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## Original Research Paper

## Rebound behavior of nanoparticle-agglomerates

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## ABSTRACT

In general, the rebound behavior of particles depends on the particle/substrate material combination and the particle size. In the present investigation the rebound behavior of nanoparticle agglomerates is investigated in a low pressure impactor and compared to single spherical particles. For agglomerates, their structure and mechanical strength will also affect the rebound behavior. The rebound of openly structured agglomerates (fractal dimension  $D_f < 2$ ) is determined by the primary particle size and the particle-substrate combination. The impact velocity required for rebound (critical velocity) is independent of the agglomerate size and equal to the critical velocity of single spherical particles having the same size as the primary particles. In case of agglomerate fragmentation no rebound was observed for openly structured agglomerates. For denser agglomerates ( $D_f > 2$ ), the critical impact velocity decreases with increasing agglomerate size, where the decrease is more accentuated for higher fractal dimensions, finally approaching the behavior of spheres.

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## 1. Introduction

In the collision of particles with substrates rebound may occur even for nanoparticles thereby affecting measurement techniques such as cascade impactors [1] as well as deposition methods for nanostructured devices [2–5], where bouncing lowers the efficiency of the manufacturing process. Whether a particle sticks or rebounds from substrates depends on the balance between the kinetic energy of the impacting particle and the energy consuming processes, like adhesion, plastic deformation of the particle and/or the substrate and other processes as outlined by Dahneke [6]. The rebound of single spherical particles in the size range down to  $0.8 \mu\text{m}$  has been experimentally investigated in several studies [7–12]. The observed critical impact velocities required for rebound increase with decreasing particle size with typical values in the range of  $10 \text{ m/s}$  for particle diameters of about  $1 \mu\text{m}$ . An extrapolation from the measured values for micrometer particles leads to an expected critical impact velocity of about  $1000 \text{ m/s}$  for a  $10 \text{ nm}$  particle [10]. However, Arffman et al. [13] and Rennecke and Weber [14] extended recently the experimentally investigated size range down to  $10 \text{ nm}$  and found that the critical velocities for nanoparticle rebound are also in the range of  $10 \text{ m/s}$ – $40 \text{ m/s}$ . The discrepancy between the predicted critical impact velocities for nanoparticles from the early experimental investiga-

tions and the experimentally determined values can be explained by the different material combinations, which were used in the studies. Another effect, which may be superimposed to the material effect, is a possible pressure dependence of the escape probability [15]. Moreover, for individual nanoparticles a transition from elastic to plastic deformation with decreasing particle size was observed changing the slope of the critical impact velocity vs. particle size [14]. Awasthi et al. [16] carried out molecular dynamics simulations of the impaction of atomic cluster and observed also a transition between elastic and plastic deformation with increasing impact velocity leading to enhanced energy dissipation. The overall energy loss during rebound is represented with the coefficient of restitution, i.e. the ratio of rebound velocity and impact velocity, which itself depends on the impact velocity [17]. In general, the critical impact velocity required for rebound depends on the mechanical material properties of particle and substrate, which determine the deformation characteristics during the impaction, and on the adhesion energy between particle and substrate.

While the understanding of the rebound behavior of single spherical nanoparticles has progressed substantially over the last few years, the rebound characteristics of nanoparticle agglomerates, which are encountered in typical aerosol synthesis [18], are scarcely studied so far. Beside the already mentioned energy dissipation mechanisms, which affect the critical impact velocity, nanoparticle agglomerates can dissipate energy also due to internal restructuring, fragmentation [19–24] or mutual loading

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**Nomenclature**

Symbol	Meaning	S	slope
A	Hamaker constant	Stk	Stokes number
C <sub>c</sub>	slip correction	U <sub>gas</sub>	gas velocity
D <sub>f</sub>	fractal dimension	v <sub>cr</sub>	critical impact velocity
E	particle surface interaction energy	v <sub>0z</sub>	impact velocity
E <sub>ad</sub>	adhesion energy	v <sub>y</sub>	onset impact velocity for yielding
E <sub>asp</sub>	energy consumption due to plastic deformation of surface asperities	x	particle diameter
E <sub>CS</sub>	adhesion energy	x <sub>m</sub>	mobility diameter
E <sub>i</sub>	Youngs modulus of material i	x <sub>pp</sub>	primary particle diameter
E <sub>p</sub>	energy consumption due to plastic deformation	Y	yield pressure
e <sub>n</sub>	normal coefficient of restitution	Z	minimum separation distance (0.4 nm)
k <sub>i</sub>	mechanical constant of material i	β	exponent
k	prefactor	δ <sub>i</sub>	exponent
m	mass	γ <sub>ij</sub>	surface energy at the interface i,j
m <sub>aggl</sub>	agglomerate mass	ν <sub>i</sub>	poisson ration of material i
m <sub>pp</sub>	primary particle mass	ρ <sub>bulk</sub>	bulk density
N <sub>pp</sub>	number of primary particles in an agglomerate	ρ <sub>eff</sub>	effective density
p	exponent to describe the dependency of the normal coefficient of restitution on the impact velocity	ρ <sub>p</sub>	particle density

94 between primary particles. Ihalainen et al. [25] observed rebound  
95 of agglomerates from substrates and possible fragmentation,  
96 where the total bounced mass fraction increased initially with  
97 increasing impact velocity but leveling off at higher impact veloc-  
98 ities, which was attributed to the onset of fragmentation and plas-  
99 tic deformation.

100 Besides the interparticle forces also the coordination number,  
101 i.e. the average number of nearest neighbors of the primary parti-  
102 cles, determines the mechanical strength and thereby the rebound  
103 behavior. Thus, restructuring of open agglomerates towards more  
104 compact morphologies, as characterized by an increasing fractal  
105 dimension D<sub>f</sub>, is accompanied with an increase of the coordination  
106 number leading to improved agglomerate rigidity [26]. However,  
107 depending on the restructuring mechanism, interparticle bond  
108 strengths may stay constant (e.g. in spray-drying) or can increase  
109 during restructuring (e.g. sintering).

110 This article focuses on the influence of the fractal dimension on  
111 the rebound of nanoparticle agglomerates in the size range from  
112 30 nm to 400 nm impacting perpendicularly onto surfaces. As the  
113 critical impact velocity for rebound also depends on the particle/  
114 surface material combination, different particle materials (plat-  
115 inum and silica) and different targets (copper and mica) have  
116 been used. In addition, the bouncing behavior of agglomerates is  
117 compared to single spherical particles of the same material.

118 **2. Theoretical section**

119 **2.1. Single particles bouncing**

120 The bouncing behavior of single particles impacting on a surface  
121 is shown in Fig. 1 as a function of the impact velocity for different  
122 particle materials and sizes. It is generally observed that below a  
123 certain impact velocity (cf. inset in Fig. 1 regime I), i.e. the critical  
124 velocity v<sub>cr</sub>, no rebound occurs. Above the critical velocity, the  
125 rebound efficiency, indicated by the normal coefficient of restitu-  
126 tion e<sub>n</sub>, increases rapidly with the impact velocity. In this regime  
127 (regime II) the energy dissipation channels are rather constant and  
128 the additional kinetic impact energy is transformed into  
129 kinetic energy of the rebounding particle [27]. However, for further  
130 increasing impact velocities, the plastic deformation of the particle

or the substrate sets in and counteracts the efficient bouncing. For  
this regime (regime III), macroscopic models predict a relationship  
between coefficient e<sub>n</sub> of restitution and normal impact velocity  
v<sub>0z</sub> of the form e<sub>n</sub> ~ v<sub>0z</sub><sup>p</sup>, where for a Hertzian contact p = 1/4 and  
for finite-element simulations p = 1/2 [17]. A p = 1/2 was also  
found by Schöner et al. [28] where the bouncing behavior of solid  
spherical silver particles of different sizes were investigated with  
molecular dynamics (MD) simulations and experimentally in a sin-  
gle stage low pressure impactor. MD-Simulations by Ayesch et al.  
[17] for solid and liquid bismuth (Bi) particles of about 3 nm show  
a nearly inverse relationship (p = 1), which was also determined  
experimentally for larger solid Bi particles (d<sub>p</sub> = 32 nm). However,  
Ayesch et al. [17] investigated the bouncing behavior during oblique  
impaction. Due to the different loading caused by the tangential  
velocity component more energy is dissipated leading to a stronger  
decrease of the coefficient of restitution.

In the regime of plastic deformation, for Ag particles all values  
of e<sub>n</sub> fall, within experimental and simulation uncertainties, onto  
one master curve, at least for particles larger than about 15 nm.  
For solid Bi nanoparticles a similar behavior is observed in experi-  
ments and simulations as also shown in Fig. 1, however, at differ-  
ent absolute values. The stronger dependence of the coefficient of  
restitution on the impact velocity for nanoparticles compared with  
macroscopic systems together with the known increase of the yield  
strength of nanoparticles [29], underline the special mechanical  
behavior of nanoparticles. Once the particles have reached the  
onset velocity for yielding (v<sub>y</sub>), the plastic deformation with impact  
velocity is much stronger than in the macroscopic case. In turn it  
means that nanoparticles behave elastically up to much higher  
loadings than macroscopic counterparts. The onset velocity for  
yielding (v<sub>y</sub>) can be estimated with equation Eq. (1) derived by  
Wang and John [30].

$$v_y = \sqrt{\left[ \frac{\pi^8 \cdot Y^5 \cdot (k_s + k_p)^4}{40 \cdot \rho_p} \right]} \tag{1}$$

Here, Y denotes the yield pressure, k<sub>i</sub> the mechanical constant of the  
substrate or the particle, which can be calculated with Eq. (5),  
where ν is the Poisson ratio and E the Young's modulus. ρ<sub>p</sub> is the  
density of the particles.

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