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Thermo-optical performance of bare laser-synthesized TiN nanofluids for direct absorption solar collector applications

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Abstract

Titanium nitride (TiN) nanoparticles (NPs) look very promising for solar energy harvesting owing to a strong plasmonic absorption with the maximum in the near-infrared range. However, the synthesis of TiN nanofluids is very challenging as one has to combine the plasmonic feature and long-term colloidal stability to withstand harsh conditions of direct absorption solar collectors (DASC). Here, we explore solutions of bare (ligand free) TiN NPs synthesized by pulsed laser ablation in acetone as the nanofluid. We show that such NPs are low size-dispersed (mean size 25 nm) and exhibit a broad absorption peak around 700 nm, while their negative charge ensures a prolonged electrostatic stabilization of solutions. Solar weighted absorption coefficient of such TiN nanofluids reaches 95.7% at very low volume fractions (1.0×10^{-5}), while nanofluid temperature can be increased up to 29 °C under 1.25-sun illumination. Our data evidence that the thermal efficiency of a DASC using TiN nanofluid is 80% higher compared to Au-based counterparts. The recorded high photothermal efficiency and excellent colloidal stability of TiN nanofluids promises a major advancement of DASC technology, while laser-ablative synthesis can offer easy scalability and relative cost-efficiency required for the implementation of systems for solar energy harvesting.

Keywords: Nanofluid, Titanium Nitride (TiN), Plasmonics, Solar energy, pulsed laser ablation in liquids

Nomenclature	
Greek Symbol	
η	Thermal efficiency
λ	Wavelength
ρ	Density
σ	Cross-section
Abbreviations	
a	Radius
A_m	solar weighted absorption coefficient
$AM1.5$	Direct solar radiation at air mass 1.5
$ASTM$	American Society for Testing and Materials
fs	Femtosecond
\dot{m}	Mass flux
Au	Gold
c	Speed of light in a vacuum
c_p	Specific heat
$DASC$	Direct absorption solar collectors
G_T	Solar incident flux
h	Collector height
h_{conv}	Convective heat transfer
I_{rad}	Incident solar intensity
kV	Kilowatt
L	Length
n	Refractive index
NP	Nanoparticle
p	Volume fraction
$PLAL$	Pulsed laser ablation in liquids
T	Temperature
TiN	Titanium nitride
U_x	Flux velocity
UV	Ultra-violet
V	Volume

1. Introduction

The increasing energy demands of modern industrial society puts into forefront solar energy as a clean, renewable and virtually infinite energy resource [1, 2]. Being exploited via photovoltaic or photothermal energy conversion mechanisms, solar energy can be used in a plethora of applications, including desalination [3], electricity generation [4], space-heating, and domestic hot-water provision [4, 5]. Direct absorption solar collectors (DASC) employing liquid absorbing media present one of the simplest geometries for solar energy exploitation [6]. Since most widely-available DASC working fluids (water, ethylene glycol, and oil) have relatively weak absorption,

nanoparticles (NPs) with a broad absorption band in solar emission spectrum [7, 8, 9, 10, 11] are typically added to the solar collector base fluid. Such mixtures, termed nanofluids, can be formed by exploring NPs of different types of materials, including dielectrics [12], semiconductors [13, 14], pure metals [15, 16], doped metals [17, 18, 19, 20], metal oxides [21, 22, 23], metal nitrides [24], in order to improve thermophysical properties of base fluids. In particular, Chen et al. showed that solar thermal conversion efficiency can be increased by up to 95% by adding carbon multi-walled nanotubes (0.02wt%) into a base fluid [25], while the addition of graphene oxide/Ag NPs to water leads to the increase of DASC efficiency by 91.6% [26]. Wang et al. studied composite ZnO-Au oil-base nanofluid that exhibited 240% thermal conversion enhancement of the DASC, as compared with the pure base fluid [27]. It was also demonstrated that thermal efficiency can be enhanced by 28.3% at the volume fraction of 0.2wt%, by employing Al₂O₃ nanofluids [28]. Although these nanofluids show superior opto-thermal properties, their application prospects have been limited so far due to series of challenges, including low dispersion stability, material cost and complex synthesis procedures of nanoparticles [29, 30, 31]. Plasmonic noble metal NPs occupy a particularly important niche related to nanofluid-based DASC technology [32, 33, 34]. Capable of supporting oscillations of free electrons (plasmons), these NPs exhibit strong resonant absorption in the visible spectrum due to the generation of Localized Plasmon Resonances (LPR). As an example, Au NPs in size range of 30–60 nm exhibit a molar absorption coefficient of $\sim 7.66 \times 10^9 M^{-1} cm^{-1}$, which is four or five orders of magnitude higher than that of conventional absorbing dyes such as indocyanine green ($1.08 \times 10^4 M^{-1} cm^{-1}$), rhodamine-6G ($1.15 \times 10^5 M^{-1} cm^{-1}$) and malachite green ($1.49 \times 10^5 M^{-1} cm^{-1}$) [35]. Due to so high optical absorption, noble metal NPs look very promising constituents for solar energy harvesting applications. In particular, it was found that the presence of Ag NPs in base-fluid (H₂O) provides 144% photothermal conversion efficiency under the sun illumination [36], while the addition of Au NPs to water can improve the photo-thermal conversion efficiency by up to 21%, as compared to the base fluid [37]. As reported by Taygi et al., Al nanofluid exhibited up to 10% higher efficiency of DASC compared to flat plate collectors [10]. Owing to excellent chemical stability and high optical absorption, Au NPs look as excellent candidates for nanofluid implementations, but having plasmonic peak around 520-560nm, therefore, they cannot absorb light in the near-infrared range of solar spectrum limiting their application prospects [35]. The absorption range of Au-based nanomaterials can be extended to near-infrared by designing complex nano-architectures such as nanorods [33, 38] or core-shells [20], but these structures are typically costly and require more complicated capping to be stabilized in solutions.

The employment of alternative plasmonic nanomaterials such as transient nitride NPs is another possible solution to this spectral mismatch problem. Here, titanium nitride

(TiN) NPs look especially promising due to a broad red-shifted plasmonic-related absorption peak compared to other plasmonic counterparts (Ag, Au, Cu, etc.) [39, 40]. Indeed, several recent studies reported the improvement of nanofluid performance by employing TiN and Au-TiN alloy NPs [41, 42, 43]. However, the elaboration of TiN nanofluids for solar energy harvesting is still not free of challenges. One of problems consists in the lack of methods for low-cost, scalable fabrication of stable colloidal NPs solutions, which could preserve their long-term properties under light- induced heating. Indeed, nanomaterials prepared by wet chemical methods [44, 45] have nearly zero zeta potential and require organic protective ligands or surfactants to avoid agglomeration and precipitation effects. However, such a capping can stabilize colloidal solutions only for a limited time span ranging from several weeks to several months. In contrast, suspensions of NPs prepared by dry fabrication pathways such as plasma synthesis are typically composed of broadly size dispersed NPs and aggregates [46, 47, 48, 49], which is not consistent with long-term stability requirements. Furthermore, solar harvesting applications imply a drastic increase of nanofluid temperature under light-induced heating, which can alter the properties of NPs conjugates and destabilize the solution.

We believe that the above-stated problems in the synthesis and applications of TiN nanofluids can be resolved by the employment of bare (ligand-free) colloidal nanomaterials prepared by methods of pulsed laser ablation in liquids (PLAL) [50, 51, 52, 53, 54]. The PLAL technique is based on laser- induced ablation from a solid-target immersed in a liquid ambient (deionized water, acetone, ethanol, etc.) to produce nanoclusters, which then cool down and coalesce to form a colloidal NPs solution. As we showed previously, femtosecond (fs) laser ablation from a target [52] or colloidal solutions [53] is especially efficient to control size characteristics of formed NPs. A high-efficiency in fabrication of a variety of nanomaterials and exceptional cleanness of synthesis procedure made PLAL very popular for last decade promising attractive applications in biomedicine [55, 56, 57], photovoltaics [58], catalysis [59, 60], etc. One of the unique properties of PLAL consists in the possibility of obtaining extremely stable NPs solutions in the absence of ligands [52, 53, 54]. Such a stability is due to a strong electric charge of laser-synthesized NPs, which makes possible an electrostatic stabilization of solutions via electric repulsion of NPs [60]. As an example, colloidal solutions of bare Au and TiN NPs prepared by laser ablation in deionized water typically have negative zeta potential with an absolute value higher than 30-35mV, which makes the solutions stable for many years even during their storage at room temperature [52, 53, 54]. In addition, laser-ablative approach becomes much less costly than chemical synthesis techniques under industrial production scale when the productivity values are higher 550 mg/hour [61]. It is worth also noting that TiN is a highly abundant and very cheap material with the 1000-fold lower cost compared to Au.

We suppose that high stability in the absence of ligands can be one of key factors to

achieve long-term performance of nanofluid-based DASC. Anticipating the above-stated advantages, in this paper we explore bare TiN NPs prepared by methods of pulsed laser ablation in liquid ambient as heating elements in solar energy harvesting applications. We show that such bare TiN NPs can indeed much outperform other plasmonic counterparts such as Au NPs.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. *Synthesis and characterization of TiN nanofluid*

TiN NPs colloids were synthesized by an ultrashort (pulses of 270fs) laser ablation of TiN in acetone at ambient conditions using a procedure developed by our group [46, 47, 48]. Briefly, a hot-pressed TiN target (GoodFellow) was fixed vertically on the wall of a glass vessel filled with analytical grade acetone. A 3mm diameter beam from a Yb:KGW laser (wavelength 1030nm, pulse energy 100 μ J, repetition rate 10 kHz) was focused by a 75mm lens on the surface of the target through a sidewall of the vessel. The ablation vessel was mounted on a platform, which was continuously moved over a 10 \times 10mm section with a velocity of 5mm/s. The ablation duration was 30 minutes. After the fabrication, colloidal solutions of TiN NPs were centrifuged (7000 RCF, 5 min, ELMI CM-50 centrifuge) to remove a minor amorphous fraction, which was also formed during the synthesis. The supernatant formed during the centrifugation step was removed, while the residue was dispersed in deionized water and used for the subsequent experiments.

Morphology, size, and composition of the synthesized NPs were characterized by a scanning transmission electron microscopy (STEM) system (acceleration voltage 0.1 – 30 kV, MAIA 3, Tescan, Czech Republic) coupled with an EDS detector (X-act, Oxford Instruments, UK). The size of the moving objects in a nanofluid was measured by the dynamic light scattering (DLS) using a Zetasizer ZS instrument (Malvern Instruments). The absorption spectrum in the range 400-900nm has been obtained using a Cary 5000 UV-Vis-NIR spectrophotometer (Agilent).

Colloidal aqueous solutions of spherical Au NPs with a radius of $a=25$ nm were obtained commercially from Nanocomposix for a comparative assessment of the photothermal performance. TiN and Au nanofluids had concentrations of 0.05mg/ml, corresponding to volume fractions of 9.3×10^{-6} and 2.5×10^{-6} , respectively.

2.2. *Solar thermal conversion setup*

To investigate solar-thermal conversion efficiency of the nanofluids, an artificial sunlight simulator (AM1.5 spectrum, one-to-three suns irradiance, Oriel LCS-100, Newport, USA) was used to irradiate the colloid within a glass cuvette having the length of 1cm, as shown in Figure 1. A concave mirror and a lens (both with $f=10$ cm) were

used to collimate the sunlight at the cuvette. An iris diaphragm was employed to control the illumination area, and a cell/meter (91150V, Newport, USA) was used as a reference to measure the sunlight intensity. The image of the cuvette and its temperature colormap were monitored using a Flir E4 infrared camera, located 20cm away from the cuvette. The average value of temperature in the section illuminated by the sunlight (1cm×1cm) was monitored, with capture rates of two frames per minute.

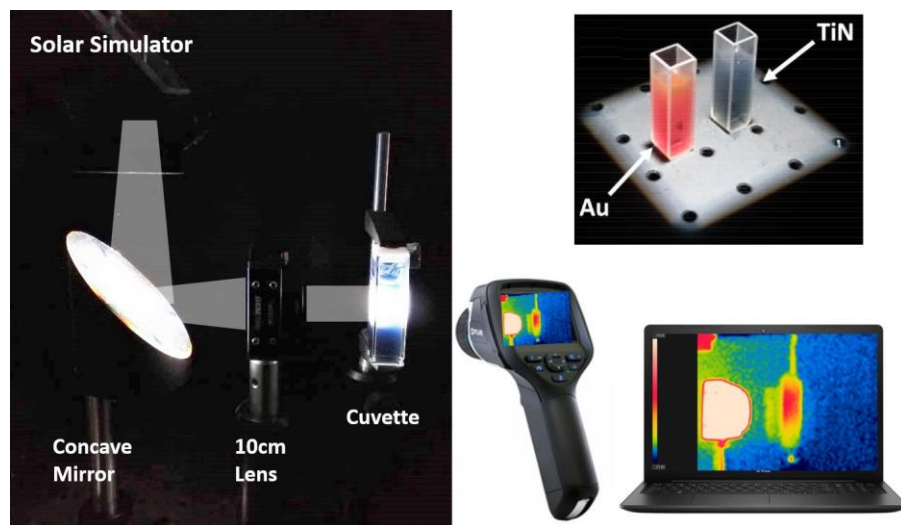


Figure 1: Schematics of solar thermal conversion experimental setup and photo of cuvettes with colloidal solutions of Au and TiN NPs.

2.3. Computational Models

Single NP

Numerical simulations exploring 3D computational domain and full-wave finite element method (FEM), based on the Radio-Frequency (RF) and Heat Transfer Modules (COMSOL Multiphysics), were employed to calculate absorption and scattering cross-sections spectra of NPs. Two perfectly matched layers (PMLs) with the thickness of 200 nm covered the top and bottom surfaces of the computational domain, minimizing backscattering effects. Finally, perfect electric and magnetic conductor conditions were applied at the sidewall boundaries.

As represented in Figure 2.a, a spherical metallic particle (TiN) with a radius of $a = 25$ nm is located at the domain origin (0,0,0), surrounded by the base fluid (water, acetone and ethylene-glycol). The particle is shined with a downward-directed plane electromagnetic wave having the polarization plane over the X-axis, described by time-harmonic E-field equations [32, 20]. Values of the TiN permittivity were obtained from

reference [62].

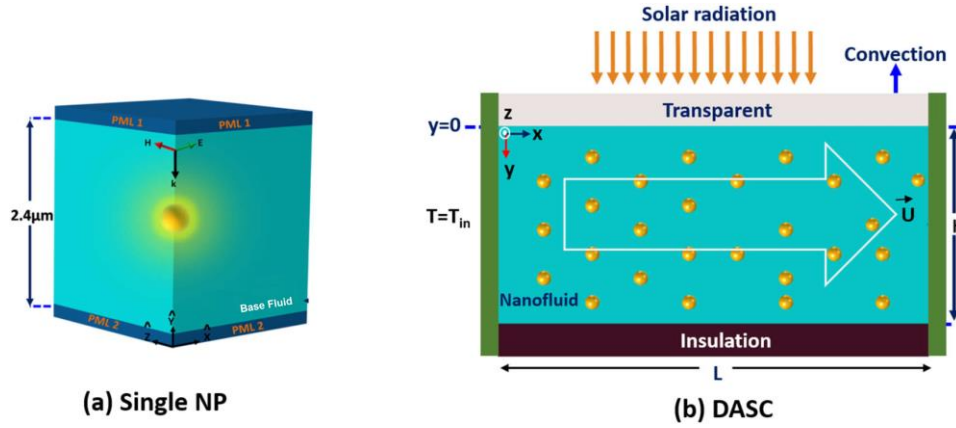


Figure 2: Computational models: (a) 3D model composed of a metallic NP, an embedding medium (base fluid) and two Perfectly Matched Layers (PML₁ and PML₂); (b) Schematic of the DASC model for thermal and solar harvesting analysis, h and L are thickness and the length of the DASC, respectively. The white arrow indicates the nanofluid flux direction.

DASC Model

As represented in Figure 2.b, the 2D DASC model considers that the NF flows between two parallel surfaces. The bottom surface (at $y=h$) is considered as adiabatic, and the top surface (at $y=0$) is a transparent glass cover, with area A . In the collector, the flow moves from the inlet (at $x=0$) to the outlet (at $x=L$). In the proposed model, the collector is illuminated with a radiative heat flux given by $q_r = \int I_{rad} d\lambda$, where I_{rad} is the incident solar intensity at the top surface of the collector. The radiation absorbed in the DASC is converted into thermal energy and the heat transfer inside the collector is considered as 2-dimensional steady-state case, which describes the nanofluid temperature distribution, is given by [10]:

$$k_s \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial y^2} - \frac{\partial q_r}{\partial y} = \rho c_p U_x \frac{\partial T}{\partial x} \quad (1)$$

where U_x is the fluid velocity, ρ and c_p are the density and the specific heat of the working fluid, respectively.

In this model, the DASC has an adiabatic bottom surface, and convection and radiation thermal losses on the top surface are considered. The boundary conditions can be described as:

$$\begin{aligned} k_s \frac{\partial T}{\partial y} \Big|_{y=0} &= h_{conv}(T - T_{amb}) \\ k_s \frac{\partial T}{\partial y} \Big|_{y=h} &= 0, \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

where h_{conv} is the convective heat transfer coefficient ($10 \text{ W/m}^2\text{K}$), T_{amb} is the ambient temperature ($20 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$).

The DASC thermal efficiency (η) can be calculated as [10]:

$$\eta = \frac{\dot{m}c_p(\bar{T}_{out} - \bar{T}_{in})}{AG_T} \quad (3)$$

where \dot{m} is the mass flow of the nanofluid through the collector, G_T is the solar incident flux. Moreover, \bar{T}_{in} and \bar{T}_{out} are the inlet and outlet temperatures, corresponding to the average temperatures at $x = 0$ and $x = L$, respectively.

3. Results and Discussions

3.1. TiN Nanofluid - experimental evaluation

A typical SEM image and size histogram of the synthesized TiN NPs are shown in Figure 3.a. One can see that the NPs are mostly spherical, while their size distribution is quite narrow and can be fitted by a log-normal distribution with 25 nm mode size (NP radius), and 15 nm full width at half maximum (FWHM) value.

As shown in Figure 3.b, the mode value of the hydrodynamic size distribution is almost identical to the mode value of size distribution, measured by the electron microscopy. Therefore, TiN NPs prepared by fs laser ablation indeed move independently in colloidal solutions and do not form aggregates. A qualitative chemical composition of TiN NPs was measured by EDS technique, as shown in Figure 3.c. The data confirm that the NPs were mainly composed of titanium and nitrogen with minor oxygen fraction. The presence of oxygen can be explained by a natural oxidation of NPs surface. The large silicon (Si) peak in the spectrum is explained by the use of Si wafer as a substrate for the measurement, while the signal from carbon (C) comes from an organic contamination of the measuring vacuum chamber.

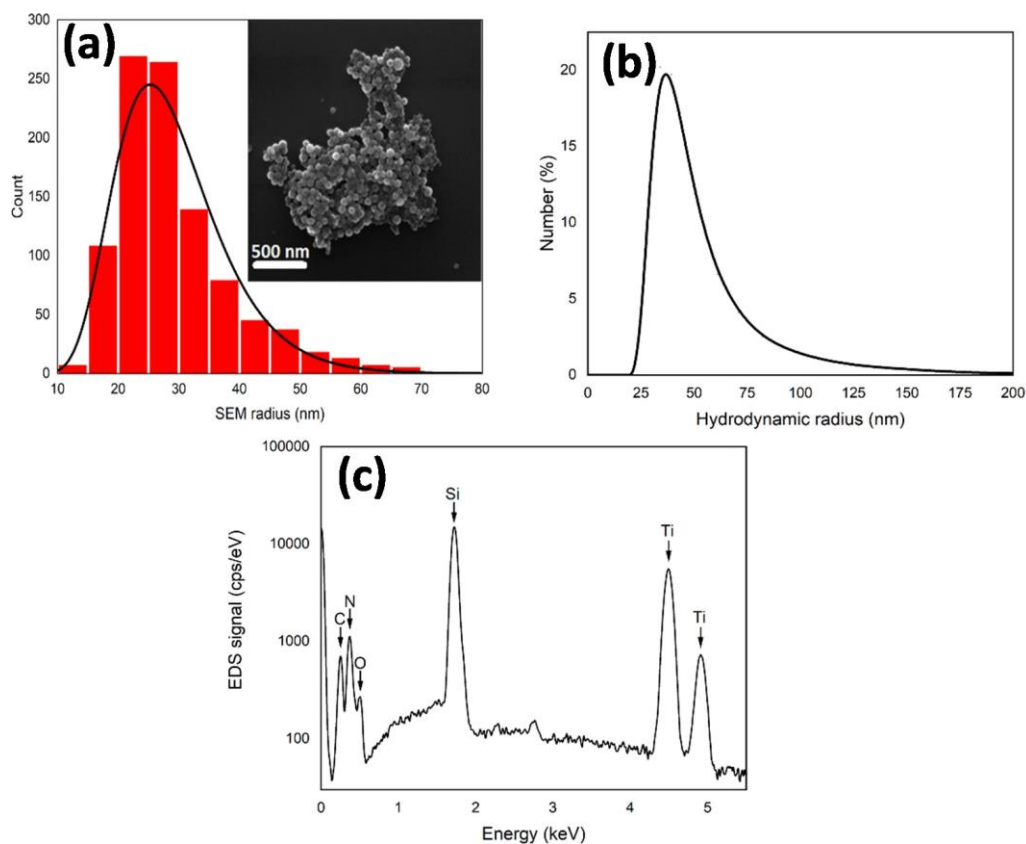


Figure 3: (a) Size histogram and SEM image (inset) of TiN NPs synthesized by laser ablation in acetone, (b) hydrodynamic size distribution, (c) and energy-dispersive X-ray spectrum of synthesized TiN nanoparticles.

The zeta-potential of laser-synthesized TiN NPs was lower than -30 mV, evidencing a large electrostatic charge of laser-synthesized TiN NPs. Therefore, the TiN nanofluids manifest a size uniformity of NPs and the absence of agglomerates. Moreover, we did not observe the formation of any precipitates after the storage of NPs solutions at ambient conditions for more than one year, which is very important for projected solar harvesting applications requiring a high long-term colloidal stability of nanofluids.

3.2. Optical performance of DASC using TiN nanofluids

Figure 4.a shows the measured absorbance spectrum of dispersed TiN NPs in acetone, which exhibits a broad extinction peak centered at 700 nm with FWHM of 150 nm. One can see in Figure 4.a the extinctions spectrum, of 25 nm radius TiN NPs, obtained by the

numerical simulation. The numerical spectrum shows peak at 700 nm, in accordance with the experimental results, validating our numerical model.

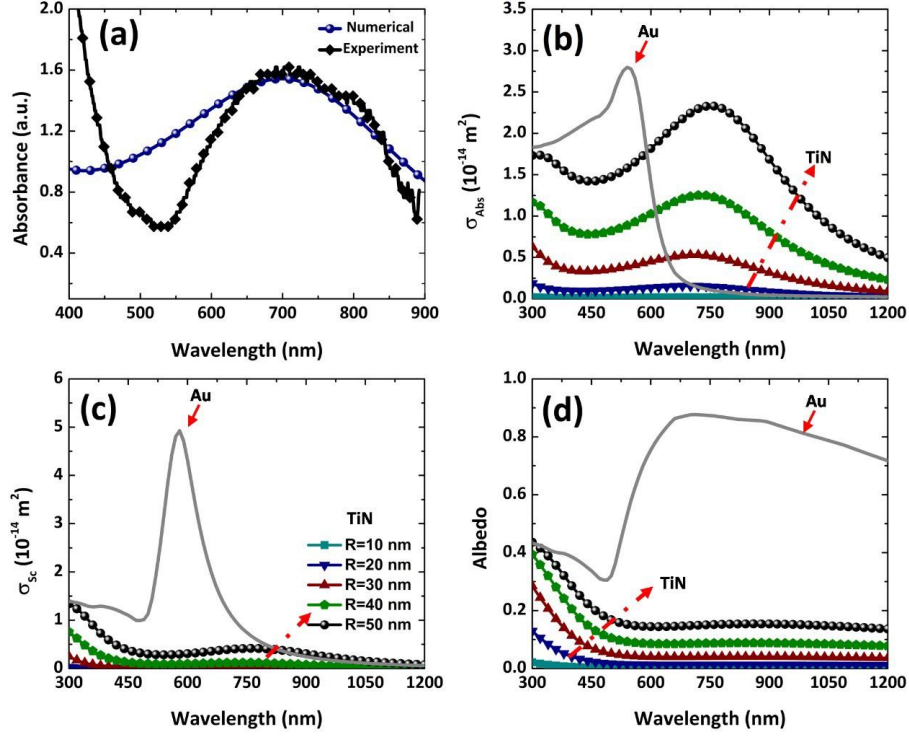


Figure 4: Spectral dependence of optical properties of TiN NPs: Numerical and experimental absorbance (a), absorption (b) and scattering (c) cross sections; with their respective albedo (d), in aqueous medium. The solid lines present cross-section values of Au NP ($a = 25 \text{ nm}$).

Absorptive and scattering properties of a nanostructure rely on its size. Figure 4.b demonstrates σ_{abs} spectra considering TiN nanospheres with different radius ($R=10, 20, 30, 40$ and 50 nm), suggesting that a dipole resonance is the dominant mode for such NPs. Here, the plasmonic peak shifts from 700 to 780 nm , as the particle size increases. Figure 4.b also shows a spectral dependence for absorption (4) of a Au nanosphere ($a = 25 \text{ nm}$). One can see that TiN NP presents a much broader absorption spectrum than Au nanospheres. Moreover, as shown in Figure 4.c, the scattering-cross section of Au nanospheres is significantly higher than the TiN NP σ_{sca} values. In general, the NPs are efficient for photo-thermal applications if the $\sigma_{sca} < \sigma_{abs}$ condition is satisfied [63, 64].

The albedo factor, or scattering efficiency, defined as $\sigma_{sca}/(\sigma_{abs} + \sigma_{sca})$, can be used to identify efficient nanostructures for thermal applications. As shown in Figure 4.d, the low albedo values indicate that TiN NPs are mainly absorbing nanostructures, which are efficient for use as working fluids.

The percentage of solar energy absorbed by a TiN nanofluid in a DASC can be estimated by the solar weighted absorption coefficient given by [65]:

$$A_m = \frac{\int_{300}^{1200} E_\lambda (1 - e^{-\alpha h}) d\lambda}{\int_{300}^{1200} E_\lambda d\lambda} \quad (4)$$

where E_λ is the spectral distribution of solar intensity (ASTM G173-03 AM1.5 Global). The integration was performed from 300 to 1200 nm. For wavelengths higher than 1200 nm, the contribution of water starts to dominate in optical absorption of any water-based nanofluid. To compare with previous studies, nanofluid concentration is described in terms of the volume fraction given as $p = V_{NPs}/V_{fluid}$, where V_{fluid} is the nanofluid volume, V_{NPs} is the total volume of NPs (i. e. $V_{NPs} = N_{NPs} \times V_{NP}$), N_{NPs} is the number of nanostructures in the working fluid and V_{NP} is the volume of a single particle. Moreover, the nanofluid optical absorption coefficient can be written as $\alpha = (p/V_{NPs}) \times \sigma_{abs}$.

Figure 5 shows A_m values of working nanofluids in DASC, composed of TiN NP ($a=25$ nm) diluted in acetone, water, and ethylene-glycol. The choice of base fluids allows us to explore the TiN nanofluid in three different regimes: water-freezing (0 °C), room (20 °C), and water-boiling (100 °C) temperatures. The height of the DASC is varied from $h=0$ to $h=2.5$ cm, while volume fractions of TiN ranged between $p = 0$ and $p = 1 \times 10^{-5}$. Relatively small collector height and TiN NP volume fractions ensure optimal absorption efficiencies; for instance, DASC parameters can be selected to obtain A_m values close to 95%, following the solid lines in Figure 5.

Moreover, as shown in Figure 5, similar A_m values were found for TiN nanofluids base acetone ($n=1.36$) and water ($n=1.33$). However, Acetone can be explored in DASC at freezing temperatures (0 °C). Moreover, TiN nanofluid based on ethylene-glycol ($n=1.43$) medium can reach higher A_m values with slightly lower NPs concentration. In particular ethylene-glycol based-fluids can be used for applications in temperatures higher than 100 °C.

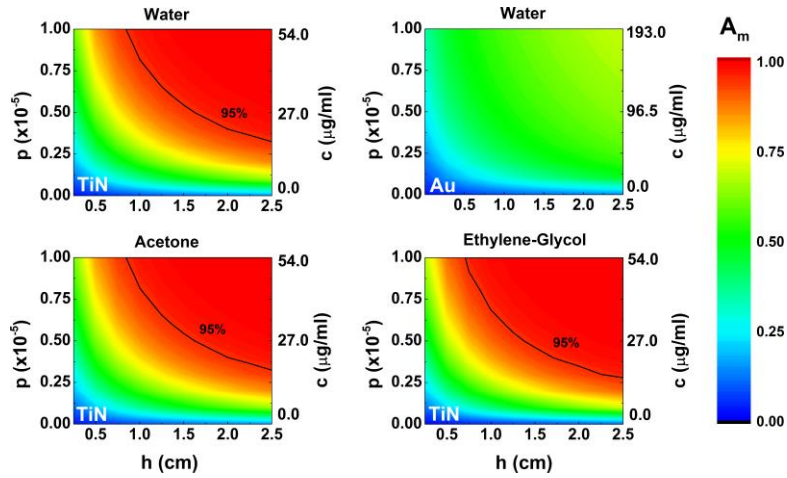


Figure 5: Solar weighted absorption coefficient for TiN NP ($a = 25\text{nm}$) immersed in acetone, water, and ethylene-glycol: as a function of volume fraction (or mass concentration) and DASC thickness. Au NP in water with same radius are evaluated for comparison. Solid lines indicate the $A_m = 95\%$ condition.

The use of TiN NPs (1×10^{-5}) inclusions in all three working fluids (water, acetone and ethylene-glycol) leads to A_m values close to ideal absorber conditions for a solar collector with $h = 1\text{cm}$. Solar weighted absorption coefficient was also evaluated for Au water-based nanofluid. For $h=1\text{cm}$ and Au NP volume fraction close to 1×10^{-5} , the obtained A_m values are not higher than 65%, as shown in Figure 5.

3.3. Thermal performance of TiN nanofluids

The optical-heating performances of different working fluids were evaluated experimentally. Two nanofluids (Au water-base and TiN Acetone-base), placed in glass cuvette, were illuminated with sunlight, during 25 minutes. The nanoparticles concentration was adjusted to equalize mass concentrations (0.05 mg/ml) of colloidal suspensions.

As shown in Figure 6.a, temperature of the TiN nanofluid (in acetone), continuously increases from 20 °C and reaches the maximum at 29 °C after 25 minutes of 1.25 sun radiation, while Au nanofluid (in water) reaches the maximum temperature at approximately 25 °C under the same conditions. The curves obtained for acetone- and water-based pure fluids (without NPs) are also presented in the figure, showing base-fluid contributions to the heating process. The temperature increase in the nanofluids occurs due to the photothermal conversion by the LPR of the NPs, in which the incident light within the nanofluid absorption spectrum range is absorbed. Moreover, the stagnation of the temperature values after 20 minutes of exposure is associated with thermal

convection losses in the system. A better photo-heating performance of the TiN nanofluid can be related to a broader absorption and a lower scattering of the TiN NPs compared to Au counterparts, as commented previously.

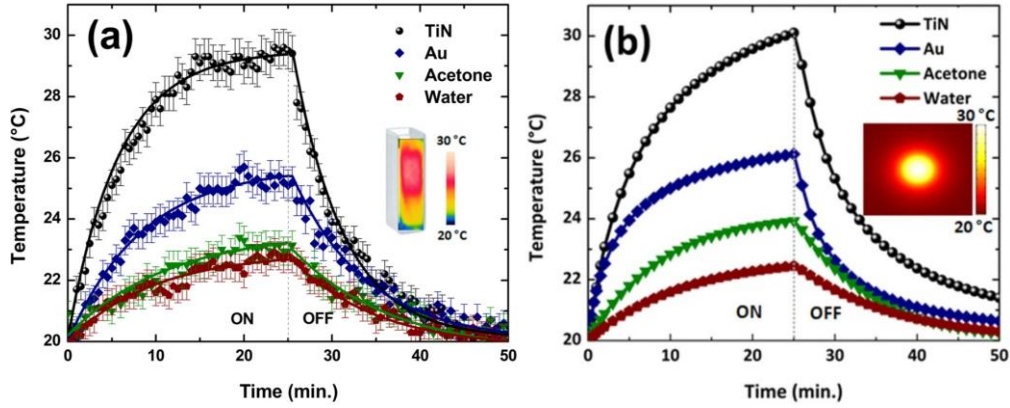


Figure 6: Time-dependent photo-heating performance of TiN (acetone) nanofluid, Au (water) base nanofluid, pure acetone and water under 1.25 sun radiation: (a) Experimental results and (b) numerical simulation for a single NP. Vertical gray lines indicate the moment when the illumination is blocked.

Temperature of the optically heated colloid can be estimated by considering the contribution of all the NPs as point-like heat sources [63]. Therefore, the transient heat transfer equation was employed in a 3-dimensional heat conduction model for colloidal solutions of Au and TiN NPs. As can be seen in Figure 6.b, temperature values obtained with the numerical model are similar to the experimental results, with a similar heating behavior and similar maximal temperatures. After 25 minutes, the illumination was turned off and the nanofluid temperature started to decrease, due to the thermal losses of the system.

Thermal evaluation was also performed considering a continuous flow ($U_x \neq 0$) of the nanofluid in the DASC. The temperature distribution within DASC was investigated considering different inlet temperatures, corresponding to three typical scenarios: water-freezing (0 °C), room (20 °C), and water-boiling (100 °C) temperatures. The temperature distribution of the TiN acetone-base fluid (with \bar{T}_{in} at 0 °C and 20 °C) and the ethylene-glycol base nanofluid (with \bar{T}_{in} at 100 °C) are shown in Figure 7. A typical DASC flux velocity ($U_x = 2.0 \times 10^{-3}$ m/s) and 1 Sun incident solar flux ($G_T = 1000$ Wm⁻²) were considered in the thermal evaluation of the nanofluid.

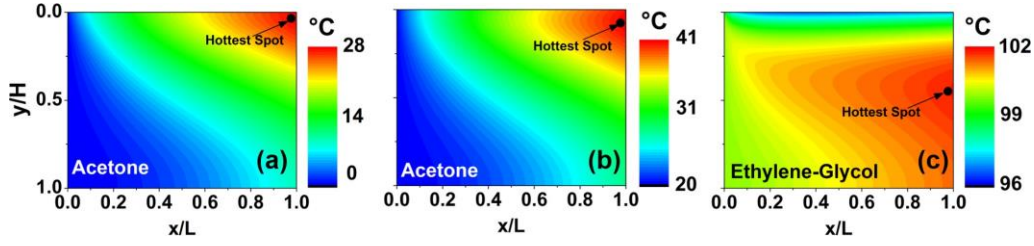


Figure 7: Temperature distribution within a DASC containing TiN nanofluids, with T_{in} equal to (a) 0 °C and (b) 20°C using acetone base-fluid; and (c) 100 °C using ethylene- glycol base-fluid; with $T_{amb}=20$ °C and $U_x = 2.0 \times 10^{-3}$ m/s.

As can be seen in Figure 7a,b, when the inlet temperature is equal or smaller than T_{amb} (20 °C), the nanofluid temperature decreases as the distance from the top surface of DASC (where most light energy is absorbed) increases. On the other hand, as shown in Figure 7.c, if the inlet temperature is equal to 100 °C), which is much higher than T_{amb} , the thermal losses become more significant. Therefore, the highest recorded temperatures are in the middle region of DASC. In all three cases, DASC can increase fluid temperature, which illustrates a high potential in TiN NPs based nanofluids at various temperature regimes scenarios.

The thermal efficiency, described by Eq. 3, grows gradually while DASC height is increased. Considering $\bar{T}_{in} = T_{amb} = 20$ °C, η reaches a value close to 80% in acetone-based nanofluid and up to 90% in water base fluid at $h = 1$ cm. The maximum efficiency of 92% is recorded for heights larger than 1.5 cm, as shown in Figure 8.a. The saturation effect, which is characterized by an asymptotic behavior, due to the fact that material absorbs most of the light energy in the light penetration depth, which is about 1.25 cm in case of our nanofluids.

Figure 8.b depicts the thermal efficiency of DASC as a function of normalized inlet temperature $(\bar{T}_{in} - T_{amb}/G_t)$. A decrease in efficiency with the increase in inlet temperature can be related to thermal losses, which are directly proportional to the difference between \bar{T}_{in} and T_{amb} . Analyzing the solar collector thermal behavior under the same operating conditions, one can conclude that DASC using TiN nanofluid exhibits nearly 80% higher efficiency compared to that of spherical Au NPs.

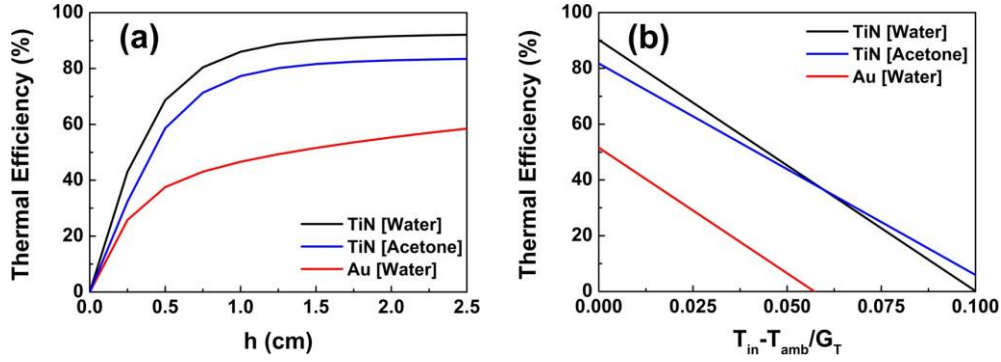


Figure 8: Thermal efficiency of DASCs using TiN and Au NP at $p = 1 \times 10^{-5}$ as a function of collector height (a) and normalized inlet temperature (b).

DASCs are known to demonstrate high performance and open up opportunities to explore TiN NPs in different base fluids working in one or another applications or temperature ranges. For comparison purposes, thermal efficiency and A_m coefficients of different nanofluids (reported in the literature) containing only spherical NPs inclusions are shown in Table 1. All solid NPs described in Table 1 can be synthesized by using the PLAL technique.

Table 1: Solar weighted absorption coefficient of various nanofluids based on spherical shape nanoparticles suspended in base-fluid H₂O and DASC thermal efficiency.

Materials	Structure	Vol.fraction	A_m (%)	h (mm)	Ref.	η (%)
TiN	Solid	1.0×10^{-5}	95.7	10	-	90.2
Au	Solid	5.0×10^{-5}	85.0	10	[65]	51.2
Ag	Solid	2.0×10^{-4}	80.0	10	[66]	40.5
Al	Solid	1.0×10^{-2}	60.0	-	[67]	28.5
SiO ₂	Solid	2.0×10^{-4}	20.0	5	[68]	4.8
SiO ₂ /Ag	Composite	5.0×10^{-5}	69.1	10	[69]	54.4
SiO ₂ /Au, SiO ₂ /Ag (blended)	Composite	2.0×10^{-5}	94.2	5	[68]	44.1
TiO ₂ /Ag	Composite	1.0×10^{-4}	91.0	60	[70]	67.0

Our results show that TiN NPs prepared by PLAL exhibit superior properties for DASC applications compared to Au NPs of similar size. The TiN NPs provided a broader absorption band, covering most of the solar spectrum (Fig. 4b). Moreover, the photo-assisted thermal efficiency of TiN NPs exhibited better performance than alternative nanofluids based on graphene oxide [26], Al₂O₃ [28], TiO₂ [71], Al [10], carbon nanotubes [25], SiO₂ [68], Au [43] and polystyrene [71].

One of major advantages of nanofluids based on laser-synthesized TiN NPs consists in a very high stability of formed solutions. Indeed, our tests showed that solutions of bare TiN NPs do not present any sign of aggregation or precipitation for several years even under their storage under ambient room temperature conditions.

It is clear that such a stability is due to electrical repulsion effect as laser-synthesized

metal NPs have a strong negative charge under nearly identical size and ideally spherical shape [60]. The obtained data on size characteristics of TiN NPs contrast with results of earlier studies, in which aqueous colloidal solutions of bare TiN NPs were prepared by the dilution of commercially available TiN nanopowders [41, 46, 47, 48, 49]. Indeed, the hydrodynamic size of nanopowder-based TiN NPs measured by DLS was about an order of magnitude larger than the mean size measured by TEM [41, 47, 49], suggesting a strong aggregation in nanopowder-based suspensions. It is obvious that the presence of such agglomerates is not consistent with long-term stability of nanofluids, as non-uniformity of NPs size distribution typically leads to fast agglomeration and precipitation effects [60]. The stability problem of nanopowder-based nanofluids can somehow be tackled by addition of surfactants or other chemical methods, but such additional step complicates the preparation of a nanofluids and increases its cost, while the efficiency of such stabilization is not very high according to data for chemically synthesized NPs [44, 45].

Another potential advantage is related to projected cost-efficiency and easy scalability of laser fabrication process. It is known that PLAL synthesis of plasmonic NPs becomes more economically efficient than wet chemical methods when the productivity rate is higher than 550 mg of NPs mass per hour [61], while even single laser beam-based experimental setups can enable much higher productivity rates up to 4000 mg per hour [72]. Such a productivity rate is equivalent to 80 Lh⁻¹ of TiN nanofluid with volume fraction up to 10⁻⁵, which is very high. It is also important that the productivity rate can further be increased by using additional laser beams.

4. Conclusion

We synthesized bare (ligand-free) TiN NPs in acetone by using methods of pulsed laser ablation. NPs were low-size dispersed with the mean size of 30nm, while their strong negative charge (< -30 mV, according to zeta potential measurements) ensured a prolonged electrostatic stabilization of NPs solution in the absence of ligands. Optical spectra from NPs solutions evidenced the presence of a strong and broad absorption band with a maximum around 700 nm associated a dipole plasmon excitation. We also found that TiN NPs are mainly absorbing and have a reduced scattering. A numerical analysis showed that solar weighted absorption efficiency of TiN NPs suspended in acetone fluid was close to 95% at very low volume fractions ($p = 1.0 \times 10^{-5}$), due to broadband absorption, which was much higher than that of Au NPs. The solar thermal experiment demonstrated that TiN nanofluid had two-times temperature increase in comparison with Au nanofluid, and such a behavior was due to contribution of each photo-heated NP, evidencing that the TiN NPs based working fluid was not agglomerated in our experiments under solar illumination. The thermal efficiency of DASC using TiN nanofluid exhibited 80% better efficiency compared to that of spherical Au NPs. These results evidenced that TiN nanofluids can be a promising candidate for photothermal assisted applications. Therefore, the laser-synthesized TiN nanofluids can potentially

present an ideal object for DASC due to its high performance, superior stability in the absence of ligands and cost efficient fabrication process.

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