



Modeling and Optimization of Thermal Conductivity of Stabilized γ - Al_2O_3 /Water Nanofluid Using Response Surface Methodology (RSM)

Behrouz Raei*

1. Department of Chemical Engineering, Mahshahr Branch, Islamic Azad University, Mahshahr, Iran. E-mail: behrouz.raei@iau.ac.ir

ARTICLE INFO	ABSTRACT
<p>Article History: Received: 03 July 2024 Revised: 02 October 2024 Accepted: 15 September 2024 Published: 02 October 2024</p> <p>Article type: Research</p> <p>Keywords: DLS, Optimum, Sedimentation, Stability, Standard Deviation</p>	<p>The present study estimates the thermal conductivity ratio (KR) of stabilized γ-Al_2O_3/water nanofluid by response surface methodology (RSM). This study was conducted under experimental conditions with solid volume fractions of $\text{SVF} = 0.05$–2% and $T = 25$–45 °C temperature. Sedimentation visualization and dynamic light scattering (DLS) were performed to test the stability of nanofluids. The results of monitoring the stability of the nanofluid with the sedimentation visualization method showed that it was stable for at least 24 hours. Different models were evaluated based on a series of quality indicators and charts. Some indicators that were investigated in this study include standard deviation (Std. Dev.), coefficient of determination (R^2), and coefficient of variation (C.V.). After checking the quality indicators and charts for different models, the quadratic model was selected as the optimal model—the values of Std. Dev, R^2, and C.V. for the quadratic model were 0.0241, 0.9785, and 1.87, respectively. Also, adjusted R^2 and predicted R^2 parameters of the quadratic model were equal to 0.9606 and 0.8776, respectively, which signifies the model's accuracy. The residual plot, the standard probability plot, the Box-Cox plot, and the predicted vs. actual plot also showed that the quadratic model has good accuracy and is capable of estimating the KR of the nanofluid. The most optimum KR is 1.485. At a temperature of 45 °C, this condition was achieved in samples at $\text{SVF} = 1.764\%$.</p>

Introduction

In many engineering applications, base fluids like water, oils, and glycols are utilized as operational fluids in heat exchange systems. Improving the base fluids' thermal conductivity can raise the devices' thermal efficiency. The idea that solid particles the size of nanometers can disperse in base fluids was evolved by Choi et al. [1] and has grown to be a significant subject known as nanofluids. In order to be able to research nanofluids, preparing these types of fluids in a stable form is a very important factor because the stability of nanofluids strongly affects their thermophysical properties [2, 3]. The type, size, shape, concentration, base fluid, operating temperature, and addition of surfactant all affect the thermophysical properties of dispersed nanoparticles in nanofluids [4-6]. In addition, although augmenting the nanoparticle concentration enriches the thermophysical features of the nanofluid, there is a penalty for changing the stability behavior [7-9]. Hence, optimizing parameters poses a significant challenge for researchers [10]. Thermal conductivity is a crucial physical feature of nanofluids

*Corresponding Author: B. Raei (E-mail address: behrouz.raei@iau.ac.ir)



that warrants further investigation. As a result, numerous researchers have accomplished various experimental and numerical studies to determine the thermophysical features of nanofluids [11-20]. It is crucial to research the factors that have an important effect on these features. Numerous researchers have looked into the thermophysical features of varied nanoparticles in current years in various base fluids [21-28]. Esfe et al. [29] accomplished a laboratory examination of the thermal conductivity of nanofluids suspended in water, including five nm-diameter Al_2O_3 nanoparticles. The thermal conductivity of Al_2O_3 /water was measured within a temperature range of 26 to 55 °C. The findings demonstrated that raising the temperature at any concentration significantly increased the thermal conductivity of nanofluids. Putra et al. [30] experimentally studied the thermal conductivity of Al_2O_3 /water nanofluid with an average nanoparticle size of 131 nm. The findings proved that the nanofluid's thermal conductivity rose by approximately 24% when the concentration was increased to 4%. Zhang et al. [31] have performed an experimental study to find how Al_2O_3 /water nanofluid concentration affected the thermal conductivity. The thermal conductivity increased by 15% when the concentration was increased to 5%. Masuda et al. [32] researched the thermal conductivity of titanium oxide and aluminum oxide in water-based fluid through experimentation. They demonstrated that these nanofluids' thermal conductivity increases by 10% and 30%, respectively when compared to water at a concentration of 4%. Eastman et al. [33] observed a 40% rise in CuO-EG nanofluid thermal conductivity at 0.3 vol%. Murshed et al. [34] investigated the thermal conductivity of water-based titanium oxide nanofluid with rod and spherical forms. Their findings demonstrated that the shape of the particles is a significant factor in raising the thermal conductivity of the nanofluid. After comparing the experimental outcomes with theoretical models, it was discovered that the thermal conductivity values of nanofluids obtained from experiments were higher than those estimated by the models. Mintsu et al. [35] have documented that concentration and temperature enhance thermal conductivity in nanofluids of copper oxide (47 nm) and aluminum oxide (36 nm). A study by Abdel-Samad et al. [36] has demonstrated that as temperature and concentration rise, the thermal conductivity of the titanium oxide-water nanofluid accelerates. They found that at 90°C, there was an increase in thermal conductivity of 37.35% with a volume fraction of 0.47%, whereas at 20 °C, there was an increase of 24.11%. Eshgarf et al. [37] investigated an iron oxide-water nanofluid's viscosity and thermal conductivity at various temperatures and concentrations. Next, artificial neural networks (ANNs) were utilized to progress models for forecasting the thermophysical properties mentioned. According to these findings, the suggested models could accurately forecast nanofluids' thermophysical characteristics. The statistical modeling method known as response surface methodology (RSM) describes the interconnectivity of system inputs and outputs using mathematical models [38]. The ability of RSM to capture the non-linear relationships between the inputs and the outputs has demonstrated its effectiveness in modeling the thermophysical characteristics of nanofluids [39, 40]. Peng et al. [41] have presented the findings of a trustworthy model utilizing RSM to predict the thermal conductivity of CuO/water nanofluid at varied temperatures and concentrations. Esfe et al. [42] examined the rheological behavior of the HNF (Hybrid Nanofluid) containing MWCNT-SiO₂ (10:90) with the RSM. The main objective of this study was to introduce a new correlation. Khetib et al. [43] used RSM to investigate the viscosity of a paraffin-based CuO nanofluid. Experiments conducted at T = 25–100 °C and mass fractions of 0–25% provided the data used in the modeling. RSM shows that the results obtained from the third-degree polynomials are more accurate compared to second-degree and linear polynomials. Table 1 shows an overview of prior research on using RSM in estimating nanofluids' thermal conductivity.

Table 1. Applications RSM in forecasting thermal conductivity of nanofluid

References	Nanoparticles	Base fluid	Remarks
Peng et al.[41]	CuO (II)	Water	$R^2 = 0.9939$ AAD% = 0.615%
Esfe et al.[44]	Al ₂ O ₃	EG/water	$R^2 = 0.9982$,
Esfe & Hajmohammad [22]	ND + Co ₃ O ₄	EG/water	$R^2 = 0.9957$ Std. Dev = 0.002516
Khetib et al. [45]	ND + Fe ₃ O ₄	EG/water	$R^2 = 0.994$ MSE = 2.0297×10 ⁻⁶
Khetib et al.[46]	Fe ₃ O ₄	Water	$R^2 = 0.998$ MSE = 0.0013
Malika & Sonawane [39]	Fe ₃ O ₄ + SiC	Water	$R^2 = 0.969$ AAD% = 1.165%
Shahsavari et al.[47]	GO + Fe ₂ O ₃ + TiO ₂	Oil	$R^2 = 0.9898$ Adjusted $R^2 = 0.9895$ Predicted $R^2 = 0.9888$ Std. Dev = 0.1856 C.V% = 1.31%
Borode & Olubambi [48]	GNP + Al ₂ O ₃	Water	$R^2 = 0.9882$ Adjusted $R^2 = 0.9840$ Predicted $R^2 = 0.9721$ Std. Dev = 0.0020 C.V% = 0.3263%
Esfe et al.[49]	MWCNT + Al ₂ O ₃ + ZnO	Water	$R^2 = 0.9972$ Adjusted $R^2 = 0.9968$ Predicted $R^2 = 0.9962$ Std. Dev = 4.447 ×10 ⁻³ C.V% = 0.4% -1.05% < MOD < + 1.08%
Esfe et al.[50]	MWCNT + TiO ₂	EG/water	$R^2 = 0.9957$ Adjusted $R^2 = 0.9934$ Predicted $R^2 = 0.9909$ Std. Dev = 0.0082 C.V% = 0.6799% -1.754% < CD% < + 0.9615%

AAD: average absolute deviation

C.D: correlation deviation

C.V: coefficient of variation

Std. Dev: standard deviation

R²: coefficient of determination

MOD: margin of deviation

MSE: mean square error

GNP: graphene nanoplatelets

ND: Nanodiamond

The first part of this study deals with preparing Al₂O₃/water nanofluid, stabilization method, and stability measurements. Then, the process of measuring thermal conductivity is defined. The reasons for choosing Al₂O₃ nanoparticles are its desirable features such as reasonable price, the possibility of various applications, availability with high purity, high thermal and corrosion resistance, strength and high degree of mechanical hardness, and favorable environmental compatibility. Then, the design of the experiment, the model's formation, and the model's

accuracy with respect to the experimental data are investigated using Design Expert software (13.0.0).

We establish a correlation dependent on the interaction of operating parameters and evaluate its reliability with experimental data. Based on the literature, it can be realized that most of the models developed for the prediction of thermal conductivity have certain limitations that limit the application of the correlations to other nanofluids. So, the primary objective of this work is to evaluate the possible effect of the operating temperature and also the SVF (solid volume fraction) and their interactions on the thermal conductivity of the nanofluid. The other goal of this study is the optimization of parameters to maximize the thermal conductivity of the system using RSM. The last goal of this research was to compare the outcomes of the estimation of the RSM model with other models presented in the literature.

Nanofluid Preparation and Property Measurement

Nanofluid Preparation and Stability Check

There are two methods for nanofluid production, including one-step and two-step. Due to the commercial availability of nanoparticles, numerous researchers have developed a two-part process for manufacturing nanofluid. Specification of γ -alumina nanoparticles (obtained from US Research Nanomaterials, Inc.) is displayed in Table 2. Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) was employed to estimate the size of primary nanoparticles. Based on the illustration in Fig. 1, it is evident that the nanoparticles have an approximately spherical shape.

Table 2. Specification of nanoparticle used in this study

Nanoparticle	Aluminum Oxide (γ)
Average particle size (nm)	20
Purity	>99%
Density (kg/m^3)	3890
Color	White
Morphology	Nearly spherical
Specific area (m^2/g)	>138
Specific heat (J/kg K)	880
Thermal conductivity (W/m K)	46

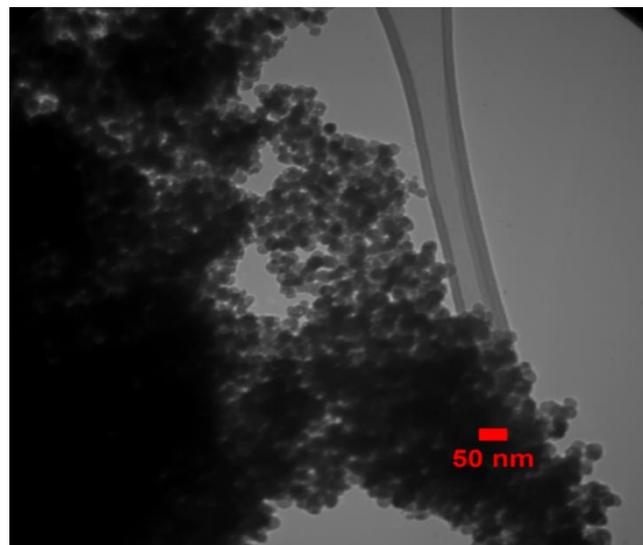


Fig. 1. Image of TEM nanoparticles used in this study

In this study, a two-step method was used to prepare nanofluids. The stability of nanofluids is a significant concern in this technique. Thermophysical and heat transfer properties are closely tied to the stability of a nanofluid [51]. The long-term stability of nanofluids is a crucial factor in determining their practical applicability. In this study, the nanofluids' concentration (0.05, 0.5, 1, and 2 vol%) and temperature (25, 35, and 45 °C) were chosen. Alumina nanoparticles are added to distilled water as the base fluid, and their weight is measured in four decimal places. The fluid was stirred with a magnetic stirrer for one hour and then transferred to an ultrasonic vibrator (BANDELIN Company - power 240 W and frequency 35 kHz) for three hours. In this study, we employed sedimentation visualization and dynamic light scattering (DLS) to assess the stability of nanofluids. The results of monitoring the stability of nanofluid with the sedimentation visualization method showed that it was stable for at least 24 hours. The mentioned method is used in references [52-56]. DLS detects the size distribution of nanoparticles in the dispersed phase. DLS technique was employed to obtain particle size distribution in nanofluids using a Malvern Zetasizer Nano (Malvern Panalytical, UK) to study clustering and agglomeration phenomena. Fresh and old samples (after 7 days) were analyzed to determine the particle size distribution. The findings are outlined in Table 3. Because DLS measures the hydrodynamic radius of nanoparticles, the average size obtained by these particles was larger than what could be seen through a micrograph of TEM. The findings also indicate that a rise in the vol. fraction of nanofluid leads to a larger particle size. The increased agglomeration of nanoparticles upon their addition to the base fluid can be attributed to this phenomenon. In addition, the results show that freshly prepared nanofluids in different concentrations have larger average diameters of nanoparticles than nanofluids after 7 days old. Such a phenomenon is related to the fact that the larger aggregated particles settle, and this causes the easy detection of smaller particles by DLS [57, 58]. The mentioned findings agree with the results of studies [57, 59, 60].

Table 3. The average diameter of nanoparticles at different times obtained from dynamic light scattering (DLS)

Concentration (vol.%)	Nanoparticle diameter (nm)	
	freshly	7 days old
0.05	134	90
0.5	161	129
1	169	147
2	218	197

Measurement of Thermal Conductivity

A KD2 Pro thermal properties analyzer (Decagon Devices, Inc. USA, Fig. 2) was applied to measure the thermal conductivity of the nanofluid under different experimental conditions. The measurement works in the range of 0.02-2 W/m.K. This device is fitted with a KS-1 needle sensor placed vertically and centrally in the nanofluid container. The temperature of the sample was controlled with the aid of a water bath during the measurement process. To avoid the possibility of transient heat effects, a 30-minute interval between subsequent measurements was chosen to minimize their impact on the temperature increase near the probe. Therefore, the obtained results are stable and repeatable. To achieve precision and consistent results, the average of three thermal conductivity measurements for each sample is used. The uncertainties in thermal conductivity measurements were predicted based on the accuracies of the tools given in Table 4 and calculated by the method [61]. The maximum uncertainty in the measured thermal conductivity was 1.8 %.

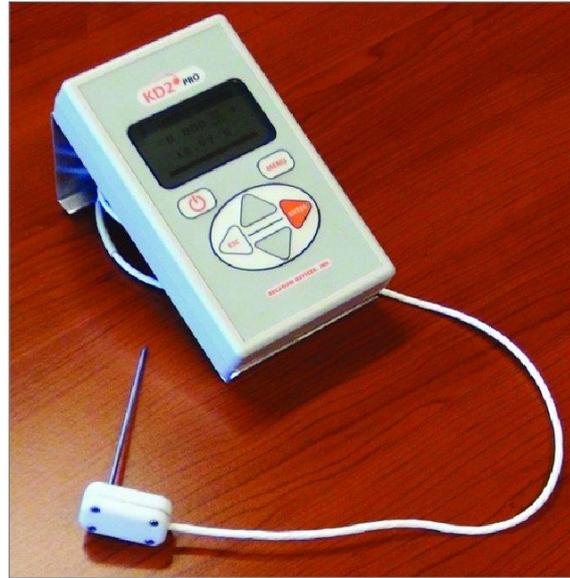


Fig. 2. Thermal properties analyzer device

Table 4. Accuracy of the instruments

Instruments	Accuracy
Weighing balance	±0.0001
Ultrasonic bath	3 kHz±
Thermal conductivity apparatus	±0.01 W/m.K
Water bath	±0.1 °C

RSM

Many engineering phenomena have been modeled using theories. A suitable mathematical model for many phenomena is unavailable due to various controlling factors, computational complexity, or unknown mechanisms. Experimental modeling techniques are efficient. One of the approaches to experimental modeling is RSM. In this approach, the response variable is affected by numerous independent input parameters, aiming to optimize the response variable and analyze the factors impacting it while minimizing the number of tests conducted. Response surface methodology (RSM) has many applications in different topics such as essential oil [62] and seed oil extraction [63, 64], optimization and mathematical modeling [65, 66], impregnation [67, 68], nanoparticle formation [69-71], etc.

Results and Discussion

The RSM evaluation uses a statistical regression approach to model the correlation between the input variable SVF and T and the nanofluid output response variable ($KR = \text{thermal conductivity ratio} = \frac{K_{nf}}{K_{bf}}$). Table 5 displays the p-values, Adjusted R^2 , and Predicted R^2 values for the linear, two-factor interaction (2FI), quadratic and cubic models that were examined in the analysis.

Table 5. Summary of statistics for the various models

Source	Sequential p-value	Adjusted R ²	Predicted R ²	
Linear	0.0002	0.8156	0.7353	
2FI	0.7769	0.7948	0.6797	
Quadratic	0.0030	0.9606	0.8776	Suggested
Cubic	0.2971	0.9534	0.8113	Aliased

The sequential p-value column denotes the importance level of each model term as they were sequentially added to the model. It quantifies the probability of achieving the recorded data or even more extreme results assuming the null hypothesis holds true. A p-value below 0.05 indicates that the term is statistically essential, signifying its impact on the variability of the response variable [72]. The Adjusted R² value indicates the proportion of the overall variance in the dependent variable determined by the model while also considering the number of independent variables included. A higher Adjusted R² value implies a better fit between the model and the data. The Predicted R² column displays the anticipated proportion of variability in forthcoming observations that the model can clarify. A greater Predicted R² value suggests that the model is expected to perform strongly when applied to new data. This table shows that the quadratic model has the best Adjusted R² (0.9606) and Predicted R² (0.8776), which is the most accurate model to provide the best fit to the data and estimate the response variable. The adjusted R² value for the cubic model is also high (0.9534), whereas the R² values for the 2FI and Linear models are comparatively lower. The Cubic model exhibits a low Predicted R² (0.8113) and is marked as Aliased, indicating that it cannot be differentiated from another model due to collinearity or confounding factors. Hence, this study has chosen the quadratic model for further examination. Table 6 displays the results of the ANOVA analysis for the quadratic model. The sources of variability are presented, along with their corresponding sum of squares, degrees of freedom, mean square, F-value, and p-value. The F-value is utilized in ANOVA to assess the statistical importance of the variation among factors [73]. The model is considered statistically significant with an F-value of 54.59, indicating that the probability of obtaining such a high F-value by random chance is extremely low at 0.01%. The results suggest that both factors, the SVF (A) and temperature (B), have extremely low p-values (<0.0003), signifying their significant influence on the response. Both the AB interaction term and B² have p-values that exceed 0.05, suggesting that they are not statistically significant. Conversely, A² possesses a p-value of 0.0012, denoting its significance as a term.

Table 6. ANOVA outcome for the suggested quadratic model

Source	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F-value	p-value	
Model	0.1581	5	0.0316	54.59	< 0.0001	significant
A-SVF	0.1134	1	0.1134	195.68	< 0.0001	
B-T	0.0337	1	0.0337	58.19	0.0003	
AB	0.0003	1	0.0003	0.4471	0.5286	
A ²	0.0193	1	0.0193	33.30	0.0012	
B ²	0.0014	1	0.0014	2.33	0.1778	
Residual	0.0035	6	0.0006			
Cor Total	0.1616	11				

Table 7 shows the fit statistics of the quadratic model. The table denotes that the Predicted R² value of 0.8776 nearly matches the Adjusted R² value of 0.9606, with a difference of less than 0.2. This indicates that the model can be trusted when making estimations for future observations. The Adeq Precision assesses the model's quality by comparing the variation in the data with the variation anticipated by the model. A ratio exceeding four is deemed satisfactory, and a viewed ratio of 23.2535 suggests that the model is suitable for exploring the design space.

Table 7. Fit statistics for the quadratic model

Std. Dev.	Mean	CV %	R ²	Adjusted R ²	Predicted R ²	Adeq Precision
0.0241	1.29	1.87	0.9785	0.9606	0.8776	23.2535

Table 8 exhibits the coefficient estimates, degrees of freedom, standard error, 95% confidence interval, and variance inflation factors (VIFs) for each factor in the *KR*. The coefficient estimate signifies the anticipated alteration in the response when the value of a factor changes by one unit while all other factors remain constant. In an orthogonal design, the intercept represents the mean response of all the runs. The coefficients indicate adjustments to the mean reaction according to the factor configurations. When the factors are orthogonal, the variance inflation factors (VIFs) will equal 1. VIFs exceeding 1 indicate the existence of multicollinearity, with a stronger correlation between factors as the VIF value increases. Typically, VIFs that are below 10 are considered acceptable. The intercept coefficient estimate is 1.34, which suggests the average response of all runs when all variables are set to their baseline values. The coefficient estimate for factor A (SVF) is 0.1318, indicating that a one-unit increase in SVF leads to a 0.1318 increase in the response, while all other factors remain constant. The factor B (temperature) has a coefficient estimate of 0.0661, suggesting that a one-unit increase in temperature leads to a response increase of 0.0661 while holding all other factors constant. The AB coefficient estimate is 0.0077, denoting that the interaction between factors A and B has a minor positive effect on the response. The coefficient estimate for A² is -0.0920, indicating that a one-unit increase in A² leads to a reduction of 0.0920 in the reaction, while all other factors are held constant. The coefficient estimate for B² is 0.0225. Additionally, VIFs offer insights into the collinearity present among factors. In this instance, they are all near or below 1.04, indicating that collinearity is not a significant concern in the model.

Table 8. Coefficient estimate in terms of the coded factors

Factor	Coefficient Estimate	Df	Standard Error	95% CI		VIF
				Low	High	
Intercept	1.34	1	0.0153	1.31	1.38	
A-SVF	0.1318	1	0.0094	0.1088	0.1549	1.02
B-T	0.0661	1	0.0087	0.0449	0.0873	1.04
AB	0.0077	1	0.0114	-0.0204	0.0357	1.04
A ²	-0.0920	1	0.0159	-0.1310	-0.0530	1.02
B ²	0.0225	1	0.0147	-0.0136	0.0586	1.0000

The relationship between the *KR* and the actual values of the SVF and T factors is illustrated in Eq. 1. The coefficients assigned to each factor determine their impact on *KR*. At the same time, the interaction term signifies the combined effect of both factors. This equation, different from the coded one, forecasts the actual response values in their original units. Nevertheless, it is impossible to compare the coefficients to assess each factor's relative strength, as they have been adjusted to match the units of each factor. Furthermore, the intercept does not depict the center of the design space.

$$KR = 1.17601 + 0.306159 * SVF - 0.009947 * T + 0.000785 * SVF * T - 0.096795 * SVF^2 + 0.000225 * T^2 \quad (1)$$

The perturbation plot in **Fig. 3** demonstrates the effect of two factors on the *KR* response. The diagram visually depicts the relationship between the examined factors and the system's response. The diagram is created by perturbing a single factor at a time while keeping the other

factors fixed and monitoring the resulting alterations in the response. This permits you to visualize the curvature of the response surface and identify interactions between factors. The slope of each line demonstrates the sensitivity of the reaction to that particular factor. In contrast, the curvature of the line signifies the existence of any interactions with the other factors. According to Fig. 3, it can be viewed that factor A exerts the most significant influence on the KR, whereas factor B demonstrates the least impact.

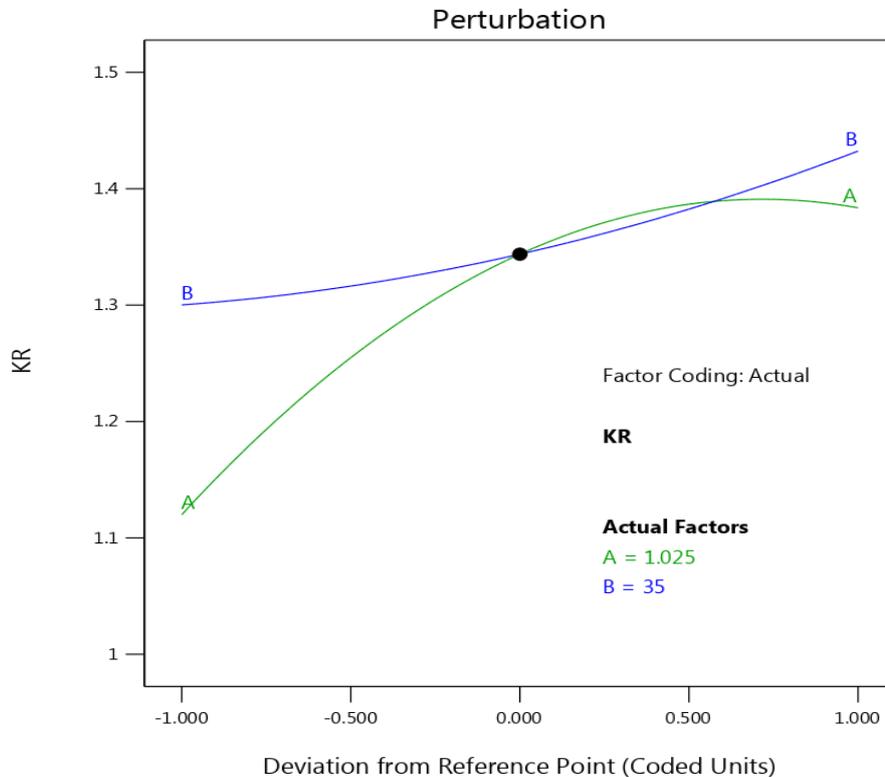


Fig. 3. Perturbation plot of the influence of input factors on the KR

Fig. 4 compares the outcomes gained from the experimental examination with the anticipated results deduced from the correlations suggested by RSM. Fig. 4 demonstrates that the actual and predicted outcomes are nearly similar, with just a few minor deviations, as evidenced by Fig. 5a-c. The studentized residual distribution is depicted in Fig. 5a, showing that most residuals are concentrated near the '0' reference line. This implies that the correlations established are reliable and the models accurately capture the behavior of the data. Furthermore, in Fig. 5b, one can observe a reasonably random distribution of residuals throughout the run order, suggesting that the model adequately addresses the temporal dimension of the data. Fig. 5c shows the normal probability graph of the selected model. This graph illustrates the normal distribution of the residuals and their linearity. Even for typical data, some degree of scattering can be expected. If the data follows an S-shaped curve, it is necessary to employ transfer functions. As shown in Fig. 5c, the selected model is linear primarily with minimal deviation. A standard probability plot is used to evaluate how a small data set is normally distributed.

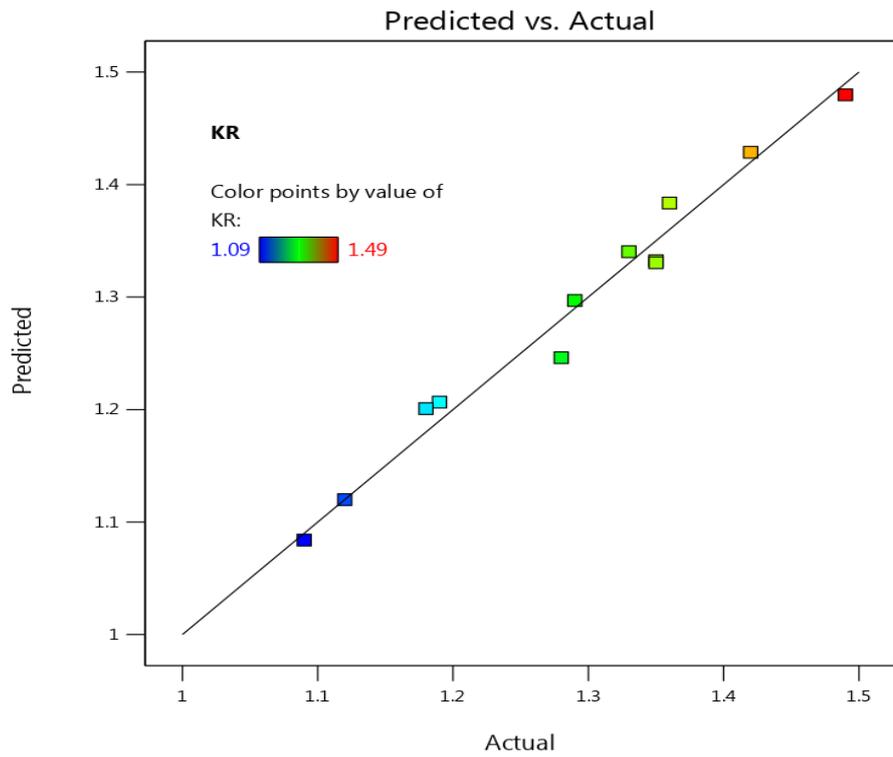
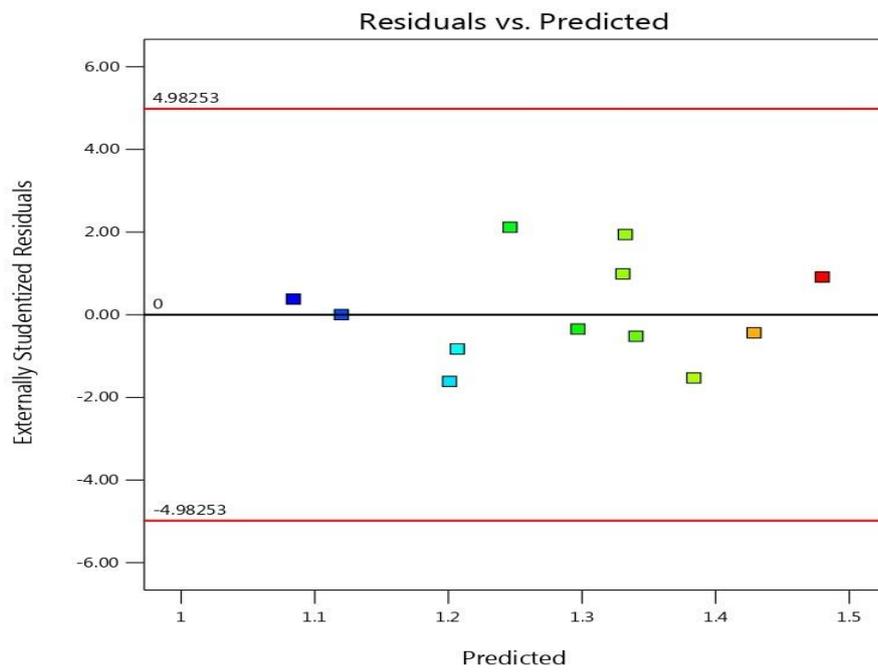
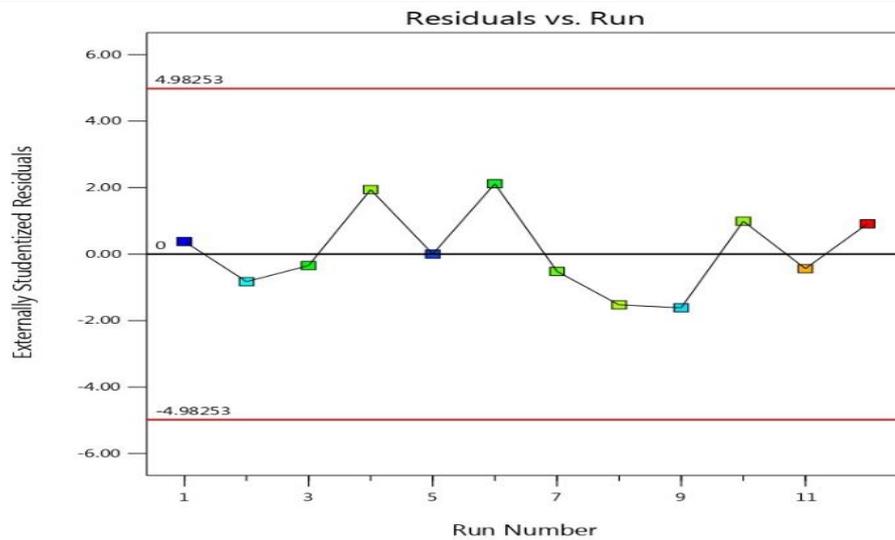


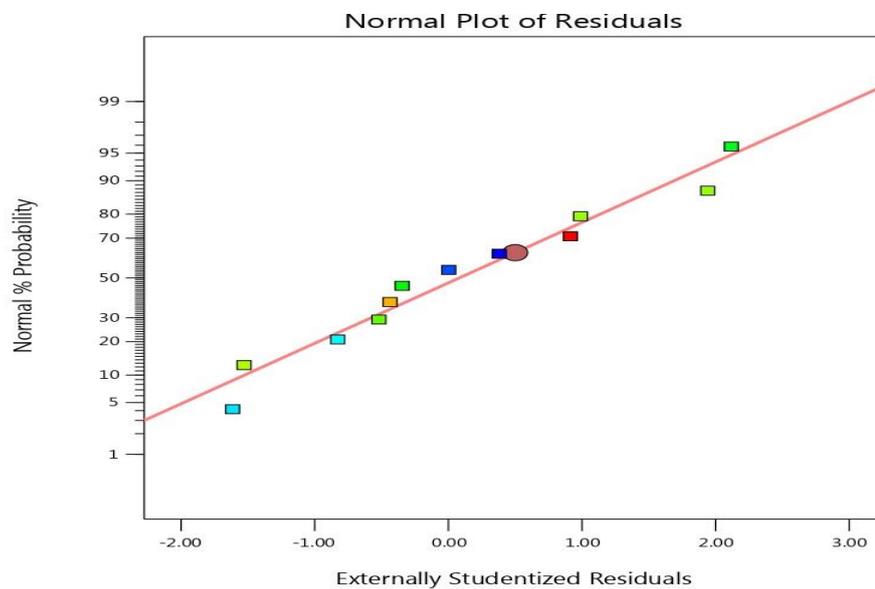
Fig. 4. Correlation between the experimental and predicted values



(a)



(b)



(c)

Fig. 5. Plot of externally studentized residuals in relation to (a) predicted value, (b) run order, (c) standard plot

A lambda value 1 in Box-Cox plot analysis indicates that the original data fits well. Box-Cox plots are utilized to transform the data distribution into a normal distribution. Fig. 6 displays the Box-Cox plots of the quadratic model. This plot offers guidance on selecting the appropriate transfer function. The optimal transfer function is recommended by considering the best lambda value situated at the curve's minimum point. The software will not suggest any transformation if the 95% confidence interval surrounding this lambda includes 1. As depicted in Fig. 6, the quadratic model plot exhibits suitable behavior, with the lambda line predominantly positioned at the lower bottom of the curve.

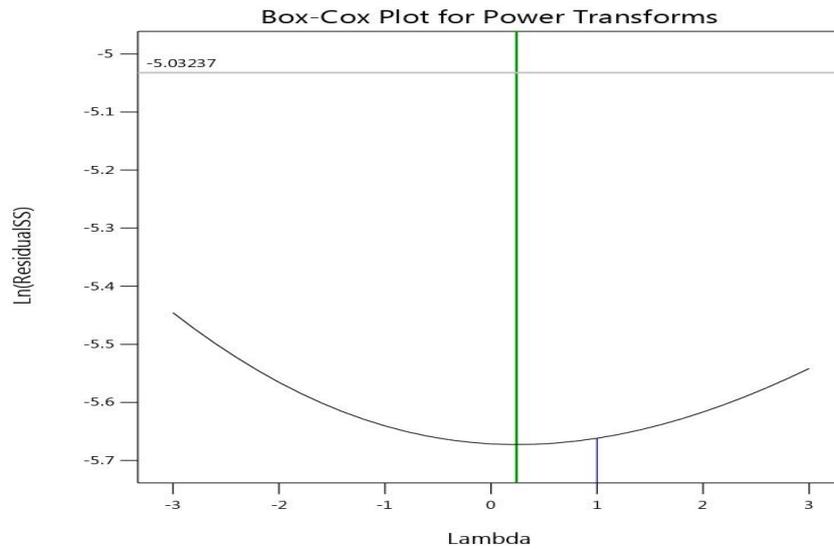


Fig. 6. Box-Cox diagrams for determining Lambda value. Current $\lambda=1$, Best $\lambda=0.24$, Recommended transform=none

The 2D contour and 3D surface plots in Figs. 7 & 8 demonstrate how different input parameters affect the KR of the nanofluid. Fig. 7 presents a 2D contour illustrating the effect of SVF and T on KR, which helps us understand their relationship. Instead, Fig. 8 improves deducing by exhibiting a three-dimensional surface plot that allows more detailed visualization of the complex interaction between SVF, T, and KR. The plot contour lines link points sharing the same KR value, enabling us to pinpoint regions with higher or lower KR values and detect trends or patterns. Figures indicate that the KR of the nanofluid enhances rapidly as the SVF level rises. Additionally, the statistics exhibit that the KR enhances as the temperature increases (although this effect is not tangible compared to the SVF.), which can be attributed to the rise in Brownian motion due to increasing temperatures. These results align with earlier research studies that have been published [74, 75].

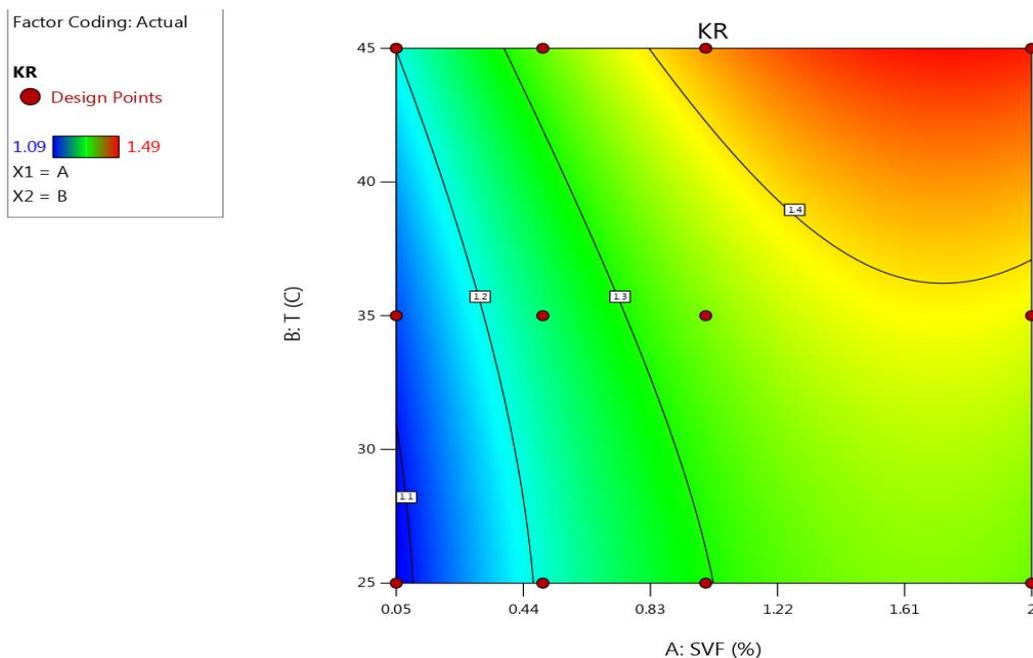


Fig. 7. 2D contour plot of the impact of SVF and T on the KR

Factor Coding: Actual

KR

Design Points:

● Above Surface

○ Below Surface

1.09  1.49

X1 = A

X2 = B

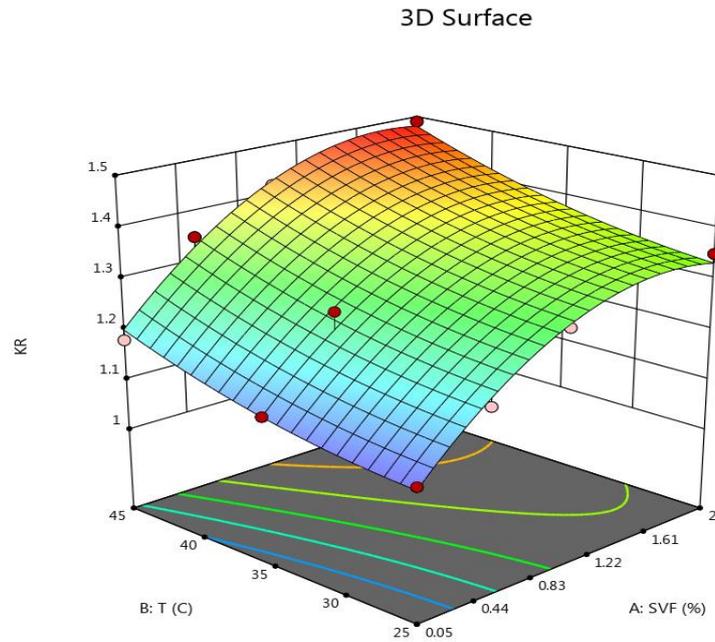


Fig. 8. 3D surface plot of the impact of SVF and T on the KR

Optimum Response

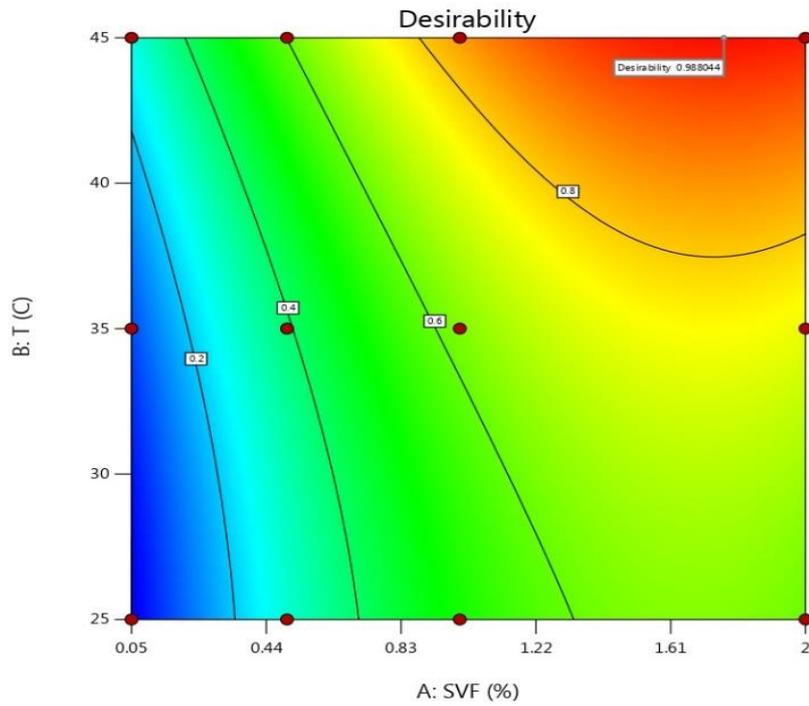
An optimization was performed on the thermal conductivity ratio (KR) of the Al_2O_3 /water nanofluid to achieve its maximum value. This optimization involved adjusting the SVF and T of the nanofluid. In order to optimize the process, the KR of the nanofluid was maximized by utilizing the correlation acquired through RSM. The optimization results demonstrated that the nanofluid's KR is maximized at 45 °C, reaching 1.485, within the investigated range of T (25 to 45 °C) and SVF (0.05 to 2% vol.). Achieving this value is possible only when the SVF of the nanofluid is adjusted to 1.764%. [Table 9](#) showcases a range of optimal solutions for nanofluid. [Fig. 9a & b](#) displays the desirability value and optimal KR values at different points.

Table 9. Different optimal solutions for nanofluid

Number	SVF	T	KR	Desirability	
1	1.764	45.000	1.485	0.988	Selected
2	1.754	45.000	1.485	0.988	
3	1.780	45.000	1.485	0.988	
4	1.744	45.000	1.485	0.988	
5	1.808	45.000	1.485	0.988	
6	1.879	45.000	1.484	0.985	
7	1.598	45.000	1.483	0.981	
8	1.578	45.000	1.482	0.980	
9	2.000	44.046	1.469	0.947	

Factor Coding: Actual

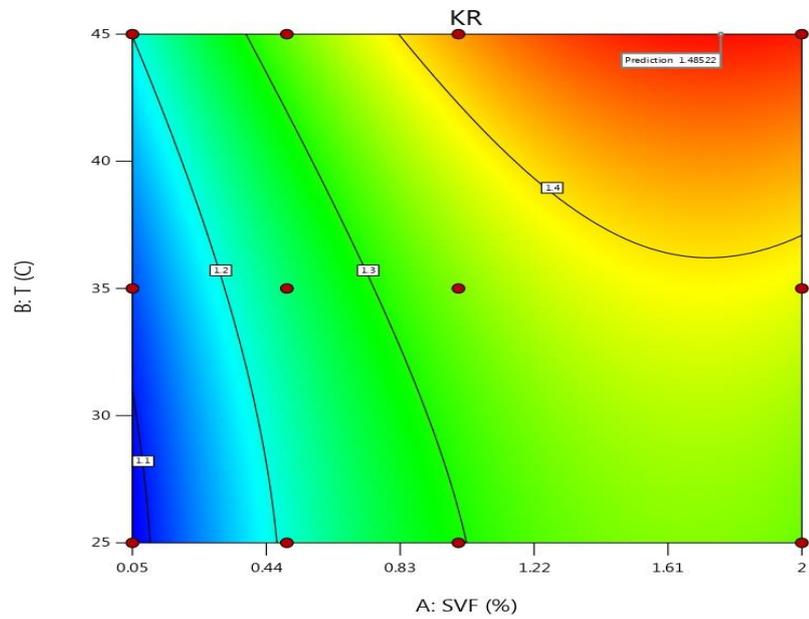
Desirability
 ● Design Points
 0 1
 X1 = A
 X2 = B



(a)

Factor Coding: Actual

KR
 ● Design Points
 1.09 1.49
 X1 = A
 X2 = B



(b)

Fig. 9. Optimal values of KR in different SVF (a) desirability (b) KR

Fig. 10 compares the proposed RSM model with other theoretical and experimental models in the literature to estimate the KR of the nanofluid. As it is clear from Fig. 10, other models performed poorly in estimation, while the RSM model has a very good match with the experimental data. Also, in Table 10, the comparison of different models has been done quantitatively and with different statistical parameters. The table clearly shows that the best

results are related to the RSM model for all statistical parameters. The mentioned findings are in agreement with the results [76]. Table 11 displays the mathematical representation of statistical parameters employed in this research.

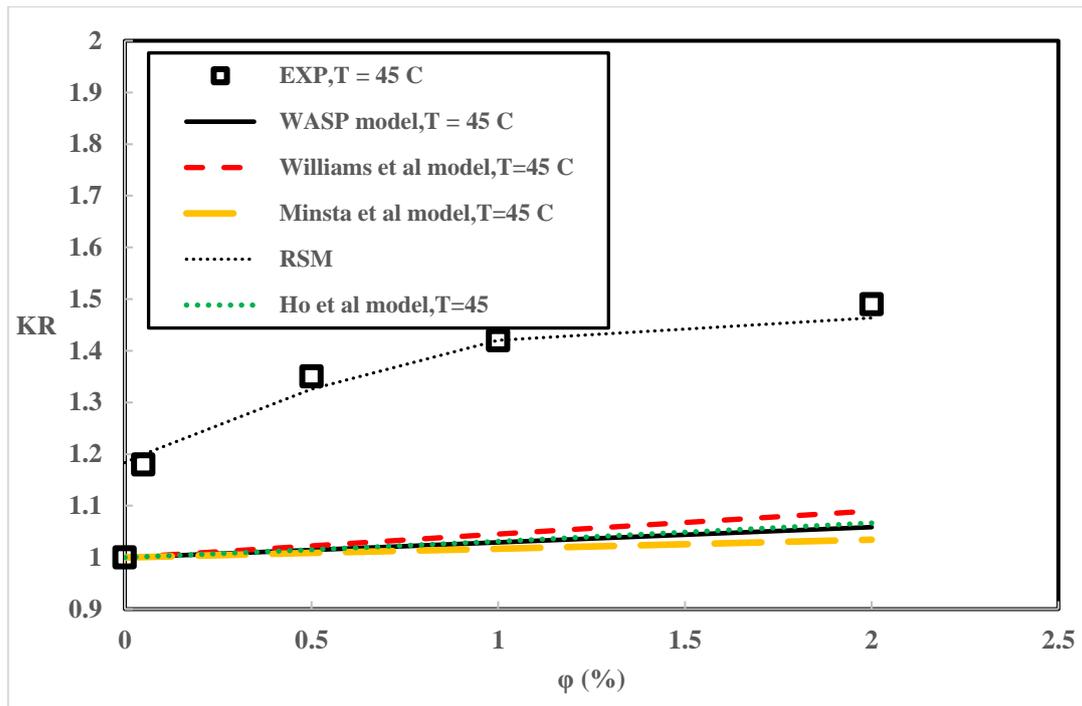


Fig.10. Comparison of different models in the forecasting of KR nanofluid

Table 10. The comparison between the results of the RSM model and other models for the estimation of KR nanofluid

Models	AARD%	MSE	RMSE	Maximum MOD%
WASP [77]	19.3	0.097	0.311	29.2
Williams et al. [78]	18.5	0.088	0.297	26.9
Mintsa et al. [35]	20.1	0.1	0.323	31.4
Ho et al. [79]	19.2	0.095	0.308	28.4
RSM	3.7	0.007	0.0841	14.3

Table 11. The mathematical expressions of statistical parameters used in this study

Statistical parameters	Formula
Average absolute relative deviation percent (AARD%) [80]	$AARD\% = \frac{100}{n} \sum_i \frac{ P_{iexp} - P_{ipred} }{P_{iexp}}$
MSE [80]	$MSE = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i (P_{iexp} - P_{ipred})^2$
Root Mean Square Error (RMSE) [76]	$RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_i (P_{iexp} - P_{ipred})^2}$
Margin of deviation (MOD%) [81]	$MOD\% = \frac{P_{ipred} - P_{iexp}}{P_{iexp}} \times 100$

Conclusion

This study investigated the thermal conductivity of $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3/\text{water}$ nanofluid. RSM was effectively utilized in this study, yielding equations that accurately estimate the KR of the nanofluid. RSM provided different equations to calculate KR based on independent parameters such as SVF and T. The quadratic model has been demonstrated to be superior to the other models through statistical parameters and plots. R^2 , adjusted R^2 , predicted R^2 and Std. Dev parameters of the quadratic model were equal to 0.9785, 0.9606, 0.8776, and 0.0241, respectively, which signifies the model's accuracy. Also, the difference between adjusted R^2 and predicted R^2 is less than 0.083, indicating the high accuracy of the proposed model. The residual plot, the normal probability plot, the Box-Cox plot, and the predicted vs. actual plot also showed that the quadratic model has good accuracy and is capable of estimating the KR of the nanofluid. The experimental outcomes displayed that a rise in SVF and T caused an increase in KR. This trend was estimated using RSM methods with very high accuracy. Ultimately, the optimum combination for better KR was found at SVF = 1.764% and T = 45 °C.

Nomenclature

2FI	two-factor interaction
AAD	average absolute deviation
ANOVA	analysis of variance
C.D	correlation deviation
CV (%)	coefficient of Variation
D	Dimension
DF	degrees of Freedom
DLS	dynamic light scattering
EG	ethylene glycol
GNP	graphene nanoplatelets
GO	graphene oxide
H	Hour
HNF	hybrid nanofluid
KR	Thermal conductivity ratio (K_{nf}/K_{bf})
MOD	margin of deviation
MSE	mean square error
MWCNT	multi-walled carbon nanotubes
ND	Nanodiamond
R^2	coefficient of determination (-)
RSM	response surface methodology
SR	Shear rate
Std. Dev	standard deviation
SVF	solid volume fraction
T	Temperature (°C)
TEM	Transmission electron microscopy
VIF	variance Inflation Factors
Vol	Volume
W	Water

Greek symbols

λ lambda value

Subscripts

bf base fluid
Exp Experimental
Pred Predicted

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