

PAPER 94 – SYNTHESIS AND CHARACTERIZATION OF CNTS/TiO₂ NANOCOMPOSITE FOR FORMULATION OF HYBRID NANOFLUID FOR MACHINING CFRPS

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ABSTRACT

Removal of heat from cutting zones raises concerns in machining carbon fibre reinforced plastics (CFRPs). Therefore, this has necessitated increased search for sustainable and cost-effective cooling agents. In this study, carbon nanotubes (CNTs) and TiO₂ were synthesised using sol-gel and Central Composite Design and characterised to form different compositions of TiO₂/CNTs (9:1, 7:3, and 5:5) nanocomposites. The nanocomposites were characterized using Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET), HESEM/EDX, XRD and FTIR to investigate their stability as suitable fillers in base-oils. The FTIR spectra for TiO₂/CNTs revealed that the composites have absorption peaks corresponding to C=C and Ti-O bonds; giving rise to peaks assigned to Ti-O-C and C-O bonds. The diffraction peaks of anatase are clearly identified and the diffraction peaks assigned to CNTs are barely seen as a result of overlapping of the main peaks of CNTs with the peaks of TiO₂. The study established that the challenges common to individual NCs are sufficiently addressed with hybrid NCs TiO₂/CNTs (5:5) NC offering an overriding advantage over other nanocomposites as heat removing agent owing to its largest surface area, pore volume and as the most stable nanosuspension. It can, therefore, be concluded that TiO₂/CNTs nanocomposites have high prospect for reinforcing base oils for effective machining.

KEYWORDS: Synthesis, Characterisation, Carbon nanotubes, Titanium oxide, Nanocomposites, Machining

1. INTRODUCTION

Carbon fibre reinforced plastics (CFRPs) have been established as indispensable materials for many applications in engineering. Their outstanding performance in national defence, aerospace and upscale civilian products earns them their current status in manufacturing technology (Zheng et al., 2022). However, until recently, machining of CFRPs has received less attention than they actually deserve as a material with comparative advantages (Erturk et al., 2021). Researchers who have investigated machining of CFRPs with conventional cutting fluids decried the associated challenges and call for more studies to unravel the uncharted waters (Elgnemi et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2017). Most of the orthodox cutting fluids are proven to have repeatedly fail to sustain their relevance in the current efforts towards achieving the UN's Sustainable Development Goals on responsible consumption and production (SDG #12).

Quick and easy removal of heat from cutting zones during machining affect the level of success of the process in terms of tool life, speed of cutting as well as surface finish. Sankaranarayanan et al. (2021) reported on the preference of bio-oil-based cutting fluids to proffer solutions to numerous health hazards associated with synthetic cutting fluids in pursuance of sustainable green manufacturing. Even though synthetic and vegetable oil perform excellent momentary cooling functions during machining, chemical imbalance which often triggers corrosion process renders them ineffectual in the present environmentally conscious world (Pimenov et al., 2021). Therefore, nanofluids are currently being advanced to address issues around quick heat removal from tool/workpiece interface by leveraging large surface areas provided by nanoparticles (NPs). This is expected to facilitate quick removal of heat and also help to reduce the quantity of fluids needed for a particular machining process (Patole et al., 2021). The volume of cutting fluids needed as well as the volume released to the immediate environment after being used are also significantly reduced; hence environmental pollution is effectively addressed in the same manner cost is also sufficiently managed (Ni et al., 2021; Haq et al., 2021). It is in line with this principle that the Minimum Quantity Lubrication (MQL) technique was established to further optimize machining parameters (Usha & Srinivasa Rao, 2019). MQL is an environment-friendly and cost-effective alternative to flooding and dry cutting fluid application (Agrawal & Patil, 2018). It is a machining process that is consistent with cleaner and responsible production in the context of sustainable production.

However, more recently, a more excellent way of performing the dual functions of heat removal and lubrication during machining has been launched and is currently receiving more attention from the research world (Gao et al., 2021). While the fluid lubricates the cutting interface, the nanofillers convey heat away from the cutting zone; making machining experience rather seamless and fast; thereby extending tool life and enhancing surface finish (Singh et al., 2021). This is termed nanofluid-MQL (nMQL). Kumar et al. (2023), in a recent study, described nMQL as the novel chapter of sustainable machining. The process involves spraying nanofluids mist on to the tool work interface during machining as the sliding friction between the tool work is converted to rolling friction and reduces friction coefficient significantly; hence giving rise to low cutting forces (Bai et al., 2019; Osman et al., 2020; Jamil MKhan et al., 2020; Lawal et al., 2023). Venkatesan et al. (2020) conducted a comparative study on certain machining parameters under dry and MQL. Their observation on turning operation under nMQL shows that MQL prevents wear mechanism which is a peculiar drawback with dry machining. This indicates that the use of nMQL is a step in the right direction in sustainable machining of difficult-to-machine materials for industrial applications. While also investigating the approach, Gao et al. (2021) observed that the optimization of the nanofluids under high pressure air flow addresses the problem of unsatisfactory heat transfer capacity of MQL in the machining zone and improves the lubrication performance of the interface between the tool and the workpiece. While acknowledging the possibility of taking advantage of different physical and chemical properties of NPs to form hybrid nanofluids, Gao et al. (2020) submitted that the use nMQL technique could lower processing damage such as resin coating, multi-fibre block pull-out, as well as pits. Therefore, it can be concluded that nMQL is the undisputable future of CFRPs machining.

Excellent as nMQL technique may seem, a number of challenges have been identified with the process of producing hybrid nanofluids. Production of standard nanosuspension remains an age-long procedural challenge. Abubakre et al. (2023) agreed with an earlier work by Urmi et al. (2021) on the difficulties associated with the attainment of long-term stability of hybrid nanofluids, which is one of the requirements of hybrid nanofluids applications. This quality of the nanofluids is important in that it improves its thermal behaviour during applications. Therefore, addressing the stability issue is vital to carrying out quality machining. From the literature, external force, stirring and ultrasonication can be deployed to break the bonds that hold NPs together provided the duration for each activity is addressed (Medupin et al., 2019; Ma et al., 2022). Hence the question of time remains a huge gap in the literature. Hence, given the vital role NPs play in the achievement of excellent clean machining via nMQL technique, the processes leading to the production of NPs deserves all the needed attention. It is in keeping with this, therefore, that this study is designed to synthesise and characterise high quality carbon nanotubes (CNTs), TiO₂ and their nanocomposites (NCs) for the development of hybrid nanofluids for CFRPs machining.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

All reagents used in this study were of analytical grade with percentage purity in the range of 95%-99.98%. They were sourced from Sigma Aldrich Chemicals Nigeria, a world class distributor of chemicals and other product and used without any further purification. The chemicals used in this experiment include titanium (IV) isopropoxide (Ti{OCH(CH₃)₂}₄, methanol (CH₃OH), sodium hydroxide pellets (NaOH), hydrochloric acid (HCl) and sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS) as well as deionized and distilled water.

2.1 Synthesis of TiO₂ nanoparticles

Central Composite Design (CCD) based on Response Surface Method (RSM) was used for biosynthesis of TiO₂ NPs using sol-gel method as shown in Tables 1 and 2. A known volume of titanium isopropoxide was measured into a 250 cm³ beaker containing a specific volume of extract from plant and stirred on a magnetic stirrer. The mixture was adjusted to the desired pH using NaOH and HCl solution under continuous stirring. The resulting mixture was washed with de-ionized water, dried at 105 °C in an oven for 12 h, and calcined at 450 °C for 3 h.

Table 1: 2⁴ factorial design matrices

Coded value	Volume of extract (cm ³)	Volume of precursor (cm ³)	Stirring time (min)	pH
- Level	50	5	100	2
+ Level	80	8	200	12

Table 2: Experimental run for the biosynthesis of TiO₂ nanoparticles

Selected Run	Volume of extract (cm ³)	Stirring time (min)	Volume of precursor (cm ³)	pH	Crystallite size (nm)
3	65	100	6.5	12	18.92
6	50	100	6.5	7	10.20
9	80	150	6.5	12	16.41

13	65	200	6.5	2	8.09
15	65	200	8.0	7	11.05
17	65	100	8.0	7	9.70
19	65	150	5.0	2	7.64
21	50	150	6.5	12	14.09
25	65	200	5.0	7	10.15

2.2 Synthesis and purification of Carbon Nanotubes

A weight of 14.53 g of Ni and 20.2 g of Fe were dissolved in 100 ml of distilled water, and 10 g of kaolin was added to the mixture and shaken with orbital shaker at 200 rpm for 1 h. The mixture was allowed to cool before decanting and kept in the oven for 12 h at 120 °C to dry. The dried mixture was grounded and screened through a 150 µm sieve. The resulting fine powder (catalyst) was then calcined for 16 h at 500 °C to remove the nitrate content. Afterwards, the dried catalyst was then grounded to forestall the incidence of agglomeration that may hamper the interaction between carbon source and the surface mixture. Carbon nanotubes (CNTs) was then synthesized by decomposition acetylene (a carbon source) in a tubular quartz reactor placed horizontally in a furnace. The furnace was electronically controlled such that the heating rate, reaction temperature and gas flow rates were adequately regulated.

1.0 g of catalyst was spread in a quartz boat (11 cm × 2.6 cm) to form a thin layer and then placed in the centre of the quartz tube. The furnace was heated up at 10 °C/min while argon (Ar) was concurrently passed through the system at 30 ml/min. This was to ensure both inert contaminant-free furnace atmosphere and prevent oxidation of the samples before and after the reaction. Once the temperature reached the set reaction temperature of 750 °C, the argon flow rate was adjusted to 230 ml/min. C₂H₂ was then introduced at a flow rate of 150 ml/min and 200 ml/min in order to initiate CNTs growth. After 90 min reaction time, C₂H₂ flow was halted as the furnace cooled down to room temperature under a continuous flow of argon at 30 ml/min flow rate. The boat was withdrawn from the reactor to harvest the carbon deposit along with the catalyst. CNTs yield (%) was calculated based on the relationship expressed in Equation 1.

A 2.0 g measure of CNTs was loaded into a beaker containing 200 ml of 3M NaOH solution in order to remove the transition metal (Fe-Ni) catalysts and the support material (kaolin). The solution was then stirred using magnetic stirrer for 3 hours and allowed to settle. Subsequently, the solution was filtered and washed with distilled water to ensure a neutral pH. It was then dried at a temperature of 120 °C for 24 h. The CNTs was finally sonicated and kept in the shelf for further use.

2.3 Synthesis of nanocomposites

A known mass of synthesized CNTs and TiO₂ (TiO₂/CNTs) at different ratios were weighed in a ceramic mortar and crushed adequately with a pestle. The resulting mixtures for TiO₂/CNTs at 9:1, 7:3, and 5:5 ratios were compounded before analysis. In synthesising TiO₂/CNTs NCs, TiO₂/CNTs at 9:1, 7:3, and 5:5 ratios were compounded. At the same time, TiO₂ was dissolved in a suitable solvent and then added in droplets into the dispersed CNTs as sonication progresses and followed immediately with magnetic stirring. The suspension was transferred into round-bottom flask and refluxed at 200 °C in oil bath with magnetic stirring. Afterwards, the system was allowed to cool naturally to room temperature, filtered and washed with distilled water and ethanol several times. Subsequently, the resulted composite was dried at 100 °C and calcined at 550 °C.

2.4 Characterization of nanomaterials

Samples were characterized using Bruker AXS D8 Advance X-ray Diffractometer (XRD) with Cu K α radiation to determine the phase and crystallite sizes of the NPs. Morphologies and structure of samples were characterized using Zeiss Auriga HRSEM with EDX. The EDX (operated at EHT for 20 kV), and the elemental composition of the samples was determined. The Brunauer-Emmett-Teller, BET surface area and pore size distributions of the samples were obtained from the plot of volume adsorbed versus relative pressure following the placement of 0.1 g sample in a tube after being degassed at 95 °C for 4 h to remove residual water and volatile compounds.

3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

2.2 XRD analysis of optimized CNTs, TiO₂ and TiO₂/CNTs

The factorial design of 2⁴ factorials and experimental runs are presented in Tables 1 and 2 and used to investigate the influence of synthesis factors such as stirring time, pH, precursor volume, and extract volume on NPs yield. The crystallite size of TiO₂ is provided by XRD analysis. The phase composition estimated on the peak intensities was anatase, as presented in Fig. 1. Mean crystallite size was computed from full width at half maximum of related

diffraction anatase peak using Scherrer Debye equation (Equation 2). The smallest crystallite size was confirmed at an acidic medium (Table 2: run 19).

where D is the crystallite size, V is the shape factor (0.94), λ is the wavelength of the X-ray source, and $\Delta 2\theta$ is the full width at half maximum (FWHM).

Fig. 2 presents the XRD results of the CNTs, TiO₂, and TiO₂/CNTs NCs at different compounding ratios. XRD patterns reveal that mainly anatase peaks are found for the TiO₂ at $2\theta = 25.2^\circ, 37.7^\circ, 48^\circ,$ and 54° . CNTs clearly displays two peaks at around 31.6° and 52.1° , which are indexed to the reflection of graphite of (002) and (100), respectively. For TiO₂/CNTs NCs, the diffraction peaks of anatase are clearly identified (Mustapha et al., 2020), and the diffraction peaks assigned to CNTs are barely seen (see Fig. 2(A)). This may be as a result of the overlapping of the main peaks of CNTs with the peaks of TiO₂ and is also attributable to the high intensity of the diffraction peaks of TiO₂ and low content of CNTs in the composites. Notably, the width of the XRD peaks at 35.03° and 57.5° was slightly broadened as CNTs were added to the NCs. This process implies that the introduction of CNTs markedly changes the NCs' crystalline size of TiO₂.

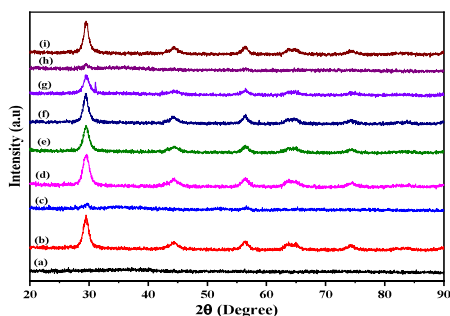


Fig. 1: XRD patterns of TiO₂ NPs for runs in Table 2

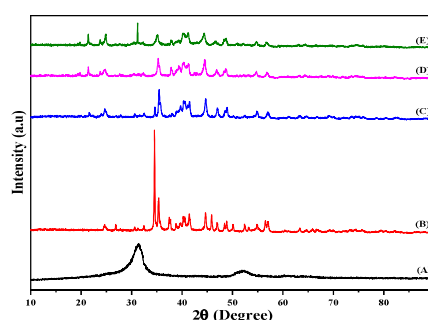


Fig. 2: XRD patterns of CNTs (A), TiO₂ (B), TiO₂/CNTs (9:1; 7:3; 5:5)

3.2 HRSEM/EDX of TiO₂, CNTs and TiO₂/CNTs

Fig. 3 presents HRSEM images of TiO₂, CNTs, and TiO₂/CNTs NCs at different ratios. The image shown in Fig. 3(a), the TiO₂ NPs, form a fleck-like structure and on the other hand, Fig. 3(b) reveals HRSEM image of tube-like CNTs with a diameter between 20 and 30 nm with a few agglomerated branches and tiny particles on the surface. The magnified images in Fig. 3(c-e) demonstrate that TiO₂ NPs are well dispersed on the surface of CNTs. The less identification of CNTs in the NCs was consistent with the TiO₂/CNTs content ratios in the samples, resulting in a well-homogeneous distribution of TiO₂ on the CNTs in TiO₂/CNTs (9:1) as shown in Fig. 3(c). Comparing the NCs with the TiO₂ NPs, the HRSEM image of TiO₂ presence voids or spaces between the particles; suggesting inter-particle porosity. The NCs suggest that the morphologies obtained for the NCs may be due to the interaction between TiO₂ and defect sites of the CNTs surface via binding by the intermolecular interaction.

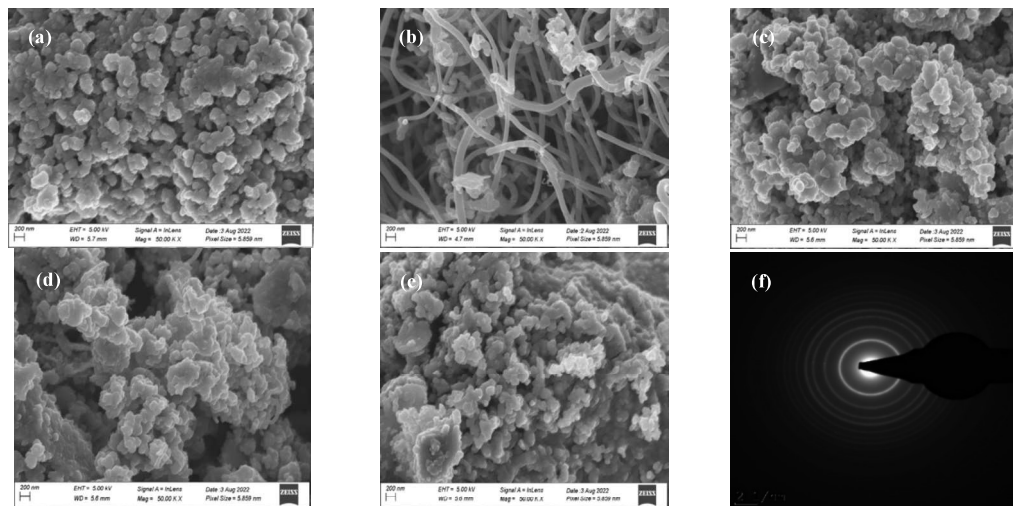


Fig. 3: HRSEM images of TiO₂ (a), CNTs (b), TiO₂/CNTs (9:1) (c), TiO₂/CNTs (7:3) (d), TiO₂/CNTs (5:5) (e)

The corresponding SAED pattern (Fig 3(f)) reflects MWCNTs, while the diffraction for anatase suggests the polycentric ring of TiO₂ as seen in the EDX spectra (Fig. 4). These were also confirmed by XRD analysis. The NCs also show polycentric rings of different reflection planes, which assume the nature of the TiO₂ dispersed in CNTs to form Ti-O-C and Ti-O-Ti networks. The EDX spectra (Fig. 4) indicate the Ti, C, and O are the predominant elements of the NCs in addition to trace elements from Ni salt and kaolin catalysts. The EDX analysis revealed that the presence of Ti content in the NCs composed followed the mass ratio of the composites.

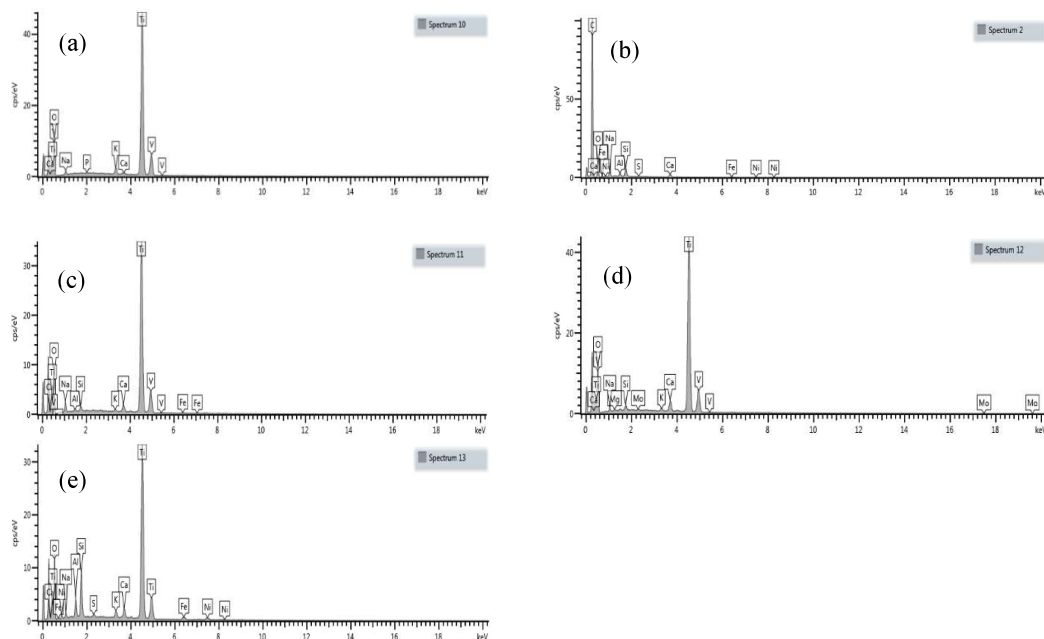


Fig. 4: EDX results of TiO₂ (a), CNTs (b), TiO₂/CNTs (9:1) (c), TiO₂/CNTs (7:3) (d), TiO₂/CNTs (5:5) (e)

3.3 BET of TiO₂, CNTs and TiO₂/CNTs

Fig. 5 shows the N₂ adsorption-desorption isotherms of CNTs, TiO₂, and TiO₂/CNTs NCs while the BET-specific surface area, pore size, and pore volume are presented in Table 3. Based on the N₂ adsorption-desorption isotherm of TiO₂, the isotherms could be identified as the intermediate cases between hysteresis loop of type I where the two branches are almost vertical and parallel of a range of gas uptake and hysteresis loop of type IV where the branches stay nearly horizontal and parallel over a wide p/p⁰ range (D'Aloia et al., 2021). The isotherm identified for the CNTs is the type III isotherm as presented in Fig. 5(a). The isotherms resulting from the NCs are categorized as type II isotherms which can be ascribed to the combination of type I and type IV loops (Brockmann et al., 2020). This is explained by the fact that the isotherm of Fig. 5(e) is closer to type II than both TiO₂/CNTs (9:1) and TiO₂/CNTs. In Table 3, BET surface areas of the nanomaterials are presented. The surface area of TiO₂ is much higher than CNTs, indicating better textural properties and a wider range of applications. Also, the surface areas of the NCs increase as TiO₂ decreases relative to CNTs contents in the samples. This phenomenon could be caused by the separation of TiO₂ crystalline particles due to the addition of CNTs. Furthermore, the pore sizes reflect mesoporous nanomaterials which could favour mass transfer (Paumo et al., 2021). Pore volume of the NCs followed the same trajectory as the surface area and increase as CNTs content increases. This is attributable to the TiO₂ constantly occupying the reaction sites on the CNTs wall in accordance with an earlier work by Medupin et al. (2020).

Table 3: The summary of the BET results of CNTs, TiO₂, and TiO₂/CNTs

Sample	Surface area (m ² /g)	Pore size (nm)	Pore volume (cc/g)
CNTs	0.65	16.79	0.00276
TiO ₂	127.62	6.648	0.296
CNTs/TiO ₂ (1:9)	57.84	7.637	0.155
CNTs/TiO ₂ (3:7)	71.19	8.412	0.195
CNTs/TiO ₂ (5:5)	103.42	7.451	0.259

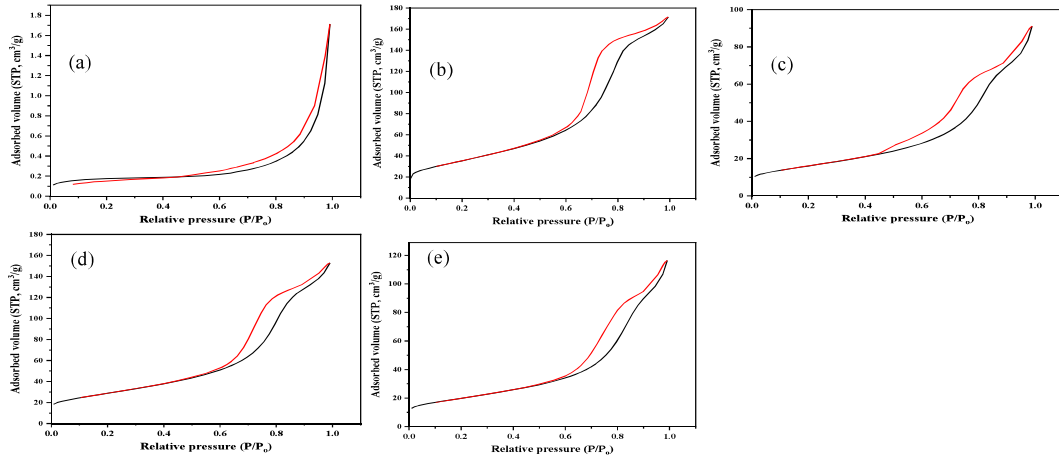


Fig. 5: N₂ Adsorption-desorption curves of CNTs (a), TiO₂ (b), TiO₂/CNTs (9:1) (c), TiO₂/CNTs (7:3) (d), TiO₂/CNTs (5:5) (e)

3.4 FTIR of TiO₂, CNTs and TiO₂/CNTs NCs

The FTIR spectra of TiO₂, CNTs, and TiO₂/CNTs are recorded and are shown in Fig. 6 to study the type of interactions that exist among the different constituents of the NCs and to determine their structure and functional groups. The absorption around 1630 cm⁻¹ is assigned to the bending vibration of adsorbed water molecules (Fig. 6(a)). The broad band at the region of 950 cm⁻¹ in the TiO₂ sample belongs to the characteristic vibration of the Ti–O–Ti network. It can be observed that the CNTs (Fig. 6(b)) show the C–C stretching bonds at 1650 cm⁻¹ assigned as nanotube modes, and the peak in 1705 cm⁻¹ is associated with C=O stretching of the carboxyl group as a characteristic of carboxyl functional groups (-COOH) (Medupin et al., 2017; Gopiraman et al., 2012; Shaban et al., 2020). The peaks around 3500-3300 cm⁻¹ correspond to –OH stretching bond in hydroxyl and carboxyl groups indicative of the high presence of the groups. The FTIR spectra for the TiO₂/CNTs are shown in Fig. 6(c, d and e) reveals that the composites have absorption peaks corresponding to C=C and Ti-O bonds, giving rise to peaks assigned to Ti-O-C and C-O bonds (Pownraj & Valan Arasu, 2020; Khadom et al., 2022). These results demonstrate that the growth resulted in the formation of hetero-junction at the surface of the TiO₂ and CNTs, forming interfacial bonds in the matrices (Paumo et al., 2021).

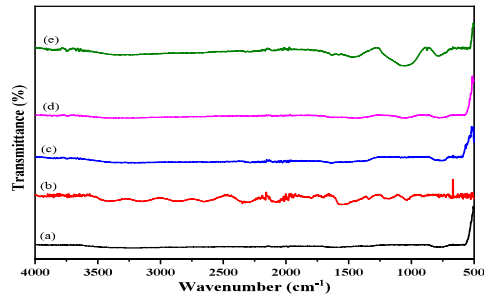


Fig. 6: FTIR spectra of TiO₂ (a), CNTs (b), TiO₂/CNTs (9:1) (c), TiO₂/CNTs (7:3) (d), TiO₂/CNTs (5:5) (e)

4 CONCLUSION

The results presented in this study showed that TiO₂/CNTs nanocomposites are reliable filler candidates for compounding hybrid nanofluids for machining processes. Characterisation results showed that the NPs are in good shape for the reinforcement base-oils from both organic and inorganic sources for the formulation of nanofluids meant for machining CFRPs. The sites created following the functionalization of CNTs (fibre) filled by TiO₂ (particles); making the formulation of nanosuspension system less challenging. The tendency of agglomeration in CNT system is significantly reduced as TiO₂ NPs occupy certain sites on the walls of CNTs and breaks the van der Waals attractions between individual CNTs. Three different nanofiller ratios were investigated under the same conditions and it was found that the stability of the nanofluids for machining application was significantly improved by the addition of fillers with TiO₂/CNTs (7:3) NCs being the most stably dispersed of the three as could be noticed with the HRSEM micrographs. The clustering simply indicates that the openings on the walls of CNTs attract TiO₂ in the suspension. Generally, however, the results from HRSEM/EDX, XRD and BET show that TiO₂/CNTs (5:5) NC offers an overriding advantage over other NCs as heat removing materials from the machining zone. The resulting nanosuspension is expected to be employed to reinforce base-oils for machining purposes.

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