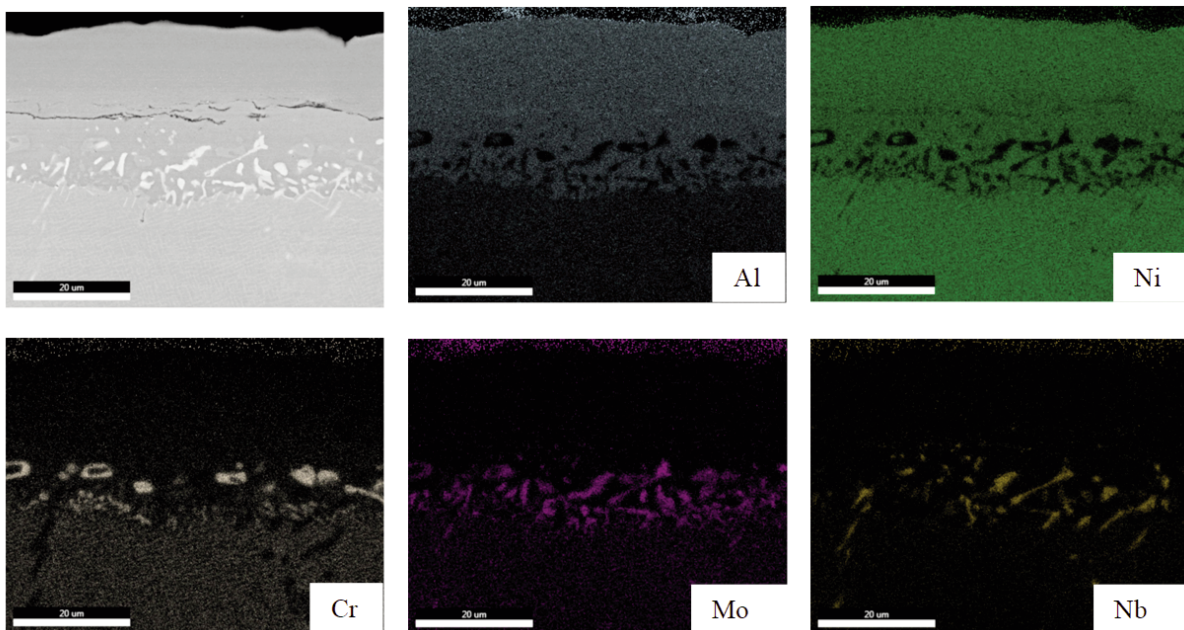
The weight gain of the rhodium incorporated

**Table 1.** Cross-sectional chemical composition in spots [at.%], Figure 1a

Spot	Al	Nb	Mo	Cr	Ni
1	-	-	9.4±0.2	81.5±0.2	9.1±0.3
2	12.2±2.6	8.9±2.0	15.0±4.8	22.6±2.3	41.3±2.0



**Figure 2.** XRD diffraction of the rhodium incorporated aluminide coating.



**Figure 3.** Elemental mappings of the rhodium incorporated aluminide coating



coating steadily increased until 400 h of oxidation followed by the weight loss. The oxidation of the rhodium incorporated coating until 700 h did not lead to the loss of its weight. The oxidation resistance of the platinum incorporated coating was similar to that of the rhodium incorporated one. Both rhodium and platinum incorporated aluminide coatings offered reliable oxidation protection of the Inconel 713 superalloy.

### 3.3. Rhodium or platinum incorporated aluminide coating after oxidation

The surface morphology and surface chemical composition of the oxidized rhodium incorporated coating was presented in Fig. 5 and Table 2. The sample was analyzed after 360 h of cyclic oxidation (18 cycles). The small area of oxide spallation, as well as microcracks of the platinum incorporated aluminide coating were visible after 360 h of cyclic oxidation (18 cycles). For comparison the surface morphology and surface chemical composition analysis of the platinum incorporated aluminide coating after 360 h of oxidation was performed.

The continuous gray oxide layer was formed with a small area of oxide spallation (Fig. 5). The oxide layer consisted of two elements: Al (47.3 at.%) and O (52.7 at.%). The  $\alpha$ - $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  was detected by the XRD method (Fig. 6). The small peaks for the  $\beta$ -NiAl phase were identified. The quantity of  $\beta$ -NiAl phase, about 0.5 %, was estimated by the Reference Intensity Ratio method [25]. Very weak signals from  $\text{NiAl}_2\text{O}_4$ , besides intensive signals from  $\alpha$ - $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ , were found (Fig. 6). The cross-sectional microstructure of the rhodium incorporated coating after oxidation with marker of the EDS analysis was presented in Fig. 7, whereas the results of the analysis were shown in Table 3. Predominant elements were: Al (23 at.%) and Ni (71.6 at.%). Moreover, there were Cr (5 at.%) and Rh (0.4 at.%). The chemical composition on the cross-

section of coating corresponded to the  $\gamma$ - $\text{Ni}_3\text{Al}$  phase (analyzed zone 1 that corresponded to the outer layer of Fig. 1), which was detected by XRD. Except the presence of the  $\gamma$ - $\text{Ni}_3\text{Al}$  phase, the  $\beta$ -NiAl phase remained (Fig. 6).

It was found that carbides enriched with Cr coarsened, whereas phases enriched with Nb began to dissolve after oxidation (Fig. 8, Table 4).

The surface morphology and surface chemical composition of the platinum incorporated coating was presented in Fig. 9 and Table 5. The continuous gray oxide layer with a small area of oxide spallation, as well as microcracks were formed (Fig. 9). The oxide layer contained 49.5 at.% Al and 50.5 at.% O, no other elements were identified. Very weak signals from  $\text{NiAl}_2\text{O}_4$ , besides intensive signals from  $\alpha$ -

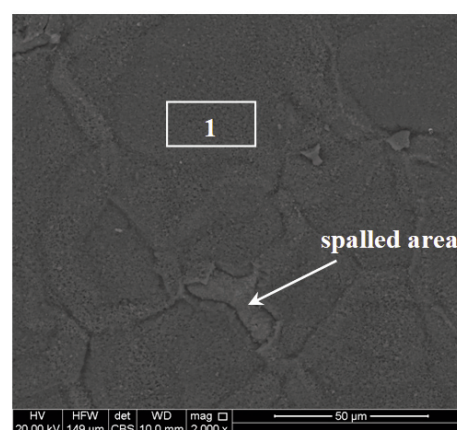


Figure 5. Surface morphology of the rhodium incorporated aluminide coating after 360 h of oxidation at 1100 °C

Table 2. Surface chemical composition in microarea [at.%], Figure 5

Microarea	Al	O
1	47.3±2.1	52.7± 3.9

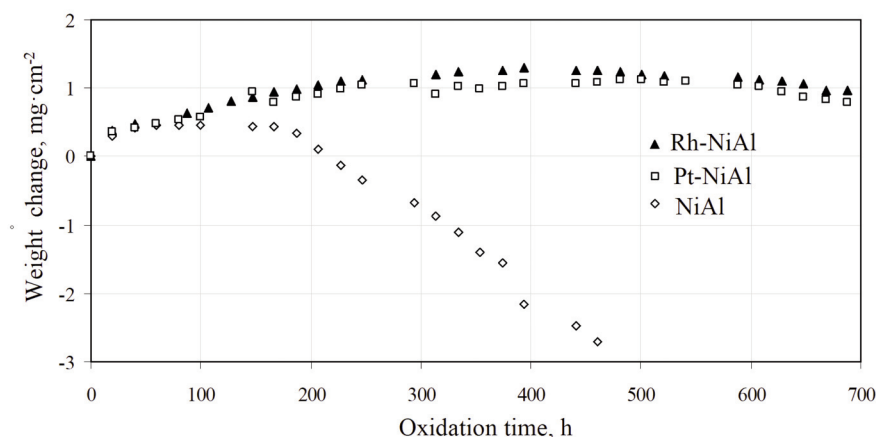


Figure 4. Weight change curves of the rhodium incorporated (Rh-NiAl), platinum incorporated (Pt-NiAl) and plain aluminide coating (NiAl)



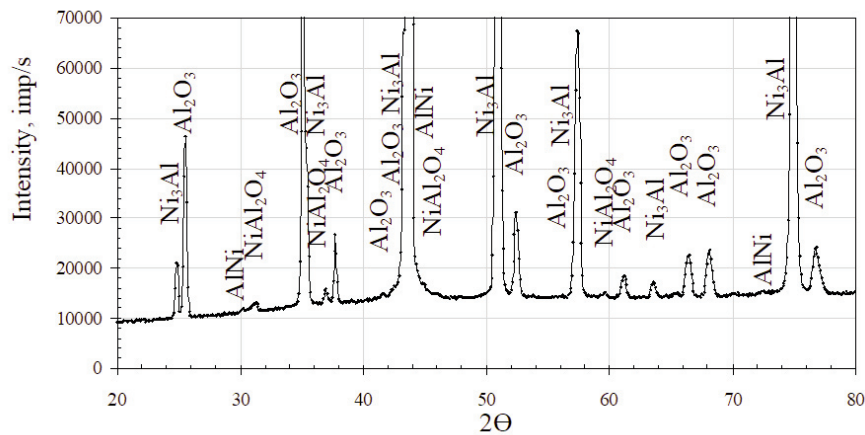


Figure 6. XRD pattern of the rhodium incorporated aluminide coating after 360 h of oxidation at 1100 °C

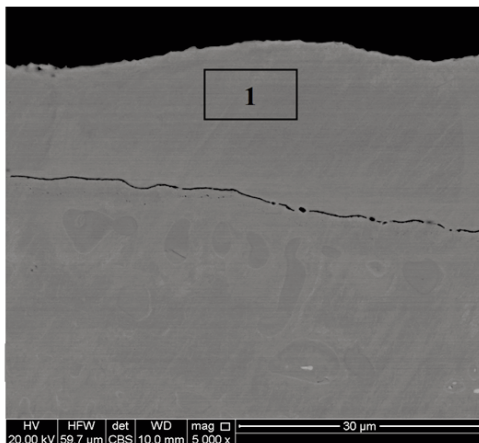


Figure 7. Cross-sectional microstructure of the rhodium incorporated aluminide coating after 360 h of oxidation at 1100 °C

Table 3. Cross-sectional chemical composition in microarea 1 [at.%], Figure 7

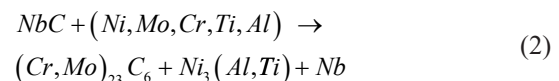
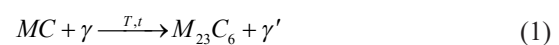
Microarea	Al	Cr	Ni	Rh
1	23.0±1.9	5±0.2	71.6±1.6	0.4±0.1

$\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ , were found (Fig. 10). This proved that platinum content (10-20 at.%) in the aluminide coating enhanced the  $\alpha$ - $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  protective layer growth.

The cross-sectional microstructure of the platinum incorporated coating after oxidation with marker of the EDS analysis was presented in Fig.11 and Table 6. Predominant elements were: Al (23.2 at.%) and Ni (70.8 at.%); moreover, there were Cr (3.6 at.%) and Pt (2.4 at.%). Chemical composition on the cross-section of the coating corresponded to the  $\gamma$ - $\text{Ni}_3\text{Al}$  phase, which was identified by XRD. The  $\beta$ - $\text{NiAl}$  phase was also identified by XRD (Fig. 10). The growth of one type of carbides and dissolving of the another type of carbides, similar as in the rhodium incorporated aluminide coating, was noted (Fig. 11).

#### 4. Discussion

Two-layer microstructure of rhodium incorporated aluminide coating was typical for aluminide coatings [26]. Rhodium existed in solid solution in the coating. A part of nickel atoms was replaced by rhodium atoms in the  $\beta$ - $\text{NiAl}$  lattice. It can be assumed, that deposition of rhodium was achieved. Refractory elements (Cr, Mo and Nb) were in the diffusion layer (Fig. 3). Carbon present in the superalloy formed carbides with alloying elements (MC type carbide enriched with Ti, Mo, Nb and  $\text{M}_{23}\text{C}_6$  type carbide enriched with Cr and Mo) [27]. Matysiak et al. [28] observed the presence of the primary carbides (MC) enriched with Nb in the cast Inconel 713 superalloy. The stress rupture test that was performed at 980 °C led to microstructure changes of the superalloy. It was found that at 980 °C, MC carbides were unstable and decomposed. The most common mechanism of MC carbide decomposition was as follows (1-2) [29]:



There is strong likelihood that MC-type carbides enriched with Nb and Mo and  $\text{M}_{23}\text{C}_6$ -type carbides enriched with Cr and Mo precipitated in the  $\beta$ - $\text{NiAl}$  matrix of diffusion layer. MC and  $\text{M}_{23}\text{C}_6$  type carbides were also found in the  $\beta$ - $\text{NiAl}$  matrix of diffusion layer of aluminide coatings deposited on the Udimet 700 superalloy [30].

The rapid weight gain of the plain coating at the first 100 h of oxidation may be attributed to the metastable oxide formation at the surface of the coating. The  $\gamma$ - $\delta$ - and  $\Theta$ - $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  metastable oxides may be formed in the early period of oxidation. These

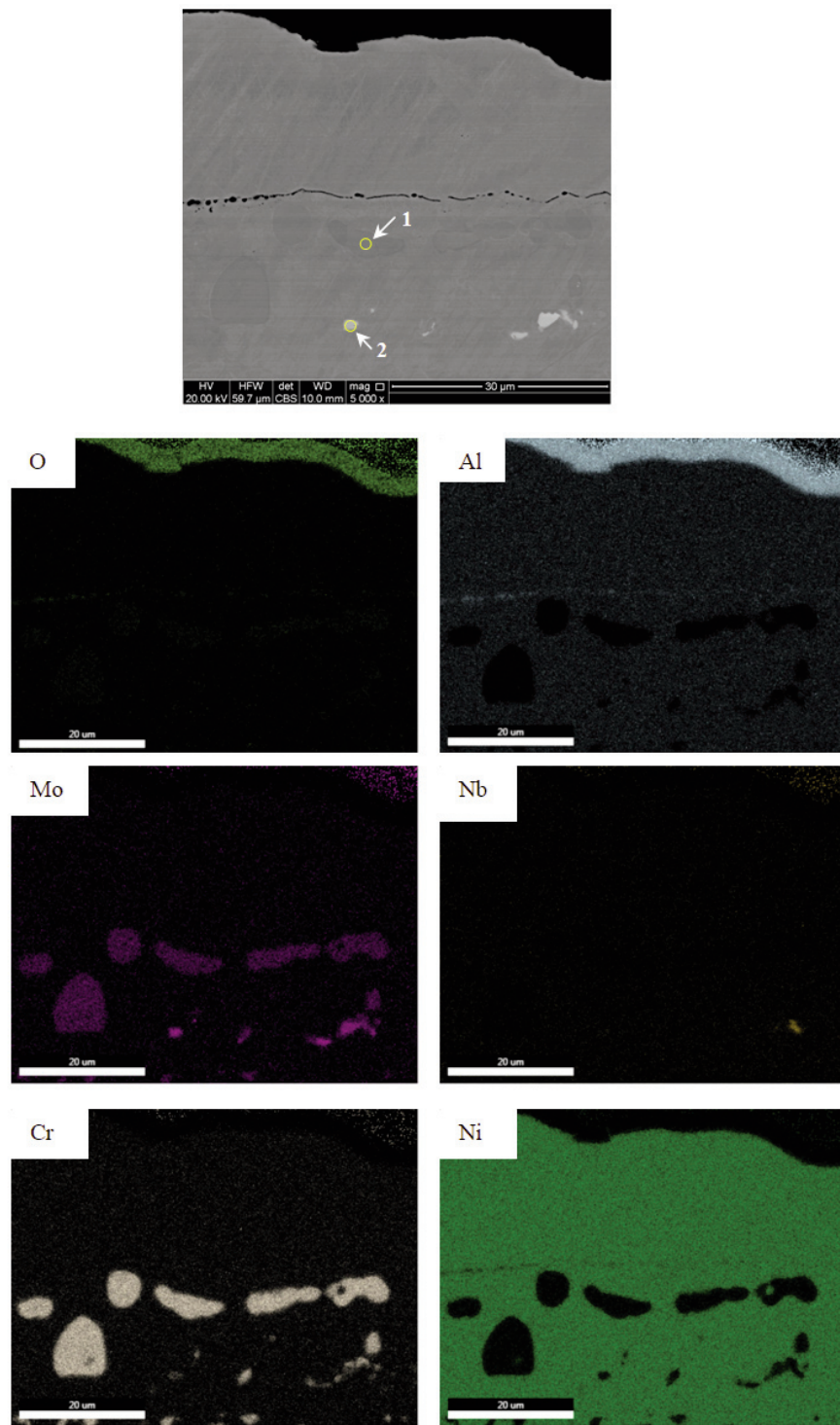


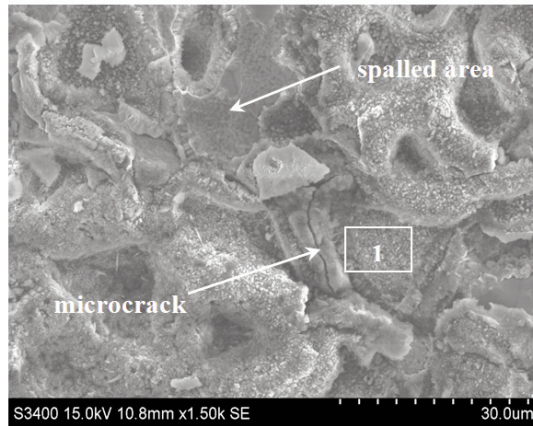
Figure 8. Elemental mappings of the rhodium incorporated aluminide coating after 360 h of oxidation at 1100 °C

Table 4. Cross-sectional chemical composition in spots [at.%], Figure 8

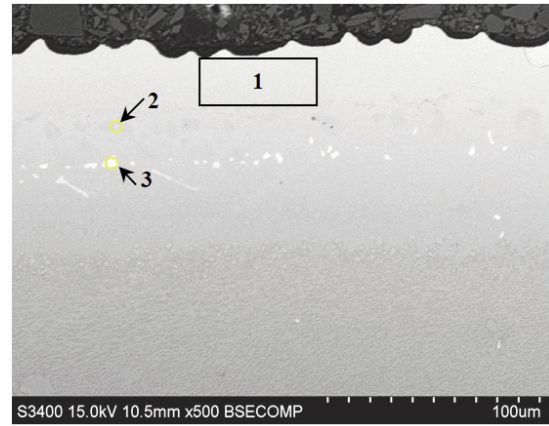
Spot	Al	Mo	Nb	Cr	Ni
1	1±0.2	9.3±0.3	-	72.4±1.5	17.3±0.7
2	1.8±0.5	48.2±1.9	3.9±2.1	33.8±3.6	12.3±0.2



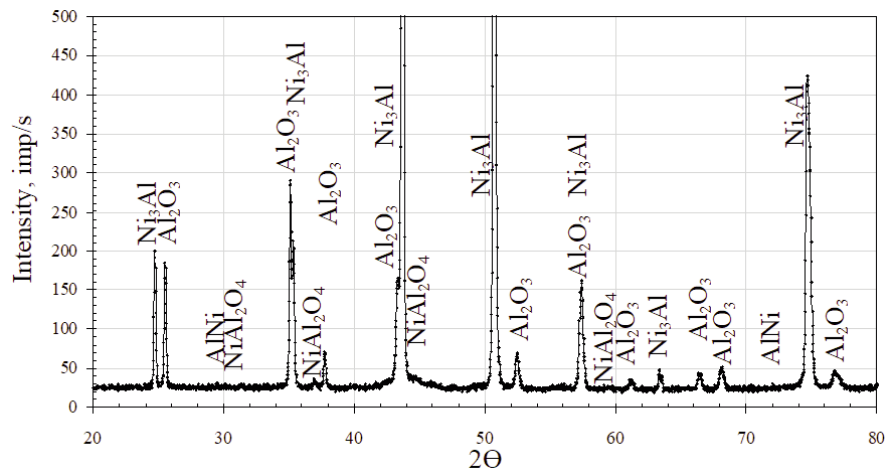




**Figure 9.** Surface morphology of the platinum incorporated aluminide coating after 360 h of oxidation at 1100 °C



**Figure 10.** XRD pattern of the platinum incorporated aluminide coating after 360 h of oxidation at 1100 °C



**Figure 11.** Cross-sectional microstructure of the platinum incorporated aluminide coating after 360 h of oxidation at 1100 °C

**Table 5.** Surface chemical composition in microarea 1 [at.%], Figure 9

Microarea	Al	O
1	49.5±0.5	50.5±1.4

oxides have distinctive morphological features and show a higher growth rate than stable  $\alpha$ - $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  oxide. Metastable oxides have many vacancies and lattice defects, resulting from rapid outward growth because of aluminum cations outward diffusion. For example, the  $\Theta$ - $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  metastable oxide growth rate is about an order of magnitude higher than the  $\alpha$ - $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  stable oxide [31]. A weight loss of the plain aluminide coating occurred after 180 h of oxidation. Jiang et al. [32] concluded that the oxidation time at which the weight loss reached a negative value was defined as the lifetime of the coating, so the lifetime of the plain aluminide coating was about 220 h. The oxide layer spallation may be the reason of the rapid weight loss of the plain aluminide.

**Table 6.** Cross-sectional chemical composition in microareas [at.%], Figure 11

Microarea	Al	Cr	Mo	Ni	Pt
1	23.2±1.9	3.6±2.7	-	70.8±1.7	2.4±0.5
2	9.6±1.5	73±1.5	8.5±1.5	8.9±2.4	-
3	7.3±2.1	28.1±2.3	33.8±3.7	30.8±1.5	-

Small rhodium content (4 at.%) in the aluminide coating enhanced the protective oxide layer formation, as among identified oxides the desirable  $\alpha$ - $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  was dominant.

The presence of the  $\gamma$ - $\text{Ni}_3\text{Al}$  phase was a result of the  $\beta$ - $\text{NiAl} \rightarrow \gamma$ - $\text{Ni}_3\text{Al}$  phase transformation, which occurred due to the depletion of aluminum from the  $\beta$ - $\text{NiAl}$  phase during oxidation. According to Swadźba et al. [33] and Haynes et al. [34] the oxides that formed above the  $\gamma$ - $\text{Ni}_3\text{Al}$  phase did not consist only of  $\alpha$ - $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ , but contained oxides of other elements, for example Ni. Due to the fact that the  $\gamma$ - $\text{Ni}_3\text{Al}$  phase





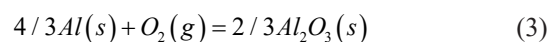
formed as a result of the depletion of aluminum from the  $\beta$ -NiAl phase, the content of aluminum was too low in this area to keep an oxide that consisted exclusively of  $\alpha$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, so oxides containing nickel were formed as well. Fan et al. [35] suggested that carbides dissolved gradually when the  $\beta$ -NiAl  $\rightarrow$   $\gamma$ -Ni<sub>3</sub>Al phase transformation occurred. It may be due to the higher refractory elements solubility in the  $\gamma$ -Ni<sub>3</sub>Al phase than in the  $\beta$ -NiAl phase.

The platinum content in the outer layer was 10-20 at. % [23]. According to the Al-Ni-Pt phase diagram, it was too low to form platinum-rich particles (AlPt<sub>2</sub>, Al<sub>3</sub>Pt<sub>2</sub> or NiPt<sub>2</sub>Al phases) [36]. Therefore, platinum dissolved in the  $\beta$ -NiAl phase. It seems that the formation of the platinum incorporated aluminide coating took place in the following way: aluminum reached the surface where platinum was dissolved in nickel and since aluminium had high affinity to nickel the  $\beta$ -(Ni,Pt)Al phase was formed [37]. Lamesle et al. [38] indicated that mechanisms of platinum aluminide coating formation were similar to mechanisms of palladium modified aluminide coating formation. The rhodium content in the coating was 4 at. %. Similarly as for platinum, according to the Al-Ni-Rh phase diagram, it was too low to form rhodium-rich particles (Al<sub>9</sub>Rh<sub>2</sub>, Al<sub>5</sub>Rh<sub>2</sub> or Al<sub>76</sub>Ni<sub>4</sub>Rh<sub>20</sub> phases) [39]. Therefore, it seems that the formation of the rhodium incorporated aluminide coating was similar to the platinum incorporated one: aluminum reached the surface where rhodium was dissolved in nickel and since aluminium had high affinity to nickel, the  $\beta$ -(Ni,Rh)Al phase was formed.

The experimental results of this work indicate, that rhodium incorporated to the aluminide coating manufactured by the chemical vapor deposition process at 1040 °C. This coating was composed of the  $\beta$ -NiAl phase in contrast to rhodium incorporated aluminide coating obtained by the pack cementation method [20], where besides the  $\beta$ -NiAl phase the brittle  $\delta$ -Ni<sub>2</sub>Al<sub>3</sub> phase was identified. The combination of the following processes were compared: rhodium electroplating (2-3  $\mu$ m thick layer) followed by aluminizing by the pack cementation process at 900 °C which resulted in obtaining (2-3 at. %) rhodium in the aluminide coating [20]; and rhodium electroplating (0.5  $\mu$ m thick layer) followed by aluminizing by the chemical vapor deposition process at 1040 °C which resulted in obtaining 4 at. % rhodium in the coating. The rhodium incorporated aluminide coatings obtained by the chemical vapor deposition process or by the pack cementation process efficiently protected superalloys from oxidation. It may be assumed that, rhodium electroplating (0.5  $\mu$ m thick layer) followed by the chemical vapor deposition process at 1040 °C led to obtain rhodium incorporated aluminide coatings that provided such good oxidation resistance of superalloys as coatings

obtained by the rhodium electroplating (2-3  $\mu$ m thick layer) followed by the pack cementation process at 900 °C. Moreover, it is worth mentioning, that in both coatings the rhodium content was similar (2-4 at. %), but in this process only a 0.5  $\mu$ m thick rhodium layer was deposited, while in the process proposed by Koo et al. [20] 2-3  $\mu$ m thick rhodium layer was deposited. Both processes provided good oxidation resistance of superalloys, but the process proposed in this work seems to be cheaper due to a thinner rhodium layer. Platinum and rhodium incorporated aluminide coatings showed better oxidation resistance compared to the plain one. The oxidation rate and tendency of oxide layer spallation of plain aluminide was larger than of the modified one [40-41].

The  $\alpha$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> oxide layer on the plain, rhodium or platinum incorporated aluminide coating was formed in the initial stage of oxidation according to the reaction (3) [2]:

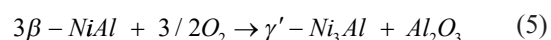


The standard Gibbs free energy of Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> formation  $\Delta G_{Al_2O_3}$  is as follows (4) [2]:

$$\Delta G_{Al_2O_3} = -1127 + 0.22T \quad (4)$$

The standard Gibbs free energy value of the  $\alpha$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> oxide formation at 1373 K is - 824.94 KJ/mol of oxygen. The negative value of the standard Gibbs free energy indicated that the formation of that oxide was possible.

Aluminum supported the  $\alpha$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> layer formation and inward substrate diffusion during oxidation. The  $\beta$ -NiAl to  $\gamma$ -Ni<sub>3</sub>Al phase transformation proceeded according to equation 5 [42]:



Oxide spalling of the plain aluminide coatings started after 150 hours of oxidation, whereas oxide scale spalling of platinum or rhodium incorporated aluminide coatings started after 360 h of oxidation and was significantly slower (Fig.4). That is why EDS and XRD analyses were performed after 360 hours of oxidation, when the modified coatings were still protective. They consisted mainly of aluminum (Fig. 5, 9) and Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> and  $\gamma$ -Ni<sub>3</sub>Al phases (Fig. 6, 10), whereas the plain coating consisted mainly of nickel (75 at.%) with low content of chromium (5.30 at.%) and aluminum (18.7 at.%) [40].

The  $\gamma$ -Ni<sub>3</sub>Al phase formed as the uniform layer under the oxide layer. Oxide surface moved inward, as a result of the volume shrinkage. As the oxidation time increased, the  $\beta$ -NiAl to  $\gamma$ -Ni<sub>3</sub>Al phase transformation continued and the volume of coating reduced [41]. The difference of the height of grain



cores and boundaries increased and the surface of the coating became rougher [43]. The  $\beta$ -NiAl phase had better oxidation resistance than the  $\gamma$ -Ni<sub>3</sub>Al phase oxidation [41], so the  $\beta$ -NiAl to  $\gamma$ -Ni<sub>3</sub>Al phase transformation increased the coating's instability during oxidation and accelerated rumpling of the surface of the coating [44].

The  $\alpha$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> was formed by the simultaneous outward diffusion of aluminum and inward diffusion of oxygen at the beginning of oxidation [43]. The diffusion of aluminum and oxygen became stable when oxidation time increased. Then, aluminum oxide mono-layer of equiaxed grains got thicker. Platinum rich particles precipitated at the  $\alpha$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> grain boundaries. Consequently, the aluminum ions outward diffusion along grain boundaries was delayed. Aluminum cations reacted with oxygen anions at the oxide/coating border. The oxide/coating border moved inwardly and  $\alpha$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> columnar grains formed beneath the equiaxed  $\alpha$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> grains. The diffusion of oxygen anions was slower than that of aluminum cations in the Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, so the aluminum oxide growth rate was reduced [45]. Platinum rich precipitates in the oxide layer changed the diffusion process from simultaneous aluminum and oxygen diffusion to predominant inward oxygen diffusion and this could slow down the rate of the  $\alpha$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> growth. The oxidation resistance of the rhodium incorporated coating was similar to the platinum incorporated one. As rhodium is a platinum group element, it is possible that rhodium rich precipitates in the oxide layer could change the diffusion process from simultaneous aluminum and oxygen diffusion to predominant inward oxygen diffusion and this could slow down the rate of the  $\alpha$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> growth.

## 5. Conclusions

The rhodium incorporated aluminide coating was produced by the rhodium electroplating on the superalloy followed by the chemical vapor deposition process. The phase analysis revealed that the coating was composed of the  $\beta$ -NiAl phase. The combination of the processes: rhodium electroplating (0.5  $\mu$ m thick layer) and followed by aluminizing by the chemical vapor deposition at 1040 °C resulted in obtaining 4 at. % rhodium in the coating at the outer/diffusion layers' interface. A part of nickel atoms was replaced by rhodium atoms in the  $\beta$ -NiAl phase. The rhodium incorporated aluminide coatings deposition process proposed in this work seemed to be cheaper than that proposed by Koo et al. [20]. The  $\alpha$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> was the main product both in rhodium and platinum incorporated coatings after 360 h of oxidation. Despite the fact that the  $\gamma$ -Ni<sub>3</sub>Al phase was identified after 360 h of oxidation, both rhodium and platinum incorporated coatings showed good oxidation resistance, much

better than plain aluminide coating. Both rhodium and platinum incorporated aluminide coatings offered reliable oxidation protection of the Inconel 713 superalloy.

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## Author's contributions

*Conceptualization: M. Zagula-Yavorska; Methodology: M. Zagula-Yavorska; Writing—review and editing: M. Zagula-Yavorska and J. Romanowska. Authors read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.*

## Declarations

*Conflict of interest: The authors declared that they have no conflict of interest to this work.*

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## UTICAJ PLEMENITIH METALA U NiAl PREVLACI NA OTPORNOST NA OKSIDACIJU SUPERLEGURE INCONEL 713

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### Apstrakt

Aluminidna prevlaka sa rodijumom dobijena je galvanizacijom rodijuma (sloj debljine 0,5  $\mu\text{m}$ ), nakon čega je usledio proces hemijske depozicije pare na Inconel 713 superleguri. Ova prevlaka se sastojala od  $\beta$ -NiAl faze. Deo atoma nikla je zamenjen atomima rodijuma u  $\beta$ -NiAl fazi. Obične rodijumske i platinaste aluminidne prevlake su oksidovale na 1100 °C pod atmosferskim pritiskom. Kinetika oksidacije aluminidnih prevlaka sa rodijumom i platinom je bila slična, ali se razlikovala od kinetike oksidacije obične prevlake. Glavni proizvod u rodijumom i platinom modifikovanim prevlakama bio je  $\alpha$ - $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nakon 360 h oksidacije. Pored  $\beta$ -NiAl je identifikovana i  $\gamma$ - $\text{Ni}_3\text{Al}$  faza. Prisustvo 4 at. % rodijuma u prevlaci je omogućilo sličnu otpornost na oksidaciju kao prisustvo 10-20 at. % platine. I rodijum i platina inkorporirani u aluminidnoj prevlaci proizvedeni postupkom hemijske depozicije pare su pružili zaštitu od oksidacije superleguri Inconel 713.

**Ključne reči:** Superlegura; Platina; Rodijum; Oksidacija; Aluminidi

