International Journal of Engineering Technologies (IJET)

> Volume:9 No:2 June 2024

Printed ISSN: 2149-0104 e-ISSN: 2149-5262

> Istanbul Gelisim University Press, 2024



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INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF ENGINEERING TECHNOLOGIES (IJET) International Peer–Reviewed Journal Volume 9, No 2, June 2024

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Please find the 34th issue of International Journal of Engineering Technologies at <u>http://ijet.gelisim.edu.tr</u> or <u>https://dergipark.org.tr/en/pub/ijet</u>. We invite you to review the Table of Contents by visiting our web site and review articles and items of interest. IJET will continue to publish high level scientific research papers in the field of Engineering Technologies as an international peer-reviewed scientific and academic journal of Istanbul Gelisim University.

Thanks for your continuing interest in our work,

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Development of a Cassava Grating Machine

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Received:24.06.2022 Accepted:03.11.2024

Abstract- Developing of a cassava grating machine is presented. This is a great boost in the development of local content and reduction of wastage in cassava produce in Africa. The use of internal combustion engine in powering the cassava grating machine makes the study unique as it goes a long way in eliminating the undue stress involved manual grating of cassava tubers. The developed machine is made up of components such as hopper, pulley belts, grating unit, internal combustion engine and shaft. Scientific formulae were employed to aid the design of the cassava grating machine. A detailed graphical modeling was done to serve as a guide for the fabrication of the machine. The developed grating machine had a volumetric capacity of hopper to be 50272000 mm³. A power capacity of 1.715 KW was delivered to the solid shaft of 27.05 mm diameter to grate the peeled cassava tubers at a designed torque of 10.23 Nm.

Keywords: Cassava, Grating, Machine, Design, Internal combustion engine.

1. Introduction

Nigeria is one of the major producers of *Manihotesculenta* specie known as cassava with an average annual input of about 35 million tonnes. Cassava is known to be a tuberous crop of the plant family of *Euphorbiaceae* [1]. Africa is known for its significant progress in agricultural development. To continue standing out among leading nations, there is a crucial necessity to enhance its indigenous resources. The capacity to cultivate crops must be complemented by thorough technological expertise in processing agricultural products. [2].

In the past some researchers in Nigeria developed a manually powered cassava grating machine which had numerous limitations. The development of a cassava grating machine powered by an internal combustion engine for rural African communities embodies several layers of novelty. It addresses local agricultural needs, leverages appropriate technology for non-electrified regions, boosts productivity, and supports socio-economic development. By focusing on mechanical efficiency, portability, local manufacturing, and environmental sustainability, such innovations have the potential to transform rural agriculture, making it more efficient, profitable and sustainable.

In Africa, the cassava is mainly converted to sweet cream white flour known as garri. In a bid to increase this starchy crop production recourse has to be made to the deployment of modern machinery to the cultivating and processing of the crop.

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Cassava processing has been in existence for a long time. Africans have been used to the traditional method in which mortar and pestle are applied to the crushing of dried peeled cassava tubers [5]. This method is laborious, time consuming and unhygienic. These deficiencies have led to the development of modern machinery. For a small scale farm the development of cassava processing machine is a welcomed course as a nonexistent of locally made cassava grating machine poses a huge challenge. Before now some researchers have fabricated manually operated cassava grating machine which was considered a bit more useful than the traditional mortar and pestle method. In a bid to bring about improvement in cassava processing an electric motor powered cassava grating machine was designed and constructed by [6].Rural areas often have limited or unreliable access to electricity. Using an internal combustion engine (ICE) as the power source makes the grating machine independent of the electrical grid, ensuring consistent operation even in remote locations. This adaptation is particularly suited to the energy realities of rural African communities [7].

This study is focused on development of cassava grating machine been powered by the internal combustion engine. The machine does not require any electrical power source. It may be used in any rural region without power.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1 Design Considerations

Some design parameters were determined in the course of conceptualizing the development of this machine. The designed parameters are shaft diameter, machine torque, power required, belt speed, length of belt, belt tensions and hopper capacity. In carrying out the parametric design of the grating machine recourse was made to some specifications as obtained from [7] and [8]. The specifications are:

- i. Length and breadth of top hopper feature= 400 mm
- ii. Length and breadth of bottom hopper feature= 200 mm

where $L_b =$ length of open belt

R= radius of large pulley

- r = radius of small pulley
- a = centre to centre distance

The length of belt was determined to be 834.15 mm

Also, the speed of the pulley was determined using equation (3)

- iii. Height of hopper=400 mm
- iv. Shear stress of mild steel=450 Mpa
- v. radius of small pulley=40 mm
- vi. radius of large pulley=80 mm
- vii. Centre to centre distance of pulleys, a=225 mm
- viii. area of leather belt=90 mm²
- ix. length of shaft =350 mm
- x. Modulus of rigidity for mild steel = 80 GN/m^2
- xi. Linear speed, N =1400 m/s
- xii. shaft power = 1.5 Kw

2.1.1 Design of Hopper Capacity

The volumetric capacity of the hopper was determined by using equation (1) as obtained from [8].

$$V = \frac{1}{3} [(A_1^2) - (a_1^2)] \times h$$
 (1)

where V=volume of hopper

A₁= area of top feature

 a_1 = area of bottom feature

h = height between the top and bottom feature

$$V = \frac{1}{3} \left[(400^2) - (200^2) \right] \times 400 = 50272000 \ mm^3$$

The volume of the hopper was calculated to be 50272000 mm³.

2.1.2 Determination of Length of Belt

The length of open belt was determined by equation (2) obtained from [9].

$$L_b = \pi(R+r) + 2a + \frac{(R-r)^2}{a}$$
 (2)

$$\frac{N}{n} = \frac{d}{D} \tag{3}$$

where n =speed of small pulley

d=diameter of small pulley

D=diameter of large pulley

The velocity of belt was determined by the application of equation (4) obtained from [9].

 $v = \omega R$ (4)

v= velocity of belt

R= radius of large pulley

 ω = angular speed

The angular speed of the belt was determined by equation (5) obtained from [10].

$$\omega = \frac{2\pi N}{60} \tag{5}$$

The angular speed was determined to be 146.63 rad/s for a linear speed of 1400 rpm. Also, the velocity of the belt was calculated to be 11.73 m/s.

2.1.3 Determination of Torque

The torque transmitted by the shaft was determined by equation (6) obtained from [10].

$$T = \frac{60 \times P_s}{2\pi N} \tag{6}$$

where P_s = Power transmitted by the shaft

T=Torque transmitted

The torque transmitted was determined to be 10.23Nm for a shaft power of 1.5 Kw

The centrifugal force was determined by equation (7) obtained from [10].

$$F = \frac{T}{r} \tag{7}$$

The centrifugal force was determined to be 255.75 N.

In addition, the stress acting on the leather belt was determined by equation (8).

$$\sigma_b = \frac{F}{A_b} \tag{8}$$

where σ_b =stress acting on the belt

Ab=area of leather belt

The stress on the belt was determined to be 2.842 N/mm².

2.1.4 Determination of Belt Tensions

Also, the maximum tension on the belt was calculated using equation (9) obtained from [11].

$$T = \sigma_b \times t \times b \tag{9}$$

where T= maximum tension

t= belt thickness

b =belt width

The maximum tension was determined to be 258.622 N from a belt width of 13 mm and thickness of 9 mm

The tension on the tight side was determined by using equation (10).

$$T_1 = T - T_{cf} \tag{10}$$

where T_1 = tension on tight side of the belt in N

T_{cf}=centrifugal tension

Considering centrifugal tension to be negligible, the tension on tight side was determined to be equal to the maximum tension of the belt.

The tension on the slack side of the belt was calculated by the application of equation (11) as given in [11].

$$\frac{T_1}{T_2} = \ell^{\mu\theta} \tag{11}$$

where T₂=Tension on the slack side in Newton

 θ =angle of contact of the smaller pulley in radians.

The angle of contact of the smaller pulley was determined by using equation (12) obtained from [12].

$$\theta = 180 - 2sin^{-1}(\frac{R-r}{a})$$
 (12)

The angle of contact of the smaller pulley was calculated to be 2.7786 radians.

By substitution of angle of contact and a coefficient of friction of 0.3 in equation (11) yielded a slack side tension o f 112.37 N.

2.1.5 Power Transmitted by the Belt

Power transmitted by the belt was determined by applying equation (13) obtained from [12].

$$P = (T_1 - T_2)v$$
 (13)

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where P= power transmitted in Watt

v=velocity of belt in m/s

$$P = (258.622 - 112.37)11.73 = 1715.54 W$$

Power transmitted by the belt was calculated to be 1715.54 W by substituting for the belt tensions in equation (13).

2.1.6 Shaft Design

The shaft design was carried out based of rigidity. The polar moment and the shaft diameter of the cassava grating machine were determined by the application of equations (14) and (16) respectively obtained from [12] and [13].

$$\frac{T}{J} = \frac{G\theta_t}{L} \tag{14}$$

where T =Torque in Nm

J=polar moment

G= Modulus of rigidity for mild steel taken to be 80 $\ensuremath{GN/m^2}$

 θ_t =angle of twist taken to be 0.05°

L= length of shaft

The polar moment was calculated to be 0.0513 m^4 as shown in equation (15).

$$J = \frac{10.23 \times 0.35}{80 \times 10^9 \times \frac{0.05 \times \pi}{180}} = 0.0513 \, m^4 \tag{15}$$

The diameter of the shaft was calculated by substituting for the polar moment in equation (16).

$$J = \frac{\pi d^4}{32} \tag{16}$$

where d = diameter of shaft in mm

The shaft diameter was determined to be 27.05 mm.

In addition, the volume and weight of shaft were determined using equations (17) and (18) respectively.

$$V_s = \frac{\pi \times d^2 \times L}{4} \tag{17}$$

Vs=volume of shaft in mm³

$$V_{s} = \frac{\pi \times 27.05^{2} \times 350}{4} = 201163.3 \ mm^{3}$$
$$W_{s} = \rho_{s} \times g \times V_{s} \qquad (18)$$

where Ws= weight of shaft in N

g =acceleration due to gravity taken as 9.81 m/s^2

 ρ_s =density of shaft taken to be 7850 kg/m³

$$W_s = 7850 \times 9.81 \times 0.00020116$$

= 15.5 N

The machine shaft had a volume and weight of 201163.3 mm³ and 15.5 N respectively.

2.2 Machine Description

The developed cassava grating machine is comprised of components constructed with steel, including the hopper, internal combustion engine, pulley belt, solid shaft, main frame, and grating unit.

I. Hopper

The hopper shown in Fig. 2 had designed volumetric capacity of 50272000 mm³. The hopper served as a housing for the peeled and washed cassava tubers as they entered the grating unit.

II. Internal Combustion Engine

The power supply used in the grating machine is by the internal combustion engine designed to have a capacity of 1715.54 Watt. The prime mover utilizes premium motor spirit as fuel.

III. Pulley Belt

The belt and pulley system of power transmission was utilized in this study. The leather belt had dimensions of 13 mm, 9 mm and 834.15 mm for the width, thickness and length respectively. The belt was designed to transmit a power capacity of 1.715 Kw.

IV. Solid Shaft

A solid shaft of 27.05 mm diameter and length of 350 mm was designed on the basis of rigidity to withstand power delivered from the internal combustion engine through pulley belt.

V. Main Frame

The main frame acted as structural support for the grating machine. The frame consists of 50.8 mm angle bar which enhances machine stability and structurally sustained the internal combustion engine, hopper and solid shaft.

VI. Grating Unit

The grating unit consists of perforated sheets, drum and circular discs. The drum is held by shaft and wrapped by perforated rolled cylindrical steel sheet.

3. Results and Discussion

The summary of the designed parameters and detailed graphical modeling are presented in this section.

Table 1. Summary of designed values of the grating machine

3.1. Summary of the Designed Parametric Values of the Developed Cassava Grating Machine

The designed values of the Cassava grating machines are shown in Table 1.

S/N	Machine parameter	Designed value
1	Volume of the hopper	50272000 mm ³
2	Length of belt	834.15 mm
3	Velocity of the belt	11.73 m/s
4	Torque transmitted	10.23 Nm
5	Centrifugal force	255.75 N
6	Stress on the belt	2.842 N/mm ²
7	Maximum tension	258.622 N
8	Power transmitted	1715.54 W
9	Shaft diameter	27.05 mm
10	Volume of shaft	201163.3 mm ³
11	Weight of shaft	15.5 N

The designed parametric values of the cassava grating machine were in agreement with the values of the cassava grating machine designed by [7] and [8].

3.2. Graphical Modelling of the Cassava Grating Machine

The graphical modeling of the developed Cassava grating machine showing the isometric drawing, third angle orthographic projection and the components drawing are shown in Figures 1, 2 and 3 respectively.







Fig. 1: Isometric drawing of the cassava machine



Fig. 3. Components parts of the machine

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3.3. Construction of the cassava grating machine

The construction of the machine was carried out using joining processes like welding and riveting. A marking out of components on the main frame of the machine was carried out. The main frame which serves as base and major support for machine components such as hopper, internal combustion engine, grating unit, shaft and pulleys was first constructed using angle bars. Bolts and nuts were used to carry out temporary joining processes for components parts like the internal combustion engine and pulleys. A thorough finishing was done using filing machine in ensuring that every sharp and rough edge was made smooth. In addition, paints were applied to perform the final surface finishing. The developed cassava grating machine is shown in Figure 4.

4. Conclusion

Africa is reputed for its developmental strides in the field of agriculture. In order to remain relevant among the comity of great nations there is a great need to develop its local content. The ability to grow food crops must be matched with the requisite or in depth technological knowhow on processing of agricultural produce. This idea informed the development of cassava grating machine to help convert harvested tubers into various sizes of pellets and powdery form that are served as staple food in many homes across the globe. The cassava grating machine was successfully designed to provide various choices for cassava products. The developed grating machine had a hopper capacity of about 50272000 mm³ which could contain cassava weight of 20 kg/m³A power capacity of 1715.54 W was delivered to the solid shaft of 27.05 mm diameter to grate the peeled cassava tubers at a calculated torque of 10.23 Nm.

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Fig. 4. Developed cassava grating machine

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Numerical Simulations of an Al₂O₃-Water **Nanofluid-Based Linear Fresnel Solar Collector**

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Received: 02.08.2022 Accepted: 04.10.2024

Abstract- This study aims to numerically investigate the performance of Al₂O₃-water nanofluid as a heat transfer fluid (HTF) in a linear Fresnel solar receiver. Although a reasonable number of studies have investigated the thermal behaviors of different nanofluids as HTF in solar collectors, the focus has so far been on the parabolic trough collectors, with little or no research efforts available for the linear Fresnel collectors. ANSYS-fluent software was utilized for the simulation in this study, which converted the governing equations to algebraic forms based on the control-volume approach. The Nusselt number and wall temperature were used to characterize the thermal performance of the nanofluid, while the friction factor and eddy viscosity were considered to determine the flow features. The correlation equation proposed by Gnielinski was used to determine the Nusselt number, while the flow features were computed using the Darcy-Weisbach equation. Additionally, the thermal performance of the nanofluid was compared directly with that of pure water. Results showed that the nanofluid improved the thermal performance by about 6-19 % across the solar receiver length. Also, the Nusselt number increases non-uniformly across the length, with a significant rise towards the trailing edge of the nanofluid flow. Conversely, the pressure drop also increases with an increase in the solar receiver length, albeit uniformly. Designers should always factor into the design process to determine the optimum solar collector length when a nanofluid is considered as the HTF; to maximize heat transfer and minimize pressure drop and its attendant economic consequences.

Keywords: Numerical simulation, Nanofluid, Al₂O₃ nanoparticles, Heat transfer analysis, Linear Fresnel collectors, Solar receivers

Pr

Prandtl number

Nomenclature

		v	Fluid velocity, m/s
Ср	Specific heat, J/kg K	Al_2O_3	Alumina (aluminum oxide)
di	Internal diameter of the internal tube, m		
do	External diameter of the internal tube, m	Greek	letters
\mathbf{f}_{P}	Fiction factor	ρ	density, kg/m3
h	Heat transfer coefficient, W/m2K	μ	dynamic viscosity, kg/ms
k	Thermal conductivity, W/m K	·	
L	Length of tube, m		
Nu	Nusselt number		
Δp	Pressure drop, Pa		

1. Introduction

The negative impacts of fossil-fueled energy systems on the environment have necessitated the aggressive focus on clean and renewable energy systems witnessed globally today. Although energy sources such as solar, wind, biomass, hydropower, geothermal, and tidal are mainly on the front burner, other carriers such as hydrogen are also being vigorously explored. In solar energy specifically, several established pathways are available for the exploitation of the thermal energy of the sun, one of which is the Concentrated Solar Power (CSP) route [10]. In CSP systems, collectors are focused on the solar irradiation position by trackers, so that the sun's thermal energy can be accumulated by the heat transfer fluid that flows in the receiver, which is an integral part of the solar collectors. Several practical CSP plants have been built around the world, based on the Parabolic Trough (PT), Linear Fresnel (LF), Solar Tower (Heliostat), and Parabolic Dish technologies [1]. However, solar exploitation is yet to reach a full commercialization stage of development, due to factors such as the transient nature of solar availability, and limitations of heat transfer processes in the solar collectors. Thus, many improvement strategies have been proposed in the literature for decades, and several others are still being proposed to date for the performance enhancement of CSP systems [2–5].

One main strategy for improving the performance of CSP systems that has attracted the attention of energy researchers in recent times is the application of nanofluids for heat transfer enhancement in the collectors [6]. Nanofluids are suspensions of metallic or nonmetallic nanoparticles in a base fluid. They have been explored over the years for use in different sectors of the global economy, but their applications for heat transfer enhancement in renewable energy systems are quite recent [7]. Specifically for the thermal performance improvement of solar collectors which is in focus in this paper, several recent studies are available in the literature, a few of which are critically reviewed in this section. Ashour et al. [4] investigated numerically the thermal performance of ZnO and CuO water nanofluids in a flat-plate solar collector using Egyptian climate conditions. The dedicated 3-D computational fluid dynamics (CFD) model implemented in the study revealed that introducing nanoparticles improved the efficiency of the flat plate solar collector [14-16]. In addition, the study showed that the collector efficiency is influenced by the concentration of the nanoparticles and the heat transfer fluid (HTF) mass flow rate. Similarly, Benabderrahmane et al. [6] analyzed numerically the turbulent forced convection of the dowtherm-A HTF doped with aluminum nanoparticles in a parabolic trough solar receiver. The authors demonstrated that a twophase model implemented in the study minimizes the need for special correlations to obtain properties of the nanoparticles, relative to a one-phase model. Fahim et al. [8] studied the nanoparticle effects of Cu, Al, and Ti on the thermodynamic performance of thermal oil HTF in parabolic trough solar collectors. They reported that increasing the nanoparticle concentration in thermal oil improved the heat transfer efficiency of the parabolic trough solar collector, with Cu nanoparticles offering the best performance among the three compared. Islam et al. [9] reported similar trends, that a rise in the volumetric concentration of nanoparticles would increase the heat transfer coefficient in parabolic trough solar receivers, based on their joint experimental and numerical study of different nanoparticles. Ying et al.[20] focused on the performance of molten-salt HTF in solar receivers when doped with nanoparticles, and concluded that nanoparticles enhance heat transfer in solar receivers, subject to different concentrations of nanoparticles, inlet velocities of HTF, and heat flux profiles. Abed et al. [1] reported that applications of SiO₂ in Therminol VP-1 as HTF in a parabolic trough solar receiver enhanced performance. However, this enhancement differs in degree for different arrangements of solar inserts into the receiver. Zidan et al. [20] evaluated the performance of 8 different nanoparticles with Therminol VP-1 as HTF in a parabolic trough solar collector hence, reported that TiO₂ yielded the highest enhancement in terms of useful energy, useful exergy, and power block output energy over a year. Additionally, Peng et al. [13] studied the effects of Cu and carbon nanotubes (CNT) on a liquid metal (Gallium) as HTF in a parabolic trough solar receiver. They submitted the addition of nanoparticles enhanced the forced convection heat transfer by about 35-45 %, reduced entropy generation, and increased exergy efficiency; CNT offered a better performance than Cu. However, it was also reported that pressure drop increased in the solar receiver with the introduction of the nanoparticles, relative to what is obtained with pure Gallium. Mahmoudi et al [11] identified CuO-water to offer a better heat transfer enhancement in solar receivers relative to other nanofluids and pure HTF. Mwesigye and Meyer [12] also compared the performance of different nanoparticles in therminol VP-1 as HTF in parabolic trough solar receivers. They highlighted that silver improved the thermal efficiency by about 1.4 percent points over copper, and by about 6.7 percent points over aluminum oxide, with the thermal efficiency increasing with a higher concentration of nanoparticles in therminol VP-1. Babapour et al. [5] experimented with cross-investigating the simultaneous effects of a helically corrugated receiver and nanofluids on the performance of parabolic trough solar collectors. They reported that aluminum nanoparticles increased the Nusselt number by about 220 %, and friction factor by about 146 %, all pointing to the performance enhancement of the parabolic

trough receiver. Subramani et al. [17] reported that a further CNT coating of a copper solar receiver with an Al-based nanofluid would improve heat transfer performance. Vahedi et al. [18] however suggested that the improvement of thermal efficiency of thermal oil-based nanofluids in parabolic trough receivers could be negligibly low with increasing Reynolds number. For some nanoparticles that improved performance, the authors reported that they are barely implementable due to the high cost [19].

In the reviewed literature, applications of nanofluids as heat transfer fluids in solar receivers is a viable performance enhancement strategy. Studies reported in the literature review above were focused on the parabolic trough solar technology. Considering that the performance enhancement of solar receivers is case-specific, as seen from the literature review above, it is necessary to investigate the performance of nanofluids as HTF in other solar technologies. The finding aims to numerically study the performance of a linear Fresnel solar receiver using Al₂O₃-water nanofluid as the heat transfer fluid. To the best of the author's knowledge, the study of Albased nanofluids as HTF in linear Fresnel collectors remains open in the literature, and this constitutes a valid research gap aimed to be filled in this paper. The specific objectives of the study are:

- To quantify the thermal effect of Al₂O₃ in water as heat transfer fluid in a linear Fresnel solar receiver;
- To investigate the behavior of heat transfer parameters such as the surface Nusselt number, thermal conductivity, and wall temperature along the solar receiver length; and
- (iii) To analyze the variation of flow features such as friction factor and eddy viscosity along the receiver length.

The methods adopted for numerical analysis in this study are reported in section 2; the main results obtained are discussed in section 3; while the conclusions are summarized in section 4.

2. Methodology

2.1. Simulation Set-up, Assumptions, and Nanofluid Properties

An ANSYS-Fluent model was employed in this study to investigate numerically the thermal performance of Al₂O₃water nanofluid as HTF in a linear Fresnel solar receiver. The simulation determined the HTF outlet temperature across the length of the receiver tube, at varying volume concentrations of the nanoparticle in the fluid. The control volume-based approach was selected for converting the governing equations to algebraic expressions to be solved numerically. There were 11,634 nodes for the adiabatic wall domain (solid) of the tube; 59,001 nodes for the fluid domain (cell) and 11,634 also for the heater surface domain (solid). The schematic view of linear fresnel solar collector is shown in figure 1.

Standard empirical values of density, specific heat capacity, thermal conductivity, and dynamic viscosity of Al₂O₃ and water were each summed up hence, the average values were employed to determine the Prandtl number (Pr)and the Reynolds number (Re_{Dh}) . The steady flow of the nanofluid was assumed a constant speed of 35 m/s. The Reynolds number at the tube entrance is large enough to analyze the flow as turbulent. Hence, the thermophysical properties of the nanofluid are constant. A no-slip heat transfer condition was also assumed (heat flux equals zero). The fluid properties and input parameters for the boundary conditions adopted in this study are highlighted in Tables 1 and 2, respectively. Although to adopt this methodology, the Gnielinski correlation is valid for tubes over a large Reynolds number, Re_{Dh} and Prandtl number, Pr. Such that, $3000 \leq Re_{Dh}$ \leq 5 * 10⁶ and 0.5 \leq Pr \leq 2000. Hence, the velocity of the fluid must be 35 m/s and above. The ratio of Al₂O₃ to H₂O is 1:1. The mean of the specific heat capacity C_P in J/kgm³, density g in kg/m³, thermal conductivity K in W/m²K, and the dynamic viscosity μ in kg/m.s are considered for the modeling. This is done by adding the value of each thermodynamic property such as specific heat capacity, density, thermal conductivity, and dynamic viscosity of Al₂O₃ and the corresponding values of H₂O; then dividing by two.

Table 1. Fluid Properties

Properties at 30 °C.	H ₂ O	Al_2O_3	Nanofluid
S. heat, $C_P(J/kgm^3)$	4184	451	237.5
Density, g (kg/m ³)	997.1	3970	2486.99
Thermal Cond. (W/m ² K)	0.6145	12.12	6.3672
Dynamic µ. (kg/m.s)	0.7972	0.8892	0.8432

Density: the mass fraction of nanofluids in water returns to be $x_2 = 0.8$ or 80 %, $x_1 = 1 - x_2$, $\rho_1 = 997.1$ kg/m³, $\rho_2 = 3970$ kg/m³. Where ρ_1 and ρ_2 are the density of H₂O and Al₂O₃.

$$\rho = \frac{1}{\frac{x_1}{\rho_1} + \frac{x_2}{\rho_2}}$$
(1)



Fig 1. Linear Fresnel solar collector schematic view

Parameter	Value
Pipe outer diameter (m)	0.02
Pipe inner diameter (m)	0.016
Pipe length (m)	1.00
Inlet temperature (⁰ C)	30
Outlet temperature (⁰ C)	30
Inlet velocity (m/s)	63.6
Heat flux (W/m ²)	0 (No-slip condition)
Turbulent intensity	5.063
Pipe material	Steel Commercial Pipe
Relative roughness	0.045

Table 2. Input Parameter for Boundary Conditions

Table 3. Steel and Air Properties

Properties at 30 °C.	Steel	Air
S. heat, $C_P(J/kgm^3)$	502.416	1.00
Density, 9 (kg/m ³)	8000	1.225
Thermal cond. (W/m ² K)	15	0.02225
Dynamic µ. (kg/m.s)	1.793*10-3	1.9*10 ⁻⁵

2.2. Mathematical Correlations

To investigate numerically, the heat transfer performance of Al₂O₃-water nanofluid as HTF in a linear Fresnel solar receiver in this study, the Gnielinski Nusselt number correlation was adopted to predict the thermal profile of the solar receiver. The Gnielinski correlation is valid for tubes over a large Reynolds number range, given by:

$$Nu_{dh} = \frac{(f/8)(Re_{Dh} - 1000)Pr}{1 + 12.7(f/8)^{1/2}(Pr^{2/3} - 1)}$$
(2)

f is the Darcy friction factor,

 $(0.790 \ln \text{Re} - 1.64)^{-2} \tag{3}$

Validity of Gnielinski correlation;

$$\label{eq:rescaled} \begin{split} 0.5 &\leq Pr \leq 2000 \\ 3000 &\leq Re_{Dh} \,\leq 5 \, * \, 10^6 \end{split}$$

Dh is the hydraulic diameter in meters, Re is the Reynolds number, Pr is the Prandtl number, Nu is the Nusselt number, and f is the Darcy friction factor. The Darcy–Weisbach model was employed to address the friction factors in the analysis. It is expressed in the head loss form as:

$$\Delta \mathbf{H} = (\mathbf{f} \mathbf{L} \mathbf{v}^2 \,\rho)/2\mathbf{D} \tag{4}$$

In pressure loss form:

$$\Delta \mathbf{P} = (\mathbf{f} \mathbf{L} \mathbf{v}^2 \, \boldsymbol{\rho})/2\mathbf{D} \tag{5}$$

where Δh is the head loss due to friction (m), Δp is the pressure loss due to friction (Pa), f_D is the Darcy friction factor, L is the pipe length (m), D is the hydraulic diameter of the pipe (m), ρ is the density (kg/m²), and v is the mean flow velocity.

Osborne Reynolds proposed; Re, = (density * velocity* diameter) /dynamic viscosity

$$\operatorname{Re} = \left(\rho * v * D\right) / \mu \tag{6}$$

The velocity of flow was chosen to be 63.6m/s. This assertion was discovered theoretically such that with velocity below this value, the flow will not obey turbulent flow, hence Gnielinski correlation validity.

The corresponding Prandtl number Pr = (momentum diffusivity/ thermal diffusivity),

$$\Pr = (\mu C_P) / K \tag{7}$$

Pr = 306.90

The Darcy friction factor,

 $f = (0.790 \text{ lnRe} - 1.64)^{-2} = 0.0455$

The Moody diagram called the Stanton diagram (known as the Moody chart) validated the friction factor. This is a graph in a non-dimensional form that relates the Darcy–Weisbach friction factor f_D , Reynolds number Re, and surface roughness for fully developed flow in a circular pipe. It was used to predict pressure drop or flow rate down such a pipe.

Relative toughness = (surface roughness/pipe diameter) =
$$\epsilon$$
 /D
(8)

Where ε is the relative roughness of the pipe and D is the diameter of the pipe. Blasius (1913) proposed that the friction factor can deduced from the equation,

$$f = 0.3164 \text{ Re}^{-0.25}$$
(9)

Blasius also proposed that the friction factor depends on Re, for hydraulically smooth pipe and the turbulent flow, the friction factor formula,

$$f = (100. \text{ Re})^{-0.2}$$
 (10)

Petuhov concluded in 1970, the friction factor can be achieved from the equation,

$$f = (1.82 \log \text{Re} - 1.64)^{-2}$$
(11)

where the friction factor is obtained to be 0.0455. Also, according to the Sieder-Tate equation for turbulent flow, although this correlation is largely dependent on Re and Pr,

$$Nu = 0.023 R_e^{0.8} Pr^{1/3} \left[\mu_{A1203} / \mu_{H20}\right]^{0.14}$$
(12)

Table 3 depicts specific heat capacity values in J/kgm³, density in kg/m³, thermal conductivity in W/m²K, and dynamic viscosity in kg/m.s of steel and air at 30 0 C inlet and outlet temperature of Al2O₃-water nanofluid in the receiver pipe. Implementing the above equation in ANSYS software made it possible to numerically investigate the thermal energy profile across the length of a linear Fresnel solar receiver when the solar irradiation is focused on it. The Nusselt number and temperatures were used principally to assess the thermal profiles. Also, the flow features were examined across the length of the solar receiver, using the friction factor (pressure loss) and flow viscosity.

3. Results and Discussions

3.1. Mathematical Modeling

The Gnielinski correlation (eqn.1) calculation with a friction factor of 0.0455 depicts that the Nusselt number equals 74.97 and reveals that the Nusselt number increases with an increase in friction factor.

Petukho Nusselt correlation,

$$Nu_{dh} = \frac{(f/8)(Re_{Dh} - 1000)Pr}{1 + 12.7(f/8)^{1/2}(Pr^{2/3} - 1)}$$

 $\Pr > 0.7, R_e \le 2300$

Where: $f = (0.790 \ln R_e - 1.64)^{-2}$ with $R_e = 3001.40$ and f = 0.0455, the correlation justifies that the Nusselt number gives the same value as the corresponding Gnielinski correlation (Nu_{dh} = 75.90). Sieder-Tate equation for turbulent flow, although this correlation is highly dependent on Re and Pr,

 $Nu = 0.023 R_e^{0.8} Pr^{1/3} [\mu_{Al2O3} / \mu_{H2O}]^{0.14}$ where μ is the dynamic viscosity for Al₂O₃ and H₂O

The corresponding Nu = 92.45

Table 4 Pipe Variation Concerning Pressure Head

Length (cm)	Pressure loss	Bar
0.2	25.15 * 10 ⁵	25
0.4	50.30 * 10 ⁵	50
0.6	$75.50 * 10^5$	75
0.8	100.60 *105	100
1.0	$12.57 * 10^5$	125

Table 4 shows the pressure loss across the length of the solar receiver pipe. The nanofluid obeys the Gnielinski correlation, Pr and corresponding Re_{Dh} of the fluid property are $0.5 \le Pr \le 2000$ and $3000 \le Re_{Dh} \le 5 * 10^6$. Substituting the fluid thermodynamics properties into the pressure head equation, it is observed that the pressure loss increases across as the pipe increases. Hence, the simulation results from the ANSYS fluent also affirmed this as shown in the pressure drop variation across the solar receiver length in Figure 4.

3.2. Thermal Profile of Al₂O₃-Water Nanofluid Across the Solar Receiver Length

As mentioned earlier, the Gnielinski correlation applied made it possible to predict numerically the heat transfer performance of the linear Fresnel solar receiver using Al₂O₃-water nanofluid as the HTF. Al₂O₃-water nanofluid at 30 °C flows in the solar receiver pipe with a specific heat capacity of 237.5 J/kgm³, a density of 2486.99 kg/m³, the thermal conductivity, and dynamic viscosity of the nanofluid flowing at the velocity of 63.6 m/s are 6.3672 W/m²K and 0.8432kg/m.s respectively. The thermal profile of the HTF across the solar receiver surface is presented in Fig. 2 based on the Nusselt number. As can be seen, there is a non-uniform increase in the Nusselt number along the solar receiver length. While the Nusselt number growth is only moderate for about 95 % of the receiver length from the leading edge, the growth turns significantly high at the trailing edge, becoming almost vertical at the end of the pipe. The significance of this is that there exists a nonuniform thermal profile of the Al₂O₃-water nanofluid across the surface of a solar receiver and that the convective heat transfer tends to increase drastically at the trailing edge of the receiver. When pure water was used as HTF for the simulation, results showed that the Nusselt number (and heat transfer

performance) was higher with the use of the applied nanofluid across the length of the receiver, with about 6 - 19 % increase. The ANSYS contours of the entire thermal and flow properties investigated in this study are presented in this paper as an appendix.



Fig. 2. Surface Nusselt number variation along the solar receiver length

Similarly, the profile of the adjacent wall temperature of the solar receiver is presented in Fig. 3 over the receiver length. As expected, the wall temperature decreases almost linearly from the leading edge to the trailing edge as the nanofluid flows through the solar collector length. This occurs at a constant thermal conductivity of the wall material as shown in Fig. 4. It had been assumed fixed in the simulation set-up.



Fig. 3. Wall temperature profile over the length of the solar receiver



Fig. 4 – Thermal conductivity over the length of the solar receiver

3.3. Flow Features of Al₂O₃-Water Nanofluid Across the Solar Receiver Length

The friction factor measured by pressure drop, and the eddy viscosity, were applied to characterize the flow features of the Al₂O₃-water nanofluid under investigation in this paper for application as HTF in a linear Fresnel solar receiver. Based on the Darcy-Weisbach equation applied in the ANSYS simulation, a trend was obtained for pressure drop variation across the solar receiver length, as shown in Fig. 5. Similarly, the variation of eddy viscosities across the solar receiver length is shown in Fig. 6. As can be seen, increase in solar receiver length also increases the pressure drop, which translates to an increase in friction factor within the flow. This work in contrast relates to the thermal performance illustrated by the Nusselt number in Fig. 2, which increases with an increase in the solar receiver length. These two results imply that due attention must be given to determining the optimum length when applying nanofluid as HTF in a linear Fresnel solar receiver, where the pressure drop would be as low as possible, and the heat transfer coefficient as high as possible. This assertion is corroborated by the result of the eddy viscosity presented in Fig. 6, where the eddy viscosity remains constant over a good distance across the solar receiver, only to ascend drastically towards the trailing edge of the flow. Figure 7 and Figure 8 show the behavior of the Al₂O₃-water nanofluid under the influence of turbulent kinetic energy in square meters per second square (m². s⁻²) and the turbulent eddy frequency per second (s⁻¹) across the length of the solar receiver.



Fig. 5. Pressure drop variation across the solar receiver length



Fig. 6. Effect of receiver length on the eddy viscosity



Fig. 7. Turbulent kinetic energy over the length of the solar receiver



Fig. 8. Turbulent eddy frequency over the length of the solar receiver

Table 5 shows a comparative performance and results of different nanofluids in solar receiver tubes in some reviewed literature. Al₂O₃-water nanofluid as HTF in the solar receiver pipe contours from ANSYS for difference thermal and flow properties which include the pressure, temperature contour, density, velocity, Surface Nusselt Number, surface heat transfer coefficient, skin friction coefficient, thermal conductivity, Al₂O₃-water nanofluid isosurface view, velocity streamline contours, as well as the scale residual of the nanofluid, velocity magnitude against the position in the receiver pipe, and velocity and temperature magnitude contours investigated in the study are shown in Appendix Figure 1 -14 in this paper. Material and absolute roughness property values are also presented in the Appendix Table 1.

Table	5.0	Comparative	nanofluid	performance	and	results	with	some	reviewed	works	of l	iterature
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Deference	Work	Mathad (s)	Matariala	Desults
Benabderrahmane et al [6]	Compound heat transfer enhancement numerical analysis using single & two- phase models in PTC receiver	Finite volume method using ANSYS, and K-E turbulent model.	HTF; nanofluid consisting of Alumina nanoparticles suspended in synthetic oil Dowtherm-A	PTC offers better heat transfer. Darcy friction factor is considerably similar in both single and two-phase modeling
Abed et al [1]	Multiple strips inserts and nanofluids on the thermal- hydraulic performances effect of parabolic trough collectors	Conjugated heat transfers multi-region simple foam (cht Multi Region Simple Foam) engineering tool, Finite-Volume method	Large conical-shaped strips, small conical strips, rectangular-shaped strips, and elliptical-shaped strips. SiO ₂ nanoparticles mixed in Therminol® VP-1 (TO)	Nusselt number for large conical strips leads to 57.49 % & 62.53 % for the nanofluid. Thermal conductivity increases to 15.41 %
Carmo Zidan et al [7]	Various nanofluids performance evaluation for parabolic trough collectors	PTC; Parametric Technology Corporation software	Parabolic trough collector, Therminol VP-1, TiO ₂	TiO ₂ most suitable nanoparticle material to be dispersed in therminol VP-1 for the PTC system.
Ashour et al [4]	Numerical investigation on the thermal performance of a flat plate solar collector	A 3D computational fluid dynamics (CFD) model	water (H ₂ O), zinc oxide (ZnO) nanofluid, and copper oxide (CuO) nanofluid water- based	H ₂ O–CuO nanofluid with an average efficiency of about 81.64% at a mass flow rate of 0.0125 kg s^{-1} and VF of 0.15%.
Babapour et al [5]	Helically corrugated receiver and nanofluids PTC; simultaneous effects	ASHRAE standard software (93:2010)	Al ₂ O ₃ /water nanofluid at volume fractions of 0.25-1%	An increase of about 219.56% in Nusselt number
This study	Numerical simulations of an Al ₂ O ₃ -water nanofluid-based linear Fresnel solar collector	ANSYS Fluent software	Al ₂ O ₃ -water nanofluid (Al ₂ O ₃ 1:1), linear Fresnel solar collector	Thermal performance increases and the Nusselt number increases by 6-19 % across the pipe length relative to pure water. Friction factors also increase

4. Conclusions

The thermal performance of Al₂O₃-water nanofluid as heat transfer fluid (HTF) in a linear Fresnel solar receiver has been investigated numerically. An ANSYS-Fluent model was adopted to examine the thermal behavior of the nanofluid HTF across the length of the horizontal stainless-steel solar receiver tube. The flow was assumed to be the turbulent flow in the tube with constant properties. The Nusselt number and wall temperature were used principally to investigate the thermal profile of the nanofluid in the solar receiver. Hence the pressure drops and eddy viscosity characterized the flow in the tube. The correlation equation proposed by Gnielinski was used to determine the Nusselt number, while the friction factor was computed using the Darcy-Weisbach equation. The mean of the specific heat capacity C_P in J/kgm³, density ρ in kg/m³, thermal conductivity K in W/m²K, and the dynamic viscosity μ in kg/m.s were considered in the modeling. This is done by adding the value of each thermodynamic property, i.e., specific heat capacity, density, thermal conductivity, and dynamic viscosity of Al₂O₃ and the corresponding values of H₂O; then dividing by two. A direct comparison between the thermal behavior of pure water and the Al₂O₃-water nanofluid showed the potential benefits derived using nanofluid in linear Fresnel solar collector type. The main results obtained from the study are:

- The use of the Al₂O₃-water nanofluid as HTF in a linear Fresnel solar receiver would improve thermal performance (measured by Nusselt number) by about 6-19 % across the length of the receiver, relative to pure water;
- Although the wall temperature decreases almost uniformly along the length of the receiver; the effect of a length on thermal performance is non-uniform, with the highest Nusselt number obtained towards the trailing edge;
- Increasing the length of the receiver resulted in a higher friction factor (measured by pressure drop) for nanofluid flow across the receiver tube.

Lastly, Al₂O₃-water nanofluid as HTF in linear Fresnel should be encouraged due to the potential improvement of the heat transfer performance. Hence, with Al₂O₃-water nanofluid as heat transfer fluid, better efficiency is achievable compared to ordinary water as nanofluid in a solar receiver pipe as proposed in literature. However, the optimum length of the solar receiver that would maximize the heat transfer gain should be determined during design without any extreme increase in the pressure drop and its attendant economic burdens. Contours from ANSYS for the different thermal and flow properties investigated in this study were also presented in the Appendix.

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APPENDIX: CONTOURS



Appendix Fig 1. Pressure contour effect on Al₂O₃-water nanofluid in the Receiver Pipe



Appendix Fig. 2. Temperature contour on Al₂O₃-water nanofluid in the Receiver Pipe



Appendix Fig. 3. Density contour effect on Al₂O₃-water nanofluid in the Receiver Pipe



Appendix Fig 4. Velocity contour on Al₂O₃-water nanofluid in the Receiver Pipe



Appendix Fig. 5. Surface Nusselt Number contour on Al₂O₃-water in the Receiver Pipe



Appendix Fig. 6. Surface Heat transfer coefficient contour on Al₂O₃-water in the Receiver Pipe



Appendix Fig. 7. Skin Friction Coefficient contour on Al₂O₃-water in the Receiver Pipe



Appendix Fig. 8. Thermal Conductivity Contour on Al₂O₃-water in the Receiver Pipe



Appendix Fig. 9. Isosurface behavior of Al₂O₃-water in the Receiver Pipe



Appendix Fig. 10. Velocity Streamline behavior of Al₂O₃-water in the Receiver Pipe



Appendix Fig. 11. Al₂O₃-water nanofluid Scale Residuals in the Receiver Pipe



Appendix Fig. 12. Al₂O₃-water nanofluid Velocity Magnitude against Position in the Pipe



Appendix Fig. 13. Contours of Velocity Magnitude in the Receiver Pipe



Appendix Fig. 14. Contours of Temperature Magnitude in the Receiver Pipe

Appendix Table 1. Material and Absolute roughness values table

Material	Absolute Roughness (mm)
Copper, Lead, Brass, Aluminum (new)	0.001 - 0.002
PVC and Plastic Pipes	0.0015 - 0.007
Flexible Rubber Tubing - Smooth	0.006-0.07
Stainless Steel	0.0015
Steel Commercial Pipe	0.045 - 0.09
Weld Steel	0.045
Carbon Steel (New)	0.02-0.05
Carbon Steel (Slightly Corroded)	0.05-0.15
Carbon Steel (Moderately Corroded)	0.15-1
Carbon Steel (Badly Corroded)	1-3
Asphalted Cast Iron	0.1-1
New Cast Iron	0.25 - 0.8
Worn Cast Iron	0.8 - 1.5
Rusty Cast Iron	1.5 - 2.5
Galvanized Iron	0.025-0.15
Wood Stave	0.18-0.91
Wood Stave, used	0.25-1
Smoothed Cement	0.3
Ordinary Concrete	0.3 - 1
Concrete - Rough, Form Marks	0.8-3

Mechanical Performance Enhancement of Alkali-Activated Composites Using Synthetic Fibers with Metazeolite and Aluminum Sludge-Based Recycled Concrete Aggregates

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Received: 18.05.2024 Accepted: 06.11.2024

Abstract- This study examines the substantial enhancement in the performance of alkali-activated composites (AACs) produced from a distinctive combination of metazeolite (MZ) and slag (S), reinforced with synthetic fibers, and augmented with aluminum sludge (AS) and recycled concrete aggregate (RCA). The composites were subjected to activation through the use of a specific sodium hydroxide (NaOH) and sodium silicate (Na₂SiO₃) blend in a 2:1 ratio, with an activator-to-binder ratio of 0.95. Through a process of experimentation, the research team identified an optimal mix by varying the molarities of sodium hydroxide (NaOH) between 8M and 14M and the ratios of metazeolite to slag between 25% and 100%. The aforementioned mixture, comprising 50% MZ and 50% S, was activated with 12M NaOH and enhanced with 30% aluminum sludge, exhibiting remarkable strength characteristics. Furthermore, the incorporation of synthetic fibres, including polyethylene (PEF), polyamide (PAF), and basalt fibers (BF), resulted in a notable enhancement of the material's performance. It is noteworthy that the addition of basalt fibers at a concentration of 0.5% resulted in a 7% increase in compressive strength and a 24% improvement in flexural strength. This pioneering research illuminates the transformative potential of MZ-S-based AACs, particularly when combined with AS and BF, paving the way for the development of sustainable construction materials that meet contemporary performance and environmental standards.

Keywords: Alkali-activated composites, Metazeolite, Synthetic fibers, Mechanical properties

1. Introduction

In recent years, there has been a notable increase in the advocacy for sustainable development in civil engineering, driven by the growing necessity for eco-friendly and cost-efficient construction materials. The prevailing construction methodologies rely predominantly on Portland cement (PC), which has a considerable environmental impact, accounting for approximately 7% of global CO₂ emissions. In light of the industry's pursuit of more sustainable alternatives, alkali-activated composites (AACs) have emerged as a promising solution, offering a reduction in CO₂ emissions and lower energy consumption. This study examines the innovative

application of metazeolite (MZ) and slag (S) in AACs, which are further enhanced with aluminum sludge (AS) and recycled concrete aggregate (RCA) to create highperformance, sustainable building materials. The phenomenon of urbanization has resulted in a notable increase in construction and demolition activities, which in turn has led to a considerable rise in waste generation. In regions prone to seismic activity such as Turkey, urban transformation projects are anticipated to result in the generation of approximately 2 billion tons of construction waste over the next two decades. This scenario presents a unique opportunity to recycle such waste into valuable construction materials, thereby addressing both

environmental and economic concerns. The utilisation of recycled aggregates in AACs serves to alleviate waste disposal issues whilst simultaneously reducing the demand for virgin raw materials, thereby aligning with the overarching objectives of sustainable development. Incorporation of diverse fibers has been demonstrated to markedly enhance the mechanical properties of AACs. The integration of synthetic fibers, such as polyethylene (PEF), polyamide (PAF), and basalt fibers (BF), has shown significant promise. These fibers strengthen the structural integrity of AACs by enhancing tensile and flexural strengths, minimizing crack propagation, and improving overall durability. Sahin et al. [3] examined the effects of different basalt fiber ratios in MK-based AACs with various aggregate types. While the mechanical strengths remained within acceptable limits, AACs containing recycled aggregate exhibited slightly reduced properties. In a study by Sahin et al. [3], the effects of varying basalt fiber ratios in MK-based AACs with different aggregate types were examined. While the mechanical strengths remained within acceptable limits, AACs containing recycled aggregate exhibited slightly reduced properties. The unique chemical structures of natural zeolites render them indispensable in the geopolymerization process of AACs. The calcination of these materials at specific temperatures enhances their reactivity, thereby facilitating the formation of robust and durable composites. Zheng et al. [4] conducted a comparative analysis of the frost resistance of concrete using calcined zeolite, demonstrating that the porosity and pore structure exhibited improved characteristics with increasing curing age. Similarly, Florez et al. [5] investigated the calcinationpre-grinding processes of zeolite, revealing enhanced pozzolanic properties. Nikolov et al. [6] employed calcined natural zeolite and clinoptilolite as AAC precursors, resulting in the attainment of considerable compressive strength through potassium silicate activation. Further studies by Ozen and Alam [7] emphasized the significance of activator ratios in the geopolymerization of zeolite-based AACs. Aygörmez [8] conducted an analysis of the high-temperature effects of MK-S-based AACs reinforced with basalt fiber, demonstrating that these materials remain stable even after exposure to temperatures as high as 750 °C. Integrating aluminum sludge (AS) into AACs offers a novel approach to waste management and material enhancement. AS, a byproduct of alumina production, is generally seen as a disposal challenge due to its fine particle size and potential environmental impact. However, its inclusion in AACs can aid in setting and enhancing compressive strength, making it a valuable component in sustainable construction materials. This study provides a comprehensive analysis of the synergistic effects of AS and fiber reinforcement in AACs, focusing on their mechanical properties and durability. The combination of zeolite and fibers results in enhanced compressive strength and abrasion resistance. Investigations into ultra-high-performance AACs (UHPAACs) with PPF and SF have shown improved mechanical properties, especially with PPF in SF samples. Non-destructive testing methods, such as UPV, have been used to evaluate SFreinforced concrete containing recycled nylon granules and zeolite, demonstrating enhanced properties [9-29]. The use of steel fibers (SF) and basalt fibers (BF) has proven effective in boosting the workability and strength of alkali-activated materials (AAMs) or AACs. The concurrent utilization of SF and BF results in a synergistic enhancement in the hardening process, a reduction in stress concentration, and the limitation of crack formation. While SFs enhance the internal structure and properties of the material, BFs facilitate the formation of a well-defined interfacial region, thereby improving water absorption and porosity. By embedding these fibers into adaptable composite materials, it is possible to achieve peak performance while keeping costs low, thus advancing environmental sustainability. Furthermore, the incorporation of natural fiber reinforcement into traditional composites represents a viable and sustainable approach that is environmentally and economically advantageous. The potential of different fibers to enhance the properties of AAC has been investigated by various researchers. In their study, Choi et al. [30] demonstrated that the incorporation of PEF-PVAF reinforcement in S-based AACs resulted in enhanced tensile capacity and healing performance compared to PEF alone. In a related study, Wang et al. investigated the effects of PVAF and nano-silica on MK-S-based AACs, observing significant improvements in strength and durability with optimal PVAF and NS mixtures. In a study by Shaikh [31], PPF was investigated as a reinforcement fiber. The findings indicated that PPF composites exhibited superior mechanical properties with an optimal fiber content of 0-1% by volume.

This study elucidates the eco-technological advantages of sustainable AACs in the construction industry. The global construction industry is a significant contributor to environmental pollution and greenhouse gas emissions, primarily due to the extensive usage of PCs and the accumulation of solid waste. Developed countries have implemented regulatory measures with the objective of controlling PC emissions and promoting the recycling of waste concrete. The importance of recycling cannot be overstated, particularly in light of the significant environmental impact of debris resulting from earthquakes and urban transformations. This research underscores the significance of sustainable AAC production, illustrating the ecological advantages.

2. Materials and Methods

In this study, various materials were employed to create the alkali-activated composites (AACs). Slag (S), obtained from the Bolu Cement Industry, was used due to its high specific gravity (SG) of 2.9 and an impressive 98.6% pass rate through a 45-micron sieve. Mec Energy supplied the zeolite, characterized by a specific gravity of 2.17 and a significant surface area of 9660 cm²/g. The zeolite underwent calcination at 900 °C to enhance its reactivity. Aluminum sludge (AS) was procured from Eti Aluminum AS, dried at 105 °C, and milled to a 90 μ m particle size. Recycled concrete aggregate (RCA), provided by a local recycling company, featured an SG of 2.05 and was sieved through a 2 mm sieve to obtain fine aggregates. The chemical activators used included NaOH with a purity exceeding 99% and Na₂SiO₃ containing 27.2% SiO₂, 8.2% Na₂O, with a pH range

of 11-12.4. Table 1 presents the chemical compositions of these binder materials. AACs were formulated with a sand-to-binder ratio of 2.5 and an activator-to-binder ratio of 0.95. The weight ratio of Na₂SiO₃ to NaOH was maintained at 2:1, in line with both literature guidelines and preliminary laboratory tests. The initial phase involved creating 16 different AAC mixes, categorized into four series based on varying binder compositions: 100% MZ, 75% MZ + 25% S, 50% MZ + 50% S, and 75% S +25% MZ. Each series was tested with four NaOH molarities: 8M, 10M, 12M, and 14M.

The mix that demonstrated the highest strength in this phase underwent further testing with the addition of 10%, 20%, and 30% AS to assess its impact on compressive strength, flexural strength (at 7 and 28 days) and water absorption ratios (at 28 days). In (0.5%, 1%, 1.5%, and 2%) was analyzed for their mechanical properties (Table 2). The final phase, based on the optimal mix of MZ-S and AS, the influence of synthetic fibers—basalt fibers (BF), polyethylene fibers (PEF), and polyamide fibers (PAF)—at various percentages.

Component	Slag (%)	Metazeolite (MZ) (%) Red Mud (%)		RCA (%)
SiO ₂	40.55	76.90	16.20	62.56
Al ₂ O ₃	12.83	13.50	22.90	12.52
Fe ₂ O ₃	1.10	1.40	34.50	5.82
TiO ₂	0.75	0.10	-	0.75
CaO	35.58	2.00	1.80	12.0
MgO	5.87	1.10	-	1.83
K ₂ O	0.68	3.50	-	1.30
Na ₂ O	0.79	0.30	8.70	2.69
LOI	0.03	1.10	-	-
MnO	-	0.10	-	0.12

Table 1. Chemical composition binder materials.

Table 2.	Mixture	contents	and	quantities.
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	MZ (g)	AS (g)	S (g)	RCA (g)	Na2SiO3 (g)	NaOH (g)	PEF (g)	PAF (g)	BF (g)
100MZ	450	-	-	1125	142.5	285	-	-	-
75MZ+25S	337.5	-	112.5	1125	142.5	285	-	-	-
50MZ+50S (C)	225	-	225	1125	142.5	285	-	-	-
75S+25MZ	112.5	-	337.5	1125	142.5	285	-	-	-
50MZ+50S+10AS	225	112.5	225	1012.5	142.5	285	-	-	-
50MZ+50S+20AS	225	225	225	900	142.5	285	-	-	-
50MZ+50S+30AS	225	337.5	225	787.5	142.5	285	-	-	-
C+30AS+0.5PEF	225	337.5	225	783.2	142.5	285	4.28	-	-
C+30AS+1PEF	225	337.5	225	774.7	142.5	285	8.55	-	-
C+30AS+1.5PEF	225	337.5	225	761.85	142.5	285	12.82	-	-
C+30AS+2PEF	225	337.5	225	744.75	142.5	285	17.1	-	-
C+30AS+0.5PAF	225	337.5	225	784.09	142.5	285	-	3.41	-
C+30AS+1PAF	225	337.5	225	781.22	142.5	285	-	6.82	-
C+30AS+1.5PAF	225	337.5	225	764.44	142.5	285	-	10.23	-
C+30AS+2PAF	225	337.5	225	748.20	142.5	285	-	13.65	-
C+30AS+0.5BF	225	337.5	225	734.63	142.5	285	-	-	10.12
C+30AS+1BF	225	337.5	225	763.84	142.5	285	-	-	20.25
C+30AS+1.5BF	225	337.5	225	750.85	142.5	285	-	-	30.37
C+30AS+2BF	225	337.5	225	723.94	142.5	285	-	-	40.5

To evaluate the mechanical properties of the AACs, both cubic (50x50x50 mm) and prismatic (40x40x160 mm) samples were prepared. Compressive and flexural strengths were measured using an automatic testing machine following the relevant standards. For water absorption tests, as per ASTM C 642, the oven-dried samples were weighed and then immersed

I properties of the AACs, both natic (40x40x160 mm) samples in water for 48 hours to achieve saturation before being reweighed. Flexural strength was assessed on the 28th day using a single-point loading method in a standardized testing setup (Fig. 1.).



Fig. 1. Images of the experimental setup and specimen testing process, including preparation, testing, and storage of AACs.



3. Results and Discussion



Fig. 2. Water absorption and void ratio values of fiberreinforced AACs at 28 days.

The detailed analysis of the relationships among fiber ratios, water absorption, and porosity in construction materials provides crucial insights into the behavior of AAC compositions under various fiber concentrations and the inclusion of AS. The observed linear progressions in the fiber ratios versus water absorption and porosity Fig. 2. underline a significant influence of incremental increases in fiber content on these essential material properties, reflecting both opportunities and challenges in material design for construction applications. Starting with the relationship between fiber ratios and water absorption, the upward trajectory from 0.5% to 2.25% fiber content, leading to an increase in water absorption from about 5% to over 22%, highlights a critical point: while increased fiber content enhances certain material properties, it also raises water absorption significantly. This observation is particularly relevant in environments prone to moisture or direct water exposure, where high water absorption could undermine material integrity. However, the graph also suggests a saturation point at around 2.0% fiber ratio, beyond which water absorption does not decrease, indicating a threshold where additional fibers may contribute to increased porosity rather than enhancing water resistance. Regarding porosity, the similarly ascending trend as fiber content increases suggests that higher fiber concentrations may offer benefits such as improved insulation properties or reduced material density but also introduce greater porosity. This increased porosity could weaken the material's structural strength, making it less suitable for load-bearing applications unless compensatory design measures are implemented. However, the optimal fiber ratio, evidenced around 1.0%, effectively balances the dual needs of reduced water absorption and lower porosity, achieving a denser and more robust matrix. Further analysis incorporating 10% and 20% AS in the AAC matrix indicates that these additions significantly reduce water absorption through chemical interactions, likely involving the CaO/CaSO4 composite activator, which promotes the formation of long-chain Si-O-Al-O structures that density the matrix and reduce porosity. Yet, at 30% AS, the benefits diminish as water absorption increases, suggesting a detrimental oversaturation effect that could introduce microstructural weaknesses. BFs merge as particularly effective among various fiber types analyzed, demonstrating the lowest water absorption and porosity across all ratios, indicating their superior reinforcement capabilities within the AAC matrix. PEFs at 1% significantly enhance matrix densification, aligning with findings from Sahin et al. [3], which noted a rapid decrease in porosity at a 0.4% PEF ratio but found diminishing returns at higher concentrations.



Fig. 3. Compressive and flexural strengths of AACs of different molarity and mixing ratios at 7 and 28 days.

Prior to the commencement of further testing, trial mixtures were prepared with varying compositions and molar ratios. The series exhibiting the highest compressive and flexural strengths was selected for detailed physical and mechanical property evaluations. Subsequent experiments were conducted to investigate the effects of adding 10%, 20%, and 30% AS to the optimized series. Fig. 3. illustrate the anticipated positive correlation between NaOH concentration and compressive and flexural strengths, with peaks observed at 12M before a slight decline at 14M. When subjected to different molarity levels, each of these mixtures demonstrated almost perfect correlation coefficients, indicating highly predictable strength properties under controlled alkaline conditions. At 7 days, the correlation coefficients for compressive strength ranged from 0.989 to 1.000, highlighting an almost uniform rate of chemical reaction and strength development across these varied compositions. This suggests that the initial curing phase rapidly stabilizes material properties, which is crucial for early-stage structural applications. The flexural strength at this early stage also showed perfect correlations (1.0), indicating a uniform resistance to bending forces across all tested mixtures, a critical factor for ensuring the material's reliability in structural components under flexural stress. By 28 days, the materials continued to exhibit strong correlations in compressive strength, with coefficients from 0.995 to 1.000, confirming that the compositions reached a state of chemical equilibrium or full reaction maturity, reflecting the standard industry practice of using a 28-day curing period to assess material strength for structural applications. The perfect correlation in flexural strength across mixtures at 28 days reinforces the materials' consistent performance. It underscores their suitability for diverse construction needs where long-term durability and resistance to mechanical stress are required. This analysis underscores the predictability and reliability of these material mixtures in achieving specified strength characteristics, which are essential for optimizing construction processes and enhancing structural safety. The ability to anticipate how different compositions respond to changes in molarity allows engineers to tailor materials to specific environmental conditions and structural requirements, streamlining construction timelines and potentially reducing costs. Furthermore, this insight into material behavior supports ongoing efforts to refine construction materials for improved performance, ensuring that structures meet and exceed safety and durability standards. Similar trends have been observed by Malkawi et al. [32] and Chaithanya et al. [33] in AACs containing fly ash (FA) or S. These findings are consistent with those of Singh et al. [34] and Mudgal et al. [35], who also identified optimal AS levels for improved strength and compactness in AACs. The presence of AS is conducive to geopolymerization, which likely contributes to a higher Si/Al and Na/Al molar ratio, thereby enhancing densification and strength. Aygörmez [36, 37] reported similar improvements in AAC mortars, achieving a 12% increase in compressive strength with 25% AS replacement. Notably, Zakira et al. [38] achieved even higher strengths (66 MPa) using 50% AS, which highlights the potential of AS for high-performance AACs. The incorporation of AS appears to optimise the

internal microstructure of the AACs, promoting a more homogeneous and dense matrix. This densification is of great importance for improving the mechanical properties of the material, as it reduces the number of internal voids and enhances the overall bonding within the material. The findings indicate that AS additions up to 20% result in significant improvements in mechanical performance, in alignment with the studies by Singh et al. [34] and Mudgal et al. [35], which reported similar enhancements in AAC properties with optimal AS levels. Beyond this threshold, at 30% AS, the benefits appear to diminish, likely due to the oversaturation effect, which may lead to increased porosity or the formation of less desirable phases within the matrix. This observation highlights the significance of optimizing the content of supplementary materials, such as AS, to achieve a balance between maximizing strength and maintaining structural integrity. This is consistent with the research by Aygörmez [36, 37], which noted significant long-term strength improvements with AS incorporation. The superior performance of the 75S+25MZ mixture at 12M NaOH can be attributed to several factors, including the optimal dissolution of aluminosilicates, the balanced Na/Al and Si/Al ratios, and the effective densification of the matrix. The presence of slag contributes to long-term strength due to its latent hydraulic properties, which continue to enhance the matrix even after the initial curing period. This is consistent with the findings of Chaithanya et al. [33], who also observed long-term strength gains in AACs with slag. The incorporation of fibers at specific ratios serves to enhance the mechanical properties of the material, as it improves the internal bonding and reduces microcracking. The findings indicate that a 1.0% fiber ratio is optimal for both compressive and flexural strengths, as it provides the most optimal balance between fiber reinforcement and matrix integrity. The positive correlation between NaOH concentration and mechanical properties up to 12M is well-supported by the literature, with similar trends observed in studies by Malkawi et al. [32] and Singh et al. [34]. The observed trend of increasing strength with higher molarity up to 12M is consistent with the findings of Malkawi et al. [32], who reported that higher NaOH concentrations improve the dissolution of aluminosilicate precursors, leading to a denser and stronger matrix. Nevertheless, the slight decline in strength at 14M may be attributed to the excessive alkali content, which may result in the formation of alkali carbonates or other secondary phases that do not contribute to strength development. At 28 days, the compressive strength trends remain consistent with the 7day results. The 75S+25MZ mixture continues to demonstrate superior performance, achieving compressive strengths exceeding 50 MPa at 12M NaOH. This sustained strength gain over time indicates a stable and ongoing geopolymerization process. The presence of slag in the mixture enhances the long-term strength due to its latent hydraulic properties, which contribute to continued strength development beyond the initial curing period. Similarly, Chaithanya et al. [33] observed comparable long-term strength gains in AACs with S, underscoring the significance of slag content in attaining high-performance composites. Flexural strength is a crucial parameter that reflects the material's capacity to withstand bending and cracking. The

flexural strength at seven days follows a similar trend to compressive strength, with the 75S+25MZ mixture exhibiting the highest values. This finding is consistent with the findings of Singh et al. [34], who reported that optimal AS levels and fiber reinforcement significantly enhance the flexural strength of AACs. The 28-day flexural strength results serve to reinforce the superiority of the 75S+25MZ mixture. At 12M NaOH, the flexural strength exceeds 20 MPa, indicating excellent durability and resistance to bending stresses over time. The slight decline observed at 14M molarity is consistent with the compressive strength results, suggesting that excessively high NaOH concentrations may have an adverse effect on the matrix structure. Mudgal et al. [35] also observed that while higher alkali concentrations enhance early strength, they can lead to long-term durability issues if not optimized.



Fig. 4. Compressive and flexural strengths of AACs in different synthetic fibers and ratios at 28 days.

The data presented in Fig. 4 indicates that PEFs were beneficial only up to a 1% addition, achieving a maximum compressive strength of 47.06 MPa before experiencing a significant decline. This decline can be attributed to the phenomenon of fiber agglomeration at higher concentrations, which leads to poor dispersion and the creation of weak points within the matrix. The heatmaps vividly illustrate the compressive and flexural strengths of construction materials integrated with BF and PEFs, providing a clear visual distinction across various fiber ratios from 0.25% to 2.00%, including a control sample without fibers. This analysis serves not only as a comparative overview but also as a deep dive into the material science implications of fiber reinforcement in cementitious composites. Starting with the compressive strength, the heatmap gradients-transitioning from deep purples to vibrant vellows-indicate increasing strength levels as the fiber content rises. Particularly, BFs exhibit superior performance over Polyethylene Fibers, underscored by consistently higher values across all fiber ratios. This distinction could be attributed to the inherent mechanical properties of basalt fibers, which include high tensile strength and stiffness. These properties effectively transfer stress across the fiber-matrix interface, enhancing the composite's overall load-bearing capacity. The presence of basalt fibers potentially initiates a more efficient crack distribution mechanism, which helps in arresting cracks at early stages, thereby improving the compressive strength. On the other hand, PEFs, while still enhancing strength, offer a different set of benefits and challenges. These synthetic fibers are known for their flexibility and high strain capacity, which contribute positively to the energy absorption capabilities and toughness of the concrete. However, their lower modulus compared to basalt fibers might explain the lesser improvement in compressive strength, as they do not contribute as effectively to the stiffness of the composite. Nevertheless, their inclusion in the composite matrix still offers valuable enhancements, particularly in applications where flexibility and impact resistance are desirable. The flexural strength heatmap further explores the dynamic between fiber content and bending resistance. Again, the visual gradient reflects an increase in strength with higher fiber ratios, with BFs leading in performance enhancement. In flexural applications, the role of fibers is critical as they bridge cracks that might otherwise propagate under bending stress, thereby maintaining the integrity of the material under load. The effective distribution and bonding of basalt fibers within the matrix can significantly increase the material's resistance to bending, highlighting their suitability for structural applications where flexural stresses are prevalent. The control samples, noticeably lower in strength in both heatmaps, underscore the significant role that fibers play in enhancing concrete properties. The contrast between the fiber-enhanced samples and the control illustrates the effectiveness of fiber integration, providing a stark visualization of the material advancements achievable through fiber technology. Similarly, Uysal et al. [39] observed enhancements in mechanical properties with various fibers in AS-MK-AACs. The researchers observed that PVAFs effectively increased flexural strength by 61% compared to the control, indicating the potential of synthetic fibers in enhancing AACs' mechanical performance. The enhanced performance of BFs can be attributed to their intrinsic properties and the synergistic interactions with the AAC matrix. BFs, derived from volcanic rock, exhibit excellent mechanical properties, including high tensile strength, chemical resistance, and thermal stability. These properties render BFs particularly suitable for reinforcing AACs, as they can withstand the alkaline environment and high temperatures associated with geopolymerization. The compatibility of BFs with the AAC matrix ensures effective stress transfer and crack bridging, which results in significant improvements in compressive strength. The fiber bridging effect, whereby fibers span across cracks and transfer stress, plays a pivotal role in regulating crack formation and development. As the fibers bridge the cracks, they effectively arrest crack growth

and enhance the load-bearing capacity of the AACs. The flexural strength of the composites increased modestly with fiber reinforcement, with an improvement of approximately 0.5% observed for both PEF and PAF at a fiber content of 0.5%. However, the incorporation of BF at the same 0.5% ratio yielded a substantial improvement of 12.61%, which highlights the superior reinforcing capabilities of BFs. It is noteworthy that when the PEF content was increased to 1%, the flexural strength exhibited a higher value of 10.54 MPa. Notwithstanding this increase, the strength remained below the control value of 12.34 MPa. This trend indicates that while PEFs can enhance flexural strength at certain ratios, they may not be as effective as other types of fibers, such as BF, especially at higher concentrations. The observed pattern of initial strength increase followed by a decline at higher fiber contents is consistent with findings from other studies, including those by Alomayri et al. [40, 41], who investigated cotton fiber-reinforced FA-based AACs (FA-AACs). A similar trend was observed, whereby the flexural strength initially increased with fiber content up to 0.5%, but declined beyond this point. This behavior can be attributed to optimal fiber dispersion at lower ratios, which facilitates effective stress transfer. In contrast, higher fiber contents can lead to agglomeration and inhomogeneous distribution within the matrix. The superior performance of BF at 0.5% can be attributed to its intrinsic mechanical properties and its interaction with the geopolymer matrix. Basalt fibers are renowned for their high tensile strength, excellent chemical resistance, and thermal stability, rendering them optimal for reinforcing AACs. The robust bond between BFs and the AAC matrix ensures efficient stress transfer and crack bridging, significantly enhancing the material's flexural strength. This is corroborated by the findings of Baykara et al. [42], who observed that PPFreinforced AACs also exhibited optimal performance at 0.5% fiber content. Beyond this optimal ratio, the performance declined due to potential issues such as fiber inhomogeneity and agglomeration, which compromise the matrix integrity and lead to the formation of weak points.

4. Conclusions

In the exploration of optimized AACs, the study reveals significant enhancements in mechanical properties through various additives and modifications. AAC mixture comprising 50% MZand 50% S, augmented with 30% AS at a 12M NaOH concentration, exhibited an exceptional compressive strength of 61.85 MPa, demonstrating the efficacy of high molarity and specialized components in achieving superior strength. Furthermore, the addition of BFs at just a 0.5% ratio not only increased the compressive strength by 7.26% but also significantly boosted the flexural strength by 24.15%, highlighting BF's remarkable reinforcing capabilities. Conversely, PEFs, used at a 1% ratio, enhanced the flexural strength to 10.54 MPa, yet this figure still fell below the control mix's strength, indicating a nuanced interplay between fiber type and concentration in AAC performance. Additionally, the mixture of 75% Slag with 25% Metazeolite consistently showed the highest compressive strength across all tested molarity levels,

particularly achieving around 50 MPa at a 12M NaOH concentration within 7 days. This composition maintained its peak strength over 28 days, underscoring its robustness. However, an increase in Aluminum Sludge content to 30% resulted in higher water absorption, suggesting a threshold beyond which additional AS is counterproductive. This intricate study not only underscores the importance of precise component ratios and types in AAC but also provides a roadmap for tailoring AAC properties to meet specific structural requirements effectively.

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Figure 1. Engineering technologies.

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Acknowledgements

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