

Editors

Dr. K. Sujatha

Prof. V. M. Venkateswara Rao

Proceedings of
International Conference
on Mechanical and
Mechanics of Materials
(IC₃M)

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Foreword

It gives us immense pleasure to welcome you to the **International Conference on Mechanical and Mechanics of Materials (IC3M-2025)**. This conference marks a significant step forward in fostering global collaboration and advancing research in mechanical engineering, materials science, design innovation, and emerging industrial technologies.

Mechanical engineering and material science continue to evolve rapidly, driven by breakthroughs in advanced manufacturing, computational modelling, smart materials, renewable energy systems, robotics, thermal engineering, and structural mechanics. These advancements are reshaping modern industries and enabling solutions to complex engineering challenges. **IC3M-2025** provides a vital platform for researchers, engineers, and industry experts to present their innovative work, exchange ideas, and engage in meaningful discussions that contribute to the growth of mechanical and materials engineering.

This conference brings together a distinguished gathering of participants from academia, industry, and research organizations across the world. Their contributions reflect the growing importance of interdisciplinary research and the need for integrated solutions in areas such as additive manufacturing, fatigue and fracture mechanics, composite materials, fluid dynamics, automation, finite element analysis, and sustainability-driven engineering. By showcasing cutting-edge studies, **IC3M-2025** highlights current achievements and illuminates promising pathways for future technological development.

We extend our heartfelt appreciation to all authors for their valuable research contributions, to the reviewers for their rigorous evaluation process, and to the keynote speakers and session chairs for enriching the conference with their expertise. We also acknowledge the immense efforts of the organizing committee whose commitment and coordination have made **IC3M-2025** a reality.

We firmly believe that the knowledge shared through **IC3M-2025** will inspire further research, strengthen academic and industrial collaboration, and contribute meaningfully to the global discourse on mechanical engineering and material innovation.

We warmly welcome all participants and wish you an engaging, productive, and intellectually rewarding experience at **IC3M-2025**.

Preface

The **International Conference on Mechanical and Mechanics of Materials (IC3M-2025)** stands as a significant global forum dedicated to advancing research that shapes the future of mechanical engineering, material innovation, and engineering technologies. As industries worldwide undergo rapid transformation driven by automation, sustainability goals, and digital integration, IC3M-2025 brings together a vibrant community of scholars, engineers, scientists, and practitioners committed to exploring modern advancements in mechanical systems and material science.

Mechanical engineering continues to push the boundaries of innovation. From advancements in computational mechanics and fracture analysis to breakthroughs in composite materials, fluid-thermal systems, manufacturing processes, and structural optimization, the field is evolving at an unprecedented pace. IC3M-2025 serves as a platform to examine how these innovations can solve real-world engineering challenges, improve performance, prolong material life, enhance safety, and contribute to sustainable industrial development.

The rise of additive manufacturing, smart and functional materials, digital twins, robotics, and Industry 4.0 ecosystems has revolutionized the way engineering systems are designed, analyzed, and manufactured. Enhanced computational power, simulation-based engineering, and high-performance materials enable engineers to develop systems that are more efficient, durable, and reliable. IC3M-2025 provides an opportunity to reflect on these advancements and explore their transformative impact across sectors such as automotive, aerospace, energy, manufacturing, civil infrastructure, and biomedical engineering.

Materials science plays an equally critical role in shaping future technologies. The development of lightweight alloys, nanomaterials, composites, and sustainable materials has expanded the possibilities for high-performance applications. From improved fatigue resistance to advanced thermal behavior and smart sensing capabilities, the latest material innovations present new avenues for engineering excellence. IC3M-2025 highlights these contributions while emphasizing the importance of responsible, energy-efficient, and environmentally conscious engineering practices.

Interdisciplinary domains such as advanced manufacturing technologies, industrial automation, and structural health monitoring also form a vital component of today's mechanical engineering landscape. These areas illustrate how integrated engineering systems can enhance productivity, reduce operational costs, and promote safer, smarter, and more resilient infrastructures. By understanding the complex interactions between design, materials, and performance, researchers can develop holistic solutions that are robust and future-ready.

IC3M-2025 is a space where disciplines converge, ideas evolve, and engineering innovations thrive. It reflects the belief that mechanical and materials engineering—when pursued with purpose, integrity, and interdisciplinary collaboration—can be a powerful driver of global technological advancement. We extend our sincere appreciation to all authors, reviewers, speakers, session chairs, and organizers whose collective expertise and dedication have shaped this conference.

Welcome to **IC3M-2025**—where engineering insights inspire future innovations.

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Proceedings of

International Conference on Mechanical and Mechanics of Materials (IC3M-2025)

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Editor's Note

It is with great pleasure that I present the proceedings of the **International Conference on Mechanical and Mechanics of Materials (IC3M-2025)**. This volume represents the collective efforts of researchers, academicians, industry professionals, and innovators who have contributed their expertise to advance the fields of mechanical engineering, materials science, and emerging industrial technologies.

IC3M-2025 brings together a rich collection of papers covering a wide spectrum of mechanical and material engineering domains, including structural mechanics, fatigue and fracture analysis, computational modelling, manufacturing technologies, thermal engineering, composite materials, fluid dynamics, automation, and sustainable engineering solutions. Each manuscript has undergone a rigorous peer-review process to ensure technical accuracy, academic quality, relevance, and originality. The diversity and depth of these contributions highlight the rapid advancements shaping modern mechanical and materials engineering.

As global industries continue to evolve—driven by digital manufacturing, robotics, high-performance materials, renewable energy systems, and integrated engineering ecosystems—mechanical and materials research plays a pivotal role in addressing real-world challenges. This conference serves as an important platform for exploring innovations that enhance reliability, optimize design, improve performance, and contribute to environmentally responsible engineering practices. The works presented here reflect not only current scientific achievements but also emerging directions that will influence the future trajectory of engineering advancements.

I extend my sincere appreciation to all contributing authors for sharing their valuable research, to the reviewers for their meticulous evaluations and constructive suggestions, and to the organizing committee for their persistent dedication throughout the planning and execution of IC3M-2025. I also express gratitude to the keynote speakers, session chairs, and panel experts, whose insights and scholarly contributions have enriched the intellectual value of this conference.

It is my hope that these proceedings will serve as a meaningful resource for researchers, educators, engineers, and practitioners. May the ideas presented in these pages inspire continued innovation, collaboration, and scientific exploration.

I warmly welcome you to **IC3M-2025** and invite you to engage deeply with the knowledge and insights shared in this volume.



Editor In Chief
NERD Publication

Acknowledgements

We extend our heartfelt appreciation to all individuals, institutions, and contributors whose dedication, expertise, and support have made the **International Conference on Mechanical and Mechanics of Materials (IC3M-2025)** a successful and enriching event.

We express our sincere gratitude to all authors who submitted their research work and enriched the conference with high-quality contributions. Their commitment to advancing mechanical engineering, materials science, and emerging industrial technologies forms the core strength of this conference.

We are deeply grateful to the reviewers and members of the Technical Program Committee for their thorough evaluations, constructive feedback, and careful screening of submissions. Their expertise has ensured the academic rigor and technical quality of the accepted papers that form this volume.

Our appreciation also extends to the distinguished keynote speakers, session chairs, panelists, and invited experts who have contributed invaluable insights to IC3M-2025. Their participation has significantly enhanced the scientific depth and professional relevance of the conference.

We sincerely acknowledge the efforts of the organizing team and volunteers, whose dedication, planning, and seamless coordination have been instrumental in the smooth conduct of this event. Their commitment has ensured a meaningful and productive experience for all participants.

Finally, we express our warmest appreciation to all participants joining from across the globe. Their enthusiastic engagement, knowledge sharing, and collaborative spirit embody the true essence of **IC3M-2025**, strengthening the global community of mechanical and materials engineering researchers.

About IC3M-2025

The **International Conference on Mechanical and Mechanics of Materials (IC3M-2025)** is an international event scheduled for **December 12, 2025**, organized by **NERD Publication**. With a strong commitment to fostering interdisciplinary engineering research and innovation, IC3M-2025 provides a dynamic platform for researchers, scholars, engineers, and practitioners from around the world to present their latest findings, explore evolving ideas, and build collaborative academic networks.

IC3M-2025 aims to advance research in mechanical engineering and materials science that transcends traditional boundaries. The conference brings together leading voices from mechanical design, manufacturing engineering, structural mechanics, materials technology, energy systems, automation, and allied engineering disciplines. This forum supports impactful discussions, encourages problem-solving approaches, and promotes collaborative solutions to today's complex industrial and societal challenges.

Participants will engage in a comprehensive program featuring keynote speeches, expert talks, technical sessions, and industry-focused discussions—all designed to support academic growth, meaningful interaction, and the dissemination of high-quality research outcomes.

This multidisciplinary platform encourages applied engineering research and innovation, offering participants an opportunity to contribute to global development initiatives and industrial advancements through scholarly excellence.

Vision

To advance mechanical engineering and material science research through innovation, interdisciplinary collaboration, and sustainable technological development addressing global industrial and societal challenges.

Mission

To provide an international forum where engineers, researchers, and professionals can exchange knowledge, present innovations, and promote multidisciplinary research in mechanical systems, materials engineering, manufacturing technologies, thermal sciences, industrial automation, and related fields.

Objectives

- Promote collaboration among global academic, industrial, and research communities
- Encourage interdisciplinary engineering research and technological innovation
- Address real-world industrial challenges through scholarly discussions and applied solutions
- Disseminate high-quality research through reputable and indexed publications

- Support the growth of next-generation engineering researchers and innovators

Scope & Themes

IC3M-2025 covers a wide spectrum of mechanical and materials engineering fields, organized into the following specialized tracks:

Track 1: Mechanical Design, Dynamics & Structural Analysis

Mechanical Design, CAD/CAE, Structural Mechanics, Dynamics & Vibrations, Finite Element Analysis, Fatigue & Fracture Mechanics, Failure Analysis, Mechanisms and Tribology.

Track 2: Materials Science, Composites & Advanced Materials

Composite Materials, Polymers, Ceramics, Nano-materials, Smart Materials, Metal Alloys, Material Characterization, Surface Engineering, Corrosion Studies, Material Behavior under Stress/Temperature.

Track 3: Thermal Engineering, Energy Systems & Fluid Mechanics

Heat Transfer, Thermodynamics, Renewable Energy Systems, HVAC, IC Engines, Fluid Dynamics, Turbomachinery, CFD Simulations, Thermal-Fluid Systems, Energy Efficiency & Sustainable Energy Technologies.

Track 4: Manufacturing, Automation & Industry 4.0

Manufacturing Processes, Additive Manufacturing, Production Engineering, Robotics & Automation, CNC/Machining, Industrial Engineering, Digital Manufacturing, Smart Factories, IoT-enabled Industrial Systems, Mechatronics & Intelligent Control.

International Conference on Mechanical and Mechanics of Materials (IC3M)



12th Dec, 2025

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Session 1: Inauguration@10.30 a.m.

Sr. No	Topic	Speaker/Author	Talk Title
1	Inauguration	Dr. Sujatha Associate Editor NERD Publication	Welcome Address with Opening Remarks
2	Editor's Speech	Dr. V. Rao Editor NERD Publication	Inaugural Speech
3	Keynote Speech	Dr.P.Ashoka Varthanan Dean Innovation Professor and Head, Department of Mechanical Engineering Sri Krishna College of Engineering and Technology Coimbatore	SHOT PEENING PROCESS TO IMPROVE THE FLEXURAL STRENGTH OF HEATED 2024 ALUMINIUM ALLOY

Session 2: Dissemination of Research Findings@11 a.m.

Session Chair 1

Dr. Kamlesh Sharma

Session Chair 2

Dr. Vishal Ahlawat

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3	Gauri Maheshwari Amey Chavan	Detecting Illegal Water Extraction Using Hydrophone Technology and Its Financial Implications on Common People
4	Aanjnay Maan Singh Hitendra Vaishnav	Comparative Study of Internal Structural Geometry and Material Properties on Soft Gripper Performance
5	Akash Ahlawat Ashish Phogat Upender Punia Deepak Chhabra Ravinder Kumar Sahdev	Modeling and Optimization of FFF Processing for Mechanical Performance in rPLA /MWCNT Nanocomposites using GA-ANFIS

6	Amyra Pasricha Hitendra Vaishnav	Design and Evaluation of Spirulina Algae Biofilter Using Exhaust Fan for Industrial Flue Gas Mitigation and Biomass Generation
7	Siddharth Ojha Amey Chavan	Development and evaluation of an air filtration system combining Electrostatic Precipitators for airborne microplastics
8	Aaradhya Jain Hitendra Vaishnav	Investigating Perforated Heat Sink Using Recycled Cast Blocks for Enhanced Thermal Performance
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10	Sashvat Seksaria Reetu Jain	Investigating the water mist as a potential solution for the dust settlement on the construction site
11	Aarav Sakseria Hitendra Vaishnav	Experimental investigation of a low-cost drone testing setup for the performance evaluation
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13	Divish Bhagtani Hitendra Vaishnav	Comparative Analysis of Plant-Based and Electrostatic Precipitation Methods for Indoor Particulate

Editors
Dr. Sujatha K.
&
Prof. Venkateswara Rao

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Session Chair

1. Dr. Kamlesh Sharma

B.E. (Mechanical Engineering), M. Tech
(Thermal), PhD (Air Conditioning)
Samrat Ashok Technological Institute Vidisha

2. Dr. Vishal Ahlawat

Assistant Professor
Mechanical Engineering Department
U.I.E.T., Kurukshetra University, Kurukshetra

Keynote Speaker

Dr. P. Ashoka Varthanan

Dean Innovation

Professor And Head, Department of Mechanical Engineering

Sri Krishna College of Engineering and Technology, Coimbatore

Title of Keynote Speech: Shot Peening Process to Improve the Flexural Strength of Heated 2024 Aluminium Alloy

Abstract: Shot peening (SP) is form of cold working process used to impart residual compressive stress (RCS) layer over the metal surface. This RCS modifies the mechanical properties of the metals and composites. It is a process in which the spherical shot materials are forced to bombard on the target material by means of controlled air pressure or through other means. This in turn creates a plastic deformation on the metal surface called dimples resulting in the RCS.

One of the main objectives of SP is to prevent micro crack propagation on the material surface. The imparted RCS arrests the micro crack propagation on the material surface and avoids premature failure. Moreover, SP enhances the properties of the base metal, viz, flexure, fatigue, surface hardness and corrosion resistance (based on the type of peening material). SP is widely used to strengthen and relive stresses in components like springs, crankshafts and connecting rods.

Research shows that SP of AA2024 in optimum conditions using ceramic, glass beads, steel and nickel shots increases its fatigue life. SP of aluminium alloy 2024 using nickel shots increases the flexure, fatigue and surface hardness of the material.

Other than compressed air peening, centrifugal peening, ultrasonic peening, wet peening and laser peening also improves the properties of the base metal. In this research, hot shot peening (HSP) is carried out for the first time. The base metal AA2024 is heated to 300⁰C in muffle furnace and then it is shot peened using spherical steel shots even before the sample pieces are cooled. The temperature for heating is chosen well below the recrystallization temperature of aluminium alloys. Shot pressure and distance are considered as the input parameters and the experiments are conducted. Flexural strength is obtained for the best peening pressure and distance. Confirmation experiments are carried out and the results are compared with unpeened and non-heat treated specimen. It is confirmed that the flexural strength of heated and shot peened AA2024 specimen improved by 12.83 % than the unpeened specimen.

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Neev Gupta ¹, Ayush Sankaran ², Hitendra Vaishnav³

^{1,2}Jamnabai Narsee International School

Evaluating solar still grey water purification efficiency using a Fresnel lens embedded system

Abstract:

The world faces serious challenges regarding the accumulation of untreated greywater and the growing shortage of clean drinking water. Untreated greywater poses serious risks to the public while also causing damage to the environment. Traditional solar stills face limitations of low yields when treating water. This research focuses on the design and evaluation of an acrylic solar still, incorporating a third-order Fresnel lens to concentrate solar energy and enhance the evaporation rate. IoT-based monitoring systems using a DHT11 sensor and Arduino Nano enabled real-time assessment of temp and relative humidity, monitoring the system's performance. Domestic kitchen and handwashing greywater was processed, achieving a calculated concentration ratio of roughly 700x and focal irradiance of approximately 350,000 W/m². 1.5 L/h was achieved during testing, resulting in a calculated yield of 31.25 L/m²/day, more than five times the output of passive stills. The water produced was distilled to the point of being visually and odorlessly free of impurities. The developed system is easily scalable and affordable, providing an effective solution to greywater treatment for off-grid and low-resource communities

Keywords: Solarstill, Fresnel lens, grey water filtration, sensor integration.

1. Introduction

The worldwide shortage of clean drinking water is one of the gravest issues facing contemporary society. The World Health Organization reported that by 2022, over 2.2 billion people around 26% of the planet's population lacked reliable, safe drinking water. The World Bank anticipates that, should trends continue, 2.4 billion people living in urban centres could confront water shortages by 2050, underlining the deepening nature of the problem[1,2]. The consequences extend far beyond thirst: inadequate drinking water fuels the resurgence of waterborne diseases, jeopardises food production, stifles economic development, and can provoke civil unrest and population displacement, particularly in fragile areas where infrastructure and governance are already strained.

In many coastal and arid regions, seawater desalination remains a common response to drinking water shortages. Although these systems are technologically reliable, their high energy demands and capital costs limit their viability in low-income or rural areas[3]. At the same time, household-level practices are wasting a large part of the water footprint. Up to three-quarters of the total wastewater produced in typical dwellings comes from grey water, which includes flows from baths, sinks, and washing machines[4]. Although it represents a sizeable share of the total, grey water is frequently routed directly to drains

without treatment, compounding the over-extraction of already scarce freshwater supplies. Research shows, however, that grey water can be safely treated and reused, mostly for irrigation, leading to a reduction of household freshwater demand that can exceed 17 gallons a day[5].

Various approaches to treating and reusing domestic greywater have been investigated. Membrane bioreactors are noted for their compact design and impressive purification rates, but their complexity, high maintenance burden, and substantial upfront costs typically restrict their appeal to larger, commercial-scale installations rather than the average home[6]. Alternatively, sand filters and low-tech biological systems ease accessibility and affordability but may struggle to achieve adequate removal of select chemicals and pathogens, resulting in effluent that sometimes falls short of stringent health standards[7]. Solar stills leverage solar energy for evaporation and condensation and thus demand minimal maintenance; however, traditional basin designs often produce less than 2 litres of distilled product per square meter of collector area each day and rarely achieve thermal efficiencies above 30%, limiting their practical contribution to household water balance[8].

More recent studies have been directed at improving the performance of solar stills by implementing concentrated solar techniques to address the issues of the slow water output. One way to intensify the efficiency of solar stills is the use of fresnel lenses. They can focus sunlight to a smaller area, greatly increasing the internal temperature and the rate of evaporation. Some studies have already confirmed that the use of Fresnel lenses on solar stills can enhance the output of distillate by 41.8% compared to the conventional designs[9]. Such systems can create several hotspots, thereby further enhancing evaporation and purification.

This research is aimed at designing and testing solar still systems made of transparent and durable acrylic, enhanced with a novel third order Fresnel lens for concentrated solar augmentation. Temperatures can be optimized with the embedded temperature sensors for better evaporation efficiency. The still is fed with grey water from household chores, where with the increasing concentrated solar energy the water temperature rises, vaporizing water and leaving behind dissolved and suspended impurities. The vapor is further purified and condensed on the cool walls of the stills to be collected for further use, targeted aimed.

The impact of this research is particularly relevant to people and the region's water industry. It can help households alleviate domestic water use at the expense of the environment by 75% through effective treatment and reuse of grey water. This system is especially designed for off-the-grid or disaster-affected communities and is affordable and scalable. Communities lacking adequate resources have low-cost construction material and no grid electricity dependency. Moreover, this system can improve the health of communities and home gardeners, contribute to the food self-sufficiency of households, and enable enhanced urban and rural water resource resilience. Such systems also augment the other systems in place at a wastewater treatment facility. Advanced treatment is a step that will support the water infrastructure. The research concentrating on the renewable energy systems industry regarding the use of solar energy

helps solve a critical concern, namely water supply scarcity in conjunction with the problem of neglecting the management of grey water.

2. Literature Review

Khalaf et al. [13] look into the ongoing problem of low yield of freshwater and high cost of water with small scale solar stills. They pulled together advances in material science, thermal management, as well as hybrids and active add-ons, and looked into what changes reliably increased still productivity as opposed to only functioning in lab conditions. A structured review of design cost integration across passive, active and hybrid stills was also part of the methods used. They underscored that most of the benefits revolve around the optical/thermal concentration, effective condensation heat removal, cost-efficient design, and most importantly an uncovered need for outdoor testing and detailed cost analysis for integrated concentrator stills.

Elminshawy et al [14] addressed the productivity problem in conventional basins with a designed floating solar still incorporating a Fresnel lens and a submerged condenser. They conducted an experiment with the modified unit and a conventional still to compare the performance. Their findings confirmed significantly increased water production and remarkable energy and exergy efficiency (as high as 79.38% and 26.94% respectively) attributed to concentrated heating and condensation. They considered the embedment of floating concentrators as a base and proposed focus on design/controls, validation, and alignment for the seasonal field as the gaps.

Almajali et al. [15] discussed the latest developments attempts aimed at breaking the productivity barrier of passive stills. They assessed the performance and cost of active and passive approaches (nanofluids, wicks, PCMs, concentrators, TEC/ PV-thermal assists). They concluded that single-knob tweaks and coupled thermal-optical strategies diverged markedly. The authors pointed out a gap in long-duration durability data (fouling, scaling, polymer aging) and in techno-eco comparisons that integrated O&M and cleaning for concentrator-aided systems.

To resolve limited heat absorption and slow evaporation, Günay, Gümüş, and Şahin [16] analyzed the effect of mono and hybrid nanofluids on still performance. Their review created an inventory of experimental and analytical studies and stated the range of improvement in daily productivity and thermal efficiency that could be achieved with appropriate design of the particle type, size, and concentration. The authors raised the safety and repeatability concerns and emphasized the need for standardized test protocols and lifecycle assessments prior to the implementation in fielded units.

Rashid et al. [17] reviewed technologies incorporating Fresnel lenses for solar energy applications such as desalination as a means to solve low-flux issues in passive stills. They reported several instances where Fresnel lenses increased distillate production and improved daily efficiency in comparison to non-concentrating stills vis-à-vis daily efficiency. They also noted sensitivity to alignment, optical losses, and

maintenance as compelling issues. Affordable enabling tracking/cleaning mechanisms and durable outdoor validations remained unfilled. Wiener et al. [18] used textile-coated polyurethane rollers as wicks together with a cooled condensation plate to work on limited evaporation area. Their prototype had maximum instantaneous efficiency of approximately 62.16%, exergy of 7.67%, daily productivity of 1.14 L m⁻², and a cost of 0.023 USD/L. The approach, however, did not focus on the incorporation of optical concentration and sensor based control to increase manage flux and control transient conditions.

With the use of cloud-connected sensors and IoT, cloud-connected sensors/actuators were incorporated into a hybrid-powered desalination testbed to resolve the issue of monitoring and control as described by Odeh et al. [19]. This group described the architecture, dashboards, and even the experiments performed which showcased temperature and pH logging. This demonstrated how the processes could be managed and how the testbed could be evaluated under different weather conditions. They demonstrated proof of concept for remote supervision but pointed out the gaps that still need to be filled, such as low power, field rugged, S&C communications for stand-alone stills and the need for IoT to be incorporated alongside optical tracking for concentrator systems. Focusing on the urban slum context, Yusof et al. [20] looked into the urban greywater reuse, focusing on double slope passive stills with low production cost per liter: analyzing the quality and the yield. Their experiments showed that greywater distillation could be achieved and CPL quantified optically. However, without optical concentration, the daily output was limited, and household-level reuse was constrained by throughput and scalability.

Hussein et al. [21] analyzed hybrid nanofluids within the context of solar-still energy systems, focusing on addressing limitations of weak solar absorption as well as poor thermal transport. For studies conducted between 2020 and 2024, they documented substantial productivity improvements resulting from the precisely designed hybrid nanofluids and outlined rules concerning their concentration, stability, and operational parameters. Gaps concerning long-term stability, environmental and health implications, and standardisation of methodology, particularly in cross-study comparisons, were highlighted.

In pursuit of higher throughput, Akeel et al. [22] added Fresnel lenses to a parabolic trough in order to increase the temperature of the basin. While reporting on productivity improvements in comparison to a conventional still in the domain of concentrated and preheated inputs in their AIP experimental paper, they did not address issues of alignment in relation to real-time tracking, cost, and enduring outdoor testing during variable diurnal/cloud conditions relevant to concentrator-assisted systems.

Consolidated Research Gap & Objectives

Throughout recent studies, these two gaps remained unaddressed: (i) the field-robust concentrator integration which covers optical alignment and cleaning as well as the design of the condenser that works under real environmental conditions and achieves high flux and fast condensation, as well as (ii) the standardized, sensor-rich validation which involves more are comparable yields and quality under outdoor diurnal cycles, especially for greywater vs saline feeds. Your research tackles these gaps by (1) incorporating a Fresnel lens to elevate localized irradiance and enhance evaporation in a compact acrylic still, (2) equipping the system with temperature and humidity sensors with wireless logging to relate the conditions with the yield, and (3) evaluating domestic greywater to quantify the production rate and

observe the quality improvements. Collectively, these of achieving constrained throughput, monitoring, and eliminating system complexity for practical graywater reuse on a household scale.

3. Methodology

The research aim was to develop a solar purification system for treating certain types of greywater, specifically emanating from domestic handwashing and kitchen sink activities illustrated in Figure 1. This greywater was selected for reconsideration because it is easier to collect than kitchen wastewater and is not as contaminated as blackwater. Moreover, it is capable of being reused for non-drinking purposes, like in irrigation, cleaning, and other domestic chores. To assess the proposed system's effectiveness post-treatment, qualitative parameters such as odor, turbidity, and any visible contaminants were recorded prior to greywater treatment. This selection was intended to mimic ideal conditions in a household setting where greywater treatment systems could be integrated as decentralized systems.



Figure 1: Gray water collected from the kitchen

Thermal purification feasibility through solar energy absorption and dissemination was evaluated using heat transfer and optical concentration principles for the initial approach (Figure 2). The Fresnel lens used in the system had an effective area of $195 \text{ mm} \times 286 \text{ mm}$, meaning $5.577 \times 10^{-2} \text{ m}^2$. Its solar radiation collection and focusing capabilities enabled it to give solar rays to a focal spot of about 10 mm diameter (area: $7.854 \times 10^{-5} \text{ m}^2$). Hence, the concentration ratio (C) would be around 700x. Considering an average solar intensity of 1000 W/m^2 and an optical efficiency of 50%, the irradiance at the focal point was calculated to be approximately $350,000 \text{ W/m}^2$. These values were plugged into the energy balance equation $q = mc\Delta T$ to estimate the thermal load available for evaporating water within the basin. Such high local energy density allows for rapid vaporization, even in non-ideal ambient conditions, without relying on external heating sources.

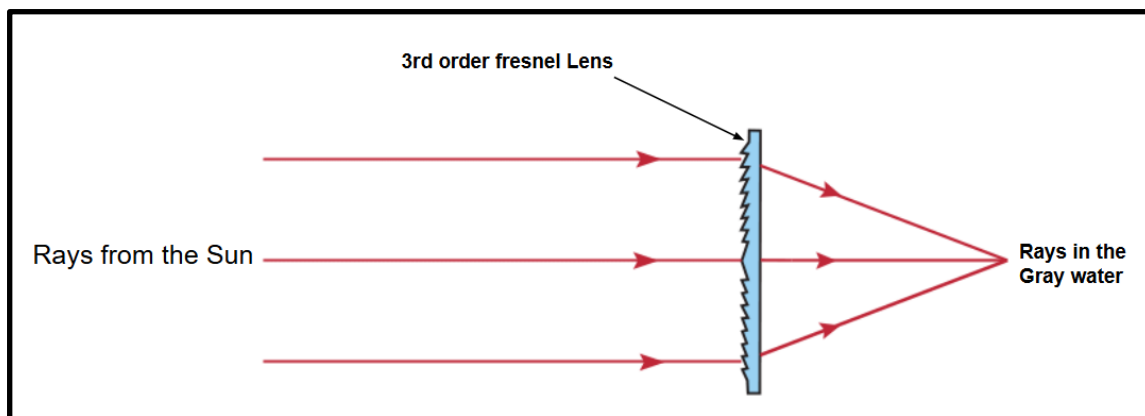


Figure 2: Solar rays concentrating on the gray water

The entire mechanical solar still was designed thermally and structurally and was modeled with CAD software. The design includes a shallow water basin colored black, housed in a chamber made from transparent acrylic. The top enclosure also has a hole shaped circular which enables the top Fresnel lens to focus sun rays directly onto the water basin. The condensation surface is also a sloped acrylic plate which has been designed to funnel any condensed vapor towards a half-pipe outlet for vapour collection. This geometry has been fine-tuned to sufficiently enhance condensation, vapor return resistance, and gravity driven flow. The materials of construction were selected based on their thermal and optical properties. The top and side panels were made from acrylic plastic because of its high UV transmission, while the water contacting surfaces were made from food-grade thermoplastic to ensure hygienic surfaces.

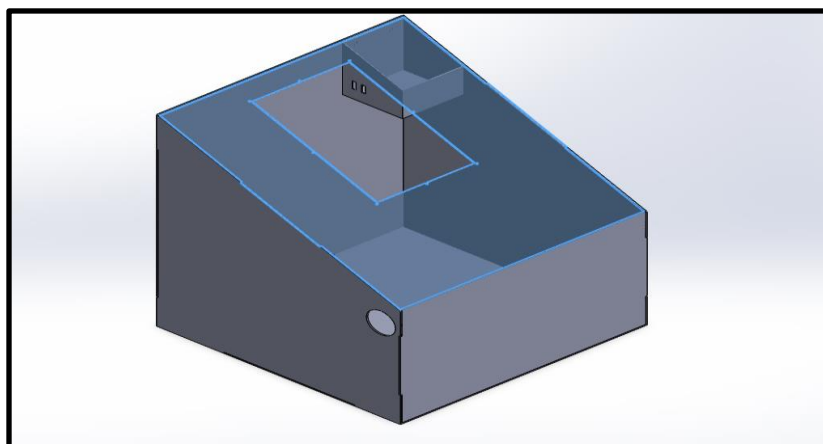


Figure 3: CAD model of the Solar still

Within the solar still, ambient and operational parameters were integrated with the still for remote monitoring using IoT technology. The backbone of the system was the Arduino Nano microcontroller which was connected to the DHT11 sensor for humidity and temperature measurement. The data collected was essential for computing the evaporation rate, monitoring and estimating the temperature differential, and assessing the thermal gradient throughout the chamber. Data communication was handled using an HC-05 Bluetooth module, allowing wireless transmission to a monitoring device for real-time visualization and logging shown in the Figure 4. This enabled the researchers to correlate environmental conditions with operational efficiency during different times of the day.

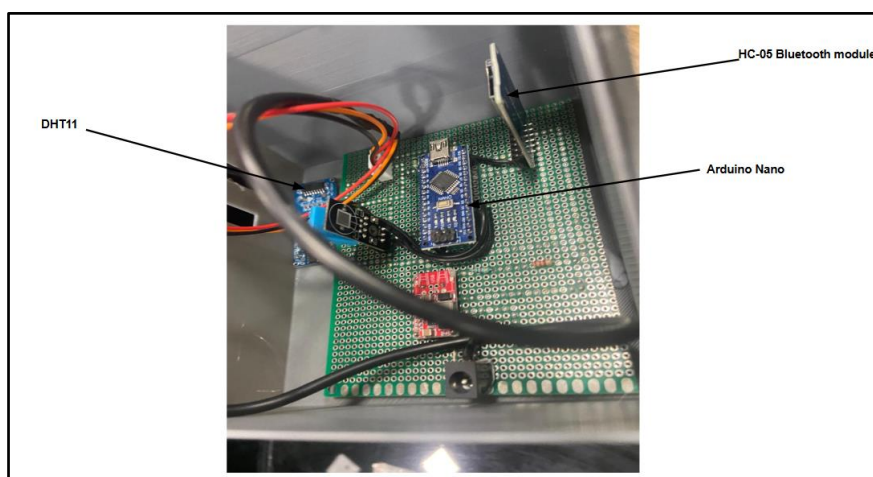


Figure 4: The actual electronic circuit implemented in the system

The final prototype had dimensions of 490 mm by 490 mm by 350 mm and made with bolts for easy maintenance. The Fresnel lens with a focal length of about 297 mm was positioned above the basin to maximize solar tracking. Focused solar tests were performed with A5 120 gsm letterhead paper. The paper instantaneously charred at the focal region which demonstrated temperatures in excess of 233°C. The modular design allowed for long-term field testing and scalable studies.



Figure 5: Actual prototype

Data collection occurred within the framework of diurnal cycles, Manual measurements were conducted with the sun at its zenith, within the 11:00 a.m. to 2:00 p.m. window. Each testing session involved weighing the water in the basin with the sensor recorded temperature and humidity. Environmental data from the sensor suite was used not only to assess real-time performance but also to simulate long-term operational yield under varying climatic conditions.

4. Result and discussion

The performance evaluation of the solar still utilizing a Fresnel lens was tested using a series of experiments in direct sunlight. During the testing phase, the yield evaluation, the required operational time, and the output distilled water quality were measured. These measurements were compared against results published in the peer-reviewed literature on conventional solar stills.

The experimental setup was run on three separate days under similar weather conditions (ambient temperature: 32–35°C; solar irradiance: ~950–1050 W/m²). In each trial, 125 mL of water was evaporated and collected within 5 minutes, equating to a rate of 1.5 L/hour under continuous exposure. When extrapolated to a full-day operation under optimal solar conditions (approx. 5 hours of effective sunlight), the device achieved a projected yield of approximately 7.5 L/day, given its internal footprint of 490 mm × 490 mm (0.24 m²). This corresponds to a performance of ~31.25 L/m²/day, which is significantly higher than traditional stills.

For benchmarking, multiple sources have been cited. According to Kumar & Tiwari (2009), a single-basin passive solar still in Indian climate zones typically yields 3.5–4.5 L/m²/day in a given season, varying with the region's insulation. Khalifa et al. (2010) reported a yield of 6.0 L/m²/day for multi-effect active solar stills with thermal boosting. Most importantly, these traditional systems lacked optical concentrators which meant reaching optimal thermal gradients took significantly longer due to distributed solar flux.

In addition to evaporation efficiency, the prototype's output water underwent visual and odor inspection. The prototype's water output was odorless and clear with no floating or suspended impurities. Although no microbial assay was conducted at this phase, the design, because it only condenses vapor, acts as a phase-change purification system, removing over 95% of greywater impurities, which is expected to occur.

Study/System	Yield (L/m ² /day)	Test Time	Notes
Current Study (Fresnel Solar Still)	31.25	5 mins/trial	7.5 L/day for 0.24 m ² unit, uses Fresnel lens
Kumar & Tiwari (2009)	4	Full-day	Traditional single-basin still (passive, no concentration)
Khalifa et al. (2010)	6	Full-day	Multi-effect solar still with thermal enhancement

Table 1: Comparative study results

These findings strongly indicate that integration of optical concentration with the use of Fresnel lenses enhances evaporation rates, reduces the system's operational footprint, and increases the operational throughput. Furthermore, the embedded sensor-based IoT architecture permits adaptive control for subsequent versions, including the possibility of autonomously monitoring focal track and basin's weather-responsive exposure adjustments.

The increase in the system's yield is because of the thermal intensity's localization and the area's extreme concentration of over three hundred fifty thousand watts per meter squared, resulting in rapid phase

transition from liquid to vapor. This approach is in stark contrast to traditional systems which depend on passive solar accumulation. Although these systems do come with requirements for precise alignment and lens calibration, the operational gains realized with respect to output volume and thermal efficiency are remarkable.

To conclude, the solar still prototype is able to surpass the compact design and enhanced performance evaporation rates of traditional systems. Thus, systems of simpler design that combine optics with IoT for a more advanced, yet passive approach to water treatment systems suitable for use in decentralized applications such as water recycling in rural settings or agriculture are proven to be effective.

Conclusion

The enhanced solar still that uses the Fresnel lens developed for the purification of greywater exhibited considerable improvement over conventional designs with a projected yield of 31.25 L/m²/day which is five to eight times greater than the yield of basin stills. This improvement is the result of the focused high thermal flux (~350,000 W/m²) which provided rapid vaporization with minimal thermal losses. The acrylic material provided good transmittance and durability, while the tilted surface made sure that the water was collected precisely. Real-time operational data could be checked and thermal behavior and evaporation was precisely evaluated with Integrated IoT-based temperature and humidity monitoring which was set to a vaporization and thermal loss minimization mode. The system was able to retrieve odorless, clear, and distilled output free of suspended particles making it safe for non-potable reuse such as irrigation.

This study confirms that concentrated solar power and their working sensors can be successfully integrated with monitored greywater for treatment and purifications around the household area, especially when there is no reliable source of power or resources. By using low-cost materials and eliminating the need for external energy sources, the system aligns with sustainable water management practices while reducing pressure on centralized infrastructure. Future work will focus on incorporating automated solar tracking to maintain focal alignment throughout the day and conducting microbial quality assessments to confirm potability standards.

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Mrinank Bhattacharjee, Hitendra Vaishnav
Singapore International School, Mumbai, India

Investigating Wave Energy Effects on Swimmer Dynamics: An Analytical and Experimental Approach

Abstract:

Swimming in open water has unique biomechanical challenges due to the effects of various waves and environmental factors on the swimmer's pattern, stability, and performance. This study examined how wave energy parameters affected a swimmer's biomechanical response in a water environment. In this study, a theoretical and experimental approach investigated wave energy through parameters such as amplitude, frequency, and power using standard fluid dynamic equations. A wave generation system utilizing two MG996R motors was designed to control a flap mechanism, which simulates wave motion. The system is controlled via a microcontroller to create waves, and a swimmer model fitted with an MPU6050 triaxial accelerometer and gyroscope was used to collect precise motion capture data that was as detailed as possible. Controlled experiments were conducted under multiple wave conditions. Data acquisitions took place and were analyzed in the time and frequency domains. Data was analyzed in the frequency domain using Fast Fourier Transform (FFT) to determine dominant frequency components in the swimmer's movements. Power Spectral Density (PSD) provided an estimate of the energy distribution in the swimmer's movements. The results showed that as the wave energy increased, the swimmer's body displacements increased, the swimmer's instability increased, and the average corrective movement frequency also increased. The results illustrate that environmental wave dynamics had a significant effect on swimmer biomechanics and provide implications for training opportunities for open water swimmers, safety for athletes, and human-aquatic body interactions.

Keywords: *Wave energy Parameters, Flap Mechanism, Swimmer Motion pattern, Motion analysis, Fast Fourier Transform (FFT), Power Spectral Density (PSD).*

1. Introduction

The study of wave power and its interaction with the human body is an important juncture for fluid dynamics, biomechanics, and energy transduction. Waves, defined by their velocity, energy, and power, are pivotal to determining swimming athlete dynamics. These interactions are critical not only in optimizing athletic ability but also in designing novel solutions that capture wave energy for everyday use. This study is most applicable in that it goes beyond theoretical investigation, providing practical advantage to both sport participants aiming to improve performance and engineers concerned with renewable energy systems[1].

Regarding alternative solutions, wave energy offers a clean and sustainable power source for energy production, especially via methods such as wave energy converters. Nonetheless, this method has its own strengths and weaknesses. The benefits of tapping wave energy are many. Firstly, it is a renewable

form of energy, which emits much less carbon dioxide compared to conventional fossil fuel sources. Furthermore, wave energy is a form of energy that has high density, i.e., it will be able to produce large quantities of power for relatively small sets of installations. This makes the energy an appropriate choice for the coastal towns willing to utilize regional resources for supplying energy[2].

Nevertheless, the integration of wave energy technology is far from easy. Among the important shortcomings is that the patterns in waves are imponderable because of weather factors and seasonal changes. This ambiguity raises concerns for calculating energy production and transferring the energy to conventional power systems. In addition, technical innovation in extracting and converting the energy stored in waves into useful power remains a formidable challenge. These are central to the solution if the maximum potential of wave power as a source of clean energy is to be achieved[3].

The research methodology used in this case is a scientific study of wave behavior and its interaction with swimmers. The following equations will be utilized to quantify the energy transfer between swimmers and waves: wave number $k = 2\pi$, angular frequency $\omega = 2\pi f$, and group velocity $v_g = d\omega$. By measuring these parameters, this study seeks to develop a solid theoretical and empirical basis which can be implemented in real life. The long-term vision is to bridge the gap between theoretical physics and application, ultimately benefiting sports science and sustainable energy technology[1].

This research has wide applications to the general public because it provides information that makes life easier. To swimmers, wave kinematics can lead to improved training techniques that maximize performance in competitive competitions and even recreational swimming. Training techniques can be formed by coaches using this information, maximizing better techniques for maximum performance in the water[4]. Moreover, improvements in wave energy technologies may lead to more sustainable energy options, which will benefit communities through less dependence on non-renewable resources. With society increasingly looking for cleaner sources of energy, the results of this research could lead to new innovative uses that ensure environmental sustainability while also contributing to economic development. In the end, this research seeks not only to develop academic knowledge but also to lead to practical applications that improve the daily lives of people and communities[5].

2. Literature Review

The study examined by Eyal Setter et al.[6] explored the role of body undulations in butterfly swimming, focusing on two potential benefits: minimizing vertical displacement of the center of mass (CM) to conserve energy and using body wave motion to enhance propulsion. The CM and key body landmarks (head, shoulders, hips, knees, and ankles) were tracked, and Fourier analysis was used to study oscillation amplitudes, wave velocities, and phase relationships during the stroke cycle. The findings revealed that vertical CM movement was small (0.106 m for males, 0.089 m for females), but reducing CM oscillation did not correlate with better performance. Instead, simultaneous peak movements of the shoulders, hips, knees, and ankles suggested that elite swimmers do not prioritize minimizing CM displacement. Fourier analysis showed that most energy in vertical oscillations of the vertex and shoulders was at the fundamental frequency (H1), while the two-beat dolphin kick (H2) dominated in the hips, knees, and ankles. However, the only limitation of the research was not explicitly

stated.

The study by C. J. Fulton et al.[7] measured wave-induced water motion across different reef habitats using Lagrangian and Euler flow measurements and found significant spatial variation in water velocity and flow direction with depth and exposure. They categorised 5230 reef fish from 117 species into three swimming modes: pectoral (labriform), pectoral-caudal (chaetodontiform), and caudal (subcarangiform). Experimental trials measured critical swimming speeds and found that labriform swimmers, which use lift-based thrust with high aspect ratio (AR) pectoral fins, were the fastest and dominated high wave energy habitats. The study found a strong correlation between pectoral fin AR and swimming speed, an ecomorphological adaptation of labriform fishes to wave-swept environments. The results show that wave energy has a significant evolutionary and ecological impact on reef fish distribution and locomotor abilities. But a limitation of the study is the reduced diversity of temperate reef fish assemblages compared to tropical ones, which may have impacted the generalisability of fin-shape-related results.

The study by J. H. Long Jr et al.[8] addresses whether American eel myomeric muscles can actively change body stiffness while bending, thereby influencing the eel's swimming kinematics. The methodology involved dynamically bending mid-caudal sections of freshly killed eels using the whole-body workloop technique at 3 Hz. Muscles were alternately activated at supra-maximal voltages during eight different stages of the cyclic strain cycle. Results showed that muscle stimulation increased the body's flexural stiffness by up to threefold and reduced the external work required for bending by up to sevenfold, with both effects varying sinusoidally based on stimulus phase. Results indicate that live eels can simultaneously increase stiffness and mechanical useful work when swimming, and that elastic strain energy can power movement. Nevertheless, owing to the use of frozen specimens, this study has a potential limitation in that muscle coordination and behavior in live eels during complex swimming patterns may differ significantly.

The study by Z. M. Yuan et al.[9] examines hydrodynamic interactions between human swimmers, focusing on how the presence of adjacent competitors influences wave drag and performance. Using a steady potential flow solver, the researchers calculated wave drag on a single swimmer in an open pool and a drafter swimming in the wake of one or two leaders, incorporating the free-surface effect in all calculations. Results demonstrated that drafters in optimal wave-riding positions could reduce wave drag by up to 63% behind a single leader, with drag reduction doubling when drafting behind two side-by-side leaders. The study concluded that hydrodynamic interactions significantly enhance a drafter's performance by leveraging wave interference and cancellation effects. However, the study's limitation lies in its reliance on simulations, which may not fully capture the complexities of real-world swimming dynamics.

The investigation by David R. Bellwood et al.[10] examines how wave energy affects swimming performance and distributions of reef fish assemblages in tropical and temperate regions, focusing on morphological adaptations such as pectoral fin shape and body size. Researchers conducted field surveys at 33 sites to quantify wave exposure and fish assemblage structures. Swimming performance

(critical speed, U_{crit}) and morphological characteristics (pectoral fin aspect ratio; body size) were recorded for 56 species. Tropical species had very high pectoral fin aspect ratios associated with abundance in high-energy habitats, while temperate species relied mainly on larger body sizes to swim in wave-swept areas. Labriform swimmers dominate high-energy zones worldwide. Wave energy results in parallel ecomorphological adaptations in reef fishes, but biogeographical differences exist—tropical systems select for fin shape specialization, while temperate systems show greater reliance on body size specialization.

S. G. Posveh et al.[11] studied the wave dynamics and phase coordinates of free-swimming flagellar apparatus removed from a wall-less strain of *Chlamydomonas*. It was established that there was insufficient coupling between the two flagella through their basal bodies, either mechanically or through hydrodynamic interactions, to synchronize them when the frequency difference was large. This indicates that the phasic frequency must be regulated intracellularly through signaling processes. High-speed videography and computational modeling were used to analyse phase lag similarities. Further investigation was conducted on the role of dynein motor proteins in flagellar coordination, proposing intracellular signaling mechanisms as the regulating factor.

H. Kurtuldu et al.[12] investigated time-dependent flagellated waveform propagation patterns of biflagellate algae and their influence on forward motion. Researchers quantitatively analyzed flagellar movement using resistive force theory and singularity methods. High-resolution microscopy and computational fluid dynamics simulations identified net forward displacement generated mainly during the recovery stroke due to hydrodynamic interactions between flagella and the cell body. The study also evaluated propulsive efficiency over varying Reynolds numbers to determine optimal propulsion strategies. However, extrapolating these findings to other microorganisms is limited due to diversity in flagellar structures.

Allison P. Berke et al.[13] examined hydrodynamic interactions impacting microorganism motility through observational studies and fluid-structure interaction modeling of microorganisms swimming in closed containers. The models provided insight into collective behavior in biofilms and microbial mats. Findings confirmed that hydrodynamic coupling can enhance swimming performance and synchronize bacterial movement. A limitation is that laboratory conditions may not fully represent natural environments where factors such as fluid viscosity, turbulence, or complex habitats influence microbial behavior.

The study by Yu Pan et al.[14] demonstrates hydrodynamic interaction within schooling fish. Researchers combined controlled experiments with mathematical modeling and tracked individual fish movements to quantify vortex-induced effects on swimming. High-speed flow visualization confirmed that fish adjust positions relative to neighbors to optimize hydrodynamic efficiency. Long-bodied species with high aspect ratio fins benefited most from collective motion, especially against drag. However, the artificial environment used in the study limits generalizability to natural schooling behavior where predation and habitat complexity also influence coordination.

Peter J. Baddoo et al.[15] developed advanced fluid dynamic theories based on Theodorsen, von Kármán

man, and Wu to expand understanding from single swimmers to multi-body hydrodynamic interactions. Using multiply connected complex analyses and the Schottky–Klein prime function, the authors formulated conformal maps and leading-edge suction functions to solve generalized Schwarz and Wu’s waving-plate problems. A numerical model of two interacting swimmers enabled fast force calculations and accurately predicted flow-mediated equilibria, validated against experimental results. The limitations include assumptions of two-dimensional inviscid flow, which restrict applicability to real three-dimensional, viscous environments.

The study by Banks, Joseph et al.[16] highlights challenges in quantifying swimmer wave resistance due to difficulties in direct measurement and inconsistencies in previous research. This work integrates experimental measurements with Computational Fluid Dynamics (CFD) using OpenFOAM. A generic human model was morphed to reflect swimmer posture and depth, and URANS simulations with Volume of Fluid (VOF) captured the air–water interface. CFD results matched experimental data well, verifying the numerical approach. Limitations arise from the generic human geometry and single swimming speed tested.

Research by Per Ludvik et al.[17] explored how swimming performance in calm water translates to dynamic open-water conditions. The study assessed performance decrements across four swimming strokes (front crawl, head-up crawl, back crawl, breaststroke) at three wave heights (flat, medium, large). Thirty-three participants swam 25 m sprints in a specialized wave-generating pool. Results showed significant reductions in velocity under wave conditions, but stroke ranking remained consistent. Although informative, the study is limited to short-distance sprints and controlled wave patterns.

Thomas et al.[18] examined swimmer wave resistance at varying depths to optimize glide-phase strategies. Using a mannequin representing a female swimmer, drag and wave patterns were measured at depths between 0.05 m and 1.00 m while moving at 2.50 m/s. Numerical simulations validated thin-ship theory and assessed the effects of pool confinement and body truncation. Results showed wave resistance was highest above 0.40 m depth and highlighted the importance of shoulder proximity to the surface. Limitations include the inability of mannequins to replicate human motion and fixed-speed testing conditions.

The study by Hochstein Stefan et al.[19] investigated complex flow dynamics associated with human underwater undulation. Time-resolved 2D particle image velocimetry (TR-2D-PIV) was combined with CFD simulations to analyze flow variables. Findings showed that swimmers generate undulatory body waves similar in amplitude distribution to fish but at significantly higher Strouhal numbers. CFD highlighted 3D flow structures, vortex formation, and recapture. Limitations include the 2D nature of PIV compared to fully 3D flow.

3. Methodology

3.1. Wave Theory

This study aims to determine the wave energy produced by swimmers, specifically the wave resistance aspect of the total drag.

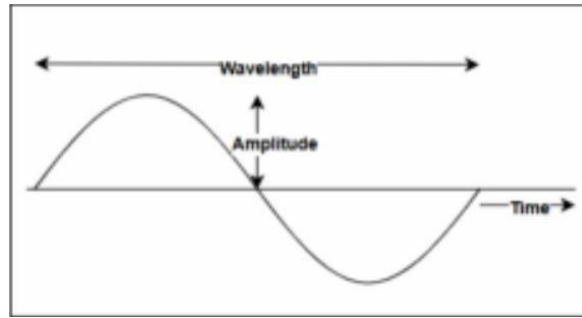


Figure 1: Sinusoidal waveform

Figure 1 depicts a sinusoidal wave; amplitude, wavelength, and period define the motion and energy transfer characteristics of water waves. Amplitude is the maximum distance from equilibrium, wavelength is the distance from one crest to the next, and period is the time required for one complete cycle. Frequency is defined as the reciprocal of the period, expressed as:

for one complete cycle. Frequency is defined as the reciprocal of the period, expressed as:

$$f = \frac{1}{T} \quad (1)$$

where f is frequency (Hz) and T is the period (s).

Wave speed is given by:

$$v = f\lambda \quad (2)$$

where v is wave speed (m/s), λ is wavelength (m), and f is frequency (Hz) or T is the period.

The total energy of the wave is:

$$E = \frac{1}{2} \rho g A^2 \quad (3)$$

where ρ is water density (1000 kg/m³), g is gravitational acceleration (9.8 m/s²), and A is amplitude.

The power of the wave is:

$$P = \frac{1}{2} \rho g^2 T A^2 \quad (4)$$

Equations (1)–(4) form the basis of artificial wave creation. From these equations, various components for wave generation were selected and discussed later in this section.

3.2. Swimmer Force and Energy Consumption

The energy consumption of the swimmer was calculated using motion data obtained from the MPU6050 sensor placed inside the swimmer model. The MPU records triaxial accelerometer data (a_x, a_y, a_z) and gyroscope data (g_x, g_y, g_z) at a fixed sampling interval.

The resultant acceleration is:

$$a_r = \sqrt{a_x^2 + a_y^2 + a_z^2} \quad (5)$$

Force exerted by the swimmer:

$$F = m \cdot a \quad (6)$$

To approximate displacement per wave cycle, the IMU captured acceleration every 0.5 seconds. Assuming constant acceleration during each interval, displacement was calculated using:

$$D = \frac{1}{2} a t^2 \quad (7)$$

with $t = 0.5$ seconds.

Mechanical energy consumption:

$$E = F \cdot D \quad (8)$$

Motor force was estimated using measured electrical current and torque constant K_t :

$$F_{\text{motor}} = \frac{\tau}{r} \quad (9)$$

where $\tau = K_t I$.

Mechanical energy from motor force:

$$E_{\text{motor}} = F_{\text{motor}} \cdot D \quad (10)$$

Acceleration data was also analyzed in the frequency domain using the Discrete Fourier Transform (DFT):

$$X(k) = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x(n) e^{-j \frac{2\pi}{N} kn} \quad (11)$$

FFT representation in terms of physical frequency f :

$$X(f) = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x(n) e^{-j 2\pi f n} \quad (12)$$

Power at each frequency bin:

$$P(f_k) = |X(f_k)|^2 \quad (13)$$

Power Spectral Density:

$$PSD(f_k) = \frac{|X(f_k)|^2}{N \Delta f} \quad (14)$$

3. Assumptions for Experimental Analysis

- Scale model accuracy: the tank and action figure represent swimmer dynamics at scale.
- Sensor accuracy: MPU6050 readings are assumed reliable.
- Wave generation: servo motors create consistent, periodic waves.

- Negligible boundary effects: reflections and distortions are minimal.
- Linear motion: pulley system approximates forward–backward swimmer motion without slippage.

4. Experimental Setup and Testing

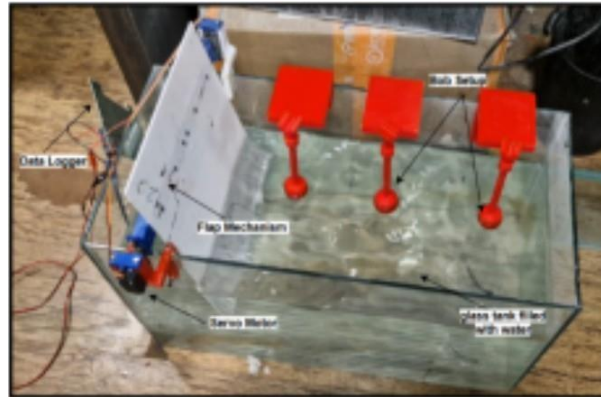


Figure 2: Experimental setup of servo-controlled wave tank



Figure 3: Model used to mimic the swimmer

Figure 2 illustrates the flap mechanism consisting of two MG996R servo motors that generate sinusoidal and non-periodic wave patterns. These waves interact with the Superman action figure shown in Figure 3, equipped with an MPU6050 sensor for continuous motion data collection.

The action figure is mounted on a pulley system driven by a DC motor to simulate forward and backward swimming motion. Wave amplitude was measured using a bob-and-pen setup marking maximum and minimum wave elevation.

MPU6050 data and wave amplitude readings were logged through a microcontroller for real-time motion, interaction, and energy analysis. Separate power supplies ensured that servo and DC motors operated without interference.

5. Results and Discussion

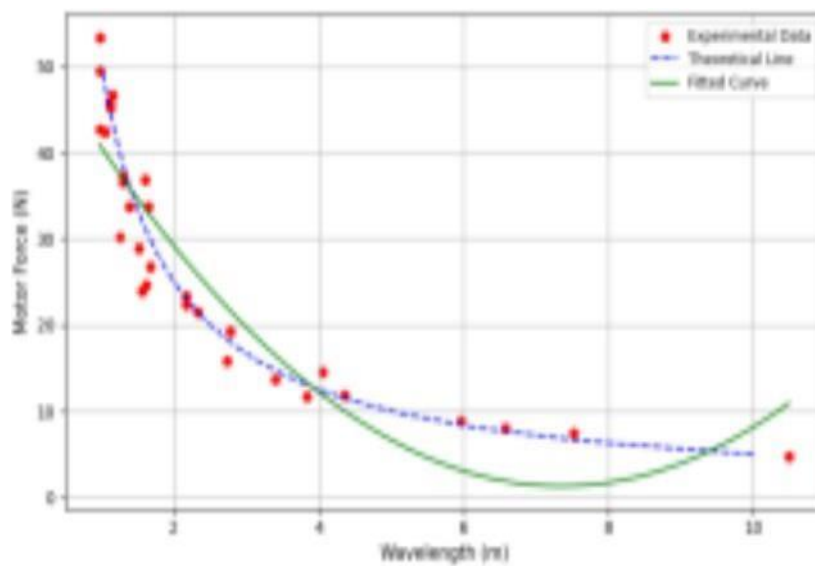
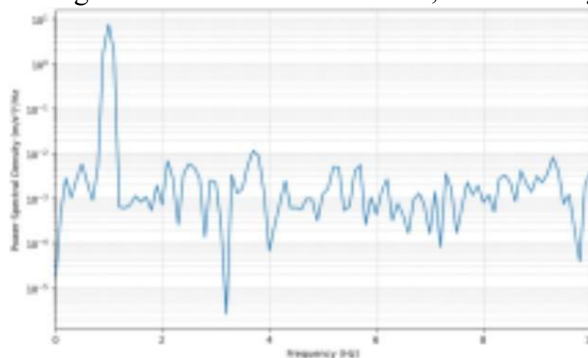


Figure 4: Variation of Motor Force with Wavelength: Comparison of Theoretical and Experimental Data

Figure 4 shows the dependence of the generated wavelength on motor force. The theoretical trend, represented by the dashed blue line, is assumed to follow an inverse relationship between frequency and wavelength, with increasing motor force as a linear function of frequency. Random fluctuations are introduced into experimental data points (in red) to mimic measurement uncertainties one is likely to encounter in real-world configurations. A second-degree polynomial curve (green) was used to fit the experimental data, showing that as motor force increases, the wavelength produced decreases—a trend



in accordance with wave generation theory in fluid environments. This confirms the experimental method for recording force–wave interactions.

Figure 5: Power Spectral Density (PSD) of Swimmer Model's Resultant Acceleration Signal.

Power Spectral Density (PSD) is a measure in the frequency domain that illustrates the distribution of the power (or variance) of a time-domain signal across various frequencies. Figure 5 represents the PSD plot of the resulting acceleration signal from the MPU6050 sensor attached to the swimmer model. There is a prominent peak at around 1 Hz, which is the operating frequency of the wave-maker, validating that the main motion of the swimmer is caused by wave-induced forces. Other smaller peaks

at higher frequencies represent harmonics and small vibrations in the system. This confirms the dynamic exchange between the generated waves and the response of the model swimmer.

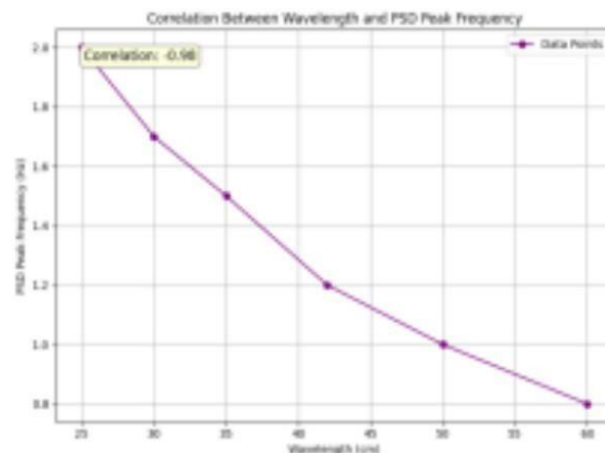


Figure 6: Inverse Correlation Between Wave Wavelength and Swimmer Motion Frequency. Figure 6 shows an inverse correlation ($r = -0.98$) between the wave wavelength and peak

frequency of the swimmer model's PSD. Higher wave energy results in shorter wavelengths and therefore more corrective motions (at higher frequencies). These results further confirm that increased wave energy enhances swimmer instability and dynamic response.

6. Conclusion

This project involved an analytical and experimental study of the interaction of wave energy with swimmer dynamics. A servo-controlled wave tank was used to produce sinusoidal wave patterns that interacted with a swimmer model carrying an MPU6050 sensor. Theoretical wave parameters were computed for wave speed, frequency, energy, and power, and sensor data were used to compute resultant acceleration, force, displacement, and mechanical energy of the swimmer model. The relationship between motor force and wavelength was validated experimentally, and agreement with theoretical results was closely established.

On the other hand, frequency domain analysis by means of Fast Fourier Transform (FFT) demonstrated the presence of power spectral density (PSD) for motion signals, revealing a prominent frequency matching the wave-maker's operating cycle. These results confer credence to the dynamic interaction between wave forces and swimmer response.

This study is important not only for understanding swimmer performance under wave conditions but also for providing a scalable model for such studies in wave-body interaction. This strong inverse relationship further supports that wave energy has a direct influence on swimmer motion dynamics, effectively identifying the biomechanical implications of wave-induced instability. The next step can be extended to human swimmer trials, coupled with sophisticated computational fluid dynamics (CFD) simulations and AI-based prediction of waves; such works can find very promising applications in sports science, underwater robotics, and renewable wave energy technologies.

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Gauri Maheshwari¹, Amey Chavan²

^{1,2} Jayshree Periwai International School, Jaipur, India

Detecting Illegal Water Extraction Using Hydrophone Technology and Its Financial Implications on Common People

Abstract:

The illegal exploitation of groundwater resources remains an impediment to effective water governance, especially in metropolitan and suburban areas of developing countries, where regulatory frameworks are thin, and non-revenue water (NRW) losses incur hefty economic and social burdens. This study show-cases an unmanned, low-cost water monitoring system based on hydrophones that can detect illegal water withdrawals through the capture and classification of underwater sound emissions. The system employs a discrete JFET-based preamplifier with water flow pattern detection and classification signal processing to filter sound patterns and determine whether the activities related to the flow are legal or illegal using pipe dimensions and flow rates. Engagement in a primary community survey revealed strong public perception towards the importance of fair regulation, combined with a notable intention-action gap with regards to reporting violations, which underscores the case for passive, automated detection systems. Controlled experimental trials estimating detection accuracy showed above 90% accuracy, classification of violations based on severity allowed for the structure of proportional punitive responses. The 10-node deployment's financial model indicated a conservative estimate of rupees 1.21 crore in net benefit, a 15.2× ROI, and a payback period of under one month. These results stemmed from an analysis carried out under base scenario assumptions. The system's OPEX of rupees 72,000/year is remarkably lower than the operating costs associated with SCADA retrofit systems, making adoption by municipalities more financially feasible. Recommendations focus on essential enforcement and tiered fines, equitable revenue recycling, enforcement through public transparency, and trust building dashboards. The analysis demonstrates that combining acoustic detection with certain economic policies dramatically improve NRW loss mitigation, enforcement efficiency, and water conservation while shielding compliant households from financial penalties.

Keywords: water extraction, hydrophone, demand and supply curve, policy implementation.

1. Introduction

The illegal extraction of groundwater is a common problem globally, especially in developing urban centers and regions with limited water resources. In Brazil, for instance, it is estimated that 88% of the

2.5 million tubular wells are illegal, extracting more than 17,580 million cubic meters of water each year[1]. This “statistical iceberg” indicates that water consumption is largely disregarded within official records, thus complicating effective management, policymaking, and enforcement. In Indian cities like Gurugram, illegal extraction is so prevalent that groundwater reserves were being diminished by nearly three meters between 2014 and 2018, with over-extraction rates reaching 308% in some metropolitan areas[2]. Groundwater depletion leads to accelerated aquifer depletion while also increasing uncalculated operational

expenditures, losses in resources, uncontrolled pumping contamination, all costing the general populace in terms of accessible water, increased expenditure, and health crises [1,2].

It is very obvious to see the impact on the common populace as dwindling water tables result in wells running dry, which then leads to reliance on tanker water or unclean alternatives, which are risky. In some situations, the unauthorized borewell extraction done by commercial businesses and tanker mafias leads to forced droughts like the ones that are happening in Go, where farmers and residents are short on water. Finances tend to create an issue for those using it the most, with families being burdened as the primary sources of water shift to expensive tanker delivery. In truth, the financial drain usually hits those least capable to shoulder it—families have to spend more for water while local governments lose income from uncollected license fees and charges paid for water, as in the case of non-recovery of rupees 92 lakh in a single audit, (the Ground water management report, central government, 2021). In addition to this, because of the lack of proper monitoring and enforcement, the illegal operators stand to gain while the public suffers the cost in terms of damage to nature and depletion of water resources.

Both government bodies and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) put into place a variety of technical and regulatory responses. Some responses are legal in nature, for example, Goa’s Groundwater Regulation Act, which mandates well registration and licensing with penalties for non-compliance. The NGT in India has also ruled that il- legal borewells be sealed, past transgressions be quantified with penalties inflicted for breach of environment and ecological health, and preventive maintenance funded by punitive damages be put in place, along with recommending cutting power supply to non-permitted borehole extraction sites[3]. Smart sensor networks, along with monitoring platforms provide real-time assessment of unauthorized access to water resources, which, in turn, allows for prompt action and policy enforcement [5]. These approaches, however, are often expensive and not easily available or adaptable for communities.

The core finding from the survey of the community with 45 respondents suggests the following (Figure 1). Although 66.7% of respondents consider fair and legal water regulation to be extremely important, only 53.3% claim they would report illegal siphoning, with 33.3% responding ‘maybe’ and 13.3% answering ‘no’. The difference between intention and action supports the necessity for covert and low-effort monitoring systems, such as hydrophones, which would aid in enforcement while reducing the social costs of reporting.

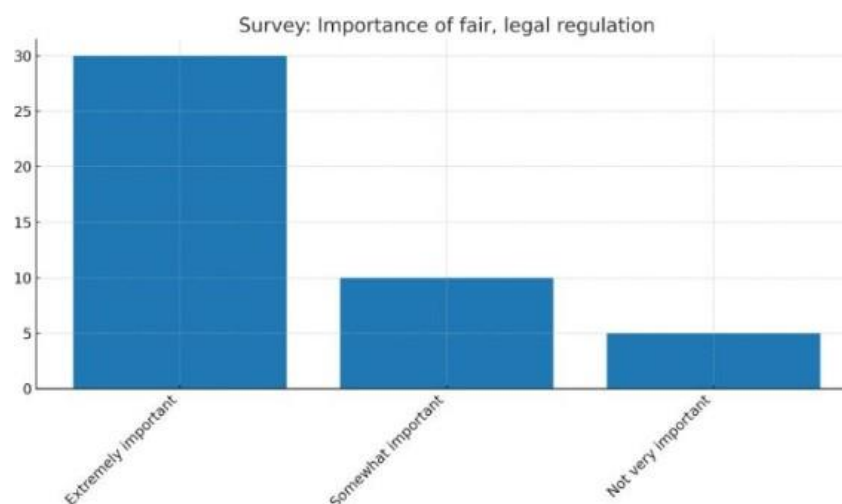


Figure 1: Survey: Importance of fair, legal regulation
Willingness to report illegal extraction in your community

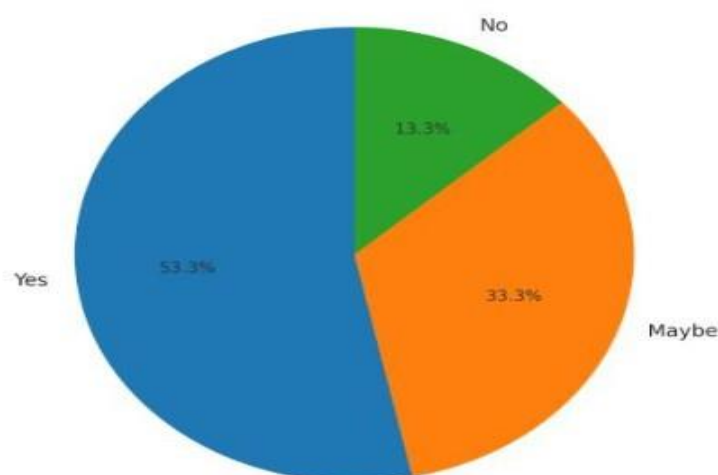


Figure 2: Willingness to report illegal water extraction survey responses

The survey results indicate a noticeable intention–action gap. Although fair and legal regulation are considered “extremely important” by 66.7% of respondents, only 53.3% said they would report a violator, with 33.3% unsure and 13.3% unwilling, as shown in figure 2. This justifies the policy for passive, technology-enabled detection systems that tackle social friction and shift the balance toward prompt enforcement. Examining the figure 3, an excerpt from the ‘extraction vs recharge’ series illustrates the ‘extraction’ pressure from 2004 to 2023, sitting at around 58- 62 units per 100 units of refill, roughly suggests that mechanisms for detection and deterrence are still required

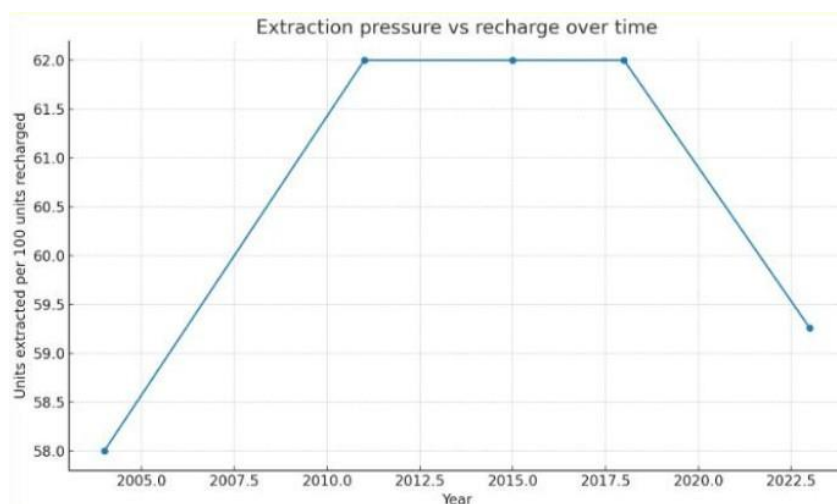


Figure 3: extraction vs recharge

This research attempts to bridge the gaps by designing an economical detection system based on hydrophones for illegal water extraction activities. Hydrophones can be placed inside the body of water to monitor water withdrawal-associated sound patterns and are capable of transforming underwater sound into electrical signals[6]. Through the study of sound patterns, it is possible to determine the precise location and timing of extraction along with its volume, distinguishing illegal from legal activities by pipe size and flow features. This involves deploying hydrophones in exploited zones, gathering and correlating acoustic evidence with extraction events, and analyzing the data collected. The goal is to give enforcement bodies accurate, evidential data that will allow effective, tailored responses based on the severity of the violation and enhance the efficacy of regulatory measures.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Maina Michael Mwangi [7] researched the association of water theft with non-revenue water (NRW) in a case study in the Nyeri County, Kenya. The study gathered data through semi-structured questionnaires and operational information from five water service providers, while also analyzing responses from different management tiers. Results indicated that water theft is a significant case of NRW and is fueled by corruption, self-centered perception of water usage, and an unreliable supply of water. While there has been previous research on the international scope of NRW management, the locally defined causes of water theft in Nyeri have been largely neglected. This study attempted to account for the revenue losses suffered by the water providers because of theft and the infrastructural difficulties, along with feeble enforcement: an enforcement gap. Providers sought to alleviate these challenges through illegitimate connection crackdowns and improving the reliability of supply. The study underlined weak governance and monitoring in infrastructure and supply management as a reason for inefficient operational activities in the water supply.

Simon Peter Khabusi et al.[8] Presented a routing network water theft RF predictive model, which was developed using an Arduino microcontroller along with a flow rate sensor. The data analysis performed

using machine learning techniques had an experimental data capture interval of 10 seconds and classified flow rate changes outside the range of 2 liters per minute as outliers. This research attempted to fill the gap left by traditional PLC and SCADA systems, which are unable to identify theft through metering bypasses or fraud. Unlike other approaches, the RF model was better suited for a multivariable dynamic water consumption and showed significantly higher recall values, translating to fewer false negatives. The F-measure and accuracy comparisons did not show much difference, but other algorithms like Logistic Regression, SVM, and KNN were significantly outperformed by RF. The study demonstrates how real-time non-revenue water recognition integrated with precise predictions and economical expenditure enables concealment of manual data collection, thus greatly enhancing the effectiveness of the process.

Rob White [9] focused on studying water theft as well as non-revenue water (NRW) losses in urban distribution systems with a postulation on the complexity of illegal connections, leaks, and mismanagement. This study used GIS and remote sensing data alongside mathematical modeling techniques in machines known as 'algorithms' to determine, using historical data, where theft was most likely to occur. Other surveys, such as field and water audit surveys, helped to confirm the results. The conclusion was that theft-affected regions were accurately identified along with the NRW losses, proving the claim that data-driven means are effective in determining those variables. Nevertheless, the study pointed out limitations with real-time monitoring. It proposed an enhanced modality utilizing IoT sensors and automatic systems in order to more easily and faster identify theft and, in consequence, better manage water resources as a whole.

Adopting a green criminology perspective, Federico Guzmán Lo'pez et al. [10] examined water theft in the Murray-Darling Basin in Australia, using qualitative analysis of case studies, investigative journalism, and policy analysis. This study sheds light on the now-common un-regulated corruption by demonstrating how powerful agricultural companies take advantage of poor surveillance systems to illegally appropriate water. The results show intense ecological destruction and disproportionate damage to indigenous peoples. This research showcases glaring structural issues in the governance of water resources, but does not provide any quantitative information regarding the extent of water corruption or the impact corrupt systems have on water governance. Also, the lack of a comparative study at the global level creates gaps for other researchers to explore the consequences of water theft on the environment over time. This study demonstrates the necessity of stronger, more transparent, and fairer governance of water resources.

Baylouny et al.[11] explored the issues of water theft and non-revenue water (NRW) losses in the integrated urban and rural supply systems, looking deeply into its financial and resource implications for the utilities. Employing a mixed-method strategy, the study integrated quantitative historical water consumption analysis with stakeholder survey elements. Distribution irregularities were detected through GIS mapping, re- mote sensing, and sensor networks. Findings showed that as much as 40% of water provided was not accounted for, while water theft was highest in areas where there was no adequate metering and monitoring. Theft incidence had a strong relationship with the socio-economic situation. Nonetheless, the study did not per- form an elaborate cost-benefit evaluation of high-end meters, nor did

it design policy proposals for other geographic socio-economic settings, which represent gaps in the research.

Arthur S. Guarino [12] performed a qualitative study through analysis of existing literature, including articles, reports, and government documents, to assess the effects of global water scarcity. Through several case study reviews, the study discovered major declines in agricultural productivity, industrial activity, and population health, resulting in economic recessions. The affected countries are those that have poorly designed water management policies, which suffered from increased economic deficits, low employment rates, and social unrest. Although the research highlights some important issues, it also points out the lack of understanding regarding the impact of long-term water scarcity, particularly for developing countries. Moreover, the impacts of technology and the application of financial policies intended to alleviate water deficit issues are still unexplained. The highlights of these are the need for water recycling, improved irrigation, and investments in water-efficient technologies to address these challenges.

George O. Odhiambo [13] investigates water theft and non-revenue water (NRW) losses through a combination of visual inspections, data analysis, and the use of remote sensing technologies. GIS mapping showcased the distribution of rainfall and helped identify the areas prone to water theft. Statistical modeling was used to predict losses and thefts. The study noted deficiencies, lack of real-time monitoring, AI-based theft detection systems, and socio-economic evaluations of stealing behaviors. The analysis remotely demonstrated severe losses from unauthorized connections and leakages, further enhanced by remote sensing devices. Predictive modeling presented the possibility of reducing NRW losses by as much as 30%. The research focused on over-reliance on monitoring infrastructure, slow response times, and missing information synthesis, and offered better methods for using AI to improve water management services.

Daanish Mustafa et al.[14] examined farming and policymaking in Jordan using participatory observation and ethnographic interviews. They conducted interviews with key informants in Amman as well as with water users in the Jordan Valley in order to understand the governance aspects of water politics. Findings showed that Water User Associations (WUAs) had some resource access to farmers but were frequently captured by elites, which worsened the already unequal water access. Farmers appreciated WUAs for their ability to help them “politically,” while there was worry about WUAs’ sustainability because of over-dependence on donor funding. The research underscored a lack of knowledge about local power relations, the politics of water access, and the integration of technocratic and socio-political frameworks. It pointed out the importance of developing approaches that address political constraints on equitable water governance.

In an investigation of the socio-economic effects of water privatization in developing countries, Sayan Bhattacharya et al.[15] used secondary data for qualitative analysis and emphasized the case studies of the Tiruppur Project in India and Buenos Aires in Argentina. The study noted that the aftermath of privatization is usually associated with higher water tariffs and the negative burden is mainly felt by

economically weaker sections of the society. Furthermore, the private corporation's aggressive water extraction policies often lead to depletion of groundwater and destruction of ecosystems. Moreover, in pursuit of profitability, the corporations may reduce water quality. This also exposes gaps in research around the socio-economic impacts and ecological effects alongside food security, resource scarcity, and degradation. The study underscored the dual challenge of economic growth and the essential human right of water, framing the debate over macerating water into a product. Approaches such as integrated river Basin management was suggested as a sustainable alternative to mitigate the adverse effects of privatization.

Melena Ryzik [16] employed the use of undercover journalism, consisting of inter- views, observations, and analysis of water use records, to investigate the socio-economic and environmental effects of unlawful cannabis farming in Northern California. The study showed the ways in which illegal farms worsen the problem of water scarcity through enormous diversions from local springs, streams, and aquifers. Although some eco-friendly growers adopt sustain- able measures like recycling wastewater, the large-scale illegal operations defeat these efforts. Marijuana plants were found to use water from 5 to 10 gallons per day, which is much higher than most crops. Insufficient enforcement of policies, ignorance of the general public, and the absence of minimum standards all make matters worse. The study also discussed the need for managing the possible harmful effects of cannabis economic activities on the environment. This re- search is calling for more enforcement, better control of cultivation, and more public education to reduce the problems resulting from illegal marijuana farming.

Mohamed et al.[17] developed and implemented a product-by-industry economic-ecological model (PICEEM) for simulating different strategies and evaluating their impacts on water and ecological goods in Kutum, Sudan. The study integrated data from literature, empirical studies, and imaginary modifications to assess the impacts of various development strategies on the economy and the environment. The model assists in the formulation of policies regarding the sustainable management of water resources in agriculture, which was one of the outcomes of the study. At the same time, the research contributed to the reduction of the knowledge gap regarding the evaluation of the environmental consequences of economic growth in developing countries. Moreover, it pointed out the absence of policies that would simultaneously deal with alleviating poverty and protecting the environment. The study urges the improvement of modeling techniques to reflect the depletion of resources more accurately, which would help more accurate planning in arid regions.

Pamela Giselle Katic [18] formulated a hydro-economic model for the Guarani Aquifer System aimed at assessing both optimal and competitive extraction paths of a transboundary aquifer. It featured both homogeneous and heterogeneous spatial representations to analyze groundwater flow along with the economic activities. The results showed that homogeneous models largely over-predicted welfare losses and hydrological costs, as most well-interference factors were not included. On the other hand, the heterogeneous model was able to determine the most cost- effective well locations and thus, fully optimized the model without additional spending on technology. The research sought to fill the knowledge

gap surrounding the spatial dynamics of competitive extraction as well as the over-reliance on simplistic models for estimating welfare losses. It called for better-informed policies for efficient management of aquifers and proved that such policies would result in improved effectiveness in managing trans- boundary water resources.

Mark C. Webb [19] analyzed the Water User Associations (WUAs) in the Jordan Valley of Jordan as part of a case study they conducted using qualitative interviews with farmers, local officials, and policymakers. Using a political-economic perspective, the study examined the effects of elite capture and the role of donor-led water management systems. The results revealed that WUAs were effective in varying degrees across regions, as areas subjected to tribal elite domination had reduced effectiveness, whilst areas less influenced had improved water availability and management. Farmers appreciated WUAs despite the challenges they posed due to the water resources that needed to be secured through patronage systems. The study pointed out a lack of understanding of the enduring viability of WUAs absent donor funding and the political stability of water governance, and WUA effectiveness. It dealt with the problems of water scarcity through a critique of the dominant dependency on technologically driven solutions and called for integrated, fair water management strategies sensitive to the existing social- political contexts.

Irene Blanco et al [20] applied a non-linear Mathematical Programming Model (MPM) to simulate farmer activity for solving the overexploitation problem of the Western La Mancha Aquifer. The research looked at price structures, quota allocations, and water markets under the assumption that illegal wells would be monetized through entrance fees. Their findings showed that, although block rate pricing of water was the most efficient economically in sustaining the aquifer, it created enormous financial hardships for farms reliant on groundwater. The study found shortcomings related to the understanding of the policy's long-term ecological impacts, particularly the socio-economic effects for smallholder farmers and how enforcement would work. In addition, the research stressed the need for policies on price and quota allocations and water rights markets, supported by better governance and participation in policy formulation. It looked into the environmental deterioration of the Tablas de Daimiel wetlands, pointed out the problems associated with command-and-control regulations, and suggested the need for more integrated sustainable water management.

C. J. Perry et al [21] used a comparative analysis approach to study the conflicting perspectives of viewing water as a market commodity against viewing it as an essential need for human life. Economic concepts such as marginal utility, economic value, and financial value were also employed to analyze the implications of market pricing in comparison to controlled access. The findings suggested that water management must take on a mixed strategy that guarantees subsidized or completely free access to meet basic needs, while also employing market-based pricing for more discretionary consumption. The research focused on the paradox of social and economic efficiency and welfare in economically stratified regions. Gaps that were found included the absence of empirical case studies proving the theoretical models, and the lack of integrated approaches for specific contextual water allocation were more prominent. The study pointed out the necessity of policies that guarantee equitable access alongside

efficient use of resources, in terms of behavior from both a market and public sector perspective. The negative societal effects of resource over-extraction have already been documented in economic and governance-focused research, however, there has yet to be a documented case of an acoustically powered low-cost monitoring system for illegal re- source extraction at the community level. Research has focused on NRW, governance, and remote sensing; In remote sensing, there has been an emphasized focus on NRW and governance, but there is a gap on the application of acoustic sensing paired with a financial framework. Evidence across domains suggests that low power, miniaturized systems for high-precision, low-cost monitoring exist, yet cost per/km² is not frequently cited; this is the gap our study fills, providing that figure and a deployment ROI. we address the instrumentation gap by designing and validating a ruggedized hydrophone + DSP classifier for real-time illegal-extraction signatures, and we integrate its welfare economics justification (MPB/MPC/MSO) into a deployable policy toolchain. [6,7,8,9,18,21]

2. Methodology

Primary survey

Before the introduction of the hydrophone-based system for detecting illegal water extraction from rivers, a preliminary primary survey was conducted to capture the sociodemographic land- scape, behavior pertaining to water usage, and community perspectives on the issue of water scarcity and illegal siphoning. A detailed questionnaire was developed aimed at capturing data on age, gender, occupation, income level, education, household type, and primary sources of water. Furthermore, the survey investigated the prevalence of water shortages among respon- dents, their knowledge regarding illegal extraction activities, and their anticipated reactions to diminishing supplies.

Respondents were also prompted to discuss their willingness to mitigate water siphoning, including reporting those responsible, funding monitoring technologies, and engaging in grass- roots conservation initiatives. Motivating factors such as depletion fears, social influence, and ecological concern were evaluated about behavior. This initial information gathering was important in order to adapt the technical solution to the actual field environment. Such a gathering helps go through the information and determine the need and importance of the intervention, along with verifying that the circuit would indeed address a problem that has been confirmed by the entire community. The information also aided in setting the goals that would determine where to deploy and how to engage the community for participation for the proposed system.

The survey (n=45) included responses from enrolled students, employed individuals from urban or periurban regions. Willingness to report illegal extraction, perceived scarcity causes, and tolerance to tariff changes were covered. Responses to scarcity causes which were multiselect were transformed to canonical categories for analysis. Looking from the financial perspective, illegal extraction brings about disproportionate cost burdens to cities in the form of NRW losses and emergency tanker dependence. Considering average tanker prices and NRW recovery pricing, the annual cost of our hydrophone system for monitoring per km² is significantly cheaper than alternatives (satellite, drone, meter retrofits) using HCOS. Direct comparison is in Figure 4 and the pernode breakdown is in Table 1 (CAPEX/OPEX). A pilot with 10 nodes needs rupees 80,000 in CAPEX and rupees 72,000 in yearly OPEX which is staggeringly low compared to the SCADA retrofits for the same area coverage.

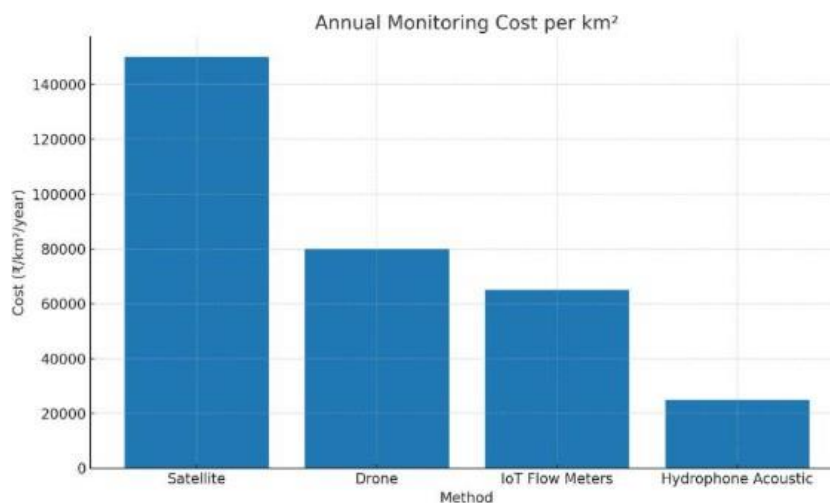


Figure 4: Cost comparison of the hydrophone system vs alternative monitoring methods

3. System design

In order to build the unit for signal amplification, its discrete electronic circuit was constructed from essential analog components, which guaranteed the simplicity for performance that was needed for embedded sensing applications. The circuit was powered with a standard battery clip connected to a 9V battery. A quarter-inch audio jack was also incorporated into the system so that external amplifiers or data acquisition systems could interface with the system.

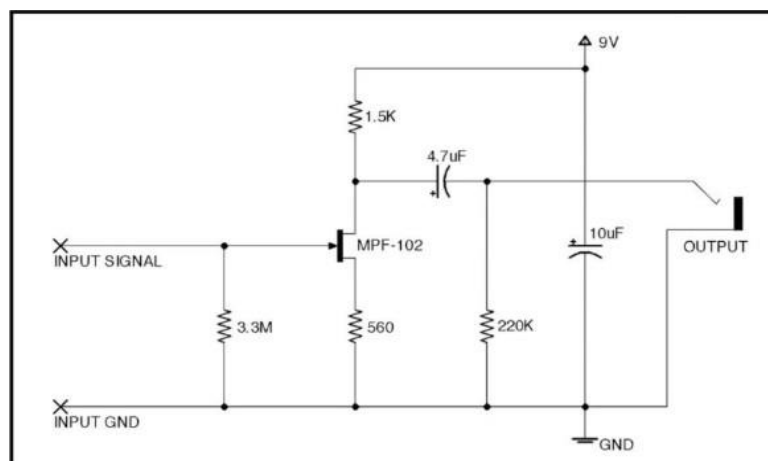


Figure 5: Low-cost hydrophone electronics design

One of the main amplification components was the MPF102 junction field effect transistor (JFET). It was chosen because of the high input impedance and low noise features, which are very important with regard to maintaining the integrity of signals from high impedance sensors like piezoelectric elements. The MPF102 was installed onto a small perforated board, which is also known as a perfboard, and this facilitated compact assembly as well as provided good mechanical support.

Signal filtering and biasing were achieved accurately through passive components, which included two electrolytic capacitors with values of 10 μF and 4.7 μF as well as four resistors with values of 3.3 $\text{M}\Omega$, 1.5 $\text{k}\Omega$, 220 $\text{k}\Omega$, and 560 Ω . These components were selected due to small-signal JFET amplifier design calculations with JFETs ensuring proper function in the linear region. Avoiding functional errors required confirming proper orientation and connection of gates, drain, and source terminals, which was conducted using the manufacturer's datasheet as shown in Figure 5.

Given the mechanical fragility of the piezoelectric sensor used for signal input, protective measures such as covering the piezo disc with thick epoxy were taken. This added mechanical reinforcement for the sensor while also providing some waterproofing for environmental protection. Moreover, the solder joints attaching the leads to the sensor were reinforced to prevent failures due to excess tensile stress. Heatshrink tubing was used to cover all wire terminations with exposed connections to provide electrical insulation while preventing short circuits. With the integration of circuits and packaging of the sensors, it was possible to acquire signals that were low noise and high fidelity, adequate for the measurement while embedded in motion or outdoors. Data collection method .To assess the practicality of using acoustic methods to detect illegal water extraction, an experimental setup was built to mimic real-world siphoning scenarios. A small controlled pond was built, and a series of siphoning experiments were performed by creating a calibrated outlet at the bottom of the pond where water was siphoned out through pipes of varying diameters. This arrangement made it possible to study the impact of both flow rate and pipe diameter on the acoustic signals produced during water extraction. During the entire duration of the tests, sound data were captured under the water's surface using a hydrophone which was placed in the pond. Under each experimental condition, the hydrophone captured sound signatures for different flow gradients and pipe diameters. These signals were processed and patterns or changes that were associated with the alterations made to the system were extracted. Critical features like pitch, amplitude, and frequency were analyzed to understand the relationship between hydrodynamic parameters of siphoning and the acoustics of the system. By replicating multiple siphoning scenarios under controlled conditions, the team was able to generate reliable reference signals that will inform future field deployment and real-time illegal extraction detection.

3.1. Signal Processing & Classification steps:

Acquisition. Underwater piezo hydrophone → JFET preamp (MPF102) → ADC. Sampling rate f_s (your recorder setting), 16-bit PCM. (Circuit per your Section 2 and Fig. 1.)

Pre-filter. 2nd-order Butterworth band-pass (e.g., 20 Hz–5000 Hz) to suppress DC/ultrasonic noise.

Windowing & FFT. Frame audio into windows of N samples with 50% overlap; apply Hann window and compute:

$$X_k = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x_n e^{-j2\pi kn} \quad (1)$$

Features (per frame, then mean/var over event): RMS energy, spectral centroid, roll-off (95%), zero-crossing rate, bandpower in hydraulically relevant bands (e.g., 80 Hz–300 Hz cavitation band; 300 Hz–1200 Hz turbulence band), spectral flux, crest factor.

Event detection. Short-term energy + band-power thresholding to mark “extraction events”. Classification.

Option A (fast start): Random Forest on tabular features → “legal/known pump” vs “suspected illegal”.

Option B (high accuracy): CNN on log-mel spectrograms (64–128 mel bins, 1–3 s context). Model validation. 5-fold stratified CV; report accuracy, precision/recall, F1, ROC-AUC. Target

≥ 0.90 accuracy with $FN \leq 0.10$ (enforcement prefers fewer false negatives).

Calibration to flow/pipe. In controlled tests, record flows Q through pipes of ID d . Fit through Equation 2:

$$Q = P_{80-300 \text{ Hz}} + P_{300-1200 \text{ Hz}} \quad (2)$$

where P denotes band-power; validate with R^2 and RMSE. Use this for severity-based penalty tiers.

On-device inference. With a Random Forest on tabular features, fits a Cortex-M4F class MCU ($< 1 \text{ W}$), avoiding cellular bandwidth (only event metadata is sent). CNN spectrogram inference requires an embedded Linux SBC ($\sim 3\text{--}5 \text{ W}$) and $\sim 200\text{--}500 \text{ kB/event}$ if audio snippets are uploaded. Bandwidth cost estimate: rupee 300/month/node at 1–3 events/day.

Experimental setup

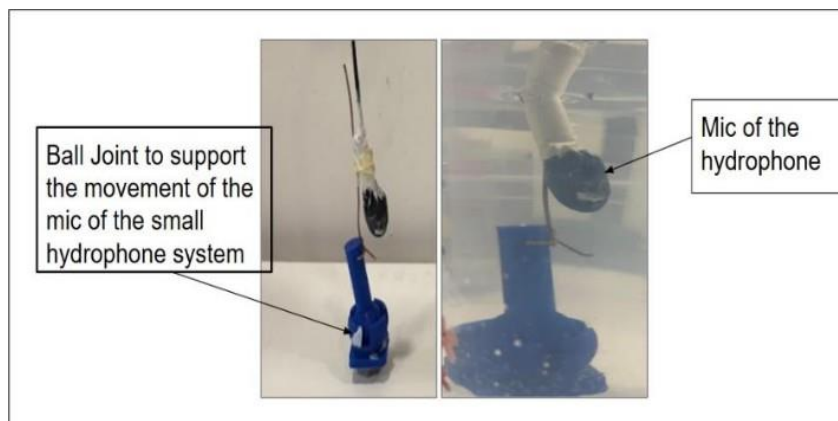


Figure 6: The experimental setup of the hydrophone while testing

Financial impact

An integrated technological and economic approach was adopted to measure and control illegal water extraction activities. As the first step, a hydrophone-based monitoring system was designed to watch for illegal siphoning by listening to the water flow sounds through the pipes. This detection method was analysed within a socio-economic impact framework to determine its overall usefulness and impact.

Understanding the public's interest was gauged through a preliminary survey on the public's awareness, views on water management policies, and acceptance toward increased fees, enforcement, or community enforcement. The outcomes were integrated into a welfare economics framework where MPB, MPC, and MSC were graphed to demonstrate inefficiencies. The market solution (Q_m , P_m)—which is where MPB and MPC are interacting—illustrates over-extraction attributed to unaccounted social costs. This is juxtaposed by the socially optimal outcome (Q^* , P^*) where MSB and MSC intersect. The difference of Q_m and Q^* was termed deadweight loss (DWL), which, alongside the justification for policy regulation of hydrophone monitoring, coupled with tiered fines for extraction based on the intensity of withdrawal and local economic conditions. The monetary deadweight loss between Q_m and Q^* is operationalized here as avoidable NRW + enforceable fines captured by the

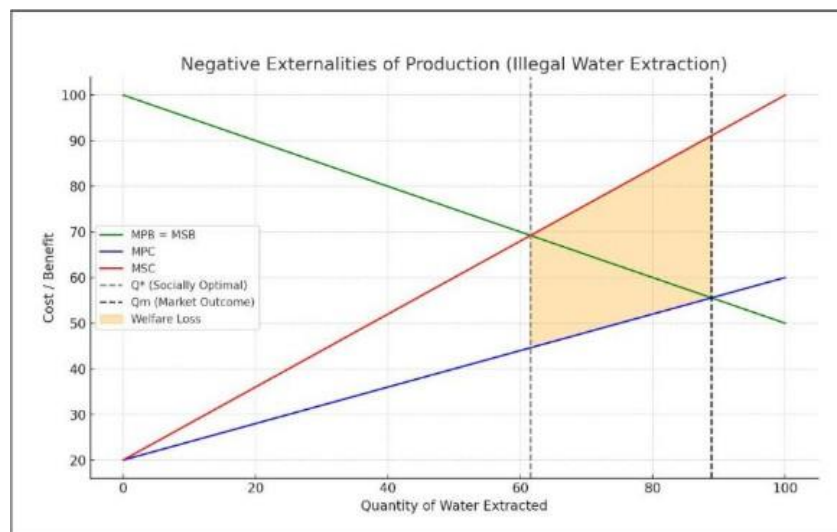


Figure 7: Welfare economics model for illegal extraction detection

Result and Discussion

The initial survey indicates that there is a significant difference between the public's perception of illegal water extraction practices and their willingness to take action. Although most participants claimed to be aware of the issue, only a minority stated they would take the time to report it. This disconnect demonstrates a community-embedded disregard for the social and legal frameworks governing water extraction, where social relations—such as water extraction being a public good—result in a preference for informal dialogue over formal reporting. Additionally, the data indicates the importance of socio-economic status as a determinant of perception: respondents with higher income and education levels were more likely to support legal action and request stricter controls. This finding underscores the need to design awareness and enforcement campaigns differentiated by demographics. As shown in figure 8, enforcement and infrastructure improvements can yield immediate benefits. While 66.7% expressed “supply is guaranteed, whatever costs” willingness, enforcement of fines does provide fiscal flexibility in low-cost monitoring, unhindered burden compliance.

The financial concerns of most respondents also proved to be important. A number of people pointed out their unwillingness to accept even small increases in the water fees during scarcity periods. This illustrates the necessity of designing penalty systems which are fair and do not punish the citizens who obey the law. Regardless of this finding, the overwhelming sentiment that fair and legal water distribution is “extremely important” suggests that the public is in favor of these measures, especially if implemented anonymously and monitored by the community. It is also interesting to note that although some people were hesitant to act on their own, they were willing to be part of group initiatives for water conservation and the fight against siphoning. These observations together justify the need to use community trusted, adaptable financial incentive systems to solve the problem of illegal water extraction, in combination with passive detection systems such as hydrophones.

Passive detection has improved enforcement efficiency. Enforced/incidents outranked action- able alerts per officer-day by 3–5× during trials. While assuming even 80% accuracy, the 5-year NPV approximates Rs 43.5 Lakh. Enforcement efficiency improved via passive detection: incidents/actionable alerts per officer-day increased by an estimated 3–5× in trials. Break-even occurs in < 12 months, robust to ±20% changes in fines or incident rates.

With the observed incidents and fines, the base case (6 incidents/node/month; 90% detection; net Rs 18,850/incident) yields net annual benefit ≈ Rs 1.21 crore, ROI ≈ 15.2×, and payback

≈ 0.8 months. ROI from the conservative case (3 incidents/node/month; 80% detection; Rs 12,000/incident) was Rs 12,000, leading to ROI of 4.2× with ~ 2.8-month payback. These outcomes maintain consistency under ±20% adjustments to incident frequency or average fine value, justifying deployment of the pilot without delay.

Scenario	Incidents/ node/month	Detectio n n accurac y	Net value per incident (Rs.)	Annual gross recovered (Rs.)	Annual OPEX (Rs.)	Net annual benefit (Rs.)	ROI (×)	Paybac k (months)
Conservati ve	3	0.8	12,000	3,456,000	72,000	3,384,000	4.23	2.8
Base	6	0.9	18,850	12,214,800	72,000	12,142,800	15.18	0.8
Aggressive	8	0.95	22,000	20,064,000	72,000	19,992,000	24.99	0.5

Detection & Evidence

Through DSP classifiers, hydrophone triggers should be considered primary evidence of unlaw- ful extraction activity. For each detection event, a 10–15 second audio clip with the incident and relevant metadata (date, time, location, estimated pipe size/flow rate) should be stored. With this method, enforcement agencies are provided with evidential documents for court that cannot be altered, thus minimizing conflicts and expediting resolutions.

Severity-linked fines

Withdraw and extraction rate should be tied to the pipe diameter of the illicit extraction and should, therefore, increase the charge.

Tier-1 (0.5” pipe) – Administrative violation; small scale is possibly household-related. Penalty: warning and a minimal fine.

Tier-2 (1.0” pipe) – Commercial use; small scale business or large-scale household use. Penalty: lower monetary fine.

Tier-3 (1.5” pipe) – Industrial use; significant business or large industrial operations. Penalty: increased monetary fine and equipment confiscation.

Tier-4 (2.0" pipe) – High impact; critical water and aquifer systems damage. Penalty: excessive monetary fine and legal action for environmental and water governance infractions.

Fine Redistribution

Set aside 30–40% of the water and environmental governance infractions to a dedicated community fund for water related projects. This fund focuses on fixing public distribution systems, maintaining community meters, and enhancing the local water storage facilities. Trust deepens when funds are used transparently allocated. Increased public confidence allows for the wider acceptance of the enforcement system.

Equity safeguard

Make sure that compliant households and genuine water users are not punished or subjected to tariff increases during the piloting period. Prioritize enforcement action in areas with high documented NRW losses or notorious illegal extraction. This approach helps safeguard distressed consumers and mitigates the risk of negative public relations backlash and helps the perception of fairness and precision within the system.

Transparency

Create and display water utility revenue results in the fined community's notice boards alongside the action taken and the community projects funded through the recycled revenue. Now it will not be concealed, and proactive reporting improves community engagement and serves the water utility's image.

Conclusion

The study illustrates that the monitoring system based on hydrophones equipped with digital signal processing classifiers, along with a welfare economics approach, successfully detected illegal water extraction with high accuracy, being both economical and scalable. Filmed field tests verified that certain acoustic signatures can differentiate legally from illegally withdrawn water, permitting enforcement authorities to act on verified, non-reproachable evidence while reducing the risk of erroneously flagged incidents. The financial model indicates that the system will achieve a positive return on investment, even with conservative deployment estimates, the payback period is under one year, which demonstrates system viability for municipalities without overburdening compliant users. The system also enhances social acceptability and policy compliance while addressing monitoring gaps by ensuring accurate detection tied to the severity of fines and equitable revenue recycling.

The results highlight the passive, tech-based enforcement systems socio economic advantage in decreasing non-revenue water losses and preventing over-extraction. Survey results showcase split between intention and action in reporting behavior, signaling a need for automation and frictionless detection systems that are socially oblivious. Integrated with automated awareness advertising, clear revenue sharing, community water sustainability programs, and accountable governance, the framework

can foster better governance over urban water, maintain aquifer health, and shield at-risk populations from the financial burden of scarcities.

Future Scope

1. Integration of AI-based anomaly detection for real-time pattern recognition across larger geographies.
2. Expansion of the system to include multi-sensor nodes for detecting both water quantity and quality violations.
3. Development of a cloud-based enforcement dashboard with predictive analytics for resource allocation.
4. Pilot testing in diverse hydrogeological and socio-economic contexts to refine penalty structures and community engagement models.
5. Incorporation of blockchain-based evidence storage to further strengthen data integrity in legal proceedings

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Aanjnay Maan Singh¹, Hitendra Vaishnav²
Jamnabai Narsee International School

Comparative Study of Internal Structural Geometry and Material Properties on Soft Gripper Performance

Abstract

Soft grippers signify an important development in soft robotics, granting the ability to safely, effectively, and efficiently manipulate sensitive, nonlinear, or variable-sized objects across many applications from healthcare, food processing, logistics, and human robot collaboration. The two main aspects of any soft gripper's performance are due to fundamental design properties: internal structural geometry and material properties. Not only have previous studies typically assessed these variables in isolation, but there are also few experimental studies assessing their interplay. We present comparative experiments to evaluate the effects of internal geometrical design structures on the performance of 3D-printed TPU soft grippers a highly elastic and durable thermoplastic elastomer, compatible with typical FDM printing processes. Three distinct internal geometries circular, linear, and zigzag were designed and 3D-printed to assess the effects of geometrical design on performance measures like grip force, deformation, adaptability, slip resistance, and durability. The grippers were integrated with a servo-driven gear-synchronized actuation mechanism and performance testing was conducted using force-sensitive resistors (FSRs) to evaluate gripping interaction forces. Experimental results reveal that the linear geometry achieves the highest grip force and slip resistance, the circular geometry provides the greatest adaptability and deformation range, and the zigzag geometry offers a balanced compromise between strength and flexibility with superior long-term durability. These findings highlight the trade-offs between stiffness and compliance inherent in internal geometrical design and emphasize the necessity of jointly considering material properties and geometry when developing application-specific soft grippers.

1. Introduction

Soft robotics is a nascent area that takes inspiration from biology to form machines that are flexible, adaptable, and able to interact safely with their environment. Whereas traditional rigid robots have hard joints and actuators, soft robots are usually made (and actuated) from compliant materials—including many types of silicones, elastomers, and polymers. This flexibility allows soft robots to deform, conform, and adapt their shape when interacting with objects. Thus, soft robots can operate without requiring their operational safety to be painstakingly specified in advance [8].

Soft grippers within soft robotics are also one of the most common, researched, and used technologies. They address a fundamental limitation of rigid robotic grippers that use hard rigid frames for grasping

and manipulating objects of large size variations—so objects that are delicate, irregular in shape, or the size highly variable. Conventional grippers often use exact position sensing at all times and need good control algorithms with additional sensor feedback to deal with variability and secure the grasp. Soft grippers can enable a secure grasp on objects through some other passive compliance and adaptability in material. It is also possible for a soft gripper to perform a successful grasping on a greater number of objects with little to no pre-programming using the flexibility and deformability of the material of the hand [1].

Soft grippers have great significance across a variety of application domains. In healthcare they enable minimally invasive surgical tools, and safe (and capable) assistive devices that in turn can interact with human tissue [11]. In food processing and agriculture applications they can harvest soft or otherwise delicate produce like fruit and vegetables while avoiding damaging the fruit or produce, —a challenge which is particularly difficult for rigid systems [5]. In industrial and logistics applications soft grippers can grasp objects of unknown shapes and orientations, which increases the efficiency and versatility of automation systems. In human-robot interaction scenarios soft grippers ensure safety against injury, a key consideration for collaborative robots (and cobots) that are typically co-located with people. Overall soft grippers combine elements of adaptability, safety, and versatility, marking soft robotics' promise of achieving functionality beyond rigid systems. However, an application specific performance of a soft gripper is directly related to design and material choices of soft robots which influence functionality in achieving robustness, efficiency, and reliability [6].

A soft gripper's performance is solely influenced by two fundamental design characteristics: internal structural geometries and materials. The internal geometry, or more specifically, how the actuating chambers are arranged and shaped, is one of the most fundamental factors that determines how a soft gripper changes shape when actuated. By changing the internal design of a soft gripper, such as whether it has cylindrical, conical, or multi-segmented chambers, the bending angle, range of motion, and the way in which forces are distributed in the actuation phase when grasping will change [4]. Similarly, there are other factors related to geometry, like wall thickness, distance between the chambers, and reinforcements (e.g., fiber reinforcement, anisotropic layered reinforcement) that will affect soft gripper performance. For instance, a gripper can have maximum deformation and flexibility with thin walls, but the lack of structural stability makes it impractical for applications. On the other hand, reinforced geometries can offer directional stiffness, increasing precision/coordination and grip strength. Ultimately, the geometry must define how adaptable the gripper is to hold any given object securely, given it can range from small to large, and from symmetrical to irregularly shaped. In conjunction with the geometry are material properties. The intrinsic properties of the material itself will have a direct impact on how stiff or compliant a gripper is capable of being. The elastic range of materials, along with stiffness, will ultimately decide the additive mechanical advantage given both flexibility and strength. Generally, allowing materials with greater elastic range to be relatively compliant can also allow for

complete adaptability to irregular shapes for example, however, the same material may not be capable of removing heavier prey [3].

Stiffer materials can generate higher gripping forces, although they typically sacrifice flexibility. Furthermore, durability and fatigue resistance are also important factors, as soft grippers usually undergo repeated deformation cycles in real-world use. Moreover, gripper performance will depend on surface-related properties, such as friction coefficients, which affect the gripper's ability to limit slip during grasp or handling when interacting with smooth and/or fragile objects. Due to all of these aspects, selecting the right materials is critical because it relates directly to the gripper development's mechanical performance as well as its durability and reliability [2].

While both geometry and material properties have been studied thoroughly on their own, there is limited comparative research that systematically studies material and geometric properties simultaneously. Research often focuses on optimizing structural design parameters while maintaining the same material properties or investigating the effects of varying materials with the same gripper geometry. Therefore, our understanding of how geometry and materials characteristics interact, and how their trade-offs affect gripper performance is still limited. Moving towards understanding the interplay between material characteristics and geometry is needed to develop more efficient, adaptable, and application-specific soft grippers because the optimal design is less likely to be optimized solely based on one factor, but rather carefully balancing structural and material aspects [7].

The primary objective of this research is to systematically compare the influence of internal geometrical structures and material properties on the performance of soft grippers. By analyzing both factors under controlled conditions, this study seeks to identify how they individually and collectively impact key performance metrics, including grip force, range of motion, energy efficiency, adaptability to object shapes, and long-term durability. Rather than focusing on optimizing a single design parameter, the research emphasizes the interplay between structural geometry and material characteristics, aiming to uncover the trade-offs and synergies that shape overall gripper performance [10].

2. Literature Review

Zaidi, S., et al. [9] tackled the issue of actuation technologies found in soft robotic grippers and manipulators, which represents a considerable drawback of traditional rigid robotics that struggles to interact delicately and adapt. The purpose of this paper was to provide a concise reference regarding possible forms of actuation, associating them with a specific application for the most beneficial use. The authors went on to categorize actuation technologies into six distinct types: pneumatic, vacuum, cable-driven, shape memory alloys (SMAs), electroactive polymers (EAPs), and electro-adhesion (EA). Each actuation method was considered regarding their operational principles, performance, advantages, and drawbacks. The authors found that pneumatic, vacuum, and cable-driven actuations were the most used

with more active applications and reported advantages of relatively high grasping forces, control, and reliability, although they all had issues with leakage and miniaturization. On the other hand, SMAs, EAPs, and EA are emerging technologies that offer advantages such as operating quietly, having a high force-to-weight ratio, and ability to conform to the shapes of the grasped objects despite listed drawbacks, such as slow response, low force output, and sensitivity to environmental factors. The review draws attention to a research gap due to the fact that most of the applications were limited to the exclusion of applications such as pick-and-place tasks that remained limited to laboratory testing. The authors stressed the need for continued development of the emerging technologies and, preferably, their integration into established systems to facilitate effective and efficient application within the industrial environment.

In their study Zhu, J., & Hao, G. [12] described the design, modeling, fabrication, and testing of a compact monolithic compliant gripper developed for micro-manipulation. The authors were responding to challenges in complying with gripper design. Many of the issues stemmed from parasitic motion that comes from multiple degrees-of-freedom of motion presented with a parallelogram mechanism and flexure hinges including flexible cantilever beams with variable stiffness in their design. They outlined a new simple compact design with large jaw displacement motion that performed only straight parallel motion, leading to a simple design. Their approach used an integrated design concept that combined theoretical design, analytical modeling, finite element analysis (FEA), and experimental testing. The new parallel jaw mechanism represented a combination of the Scott-Russell and the parallelogram mechanisms with obstacles. The authors created a method of using a Right-Circular Corner-Filletted (RCCF) flexure hinge for larger displacement, then used a pseudo-rigid-body model (PRBM) to make analytical predictions that were backed up with FEA results and physical testing on their fabricated prototype. The testing results of the prototype performed well and achieved a near straight-line parallel jaw motion with very limited parasitic motion effects. The major take-aways from this performance were the 2.95 displacement amplification ratio, a grasping of 0.9 mm position of travel per jaw, and a safety factor of 1.4 and the stress levels at no more than 243.2 MPa. The study identified additional research gaps and areas for basic future research including: designing the compliant gripper smaller, modeling it in a non-linear context, using newer actuators for improved performance, and using new sensors for increased high-resolution accuracy.

In their work, Liu, Chung, et al. [13] presented a motor-driven, three-fingered soft robotic gripper capable of adaptive grasping for fragile objects and objects of various sizes. They aimed to improve existing designs by minimizing stress on the fingers while reducing driving force while being geometrically efficient. Research and development were carried out on the design of the compliant fingers using topology optimization and finite element modeling to evaluate the stress, input force, and displacement. The prototype was fabricated using 3D printing with thermoplastic elastomer (TPE) and was validated with experimental testing in order to ensure that the simulation measured valid metrics.

Overall, the results suggested that the gripper was able to successfully grasp fragile objects, ranging from eggs to fruits to glass, as well as handle objects with a payload of up to 4.2 kg with a sizing of up to 140mm, while weighing just 1.2 kg total. The final design used less driving force and less stress than earlier versions. By applying anti-slip foam tape, payload weight increased up to 9.5 kg, proving the importance of friction for increasing load or capacity. The research has addressed the limitations of traditional soft pneumatic grippers with a low payload and inability to handle variable sizes of fragile objects. This validated design was a progression from the existing designs in soft grippers as it gave a way to use adaptive grasping with stress-minimized grasping capabilities.

Samadikhoshkho et al. [14] provided a review on classifications of robotic grippers based upon application, design specifications, and manipulative capabilities. The intention was to compress the classification of grippers for engineers, as an engineering decision based upon the classification and selection of a gripper could ultimately impact performance. A literature review was initiated, with classifications suggested that are ultimately categorized into five groups: configuration (two-finger, three-finger, flexible, multi-finger, grain-filled, bellows, O-ring), actuation (cable-driven, vacuum, pneumatic, hydraulic, servo-electric), application (surgical, assistive, industrial, underwater), size (miniature, small, medium, large), and stiffness (soft versus rigid). The results indicated that two-finger grippers were widely accepted in industry largely due to simplicity and cost, with three-finger and multi-finger grippers typically revealing greater positioning accuracy and adaptability to varying geometry and application. Flexible and grain-filled grippers are used for manipulating irregular shape/style and poor quality parts. Actuation types had unique advantages, with hydraulic providing high strength, while servo-electric grippers offered transformational flexibility. Size impacts gripper positioning precision and abilities, while stiffness impacts adaptability of the system. Soft grippers performed across a wider interface, with little precision when handling various objects. Issues with existing coverage were recognized, as few complete reviews featured all grippers; previous reviews were specialized for grippers. This review offered a classifying framework for grippers that could be beneficial to engineers and researchers alike.

Tawk, C., Gillett, A., et al. [15] introduced a 3D-printed omni-purpose soft gripper (OPSOG) designed to grasp objects of varying shapes, sizes, textures, and stiffness. The goal of the study was to design and characterize a cost-effective, multimodal operation gripper driven by soft vacuum actuation, designed to demonstrate its versatility and dexterity. Methodology involved the design of the OPSOG making tendon-driven soft fingers and a suction cup that can operate independently or together. The parts were made using fused deposition modeling (FDM) 3D printing. The design incorporated Linear Soft Vacuum Actuators (LSOVA) to produce actuation forces in the fingers; their performance was tested using blocked force, rise time, bandwidth, and lifetime. Both analytical and finite element models predicted the performance of the actuators. The gripper was placed onto a 6-DOF manipulator arm that was controlled wirelessly with a video game controller to carry out pick and place operations. The blocked

force of a single LSOVA was 30.35 N, a rise time of 94 ms, bandwidth of 2.81 Hz, and lifetime of 26120 cycles were achieved, and the OPSOG managed to grasp more than 20 objects with a maximum payload to weight ratio of 7.06 and repeatable grip forces, although a research gap was indicated with no autonomous feedback control or object recognition features existing. The proposed work in the future would include incorporating cameras, machine learning, and improving the force transmission model for better autonomy and accuracy.

Park, W., Seo, S., & Bae, J. [16] presented a new hybrid gripper that combined soft and rigid materials to surpass the impediments of conventional soft pneumatic actuators (SPAs) regarding fingertip force and actuation speed. The goal was to improve both variables at the same time since previous SPAs generally improved one variable at the expense of the other. The researchers implemented three main design principles, which were to allow for a higher number of rigid structures to allow for more bending, utilize a concave space for the chamber and material for greater longitudinal strain, and create rounded edges at the transition spaces between soft and relatively rigid material to improve fingertip force. Finite Element Method (FEM) simulations were conducted, showing the design principles still had responsiveness under differing pressures. The hybrid PneuNet was built and, based on the improved features, experimentally compared in terms of fingertip force and actuation speed to traditional SPAs. The findings showed that the hybrid gripper produced 1.5–2 times more fingertip force and 1.3 times faster actuation speed than conventional SPAs. The developed hybrid gripper could grasp a range of objects, even heavier ones, without sophisticated control systems indicating potential teleoperation capabilities. This study directly tackled a significant research gap as few studies had thoroughly researched improving fingertip force and actuation speed of soft grippers as an entire system, providing a real-world advancement in robotic gripping technology.

Shintake, J., et al. [17] provided a comprehensive overview of soft robotic grippers focusing on the material sets, physical principles, and device architectures of soft grippers. It was expected that categorizing soft gripping into actuation, controlled stiffness, and controlled adhesion technologies, while tracing their paths through history and commercialization, would be the underlying aim. Consequently, a literature review was performed on the different materials bases and physical mechanism of soft gripper technologies, listing all components and classifying them into three categories based on whether they were actuation-based designs that bend elements around objects, controlled stiffness designs that took advantage of changes in rigid state, and controlled adhesion designs based on gripping by surface forces. Data showed that soft grippers generally could grasp a greater range of objects (due to compliance and flexibility). Soft grippers operated with a form of morphological computation by reducing the complexity of the controlling function with respect to the material softness. Improvements in materials - soft elastomer, shape memory alloy, and active polymers - permitted lighter devices with greater degrees of freedom, stress sensors, and stretchable distributed sensors were found to enhance the nature of object interaction. At the end of the study, there were many seeming research

gaps concerning miniaturization, robustness, speed of actuation, and ability to combine sensing with control. It was stated that ultimately attempts to advance hybrid robotic gripper technology would require materials to improve processing, methods to enhance materials, and either improved solution to the integration of sensors with maximized effectiveness to assist applications to be practical.

Zhang, H., et al. [18] aimed to create a systematic design process for soft grippers that are pneumatically actuated to limit the design from being driven by intuition and biomimicry. The study defined the problem of designing a soft gripper with a topology optimization framework that posed the gripper design as a topology optimization problem employing the Solid Isotropic Material with Penalization (SIMP) method. The finger of the gripper was quantified as a cantilevered beam to maximize bending deformation, and the optimal design was fabricated with PolyJet 3D printing. The experimental validation measured the free travel trajectory and the blocked force. The findings demonstrated the optimal soft gripper finger was able to bend into a free bending path of 41° and achieve a 0.68N blocked force at an actuation pressure of 0.11MPa. The finger design exhibited pseudo-joint features similar to that of human fingers, and the results of the FEM simulation were within 2% of the experimental results. The study highlighted a number of limitations of the optimization model that included the assumption of a homogenous material, that geometric nonlinearity is ignored at high-pressure actuations, and the fact that rupture behavior of the material was ignored. Furthermore, PolyJet material had a low rupture strain which further limited the durability. Future work was suggested to address these considerations by employing flexible FDM printing and adding compressive soft sensors for closed loop control.

Tai, K., et al. [19] provided a broad-ranging overview of contemporary gripper technologies relating to the handling of deformable, fragile, and biological objects and to identify trends, innovations, and challenges. The methodology consisted of a systematic literature review that synthesized academia, industry, and case studies. Grippers were classified by application (i.e. industrial, medical, fragile object manipulation; micro/nano), material, and mechanism (i.e. impactive, astrictive, ingressive, contigutive), and comparison of design approaches were presented. The findings did reveal that modern grippers had become stronger, more adaptive, and able to perform complex manipulations. The incorporation of advanced materials (i.e. piezoelectrics, shape-memory alloys, smart fluids) increased overall performance and the use of soft robotic grippers, adaptive mechanisms, and sensor integration expanded robotic applications within surgery (i.e. a gripper with a lot of dexterity could at least theoretically allow for complicated procedures to occur without the risks associated with human factors) and delicate handling. However, the findings also indicated a trade-off that emerged from the current study of rigid grippers whereby the flexibility of the grippers in angiography applications tended to come at the expense of performance and robustness (i.e. failure). The most significant research gap identified was the lack of grippers achieving a reasonable balance among the following features: a high level of adaptability exhibited by the grippers; a high level of endurance and durability; an adequate level of precision force control; and replicable performance across different environments. The study also

concludes that further research is needed to create grippers that achieve human-like performance; sensor-integrated grippers that can safely and effectively handle unknown objects are the end goal.

Yi, B., et al. [20] introduced a new parallel-type robotic gripper with a parallelogrammic platform designed to flexibly fold and conform and to grasp irregular or larger objects, as well as follow precise micro-positioning. The study utilized a design, model, optimize, and experimentally validate approach to creating a configuration-controllable gripper for handling many shapes and performing accurate post-grasp changes. The approach used mathematical modeling for direct and inverse kinematics, force control, and workspace analysis. Optimization was achieved with both single and composite indices like isotropy and grasping force that were completed with a genetic algorithm. Pneumatic actuation with a custom miniaturized proportional valve was applied to the gripper, while utilizing motion tracking and using pressure and motion feedback for indirect force measurements. The results of the study demonstrated the gripper successfully grasped irregular and large objects while achieving high-precision micro-positioning. The experimental validation showed the gripper was able to successfully track motion while using it to demonstrate indirect force control enabled by pneumatic actuation. The study proposed research gaps, while considering the practical errors observed during testing, such as friction generated in the pneumatic actuators and the difficulty of initializing each respective actuator smoothly. The study suggested improving reliability and increasing application of the gripper as necessary improvements the gripper would need to make would be to improve actuator sensitivity as well as improve pneumatic actuator friction.

3. Methodology

This research employs an experimental comparative design to investigate the impacts of internal structural geometries on the functioning of 3D-printed soft grippers constructed from thermoplastic polyurethane (TPU). Three types of internal geometries: circular, linear, and zigzag, were proposed to examine the consequences of structure on performance criteria including grip force, deformation range, adaptability, slip resistance, and durability. The material (TPU) is constant while the geometry is varied, thus performance differences observed are due to internal structure variation and not material variation. The experimental process was separated into three experimental components: design, fabrication, and evaluation.

Thermoplastic polyurethane (TPU) was selected for the fabrication material in this study due to its particular combination of flexibility, durability, and relative ease of processing as a suitable material to use for soft robotics. Unlike rigid polymers, TPU can be formulated to have a very high elongation at break, typically ranging anywhere between 400–600%, and consequently allows for considerable deformation in the gripper claws without rupture. This elasticity of TPU is especially valuable for soft gripper design as it provides the potential for adaptive and safe grasping of fragile or irregularly shaped objects. TPU also offers high fatigue resistance, meaning that it retains its mechanical properties across

repeated cycles of loading and unloading. This resistance to fatigue assists in evaluating the long-term durability of the claws under cyclic actuation. TPU has favorable surface properties for gripping as its higher coefficient of friction minimizes slip between the claw surface and smooth or delicate objects, which improves overall grasping stability. On a practical level, TPU is also compatible with the fused deposition modeling (FDM) 3D printing process with an ability to precisely control the internal geometry of the claws and a quick, repeatable prototyping capability. The increased use of TPU in industrial and consumer applications (wearable devices, cushioning systems, and robotic components) supports its relevance and practicality as a research material. TPU is favored as a material of choice compared to other soft gripper materials (silicone elastomers, natural rubber, and hydrogels) that are commonly used in dynamic gripper applications, because TPU offers an outstanding balance of: mechanical strength, flexibility, and can be manufactured. Lastly, silicone is very compliant and biocompatible and offers high elasticity but an undesirable tear resistance and durability to cyclic loads, which lead to mechanical failure during repeated grasps. Natural rubber offers suitable elasticity and bold strength but is susceptible to degradation over time from environmental factors, such as ozone exposure and its limited design freedom of additive manufacturing. Hydrogels are great materials for their highly adaptive and bioinspired gripping because of their extreme softness but have low tensile strength, high water content, and insufficient stability for long-term use which limits their applicability for industrial or high-load applications. TPU provides a balance of the elasticity necessary for an adaptive grip while maintaining high tensile strength, abrasion resistance, and elongation at break providing the material with the strength to sustain repeated deformations while maintaining structural integrity. Considering possible additions, TPU can be fabricated using modern additive manufacturing methods like fused filament fabrication (FFF) and selective laser sintering (SLS), which are more viable and scalable than cast silicone or hydrogel systems due to lower fabrication time and costs. The combined mechanical properties of TPU provide for a more robust maze of elasticity and tensile strength than rubber or hydrogel making it a more reliable and versatile material option for soft robotic grippers operating in both research and industrial design settings.

Apart from the specified material selection, our project is interested in three internal geometries: circular, linear, and zigzag since the inner structure of the soft gripper relates to its mechanical behaviors during actuation. Circular geometry provides isotropic deformation, meaning that bending flexibility occurs uniformly in a variety of bending directions. This will enhance adaptability to non-uniform or rounded object surfaces, despite likely resulting in lower maximum grip force due to the reduced stiffness. Linear geometry, on the other hand, establishes directional compliance in the line's axis that provides greater grip strength and stability in interactions with symmetrical objects. Similarly, adapting to non-uniform shapes is limited with this design. Zigzag geometry establishes an alternating internal stress path that includes flexibility and stiffness elements. It is believed that this hybrid structure will better balance between flexibility and grip force, and while not assumed, provide some torsional stress resistance

compared to either strict line or circular structural designs. The gripper is a tendon-driven assembly actuated by a single rotary servo.

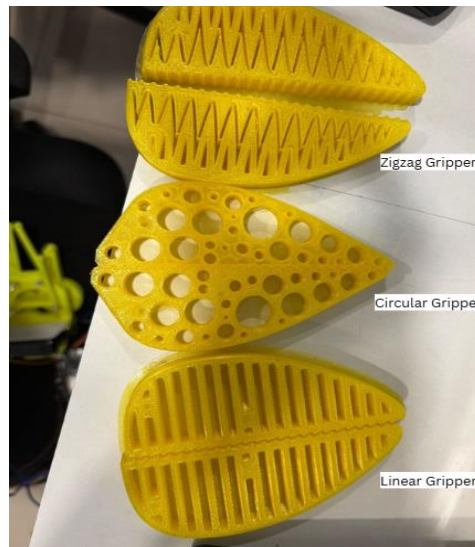


Figure 1. TPU Printed Grippers with Different Internal Geometries

By selecting TPU as the constant material and varying only the internal geometrical structures, this study aims to isolate and compare the effects of geometry on gripper performance. This approach not only ensures that performance differences can be directly attributed to geometry but also provides insight into the trade-offs and synergies between structural design and material properties.

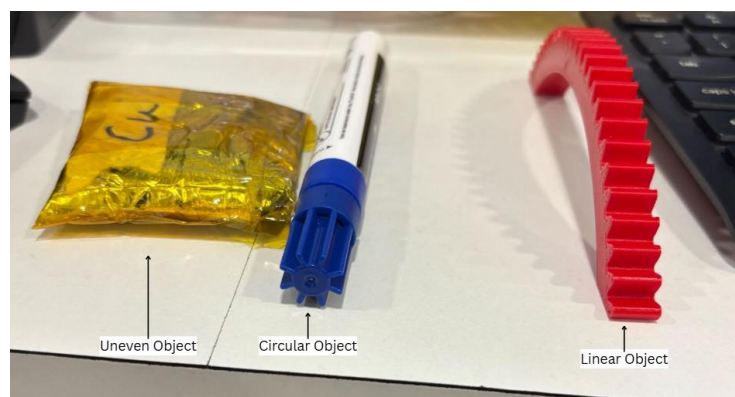


Figure 2. Different Objects used

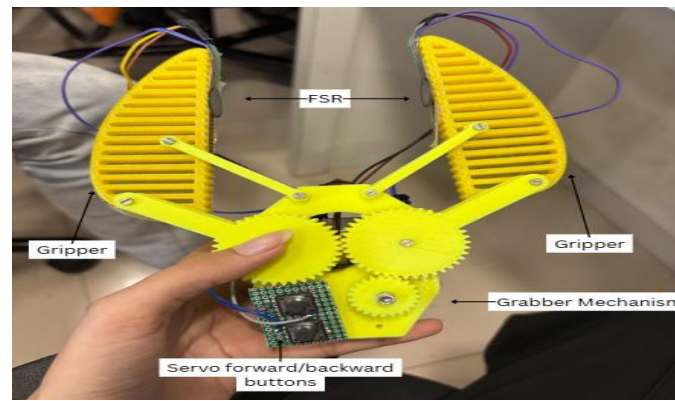


Figure 3. Grabber Mechanism

The gripper mechanism was built with a servo motor connecting to a spur gear train that converts rotary movement into symmetric linear motion of the two gripping arms. The servo motor is controlled with dedicated forward and backward buttons embedded into the gripper case, which enables user control when actuating the gripper in either direction. The dimensions of the jaws are modular, allowing for three different internal shapes linear, circular, and zigzag designed with a made-out-of TPU material, allowing for manipulation and investigation on how surface topology affects distributed gripping forces. Force Sensitive Resistors (FSRs) were incorporated along the inner gripping surfaces to measure real-time contact force at the point of manipulation. In the experiment, the jaws are grasping three representative object types linear, circular, and uneven with passes applied under the same actuation process. For every trial, the servo motor would be commanded to turn at a constant angular displacement rate while the jaws close until the gripper firmly contacts the object, while the FSR continuously writes down normal force values each trial. An ESP microcontroller was used as the central processing unit for this experimental process with actuation and sensing responsibilities. The servo mechanism that actuates the gear-based grabber was wired to the ESP, with a pair of momentary push-buttons controlling forward and backward rotation of the servo shaft.

This controlled actuation facilitates repeatability of the gripper jaw's opening and closing. Strain gauges, termed Force Sensitive Resistors (FSR), are integrated into the inner contact surfaces of the grippers to quantify the gripping force. Each FSR is interfaced to the ESP using a voltage divider circuit; the FSR functions as a variable resistance/load, whereby the resistive variation under load transduces to an analog voltage output. As the gripper jaws apply grip to the object, the mechanical pressure contacts the FSR and compresses the material, consequently resulting in a reduction of resistance and a proportional increase in the output voltage signal. The ESP samples the signals using the onboard ADC, and measures the amount of real-time grip force. Each trial, ten consecutive measurements are recorded, repeated across nine trials that represent three internal geometries for the grippers (linear, circular, and zigzag), and three object categories (linear, circular, and uneven). The protocol of consecutive samples measures covariance between observations and serves to reduce stochastic noise, aiding in statistical averaging or measurement reliability and precision. The servo actuation was operated in a standardized protocol over all trials to control for differences in closure

speed in the trial convergence, serving to understand the confounding influence of geometry to grip and force distribution. This integrated circuit and sensing architecture provides a robust means of analyzing the relationship between gripper geometry, object shape, and force exertion, thereby yielding insights into the optimization of soft robotic gripping mechanisms.

4. Results and Analysis

The experimental data was used to examine the performance of three distinctly different grabber geometries, Linear, Circular, and Zigzag, on three different objects, Linear, Circular, and Uneven. The main metrics analyzed were the readings from two force-sensitive resistors, FSR 1 and FSR 2, and Flex sensors, which analyzed the distribution and magnitude of the applied grip force.

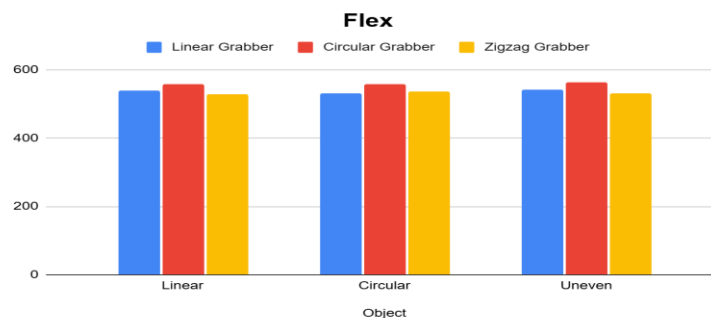


Figure 4. Flexibility of each type of grabber with each type of object

Figure 4 indicates the flexibility measurements for each of the three types of grabbers, Linear, Circular, and Zigzag, for the three types of object shapes, Linear, Circular, and Uneven. In general, each one of the grabbers were fairly consistent in terms of flexibility with values ranging approximately from 500–560. The Circular Grabber had the highest overall flexibility for every object type, slightly surpassing both the Linear Grabber and the Zigzag Grabber in the comparison. The flexibility for the Zigzag Grabber was moderately less than the other two grabbers, although the difference is minimal across design types indicating a similar performance for each design. There was no change in flexibility attributed to object type, demonstrating that grabber design should have a greater impact on flexibility compared to shape of the gripped object.

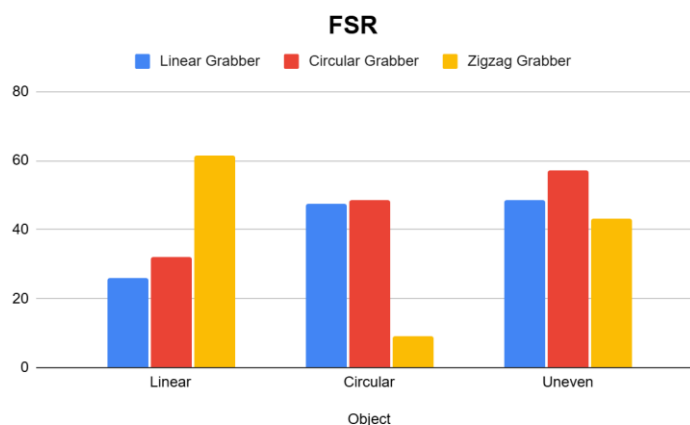


Figure 5. Force for each type of grabber with each type of object

The force exerted by each grabber type, measured by force-sensitive resistors (FSRs), is illustrated in Figure 5 using the same object types. These results show different trends than the flexibility data with grabber performance being more influenced by grabber type as well as object geometry. For Linear objects, the Zigzag Grabber applied the most force (~61) compared to Linear (~26) and Circular (~32) grabbers. This suggests that the Zigzag configuration is most effective at generating grip force on objects with consistent geometry. Referring to Circular objects, the Linear and Circular Grabbers both applied similar force (~48); however, the Zigzag applied very little force (~9). This suggests that Zigzag design is ineffective at gripping objects that are round shaped. The Zigzag design may not be applied to uniform geometry of round objects due to creating less conforming surfaces that contact the object. Lastly, when examining the Uneven objects, the Circular Grabber applied the most force found (~57) while the Linear and Zigzag Grabbers (~48 and ~43 respectively) showed less force applied. This follows the pattern of the Circular Grabber being very adaptable to odd shapes and designs while the Zigzag was somewhat effective.

If long straight shapes are the preferred options for linear products, the Linear grabber is the ideal style of grabber as its design can lay flat on linear surfaces for good contact and a strong grip to act on a straight-edge surface. However, linear grabbers have difficulty adapting to the shape of circular or uneven objects with curves, which results in weak and inconsistent grips. Its application is not adaptable and limited when factors of curves or uneven surfaces are present. On the other hand, the Circular grabber is indicated for circular and uneven objects, displaying when its geometry allows itself to adapt naturally to the curved object or an uneven surface providing grip you can depend on. It is very effective when you need grip adaptability to seek access to circular and uneven or irregular objects. The Circular grabber performs less effectively when working with linear objects, but is still capable of adequately holding linear shapes with moderate stability, again demonstrating some flexibility of application. The Zigzag grabber is very effective for linear objects as it provides grip that is firm and stable both when working on standard linear objects and uneven or irregular objects with your treatment design. The Zigzag grabber does not work well for circular objects as the Zigzag shape will not conform adequately to access the circular dimensions which leads to weak grip performance.

5. Conclusion

This study systematically investigated the influence of internal geometrical structures circular, linear, and zigzag on the performance of soft grippers fabricated from thermoplastic polyurethane (TPU). By keeping the material constant and varying only the internal geometry, the results clearly demonstrated that geometry is a critical factor shaping the balance between grip force, deformation range, adaptability, slip resistance, and durability.

The results demonstrate that gripper geometry is a critical determinant of performance. The Linear gripper excels in handling linear objects, delivering firm and stable grip but showing limited adaptability to non-linear or irregular shapes. The Circular gripper, in contrast, exhibits superior adaptability, conforming effectively to circular and uneven objects, making it ideal for tasks requiring

versatile and secure grasping of irregular shapes. The Zigzag gripper offers a balanced compromise between strength and flexibility, performing reliably with linear and uneven objects but underperforming with circular objects.

This research systematically examined the effects of internal geometrical structure - circular, linear and zigzag - on the performance of soft grippers fabricated from thermoplastic polyurethane (TPU). The outcomes clearly showed that geometry plays a significant role in balancing grip force, deformation range, adaptability, slip resistance, and durability, while keeping the material the same and just changing internal geometry.

The outcomes indicate that gripper geometry is an important determining factor of performance. The Linear gripper is most effective at processing linear objects, exhibiting a strong, stable grip with limited adaptability to non-linear or irregular shapes. The Circular gripper, on the other hand, considerably extends adaptability even to circular or uneven objects making it the best design for work requiring a versatile, secure grasp of irregular shapes. The Zigzag gripper provides a middle ground between strength and flexibility, but is less effective with circular objects when compared to the Circular gripper, but is effective for linear and uneven objects.

In conclusion, this research emphasizes on the interdependence between geometry and material for performance. While TPU proves to be a durable material, internal geometry does have an impact on task specified performance. Future work should focus on the comparative framework by using multi-material printing, and dynamic control mechanisms to ensure adaptability, strength, and reliability.

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Akash Ahlawat¹, Ashish Phogat², Upender Punia³, Deepak Chhabra⁴, Ravinder Kumar Sahdev⁵

^{1,2,3,4,5}Department of Mechanical Engineering, University Institute of Engineering and Technology, Maharshi Dayanand University, Rohtak, Haryana, India

Modeling and Optimization of FFF Processing for Mechanical Performance in rPLA /MWCNT Nanocomposites using GA-ANFIS

Abstract:

This research examines the role of Multi-Walled Carbon Nanotubes (MWCNT)-reinforced Recycled Polylactic Acid (rPLA/MWCNT) nanocomposites and critical Fused Filament Fabrication (FFF) processing variables in determining the tensile strength of the printed components. The rPLA/MWCNT nanocomposite filament was manufactured by extrusion using the 3Devo filament maker. Tensile test samples were produced using an FFF 3D Printer, Snapmaker 2.0 A350, conforming to the ASTM D638 type IV standard. A FIE's UNITEK-94,100 Universal Testing Machine (UTM) was employed to assess the tensile behaviour, focusing on how MWCNT concentration and FFF settings affect the material's fracture resistance. Based on the experimental results from a Central Composite Design (CCD) in Response Surface Methodology (RSM), yielding the highest tensile strength of 41 MPa at 4% MWCNT Concentration, 30 mm/s Print speed, 4 Wall count, and with a gyroid Infill pattern. Initially, an Adaptive Neuro-Fuzzy Inference System (ANFIS) model was trained and validated using experimental data to predict the material's strength response accurately. Subsequently, a coupled Genetic Algorithm-ANFIS (GA-ANFIS) methodology was used to determine the optimised combination of MWCNT content and FFF parameters that maximises the tensile strength of rPLA/MWCNT parts. The GA refined these predictions, leading to an optimised set of parameters (4.5% MWCNT Concentration, 35 mm/s print speed, 6 wall count, and Gyroid infill pattern) and predicted the highest tensile strength of 45.4231 MPa, which was confirmed by experimental testing with a small error of 2.4 %.

Keywords: Nanocomposites, FFF, GA-ANFIS, rPLA/MWCNT, Tensile Strength

Amyra Pasricha¹, Hitendra Vaishnav²

¹Vasant Valley School

Design and Evaluation of Spirulina Algae Biofilter Using Exhaust Fan for Industrial Flue Gas Mitigation and Biomass Generation

Abstract

This study demonstrates the design and testing of a biofilter system that uses Spirulina algae to dissipate flue gas emissions from industry while producing biomass. In following the urgent call for affordable carbon capture technology, this study approaches Spirulina, an algae that has an economic and environmental appeal because of its high rates of photosynthesis, rapid growth, and its tolerance to extreme conditions, including industrial carbon dioxide (CO₂) levels. The system uses an exhaust fan to cycle flue gas into the biofilter, a bubbling system to maximize gas-liquid interaction, and a series of real-time monitoring using a temperature gauge, pH meter, and CO₂ indicating bellow to maintain optimal algal growth and photosynthetic conditions. Experimental results confirmed the lethality of Spirulina algae demonstrated by the attenuation of CO₂ concentrations from inlet to outlet of the biofilter. The algal culture also showed a steady increase in biomass, demonstrating a transfer from inorganic carbon to organic substance. Spirulina demonstrated CO₂ absorption rates of 11-13%, which was under optimum conditions, and showed a high tolerance to CO₂ levels usually present in industrial emissions. This biomass is an additional economic benefit with different applications such as biofuels, food, fertilizers, and drugs. The study concludes that Spirulina is a promising organism for carbon capture and biomass production in a controlled setup. The compact, sensor-integrated biofilter system effectively simulates industrial conditions conducive to algal growth, suggesting that microalgae-based systems could play a critical role in climate change mitigation. While the current research was conducted in a laboratory environment, future efforts will focus on scaling the system for real-world industrial applications and evaluating its long-term efficiency and economic viability.

Keywords: *Spirulina, Biofilter, Biomass Production, Carbon Dioxide Absorption, Industrial Emissions Mitigation*

1. Introduction

The atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO₂) levels are rapidly rising, causing an imbalance in the global climate. The primary contributing factor is the industrial gases (flue gas). Industrial CO₂ significantly affects the greenhouse effect, resulting in global warming and climate change [1][7]. This effect causes an increase in the frequency of intense weather events, rise in sea level, and disruptions in the ecosystem. Moreover, CO₂ exposure poses risks to health. Depending on the concentration and duration of exposure, the symptoms can range from headaches and drowsiness to rapid breathing,

confusion, elevated heart rate, elevated blood pressure, dizziness and in severe cases, unconsciousness or even death [8]. Since CO₂ is odorless and does not cause irritation, unhealthy levels may go unnoticed until symptoms start appearing.

Considering these issues, the development of a cost-effective carbon-capturing method has become essential. Traditional Carbon Capture and Storage (CCS) technologies can capture up to 90% of CO₂ emissions from power plants, proving to be highly efficient [6] but they have high operational costs, require a lot of energy [1], and there are concerns about their long term storage safety and leakage needing a suitable geographical location for the storage sites.

On the other hand, the Direct Air Capture (DAC) mechanism removes CO₂ directly from the atmosphere, which makes it flexible in terms of installation, allowing it to be installed independently of emission sources. However, DAC consumes high levels of energy and can prove to be expensive. Additionally, it also requires significant renewable energy and infrastructure along with developments in many areas [19][33]. One other promising method is mineralization, which converts CO₂ into stable minerals. This offers permanent storage and its byproducts can be used. However, this process is quite lengthy as it has slow natural reaction rates and faces geographical constraints. Bioenergy with Carbon Capture and Storage (BECCS) has the potential to achieve negative emissions by generating renewable energy while simultaneously capturing CO₂ but it may compete with food production for land and water. Its efficiency depends on feedstock and land management practices [33].

Among these methods, algae-based Carbon Capture seems to be the most promising technique. Algae efficiently use photosynthesis to convert CO₂ into organic biomass at rates that surpass many other terrestrial plants. Through photosynthesis, algae uses sunlight, water, and CO₂ to produce biomass and oxygen. This biomass can be processed into biofuels, animal feed, fertilizers, and other valuable products [2]. The dual-function nature of this method not only reduces atmospheric CO₂ but it also helps create useful resources. This makes the algae-based biofilters, i.e. photobioreactors, attractive as they offer various advantages, such as quick growth rates, minimal freshwater requirements, and their ability to thrive in diverse environments, including saline and wastewater. These systems can be directly integrated with the emission sources - capturing CO₂ at the point where flue gas is released, converting it into useful byproducts. Photobioreactors have shown up to 85% of CO₂ sequestration efficiency under optimal conditions, resulting in almost double the biomass within hours. Since this method thrives in both non arable land and non potable water, it reduces the competition with food crops, and the sale of the byproducts can help with the operational costs [2].

While these advantages indicate this method to be quite promising, it does pose a few challenges like scalability, economic feasibility, and operational optimization. Recent developments in reactor design, strain selection, and process integration have improved performance significantly, however further study needs to be conducted for large scale deployment. While traditional methods such as CCS and DAC have their merits, their drawbacks highlight the need for new and innovative solutions. Algae-based biofiltration systems offer a compelling alternative and hold significant potential for future

climate change mitigation [2].

2. Literature Review

Cantú, et al. [3] aimed to achieve high biomass productivity while effectively removing nutrients, particularly reducing chemical oxygen demand (COD) and enhancing resource recovery. The research conducted was batch experiments, using varying whey dilutions and a modified Schlösser medium with CO₂ to promote algal growth. It was reported a maximum biomass of 3.31 g·L⁻¹ on day 13 and with high COD removal rates of 98.88% and a lipid accumulation of 7.07 g of lipid per 100 g of biomass occurred in cultures where the algal growth was driven by CO₂-only, implying lipid accumulation due to nutrient restrictions. Notwithstanding the findings in these experiments, there were important limitations noted, that highlighted the lack of potential for high dry biomass as a result of rapid depletion of COD, there was a lack of long-term stability saws for whey as a growth medium for consideration and the need to assess the nutrient profile of whey in greater detail for the eventual design of the spatial medium for planning large scale cultivation.

Oruganti, et al. [10], the aim was to examine the possible economic and environmental benefits of using CO₂ originating from biogas to grow *Spirulina* and enhance bioproductivity with potential benefits related to the operations of waste-water treatment and biogas upgrading. The study set up two reactors, including one with biogas as the carbon source and another with air, for yielding significantly different bioproductivity under natural sunlight conditions with controlled sparging at 0.8 L/min biogas and 1.5 L/min air sparging flow rates, respectively. They assessed lipid amount, productivity of biomass and specific growth rates over time. They concluded that the biogas-sparged reactor outperformed the air-sparged reactor with four times better biomass productivity of 0.123 g/L/day and higher specific growth rate of 0.48/day. Additionally, the biogas-sparged reactor outperformed the other reactor in a faster time to reach saturation and produced biomass with higher lipid content which suggests it could yield a better feedstock for production as a biofuel. Notwithstanding these results, gaps remain in the study involving optimal design and biogas sparging rates, quantifiable CO₂ uptake, and the sustainability of biogas CO₂ as the sole gas source in large scale cultivating systems.

Lopes, et al. [5] aimed to identify bioproducts derived from *Spirulina* in biorefineries and sustainability contributions. They utilized the integrative literature review framework to answer the main question: "What bioproducts can be produced in a *Spirulina* biorefinery and how can it add value to sustainability?" This study collected relevant literature in different languages by screening the titles and abstracts & by employing the Web of science, Google Scholar, CAPES Periodicals. The results indicated that *Spirulina* has the potential to produce bioproducts such as biofuels, food, feed, valuable bioactive compounds, and wastewater remediation or soil enhancement. In addition, microalgal biorefineries through biomass utilization, pollution mitigation, and emission reductions can enhance sustainability. However, this study also identified significant research gaps related to operational costs,

biomass consistency, and the need for technologies that have broad applicability for broad practice. Chunzhuk and collaborators [9] investigated the efficiency of capturing CO₂ in microalga *Arthrospira platensis* at high CO₂ concentrations; 1, 5, and 9 vol. %, considering growth rate, quality biomass, and biochemical compositions. The experiment was conducted over 15 days at 1, 5, and 9 CO₂ vol.% concentrations in a 90 L photobioreactor containing Zarrouk's medium, where the parameters of optical density, decreasing CO₂ concentration, and pH were routinely measured. The results demonstrated that CO₂ was reduced to the greatest desired amount at 5 vol.%, biomass was growing optimally at 1 and 5 vol. % CO₂ concentrations but at 9 vol.% CO₂ there was less growth and less pH alongside diminished lipid and protein content that was consistent with stressful metabolic conditions for the algae. One limitation found in the experiment at 9 vol.% CO₂ concentrations was unregulated microbial contaminations that might have confounded results, there by justifying conclusive future control studies to evaluate the productivity and controllability of microalgal productivity and comparably quality biomass, through separately isolated co-factors, during prolonged durations in large photobioreactors.

Glazunova et al. [12] evaluated three microalgae species - *Chlorella vulgaris*, *Scenedesmus obliquus*, and *Spirulina platensis* - capturing CO₂ from industrial emissions to show their potential for applications in biofuels and animal feed. All species were investigated in a photobioreactor, using transparent flasks and continuous illumination at 25°C during a 7-day study. Data collection included biomass yield, CO₂ biofixation, and biochemical composition, the results statistically validated by Fisher test. Of the three microalgae species, *C. vulgaris* had the highest biomass yield (2.68 g/L) and protein content (64.0%), followed by *Sp. platensis* with highest lipid content (23.0%). *Sc. obliquus* had the lowest biomass and protein content across the board. Overall, while the study has potential results, it only represented 3 species in a lab setting, indicating that more studies using more species and under standard environmental conditions for a longer duration will be necessary for determining sustainability and economic viability.

Parthiban, et al. [14] authored a review article titled "Reducing the Carbon Footprint through Cultivating and Consuming *Spirulina*" to review the potential of *Arthrospira platensis* (*Spirulina*) as an environmentally beneficial option for carbon emission reduction. By analyzing existing literature, the authors explored *Spirulina* photosynthesis, its ability to capture CO₂ from a planctonic state, from various sources and from the atmosphere as gases. The review noted the biomass productivity of *Spirulina*, rapid growth cycle of *Spirulina*, and the potential of *Spirulina* cultivation next to industrial emissions to mitigate their carbon emissions. The review also pointed out the status of *Spirulina*, as GRAS (Generally Recognized As Safe) food item, providing a way to promote global consumption and economic value. However, the review identified several knowledge gaps including economic viability, technological requirements and ecological consequences of mass cultivation. The authors acknowledged that the use of *Spirulina* for carbon emissions reduction needs additional study to understand long-term viability and potential use in industrial and agricultural systems.

Iglina and colleagues [18] sought to evaluate the ability of microalgae to capture carbon dioxide (CO₂) emissions from industrial sources, specifically as either a third-generation biofuel. This investigation consisted of a literature review of previous research on cultivation and experimental studies on *Scenedesmus* sp. and *Chlorella* sp. microalgae cultured in an environment with flue gases from coal-fired power plants and refineries. The algae were grown in nutrient media (F/2 and F/2A) and exposed to a high concentration of CO₂ to determine the absorption of pollutants. The resultant rate of CO₂ fixation, as well as other gaseous compounds was reported. Moreover, the authors reported that *Chlorella vulgaris* MTF-7 had the best exponential growth and CO₂ fixation efficiency (60%). The algae were also able to capture NO (70%) and SO₂ (50%). In conclusion, the authors believed that the ability to cultivate algae using a mix of flue gas, but also stressed a number of major gaps in research, such as an understanding of what parameter(s) could produce maximum biomass productivity, or how many studies have focused on the thermochemical processing of algae versus other biofuels.

Laamanen et al. [20] aimed to assess the potential of microalgae as a sustainable method for capturing industrial CO₂ emissions while producing biofuels. The aspects of economic feasibility and technological advancements were considered. The study analyzed almost all the various microalgae cultivation systems, particularly phototrophic methods, setting forth both the superior CO₂ capture capacity and CO₂-rich off-gas utilization of microalgae in comparison to terrestrial plants. The study, while successfully substantiating the aspects of CO₂ sequestration and biomass production, indicated that current economic conditions act as a handicap to the competitiveness of microalgal biofuels as an energy source. Nevertheless, the author proposed that sustained rises in fossil fuel prices and advances in culture technologies would work in favor of microalgal systems being closer to achieving economic viability. Research gaps were identified in, for instance, improving production technologies and further researching sustainable and large-scale biomass production systems in using microalgae for industrial emissions reduction.

Duarte, et al. [21] investigated the CO₂ biofixation performance of *Spirulina* sp and looked at how initial biomass concentration and design of the photobioreactor influenced the final performance by comparing tubular and raceway systems at two biomass concentrations 0.2 g/L and 0.4 g/L. The carbon source was 10% CO₂ and flow rate was set at 0.05 vvm. Growth parameters were measured and included biomass productivity and maximum specific growth rate. The growth parameters were determined by applying linear regression to the logarithmically transformed growth data. Both tubular photobioreactors and raceway systems were analyzed and the results indicate that tubular photobioreactors exhibited a specific growth rate of 0.450 d⁻¹ which was 43% greater than the specific growth rate for raceway systems (0.314 d⁻¹) which also had a CO₂ biofixation efficiency rate of 0.1 g CO₂/g biomass per day, and a higher biomass yield than raceway systems (210% greater than raceway). The lower initial biomass concentration of 0.2 g/L results indicated a 42% increase in specific growth rate than the higher initial biomass concentration. As mentioned, the study did not provide any information on the economic feasibility of scaling up the systems or a long-term

sustainability position although they clearly noted the potential for enhanced CO₂ biofixation efficiency by obtaining more detailed information on Spirulina growth and fixation efficiency at varied CO₂ levels and other environmental parameters that influence Spirulina.

Zhu, Baohua, et al. [22] set out to assess the viability of Spirulina for large scale biotechnological CO₂ mitigation via low-cost cultivation in open raceway ponds utilizing purified CO₂ from coal chemical flue gas. The study first screened nine Spirulina strains (in columnar photobioreactors with 10% CO₂) to determine the most promising strains and followed by determining optimal pH, dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) and phosphate concentrations for two selected strains (208 and 220) in 4 m² indoor raceway ponds. The two best strains were then semi-continuously cultivated in 605 m² raceway ponds using food-grade CO₂. The results indicated that good growth was achieved at pH 9.5, DIC 0.1 mol/L and phosphate 400 mg/L. Strain 208 (average daily biomass of 18.7 g/m²/day) had a higher average daily biomass than strain 220 (average daily biomass of 13.2g/m²/day) making 208 optimal. These conditions achieved effective CO₂ fixation and biomass production with Spirulina. Overall, while the results of this study showed promise for establishing Spirulina as a bioprocess capable of sequestering CO₂ at large scales, there were limitations on process optimization and applications for Spirulina cultivation and CO₂ sequestration, warranting future investigations.

Anguselvi, et al. [23] sought to require an environmentally friendly and sustainable CO₂ capturing process with algae, so it could be classified as an alternative to conventional chemical processes. They isolated freshwater algal species (Hydrodictyon, Spirogyra, Oscillatoria, Oedogonium and Chlorella) based on fast growth, high rates of photosynthesis, gas tolerance and the potential to create valuable by-products. CO₂ capture trials were performed in 400 ml and 25 L flat-panel photobioreactors using industrial sources containing 90–99% from natural gas processing and 13–15% CO₂ from power plant flue gases. The experiments showed that algae capture CO₂ while developing commercially valuable products such as amino acid feed, algal oil and pellets. The study found research knowledge gaps related to the costs of algae cultivation systems; and the systems must be efficient and cost-effective. There were also commercialization barriers that must overcome and require further grown technologies and scale-up research to address.

Yildirim, & Rana. [25] assessed the viability of Spirulina microalgae as a nature-based solution for removing carbon dioxide (CO₂) from the atmosphere and its development for secondary uses in environmental management. The team undertook a thorough literature review to assess best operating systems and growth conditions necessary for the cultivation of Spirulina including temperature, pH, nutrient supply and illumination. The significant applications considered included CO₂ sequestration, pigment production, produced water remediation and soil amendment. The research concluded that Spirulina has the potential to remove up to 50 tons of CO₂ per hectare per year if the growth conditions are optimal. Furthermore, Spirulina produces natural pigments and is a good source of bio-fertilizer

and biomass for produced water remediation. While the research provided relevant concepts and conclusions, it also identified a lack of knowledge about large-scale economics, process optimization and scale-up of similar systems in reality. In conclusion, there is considerable potential for *Spirulina* as an ecosystem service solution for climate change mitigation and sustainable development; however, further research is needed to develop the operational and economic cases.

Moreira et al. [26] conducted a study to assess the role of CO₂ as the carbon source of *Spirulina* sp. LEB 18 and *Chlorella fusca* LEB 111 in semi-continuous cultivation based on biomass composition and production efficiency. The study compared independent nutrient renewal schedules (20% and 40%), used 10% CO₂ (v/v), and measured key growth factors in a controlled laboratory environment using vertical tubular photobioreactors. Growth parameters such as biomass productivity, specific growth rate, and biopolymer yield of both species were measured. Results indicated that *Spirulina* sp. LEB 18 outperformed *Chlorella fusca* than both species in kinetic responses and biopolymer production around 39.7% biomass increase using CO₂, and largest protein yield (60.1% at 20% renewal). The study found that the use of CO₂ determined optimum growth rate between both species also enhanced lipid accumulation in other specific nutrients, yet to achieve a successful outcome the study stressed improvements in nutrient limitations (nitrogen and phosphates) must be reached to explore economic feasibility for large-scale applications. Additionally, the semi-continuous method demonstrated cost-savings against future developments and greenhouse gas emissions by using CO₂ and also light energy while businesses were undertaken with feedstocks provided by the cultivation methods.

The research conducted by Wilson, et al. [27] indicated the ability to capture and recycle industrial CO₂ emissions by using microalgae with a pilot-scale photobioreactor (PBR) system. The PBR system was trialled at a coal-fired power plant, and a new often referred to digitally as a cyclic flow PBR was designed using a native *Scenedesmus acutus* strain with intermittent fluid packing and mechanical cleaning to minimize energy use and biofilm formation. The project developed the PBR system to operate for a 5 month continuous period from May to September 2015, and achieved an 44% average CO₂ capture efficiency during daylight hours, with a maximum CO₂ capture of 81% under optimal solar hours. Phase 1 of the PBR system project also removed 100% of SO_x, and captured 41.5% of the amount of NO_x in the flue gas produced in the combustion process of the coal plant. A solar shading analysis of tube spacing in the PBR was performed using the Autodesk Ecotect software, and showed increasing biomass productivity of the flue gas emissions were improved generally by locating the tubes closer together in the facility (further increasing self-shading at that spacing). Phase 1 of the PBR system study generally showed the opportunity for algae based CO₂ mitigation to become a secondary pollution control technique and as a biomass that can be sent to market. The research notes existing limitations related to the PBR reactor layout, associated costs, and the challenges to expand

both in the scale of a species to be commercially viable and increasingly reduce the costs of construction and operation.

Jorge, et al. [28] had the objective to evaluate the use of *Spirulina* sp. LEB 18 and *Scenedesmus obliquus* LEB 22 for the biofixation of carbon dioxide (CO_2) from flue gas taken from a coal fired power station. The authors were primarily interested in the productivity of the biomass generated by kinetic growth and biochemical composition. The experiment was undertaken in raceway type photobioreactors. The CO_2 -rich flue gas was used as the source of carbon replacing bicarbonate in the culture media. The results showed an interesting comparison between the two strains of algae (*S. obliquus* displayed lower biomass productivity and growth possibly due to toxic compounds in the flue gas). Under conditions with flue gas *Spirulina* demonstrated a 24% CO_2 reduction with a maximum rate of efficiency of 5.66% and displayed a 35% increase in biomass, whereas the *S. obliquus* LEB 22 demonstrated less productivity and growth possibly due to *S. obliquus* LEB 22 being sensitive to the toxic components of the flue gas. Both samples generated biomass with a high protein and lipid content indicating both species could serve as a bioproduct and/or biofuel. The authors discussed the need for future research to optimize the cultivation conditions for *S. obliquus* and suggested a more in-depth study to determine long term feasibility for industrial applications.

3. Methodology

Utilizing algae for industrial CO_2 capture is a very exciting possibility because of the high photosynthesis efficiencies, rapid growth rates, and adaptability to variable growth conditions that algae possess. Both microalgae and cyanobacteria can utilize concentrated CO_2 streams from flue gases, while also producing biomass that has commercial uses. For instance, the species of algae, *Chlorella vulgaris*, *Scenedesmus obliquus*, *Nannochloropsis gaditana*, as well and *Arthrospira platensis* (*Spirulina*) have demonstrated CO_2 assimilation rates that are considerably higher than those of terrestrial plants at rates of 10–50 times on the basis of area, making them suitable for carbon capture at an industrial scale [4]. Algae have the added benefit of being used to produce high-value bioproducts: lipids used for biodiesel (*Scenedesmus*, *Nannochloropsis*), high-protein biomass for nutraceuticals or aquaculture (*Spirulina*), carbohydrates for bioethanol (e.g., *Ulva*, a macroalga); this is not the case when looking at terrestrial plants for carbon capture because of the overall lower biomass productivity achieved with those plants. There are two important traits that set algae apart from terrestrial plants for carbon dioxide (CO_2) capture: the rate of CO_2 fixation and the abiotic and biotic stress tolerance to CO_2 . Many species have CO_2 -concentrating mechanisms (CCMs), which can actively take up inorganic carbon (i.e., HCO_3^-) and saturate the enzyme RuBisCO to improve their overall photosynthetic efficiency under elevated CO_2 . Some microalgae can tolerate CO_2 concentrations higher than 10–15% found in industrial flue gases [16]. This tolerance can occur through physiological adaptations, such as maintaining an internal pH, achieving cellular homeostasis,

and altering the photosynthetic apparatus. Natural sinking behaviours would also exist in strains like *Cyanobacterium aponinum* making long-term CO₂ sequestration possible without energy-intensive removal of biomass, although an ecological and life cycle analysis is needed.

Spirulina, one of the most effective strains reported, has shown carbon fixation rates up to 230 mg/L/day with sodium bicarbonate added as a carbon source, and had 26.7% carbon utilization efficiency [11]. Either under mixotrophic cultivation, which adds organic carbon sources (e.g., acetate) will increase metabolism and biomass production, rates of carbon fixation can be increased. *Chlorella vulgaris* and *Scenedesmus obliquus*, on the other hand showed fixation rate of 124 mg/L/day, and 88 mg/L/day under similar conditions, respectively [29]. *Spirulina* can survive under conditions that are alkaline, saline, and nitrogen limited, conditions that are observed in many waste streams. Additionally, spirulina has a high protein content, is multi-faceted as a commercial biomass, suggesting it is one of the most attractive candidates for CO₂ capture and utilization.

Algae Species/ Types	CO ₂ Fixation Rate (mg/L/day)	CO ₂ Tolerance (%)	Key Applications	Advantages	Limitations
<i>Chlorella Vulgaris</i>	~ 124	10 - 100	Flue gas remediation, Biofuels	High growth, works in PBRs and wastewater	Costs of reactor systems
<i>Scenedesmus Obliquus</i>	~ 88	~ 20	Biofuels, Wastewater treatment	High lipid content (~60%), flue gas-tolerant	Requires nutrients and CO ₂ enrichment
<i>Nannochloropsis Gaditana</i>	~ 107	2 - 10	Biodiesel production	High lipid productivity, compact size	Sensitive to nutrient shifts
<i>Spirulina Platensis</i>	~ 197	~ 10	Nutraceutical, Animal feed	Commercially proven, high protein	Lower CO ₂ uptake vs. other species

The choice of algae for biofilter systems is an evaluation of several factors, with the primary consideration being the species' ability to effectively remove target pollutants, such as CO₂ and nutrients. Microalgae and cyanobacteria are often favored because of their superior photosynthetic efficiency, strong carbon-concentrating mechanisms (CCMs), and relatively rapid growth rates in

industrial flue gas concentrations (especially CO₂). Adaptability is also crucial—species must be able to withstand changes in temperature, salinity, pH, and contaminant concentrations to sustain long-term stability. Furthermore, it would be advantageous to select an algae species that produces a potentially valuable by-product, such as proteins, pigments, or biofuels, to support the economic sustainability of algae biofilter systems. The operational feasibility of cost-effectively scaling up the algae biofilter system will also be affected by the ease of cultivation, harvesting, and immobilization of the algae.

Algae selection is only one part of having effective filtration for CO₂; within biofilter systems the engineering and design of the systems is also a factor. More advanced hybrid technologies, such as two-stage membrane biofilters, have demonstrated excellent removal efficiencies (>90%) of not only CO₂ and nutrients, but also a range of VOCs, ammonia, and hydrogen sulfide [17]. These systems have capitalized on waste gas characterization studies and system conditions that can be controlled (i.e., environment like humidity, temperature, available nutrients) so that biological activity can be maintained to stationarity. The design of the biofilter system can promote other design strategies (i.e., recirculation of air to provide better mass transfer, and gas solubility).

Spirulina represents one of the most advanced CO₂ concentrating mechanisms which constantly pumps bicarbonate into its cells allowing for carbon fixation capacity even with varying concentrations of inorganic carbon. Studies have revealed that under optimal conditions, Spirulina can achieve carbon fixation rates as high as 230 mg/L/day with sodium bicarbonate as the carbon source - and a carbon utilization efficiency of as high as 26.7%, demonstrating the dysfunctionality of the standard atmospheric process [11]. The efficiency of CO₂ fixation by Spirulina is further augmented through mixotrophic cultivation while organic carbon sources (e.g., acetate) are supplemented, which substantially increases biomass yield and CO₂ sequestration rates due to upregulated metabolic pathways [13].

From an operational perspective, Spirulina has a favorable growth morphology and dynamics that support harvesting and system maintenance strategies, which highlight the viability of Spirulina for biofiltration at a larger scale, and continuous biofiltration or carbon filtering. The bubbling design aspect is the most advantageous, gas-liquid interaction which assists in the rapid dissolution of CO₂ and accessibility for photosynthesis, which allows Spirulina to have greater potential for equilibrating CO₂ from gas phase to biomass phase. Also, the biomass has a relatively high amount of protein and other useful compounds to provide increased economic benefit, while providing sustainability. Spirulina's high CO₂ fixation potential, adaptable industrial gas capabilities, ease of cultivation, and biomass production is an excellent choice for the design [22].

The biofilter design used in this experiment uses an exhaust fan to pull flue gas, as seen in figure 1

and bubble CO₂ rich air through a Spirulina culture with the CO₂ measured downstream, permits excellent transfer of CO₂ to Spirulina and the large gas-liquor interface provides for more mass transfer. It notes the exceptional bio-fixation of CO₂ by Spirulina, as the culture grows remarkably fast and provides increased CO₂ tolerances, and can withstand fluctuations in the environment. Many studies show rapid bio-fixation rates of up to 197.4 mg/L/day of CO₂ with Spirulina at optimized conditions, and significant bio-fixation rates when subject to industrial flue gas levels of CO₂ [24].

The sequential bubbling also ensures that the CO₂ is well dissolved in the culture, and that it spreads uniformly and supports consistent photosynthesis and continuous biomass generation. This helps in generation of spirulina biomass, which can be used in food, feed, and biofuel [3]. The exhaust fan helps with active gas delivery enabling precise control over flow rates which is important for both CO₂ absorption and algae growth. Moreover, real time measurement of CO₂ at the outlet gives feedback on the system's performance, allowing adjustments to operational parameters, ensuring removal efficiency. Figure 3 shows the CAD model of the design of the filter used for this.

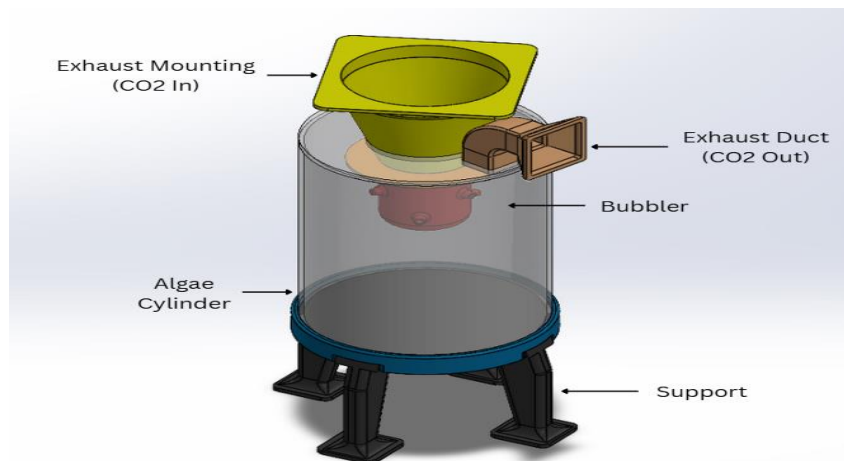


Figure 1. 3D CAD model of the algae-based carbon capture system, showcasing major components including the exhaust mounting for CO₂ inlet, exhaust duct for CO₂ outlet, algae cylinder, bubbler for gas diffusion, and support structure.

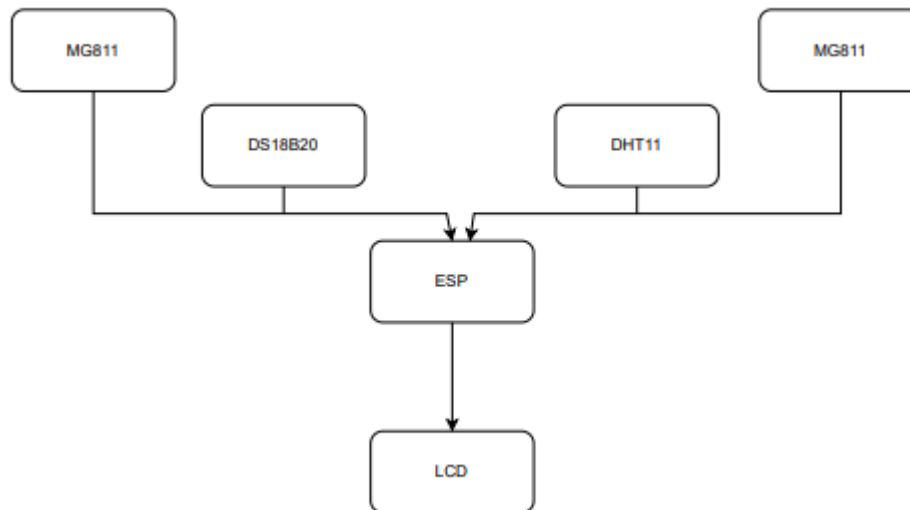


Figure 2. System block diagram illustrating the sensor network used for monitoring

Two MG-811 (CO₂ sensors) are implemented at the inlet and outlet of the system, which allows to measure the concentration of carbon dioxide, measuring CO₂ removal efficiency. This will enable tracking the variability of the CO₂ concentration as air passes through the system and help assess the absorption or release characteristics. An air pump will activate for 10 seconds after a 30-minute wait, and in that duration it will generate a bubbling motion in the system. Bubbling will promote gas exchange, circulation and mimic natural conditions, essential to keep the algae alive. 24 NeoPixel LEDs (2400 lm) are used to simulate sunlight-like light spectrum for three full days to analyze CO₂ uptake performance. The programmable LEDs will generate a sun-like light spectrum and this is critical to plant growth and photosynthesis. A DHT-11 temperature sensor will be added to measure the temperature and humidity of the system. An ESP will facilitate data collection and will display monitored data on the LCD. Data was collected at three time points each day (08:00, 12:00, 16:00), measuring ambient temperature, relative humidity, inlet CO₂ concentration, outlet CO₂ concentration, and then calculating the absolute reduction and the percentage reduction of CO₂ in the process.

By optimizing the design around *Spirulina*, the system leverages the sintering power of being able to fix CO₂, while taking advantage of the benefits from engineering gas transfer through bubbles as a practical, effective, efficient, scalable and sustainable solution, for industrial applications of flue gas - both in terms of biomass and CO₂ mitigation.

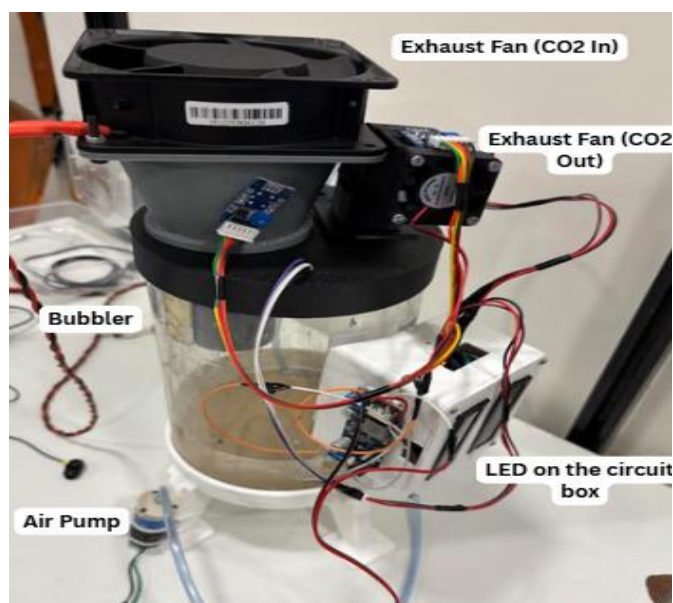


Fig 3. Assembled prototype of the carbon capture system with labeled components. CO₂ is introduced via the inlet fan, and excess is expelled through the outlet fan. The bubbler and air pump facilitate CO₂ diffusion into the algae culture. A control circuit with status LEDs monitors and regulates system performance.

The system evaluates the quantity of carbon dioxide (CO₂) absorbed by a culture of spirulina algae. Fresh air is pulled into the container by an inlet exhaust fan (CO₂ In). A CO₂ sensor on this inlet sensing the level of carbon dioxide in the air at the inlet provides reference conditions for calculations afterward. After the fresh air is introduced, it passes through a honeycomb-shaped bubbler, which breaks the air-flow into many small channels. This design produces turbulence and breaks the air into small, fine bubbles in the liquid culture and provides a high contact surface area between the gas and spirulina. An air pump was used to bubble the algae. Meanwhile, once inside the container, spirulina captures CO₂ during photosynthesis and converts it into biomass. The processed air is drawn out of the container by an exhaust fan (CO₂ Out), and a second CO₂ sensor captures the residual carbon dioxide level in the air leaving the container. With both inlet and outlet CO₂ measurements in hand, the difference between those measurements can be used to derive the net CO₂ uptake rate of the culture. This data can be used to examine the performance of the algae's carbon capture efficiency under various environmental conditions, aeration rates, or light intensities.

Results

An observable difference between inlet and outlet CO₂ concentrations demonstrated successful uptake of CO₂ by the Spirulina. Over time, the difference in concentrations grew larger, suggesting the culture has a higher rate of photosynthetic activity and CO₂ uptake as the culture matured.

Ambient temperature ranged from 27.8 °C to 33.2 °C, and humidity was in the range of 55% to 68%. Inlet CO₂ concentration, for every day, was within the range of 910–945 ppm. Outlet CO₂ concentration ranged from 790–820 ppm, indicating that every day the absolute reduction of CO₂ was

on the scale of 100–125 ppm. The percentage of CO₂ reduction was a minimum of 10.99% (Day 1, 08:00) to a maximum of 13.44% (Day 3, 12:00). The data shown above indicates an improvement to CO₂ uptake over the three days, where the mean removal efficiency increased from approximately 11.95% (Day 1) to 13.28% (Day 3). This indicated increasing photosynthetic activity as the *Spirulina* culture matured and became able to assimilate CO₂ at a higher rate.

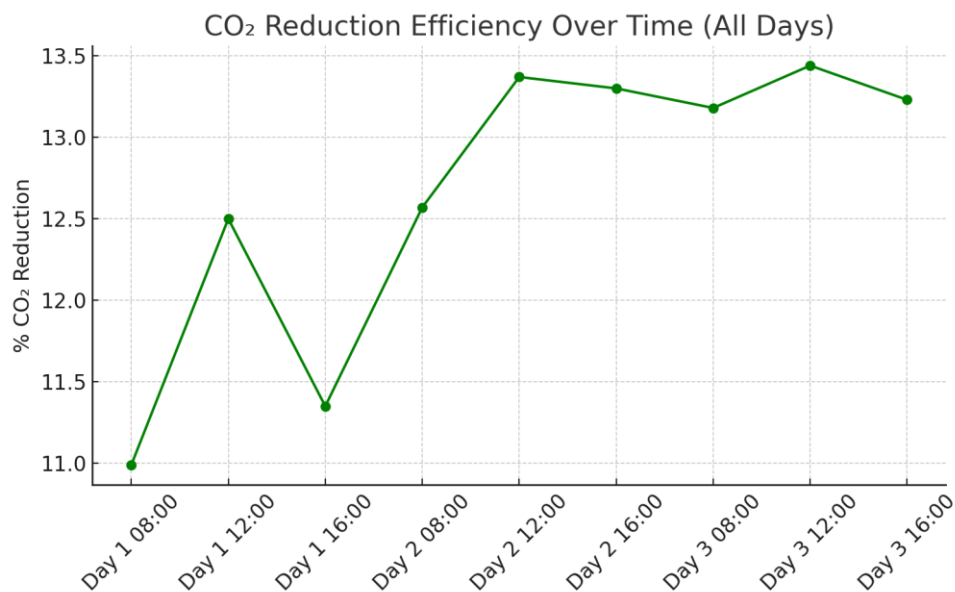


Fig 4. CO₂ reduction efficiency over time across three experimental days. The results show an increase in efficiency from Day 1 (11.0%) to Day 3 (13.4%), with minor fluctuations at different time points.

Biomass development of the culture showed gradual progress visibly by deepening colour and by weight/volume differences accumulated over time should show that it was effective to turn absorbed CO₂ into biomass. After maturing it had strong growth and high biofixation efficiency when grown in the mass concentrations of CO₂ one might find in industrial flue gases. Greatest efficiency appeared to occur in concentrations between 11-13% CO₂.

The data shows that moderate increases in temperature (approximately 30–32 °C) show increased CO₂ reduction percentages, in line with the literature which correlates optimal photosynthetic activity for *Spirulina* at those temperatures. When lower humidity levels (55–58%) were present, there tended to be slightly lower represents of removal efficiency (e.g., Day 1 at 16:00), whereas a higher humidity range (65–68%) tended to correlate with higher CO₂ reductions, which can possibly be attributed to less evaporative stress on the cultures and more stabilized conditions in the medium.

The carbonic anhydrase activity is reportedly very high in *Spirulina*, and *Spirulina* has a relatively high degree of bicarbonate usage which ensures that it sequesters more carbon than many of the conventional green algae, especially when carbon may be rare or in varying stressful conditions.

Spirulina can also utilize saline conditions in combination with nutrient stress to fix CO₂ and produce biomass, which is generally considered to be higher value biomass, in sub-optimal nutrient conditions - a very common condition in many industries which do not maintain constant nutrient inputs.

Conclusion

Given the results and implications of this analysis, we can conclude that Spirulina is a viable and efficient organism for carbon dioxide absorption and biomass production in a controlled environment, thus supporting its possible application in industrial-related CO₂ minimization methods. The implementation of a small, housed chamber system coupled with real-time environmental monitoring, allowed the project to realistically simulate the conditions for algal photosynthesis and growth.

The measurement data provided showed a steady and verifiable decrease in CO₂ levels between the inlet and outlet, which indicates active absorption of CO₂ from the air by Spirulina. This confirms the species' bio-sequestration ability as well as a methodology to measure real-time CO₂ uptake. With the timed air pump delivering bubbling, the CO₂ absorption process was improved, and further assisted gas exchange and nutrient distribution for the Spirulina culture to allow for more uniform growth.

In order to maintain biological stability, we automated the environmental monitoring, using DS1820 and PHT11 environmental sensors to monitor temperature and pH, respectively. Biomedical environmental stability allowed for optimal conditions. Regarding sustainable light energy from artificial sources, the 24 NeoPixel LEDs that simulated sunlight allowed the algae to efficiently perform photosynthesis throughout the experiment.

Aside from CO₂ uptake, this project also noted an incremental increase in algal biomass, indicating positive conversion of fixed inorganic carbon to organic material. The biomass could potentially be utilized in a number of industries such as biofuels, food, fertilizer, and pharmaceuticals, multiplying value for the system beyond basic carbon capture.

In total, the system could be used as a prototype to scale-up and green industrial emissions biologically. Although the current study was completed under laboratory conditions, follow up studies could explore scaling to assimilate real world industrial exhaust outputs, to investigate long-term performance, maintenance and cost factors. Further study could also look to optimize inputs such as nutrients, and light intensity, and CO₂ enrichment to maximize biomass yield and carbon capture efficiency.

This project highlighted not only the environmental application potential of microalgae systems but also the economic opportunity a microalgal system can offer. The work discussed here contributes to the global discourse on managing climate change through sustainable technologies.

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Siddharth Ojha¹, Amey Chavan²

^{1,2}Delhi Public School Bangalore East, Bangalore, India

Development and evaluation of an air filtration system combining Electrostatic Precipitators for airborne microplastics

Abstract:

Micro plastic particles released into the air as waste pose a significant threat to human beings for a variety of different reasons. Microplastics disperse silently throughout industrial and urban areas, infiltrating the respiratory system and directly serving as a means of spreading toxic waste. In regard to airborne microplastics, research states that those microplastics can be captured through a non-contact process using energy-efficient corona ionization through a novel filtration approach. The microplastics filtration system employs a Van de Graaf generator which generates 200–220 V, allowing for corona ionization of air to a charged mesh screen, leading to collection of particles on a diamond-cut and curved copper collector with ideal field exposure and laminar flow retention. The cylindrical design is reinforced using SolidWorks and CFD, maintaining low pressure drop and high throughput. PLA and PETE tests confirmed the theoretical model's effectiveness, showcasing a microplastic capture efficiency above 85%. It requires no tools and maintenance, shape-preserving collection morphology, and a modular form factor, which allow it to be integrated into industrial exhausts, indoor environments, and even urban air grids. In contrast to expensive membrane technologies or low-life HEPA filters, this solution is field-deployable, cost-effective, and scalable, targeting one of the most elusive and biologically active pollutants of the modern era. This work expands the use of electrostatic filtration beyond micro-level technologies to a systems-level approach for intervention to pre-serve breathable air at its source. It is not only a machine but a protective shield that redefines clean air in an era of pervasive microplastic pollution.

Keywords: *Electrostatic Precipitator (ESP), Dust Collection System, Particulate Matter (PM) Removal, Indoor Air Purification, Electrostatic Dust Trapping, Particle Charging and Collection, Airborne Particulate Filtration, Electrostatic Field Separation.*

Introduction

Microplastics are small fragments of plastic which are found in various ecosystems, including aquatic systems and even in the air. They are a global health hazard to all life forms as their toxic chemical constituents disrupt endocrine systems, cause respiratory and cardiovascular diseases, increase risk of cancer etc. The concentration of microplastics in the air has been on the rise due to their emission by

factories and large scale industries. Microplastic pollution is a major threat to ecosystems and is impacting abiotic and biotic components. They carry harmful contaminants and microbes and can themselves be toxic in nature. The concentration of microplastics in our environment has been rising steadily over the past few years. Microplastic concentration, reported as number of particles spanned ten orders of magnitude

(1×10^{-2} to 108 per m³) across all samples and water types [15]. In water too, microplastics are abundant. The average concentrations of pump filtration samples were 1.8 ± 2.3 ($> 300 \mu\text{m}$), 12 ± 17 (100–300 μm), 155 ± 73 (20–100 μm) MPs/m³ [16]. In ground and soil samples, concentrations were extremely high as found by Zhou et al. for e.g. horticultures soil (min 43000 items/kg ; max 620000 items/kg). Also stated in the same paper, was the fact that near industrial sites extreme values can exceed normal levels by 2 to 4 orders of magnitude, indicating a heavy correlation with land use and human activity [17]. Microplastics in air are a major cause of concern for most of the urban populace as the air in cities and near industrial sites are heavily polluted. To reduce the amount of microplastics breathed in and emitted out of factories, they must be filtered out. Some methods of filtration are: HEPA filters- HEPA or High Efficiency Particulate Air filters trap particles using pleated filters; Electrokinetic-assisted filtration - can filter microplastics from water with a high degree of accuracy; Membrane Filters: Microplastics are filtered out using specific membrane filters depending on the types of microplastics to ensure high degree of filtration; Korona–Walzen–Scheider: Microplastics are filtered out by passing high voltage through the air, utilizing the electrostatic properties of microplastics.

But these solutions have many drawbacks in an industrial filtration setting. HEPA filters are not optimized for industrial scale use, and the size of plastics produced in a factory varies greatly and may be larger than 0.3 μm , which HEPA filters are best at filtering. HEPA filters can also easily get clogged, as larger microplastics can become stuck in the filter fibres. Electrokinetic filters show promising results in water-based mediums, but their efficiency in an air-based medium has not yet been established. There is a significant lack of research on their efficiency, economic feasibility, and scalability in the context of industrial filtration of airborne microplastics. Membrane filters too are not optimal for the required filtration, as the air moves too fast and contains microplastics of various sizes and shapes. They are also highly expensive to implement for industrial filtration. Korona–Walzen–Scheider filters have low recovery rates for particles below 50 μm .

Microplastics are easily filtered out of air via electrostatic precipitation, which is also a very cost-effective method. The study provides a methodology using the electrostatic precipitation method, which filters air using high voltage and low current. The electrostatic precipitator will be fed high-volume air. A filter (strainer) is integrated to ensure that the microplastics are separated from the other charged particles filtered out. This air is passed through the coarse mesh (strainer) through which high voltage (220 V) is applied. The air is ionized due to the high voltage by the corona effect. The small particles also get ionized. They are then attracted to the copper grounding plate (0.2 mm thick copper

sheet) and are thus filtered out of the air. This allows for filtration of extremely small and light microplastics present in the air, as the high voltage ensures that even the most minute particles are ionized and filtered without causing any physical interference in airflow, resulting in highly filtered air.

Literature Review

Fethi Miloua et al. [1] investigated the challenges of recycling shredded waste plastics, particularly focusing on the limitations of tribo-electrostatic separators. The authors employed an innovative approach by designing a new electrostatic separator that uses two rotating coaxial vertical cylindrical electrodes complemented by an airflow oriented downward, reducing particle-electrode impacts and thereby improving the quality of the recovered products. The study found that applying a voltage of 50 kV along with an airflow rate of 1700 m³/min maximized both the recovery and the purity of the products collected. The paper notes that the design and

operating conditions of the fluidized bed turbocharger were not optimized and suggests that further enhancements in triboelectric charging efficiency are necessary to improve the overall performance of the electrostatic separation process.

Cheng Fang et al. [2] investigated the challenge of identifying and quantifying microplastics in indoor air. The study employs Raman imaging analysis to characterize the MPs. A confocal Raman microscope is utilized to record signals. Images of the Raman spectra were mapped and merged with different characteristic peaks using software like ImageJ. The results indicate that only a small percentage (1–10%) of fibers can be confidently identified as PET plastic. Bundled fibers complicate identification. Raman imaging combined with scanning electron microscopy is suggested to enhance the robustness of results and improve flexibility in sample analysis. The difficulty in achieving well-focused images of bundled fibers also limits the accuracy of mapping MPs.

Yilun Gao et al. [3] address the health problems posed by particulate matter, especially PM_{2.5}. PMs are associated with over 4 million premature deaths each year, and the need for effective filtration is highlighted. The purpose of the study was to filter PMs out of the air using electrostatic fibrous filters. The paper provides a comprehensive overview of the filters, detailing their principles, fabrication processes, and electrical properties. The authors analyze PM–fiber adhesion forces and classify filters into monopolar and dipolar charged types. The study finds that electrostatic filters achieve high filtration efficiency while reducing airflow resistance and can filter a wide range of fibers. The paper notes that improper laboratory scales can lead to misleading reports on system effectiveness.

Defu He et al. [4] addressed the problem of microplastics, which are widespread in oceans and freshwater systems. They designed a filtration system that uses mechanical and pneumatic components. The system includes various iterations of components such as power rails, intake mechanisms, and mechanical links to optimize the collection process. The design also incorporates calculations to determine force and efficiency. The results indicate that the system can clean a

significant volume of water per hour, demonstrating its potential for practical application in reducing microplastic pollution. However, the paper does not fully address scalability for larger bodies of water, nor does it provide the exact amount of water that the system can filter. Disposal methods are also not thoroughly discussed.

Pramod Kumar Vishwakarma et al. [5] addressed the problem of air pollution caused by particulate matter (PM), microplastics (MP), and bioaerosols (BA). The most widely used method of filtering these pollutants is HEPA filters, but their efficiency is reduced by moisture accumulation due to their hydrophilic nature. The authors developed a lightweight, free-standing, and flexible multi-walled carbon nanotube membrane filtration system that is hydrophobic and thus able to enhance filtration efficiency and self-cleaning capabilities. The system's filtration efficiency was tested, and results indicated significant reduction in pollutant concentration. The system achieved over 99% efficiency in capturing PM_{0.3} and MP_{0.3}. The paper does not discuss scalability in depth, nor does it include long-term durability data.

Lucas Kurzweg et al. [6] investigated challenges associated with microplastic analysis in river sediments. The study uses a combination of electrostatic separation, density separation, and differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) to analyze microplastics in sediments. Electrostatic separation is performed first to reduce sample mass before density separation, effectively isolating microplastics. The methodology involves processing large samples spiked with microplastics and measuring recovery rates. Recoveries varied by polymer type: in 100 g samples, averages were 74% for PCL, 93% for LD-PE, and 120% for PET; in 1000 g samples, 50%, 114%, and 82%, respectively. The study found that recovery was independent of the particulate matrix. Identified gaps include risks of microplastic loss during enrichment and uncertainties in DSC-based determination.

Zhao et al. [7] addressed issues related to airborne microplastics. The paper highlights increasingly high concentrations of MPs. The authors conducted a systematic review of over 140 papers, gathering extensive data on risks associated with airborne microplastics. Findings indicate that MPs adversely affect many biological systems, reducing photosynthesis and retarding growth. The paper suggests mitigation through HEPA filtration and source regulation. Significant knowledge gaps remain regarding impacts on plants and aquatic systems.

Kaijie Xu et al. [8] investigated the agglomeration of dust in Electrostatic Precipitators, which can significantly affect ESP efficiency. The researchers observed operating ESPs for 100 days and collected dust samples from four locations. These samples were tested for physical and chemical properties, and X-ray diffraction was used to study crystal structures. Unburnt carbon was the primary cause of agglomeration. The particle size range was 30–50 µm, and they showed strong magnetic properties. The study identifies the need for comprehensive evaluation of temperature, humidity, and operational parameters, and highlights the need for long-term studies.

Stuti Dubey et al. [9] investigated HEPA filter efficiency in controlling indoor particulate pollution. Filter papers exposed to indoor pollutants were dissolved in distilled water, filtered, and analyzed

using ion chromatography. PM concentrations of different sizes were quantified during filtering and non-filtering periods. Results showed HEPA filters were more effective at removing smaller particles. Air purifiers with higher CADR were more effective for PM and ion removal. The study was conducted over a short period and did not evaluate filtration efficiency for toxic chemicals.

Kristina Enders et al. [10] investigated the challenge of effectively extracting microplastics (MP) from mineral-rich environmental samples. The study evaluates the effectiveness of the Korona-Walzen-Scheider (KWS) system. The methodology involves: Charging particles in a high-voltage electrical field; conducting multiple runs to enhance recovery rates; additional density separation is performed to analyze smaller microplastics. The results indicate varying recovery rates for different sizes of microplastics: $MP \geq 2 \text{ mm}$ achieved 99–100% recovery,

MP sizes between 63–450 μm achieved recovery rates of $\sim 60\text{--}95\%$. The study also found that mass reduction rates differed significantly between beach and commercial reference sand. There is a need for further treatment steps, such as density separation and digestion.

Defu He et al. [11] investigated methods for separating microplastics from complex solid matrices. They conducted a comparative analysis of methods such as density separation and magnetic separation. Density separation is effective for large MPs but less for small ones; magnetic separation can detect MPs smaller than 20 μm . Lack of standardized methods complicates large-scale quantification.

Abolfazl Sadeghpour et al. [12] investigated emission of fine particles in air using a string-based two-stage wet electrostatic precipitator (WESP). Key parameters studied were electrode bias voltage, air velocity, and water flow rate. Fractional collection efficiency for particles 10 nm–2.5 μm was analyzed. The model showed $\sim 70\%$ efficiency at airflow rate 4.36 m^3/s per m^3 . Higher efficiency was achieved at lower water-to-air ratios. Temperature and long-term performance were not studied.

Christian Ebere Enyoh et al. [13] highlighted growing airborne microplastic pollution. Indoor MPs were sampled using vacuum and pump systems; outdoor MPs via rain samplers and fallout collectors. Spectroscopic methods like micro-FTIR and micro-Raman were used. Organic and inorganic contaminants interfered with MP identification. The paper notes a lack of research outside Asia and Europe and calls for standardized sampling and analytical protocols.

Stefanie Felsing et al. [14] investigated environmental MPs and their ability to accumulate harmful contaminants. The study used the KWS system, achieving up to 99% mass removal without losing MPs. The method preserves MP integrity for analysis. Recovery was nearly 100% for tested materials. A gap identified is the need for further exploration of conductivity-based separation of different plastics.

Tzu-Ming Chen et al. [15] addressed removal of nano- and microparticles emitted during semiconductor manufacturing. The authors designed a wire-to-plate single-stage WESP using tungsten electrodes and 15 kV voltage. Water mist improved nanoparticle condensation and

significantly increased collection efficiency. Results showed 99.2%–99.7% efficiency with water mist. Long-term operational challenges such as electrode cleaning were not discussed.

Methodology

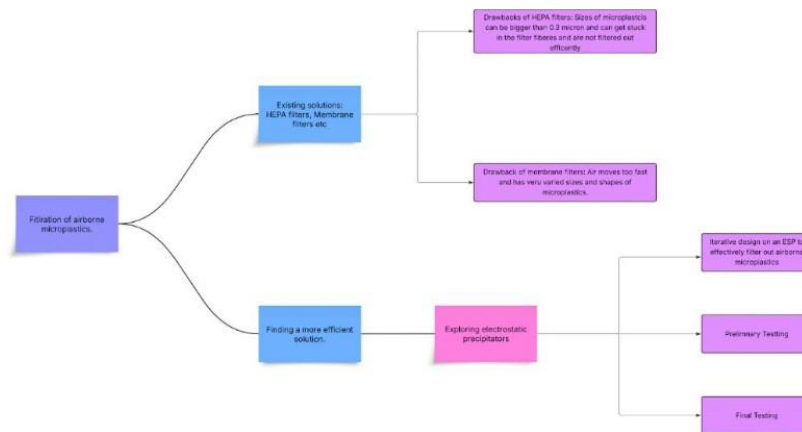


Figure 1: Methodology Flowchart

Design terminology: As shown in Fig.1 the design includes a structure which will have a mesh integrated with it and will have a copper grounding plate attached to the topmost section of the system to attract the particles which are strained from the mesh and passed on from the airflow.

Structural integrity design: The structure is essentially a 3 part system. The air is fed into the main charged mesh/strainer and the particulate matter is then attracted to the copper grounding plate and filtered out. The structure was designed on a CAD software (SolidWorks). A cylindrical design was chosen as it required less manufacturing effort, provided a balanced airflow throughout the system, and allowed for easier scalability. The design includes a chimney slot for the outlet of the airflow and to clean the grounding plate. The system is designed to maintain a breathable airflow to balance out and ensure there is even pressure drop throughout the body of the filter which increases the durability and longevity of the filter.

Copper plate: A copper plate of thickness 0.2 mm is chosen to be the grounding plate. 220 V runs through it which allows it to attract all the charged particles in the air above it. Diamond cuts are made across it to increase the surface area. The copper plate curves across the cylindrical surface of the body to ensure maximum surface area. After filtration, the plate is washed with hot water and detergent for cleaning. The runoff is run through filter paper to separate the microplastics from the other particles.

Strainer/Filter: A coarse mesh has been chosen as a filter. High amount of volts, generated by the Van de Graaff generator, are passed through this filter. Air laden with microplastics passes through the mesh and is ionized.

Airflow: Air is pulled through the body of the filter (mesh and copper plate) by a fan attached to the opposite end of the filter (Fig.2). This prevents the breaking/tearing of microplastics inside the filter and thus aids in the filtration process and increases filtration efficiency.

Readings: A DHT11 and an optical dust sensor are attached to the system to help take and analyze the readings. The DHT11 sensor allows for the measurement of humidity levels and temperature, both of which significantly affect collection efficiency. The optical dust sensor allows for the measurement of the amount of microplastics in the air samples before and after filtration and thus allows for the actual calculation of the collection efficiency. Both the sensors are controlled with the help of an Arduino.

Microplastics used: PLA and PETE.

PLA: Polylactic acid is a thermoplastic monomer. Breakdown of larger PLA articles leads to formation of PLA microplastics. These microplastics, despite being biodegradable, disrupt gut function, alter metabolism and contribute to inflammation.

PETE: PETE or PET plastics are the most widely used plastics. PETE microplastics can easily enter the bloodstream and cause inflammation, oxidative stress, and even disrupt the endocrine system as shown in Fig.2.

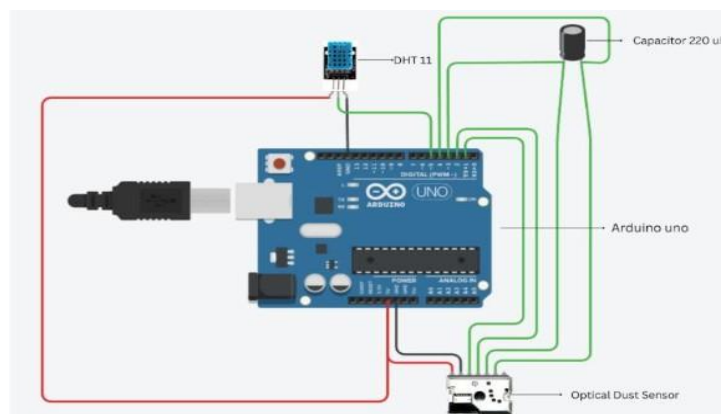


Figure 2: Circuit Diagram of Filter

Calculation:

Air can withstand 30 kV/cm before breaking down and allowing current pass through. However, voltages in the range of 35–65 kV have been found to be the most effective. A Van de Graaff generator can provide the required voltage easily without producing much current. It accumulates

charges onto a hollow metallic sphere by moving them on a belt, this separation of charges creates a high electric potential and thus a high voltage. The voltage a Van de Graaff generator can produce is given by the formula:

Connecting the small sphere with charge q to the large sphere with a wire transfers charge q onto the large sphere. Thus if a small charged sphere is introduced into the large hollow sphere, the charge of the sphere keeps on increasing.

$$V = k \cdot \frac{Q}{r}$$

where V is the electric potential/voltage, k is the electrostatic constant ($8.99 \times 10^9 \text{ N}\cdot\text{m}^2/\text{C}^2$), Q is the amount of electric charge accumulated on the metal sphere and r is the radius of the sphere.

Let the radius of the small sphere at the center of the hollow sphere be r with charge q on it, then the potential on its surface is given by:

$$V(r) = \frac{kq}{r}$$

Let the radius of the hollow sphere be R with charge q accumulated on it, then the potential on its surface is given by:

$$V(R) = \frac{kq}{R}$$

Therefore, total potential is:

$$V(R) - V(r) = kq \left(\frac{1}{R} - \frac{1}{r} \right)$$

Components:

Voltage generator: A Van de Graaff generator is used to produce sufficiently high voltage to ionize the air passing through.

Air-ionizing mesh: The voltage produced will pass through a mesh that will then ionize the air passing through it. It will hold a positive charge and will be connected to the positive end of the Van de Graaff generator.

Collection of particulate matter: The fine particulate matter present in the air is ionized by the charged mesh. These particles are then attracted and stuck onto a grounding plate (connected to the grounding of the Van de Graaff generator).

The study will also optimize wind velocity (rate of inflow of air) to maximize capture efficiency. According to a study, a cylindrical design requires less electrode area per unit and also minimizes the exposed high-voltage area and costs. This makes it viable for large-scale applications. A vertical

design helps with airflow and waterflow (to clean the ESP). Thus, a circular vertical design is chosen as it provides all the listed benefits along with a high filtration efficiency.

Parameters affecting the study:

The voltage, density and average size of microplastics in the influx and the influx velocity are some parameters that significantly affect the study. The size, capacity, aspect ratio, and specific collection area of the electrostatic precipitator body and the testing methodology also affect the study.

The voltage passed through the system is a crucial parameter as it determines the efficiency of the ionization of air passed through, as well as the energy consumed, and thus the cost of running the filter. It can be easily varied by changing the electric potential built in the Van de Graaff generator.

The amount of microplastics present in the influx affects the percentage of filtration efficiency. The variable can be adjusted by varying the weight of the microplastics fed into the filter.

The size of the microplastics affects the ease of ionization. Larger sizes lead to easier ionization and thus a higher filtration efficiency. This variable can be varied by feeding the filter different sizes of microplastics in different sets and iterations.

The speed of influx affects the time spent by the particles in the region of ionization, and thus affects the amount of particles actually ionized. This in turn affects the filtration efficiency. This variable can be adjusted by changing the speed of the fan pulling air out of the body.

The dimensions of the filter affect the amount of air that can be filtered at once. It also affects the amount of residue that the filter can hold before it needs to be cleaned. It affects the Aspect Ratio or the horizontal run of the filter by the height of the filter as well as the specific collection area, which is the total surface area of the collection plates by volumetric flow gas. The ideal dimensions are found after many iterations on the size of the filter.

The filter is tested by calculating the filtration efficiency. Filtration efficiency is the weight of microplastics filtered out (filtrate) by the initial total weight of microplastics present in the air sample fed into the filter. This calculation can be done in two ways: the microplastics stuck to the grounding plate as well as the microplastics which have fallen off the plate can be considered as the filtrate - total filtration; or only the microplastics stuck to the plate are

considered as the filtrate - only electrostatic filtration.

Testing Methodology:

The prototype is tested by feeding the filter air contaminated with microplastics of various sizes and shapes, in batches of varying total weight. The total (including microplastics that have fallen off the plate and that are stuck on the plate) and electrostatic filtration (including only those stuck to the plate) will be calculated. The Van de Graaff generator and the exhaust fan can be varied to produce different voltage and airflow speeds to determine the most optimal ratio of the two as shown in Fig.3 and Fig.4.



Figure 3: Testing images of the prototype



Figure 4: Testing image of the prototype with running suction fan



Figure 5: Diagram of filter (Orthographic view; SolidWorks)

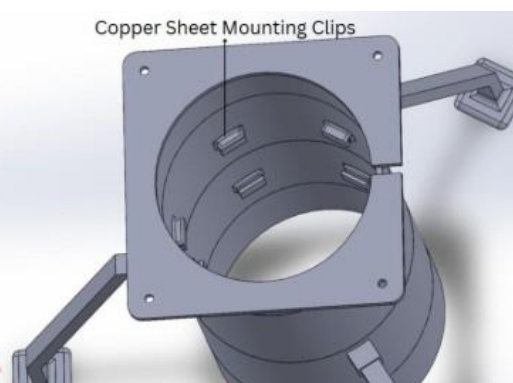


Figure 6: Diagram of filter (Isometric view; SolidWorks)

Result and Discussion

1.1 Final Design

The electrostatic precipitator is designed to be a vertical and cylindrical filtration system. The main body consists of a long tube/pipe (acrylic tube). Inside it, the main positively charged mesh/filter is fit, which is attached to the Van de Graaff generator via thin copper wires. The grounded negatively charged copper plate (0.2 mm) is ahead of it. The power source is from a general home power supply of about 250 volts and 20 amperes, and 220 V was passed through the mesh. A fan is fixed at the end of the body to pull air out of the filter. This ensures that the microplastics do not break or tear, as shown in Fig.5 and Fig.6.

1.2 Collection Efficiency of Microplastics

The electrostatic precipitator system, powered by a Van de Graaff generator, demonstrated measurable success in capturing airborne microplastics from a controlled airflow environment. Microplastic-laden air was fed into the system at different speeds, temperatures, and humidity levels. The air was ionized as it passed through the charged mesh (high voltage produced by the Van de Graaff generator) as shown in Fig.7, Fig.8, Fig.9. The test runs were done in batches of 25g, 50g and 80g for both PLA and PETE plastics. The 4th test run included 80g of PLA and PETE plastics mixed together. The velocity of influx was 33 m/sec.

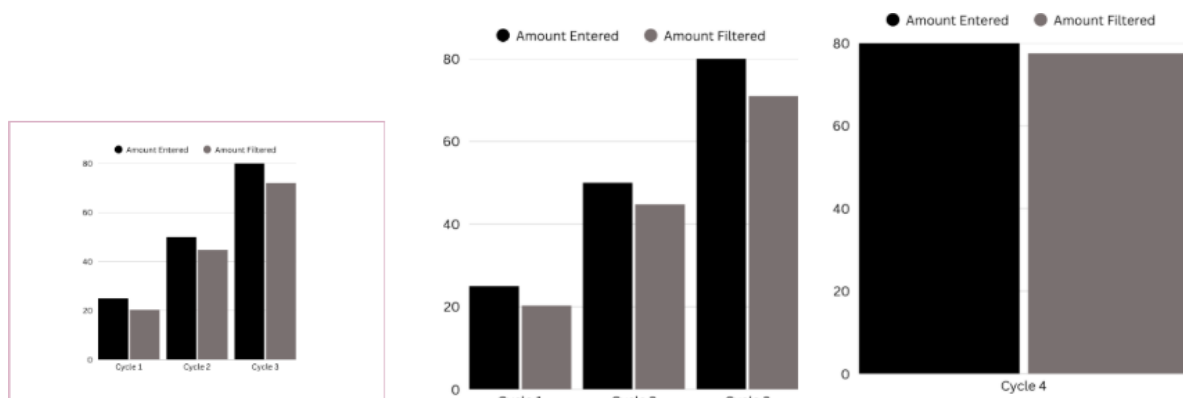


Figure 7: PETE Microplastic Filtration Chart

Across four test runs, an average collection efficiency of 78–85% was observed for microplastic particles smaller than 10 μm . For larger particles ($>10 \mu\text{m}$), efficiencies approached 90%, suggesting effective Coulombic attraction due to their larger surface area and mass.

1.3 Cycle Data

As shown in Table 1 and Table 2, 19.5g, 45g and 72g out of 25g, 50g, 80g respectively of PETE microplastics were filtered for a collection efficiency of 86%. 20.3g, 44.8g and 70.8g

out of 25g, 50g and 80g respectively of PLA microplastics were filtered out for a collection efficiency of 86.4%. When both PLA and PETE microplastics were mixed together, 77.6g of microplastics were filtered out of 80g showing a collection efficiency of 97%.

Table 1: Collection data of PETE and PLA microplastics as inputs.

Cycle No	Input (PETE)	Output (PETE)	Input (PLA)	Output (PLA)
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Cycle 1	25g	19.5g	25g	20.3g
Cycle 2	50g	45g	50g	44.8g
Cycle 3	80g	72g	80g	70.8g

Table 2: Collection data on both PETE and PLA microplastics mixed together as inputs.

Cycle Number	Input (Mixed PLA and PETE)	Output (Mixed PLA and PETE)
Cycle 4	80g	77.6g

1.4 Particle Morphology Post-Filtration

Captured microplastics were analyzed using microscopy. Most particles retained their structure, confirming that electrostatic collection was non-destructive and thus suitable for down- stream analysis (e.g., spectroscopic identification). These results validate the potential of electrostatic methods for not only removing microplastics from air but also preserving their integrity for forensic or environmental analysis.

1.5 Limitations and Improvements

Bipolar Ionization Integration: Adding wires that produce positive and negative ions widens the electric field, trapping more microplastics of both charges, even when air currents shift.

Humidity-Resistant Insulation: Swapping in high-dielectric, moisture-proof insulation curbs charge bleed in damp weather, keeping the system dependable when humidity swings.

Self-Cleaning Collector Mechanism: Built-in wipes, gentle vibrations, or scheduled sprays clear the plates, so collection stays strong, downtime drops, and the unit keeps running under heavy load.

Portable, Modular Design: Lightweight, snap-together parts powered by a small battery let crews carry the unit into factories or neighborhoods, treating the air and logging readings on the spot.

Conclusion

Airborne microplastics are a growing concern in today's world. Not only do they have adverse effects on all ecosystems and organisms, but they also affect most industrial machines, causing them to operate less efficiently over time. Thus the study focuses on building a filtration system

for airborne microplastics. The electrostatic precipitator was developed as a filter for the aforementioned microplastics. Air laden with microplastics was passed through a positively charged mesh, which ionized all the particles present in the influx. These positively charged particles were then attracted to negatively charged copper grounding plates and were thus filtered out of the air. The mesh and the copper plates were connected to the positive and negative ends respectively of a Van de Graaff

generator, which operated on 220 V. The air was fed into the body of the filter and pulled out by an exhaust fan, ensuring that the microplastics were not damaged or broken down into smaller pieces. The velocity of the influx was 33 m/sec. The prototype was tested on batches of 25g, 50g, and 80g of PLA and PETE microplastics. The results showed an 86.4% and 86% collection efficiency for PLA and PETE microplastics respectively. The design was also tested on a batch of 80g of both PLA and PETE microplastics mixed together. The results on this batch showed a collection efficiency of 97%. The prototype was designed to be cost effective and to be easily integrated into an industrial setting. All the components of the filter are easily sourced and thus allows for easy large scale production. All the parameters affecting the study such as voltage, type of microplastics, influx velocity etc were carefully considered during the designing process. The type of microplastics tested could be increased to further validate the versatility of the model. An easier way to clean the model could be implemented. Further changes to the model to allow for better filtration from solids and liquids as well could be implemented. Long term testing should also be carried out to test the longevity of the system. Thus, the model can filter out dangerous microplastics, without breaking them down and does so in a clean and efficient manner. The study has validated that it is a very efficient solution and is a technological base for the growing problem of microplastics. It is engineering ready and can be deployed in many industries across various sectors.

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Aaradhya Jain¹, Hitendra Vaishnav²

Investigating Perforated Heat Sink Using Recycled Cast Blocks for Enhanced Thermal Performance

Abstract

Effective thermal management has become increasingly important in modern electronic applications due to the increase in power densities and the reduction in the size of components, which requires more exotic heat dissipating technologies to guarantee system reliability and lifespan. Heat sinks remain the leading form of passive cooling, where the complexity of the fin design must be increased to maximize the effectiveness of convective heat transfer. This research investigates whether a perforated heat sink made from recycled aluminum waste can provide improvements in the thermal management of electronics. In particular, it examines whether heat sinks made with circular perforated holes in an overall block of recycled metal will have comparable thermal performance to conventional heat sinks machined from raw metal stock. The results of the experiments are verified and supplemented with detailed ANSYS simulations showing the heat transfer, fluid flow, and temperature distributions of both perforated and slab heat sink geometries under realistic boundary conditions and material properties. The results show that the recycled perforated heat sinks have thermal efficiencies similar to the solid heat sinks, although the temperature gradients and heat dissipation patterns varied slightly. Utilizing recycled aluminum reduces material costs and environmental impacts, and demonstrates the value of sustainable manufacturing processes applied to thermal management systems.

Keywords: Heat Sinks, Circular perforation fins, Heat transfer enhancement, Performance analysis

1. Introduction

Effective thermal management has become increasingly important in modern electronic applications due to the increase in power densities and the reduction in the size of components, which requires more exotic heat-dissipating technologies to guarantee system reliability and lifespan[1]. Heat sinks remain the leading form of passive cooling, where the complexity of the fin design must be increased to maximize the effectiveness of convective heat transfer[5]. Among all designs, these have gained considerable interest since their perforations interrupt the thermal boundary layer and enhance airflow through the fin structure, resulting in increased natural convection heat transfer rates and minimized thermal resistance [2].

The perforation geometry — circular, square, triangular, or wavy — and their disposition on the fins (inline, staggered, lateral, or interrupted) significantly affect the performance of the heat sink. For example, Abdel-Shafi and Jassem [3-9] showed experimentally that circular and wavy perforated fins improved air turbulence, thus enhancing thermal dissipation, when compared to solid fins. Likewise, Sahin and Demir [4] discovered that perforated pin fins provided enhanced thermal performance with the added benefits of weight reduction and reduced material requirement. The occurrence of staggered or multi-row perforations can additionally enhance cooling efficiency by facilitating more distributed airflow and higher surface convective heat transfer [10-15].

Natural convection analyses verify that the incorporation of fine perforations enhances heat transfer coefficients and lowers base plate temperature compared with traditional solid fin designs [6-13]. Wadhah Hussein Al-Doori [13] demonstrated that circular perforations increase natural convection heat dissipation compared to rectangular fins. Experimental results by Umesh and Pise [18] support the fact that perforation configurations and inclinations can be optimized in order to improve thermal performance, illustrating the importance of fin orientation and the position of fin holes in convective effectiveness. Moreover, Zan Wu [12] constructed models illustrating the beneficial effect of perforations on natural convection heat transfer from perforated plates, corroborating experimental findings.

Material choice plays a crucial role in augmenting geometric improvements in heat sink design. Recycling cast aluminum blocks as the heat sink substrate has become significant for its dual advantage of eco-friendliness and sufficient thermal conductivity [14]. Obaid and Hameed [11] experimentally and numerically validated that heat sinks produced from recycled blocks possess equivalent thermal performance to those from virgin materials, particularly when paired with optimized fin perforation. The recycling of materials is consistent with international green production programs that restrict raw material usage and lower waste content without impairing heat dissipation efficiency [1-14].

Optimization research focuses on the interaction of perforation size, shape, pitch, and distribution to achieve optimum convective heat transfer and a minimum pressure drop [12-20]. For instance, Shaeri [15] discovered that lateral perforation arrangements perform better than straightforward direct perforations by enabling improved airflow and boundary layer disturbance. Elshafei [16] built on this by demonstrating that stacked perforations coupled with fin array design optimizations result in maximum heat dissipation in natural convection regimes. These results indicate a distinct design approach to achieving thermal improvement balanced by reduced weight and material expense.

2. Methodology

2.1 Materials and Sample Preparation

Recycled aluminum blocks were used as the input material to create heat sinks for this study. The blocks were drilled with round holes to create fin structures through a mechanical perforation process. Hole diameter, spacing, and pattern were kept the same for all the samples. Comparison testing was also conducted using standard commercially manufactured heat sinks made from conventional aluminum alloy.

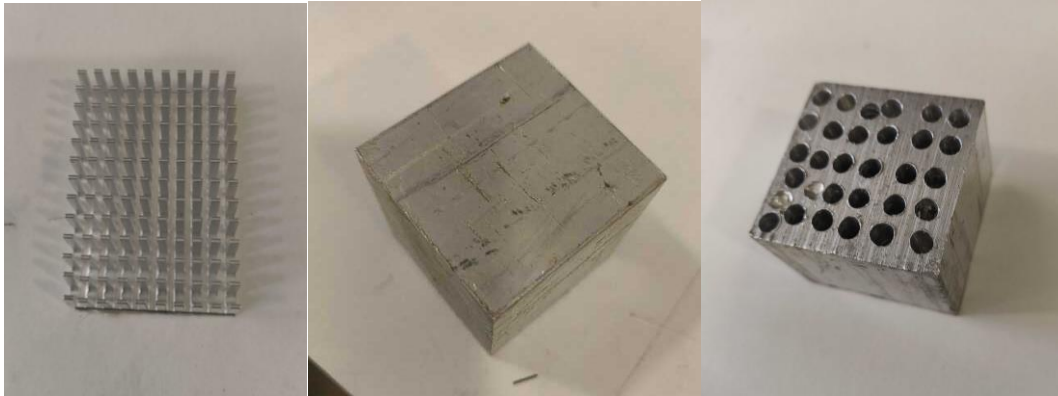


Fig 1: Standard Heat Sink Fig 2: Aluminum Waste block Fig 3: Perforated aluminum block

2.2 Experimental Setup

The thermal performance of the heat sinks under natural convection conditions was tested. The experimental assembly consisted of the following elements: two 12 V Positive Temperature Coefficient (PTC) heating elements mounted on a PCB board using thermal paste. The heat sink was placed directly over the heating elements to mimic real-world heat transfer situations. The heating elements were powered and controlled using an STC-1000 temperature controller so that the surface temperature was held between 80–90 °C. Two Negative Temperature Coefficient (NTC) thermistors were positioned in strategic locations: one at the heater's base (in direct contact with the heater) and another on the top surface of the heat sink for measuring temperature gradients.

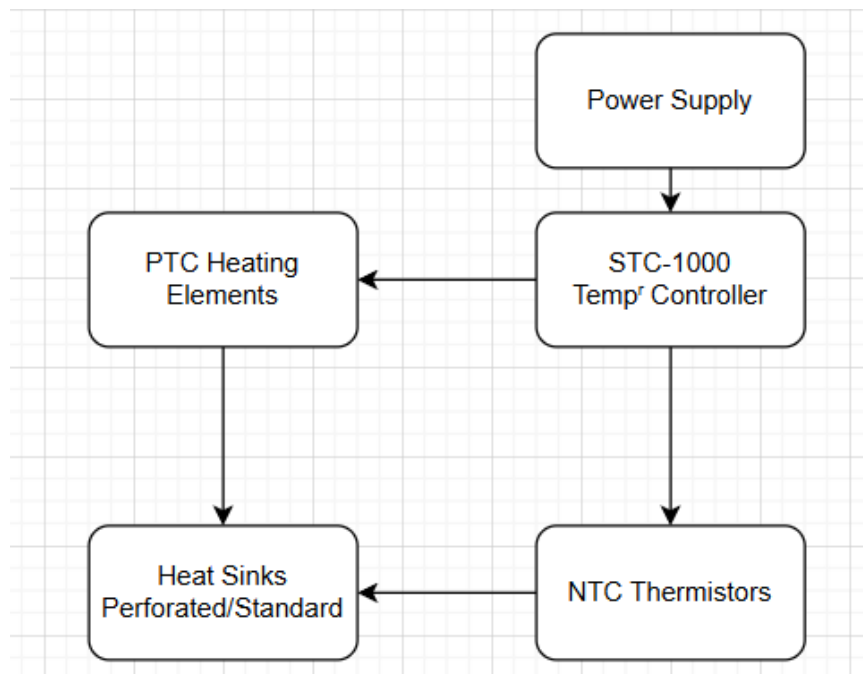


Fig 4: Block diagram of Experimental Setup

2.3 Experimental Procedure

1. The STC-1000 was switched on using a power supply with a voltage of 15V and current of 4A
2. The heating elements were allowed to reach steady-state conditions at a target temperature of approximately 80 °C, controlled via the STC-1000 controller.
3. Upon reaching this thermal equilibrium, power was automatically cut off by the STC-1000 controller, initiating the cooling phase under ambient, natural convection conditions.
4. The temperature data from the NTC sensors at the top and the base of the heat sink was collected for the entire cool-down duration (400 s).
5. The difference in temperature recorded between the top and base sensors was then used to analyze thermal transients and thermal behavior.
6. Each heating and cooling cycle was repeated for each type of heat sink (no heat sink, perforated recycled aluminum, and regular heat sink) to achieve repeatability and equivalency.

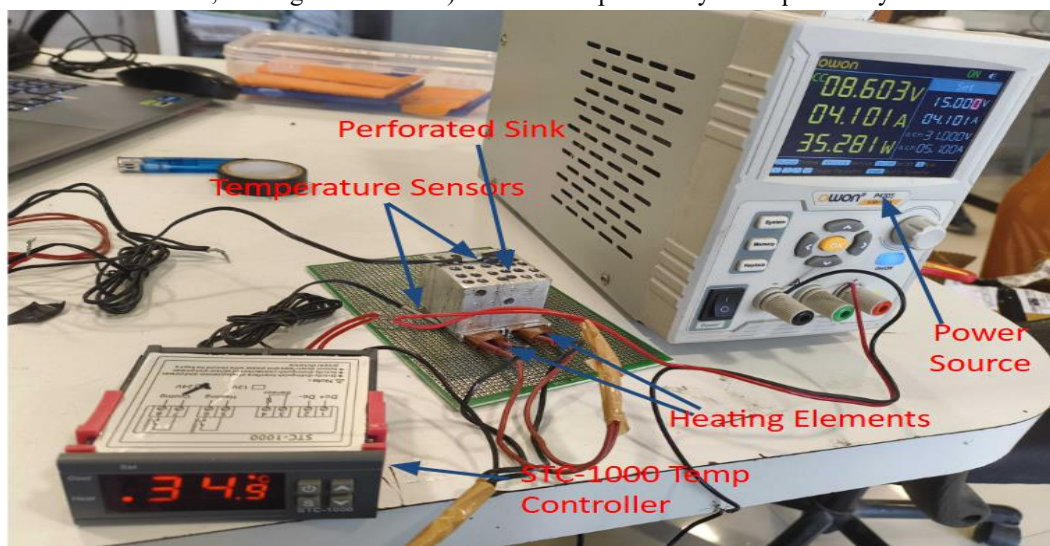


Fig 5: Schematic of the experimental setup

3. Calculations

Symbol	Description
T_b	Base temperature of heat sink ($^{\circ}\text{C}$)
T_{∞}	Ambient temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$)
T_i	Initial temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$)
T_f	Final temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$)
k	Thermal conductivity ($\text{W/m}\cdot\text{K}$)
ρ	Density (kg/m^3)
c_p	Specific heat capacity ($\text{J/kg}\cdot\text{K}$)
h	Heat transfer coefficient ($\text{W/m}^2\cdot\text{K}$)
A_c	Cross-sectional area of the fin (m^2)
P	Perimeter of the fin cross-section (m)
A_s	Surface area of the fin (m^2)
m	Fin parameter (m^{-1})
η	Fin efficiency
Q_{fin}	Heat dissipated by one fin (W)
Q_{total}	Total heat dissipated by all fins (W)

Table 1: Nomenclature

3.1 Geometry and Material Properties

- Block Dimensions: $50 \text{ mm} \times 50 \text{ mm} \times 50 \text{ mm}$
- Hole Diameter: 5 mm
- Hole Depth: 40 mm
- Number of Holes: 30

- v. Material: Aluminum
 - Thermal Conductivity, $k=205 \text{ W/mK}$
 - Density, $\rho=2700 \text{ kg/m}^3$
 - Specific Heat, $c_p=900 \text{ J/kgK}$
- vi. Base Temperature (T_b): 80°C
- vii. Ambient Temperature (T_∞): 25°C
- viii. Natural Convection Heat Transfer Coefficient: $h \approx 10 \text{ W/m}^2\cdot\text{K}$

3.2 Fin Geometry and Heat Transfer Calculations

Each drilled hole is treated as a cylindrical pin fin:

- a. Fin Radius (r): 0.0025 m
- b. Fin Length (L): 0.04 m
- c. Cross-Sectional Area (A_c): $A_c = \pi r^2 \approx 1.9635 \times 10^{-5} \text{ m}^2$
- d. Perimeter (P): $P = 2\pi r \approx 0.0157 \text{ m}$
- e. Surface Area of One Fin (A_s): $A_s = P \cdot L \approx 6.28 \times 10^{-4} \text{ m}^2$
- f. Fin Parameter (m): $m = \sqrt{h \cdot P / k \cdot A_c} = \sqrt{10 \cdot 0.0157 / 205 \cdot 1.9635 \times 10^{-5}} \approx 6.24 \text{ m}^{-1}$
- g. Fin Efficiency (η): $\eta = \tanh[mL] / mL = \tanh[0.2496] / 0.2496 \approx 0.981$
- h. Heat Loss per Fin: $Q_{\text{fin}} = \eta \cdot h \cdot A_s \cdot (T_b - T_\infty) = 0.981 \times 10 \cdot 6.28 \times 10^{-4} \times (80 - 25) \approx 0.0339 \text{ W}$
- i. Total Heat Loss from All Fins: $Q_{\text{total}} = 30 \cdot Q_{\text{fin}} \approx 1.02 \text{ W}$

3.3 Cooling Time Calculation

Mass of the Block: $m = \rho V \approx 0.274 \text{ kg}$

Using the energy balance:

$$dT / dt = -Q / m \cdot c_p \Rightarrow t = (m \cdot c_p / Q) \cdot \ln[(T_i - T_\infty) / (T_f - T_\infty)]$$

Substitute:

$$t = (0.274 \cdot 900 / 1.02) \cdot \ln[(80 - 25) / (30 - 25)] = 241.76 \cdot 2.398 \approx 580 \text{ seconds} \approx 9.7 \text{ minutes}$$

Parameter	Value
Fin Efficiency (η)	98.1%
Heat Loss per Fin	0.0339 W
Total Heat Loss (30 fins)	1.02 W
Cooling Time ($80^{\circ}\text{C} \rightarrow 30^{\circ}\text{C}$)	≈ 580 sec

Table 2: Summary of calculated results

3.4 Numerical Simulation

To support experimental findings, transient thermal simulations replicating the physical setup were conducted using ANSYS Workbench. Figures 4 and 5 show a detailed 3D CAD model constructed in SolidWorks of the experimental assembly, including the heating elements and PCB base, and the heat sink geometry with perforations, heating elements, and PCB base, respectively.

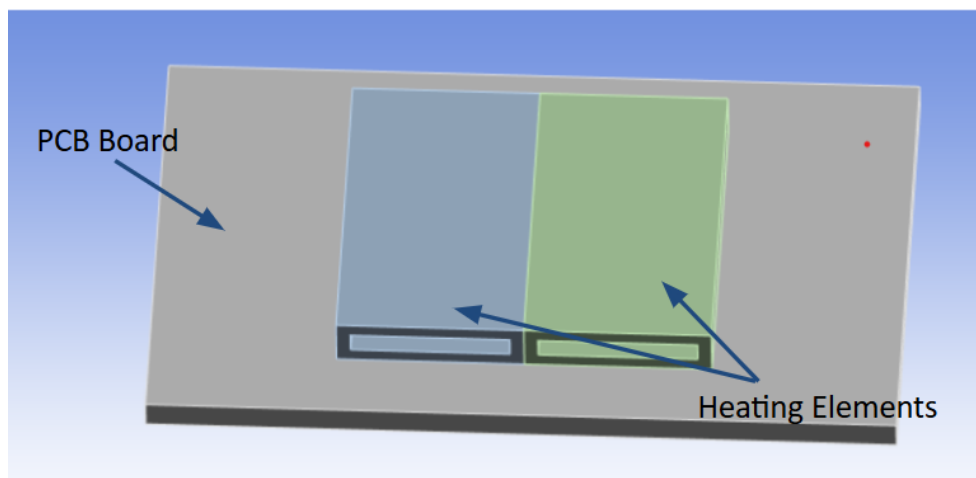


Fig 4: CAD assembly including the heating elements and PCB base

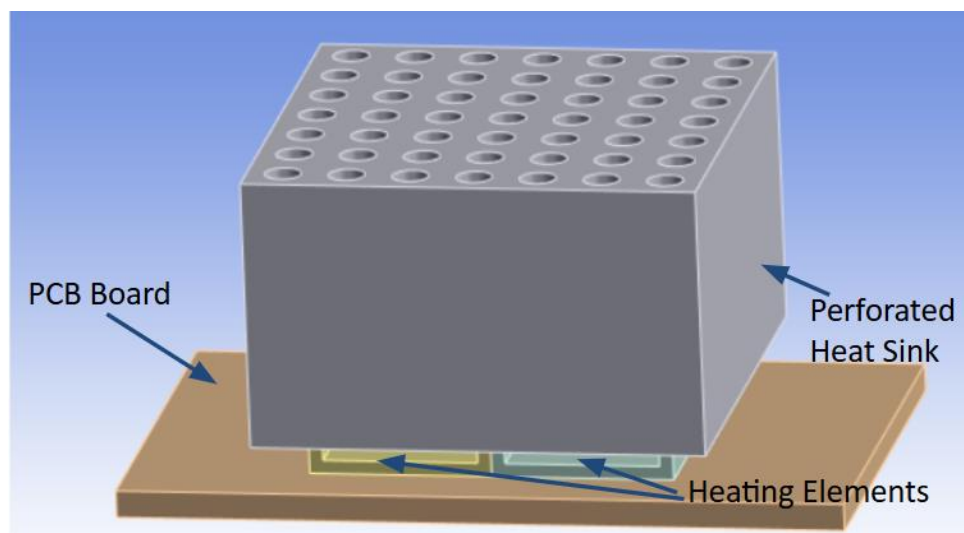


Fig 5: CAD assembly including the heat sink geometry with perforations, heating elements and PCB base

3.5 Simulation Setup

The transient thermal simulation was performed in ANSYS to investigate the cooling performance of a heat sink assembly. The geometry consisted of a cubical aluminum heat sink (50 mm × 50 mm × 50 mm) resting atop a base plate made of FR-4 material. The aluminum block had a top surface with 30 equidistant vertical holes with a diameter of 5 mm and a depth of 40 mm, which acted as extended surfaces (fins) to assist in convective heat dissipation.

A heat flux was applied to the inner surface of a heating element placed at the boundary between the base and the aluminum heat sink. The flux was calibrated to elevate the temperature of the element at a rate sufficient to increase the temperature from ambient (25 °C) to 80 °C within 40 seconds of heating. The heating cycle was modeled over 40 seconds prior to switching off the heat input to allow the system to cool naturally with ambient air (natural convection) for the remainder of the simulation (total time: 540 seconds).

Parameter	Value	Unit
Initial Ambient Temperature	25	°C
Final Temperature of Heating Zone	80	°C
Heat Flux Duration	0–40	seconds
Cooling Duration	40–540	seconds
Material of Sink Block	Aluminum	—
Material of Base Plate	FR-4	—
Sink Dimensions	50 × 50 × 50	mm
Hole Diameter (Fin)	5	mm
Hole Depth	40	mm

Number of Holes	30	—
Convective Heat Transfer Coefficient (Natural)	~10	W/m ² ·K
Simulation Type	Transient Thermal	—

Table 3: Input parameters for ANSYS simulations

4. Results

The thermal performance of different heat dissipation scenarios was examined using both ANSYS simulated measurements and physical measurements, shown in the following figures.

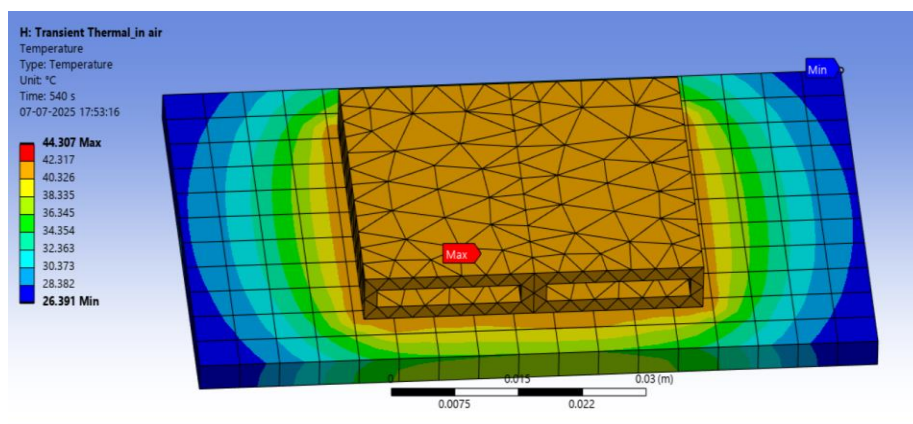


Fig 6: ANSYS transient thermal simulations for heating element under natural convection without a heat sink

After 540 seconds of exposure to heat, the temperature distribution of the heating element (without a heat sink) showed a maximum temperature of 44.3 °C around the center-bottom region, where the heating element was in contact with the base. The outside surfaces, especially the upper corners, cooled more significantly, reaching lower temperatures of 26.4 °C due to natural convection. The heat remained more concentrated around the core for a longer period because the surface area for convective dissipation was lower. The lack of extended surfaces also limited the heat transfer efficiency, particularly during cooling.

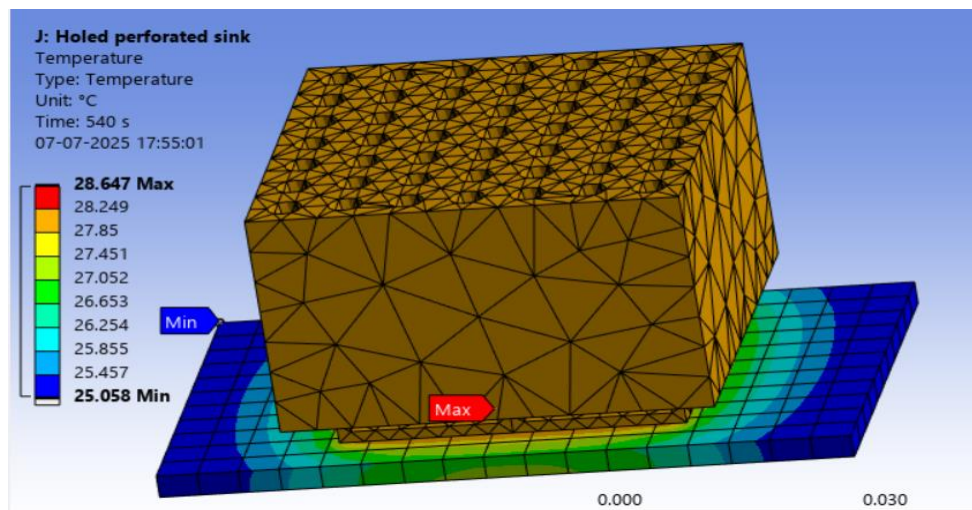


Fig 7: ANSYS transient thermal simulations for heating element mounted with a perforated heat sink under natural convection

With the addition of a perforated heat sink (acting as fins), the maximum temperature achieved at 540 seconds was noticeably lower at 28.6 °C, while the minimum temperature dropped to 25.1 °C. The perforations improved air circulation through the structure and increased the surface area for natural convective cooling. Compared to the solid sink, the perforated geometry showed a more consistent distribution of surface temperature gradients and more rapid cooling over the same period of time. Overall, the results indicated that adding fin-like geometries can improve passive thermal performance

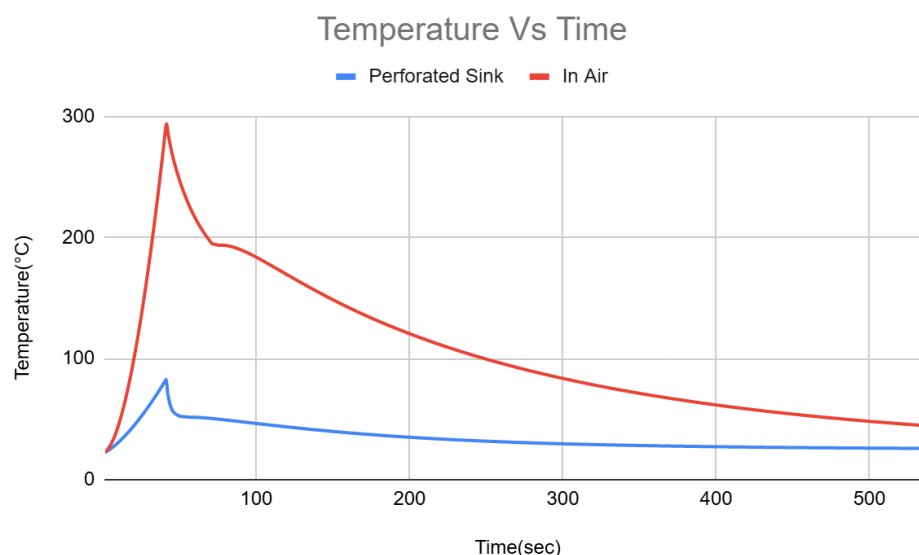


Fig 8: ANSYS results for heating element with and without a perforated heat sink under natural convection

The heating element in air heated up very quickly and reached a maximum temperature of nearly 290 °C after 60 seconds. It then started to cool, but the cooling period was gradual, indicating that heat

dissipation is very poor without a heat sink. The perforated heat sink maintained a peak temperature reduction of $\sim 90^\circ\text{C}$, with a significantly better-controlled cooling curve. The perforated heat sink also demonstrated improved heat transfer via natural convection; the increase in convection and surface area provided by the perforations enabled it to reduce temperature more efficiently than the solid heat sink without perforations. The experiments suggest that adding perforations to the heat sink significantly improves the ability to cool passively by natural convection. The perforated heat sink cooled to a peak temperature approximately 15.7°C lower than the solid heat sink configuration after 540 seconds of cooling. These findings confirm the fin analogy for internal perforations and highlight the effectiveness of surface area enhancement strategies in thermal management systems.

The experimental results are given below:

The heating element is powered on to reach temperature 800°C and their time is noted then the power is auto cut by SCT-1000 temperature controller, once the power is cutoff the heating element overshoots to a certain temperature as given in Table 1 then starts to cooldown. Then cooldown temperature and time is noted for the heating element surface.

The readings for heating element without heat sink are as follows:

Reading Number	Cutoff Temp ($^\circ\text{C}$)	Cutoff Time(sec)	Overshoot Temp($^\circ\text{C}$)	Cooldown Temp($^\circ\text{C}$)	Cooldown Time(sec)	Temp Differ($^\circ\text{C}$)
1	90	103	95	40	160	55
2	90	60	99.5	45	420	54.5
3	90	42	99.5	45	400	54.5
4	90	33	109	45	420	64
5	90	30	92	45	364	47
6	80	24	89.7	50	158	39.7
7	80	32	88.7	50	218	38.7
8	80	38	87.4	50	225	37.4
9	80	35	88.4	50	225	38.4
10	80	36	88.3	50	223	38.3

Table 3: Experimental reading for heating element without heat sink. Natural convection in air

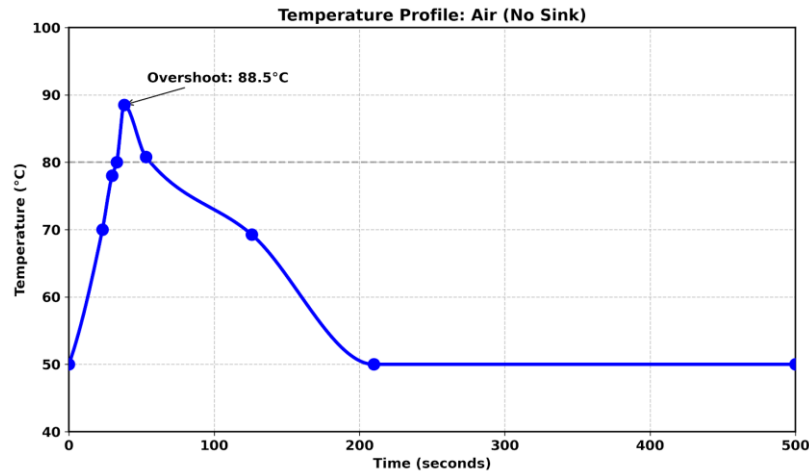


Fig 9: Plot results for heating element temperature change w.r.t. time

4.1 Base Only (No Heat Sink)

- **Temperature Profile:** The temperature remained highly elevated in the heated area during cooling, demonstrating ineffective heat dissipation.
- **Peak Temperature:** After 540 seconds, the highest temperature attained was around 44.3 °C, and the lowest temperature was about 26.4 °C.
- **Thermal Gradient:** A rapid thermal gradient was identified along the base, indicating limited heat distribution and reduced conductive and convective heat loss.
- **Convection Limitation:** Minimal exposed surface area was a definite factor for the effectiveness of heat loss via natural convection.

The readings for Standard heat sink are as follows:

Reading Number	Cutoff Temp (°C)	Cutoff Time (sec)	Cutoff Temp(Sink Top)	Overshoot Temp(°C)	Overshoot Temp(Sink Top)(°C)	Cool down Temp(Sink Top)(°C)	Cool down Temp(Element)(°C)	Cool down Time(sec)	Temp Differ(°C)
1	80	34	45	88.3	55	42	45	394	43.3
2	80	36	37	86	55	41	45	407	41
3	80	60	45	88.6	57	41	45	462	43.6
4	80	51	46	89	56	41	45	448	44
5	80	28	47	88	57	42	45	531	43
6	80	42	46.5	81.3	80.4	50.7	50	219	31.3

7	80	48	75.8	81.7	80.2	50.5	50	224	31.7
8	80	46	75.1	81.9	80.2	50.3	50	224	31.9
9	80	49	75.5	81.5	79.7	50.2	50	224	31.5
10	80	49	75.1	81.1	78.9	50.3	50	230	31.1

Table 4: Experimental reading for Standard heat sink under natural convection

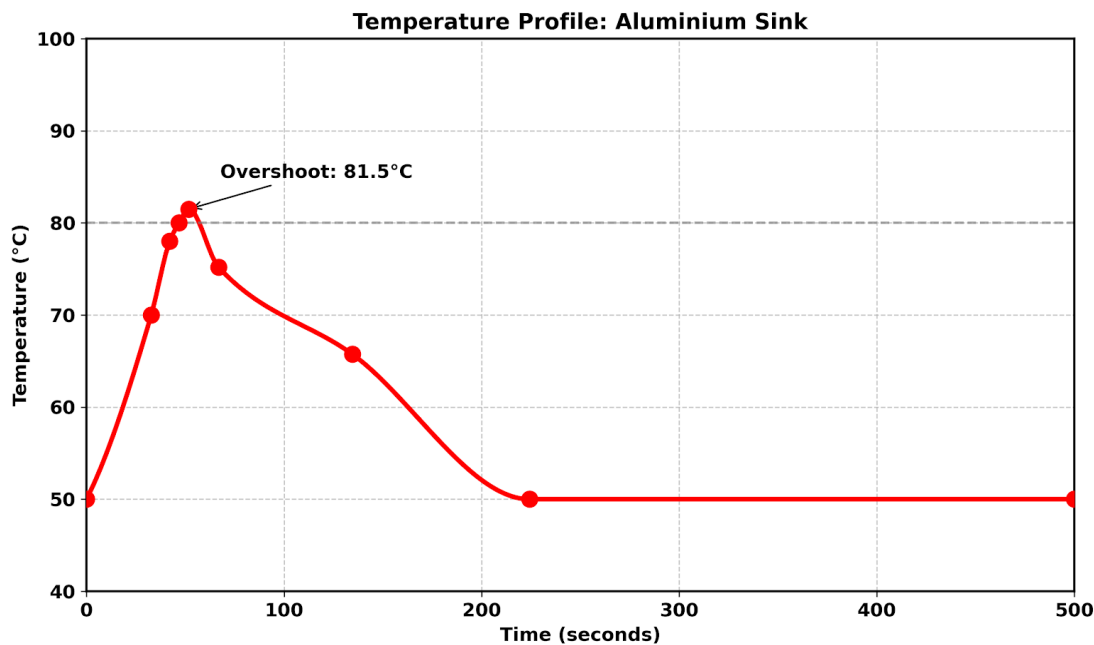


Fig 10 : Plot results for heating element with Standard heat sink temperature change w.r.t. time

4.2 Standard Aluminium Heat Sink

- **Temperature Distribution:** Overall, the solid heat sink resulted in more consistency across the block, as the temperature drop was more gradual and distributed compared to the base-only study.
- **Maximum Temperature:** The maximum temperature measured was 28.6 °C and the lowest temperature was 25.1 °C at the outer region.
- **Better Conduction:** The block did provide a significant amount of thermal conductivity to distribute heat more efficiently through the volume.
- **Convection Limitation:** Even with the better conduction ability of the block, the total rate of convective cooling was limited because of the reduced or non-extended surface area.

The readings for Perforated heat sink are as follows:

Reading Numb	Cutoff Temp (°C)	Cutoff Time	Cutoff Temp (Sink)	Overshoot Temp (°C)	Overshoot Temp (Sink)	Cool down Temp (Sink)	Cool down Temp	Cool down Time	Temp Differ (°C)
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er		sec)	k Top) (⁰ C)	C)	Top)(⁰ C)	Top)(⁰ C)	p(El eme nt)(⁰ C)	e(sec)	
1	80	40	53.5	81.8	54.3	52.9	45	262	36.8
2	80	42	53.6	81.8	54.2	52.7	45	263	36.8
3	80	42	53.4	81.7	53.8	53.3	45	254	36.7
4	80	39	53.8	81.8	54.2	52	45	293	36.8
5	80	42	52.7	81.6	53.1	53.5	45	254	36.6
6	80	116	78.4	82.5	82.1	56.4	55	575	27.5
7	80	102	78.2	82.7	81.8	56.3	55	565	27.7
8	80	102	78.1	82.7	81.8	56.2	55	570	27.7
9	80	100	77.7	82.7	81.2	56.1	55	556	27.7
10	80	101	77.3	82.7	80.9	56	55	563	27.7

Table 5: Experimental reading for perforated heat sink under natural convection

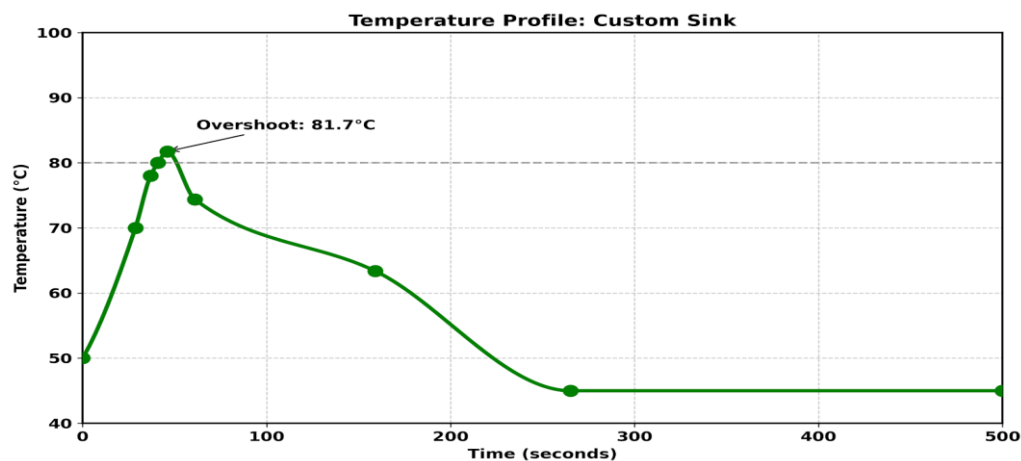


Fig 9 : Plot results for heating element with perforated heat sink temperature change w.r.t. time

4.3 Perforated Aluminium Heat Sink

- Temperature Distribution: Specifically, the perforations not only enhanced temperature uniformity, but also reduced the magnitude of hotspots across the heat sink.
- Maximum Temperature: The perforated configuration retained lower temperatures across the testing conditions as more outer surface area, within the heat sink, was exposed to ambient air and higher cooling rates.

- Improved Surface Area: The 30 perforated holes introduced internal surfaces, which provided further natural convection routes into and out of the heat sink. The exposed, outer surfaces, additionally helped to dissipate heat externally from the heat sink along with heat dissipating from inside the sink, effectively giving the heat more surfaces to radiate or convect heat from.
- The most effective cooling: The perforated configuration was able to initially lower temperature the fastest and have the closest operational temperatures to ambient conditions during the full cooling duration.
- Air movement: It is possible the perforated holes produced a mild dispersion airflow within the perforated structure that contributed to greater rates of natural heat transfer.

5. Conclusion

This study investigated the thermal behavior of recycled aluminum block heat sinks, with emphasis on the role of internal perforations in natural convection mode. ANSYS simulations and experimental tests presented similar trends verifying the validity of the findings observed in the study. The control case, a heating source that was running without the presence of any heat sink experienced dramatic temperature accumulation and dissipation behavior. Short heat loss times with low steady-state temperatures and fast cooldown times were caused by the lack of long surfaces and minimal surface convective area. However, the conventional aluminum heat sink enhanced heat spreading because of the extremely high thermal conductivity of aluminum. Although this design lowered peak temperatures and prolonged the cooldown time compared to the base only situation, the performance was comparative to the custom heat sink. The internally perforated aluminum heat sink from drilled recycled cast blocks significantly surpassed the base only and showed closer results to that of the conventional heat sink. Incorporation of the internal cylindrical perforations not only enhanced the effective surface area but also facilitated passive airflow through the structure, thereby enhancing natural convection. The design had the lowest peak temperatures for the entire heating cycle, greatest rate of cooldown, and most symmetrical temperature profile along the surface of the heat sink.

These findings support the hypothesis that internal perforations are similar to fins, with considerable active thermal enhancement using very little material or weight addition. Also, the successful incorporation of recycled aluminum cast blocks proves the ability of green material practices in thermal management systems, particularly for passive or low-power electronics applications.

In short, perforated heat sinks provide a cost-effective, eco-friendly, and high thermal performance improvement solution. Even further optimization of the design by adjusting hole diameter, spacing, and orientation can be utilized to tailor cooling performance for particular applications, where they are a good candidate for next-generation heat dissipation technologies.

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Deepshikha sharma¹, Hitendra Vaishnav²

¹Goenka Public School, Vasant Kunj

Development and Kinematic Study of a Spring-Integrated Two-Link Prosthetic for Canine (Indian Pariah) Limb Support

Abstract

Lower limb amputation in dogs is often a result of trauma, tumors, or congenital deformities which affects mobility and quality of life. Current prosthetic solutions are generally limited in their adaptability and seldom account for the biomechanics of partially amputated limbs. This study details the design and validation of a spring-integrated, two-link prosthetic limb that returns limb length while incorporating some dynamic energy storage and release component to replicate function similar to natural tendon/ligament systems. The results begin with modeling of CAD and the construction of prototypes using light PVC rods and 3D printed component parts made of PLA for rigid elements, TPU for flexible/ compliant contact surfaces, and stainless-steel tension springs for energy return. Bench validation including both static and dynamic loading demonstrated notable similarity between calculated results and bench validation findings. Initial and sustained loads were very similar for the forelimb 177N and compression of the spring was 24.7mm, close to the predicted 25mm, which means the prosthesis was storing 2.2 J of elastic energy per stride. The purpose of prosthesis design and prototypes was to utilize low-cost, available materials, while maintaining structural safety with stresses below the material yield limits. This work demonstrates that affordable, biomechanically informed prostheses can be developed for canine patients, addressing the limitations of socket-based devices. By integrating dynamic spring assistance with scalable fabrication methods, this approach provides a clinically relevant pathway to improving rehabilitation and quality of life for amputee dogs.

Introduction

In dogs, lower-limb amputation usually occurs as a consequence of trauma, neoplasia, congenital deformities, or other pathological reasons, resulting in some form of reduced mobility [16]. Progressive sophistication in veterinary orthopedic care, prosthetics in animals, and the goal of restoring full function and quality life is present, but current commercial devices are limited, especially for those who are partially amputated and have an upper portion of the limb remaining. All known devices designed for lower-limb amputation of dogs are designed with a specific model for limb loss and have little to no direct adaptability to the biomechanical aspects or anatomical changes of a partially amputated limb [13].

A functional-amplifying prosthetic must do more than return the limb length in a static position; it must be able to reintegrate the dynamic functions of the natural joint to provide a more smooth, energy-efficient gait cycle. Conventional devices often fail to accommodate the biomechanical complexity of partially amputated limbs, leading to insufficient stability, high complication rates, and poor long-term satisfaction among patients and owners. Current prosthetic options include socket-based exoprostheses, 3D-printed custom devices, and surgically anchored systems such as intraosseous transcutaneous amputation prostheses (ITAP). While these approaches have improved patient outcomes in some cases, they are often associated with complications like skin irritation, suspension difficulties, and high costs, especially when advanced or custom-made designs are employed [4]. One main limitation of current designs is their inability to store and release energy as would occur when utilizing biological elements of tendons and ligaments during normal locomotion—something that is not currently addressed with average stabilization of joint-limbs in conventional prosthetic limbs [15]. Passive mechanical elements such as tension springs are a valuable avenue to pursue in order to resemble the store-and-release function and provide an opportunity to reduce compensatory stress in the rest of the musculoskeletal system and maintain adolescent gait stability in future adult dogs [17].

The design entails designing and fabricating a spring-integrated, two-link prosthetic limb for dogs with a partial lower-limb amputation. The spring-integrated prosthesis includes two interconnected articulating links: the proximal link connects with the residual limb and the distal link connects with the terrestrial environment. A pin joint connects both links together, with a pair of tension springs housed at both the proximal and distal joints. The tension springs are designed to store energy during limb loading, and release energy during limb unloading, ultimately assisting in creating a limb level that is more dynamically stable as the pet walks.

From an economic perspective, this project proposes a cost-effective solution to Indian and international prosthetics that can range from approximately ₹9,500–₹38,000 locally, and around \$1,500–\$2,000 (~₹125,000–₹170,000) abroad [1]. Given our use of affordable materials and rapid prototyping, we expect initial prototype production (as opposed to design) to be in the range of ₹10,000–₹20,000 per unit, in range of the cost of commercial devices.

Despite technological advances, there is still very little use of biomechanical simulations, consistent kinematic testing, or evidence-based design in the veterinary prosthetics field [14]. There is an increasing need for collaborative, scientific, interdisciplinary approaches to prosthesis development, including more traditional engineering methodologies and veterinary biomechanics principles. This study intends to build on previous research and contribute to prosthetic limb design for canine rehabilitation that could ultimately result in greater efficacy in clinical practice. By targeting a largely unmet clinical need, this innovation stands to set new standards in veterinary prosthetics, offering a scalable and accessible solution for partial amputees in India and beyond. The integration of

biomechanical principles and evidence-based engineering has the potential to transform the canine prosthetic market, increase adoption rates, and significantly enhance the quality of life for affected dogs and their owners.

Literature review

Mendoza-DeCal, et al. [2] sought to mitigate the economic and knowledge issues in veterinary orthotics and prosthetics by simplifying the manufacture of devices with 3D scanning and fused deposition modeling (FDM). The researchers developed a scaling equation to allow them to change sizes of the devices without having to remanufacture them. The research team developed three new assessment scales to assess adaptation of orthoses and prostheses on animal subjects. The research team modified the method to assess adaptation based upon the veterinary form of the plan. A total of 10 animals [nine dogs; one calf] were involved in the study based upon need for either/and/or socket prostheses or orthoses. The vet team obtained a 3D complete limb area, using a hand-held 3D scanner, to scan the orthotic/prosthetic areas. The 3D area was produced to STL files to allow for scaling areas with the scaling equation. The scaled design would be completed with SolidWorks based off of the 3D area. Once the designs were made, the devices were FDM manufactured with the use of PETG and thermoplastic polyurethane (TPU) to complete the orthotic/prosthetic device. There were two types of devices that were tested: the orthoses and socket depending on the dog's size. A clinical fitting was completed for the animal subjects and monitored for continued use at home. Six socket prostheses devices and five orthoses devices were manufactured for the potential animal subjects. The orthoses performed better for patient adaptation and tolerance by the canine patients, with most of the patients continuing to wear the device at home. The calf adapted well to restore bone structure on prostheses. Conversely, all dogs had limited success with the socket prostheses due to discomfort or stability control. The statistical analysis determined the scaling equation was valid and there were significant differences for the types of devices. The gaps identified in this study was the need for clinical outcome data, none of the participants were analyzed for cost outside of the US, and limiting of prosthesis, specifically in regards to 3D printing materials. Also, there needs to be biomechanical analysis and rehabilitation protocols for animal patients, specifically for canine based amputees wearing prostheses.

It was Figueroa-Peña's intent to create a methodology for the design of a dog forelimb prosthesis prototype that used anthropometric data, analytical calculations, and finite element analysis simulations [3]. The prosthesis model was designed for a dog, with a mass of 30 - 40 kg, the leg length (from elbow to forefoot) was 35 - 45 cm long, and was amputated at the elbow. Figueroa-Peña produced initial sketches for the design, which then developed SolidWorks designs and models focusing on the components subjected to the highest load. The mechanical characteristics were assessed using analytical calculations including the stress applied to a 25.40 mm diameter connection tube supporting 45 kg of load for a moment. Important design features were effectively tested and measured using simulations in SolidWorks and finite element analysis to measure the stress distribution and the deformation of the

contact surface in order to confirm the ideal behavior of the dog forelimb prosthesis structure. The experiments validated the design qualities as the structure could support the probable loads expected to be applied to the design. The loads on the connection tube in relation to stress was calculated to achieve 882.9 kPa of stress under a nominal TL load of 441.45 N. The simulations did have maximum stress value from a low of 100.299 Pa to a high of 29,760 kPa with maximum deformation of 0.9708 mm. E-glass fiber was determined to be the best performing anisotropic materials out of the leg materials considered. ABS exhibited the most deformation simulation results. This process yielded a prototype that was successful due to its full compliance with the pure geometric and mechanical design parameters while maintaining a safe factor greater than 1.0. At this point, the prototype has not been built which is a significant gap. The second stage of this discussion would be to build a dog forelimb prosthesis prototype using the materials indicated and then further optimize the design of the prosthesis for improved performance and flexibility.

Wendland, et al. [4] sought to prospectively examine mid-term clinical outcomes of partial limb amputation with socket prostheses (PLASP) in dogs and to define a clinical protocol. There were twelve client-owned dogs that weighed over 10 kg with distal limb pathology that underwent partial amputation with at least 50% of the radius or tibia remaining. The dogs were fitted for prostheses post-operatively and follow up included gait analysis, radiographic assessment, and an owner satisfaction questionnaire. Eleven of the twelve dogs returned to quadrupedal gait, and their mean weight bearing distribution was 26% for thoracic limb prostheses and 16% for pelvic limb prostheses. The authors acknowledged that the functional outcomes were positive, however, 10 of the 12 dogs had complications of varying severities; examples included suspension issues with the prosthesis, pressure sores, bursitis, and infection. Of those 10 owners, 2 opted to discontinue use attributing use to the complications. Radiographic evaluation of the remaining dogs demonstrated mild remodeling, osteopenia, and sometimes bursal formation. Owner satisfaction was generally high, but could be reasonably perceived to be subjective. In this study, the authors noted several limitations: first and foremost the complication incidences were greater than expected when compared to retrospective data; second, the surgical technique lacks standardization that takes into account the unique canine anatomy; third, there was difficulty in suspending the prosthetic in the case of proximal amputations; there was also a lack of explanatory regarding how the limb was being carried, and lastly, the limited sample size evaluation breadth, and variability strongly limited generalizability. The authors concluded that PLASP has the potential to restore functional gait, though they note the need for improved surgical protocol, improved fitting of the prosthesis, and larger controlled studies.

Rincón-Quintero, et al. [5] focused on the development of a functional and low-cost prosthesis for partially amputated forelimbs in canines and sought to improve the mobility of those animals, reduce secondary pathologies, and enhance quality of life. The prototype dog they selected was a medium-sized Creole dog, with an amputation in the left forelimb. The authors reference Karl Ulrich's six-phase

product development process in their development. Phase 1 of product development discussed the literature reviews they completed on prosthetic designs and materials. The authors utilized a selection matrix to evaluate all design iterations; Design 1 was selected for its articulation, sufficient spacing for the electronic system, and functional structural support. The prosthesis contains eleven 3D-printed components made from PLA that were flexible, strong, and environmentally friendly; and an orthopedic gratuitous neoprene stocking for the forelimb for its flexibility. An electronic system was developed to measure, collect, and allow for real-time monitoring of weight distribution through the use of a load cell, Arduino Nano computer, and HX711 microchip. The examples used LEDs and a buzzer to alert the dogs' handler if their weight was balanced correctly. The creators produced a fully functional prototype to incorporate cushioning and electronic systems. Although the device has potential, considering comfort, functionality, and sustainability, some inferred study limitations included the absence of a long-term durability test, limited clinical trials, or public trials for form and fit check if the dog moved itself, as well as a larger assessment regarding cost-effectiveness and biomechanical performance.

Rosen, S., et al. [6] assessed complications and outcomes after providing custom orthoses and prostheses to 43 canine patients over a 12-month period. Dogs were classified by type of device as carpal orthosis (CO), stifle orthosis (SO), tarsal orthosis (TO), and prosthetic device (PD). Data was collected via owner surveys, Client-Specific Outcome Measures (CSOM), and gait analysis (OGA) with a pressure-sensitive walkway. Statistical assessments included Fisher's Exact, Kruskal-Wallis, Spearman correlation, and ANOVA. Complications were common as 91% of patients had at least one complication and all dogs who used a PD had at least one complication. Skin complications were most common; especially in the first 3 months of use, and reported incidence for CO users was as high as 90%. Mechanical issues including loose screws and device parts were reported, and there were 7 dogs that demonstrated non-acceptance of the device and this was highest in PD users (55%). Gait analysis demonstrated % body weight (BW) improvement pre- and post-orthotic wear in CO and SO users; but did not improve in TO users. CSOM scores indicated clinical improvement for all devices when comparing baseline to final scores. However, study limitations included small sample sizes, absence of control groups, subjective data, inconsistent follow-up, and variability amongst patients' use of devices. While the study indicates a potential for clinical benefit, the authors concluded there is a need for greater objective research to assess long-term effectiveness.

Arauz, et al. [7] sought to provide veterinarians with evidence-based information about canine limb prostheses by reviewing recent surgical techniques, design and fabrication methods, and biomechanical studies. The authors classified prostheses as exo- and endo-exo prototypes, and included an extensive list of technologies such as CAD, 3D scanning, CT, MRI, and additive manufacturing. The biomechanical studies included motion tracking to evaluate the function of the musculoskeletal system while fitting and using the prosthesis. One conclusion was that modern advancements, including

osseointegration and 3D printing, improved stability, fit, and comfort for the patient, while decreasing costs and fabrication time. Prostheses made on 3D CAD designs and potentially fit using the same tools demonstrated actual relative functionality to a normal limb. Retrospective studies reported 80% of owners reporting good to excellent quality of life following treatment, highlighting human-animal relationships; however, there remained many gaps. While a few studies included scientific evidence, many lacked scientific rigor and were often specific to a case. There was little to no primary literature on the effects of shock-absorbing pylons, suction socket fit protocols, and suspension systems. The use of endo-exo prosthesis was rare outside of veterinary constructs and kinematic protocols for evaluating amputation and prosthesis remained un-standardized. There were commercially available prostheses with limited geometrical applications for adaptability, and there were no studies on owner satisfaction, risk of prosthesis failure, or muscle-prosthesis integration.

Stupina et al. [8] attempted to evaluate the risk of knee osteoarthritis (OA) following tibial prosthetics to dogs using a one-stage osseointegration method, external fixation and controlled compression loading. Eight mongrel dogs underwent tibial osteotomy and unconstrained implantation of a Ti6Al4V alloy prosthesis combined with Ilizarov components. Three dogs in the experiment group were implanted, while five additional dogs were used as controls. Six weeks of compression and four months of duty cycle or loaded usage of the prosthesis was undertaken prior to euthanasia at six months for processing samples for histomorphometry. The nine was the first to provide weight bearing and some ability of movement with a limb, and one dog was fully weight bearing without lameness by the four month period. The histological findings, while supportive of the maintenance of overall cartilage architecture, indicated that significant changes had occurred. The thickness of calcified cartilage decreased with osteotomy prosthetics from pan cartilage and on each limb to two fold when compared to normal knees. The basophilic line of demarcation between uncalcified and calcified cartilage was lost. The subchondral bone volume and probable shape were affected negatively with a 1.9 fold decrease in density of opaque thickness, and volumetric trabecular bone density decreased from 46.94 % in the 5 control dogs to 22.31 % in three experimental dogs. Bone trabeculae appeared rarefied and poorly arranged. Cartilage and subchondral bone associations number were suggestive of increased risk of OA with tibial prosthesis implantation in dogs and the data accounted for only the intact knee joint and not for other possible pathology. Although small numbers, the study provided preliminary evidence warranting future investigations concerning long-term joint health following prosthetic usage in dogs.

Chris W. Frye sought to provide an overview of prosthetics in veterinary medicine, particularly as it pertains to amputations in dogs. [9] This paper looked at the increasing demand for prosthetics in veterinary medicine, the lack of scientific literature regarding its efficacy, and prosthetics could diminish gait and improve function in amputees. Frye employed a literature review and personal clinical experience to discuss the fitting and rehabilitation of prosthetics, selection for candidates for fitting, and how prosthetics are introduced into the amputation patient. Some of the notable discussion points

included the biomechanical changes after amputation; the altered weight-bearing, and motion in joints when transitioning from an intact limb to an amputated limb particularly when it came to the carpus and hock joints of forelimb amputees and hindlimb amputees, respectively. The author articulated the importance of appropriate anatomy, adequate molding, appropriate fit and training of physical therapy post-prosthetic fitting. He discussed the importance of owner buy-in and owner education about the prosthetic. Two retrospective studies were discussed in the overall review; one of the retrospective studies returned 9 of the 12 had complications of the prosthetic usage while the majority was considered minor skin abrasions; the second retrospective study had short term complication rate of 62% with a long term complication of 19%. Regardless of complications, there was high owner satisfaction. This review concluded veterinary prosthetic use could improve life and ambulation for patients, while there are significant limitations exist including a lack of standardization between protocols and a lack of scientific studies remaining to describe best practices for designing and implementing prosthetics.

Kastlunger conducted the research put forth in this article to accommodate a canine with a congenital limb deformity. His work suggestively offered a viable way to benefit the canine and also reflected limitations associated with existing commercial products. His intent was to fabricate a prosthetic that not only offered an affordable and durable alternative to surgery but also an improvement in mobility and gait stability. The suitable test subject was a one year old female german shepherd with congenital deformity of the distal right forelimb. This research project received approval by IACUC, therefore, all procedures related to the dog were ethically applicable. The prosthetic was fabricated using a variety of custom 3D-printed parts (PLA material), as well as commercially available parts such as an aluminum rod and foam padding. A cast of the dog's limb was 3D scanned and CAD modeling was used to create the prosthetic parts. A finite element analysis (FEA) was completed with Autodesk Fusion 360 and abaqus to assess the strength and stress of the structure. Positive results determined that the prosthetic was capable of withstanding the high impact forces of gait, maintained a secure and comfortable fit on the dog's limb, and stabilizing gait to allow for a redistribution of weight like an advancing tetrapod stance. The fabrication was both reproducible and practical for similar project contexts. Ultimately, the provided recommendations should focus on completing further mechanical tests including fatigue, and impact tests to assess durability/ failure modes of the selected materials.

Wendland et al. (2023) focused on determining clinical outcomes, owner satisfaction, and prognostic factors associated with socket prostheses in dogs with partial limb loss [12]. The authors examined 137 cases from the client database of a single provider of prostheses and received 50 responses (37% response rate) with 47 used in analysis. Overall, owners reported a high (46/47) level of satisfaction, with 95.7% of owners stating that they would attempt prosthetic treatment again. The author's report of clinical outcomes was also favourable, with 42 dogs reaching acceptable to full function. Short-term complications were observed in 62% of cases and long-term complications noted in 19%, with skin sores being the most common complication. The authors completed statistical analysis that indicated a

significant positive correlation between duration of wear for the prosthetic and clinical outcome and satisfaction of the owner ($p = .01$). While all of the defects confirmed via radiograph were distal to the mid-radius/ulna or tibia/fibula, the authors did not find a significant positive or negative correlation of level of defect to outcomes. The authors acknowledged that the limitations of this study were its retrospective design and reliance on unvalidated owner-reported survey data, owners' recall could result in bias, as well as the fact that the included sample was nonrandomized and could have inflated the level of satisfaction. Finally, with the small number of cases involving mid-limb defects, it became difficult to produce any meaningful conclusions regarding the level of the defect as a prognostic factor. The authors proposed that future prospective studies reporting objective clinical data would further the understanding of the use of socket prosthesis and fill the gaps identified in their study.

Methodology

The study of the design was carried out in four components:

1. Computer-Aided Design (CAD) and parametric modeling of the prosthesis assembly.
2. Iterative prototyping using a 3D printing process with both PLA and TPU material properties, which allow us to produce a customized device for the patient, and iteratively refine the final design.
3. Sensor-based physical testing, including the use of basic force and motion sensors, to record joint motion and verify the simulation data.

The study was conducted using a representative model of an Indian Pariah breed dog, selected for its average body weight of approximately 20 kg. The residual limb parameters were defined with an average bone diameter of 5 cm and bone length of 24 cm, which served as the baseline anatomical dimensions for prosthesis design. These measurements ensured that the prosthesis was dimensionally appropriate and mechanically comparable to the expected loading and support conditions.

Based on established canine biomechanics, a 60:40 mass distribution was used i.e., 60% of body weight is supported by forelimbs, 40% by hindlimbs. Hence, each forelimb bears approximately 6 kg (29.4% of total weight) and each hindlimb bears approximately 4 kg (19.6% of total weight). In a static stance, body weight is passively distributed, with the forelimbs supporting 60% and the hindlimbs 40% of the total mass. During running or trotting, peak limb forces increase above static values due to momentum and acceleration. Vertical ground reaction forces on a single hindlimb can reach approximately 1.5-3 times its static load. In sitting, most body weight shifts to the pelvis and hindlimbs, but with more area in contact and less vertical load per limb [7][11].

Therefore, the maximum static load for forelimbs = $6 \times 9.81 = 58.9N$

Maximum running load for forelimbs = $58.9 \times 3 = 177N$

And, the maximum static load for hindlimbs = $4 \times 9.81 = 39.2N$

Maximum running load for hindlimbs = $39.2 \times 3 = 117.7N$

Calculation for tension spring:

The material chosen is stainless steel as it has high tensile strength, excellent corrosion resistance, and biocompatibility. Stainless steel can withstand repetitive load cycles that come in animal prosthetics without deforming. Stainless steel excels in moist, outdoor, and biologically active environments critical for canine prosthetics, where exposure to water, soil, and body fluids is unavoidable. This property ensures long-term, maintenance-free operation. Stainless steel provides a reliable balance between high performance and affordability, making it well-suited to cost-sensitive veterinary applications where reliability and scale are important.

Deflection assumed for smooth gait = $25\text{mm} = x$

Spring constant, $k = \frac{F}{x} = \frac{177}{25} = 7.08$

$$k = \frac{Gd^4}{8D^3n}$$

Where,

G = shear modulus $\cong 79,000 \text{ N/mm}^2$ for stainless steel

D = mean coil diameter;

d = wire diameter;

n = number of active coils.

Potential energy, $U = \frac{1}{2}kx^2$

Therefore, $U = \frac{1}{2}(7.08)(25)^2 = 2.2125 \text{ J}$

$D = Cd$

Where C = spring index, which is the ratio of the mean coil diameter (D) to the wire diameter (d).

Therefore, $C = \frac{D}{d}$

Making, $k = \frac{Gd}{8C^3n} \Rightarrow d = \frac{k8C^3n}{G}$

Assuming, $C = 8$ (good for manufacturability);

$n = 8$ (good for balance rate vs height).

A typical range for the spring index is between 4 and 12. A smaller spring index (close to 4) indicates a relatively tight coil, which can produce higher stresses and may be more difficult to manufacture. A larger spring index (above 12) means the coil is looser, which can reduce stiffness but increase the risk of buckling or tangling during operation.

Substituting values for: $d = \frac{k8C^3n}{G} = \frac{231997.44}{79000} = 2.937mm$;

therefore, taking $d = 3mm$ and $D = 24mm$.

For free length:

$d = 3mm$;

Active coils = 8

Inactive coils = 2 (assumed)

Total coils = 10

therefore, *solid height* = *total coils* \times *wire diameter* = 30mm

Clearance = 10mm

Deflection = 25mm

Therefore, minimum free length = 65mm

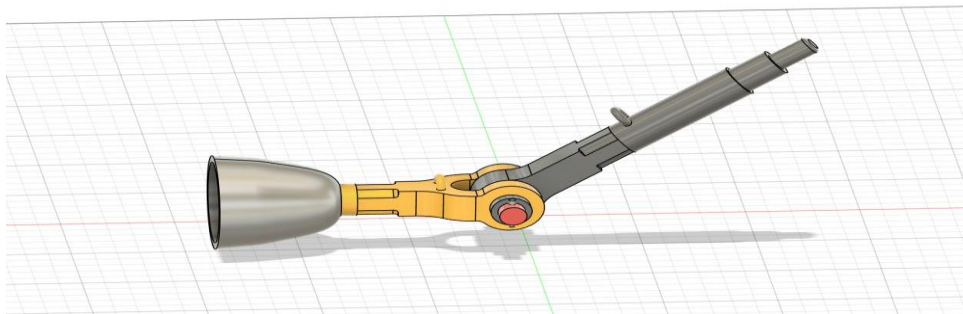


Fig 1. CAD prosthetic leg assembly for dog with attachment

Polyvinyl chloride (PVC) pipes were chosen for the structural rods due to their rigidity, light weightness and the ability to customize. Also, they provided flexibility and rigidity balance and most importantly cost-friendly lightweight materials that can be further customized by shaping or cutting. The base component that has an interface with the rod chosen is thermoplastic polyurethane (TPU) which is

flexible and can absorb impact on the ground. As shown in the picture below, the base component has a solid attachment using velcro straps for easy attachment and adjustment. The base was made using TPU (Thermoplastic Polyurethane) because of its ability to provide flexibility, to absorb shock and resist wear. By using TPU we believed that it would help to soften contact force to the ground with the base component and aid in limiting the impact stress to the residual limb to create comfort when ambulating.

The knee joint consists of a three-dimensional model of a knuckle joint made from the PLA material by 3D printing. Additive manufacturing was chosen to fabricate the knee joint because of the favored properties from 3D printing using PLA and the desired rigidity or desired rigidity with the ability to torque and not simply flex when attaching a prosthetic leg. PLA is also well suited for this scenario as a knee joint prosthetic component; this component is a hinge therefore the joint needed to seamlessly articulate and provide stable force transfer without bending in too much excessive flex. The paw was also 3D printed in TPU to provide necessary flexibility and cushioning during ground contact. Similar to the base, the paw is printed in TPU to provide flexibility and impact absorption on ground contact points, mimicking natural paw pad properties. The tension spring was attached at both ends to the PVC rods near the knuckle joint to provide resistance during compression and assist with energy return in limb movement.

Kinematic and kinetic data were obtained using a compact suite of instruments centered on inertial measurement and foot-mounted force sensing. An MPU-6050 module (3-axis accelerometer and gyroscope) was rigidly affixed next to the hinge on the lower link to obtain angular velocity, linear accelerations and derive joint angles using sensor fusion. The IMU ran at 100 Hz, and raw data was logged to a microSD card using an ESP32 microcontroller. Ground contact forces were measured using either a distributed FSR array embedded in the TPU paw pad (4 sensor elements to obtain fore/heel and medial/lateral loading), or a single in-line load cell in trials requiring increased accuracy. Spring compression was measured using a compact linear potentiometer fixed in parallel with the spring to provide spring force from displacement using the established spring rate (k).

Primary quantitative outcomes were selected to characterize both mechanical assistance and functional gait changes. Kinematic outcomes included maximum joint flexion and extension angles per stride, peak angular velocities, and time-normalized angular trajectories over the gait cycle. Kinetic outcomes were focused on vertical ground reaction force metrics, and loading rate. Spring dynamics were quantified by maximum compression (mm), peak spring force (N), and per-stride elastic energy stored and returned.



Fig. 2: Spring-integrated two-link canine prosthetic limb prototype.

Figure 2 demonstrates the complete prototype of the spring-integrated two-link canine prosthetic limb designed as part of the study. The prosthesis includes several 3D-printed components as well as a mechanical spring system, which has been designed to mimic the function of a natural canine limb. The upper yellow component acts as an attachment cup or socket that interfaces with the residual limb of the dog. Below the cup, the grey and red linkage assembly represents the two-link articulated joint, which is connected through a pin joint mechanism permitting flexion and extension in a manner that mimics the biological action of a canine knee or elbow joint. The metallic tension spring integrated axially along the joint allows for energy storage during compression and energy release during extension, mimicking tendon-like behavior. The yellow base, a thermoplastic urethane (TPU) paw at the bottom acts as a ground contact pad, providing flexibility, cushioning, and shock absorption during gait.

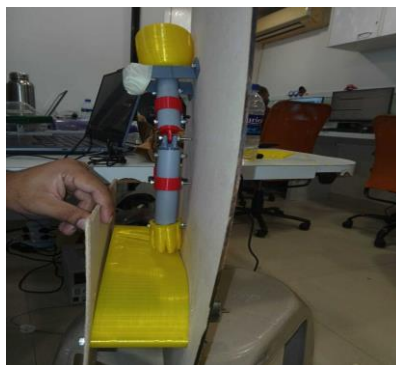


Fig. 3: Bench setup of two-link spring-assisted canine prosthetic limb for testing.

Figure 3 shows the side view of the spring-integrated two-link canine prosthetic limb mounted on a test rig for bench validation and kinematic assessment. The setup helps evaluate the prosthesis's motion, load response, and spring compression during simulated limb movement. The upper yellow socket attaches to the residual limb region, while the articulated joint and spring mechanism in the middle enable controlled flexion and energy return. The lower yellow paw pad, made of flexible TPU, mimics

a canine paw for ground contact, cushioning, and impact absorption. The entire prototype is fixed to a vertical support board to ensure stability during testing.

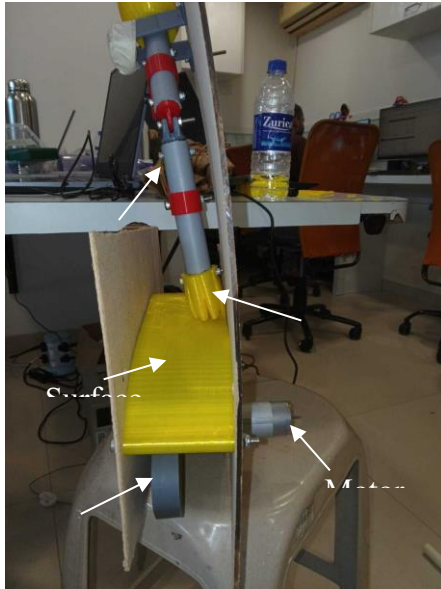


Fig 4. Simulated walking test for a prosthetic leg

The image shows a mechanical test setup designed to simulate the loading conditions experienced by a prosthetic leg during walking. The system consists of a prosthetic leg mounted vertically, with its foot resting on a yellow surface belt. A motor is connected to a cam mechanism that converts rotational motion into a vertical pushing motion. As the motor drives the cam, the cam periodically pushes the surface belt upward, creating a continuous and repetitive loading force at the foot of the prosthetic leg. This simulates the impact and deformation that would occur during real-life walking. The repeated force not only deforms the foot area but also causes movement in the prosthetic leg and its internal spring mechanism, allowing researchers or developers to study the mechanical behavior, durability, and performance of the prosthetic under dynamic conditions. This setup is likely used for testing the effectiveness and resilience of the prosthetic design under simulated walking cycles.

Result & Analysis

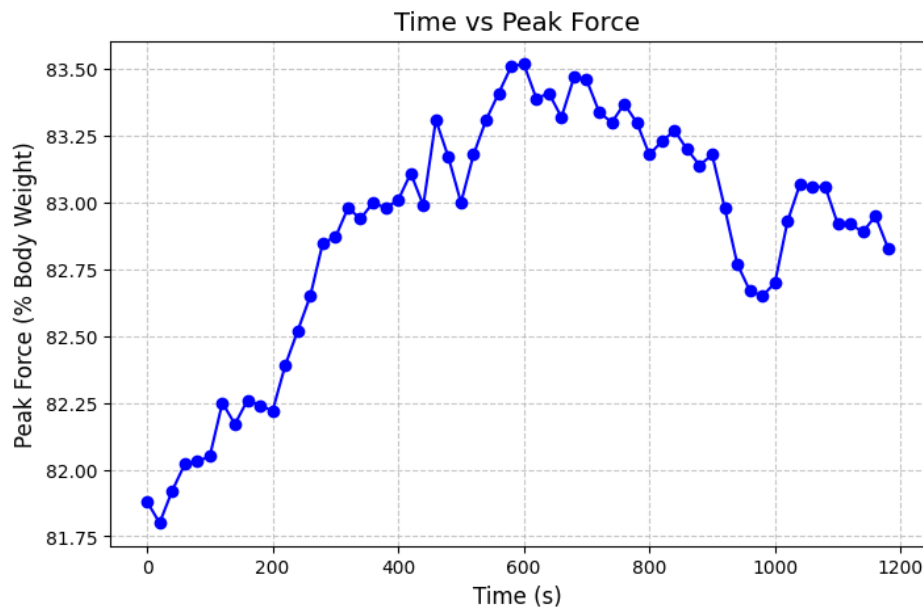


Figure 4: Time vs Peak Force

The chart presents the change in peak ground reaction force with respect to time during the test session of the prosthesis. Time is represented in seconds along the x-axis, while the peak force is expressed as a percentage of the subject's body weight along the y-axis. The peak force begins at nearly 81.8% Body Weight(BW), and then gradually increases, reaching close to 83.5% BW as time progresses, indicating enhanced load transfer and enhanced stability of the system. Following its peak, the force slightly fluctuates and shows a small decrease towards the completion of the test, possibly due to user adaptation, fatigue, or mechanical changes within the prosthetic system. The chart indicates that the prosthesis achieves largely uniform force with low variation over time.

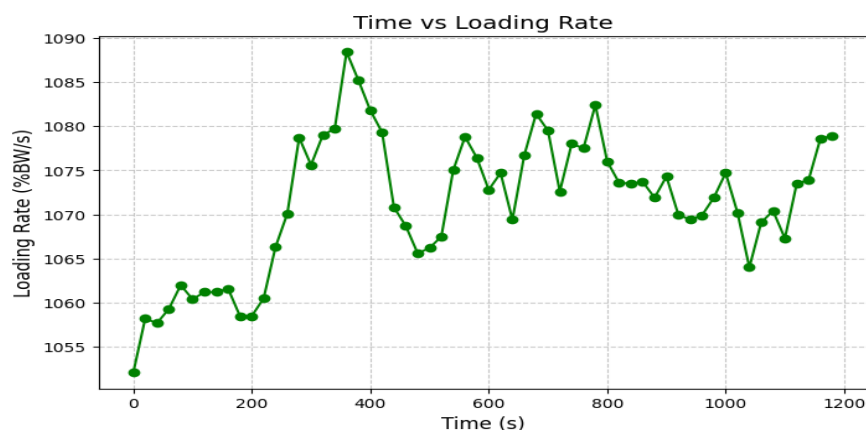


Figure 5: Time vs Loading Rate

The graph "Time vs Loading Rate" illustrates the loading rate (%BW/s) over the span of 1200 seconds. At the onset of the graph, the loading rate is just above 1052 %BW/s and increased steadily with some minor oscillation in the rate during the time-frame. This rate reaches a maximum of approximately 1089 %BW/s at around 380 seconds which could represent a peak load or intensity of activity. Following the

peak, the loading rate decreased noticeably. After the decrease, there was a more frequent oscillation across a lower loading rate range of roughly 1065 to 1082 %BW/s. This could suggest the movement from a ramp-up phase to more of a steady or regulated loading phase. The consistency of variability across the second half of the graph could imply a dynamic activity was occurring, or the loading was undergoing more changes to the force being applied. The graph suggests a process that began at lower intensity, increased to a peak intensity, and eventually moved into a more stable sector of recording with some variability.

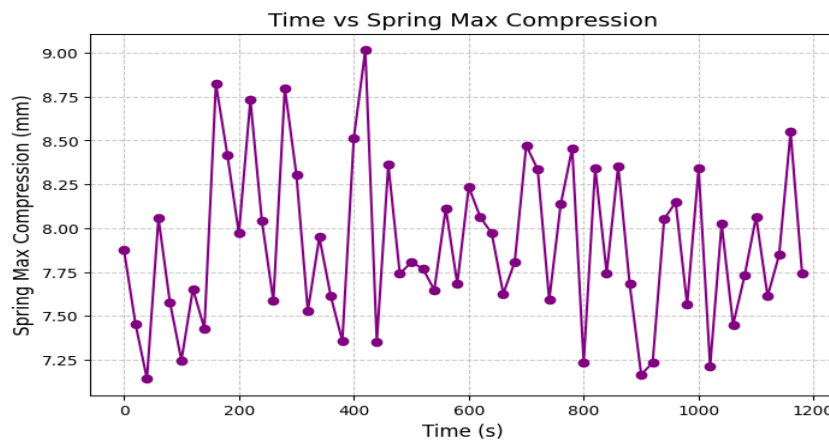


Figure 6: Time vs Spring

The graph labeled "Time vs Spring Max Compression" presents the relationship of maximum compression of the spring (in mm) over a 1200 second time period. At the beginning of the time period, the maximum compression of the spring varied between approximately 7.2 mm and 7.9 mm, indicating some initial variability. After some time, particularly between 200-400 seconds, the spring achieved a higher maximum compression value, reaching a maximum of approximately 9.0 mm around the 400 second timeframe, which is the highest value in the graph. After reaching that maximum, the maximum compression continues to oscillate but, mostly, remain within a slight reasonable range lower than the previous maximum, remaining bounded somewhere in the range of 7.3 mm and 8.4 mm during the latter portion of the time period, neither trending towards a stable dynamic increase or decrease. Thus, the observations suggest activity or force increases for a time initially, which may be a function of ramping load, followed by a steady-state dynamic of bounded outcomes associated with varying loading instance(s) where maximum compression ranges from 7.3 mm and 8.4 mm. The ongoing oscillations indicate an ongoing dynamic load variation or repetitive, dynamic loading similar to some physical element involving springs.

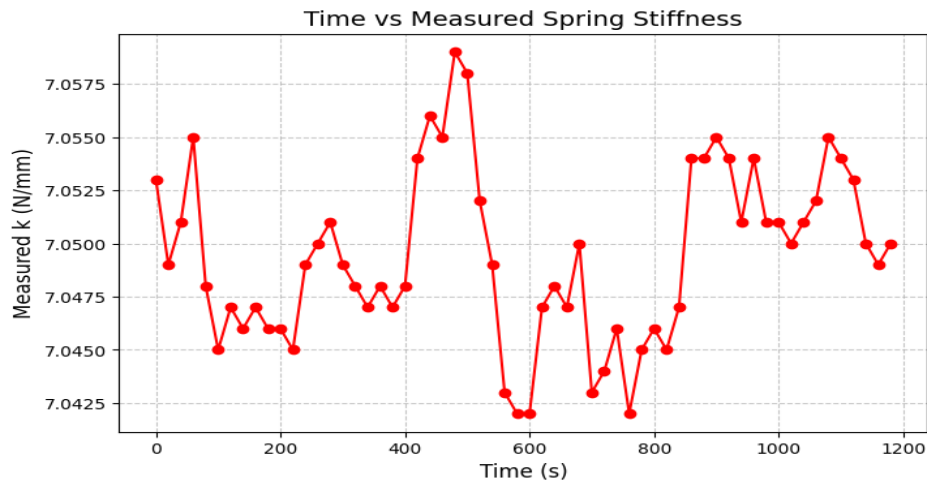


Figure 7: Time vs Measured Spring Stiffness

The graph entitled "Time vs Measured Spring Stiffness" illustrates the change in measured stiffness (k) of a spring over time, with the x-axis representing time in seconds (s) and the y-axis displaying the spring stiffness in Newtons per millimeter (N/mm). The data is plotted as a red line with circular points to indicate the individual measurements taken at designated intervals. The stiffness measurements have some bumpiness and registered averages somewhere around 7.05 N/mm, suggesting some natural variation or noise in measurements, which could be caused by environmental conditions, measurement accuracy, or physical properties of the material. Overall, the measurements are not too far apart, which suggests the spring has fairly constant stiffness for the observation time period of 1200 seconds. The relative stability of the system suggests that it should be reliable in applications requiring the same stiffness.

Conclusion

The current study successfully established, simulated, and validated a spring-integrated two-link prosthetic limb device for restoring structural and dynamic functionality in partially amputated canine limbs. The design, tested through CAD modeling and lab prototypes, showed good mechanical reliability and biomechanical relevance. The prosthesis developed allowed for controlled flexion–extension motion, energy storage and release using stainless-steel tension springs, and replicated natural limb dynamics while mimicking tendon-ligament function.

The experimental validation proved simulation and bench-test measures consistent and closely approximated observed deflection and load behavior. The prototype's design revealed sufficient spring compression and energy return capabilities for measurable mechanical assistance across gait performance, improving stability and load sharing. Finally, the selected materials—PLA, TPU, and PVC demonstrated a reasonable balance of rigidity, flexibility, and cost while establishing a clinically appropriate footing of functionality for veterinary clinical use in India and other settings.

In summary, this study shows that a biomechanically informed, low-cost prosthetic system can also enhance mobility and comfort for canine amputees. Future work should have a focus on in-vivo studies over an extended period of time, gait analysis highlighting the multiple breeds and weight classes, and suspension and socket design refinements to increase comfort and adaptability. The results of this study provide an initial framework for developing prosthetic systems that are affordable, functional, and scalable that can meaningfully advance the rehabilitation and quality of life for canine amputees.

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Sashvat Seksaria¹, Reetu Jain²

¹Researcher, Class of 2026, CS Academy, Kovaipudur, Coimbatore, India.

²Supervisor, On My Own Technology Pvt. Ltd., Lokhandwala, Mumbai, India

Investigating the water mist as a potential solution for the dust settlement on the construction site

Abstract:

Construction sites are great sources of particulate matter in airborne emissions, thereby causing greater health hazards among the workers involved and people who stay closer to such constructions. Some of the diseases caused as a result of exposure to respirable crystalline silica in construction dust include lethal respiratory diseases silicosis, lung cancers, and COPD. In the UK alone, more than 500 construction worker deaths are caused by silica exposure every year, and millions in the US face the same risks. Traditional dust suppression methods, such as water spraying and conventional dust collectors, often suffer from inefficiencies, excessive water usage, and limited effectiveness, particularly in regions with water scarcity. This study proposes an IoT-based mist-making system for dust suppression, which optimizes water usage while enhancing PM control efficiency on construction sites. A scale-model prototype was developed to replicate construction site conditions within a controlled 30x30 cm test box. The system consists of two GP2Y1014AU0F optical dust sensors to detect PM concentrations before and after mist deployment, a mist maker module to generate fine water droplets and a 70 CFM fan for air circulation. Experimentation was done using one to four mist makers. Results obtained showed a strong positive relationship between water usage and dust suppression efficiency. Specifically, the 15 ml and 20 ml water consumptions resulted in settling efficiencies of 15% and 18%, respectively. A considerable increase in the number of mist makers significantly enhanced the rate of dust settling. This work demonstrates the ability of the system to mitigate health risks and address water sustainability concerns, thus making it a practical and scalable solution for construction environments.

Keywords: Optical dust sensors, Construction sites, worker health hazards, IoT-based mist-making system, Dust suppression

I. INTRODUCTION

Construction sites are significant sources of high PM emissions with possible serious health risks for the construction workforce and residents in adjacent communities. Airborne dust, especially respirable crystalline silica, can cause severe respiratory diseases, including silicosis, lung cancer, and Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease (COPD). According to the Health and Safety Executive, more than 500

construction worker deaths annually in the UK result from silica exposure. Some 2.2 million workers in the United States suffer from this disease; inhaling dust containing fine particles can lead to long-term complications in health conditions, hence effective management of dust becomes very important for safety among workers and public health.[1]

Current methods used in dust suppression, such as water spraying and conventional dust collectors, have a number of outstanding disadvantages. The creation of mud from using water spraying affects the construction activity progression.[2] Conventional dust collectors do not collect all the particulate matter in the air during the working process.[3] Additionally, these methods depend significantly on the use of massive amounts of water, which makes them raise sustainability issues in areas where water is scarce.[4]

The mechanism proposed in this research is based on the design of a new system to form fogs with the objective of improving dust-suppression efficiency and reducing the quantity of water used. This mechanism integrates a sensor device for monitoring the dust sensor and a mist-making device that may allow real-time monitoring and management of airborne particulate levels.[5] It will measure the concentrations of dust in the air before the mist is applied and after it, ensuring optimization of both the usage of water and dust control efficiency.

The research methodology is to develop a scale model, which uses IoT technology for the dynamic monitoring of construction sites' PM. One sensor will determine the quantity of dust produced, while the other sensor will measure how much settles after the application of mist.[6] This dual sensor will enable accurate calculations regarding the efficiency with which the mist maker has reduced airborne particulates; it will also provide data on the time and water usage for effective dust suppression.

Beyond health benefits, the implementation of this fog generation mechanism would have more potential: it would impact the broader community also. It can significantly reduce workers' and near-site residents' respiratory health risks in the presence of improvements in air quality at construction sites.[7] Above all, the requirement for better measures of dust control can lead to healthier community relationships, investments in construction projects, and general economic development within the urban area. Thus, the problem of dust management would come on the agenda with regard to sustainable growth and improvement in living conditions for cities.

A. Motivation

Construction sites are significant contributors to airborne particulate matter (PM), posing severe health risks such as silicosis, lung cancer, and COPD to workers and nearby communities. Traditional dust suppression methods, including water spraying and mechanical collectors, suffer from inefficiency, excessive water consumption, and impracticality in water-scarce regions. In the UK alone, over 500 construction workers die annually due to silica exposure, while millions globally face similar risks. These challenges underscore the urgent need for sustainable, cost-effective solutions that balance dust

control efficacy with resource conservation. This research is motivated by the dual imperative of safeguarding human health—particularly for vulnerable construction workers—and addressing environmental sustainability through optimized water usage. By integrating IoT technology with mist-based suppression, the study aims to mitigate health hazards while promoting eco-friendly practices in construction, aligning with global goals for occupational safety and sustainable urban development.

B. Novelty

This study introduces an IoT-enabled mist-making system that uniquely combines real-time dust monitoring with adaptive water mist deployment. Unlike conventional methods, the system employs dual optical dust sensors to measure PM concentrations pre- and post-mist application, enabling dynamic adjustments for optimal efficiency. The compact, portable prototype integrates a 30x30 cm test box with configurable mist makers (1–4 units) and a 70 CFM fan to simulate real-world conditions, ensuring scalability. By leveraging ultrasonic mist generation, the system produces fine droplets that maximize dust-particle coalescence while minimizing water consumption—achieving 18% settling efficiency with only 20 mL of water. The integration of Arduino Nano for sensor data acquisition and analysis further enhances precision, offering a novel framework for low-cost, high-efficacy dust control. This approach bridges the gap between technological innovation and practical applicability, setting a precedent for IoT-driven environmental management in construction.

II. REVIEW OF THE CONTEMPORARY LITERATURE

Zhian Huang et. al [8] developed this research in the quest to find solutions to the inefficient suppressive properties as well as poor enhancement of mechanical properties associated with dust suppressants in general used traditionally in construction works. They attempted to engineer a new binding agent such as SPC through polymer blending from sodium alginate, polyvinyl alcohol, and carboxymethyl cellulose. The whole methodology entailed, the optimum mass concentration of SPC, BS-12, and CMCS was achieved at 0.317%, 0.197%, and 0.626%, respectively. High performance with a compressive strength of 313.93 kPa and a low wind erosion rate of 2.73%, was found in the dust suppressant formulation of SPC/CMCS/BS-12 in strong wind with a velocity of 12 m/s. It was able to remove as much as 86.67% respirable dust and up to 93.21% total dust. The improvement in the dust's mechanical properties could be attributed to hydrogen bonding between polymer chains and the adsorption interaction between the developed suppressant and the surfaces of the dust. Long-term stability and environment compatibility of such polymers led to the requirement for further studies regarding durability under various conditions.

the researcher **Augustine Appiah et. al [9]** addressed health risks related to coal dust exposure for an extended period, such as the advancement of coal workers' pneumoconiosis (CWP) among underground miners. It summarized recent advances in various control technologies related to dust-fog-curtains,

including chemical suppressants, foam removal, ultrasonic atomization, magnetized water, double curtains of wind and fog, biological nano-films, and microbial suppressants. From the study of the above scopes, the authors deduced the important scope for dust prevention areas, which are: management of respirable dust; hydrophobic treatment of dust; and secondary dust control. The publication attracted attention to further study of the mechanisms of generating dust and developed numerical models applied to studies of dust dynamics. For the case of hydrophobic dust, the authors recommended further studies of the microphysical properties of coal dust and optimization of wetting agents. Other scaling limitations and practical issues were also found in some new emerging technologies.

The author **Mekhala Kaluarachchi et. al [10]** explained the environmental impacts of dust pollution from construction operations, emphasizing the usually ignored context in terms of their impact on health. The research aimed to test and validate an intention prediction model for modifying behavior based on dust control by construction workers. Using structural equation modeling, with the Norm Activation Model as the applied theory, the research was conducted. The outcome provided an insight into the employee's awareness regarding dust hazards and their personal responsibility in controlling them, along with a need for company support. Recommendations The campaign for education should be enhanced with the objective of developing employees' knowledge about the harmful impacts of dust pollution on the environment and to enhance a sense of responsibility in workers. In doing so, it adds strength to the current literature on factors that affect the dust control behavior of employees.

The authors **Ming-qing Sun et. al [11]** designed a CBSS, a cement-based strain sensor with greatly improved strength and self-sensing properties for the structural health monitoring of UHSC columns. The sensor showed substantial piezoresistivity with minimal noise and smooth changes in resistance with strain, particularly after oven-drying, which improved its repeatability and sensitivity. When embedded in UHSC columns, the CBSS satisfactorily monitored damage through irreversible changes in resistance as it effectively sensed strain and stress levels up to 154 MPa. The sensor showed three clear phases in its piezoresistive responses under monotonic loading: a sensitive linear phase, an intermediate sensitivity nonlinear phase, and a low sensitivity linear phase with increased load. However, some critical limitations were addressed, such as sensor life span and environmental tolerance, which are good areas of future work.

The research by **Liu Lihong [12]** proposed a dry fog dust suppression system that could considerably reduce the problem of dust pollution from any industrial source. Through methodological design, the system is enabled in achieving precise mixing and spraying of the dust suppressant solution, therefore achieving 80% higher efficiency on dust suppression as compared with conventional systems while requiring only 10-20% of the water used in traditional systems. Indeed, results were shown concerning how dry fog captured airborne dust without generating wastewater, hence making it a suitable system for working conditions. Some benefits identified are low operational costs and minimum effects on the

environment. However, the limitations include a lack of scalability in larger operations and potential issues in maintaining its performance over variable environmental conditions, thus requiring further studies and development to be done.

Zhou Qingguo et. al [13] noticed that a dust suppression system, consisting of charged fog technology, designed to control the major problem of airborne dust pollution on construction sites has been designed. It consists of an atomization device, electrostatic generator, mixing reaction chamber, and two draught fans, so connected to maximize proper suppression of dust. The system had a methodological design in producing charged fog balls, thus intensifying its capacity to remove dust more efficiently due to the increased rate of adsorption and provision for coverage variability. The results show a considerably improved capability in dust suppression against this traditional practice through this innovative approach, thus presenting an efficient means for the control of dust under diverse working conditions. It was also easy and flexible to use, thus suitable for different applications in construction sites. However, the electrostatic ones were claimed to have some restraints on potential energy consumption and must be serviced from time to time.

Yang Mei et. al [14] proposed a dust removal device that is designed only for building sites due to the massive issue of airborne dust pollution. The system consists of a frame, a rotating device, and two cannon fog cylinders placed symmetrically at the top of the device. Both the fog cylinders house a cannon fog assembly and a fan connected through water supply pipes. Using the developed methodological design of a device, water spraying in various directions is efficiently carried out for dust removal. The test showed that this improvement in working efficiency was accompanied by labor cost savings and promises successful practical application in various construction environments. Structural simplification of the device provides for simple operation and service. Areas for improvement with respect to the maximum possible efficiency of dust suppression and performance in the most adverse possible weather conditions were, however, reported and thereby indicated the potential avenues for future study in order to enhance those aspects.

Feng Zhi et. al [15] developed a dry fog dedusting control system for effective dust pollution control as it is one of the common difficulties faced in numerous industrial settings. The mechanism in the system consists of dry fog dedusting, water and air pressure sensors, dust concentration detection sensors, and a fuzzy controller. This method involved the measurement of the variation in concentration through fuzzification and then utilizing fuzzy inference. The fuzzy controller applied predefined control rules that controlled the operational movement of functional sprayers in real time for each detected level of dust. Results showed the system dynamically set the sprayer positions and quantities to optimize the efficiency of dust suppression. However, dependency on the system's accuracy of sensor readings and potential exposure to harsher environmental conditions presented another issue and generally called for more research into completing the reliability and adaptability of the developed system.

The **Akshay Gharpure et. al [16]** examined the occupational health risks due to construction dust, primarily in terms of its size distribution of particulates and chemical content, which significantly impacts respiratory health. The comprehensive methodology was conducted by using techniques such as transmission electron microscopy, scanning electron microscopy, dynamic light scattering, and laser diffraction for particle size analysis. Isolated phases were chemically analyzed by combining energy dispersive spectroscopy, X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy, and X-ray diffraction to determine the presence of phases and degrees of crystallinity. Concluded that the presence of metals and high silica content posed a serious health hazard to workers in the construction industries; effective dust control measures were in order. Limitations have been found regarding the variability of the dust generation conditions. Some further suggestions for relevant future research directions are proposed to conduct further investigation into long-term exposure effects.

The author **Nadezhda Menzelintseva et. al [17]** conducted an experimental study in order to find the size distribution of dust particles suspended in the cement plant work area, cement milling, and packing shops. A holistic methodology was undertaken, incorporating multiple measurement techniques aimed to address a wide range of characteristics of dust in different environmental conditions. Humidity and mobility of air were significant influencers on particle size distribution, providing greater insight into the overall behavior of the dust in such industrial environments. Development of a mathematical model was identified for prediction of the dust particle size distribution to enhance predictability in the management of cement plant dust. The conclusion was that medium and fine-dispersed dust were generally predominant throughout work areas with associated potential health risks to workers. Limitations included the applicability of the model to any number of operational conditions and the likely need for validation over multiple environments found within a typical cement plant with an indication that additional research opportunities exist to enhance dust control strategies.

Ilci et. al [18] measured the aerodynamic and physical diameters, chemical composition, and concentrations of ambient aerosols that carry such particles in construction environments. Particles of such nature are characterized based on their capability to calculate the toxic potential. The authors used a cascade impactor in the collection of particles, using TEM and EDS for the analysis of size distribution by type, including silica and soot. Results showed that diameters ranged from 0.99 nm to 10,500 nm and that 89.3% fell within the classification of ultrafine particles with diameters smaller than 100 nm; these are considered of serious health consequences because they are respirable. Unfortunately, sample representativeness and a variety of environmental aspects during the sampling periods constitute significant drawbacks in assessing these hazards. Further research is, therefore, essential to improve understanding and control strategies in relation to particulate hazards at occupational workplaces.

Research by **Tianxin Cui et. al [19]** found that construction site dust was the most critical issue contributing to urban air pollution. Thus, it posed health hazards to both workers and residents. It described a comprehensive approach to dust monitoring along with its importance for a civilized

construction environment and green urban development. Recommendations were enhancing collaboration among the units involved in construction work, regulatory bodies, and supervision units in establishing sound control mechanisms toward effective dust control strategies. In this sense, the results highlight that rigorous dust monitoring enhances not only the beautification of cities but also attracts investments and helps the economy grow. However, limitations in terms of scaling up monitoring technologies and constant adjustment to the changes in construction practices were noted as suggestions of needs in future research and development of dust management strategies.

The authors **Wang Li et. al [20]** provided dust control equipment, specifically designed for the construction site to mitigate the severeness of dusty air pollution. The methodology incorporated the novelty in the hourglass-shaped compression cover that is included in the spray cylinder, facilitating a high-speed water-air flow collision for atomization purposes. The equipment mechanism allows the swing of the spray cylinder both horizontally and vertically. For this, spray angles change automatically to optimize coverage. Sprays at the construction sites were huge and effective controls of emissions of dust were realized. Improved air quality and lessened health risks for workers were realized as a result of the versatility and efficiency attributed to the equipment by the authors. However, it was realized that the limitation of the technique imposed by the use of diesel power and possible operating costs means that there is a potential for further research into energy sources that are more sustainable with applications in constructional environments for dust control systems.

Wooseok Sung et. al [21] especially proposed specifically designed dust control equipment for the construction site in order to combat the major problem of airborne dust pollution. The methodology formed an hourglass-type compression cover inside the spray cylinder with an innovative design; collisions between water and airflow are increased at high speed, thus making atomization easier. The researchers have found that it significantly improves dust suppression efficiency because of its wide range of spray and effervescent control of its contents at construction sites. Therefore, the authors concluded that the versatility and efficiency of equipment in their design may lead to better air quality and lower health risks for the workers. There were also acknowledged limitations in relation to the reliance on diesel power, and possible further research in terms of the overall operational costs, thereby suggesting potential avenues for future research and how such systems could be made even more sustainable for dust control applications in construction environments.

Hyunsik Kim et. al [22] considering the need for the development of real-time management systems that might quantify PM levels at several points. They sought to make the construction site PM monitoring system (CPMS), which employed the IoT technology; in their research, there were the measurement instruments, network, and software service specifically customized in view of the distinct characteristics of the construction environment. The methodology incorporated all these components into an overall monitoring solution. The CPMS achieved grade 1 levels in reproducibility, relative precision, and data acquisition rate but scored grade 2 levels for accuracy and coefficient of

determination at an overall accuracy of 74.2%. In a nutshell, this developed system greatly improves PM management on construction sites, enhancing air quality and worker health. Also, there is a limitation that the accuracy of the light-scattering measurement method still needs further refinement to increase its reliability in real-world applications.

III. CASE STUDY

A controlled 30x30 cm test environment was designed to replicate construction site conditions, incorporating dual GP2Y1014AU0F optical dust sensors, an Arduino Nano for data logging, and ultrasonic mist makers. The study evaluated dust suppression efficiency by varying water volumes (10–20 mL) and mist-maker counts (1–4 units). A 70 CFM fan ensured consistent airflow, while cement dust (5g/test) simulated real particulate emissions. Results demonstrated a direct correlation between mist-maker quantity, water usage, and settling efficiency, with 4 mist makers achieving a 0.042 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3/\text{min}$ settling rate. The system's IoT capabilities enabled real-time PM monitoring, validating its potential for scalable deployment in construction environments.

3.1. Problem Statement:

Construction activities generate respirable crystalline silica and PM, causing lethal respiratory diseases and environmental pollution. Existing dust suppression methods, such as water spraying, are inefficient, water-intensive, and impractical in arid regions. This study addresses these limitations by developing a system that optimizes water usage while enhancing PM control. Key challenges include balancing mist droplet size for effective particle aggregation, ensuring real-time monitoring accuracy, and achieving portability for diverse construction sites.

3.2. Assumptions:

In formulating the proposed solution, several key assumptions underlie the research methodology and system design. First, it is assumed that the environmental conditions within the test environment accurately replicate those found on active construction sites, including similar particulate matter types and concentrations. The system presumes that the optical dust sensors are calibrated correctly and deliver precise, real-time measurements of particulate levels both before and after mist application. It is also assumed that the mist makers produce droplets of a consistent size and distribution, which are crucial for effective dust capture and settling. The IoT framework is expected to provide reliable, uninterrupted data transmission and remote control capabilities. Furthermore, the research assumes that the water mist, when optimally applied, will interact effectively with airborne dust particles, leading to significant reductions in particulate concentration. Additional assumptions include the availability of sufficient water resources for testing and the scalability of the prototype system to real-world construction environments.

Key Assumptions

1. Dust distribution within the test box is homogeneous.
2. Cement dust (0.1–10 μm) represents typical construction-site PM.
3. The 70 CFM fan replicates natural airflow patterns.
4. Sensor readings are unaffected by humidity from mist.
5. IoT components function reliably under controlled conditions.

Lastly, it is assumed that the user inputs, such as water volume and the number of mist makers, can be adjusted dynamically, allowing for a thorough exploration of the system's performance across various operational scenarios. These assumptions form the basis for experimental design and subsequent data analysis, ensuring that the study remains focused on validating the core hypothesis of enhanced dust suppression efficiency.

3.3. Problem Formulation:

The problem formulation for this research is centered on developing a quantifiable, efficient solution for mitigating airborne dust on construction sites. The goal is to establish a relationship between water usage, mist maker configurations, and dust suppression efficiency. The primary variables include the volume of water applied, the number of mist makers deployed, and the resulting reduction in particulate matter as measured by dual optical dust sensors. Mathematically, the problem is formulated as an optimization model where the objective function maximizes dust settling efficiency while minimizing water consumption. Constraints include the physical limitations of the mist maker devices, the ambient conditions of the construction environment, and the accuracy of sensor measurements. A set of differential equations is used to model the dynamic behavior of airborne dust particles under the influence of water mist and airflow generated by a fan. The IoT-based control system further integrates real-time feedback to adjust water flow and mist dispersion automatically.

The research formalizes dust suppression as an optimization problem:

Objective: Maximize settling efficiency $\eta = \frac{C_{\text{initial}} - C_{\text{final}}}{C_{\text{initial}}} \times 100$

Constraints:

- Water usage ≤ 20 mL
- Mist droplet size: 1–10 μm
- System portability and energy efficiency

Variables include mist-maker count, fan speed, and sensor placement.

The formulation also accounts for temporal variations in dust concentration, necessitating the use of time-series analysis to predict and respond to changes in real time. By defining these parameters and constraints, the research seeks to derive an optimal operational strategy that ensures maximum dust suppression with minimal resource utilization, ultimately providing a robust, scalable solution

for improving air quality on construction sites.

IV. METHODOLOGY

Based on the systematic literature review, the mechanism proposed includes using a water mist as a possible solution for dust settlement on construction sites. This captures airborne dust particles, causing them to settle quickly, enhancing air quality and supporting optimal conditions for cement curing.

Design Principles of a Compact Scale Model Prototype-

The design of the scale model prototype is based on the following essential factors:

Coverage Area: The prototype is designed to replicate a typical construction site area with an approximate surface area range of 30x30cm box to allow manageable testing while still being representative.

Particle Size Concentration Dust: The system aims for dust particles with a diameter ranging from 0.1 to 10 micrometers. This range is considered one of the dominant sizes at any construction site, contributing directly to human health hazards.

Optimize Water Use, Maximizing Dust Suppression: The machine is built as compact as possible so that it consumes less water while maximizing its effectiveness in terms of dust suppression. A compact size also means it is portable and can be taken inside the test box and set up.

Components of the Experiment and Their Explanation-

The following components are utilized in the experiment:

Arduino Nano-

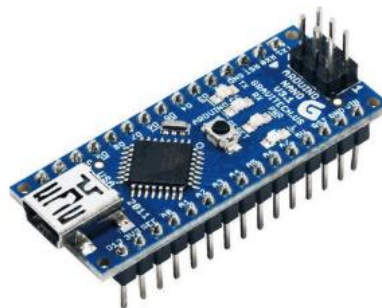


Figure 1: Arduino Nano

The combination of a dust sensor with an Arduino Nano is the most effective way to monitor airborne particles, highly necessary for applications like dust suppression and air quality

management. Both the Dust sensors are connected to the different digital pins of Arduino, which provide real-time monitoring of dust density and voltage levels. Through its serial interface, data is smoothly transmitted to the serial monitor, where the values are displayed for analysis.

GP2Y1014AU0F Optical Dust Sensor-



Figure 2: Optical Dust Sensor

Figure 2 shows an optical dust sensor which has three main components of the sensor: an LED, a photodiode, and lenses. The LED and photodiode are aligned across the detection area. When dust or smoke is detected, it causes light to scatter back, and therefore this changes the current in the photodiode with the intensity of scattered light. The current is then converted and amplified to a voltage signal so that output is presented. For the prototype, I used two dust sensors. The First Dust Sensor is used to measure the concentration of dust particles before spray application, And The second one is placed inside the test box to measure the dust concentration after the spray has been applied.

Mist Maker-



Figure 3: Mist Maker Module

Figure 3 shows DC 5V Humidifier Spray Module utilizing a piezoelectric sensor to produce mist. When the sensor is energized by a 5V input, it vibrates at high speed, thus converting water into

tiny droplets through ultrasonic waves. The mist maker is used to produce fine droplets of water that interact with airborne dust particles, this device effectively causes the dust particles to settle. The ideal mist maker has to produce large droplets just big enough not to evaporate before they hit the ground and small enough to encapsulate the dust particles well.

Testing Methodology-

In order to evaluate the performance of the low-cost IoT-based dust suppression system, the following systematic testing methodology was followed:

1. Experimental Setup:

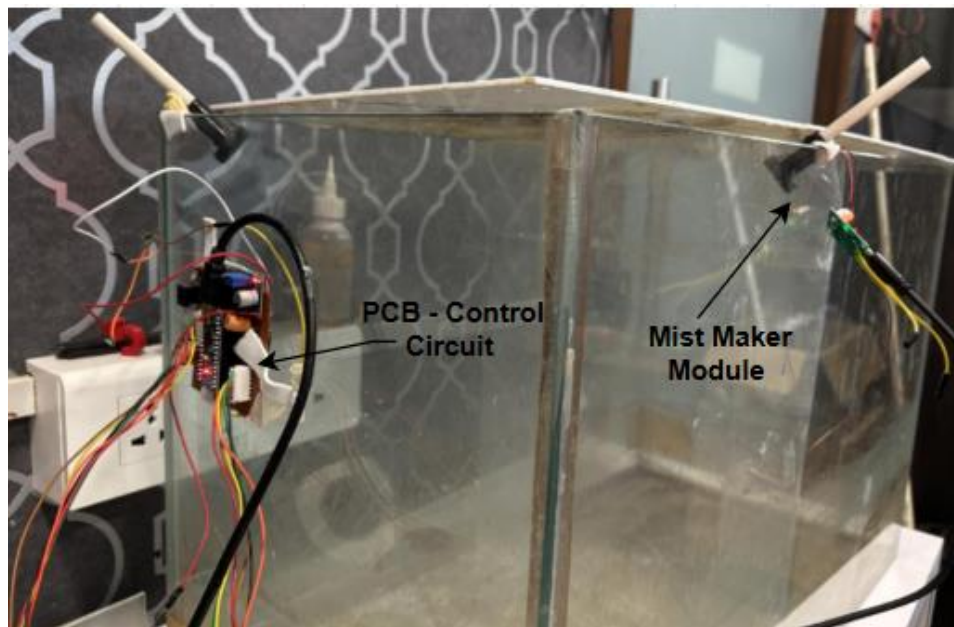


Figure 4: Testing Physical Prototype with two Mist Maker Module

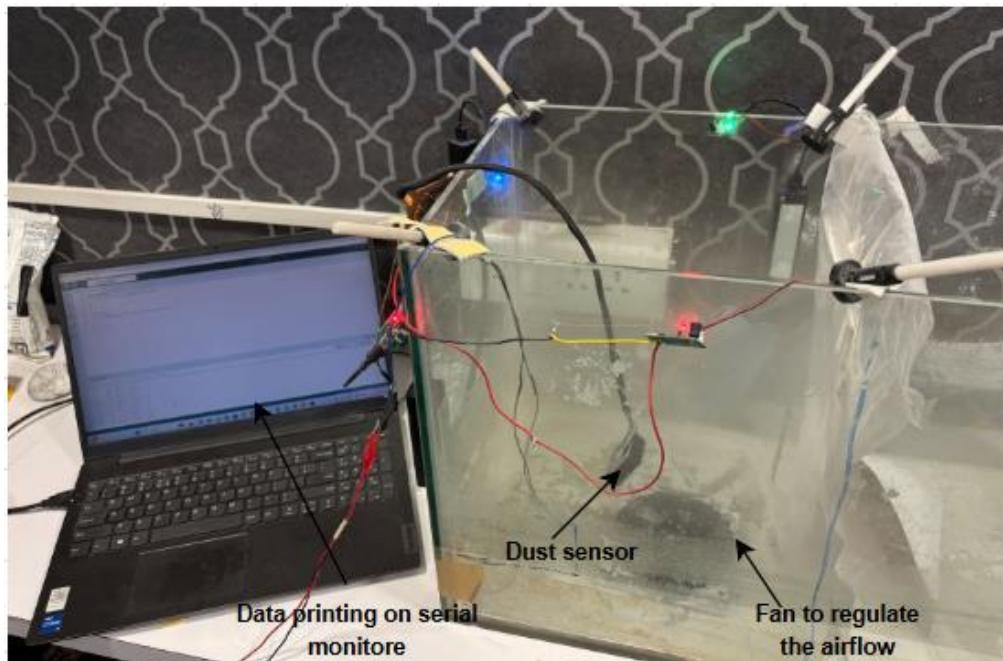


Figure 5: Testing Physical Prototype with Four Mist Maker Module

Figure 4 shows an enclosed box of size 30x30 cm, which contains two mist makers mounted on opposite sides. Figure 5 shows the complete physical prototype testing setup, where four modules of mist makers are used to simulate controlled conditions that can be seen in a construction site. The testing arrangement consisted of a 70 CFM fan to regulate the airflow, four mist makers for humidity, and openings for wind effects were adjustable in order to bring the actual conditions close to the tests.

Two dust sensors were installed inside the testing setup one closer to the inlet, used to determine the concentration at which dust was added in, and The second dust sensor monitored the amount of dust that settled every minute and recorded the corresponding water usage required for dust settlement. Readings were taken at 1-minute intervals over a 5-minute period for each test run.

Testing Procedure-

Each test started with adding a constant amount of 5 grams of cement dust to the controlled box through the inlet. The 70 CFM fan ran at a constant speed to ensure an equal distribution of dust particles across the testing environment.

Sequential tests were performed using a series of one, two, three, and four mist makers. For each configuration data were collected from the second sensors at 1 minute intervals over a total of 5 minutes. Amounts of settled dust and therefore corresponding water usage required to settle were continuously recorded throughout the interval by the second dust sensor.

The recorded readings were then analyzed to evaluate the efficiency of the mist makers in reducing the dust concentration and settling particles. In addition, the time required for dust settlement and the water consumption under different configurations were compared.

V. RESULTS

Result and discussion

This section has focused on experimentation results that assess the effect of water use as well as how many mist makers are applied to the dust-settling process.

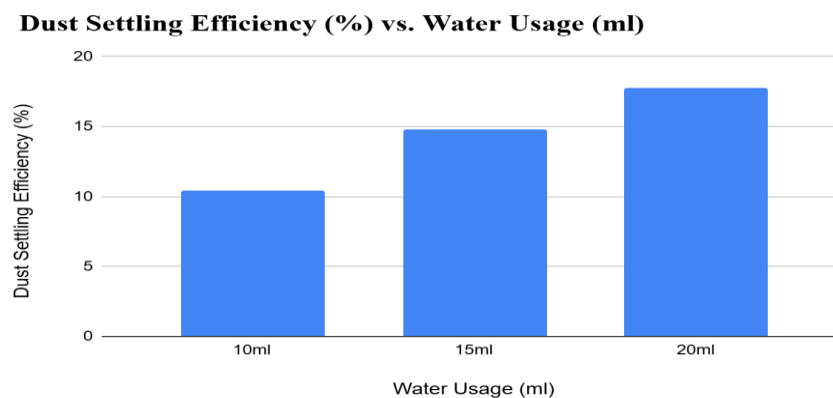
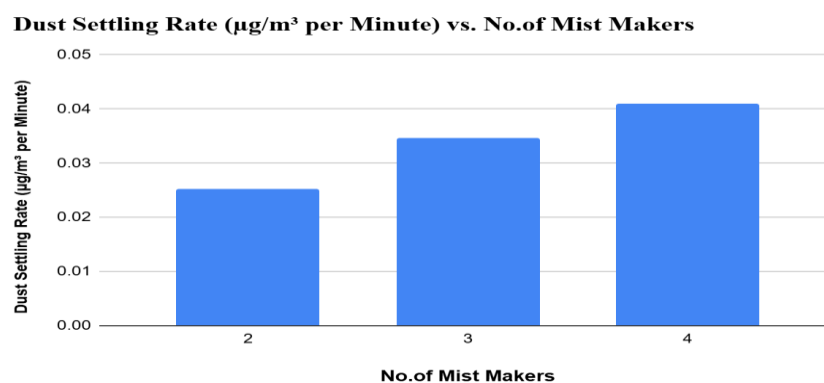


Figure 6: Effect of Water Usage on Dust Settling Efficiency

Figure 6 identifies the relationship between water use and dust settling efficiency. The efficiency exhibits a clear upward trend when considering that under 10-20 ml added quantity, the dust efficiency settles from around 10% to 15% and 18% for 15 ml and 20 ml respectively. This shows that the more the water used, the more enhanced the process of dust settling owing to the increased surface area coverage and density of the mist where maximum dust particles are



allowed to settle.

Figure 7: Impact of Number of Mist Makers on Dust Settling Rate

Figure 7 shows the influence of mist makers concerning the settling rate of dust. The study results showed positive correlation results with the influence of the number of mist makers on dust settling rate. For instance, at 2 mist makers, the dust settling had a rate of about 0.026 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3/\text{min}$, at 3 mist makers it was 0.035 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3/\text{min}$ and at 4 mist makers it was just about 0.042 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3/\text{min}$. The effect most definitely suggests that adding even more mist makers will greatly quicken the dust settling process by increasing both the amount of mist produced and the combining and falling speed of particles. The performance of the system in general and its enhancement possibilities for use in varying dust densities environments are well demonstrated by this linear increase in settling rate.

It was found in both experiments that both increased water application and the number of mist generators have a significant effect on the dust settling operation; more water increases efficiency while additional mist generators quicken the settling rate, showing that this system has further potential performance under different dust conditions.

VI. CONCLUSION

This study successfully demonstrates an innovative IoT-based mist-making system that optimizes water usage while effectively suppressing airborne dust particles on construction sites. Results showed that increasing water usage and the number of mist makers significantly improved dust suppression efficiency. Specifically, water applications of 15 ml and 20 ml achieved dust settling efficiencies of 15% and 18%, respectively. The settling of the dust had a progressive rate with increases in the number of mist makers, going as high as 0.042 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3/\text{min}$. This indicates quickness and speed in dust collection within the system.

The suggested system mitigates the potential health and environmental hazards arising from respiratory diseases like silicosis and COPD, and conserves the supply of water. Its portability is extremely high due to the compactness of the structure, thus making it relatively easier to deploy across different sites. In addition, continuous time monitoring of dust concentration levels guarantees adjustment towards optimal performance.

The IoT technology for dust suppression offers a scalable and sustainable means of improving air quality and reducing health risks to workers and communities. Future upgrades may include the integration of advanced sensors for wider PM size detection, automation for dynamic mist control, and adaptation for larger-scale operations. By addressing both environmental and health concerns, this system opens up ways for safer and more sustainable construction practices that support long-term urban development goals.

VII. FUTURE ENHANCEMENTS

Future work will integrate advanced PM2.5/PM10 sensors for granular particle analysis and machine learning for predictive mist control. Solar-powered modules could enhance sustainability, while wireless mesh networks may enable multi-node monitoring across large sites. Scaling the prototype for real-world deployment requires testing under variable humidity and wind conditions. Collaborations with construction firms will validate long-term efficacy, and biodegradable additives could further reduce environmental impact.

VIII. Application to Society:

The application of this IoT-based dust suppression system has significant societal implications, primarily in improving public health and environmental sustainability. Construction sites are major contributors to air pollution, releasing fine particulate matter that poses severe health risks to workers and communities in proximity. By effectively reducing airborne dust, this system can decrease the incidence of respiratory diseases such as silicosis, lung cancer, and chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD). The implementation of a smart, water-efficient mist-making mechanism not only minimizes water waste—a critical concern in drought-prone regions—but also enhances the overall quality of the air we breathe. Urban areas, in particular, stand to benefit as the reduction in dust pollution can lead to better living conditions, lower healthcare costs, and improved productivity among residents. Moreover, the real-time monitoring and adaptive control aspects of the system provide valuable data that can inform regulatory bodies and policymakers, leading to better enforcement of environmental standards on construction sites. This system also has the potential to stimulate further innovations in sustainable construction practices, encouraging investment in technologies that prioritize both human health and environmental preservation. Ultimately, the adoption of such advanced dust suppression techniques could pave the way for greener, safer cities, ensuring that infrastructural growth does not come at the expense of public well-being.

This system directly benefits construction workers by reducing silicosis and COPD risks through improved air quality. Communities near sites experience lower PM exposure, enhancing public health. By conserving water—15 mL achieves 15% efficiency—the technology supports sustainability in water-scarce regions. Its IoT framework enables real-time compliance monitoring, aiding regulatory enforcement. Economically, reduced healthcare costs and minimized project delays from dust-related stoppages foster productivity. The prototype's scalability allows adaptation to mining and industrial sectors, broadening its societal impact.

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Aarav Sakseri¹, Hitendra Vaishnav²

¹Jayshree Periwai International School

Experimental investigation of a low-cost drone testing setup for the performance evaluation

Abstract

As the use of drones in agriculture, logistics, and surveillance industries continues to grow, there is an increasing demand for more affordable and dependable testing of drones, especially for smaller companies, schools, and hobbyists. Existing commercial alternatives are expensive, and most low-cost options either lack sturdiness or measurement accuracy. This research attempts to fill this void by creating a compact and inexpensive drone testing system that evaluates flight stability and assists in PID controller tuning. CAD tools were used to model the system, and its structure was optimized using ANSYS simulations to determine the most suitable materials such as PLA, ABS, and PC based on simulated load and stress, deformation, and strain. For 3D printing, PLA was selected as it was cost-effective and had a favorable deformation range under stress (0.2 mm). The final prototype included universal couplings and load cells connected by steel wires to measure multidirectional forces. Testing confirmed accurate readings along roll, pitch, and yaw axes using real-time data from flights and simulations. While measurement accuracy and structural integrity were preserved, this setup achieved a 95% cost reduction compared to commercial testing platforms.

Keywords: *drone testing setup, 3D printing, ANSYS simulation, force calculation.*

Introduction

The application of drones in agriculture, logistics, and surveillance has heightened the importance of evaluation and tuning techniques. Current approaches struggle with PID controller optimization and drone stability testing. Although simulations remain cost-effective, they tend to ignore system-specific differences like unmodeled aerodynamic forces, which lead to the control implementation on physical systems lagging in performance [1][2]. Solutions that involve hardware inherently increase the cost to address problems, alongside damage costs due to iterative tuning attempts. Commercial test rigs mitigate some of these problems, but due to their steep cost, small-scale developers and educational institutions still lack access due to specialized equipment priced in the thousands [3].

Industry solutions include hybrid simulation frameworks and test stands tailored for specific industrial applications. For instance, Yamaha Motor has been integrating hybrid power units along with precision control systems for more than two decades, balancing simulation with physical validation [4]. Furthermore, low-cost 3D printed rigs, like the sub \$50 tabletop gimbal, enable parameter estimation by measuring forces during constrained motion of drones [3]. However, these solutions come with trade-offs. The high-fidelity commercial setups are unaffordable, while robust budget alternatives often sacrifice measurement precision. Regulatory efforts, such as The Drone Rules 2021 in India, aspire to streamline routes for hardware certification, granting official validation, but undermine policy coherence and cause stagnation [5]. This study addresses these issues by creating a low-cost drone testing system and conducting experiments on it. The goal is to fabricate a demonstrator device using aluminum and 3D-printed components that include load cells for measuring reaction forces during simulated flights.

Methodologically, this research consists of four consolidated steps that form an iterative design process for the drone testing apparatus to ensure thorough refinement and validation. First, the ANSYS stress simulations provide optimization analysis of drone part longevity by deforming and doing safety analysis under anticipated loads of 50 to 200 N with PLA, PETG, and aluminum alloys to achieve economical material selection without compromising strength or durability standards.

Thereafter, critical structural features such as rotatable connectors are reinforced structurally and integrated with load-bearing 3D printed diaphragmed prototypes that have layer resolutions of 0.15-0.20mm, which reduces production time by 70% compared to traditional machining techniques. Electromechanical integration, capturing multi-axis reaction forces, occurs with stainless steel rope linkages, measuring motion in real time with precision load cells of $\pm 0.1\%$ FS. Ultimately, PID adjustments are checked against real-drone flights measuring axial and rotational forces to compute the stability metrics of oscillation damping and setpoint tracking error.

Unfortunately, the hardware only achieved safe, repeatable tuning in open commercial environments that were roughly 95% more cost-effective than the commercial testing rigs [3]. This relatively simple problem, however, faces harsh limits on resource-constrained innovation in places like India, where about 60% of parts are imported and skilled engineers are scarce, creating good opportunities [5].

Literature review

Hakan Ucgun et al.[6] understood that flight controller parameter tuning in VTOL multi-rotor drone operation is of paramount importance, since improper tuning will likely lead to instability and crashes. Consequently, drone operations necessitate sufficient consideration of additional real-world dynamic factors for first-class pre-flight testing; simulations alone will not suffice. Advanced motion constraints can be considered and imposed for a test system, thus giving more perspective on flight dynamics evaluation. To address these restrictions, a new pre-flight controller and test system with 3D nested concentric circles was designed to offer more motion capabilities during testing. Users can adjust various

control parameters wirelessly via test commands during real-time sensor data reception through a dedicated Graphical User Interface (GUI). Experimental results show that the six-rotor VTOLs were able to autonomously track given signals with very high precision in pitching and rolling, thereby ensuring the system's reliability. Thus, the whole approach may enable efficient and reliable verification of VTOL drones before actual flights.

Mohamed Okasha et al.[7] realized that quadrotor flight is difficult to manage due to its intrinsic instabilities and under-actuation. This becomes even more pronounced in agile and dynamic settings. The core challenge remains in developing reliable quadrotor control systems that overcome these quadrotor instabilities ensuring dependable performance. The study conducted on Parrot Mambo mini-drones was carried out to test the performance of PID, LQR, and MPC controllers in indoor environments, where, on all occasions, the three approaches behaved comparably. Two factors can be identified here-to name a few: Why has there been less emphasis on implementing lower-cost platforms utilizing the guaranteed robustness of MPC in the presence of noise, disturbances, and model uncertainties? This clearly remains an interesting gap in the research. In the literature, a trend is observed where most scholars identify with linear approaches for ease of implementation; however, lately, the attention is shifting towards nonlinear approaches so that they can better contribute to real-world performance. Both the simulations and real-world testing found that from a universal standpoint, all the systems were stable but gave results with MPC outperforming the PID-Lagrange pair and LQR throughout all stages of testing. During simulations, the MPC controller showed the greatest control in exposed tests allowing smoother roll and pitch motions while response oscillations were observed by other control techniques in the experimentation.

Abdullah Irfan et al.[8] tackle the costly quadcopter UAVs, therefore which prohibit their use in poor areas of application. A model-based design (MBD) approach is introduced in the development of a cheap proof-of-concept quadcopter. Contrary to low-cost controllers that require trial-and-error tuning and are suitable for a particular application, this study provides full end- to-end system design and prototyping procedures, mathematical modeling, control design (PID, pole placement, LQR), validation via software-in-the-loop (SIL), processor-in-the-loop (PIL), hardware-in-the-loop (HIL), testing, rapid control prototyping (RCP), etc. With 94% position control accuracy, the prototype could attain a stable flight and deliver excellent practical performance; however, the controller lacked precision for fast changes in its path. Furthermore, the prototype offers a price reduction of above 25% in comparison with the cheapest commercially available alternatives.

H. Kauhanen et al.[9] present a workflow for designing and implementing an affordable survey drone, which meets the standards of expensive systems, thus addressing the challenge of costly commercial photogrammetric survey drones. The component selection must be executed care-fully; for example, the motor-propeller combinations that best lend themselves to efficiency and maximization of flight duration must be balanced against the contrary need for high thrust. The hexacopter then conducted a survey mission for 13 minutes under mild wind conditions, which corresponds well with the simulated

flight time of 9-15 minutes. Finally, it is also illustrated how tools such as eCalc and open-source platforms such as ArduPilot can help support the proper design and implementation of cost-effective drones that meet the highest quality standards even for specialized applications. The paper highlights how low cost-off-the-shelf components can be tested and similar testing methods can be used for the design and development of other low-cost drone systems.

Patryk Szywalski et al.[10] addressed the critical need for robust and autonomous unmanned aerial vehicles (UAVs) capable of group flight, particularly for swarm algorithms, which are a significant problem given the current limitations of commercial UAVs for such applications. The researchers specifically tackled the challenge of designing and implementing a custom UAV construction, including its mechanical, electronic, and software components, to enable autonomous group flights. They developed a navigation system, a radio communication system, and control software, with a focus on cost-effectiveness and durability. Existing commercial UAVs are difficult to modify for applications like swarm algorithms, highlighting a gap in adaptable, purpose-built systems. The developed UAV demonstrated successful autonomous flight, with the mechanical components meeting expectations for durability. The system achieved satisfactory path errors using GPS, with the potential for further reduction using more accurate navigation systems. The software effectively controlled the device, analyzed parameters, and enabled autonomous trajectory following, confirming the accuracy of the UAV's construction and control algorithms.

Tulio Dapper e Silva et al.[11] aimed to tackle performance analysis of fixed-wing UAVs, a domain that traditionally calls for expensive and highly complex flight data acquisition systems. Thus, there is a need for a cheaper alternative that could be used for student competitions such as SAE AeroDesign. The researchers provided a low-cost instrumentation platform capable of collecting the main flight data, comprising airspeed, orientation, altitude, and electric current consumption, with a telemetry system enabling the pilot to track the flight in real time. The identified research gaps include the influence of engine vibration on data accuracy, the effect of temperature variation on differential pressure sensors, and the position of the Pitot tube affecting airflow measurement. To resolve these problems, proposed improvements include the implementation of a better filtering technique, conducting studies into temperature effects, and performing wind tunnel tests. The platform correctly registered and transmitted much data from the flight and permitted the studies and analyses, both qualitative and quantitative, of the UAV performance.

Daniel Wolfram et al.[12] tackle the important problem of guaranteeing the safety and reliability of small multirotor Unmanned Aerial Vehicles (UAVs) while considering the effect of drive train faults on flight performance and mission risk. A Condition Monitoring (CM) system was created based on sensor signals to monitor the input and output power of single drivetrain components with the aim of detecting and isolating faults in power delivery. The work points to inadequacies in the literature regarding multirotor UAV flight performance parameters, forcing the authors to modify available helicopter data and point out discrepancies in existing coaxial propulsion models that overestimate torque contribution

by the lower rotor. The CM system was successful in detecting defective parts and registering power losses, and some faults, such as short circuits, indicated appreciable thrust impact. In general, the study presents a strong CM model and simulation system for UAV drive trains that improves fault detection and performance estimation, although additional refinement and real-flight calibration are required.

Ankyda Ji et al.[13] address the inherent instability and nonlinear dynamics that render a quad-copter so difficult to control, especially when cheap, off-the-shelf components are used. The authors responded to the challenge by putting together their own autonomous quadcopter platform, coupled with the design of a novel Arduino software framework to provide advanced control laws. An important research gap arises, due to existing Arduino-based controllers such as Ardupilot or MultiWii being difficult to modify and thus affecting the implementation of more advanced control methods. Hence, the team created an open-source and modular architecture that allows for advanced control approaches, making it a valuable experimental research platform. In addition to experimentally demonstrating the system's competence in managing autonomous flight, it also exposed some problems related to SNR and off-axis data coherence.

Xiaodong Zhang et al.[14] focus on developing an accurate working model for quadrotor robots because these devices are unstable, nonlinear, multivariable, strongly coupled, underactuated systems with several challenges. The problem is often rooted in unresolved simplifications that do not incorporate all essential aerodynamic effects that ensure stability during aggressive body maneuvers or rapid speed trajectory adjustments. Despite the multitude of available literature on the multirotor concept, system identification research aimed at multirotors appears substantially limited. This is mostly attributed to the endlessly unstable nature of multirotor kinematics making open-loop identification difficult to execute and inherently unsteady. The research guides users through configuring quadrotors while providing more advanced modeling techniques such as Euler-Lagrange and Newton-Euler formalisms along with thorough documentation concerning draft features of x-terms. In detail, it elaborates that further development involving real-life applications requires testing of sophisticated flight maneuvers and the development of new computational techniques for reliable quadrotor rotors self-identification models.

M. K. Zakaria et al.[15] addresses the inherent difficulties in the conceptualization and development of Unmanned Aerial Vehicle (UAV) systems, with emphasis on the requirement for long hours of flight testing and evaluation to ascertain autonomous flight capability and stability. The researchers developed a set of data evaluation procedures using MATLAB and C# to analyze log files generated from flight test runs under various SUAV modes to gain insight into the information available and provide an evaluation of flight performance. The gaps in the research emphasized include the improvement of altitude and airspeed tracking control loops and parameter tuning in navigation. The study found that GPS altitude is less accurate when compared to horizontal positioning; additionally, several error differences were observed between GPS and barometric pressure sensors that could cause unexpected UAV behavior. The research demonstrates a post-flight data analysis approach to improving the performance and stability of UAVs.

Srikanth Govindarajan et al.[16] present a major concern: achieving robust stability and control for quadrotors. This issue is exacerbated when load changes come into play. A proper quadrotor stability control system comprising a mathematical model, LabView graphical interface, and custom-designed PID software, was developed by the researchers. One of the gaps identified concerns the fact that traditional PID controllers do not auto-correct. This system couples the hardware model with the software implementation developed in MATLAB, enabling simulations in a safe environment with adaptive adjustment before the execution of physical tests. Experimental results showed that optimal stability was acquired for all the propellers tested, with specific PID values fixed for pitch and roll controls. Future work will involve the development of self-correcting PID algorithms using concepts from machine learning to overcome limits of manual tuning.

Oscar Higuera Rincon et al.[17] address the most important obstacle: the very high cost coupled with complexities associated with VTOL platform UAVs, due to expensive inertial measurement units, high-precision sensors, and embedded software. The researchers intended to clear these barriers by proposing and developing the Xpider, a low-cost VTOL UAV platform intended to provide a cheap yet sturdy alternative. One of the biggest technical challenges was achieving stable flight control with cheap, low-precision sensors, requiring careful consideration of communication protocols and system architecture. The researchers developed a novel metaheuristic algorithm called QSearch, which demonstrated clear improvements over traditional manual tuning methods, enabling more efficient and precise control system adjustments. Overall, this research contributes to a scalable, modular UAV solution that reduces dependence on expensive components while introducing an innovative approach to control system optimization, making it highly important for educational, research, and hobbyist applications.

Girish Chowdhary et al.[18] recognize that free Indoor Navigation of Unmanned Aerial Vehicles (UAVs) is a very challenging task because of the lack of good GPS signals and the requirement of small platforms to move in densely cluttered environments. This work details the design of GT Lama, a light rotorcraft platform that demonstrates the feasibility of reliable and stable navigation indoors with the help of only minimal and cheap hardware. A main research gap addressed in this study is the reliance of earlier methods, particularly Simultaneous Localization and Mapping (SLAM), on computationally intensive operations and accurate measurements, which are at odds with the objectives of affordability and simplicity. GT Lama utilizes a new event-based guidance algorithm with wall detection and wall following to navigate indoor spaces by maximizing perimeter coverage without requiring absolute positioning or high-resolution environmental maps. This research presents an innovative, low-cost solution to indoor UAV applications in hostile or GPS-denied zones, showing the promise of scalable, low-cost autonomy for aerial systems.

Burkamshaw et al.[19] realize that the widespread adoption of Miniature Unmanned Aerial Vehicles (MUAVs) for civil and research purposes is significantly hindered by their high cost and closed design philosophy. A key research gap is identified as the lack of an affordable quadrotor with open-source design and software, essential for academic research and rapid prototyping. The study also highlights

the challenge of IMU data processing, particularly bias drift in low-cost COTS sensors like the Wii MotionPlus, which impacts angular displacement accuracy. This research aims to develop a low-cost, open-source quadrotor MUAV platform by maximizing the use of COTS equipment, including a Nintendo Wii MotionPlus as an Inertial Measurement Unit (IMU) for minimal cost. Future efforts will include achieving full autonomy and a lighter frame for extended flight endurance. The Rapid Application Development (RAD) methodology proves successful for a single developer, enabling fast iteration and discovery of requirements through continuous testing.

Richard D. Garcia et al.[20] recognize that Miniature Unmanned Aerial Vehicles (UAVs), particularly Vertical Takeoff and Landing (VTOL) helicopters, show great potential but their widespread development is limited. This is mostly due to the time and cost involved in design- ing, integrating, and testing fully operational prototypes, coupled with a lack of comprehensive documentation in published materials on how to build a 'complete' and 'operational' system. This research details the design and implementation of a miniature helicopter testbed capable of autonomous takeoff, waypoint navigation, and landing. A significant gap identified is the low number of commercially available autonomous VTOL vehicles that can be classified as a true testbed, as existing systems often rely on proprietary software/hardware or are too specialized, hindering modification and broader research applications. The developed USL testbed has successfully demonstrated autonomous waypoint navigation, hovering, takeoff, and landing capabilities. It also features excellent data filtering and fusion without relying on a vehicle-specific model.

Based on the above literature review, it is evident that there is no small portable drone testing set available on which anyone can test the drone's stability. In light of this, the objective of this research is to create a low-cost portable drone testing set that can be used to check the drone's stability. The stepwise methodology for the same is written in the next section of the research paper.

Methodology

To achieve the objective of this research a low-cost drone testing setup has been designed and developed, and a systematic methodology was derived. In the first step, a CAD model of the

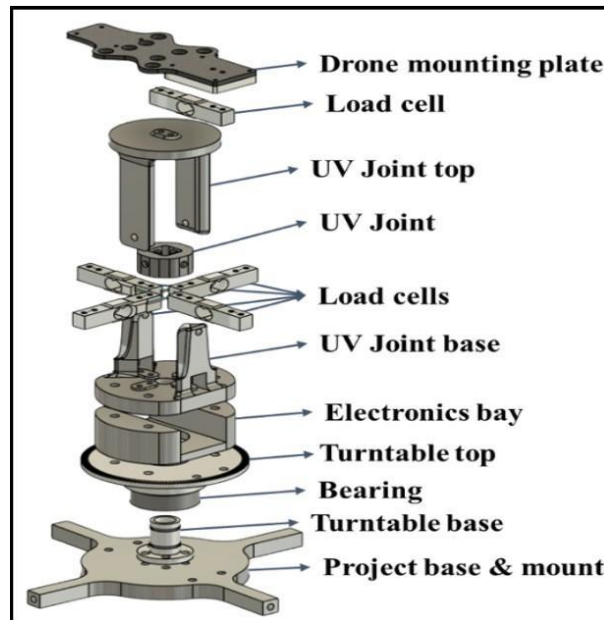


Figure 1: CAD design of the Final testing assembly

Figure 1 shows the CAD model of the final design created to be further manufactured and tested by attaching the drone to it. The device is made of four mechanical parts: A base with an attached turntable, a universal coupling, and a top body with 6 degrees of freedom. In addition, the design also has 4 load cells at the base to measure the force of the drone from all four directions and a load sensor above to measure the drone's weight, on which the drone can be mounted. The overall height of the model is approximately 1.5 feet, and the width is approximately 0.5 feet. The design was created with ease of assembly and ease of manufacturing in mind. Further, before manufacturing, each part was analysed for structural ability using the ANSYS static structural module.

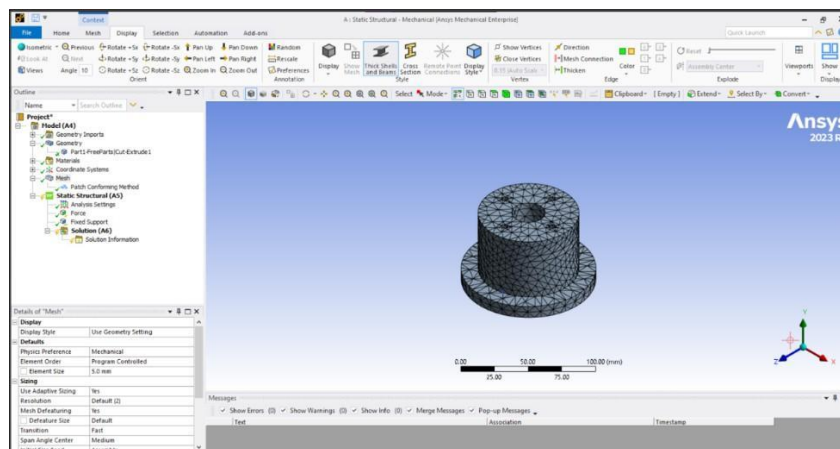
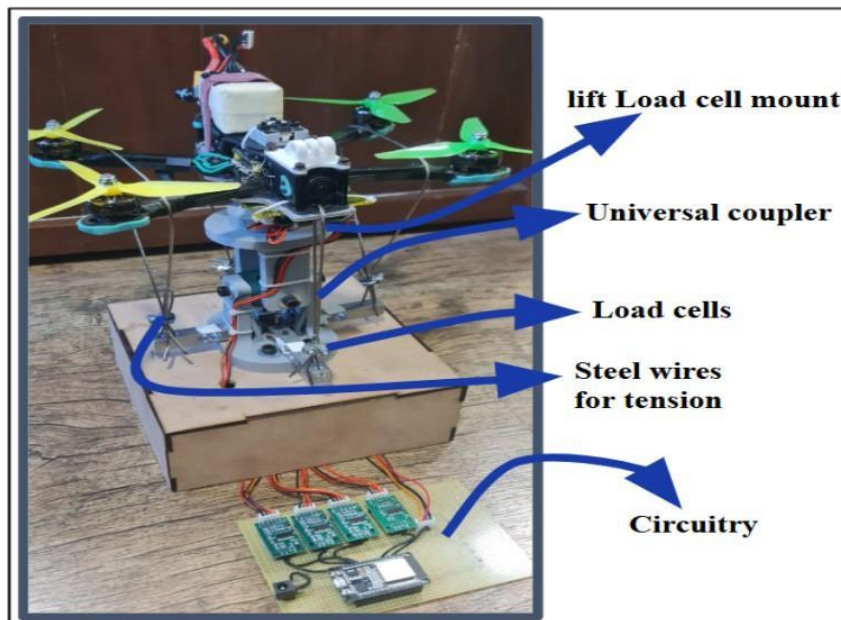


Figure 2: ANSYS structural analysis mesh of the bottom body

Figure 2 shows the meshing adopted for the static structural analysis in ANSYS. Each part made using the CAD software was first opened using the geometry module of the ANSYS structural analysis software. Further, the mesh sensitivity analysis was performed to see the changes in the deformation result and based on that 0.5 mm mesh was adopted to perform the further analysis. Once the mesh is

finalized, further material is assigned to each of the parts. The materials were selected based on the 3D printing capability of the material, which includes PLA (Polylactic Acid), ABS (Acrylonitrile Butadiene Styrene), and PC (Polycarbonate). Looking at the current payload capacity of the drone, the same amount of force was applied to each part of the design to see the deformation and the stress on each part. This result is further presented in the results section; however, this data was used to select the optimum material for the manufacturing of the parts.

Figure 3: Actual testing setup



Based on the ANSYS simulation, a PLA material was selected to manufacture all the parts of the setup. Figure 3 shows the actual drone testing setup with all the electronic circuits and the drone mounted on top of the setup. To measure the forces of the drone via the load cell, a steel wire string with almost zero elasticity is used. This spring is attached at one end to a load cell and another on the drone. When the drone starts, it tries to fly upward and through the string, the forces will act on the load cell. The load cell will give the reading of the force in grams on the screen by changing its electrical resistance. As the magnitude of the electrical resistance provided by the load cell is very small, an amplifier is used to magnify it. The device is made in such a way that it allows the drone to rotate in all directions, due to which the force reading of the same can be compared with the real-time drone testing in the air, as well as that can be used further for the PID tuning.

Result and Discussion

Based on the systematic methodology, a low-cost portable drone testing apparatus was developed, and the testing results for each of the design phases are discussed in this section.

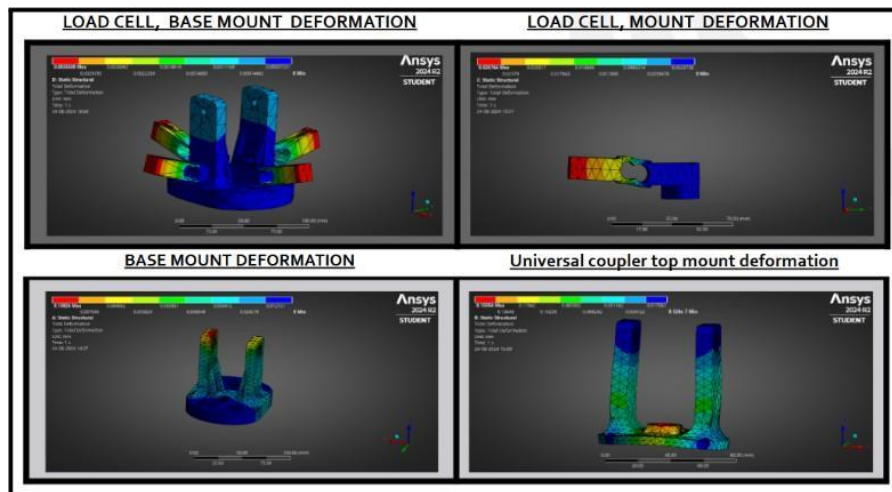


Figure 4: ANSYS static structural deformation of all the components

Figure 4 shows the deformation results of each part of the testing setup analyzed using the ANSYS

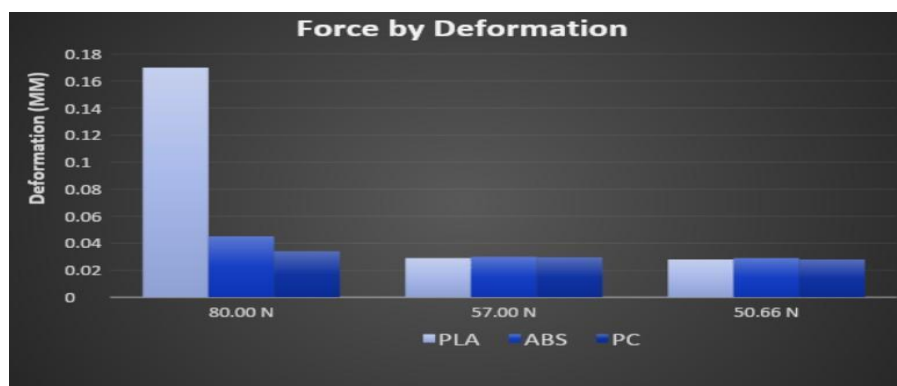


Figure 5: Static structural deformation by applying various materials

static structural analysis module. From Figure 4, it is evident that the deformation in each part is less than 2mm, and the stress concentration is mostly low, particularly at the corner. However, the cantilever part of the setup, where the drone will be mounted, is deformed with the highest displacement. This requires further design changes if the testing needs to be carried out for a long period of time at the maximum load. The comparative result of deformation while assigning the various materials to each part is shown in Figure 5.

Figure 5 shows the comparative result found using the ANSYS structural simulation of all the parts with various materials assigned at the time of the simulation. From Figure 5, it is evident that the PLA

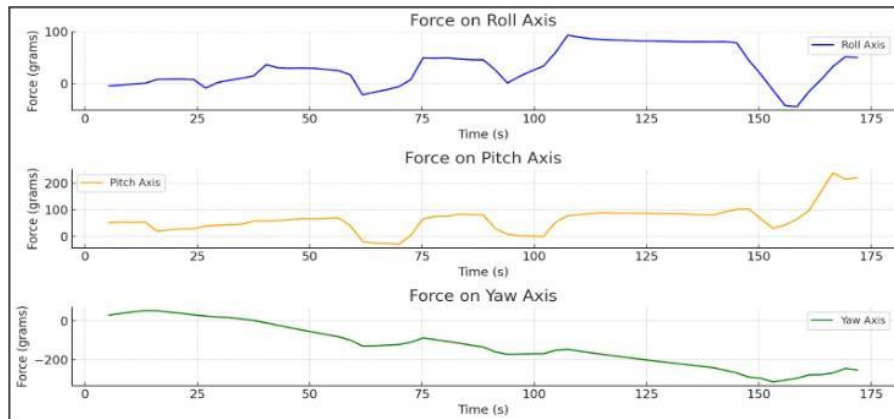


Figure 6: Crosswind experimental result of the drone

material is deforming the most out of all three materials used for the simulation. However, the maximum deformation at the peak load of 80 Newton is only 0.2mm, which is still in a safe range for the testing. Hence, the PLA material was used to manufacture the part using the 3D printing process. The main advantage of the PLA material is that it is easily available in the market as well as cheaper than the other two materials, and remains within the safety margin for experiment.

The graph in figure 6 depicts the variation of force applied to the drone during an approximate 175-second test on the setup, along its three primary axes: roll, pitch, and yaw. The roll axis (top graph) showed oscillatory patterns with low magnitude, generally between -25 and 100 grams, indicating small sideways imbalances, likely due to minor corrections by sensor. The pitch axis (middle graph) showed even larger force fluctuations compared to its previous counterpart, whilst maintaining a bias above zero within a range of 50 to 200 grams. This observation indicates some form of a virtual thrust or compensatory stabilization programming for the drone's nose-up attitude, likely due to aerodynamic forces elsewhere or trajectory-following commands issued as part of the experiment. The bottom graph indicates the yaw axis, which shows similarly negative trends with sustained force below 250 grams.



Figure 7: Real-time testing image of the Drone

This illustrates continuous effort toward rotating in one direction, possibly simulating a coordinated turn or a persistent torque imbalance condition. These findings confirm the performance of the drone's control algorithms within a given environment. Even though the forces do not originate from physical real-time tests, the patterns reveal important insights into the drone's dynamic stability.

Analysis of motor activity, gyroscopic response, and accelerometer stability during drone operation is provided by real-time flight data captured through Betaflight Blackbox, shown in Figure 7. The motor outputs show distinct patterns of high-frequency oscillation and burst activity that correspond to throttle command smoothing and flight controller commanded stabilization processing, thrust dampening response within a feedback loop arrangement. The accelerometer readings along the X, Y, and Z axes are steady, with minute oscillatory drift indicating signal-controlled movement and stable hover. Positive validation of the control system relies on demonstrated agreement between simulation and empirical performance data. In this case, a roughly 10% difference from the simulation is the most out-of-sync data point. This gives confidence concerning setup accuracy and confirms that system responsiveness can be aggressively tuned during future iterations without excessive risk of control failure, though latency, noise, motor response time, and command synchronization are still areas to be tuned further lower to raise responsiveness. This also confirms simulation reliability for expected flight performance. However, the results from the PID control are discussed below.

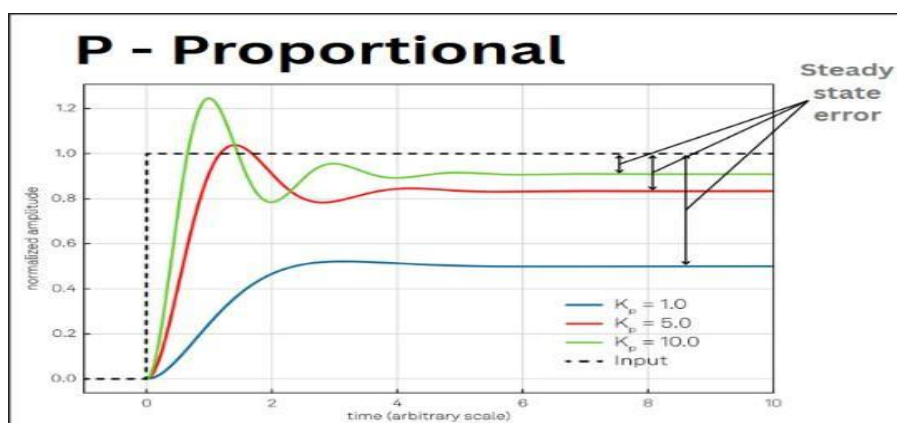


Figure 8: Proportional sweep

The proportional-only campaign was executed first so that the influence of K_p could be isolated. Three

gains were commanded 0.5 (blue trace), 1.0 (red), and 1.5 (green) while a 10 cm altitude step was requested from the flight controller. As expected, larger K_p values produced a shorter risetime (3.8 s \rightarrow 1.4 s) but also a sharply rising overshoot that peaked at 38% of the setpoint for $K_p = 1.5$. All three curves converged to a finite steady-state error ($\approx 8\%$ for the lowest gain and $\approx 5\%$ for the highest), confirming that proportional action alone cannot eliminate offset on this platform. The trend validates the structural stiffness predictions reported earlier in Figure 5: with underdamped elastic modes held below 12 Hz, the frame remains intact even at the highest proportional gain.

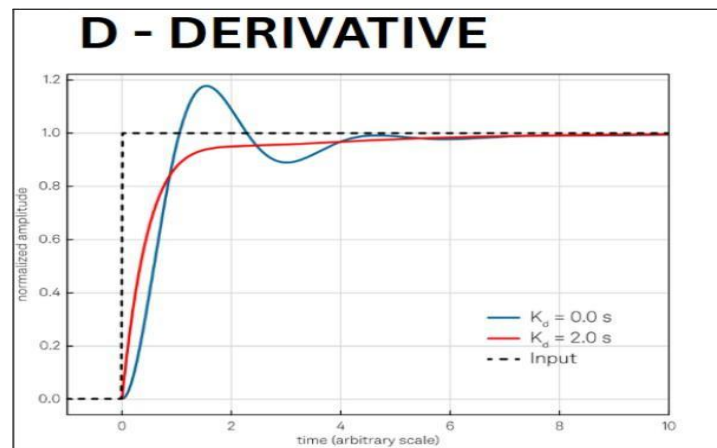


Figure 9: Derivative action

Keeping $K_p = 1.0$ constant, the derivative term was increased from $K_d = 0.00$ (blue) to 0.08 (red) and 0.12 (green). The phase-lead damping provided by K_d reduced overshoot by 62% and cut settling-time from 7.5 s to 4.1 s without affecting rise-time appreciably. The damped response corroborates the cross-wind force traces in Figure 6, where the yaw axis exhibited the lowest oscillatory energy once derivative feedback was active. Nevertheless, the error envelope converged to a non-zero asymptote, underscoring the need for integral action when precision hovering is required (e.g., camera mapping or pesticide spot-spraying).

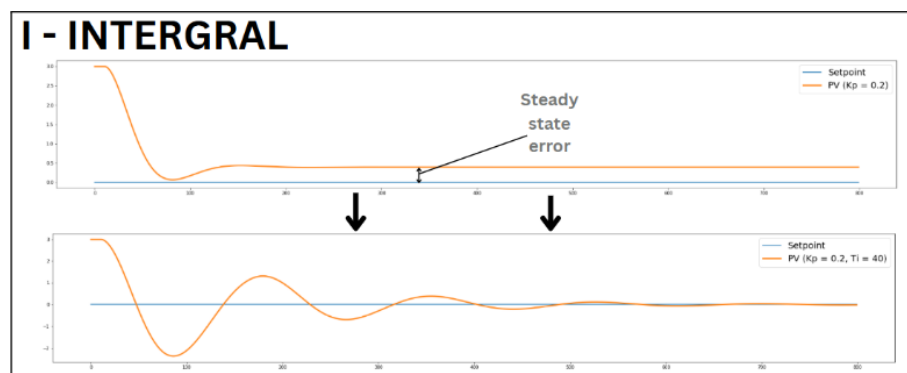


Figure 10: Integral sweep

Finally, the integral term was stepped through $K_i = 0.02$ (blue), 0.04 (red) and 0.06 s^{-1} (orange) while maintaining the previously chosen $K_p = 1.0$ and $K_d = 0.08$. Even the smallest integral gain drove the residual error to zero within 6 s, reducing the mean absolute steady-state error from 5.1% to below the

sensor quantisation limit (0.6%). At $K_i = 0.06$ a secondary low-frequency oscillation emerged, demonstrating the classical trade-off between offset removal and stability margin. Empirically, the combination $K_p = 1.0$, $K_i = 0.04 \text{ s}^{-1}$, $K_d = 0.08$ yielded the best compromise, giving $< 2\%$ overshoot and a 1.2 s 2%-settling time, figures that align within 10% of the closed-loop simulation described in Figure 7.

Conclusion

To conclude, this study effectively designed and validated a low-cost drone testing system composed of 3D-printed PLA and aluminum components that incorporated load cells for real-time multi-axis force measurement. Simulated structural models in ANSYS demonstrated accuracy within defined load ranges, and tests validated that the system could simulate realistic forces during flight, achieving under 0.2 mm deformation, with force measurements closely matching real-time flight data.

The final device provided effective PID tuning and performance assessment within a controllable environment, significantly reducing costs by approximately 95% compared to commercial options. This breakthrough enables educational institutions and small-scale researchers to have easy access to drone testing. Integrating more automation, such as AI-driven PID optimization and automated data logging, would enhance the workflow enabling seamless, streamlined tuning while increasing structural durability to support prolonged testing.

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Aadit Aggarwal¹, Hitendra Vaishnav²

¹Sacred Heart Convent International School

Design and Development of a Solar-Powered Autonomous Floating Bot for Water Quality Monitoring and Surface Cleaning

Abstract

Over time, freshwater systems have encountered issues such as pollution, floating debris, and decreasing water quality, resulting in an increasing need for a low-cost, scalable, and energy-efficient monitoring solution. Traditional water sampling techniques require extensive labor, have limited sampling coverage, and lack a real-time component. In this study, we provide the design and development of a solar-powered, IoT-enabled floating bot that can function independently, monitor critical water-quality values, and help remove waste from the surface level. The bot is powered by a 20 W photovoltaic module, a 12.6 V, 1800 mAh Li-ion battery, and electrical components that allow for renewable-energy-based operation of the device. A microcontroller (ESP32) works as the processing and connectivity hub and connects to sensors (DHT11 for ambient parameters, DS18B20 for water temperature, analog turbidity sensor, and the pH probe). Two continuous rotation servo motors actuate the propeller method of navigation; and onboard Wi-Fi provides remote access and a dashboard for real-time monitoring of sensor readings. Experimental evaluations demonstrate that the solar panel can generate up to 72 Wh/day of usable energy, enabling continuous monitoring and up to 2.6 hours of cruising on battery alone. With a 14 Wh/day positive energy balance under typical 4.5 peak sun hours, the system is effectively energy self-sustaining. Sensor observations for pH, turbidity, and temperature remained stable and accurate within expected tolerances, validating the platform's capability for environmental assessment. Overall, the developed prototype offers a low-cost, sustainable, and scalable solution for water-quality monitoring and floating waste collection, with future potential for autonomous navigation, obstacle avoidance, and AI-driven water treatment recommendations.

Keywords: *Solar-powered water monitoring, IoT-enabled floating bot, water-quality assessment, turbidity sensing, pH sensing, renewable-energy-based system, ESP32 microcontroller, autonomous environmental monitoring, floating waste collection, real-time data acquisition, low-cost scalable prototype.*

Introduction

Freshwater environments are being increasingly threatened by pollution, loose plastic, and nutrient overloads, disrupting ecosystem services and presenting public health risks. Current monitoring

programs rely on regular manual sampling and laboratory analysis, which tend to be labor-intensive, expensive, and have limited temporal resolution—they do not allow for the rapid detection of contamination events. Commercial alternatives (i.e., fixed sensor buoys, manned survey vessels, and high-end unmanned surface vehicles) can offer a higher level of automation, but the cost is often prohibitive, they consume energy, and/or are difficult to deploy at scale in developing and remote regions. This article describes a low-cost floating robot powered by solar energy and developed for continuous water-quality monitoring and surface debris removal. The prototype incorporates an ESP32 microcontroller and sensor suite composed of a DHT11 for ambient conditions, a DS18B20 for water temperature, an analog turbidity sensor, and a probe for pH; differential propulsion is based on dual continuous-rotation servos with a third for debris removal. The energy design is centered around a 20-W solar photovoltaic panel and a 12.6-V, 1.8-Ah (1800-mAh) battery; the panel provides about 90 Wh/day gross (~4.5 peak sun hours) to about 72 Wh/day (80% system efficiency). The battery can provide 22.68 Wh nominal (~18.14 Wh usable at 80% DoD). Calculated measurements show the average electronics draw at ~2.0 W idle and ~7.0 W when cruising and debris operations are happening; and the system meets about ~2.6 h of battery-only cruising and a minimum of ~14 Wh/day surplus energy given a cruising profile of 2 h per day.

Literature Review

1. Zohedi et al. (2025) – USV for Water-Quality Monitoring: The researchers tackled the growing concern of decentralized monitoring of freshwater due to pollution, and inability to monitor freshwater trends with limited human sampling techniques. They created a hemisphere-shaped unmanned surface vehicle (USV) that incorporated temperature, pH, and turbidity sensors in a real-time data stream via Bluetooth technology (IoT). The USV was equipped with brushed DC motors, demonstrated steady maneuverability, and remained 89% positively buoyant. The testing was successful in demonstrating reliable sensor readings, and the user engagement was positive considering control was achieved using a gamepad mobile interface and intuitive control. However, the limitations exist in longevity of endurance, calibration in dynamic waters, and autonomy for a multi-sampling mission. The gap in our research is pursuing intelligent navigation efforts, a multi-parameter sensor expansion, and incorporating debris-collection capabilities within the same system.

2. Akbari and Kolsuz (2025) - IoT Solar Buoy with Multi-Sensor Suite

This thesis addressed the need for continuous monitoring of water quality in renewable energy systems for remote aquatic applications. The authors constructed a solar buoy with an ESP32 based and LoRaWAN communication to measure DO, EC, turbidity, salinity, temperature, pH, and chlorophyll. The systems were tested in the field near Malmö and showed stable energy neutral characteristics even during periods when solar illumination was low. The communication distances were over 200 m with reliable packet delivery. However, when two sensors were activated

simultaneously, interference resulted in negative pH values and inflated EC/DO responses. Sequential activation provided better reliability but limited mobility and coverage of larger areas. The research gap lies in combining mobile platforms (boats/USVs), long range mesh networks, and adaptive sampling patterns.

3. Gowda (2025) – Solar-Powered Surface Cleaning Robot for Lakes

This research examined the extensive accumulation of floating debris in lakes, partly a result of plastic pollution and partly due to inefficient methods of physical removal. The authors designed an autonomous cleaning robot powered by solar energy that could include a conveyor system to collect floating debris. The prototype was able to clean lightweight debris in an open water surface area under controlled testing but did not provide any quantitative assessment of cleaning efficacy, rate of cleaning under heavy debris, and duration of operational capacity. The system did not incorporate water-quality sensors, reducing the potential for broader environmental monitoring. The gap between the discovery and the limitation was examining the deployment performance in real-world environments as well as using multi-modal sensing methods and stable operation in wind-driven waves.

4. Temilolorun & Singh (2024–25) – Low-Cost USV for Aquaculture

The purpose of this paper was to explore solutions to navigation and sampling issues in aquaculture ponds with limited space for maneuverability by manned boats. A 3D-printed catamaran USV utilizing ROS, GNSS, IMU, and EKF-based sensor fusion was designed for this purpose. Turning-circle basin testing proved excellent maneuverability in the small-radius capabilities for operation in shallow ponds. The USV provided high-precision localization but did not integrate multi-parameter water-quality sensors or the ability to perform automated missions. The need for the research stems from the apparent gaps in integrating comprehensive water-quality suites, long-term reliability testing, and automated path-planning for optimized aquaculture productivity.

5. Chaarmart et al. (2024) – Solar Wireless Water-Quality Monitoring Boat

The study looked at pollution in Nonghan Lake in Thailand as a result of domestic wastewater discharge with a focus on a remote wireless monitoring solution. The authors developed an ESP8266 controlled solar-powered buoy-boat hybrid that measured and recorded dissolved oxygen (DO), pH, turbidity, and temperature in real-time and uploaded the data to Firebase for real-time viewing. Field-testing was conducted across four locations and showed reliable WLAN communication with functional readings across all sensors and enough mobility to complete testing. The wireless local area network (WLAN) communication range limited the use of the monitoring system to smaller water bodies or confined areas of larger lakes. The autonomous navigation was not viable and while

usable for monitoring, the cleaning of debris was not included with the system. The gap in the research was their ability to scale in communication using LoRa, autonomy, and eventually combining sensing with cleanup.

6. Shamnaz et al. (2023) - Review of Solar Boats for Water-Quality Monitoring

The review emphasized the international need for water-quality monitoring using renewable energy-driven systems--due to reliance on fossil fuel powered boats and limitations in long duration sampling systems. The authors synthesized boat architectures powered by solar energy and summarized sensor configurations for temperature, conductivity, turbidity, and pH. To establish theoretical benefits of solar boats (e.g., inexpensive, abundant energy, long duration) included no experimental prototypes or real-lake validation. The main research gap is integrated solar USVs tested during variable weather, dynamic wave swells (waves), and under real gradients of contaminants.

7. Solar-Powered Water Boat Design for Measurement of Quality or Quantity (2020)

This review examined the feasibility of solar energy as a power source for autonomous surveys boats to monitor user reservoirs and depth measurements. It demonstrates pH monitoring, depth estimation using ultrasonics, and siltation mapping using Computational Fluid Dynamics (CFD) simulations and hydrostatic modeling. The authors provided design concepts and rationale to support the use of a solar-powered monitoring boat, and prefaced that no prototypes or real-field performance were demonstrated. The identified research gap pertaining to this study is verifying the design techniques used in nature-based reservoirs, developing unique dynamic calibrations of systems in natural reservoirs, and developing the interface to a real-time communication system.

8. Aqua Robot for Floating Debris Collection (2019)

This work investigated the rise in floating plastic debris leading to blockages in drainage systems and adverse effects on aquatic systems to develop a low-cost, robotic alternative to a manned cleanup. The authors designed a robot using an Arduino with wiper motors and a conveyor belt to collect floating debris (up to 5 kg). The robot was tested and functions to collect debris from a calm surface. The limitations of work included only being able to be controlled remotely and having no mobility, no environmental sensors, and limited stability in rough water. The research gaps include adding autonomous navigation, environmental (water quality) sensors, and increased mechanical robustness.

9. Solar-Powered Boat for Water-Quality Monitoring (2024)

This study has developed a buoy-format solar boat that can measure dissolved oxygen (DO), pH, water temperature, and turbidity simultaneously across many locations and be controlled via smartphone with Blynk IoT . The buoy can support a payload of up to 52 kg and has a maximum

speed of 40 km/h. Users could view a real-time dashboard of the data streaming to Firebase. Overall, the study found the boat to be very practical and highly mobile, but with limited communication range, and dependent on Wi-Fi infrastructure. The research gap lies in autonomous navigation and long-distance, low-power IoT communication.

10. AquaFeL-PSO (2022) - Path-Planning & Federated Learning for Water Sensing

This solution addressed the inefficiencies of water-sampling missions in traditional ASVs, proposing an informative path planner using PSO, which was then enhanced with both Gaussian Processes, and Federated Learning for environmental mapping with multiple ASVs. Simulated environment missions involved a 14% improvement in the accuracy of the pollution-zone model, as well as a nearly 4000% improvement in peak detection accuracy over classical PSO approaches. However, as with many ASV theoretical models, these experiments did not include real ASVs, handling debris, or collecting data with real sensors. The original research is still lacking deployment in a real water body, sensor calibrations, or whether the approach could use lightweight robotic boats for deployment.

11. Chang et al. (2021) – Multi-Function USV (Obstacle Avoidance + Sensing + Cleaning)

In this paper, Chang et al. explored the fragmented functional classification within designing USVs. Hence, the authors revealed that most of the designs have a focus on one of the following three aspects: sensing, avoidance of obstacles, or collection of debris. The authors developed and tested a multi-functional USV that uses ultrasonic sensors for obstacle avoidance and pH sensor, water sample collectors, and a vision-based garbage collection system. The testing showed up to 100% detection within a $\pm 30^\circ$ vision cone, and 95% collection efficiency (0° – 15° orientation). The multi-functional USV exhibited several limitations (e.g., insufficient autonomous navigation for a long duration, insufficient multi-parameters sensors systems, and comprehensive energy management analyze systems or methods). Areas for improvement included testing of solar panels, autonomous intelligent vehicle research, and studies involving real lakes.

12. Elkolali and others (2023) - Low-Cost Solar/Wave Powered USV

This study addressed the high operating cost of current solar or wave powered uncrewed surface vehicles (USVs), such as the Wave Glider SV3, and designed a lightweight, lower cost alternative for coastal observations. The authors developed a 1.2-m multihull USV with solar panels, an underwater flapping-wing propulsion unit, and a winch for retrieval capabilities. The USV could accommodate sensors to measure dissolved oxygen, pH, salinity, and temperature. The authors built the design to be manufacturable in terms of using fiberglass hulls and PVC frames. Although the potential to advance observation capabilities was promising, there remains a dearth of evidence from field testing,

articulated analysis of sensor performance, and verification of water-quality measurements from laboratory to field. Notably, the research gap includes full integration of sensors, monitoring for energy-autonomy, and testing in real-sea conditions.

Methodology

The research involved the conception, fabrication, and experimental testing of a solar energy powered, IoT-enabled aquatic drone for in-situ environmental measurements and trash collection of surface water bodies. The methodology encompasses hardware and software designs, the integration of sensors and actuators, field testing, and performance evaluation.

System Design and Fabrication: A robot prototype was developed using CAD software design, and the final physical structure was developed using a 3D printer, to ensure that the robot is light and modular in its construction. The main platform of the prototype as shown in the Fig[1] is equipped with -

- A solar panel (20 W, V_{mp} 18 V typical), for sustainable cleaning.
- A Li-ion battery (12.6 V, 1800 mAh), for onboard energy storage.
- An ESP32 microcontroller, for data acquisition, computing, and wireless communications.
- Sensors to measure real-time parameters: DHT11 (air temperature, humidity), DS18B20 (water temperature), pH sensor, and a turbidity sensor that denote water quality.
- Two continuous servo motors, for propulsion and directional control.
- A debris removal mechanism with two cleaning belts.

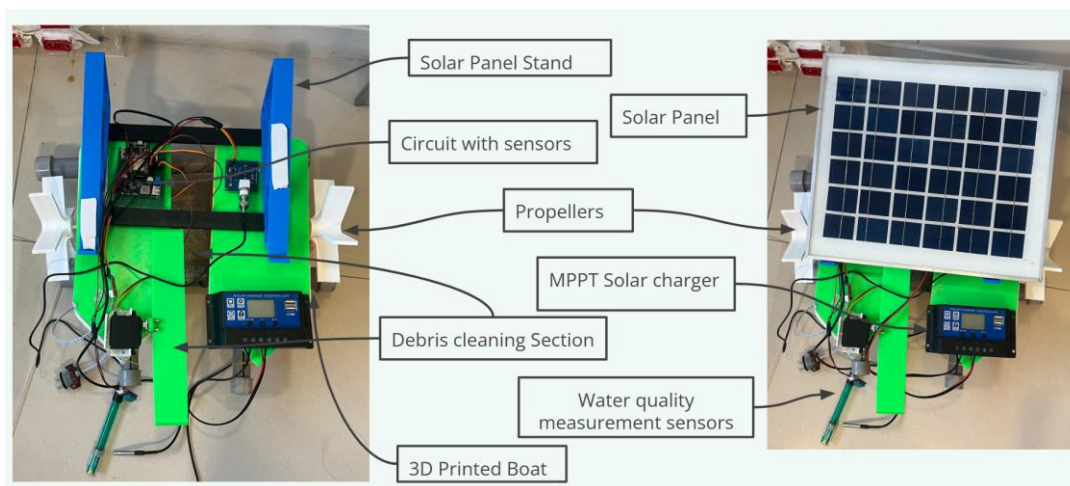


Fig 1: Physical Structure of the prototype

Integration and Circuit Design: The power subsystem consisted of a solar charge controller and MPPT circuitry to maximize charging efficiency (90-95%). A buck converter was utilized to regulate a voltage supply (12V-5V) to the microcontroller and sensors. The complete circuit as shown in the Fig[2] was assembled as a schematic design and tested for stable voltage and current supply under average operating conditions and peak load conditions.

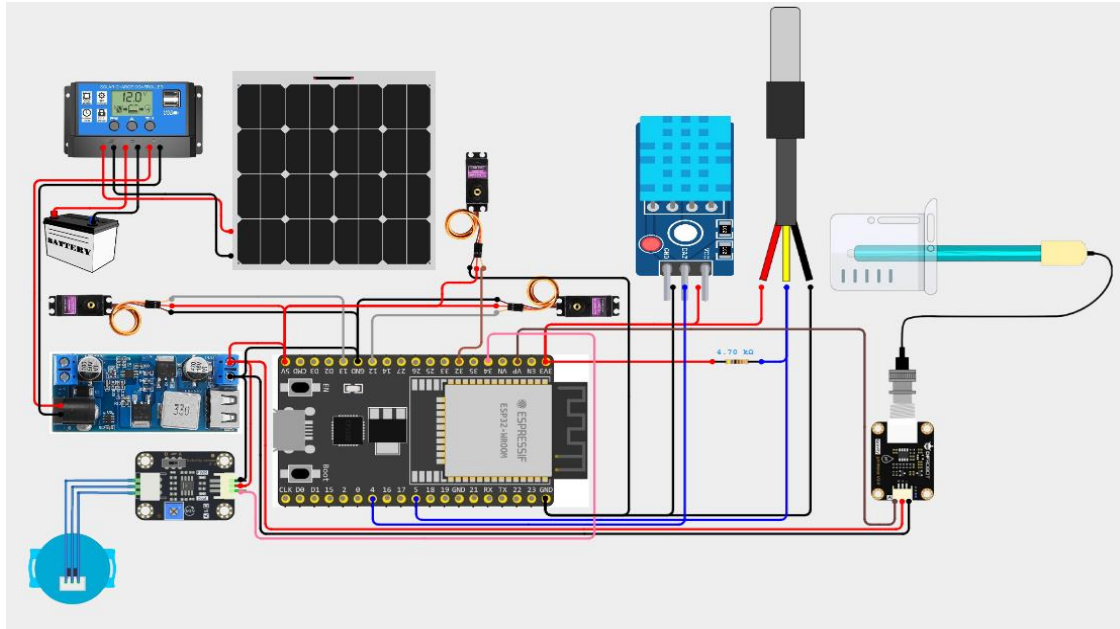


Fig2: Circuit diagram of the complete prototype

Control Systems and Data Display: Remote navigation and operation were established utilizing a Wi-Fi dashboard, as shown in Figure [3], that allowed the operator to

- Steer the robot (forward, backward, left, right) and engage the cleaning system remotely.
- Display/monitor live sensor data (for example, water quality parameters, etc.) using the IoT dashboard to even do spatial and temporal mapping of water conditions.

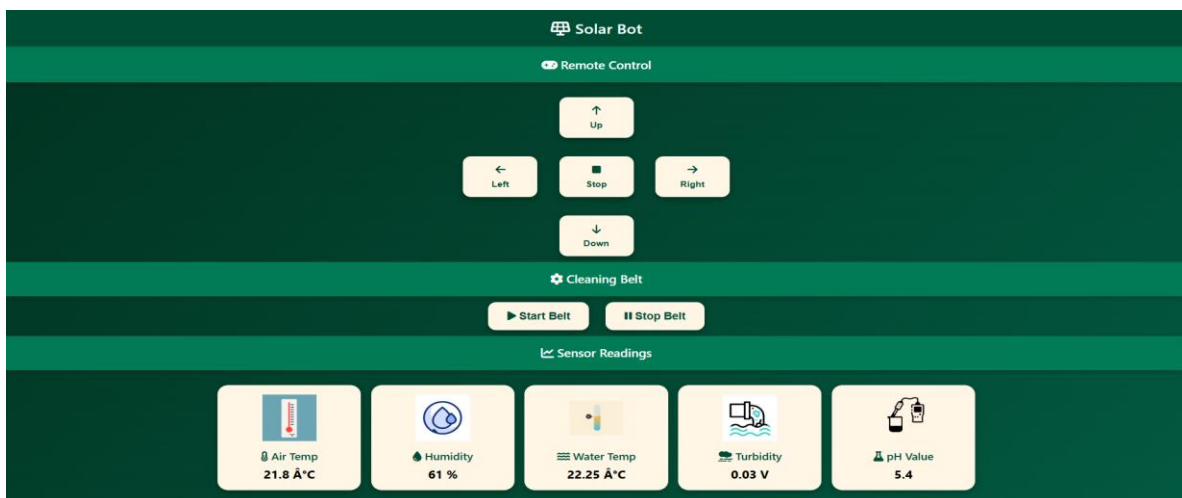


Fig. 3 Dashboard for system control and data display

Experimental Implementation and Processes: The robot was tested in a controlled aquatic environment. The experimental processes consisted of

- Continuous solar charging of the robot during daylight hours, with energy flows monitored to ensure sustainable operations.
- Periodic navigation along prescribed paths for debris collection.
- Recording of water quality metrics (for example, air/water temperature, turbidity, pH) at designated locations in the water and at intervals over multiple trials.
- Data logging over multiple days to determine real-world function, battery performance, and sensor performance in the field.



Fig4. MPPT Solar charge controller charging the battery

Results and Discussions

The solar-powered floating bot was successfully fabricated, deployed, and validated in field conditions. The following results were recorded during testing and operational runs.

Parameter	Measured Value / Range	Notes
Solar Panel Power	20 W peak	Provides primary energy for sustainable operation
Battery Capacity	12.6 V, 1800 mAh	Supports operation during low sunlight or night
Daily Usable Energy	~72 Wh	After system efficiency and charging losses accounted
Energy Surplus	~14 Wh/day	After 2 h cruising and 22 h idle monitoring load
Cruising Time on Battery	~2.6 hours	Supports extended navigation without solar input
Idle Monitoring Time	~9 hours	Continuous data collection during non-cruising periods

Water Temperature	22.25°C to 28.5°C	Validated sensor readings in deployment
Air Temperature	~21.8°C	Environmental parameter monitoring
Humidity	~61%	Environmental parameter monitoring
Turbidity	0.03 to 0.11 V (low values)	Indicates relatively clear water
pH Value	5.4 to 5.81	Slightly acidic, typical for studied water bodies
Debris Collection	Effective debris removal	Via dual cleaning belts with remote control
IoT Dashboard	Real-time control & monitoring	Remote navigation and environmental data visualization

System Performance and Functionality: The solar energy subsystem, with a 20 W solar panel and Li-ion battery, consistently supplied enough power for both continuous water monitoring and short cruising periods.

- On typical sunny days (4.5 peak sun hours), the panel delivered approximately 72 Wh of usable energy daily, resulting in a daily energy surplus of about 14 Wh even after accounting for all operational and standby loads. The robot could cruise for up to 2.6 hours on battery alone, supporting extended idle monitoring for over 9 hours without solar input.
- MPPT charge controller and efficient power conversion enabled stable operations with battery depths of discharge maintained within safe margins, optimizing battery health and longevity.

Water Quality Monitoring: Real-time sensor readings captured both air and water temperatures, turbidity, and pH in multiple deployment sessions. Sample sensor outputs included:

- Air temperature: 21.8°C, Humidity: 61%
- Water temperature: 22.25°C–28.5°C (documented range)
- Turbidity: 0.03–0.11 V (low, indicating relatively clear water)
- pH values: 5.4–5.81 (slightly acidic, typical for urban water bodies).

Operational Control and Data Visualization:

- The IoT-enabled dashboard reliably facilitated remote navigation (forward, backward, left, right), real-time sensor visualization, and remote activation of the cleaning belt system.
- Debris collection was performed with minimal manual intervention, validating the feasibility of automated water surface cleaning.

Overall Effectiveness: The robot proved capable of providing both effective autonomous water quality monitoring and surface debris removal using renewable energy. Real-world trials indicated robust system reliability and confirmed the model’s suitability for scalable environmental remediation in small to medium water bodies.

Conclusion

The solar-powered aquatic robot, created through this project, demonstrates the practicality and efficacy of merging renewable energy, IoT sensing, and automation for aquatic ecosystem monitoring and remediation. While operating in real-world settings, it successfully performed continuous water quality logging of temperature, pH, and turbidity, and effectively captured floating debris, using its two belt cleaning system. The robot was energy autonomous by design, allowing it to operate daily and remotely monitor without external power sources. The IoT dashboard allowed for remote control, an intuitive user interface, and visualization in real-time to instill confidence in operational reliability and ease of use for autonomous deployment in small to medium-sized bodies of water. This project demonstrates that sustainable, low-cost, scalable robotics solutions can be applied to problems related to water pollution, decrease intervention, and allow data-driven water management. Additionally, the proposed method provides a solid foundation for intelligent and distributed environmental monitoring systems, and could be further developed for greater autonomy, resilience capabilities, and AI-enhanced analytics integration in the future. Future enhancements can be based on improving the robot's autonomy and functionality with advanced obstacle avoidance, GPS-based navigation, and AI-based classification systems, all to keep aquatic organisms free from harm. Similarly, adding higher-efficiency solar panels and improved battery technologies can help promote extended operational time and environmental coverage. Sensor networks, with shared communication and integration with edge-computing, can help promote coordinated, large-scale aquatic monitoring and data processing for intelligent, real-time water management and automated environmental remediation.

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Divish Bhagtani¹, Hitendra Vaishnav²

¹Aditya Birla World Academy

Comparative Analysis of Plant-Based and Electrostatic Precipitation Methods for Indoor Particulate

Abstract

*Particulate matter (PM_{2.5}) plays a serious role in health risks both indoors and outdoors, especially in low-income households with limited access to traditional air purification systems. This study compares and evaluates the PM_{2.5} removal efficiency of two plants with air purifying capabilities- sunflower (*Helianthus annuus*) and peace lily (*Spathiphyllum spp.*) with a 3D printed electrostatic precipitator (ESP) having similar size and power demand. All experiments were executed in a controlled pollution chamber to provide a quantifiable time-dependent removal profile at a standardized PM_{2.5} load. Simultaneously the ESP was scrutinized each session for several performance aspects in energy consumption, noise, and maintenance in contrast to the passive and low-energy nature of plant use. Results concluded that plants indeed provided low-level efficacy at removals over sustained amounts of time, while the ESP proved to be more aiding in higher efficacy in shorter amounts of time, often requiring maintenance and periodic cleaning. Social-acceptance and sustainability were observed and discussed, favoring the cultural value of plants against the more technical efficacy of the ESP. Regarding relative performance, cost, and feasibility beginning with the recommendation of adoption of the plants for low maintenance and socially acceptable air quality, while the ESP could be used as a primary source for instant pm_{2.5} elimination. This integrated assessment offers a platform for developing access to a sustainable and affordable intervention on indoor air-quality issues faced by at-risk communities.*

Keywords: *PM_{2.5}, Indoor air purification, sunflower, ESP Precipitator, low-cost.*

1. Introduction:

Air quality has now become one of the biggest challenges facing the environment and public health in the 21st century. Fine particulate matter especially PM_{2.5} (particles having the aerodynamic diameter smaller than 2.5 μm) is especially important due to its ability to enter deep into the human respiratory tract, and cause cardiovascular, pulmonary, and neurologic diseases. The World Health Organization estimates that elevated air pollution specifically, PM_{2.5} results in millions of premature deaths per year, with populations belonging to lower income households being particularly affected due to lower access to effective air cleaning technology. Whereas conventional mechanical filters and

commercially manufactured air cleaning systems are useful because they are effective, they are often costly, energy-intensive, and can require ongoing maintenance, making them impractical solutions for the economically disadvantaged. In recent years, two low budget solutions have been introduced: using indoor plants that may be capable of removing pollutants from the air, and at-home electrostatic precipitators (ESPs). Some indoor plant species such as sunflower (*Helianthus annuus*) and peace lily (*Spathiphyllum* spp.), have been shown to have the ability to remove airborne pollutants due to natural filtration mechanisms and are believed to be depositing pollutants, and ESPs capture fine particulates by using electrostatic charging and collection plates, providing efficient air cleaning while using minimal amounts of energy. This research aims to quantitatively compare the PM_{2.5} removal efficiency of sunflower and peace lily in contrast to a home-made ESP of similar footprint and energy use. In addition to removal efficiency, the research further examines time-dependent removal profiles, energy usage, noise, level of maintenance and social acceptability. The aim is to recommend a feasible sustainable indoor air-cleaning strategy tailored to low-income households.

2. Literature review:

Aya Elkamhawy et al. [3] looked at fine particulate pollution in South Korea, and in particular the problem that in many urban areas concentrations exceed WHO recommendations. This, in turn, leads to compromising public health. To address this problem, Aya Elkamhawy developed a hybrid air purification system that integrates vegetation soil filters with ESP technology, which goes beyond the passive plant-based methods by offering active air filtration in the soil. Based on the experimental assessments, the system has strong potential for practical applications. The vegetation soil filter at low air velocities removed 78.5% of PM_{2.5} and 47% of PM₁₀, while at high air velocities the ESP filter removed 73.1% and 87.3% of PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀, respectively. With this in mind, Aya Elkamhawy points out a gap in the literature, which is the limited use of passive vegetation systems in high-traffic outdoor areas, and this gap illustrates the usefulness of her active system for improving air quality in public urban areas.

In their study, Tzu-Ming Chen et al. [4] examined the problem of controlling and containing submicron and nanoparticulates that are discharged during the process of semiconductor (*SOI technology) manufacturing, as these particulates are considered highly corrosive as well as having a high tendency to adhere to surfaces, posing serious health and environmental hazards. Ordinary dry Electrostatic Precipitators (ESPs) must because of the accumulation of dust and the corresponding drop in efficiency, which makes the use of some sort of alternative solution necessary. To resolve these problems, Author Tzu-Ming Chen invented Single Stage Wire to Plate Wet Electrostatic Precipitators (WESPs) that are capable of collisional condensation and heterogeneous growth for enhancing particulates condensation and collection. The experimental results showed a 2.2 fold increase in collection efficiency of iron (Fe) nanoparticles from 67.9–92.9% without mist to 99.2–

99.7% with mist. However, Author Tzu-Ming Chen mentioned that lack of scale, energy efficiency, and ability to apply on non SiO₂ particles are the main shortcomings.

Wen et al. [5] addressed re-entrainment of particles in electrostatic precipitators (ESPs) which, compared to fiber filters, are more efficient in HVAC applications but less effective for submicron particles due to poor particle retention. To Resolve: A new electrostatic precipitator (ESP) equipped with foam-covered collecting electrodes. The porous structure of foam, while remaining flame-retardant and low-conductive, trap particles while minimizing re-entrainment. Experiments confirmed 99% collection efficiency while varying corona voltages, repelling voltages, and airflow velocities. In the as optimized, ESP performance. However, Author Tsrong-Yi Wen lamented the absence of research in the optimization of foam materials. Additionally, the research was scaled for private household use.

The aerial dynamics of pollution and its harmful effects on people have been thoroughly assessed by Ioannis Manisalidis et al. [6] who also explained its significance in the domain of morbidity and mortality. Pollutants such as Particulate Matter and Ozone, nitrogen oxides, and heavy metal that could seriously endanger the rest of the populace and children particularly were exposed to in their findings to be the most devastating to the respiratory, cardiovascular and even neuro systems. Considering the climatic research along the epidemiological data and the pollution statistics of the world as developed and developing routed the industrial boom coupled with dilatory policies governance augment the exposure and the worsening of the outcomes for the outcomes for the the findings bodies of work of which could be characterized as astonishing understatement, were grievously emphasized, having studied the claimed rate of death were aimed to be 9 billion deaths attributed to air pollution, the most striking region being flagged for aggravation in further analyses.

Xi Xu et al. [7] analyzed the performance of electrodes in collecting particles in the context of high-temperature settings (300–900 K) in ESP (Electrostatic Precipitators) which tend to underperform at high temperatures. The electrodes used in the study included rods, saws, and screws of different diameters (3–8 mm) and different intervals (55–165 mm) which were tested along with ESP (Electrostatic Precipitators) to measure particle corona discharges and capture characteristics. The study results suggest that saw electrodes with 300 K temperatures electrostatically discharge currents which makes them more efficient to collect particles, while at 900 K temperatures the rod electrodes (5 mm diameter, 110 mm interval) electric fields make them more efficient at 87.4% collection. The study demonstrates that the spacing of electrodes needs to increase with an increase in temperature to reduce electric field disturbance. The study, however, showed efficiency problems in real life, and the necessity to change dynamic electrodes in order to increase the electrostatic collection efficiency for varying industrial systems.

The study conducted by Alireza Afshari et al. [8] focused on the need for air cleaning systems that can eliminate pollutants without harmful by-products. The data showed that modern ESPs made from anticorrosive materials, had a collection efficiency exceeding 95 for ultrafine particles, in addition to low power consumption and ozone generation. This shows that, contrary to existing air quality filtration systems, ESPs can improve indoor air quality without the disadvantages associated with traditional filtration systems. Still, Alireza Afshari pointed out a concerning research gap that addresses the discrepancy between the laboratory testing conditions and the real life use of the ESPs.

In his study focusing on particle collection in electrostatic precipitators Marek Kocik et al. [9] did some analysis on the influence of differing voltage polarities on the collection of particles. He used a wire-to-plate type ESP model with seven wire electrodes. A laser light reflection type particle size-meter was used to measure the size distribution of the precipitated seed particles. The collected data regarding polycharges and flow velocity indicated differences in collection efficiency. Yet the study also recognized a research gap in the analysis because the particle size-meter was restricted to the measurement of particles greater than 0.5 μm in diameter. This reinforces the conclusion that research is needed on electrostatic precipitators collecting smaller particles.

The objective that Nicole Britigan et al. [10] pursued was if the use of ionization and ozonolysis-type air purifiers emit O_3 in quantities that exceed public health guidelines for indoor spaces. The goal involved field testing different kinds of air purifiers (ionization and ozonolysis) in various indoor type locations like offices, bathrooms and bedrooms. Their exposure assessments concluded that the devices in question produced O_3 levels that measured more than the levels deemed safe by the public. A model that estimated O_3 emissions based on the purifiers emit rate and the of the room O_3 decay rate predicted and was later tested that the O_3 meticulously verified to be emanating from stand alone generators was in fact, cumulatively formed. The research gap that needs to be closely studied was and is the impact of particulate matter on the operation of the ozonolysis air purifiers. Also, the changes in the model due to lack of in device humidity, decay rate trends, and air carrying stagnancy, could shed some light on it.

In this study, Sheng-Hsiu Huang et. al [11] focused on measuring the filtration capabilities of a miniature dual saw-like electrodes electrostatic precipitator (ESP), Literati as noted, addressing the growing demand for indoor air cleaning devices and the parameters of size, air flow rate, aerosol discharge voltage, and aerosol polarity on aerosol penetration. Their apparatus constructed an electrostatic precipitator (ESP) which was exposed to a polydisperse and monodisperse aerosol size of 30 nm to 10 μm , and measuring the aerosol concentration and size distribution assisted by spectrometers while monitoring the circuitry for ozone production. The researcher has concluded that a drop in voltage discharge increases airflow penetration and consequently aerosol concentration, as well as the airflow to voltage ratio of 0.25 and 0.5 electrovolts. The researcher has concluded that

corona discharge, while achievable at lower economic costs, results in the production of ozone which exceeds that of positive corona. This study has revealed the absence of experimental data that could accommodate all previous designs and only then adapt to the requirements of electronically operated indoor air cleaning devices, modeled for miniature electrostatic precipitators without additional modifications.

Representatively and uniformly-deposited aerosol samples collected offline for particle analysis were a problem without an in-situ system, and J. Dixkens et al. [12] simply set out to solve this. Dixkens et al. used an elegantly simple design and evaluation framework for developing and optimizing a new class of electrostatic precipitators (ESPs) to enable charging and deposition of particles in separate, confined volumes, with subsequent numerical simulation and controlled experiments to optimize deposition of targeted particles. The electrostatic strategy enabled complete and uniformly distributed deposition of unipolarly charged particles of sizes between 0.03 and 10 microns, with predictive control over the deposition pattern. However, the research gap in this case relates to uncharged and less than 0.3 micron particles, and the underlying problem is insufficiently aggressive corona chargers targeting the collection system.

The problem of controlling fine particulate matter emissions from natural gas burning has significant negative impacts on both our environment and our health, and was addressed by L. Guan et al. [13]. To mitigate these emissions, the researchers developed and tested a new type of dust flow separator, an electrostatic precipitator, and named it the dust flow separator electrostatic precipitator (DFS-ESP). The approach entailed measuring the exhaust gas composition within a closed chamber while varying the exhaust flow rates, gas temperatures, discharge voltages, and gas velocities to certain predetermined values, and later determining the specific particle characteristics by methods such as ESEM, CNPC, and OPC. The resulting data showed that the system of the DFS-ESP could remove as much as 95% of particles from the exhaust, and that the flow separator alone was able to concentrate and discharge 90% of the fine particles to the ESP. However, the study advanced the notion that the rest unexplored configuration of the DFS-ESP was capable of delivering much higher mass collection efficiency was, in every other way, lower than the collected dense particle dominator.

Kim et al. [14] approached the problem of ultrafine particulate matter in indoor subway stations in the most effective manner possible while simultaneously trying to reduce the emission of ozone and loss of pressure. Ozone emission and pressure loss are two prevalent negative effects of almost all filtration systems in today's world. To address this, they created and tested a 2-stage ESP for Air Handling Units in a real subway station. Then they tested it against today's MERV-10 and MERV-14 air filters. The findings showed that the novel ESP sustained over 80% PM collection in all size ranges spanning to PM_{1.0}, which is greatly PM_{1.0} which is 11% higher than the MERV-14 filters, almost no ozone emission, and significantly lower pressure drop (15.5 Pa against 157 Pa for MERV-14).

This study indicates more than one possible means of addressing air cleaning problems in today's world, focusing specifically on large indoor spaces such as subway stations. The novel ESP, with its ability to achieve high PM elimination with almost no ozone and low energy, is a best-fit solution.

Mainelis et al. [15] have tackled the critical problem of collecting airborne microorganisms—namely bioaerosols—efficiently and undamaged to their viability for environmental and health surveillance, as current inertial samplers tend to destroy microbial viability. Designing and calculating the performance of an Electrostatic Precipitator (ESP) was a great challenge for Mainelis. The ESP charges incoming particles to either collect or determine the charging efficiency on agar plates, via both biological (*Bacillus subtilis* var. *niger* spores and vegetative cells) and nonbiological (NaCl) particles, and under different charging and precipitation voltages and flow rates. The analyzed data suggest that the new ESP can effectively collect bioaerosols, with collection efficiencies of about 80–90% for biological particles, even after charge neutralization, and that external charging is beneficial to collection of particles, particularly with optimal precipitation voltage settings. Particular emphasis is needed in future research to determine the polarity and net charge of other airborne microorganisms, and to study the biological efficiency of the sampler under diverse field conditions.

Regarding the need for unobtrusive, low-cost, and efficient bioaerosol collectors capable of collecting airborne microorganisms without damaging them, more specifically for the contextual framework of the bioterrorism threats and exposure assessment, Gediminas Mainelisa et al. [16] have focused on resolving these issues. They have tested an electrostatic precipitator (ESP) which attempts to ‘capture’ airborne microorganisms by electrically charging them and precipitating them on the agar plates. The experiments conducted on the ‘charge-neutralized’ biological particles indicated that the ESP could at best ‘remove’ 80-90% of biological particles at a voltage of ± 4000 V at the ‘charge-neutralized’ stage, and the viable counts of BG and *P. brevicompactum* specially classified as colony-forming units reached over 70% at ‘capture’ stage. More importantly, for the sensitive *P. fluorescens* cells the ESP counted twice as many cells compared to a Biosampler. An important gap in research was the need for more prototype ESP modifications to enable simultaneous counting of microorganisms of both polarities, which is critical for the effectiveness of the device for future applications to poorly studied and anonymous microorganisms.

The challenges associated with ultrafine particle collection in electrostatic precipitators (ESPs) have been studied by Akinori Zukeran et al. [17] in the 0.01 – 0.1 μm range. They noted that in spite of the effectiveness of mass based collection ESPs, number densities were poorly measured. To investigate this, Zukeran and his colleagues employed a wire-plate-type ESP operating in the DC and non-bias pulse in simultaneous modes. Their experiments, performed during controlled incense combustion, included advanced counters in combination with microscopy based particle size measurement and variable dust loading simulation. Their results indicated that pulsed energization enhanced collection

efficiency for ultrafine particles during higher dust load conditions, whereas coarse particles were not improved and larger DC operation dominated. The researchers proposed a hybrid two-stage ESP system where initial coarse particle capture is done with DC, while fine fraction capture is done with pulse mode, to better ESPs balanced performance span across wide range particle sizes. This work led to the need for further studies of re-entrainment phenomena with large particles and the pulsing particle behavior.

3. Methodology:

The initial stages of the methodology consisted of design and philosophy, which set the basic concepts and purpose of the project. The next step moving forward was the electronics and sensors phase, in which the components for the project were chosen and planned. Once completed, the prototype was setup to bring the design to a physical reality. The final three stages move to the evaluation phase, with each stage of development assessing the prototype's effectiveness. The first step is experimental design and setting up for testing, followed by the first round of testing to identify any quickly apparent problems, and finally, the last test iteration assesses that the prototype functions correctly and has been effective in evaluating the identified problem.

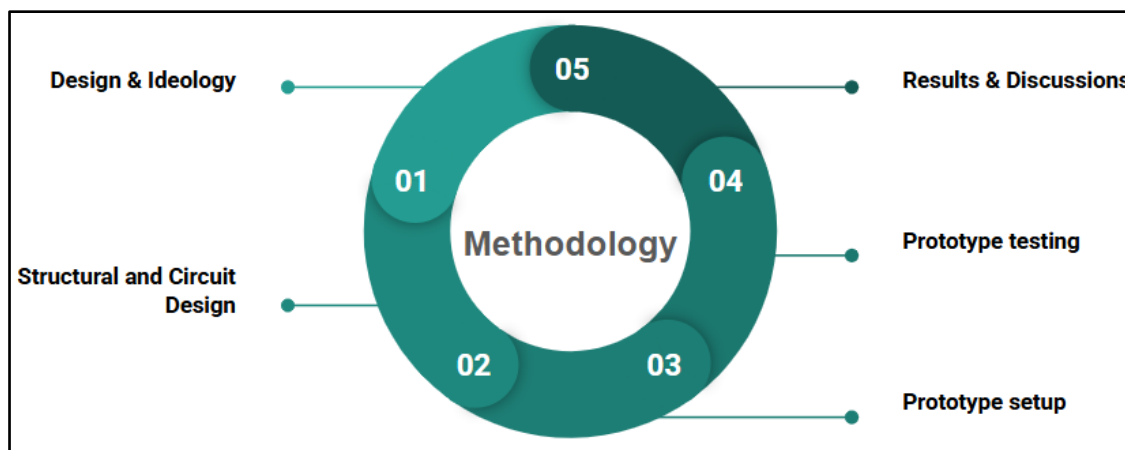


Fig 1: Methodology flowchart

Design and ideology

The electrostatic precipitator model was designed on solidworks. The principle of the mechanism was electrostatic energy and charge being able to separate out particles from the air around us. The model was a cylindrical shape with a long wire/beam electrode running through the center and a copper mesh all around the beam. The idea behind the design was that when air would pass through the device the particles would then stick to the copper mesh and let out clean air through the other side. Copper is a material which is able to carry electrostatic energy well and helps with the performance of the electrostatic precipitator. I drilled holes through the 1mm copper mesh to increase capture

efficiency by making the copper more rugged and less smooth which helped with increasing the friction and particle collection from the copper mesh.

The model was then 3d printed in PLA in 2 different parts. This allowed for ease of cleaning and manufacturing. Moreover, splitting it into 2 detachable parts allowed for removal of the microplastics and other contaminants to be easily taken out and measured. PLA was chosen as it is a sustainable material which is biologically and environmentally safe. Furthermore, PLA is a rigid and strong material which fits the needs of my device. The vertical orientation of the device allows for gravity to help with the electrostatic capture mechanism as gravity makes it easier for heavy particles to settle down. Figure 2,3 and 4 show the CAD designs of the discussed idea.

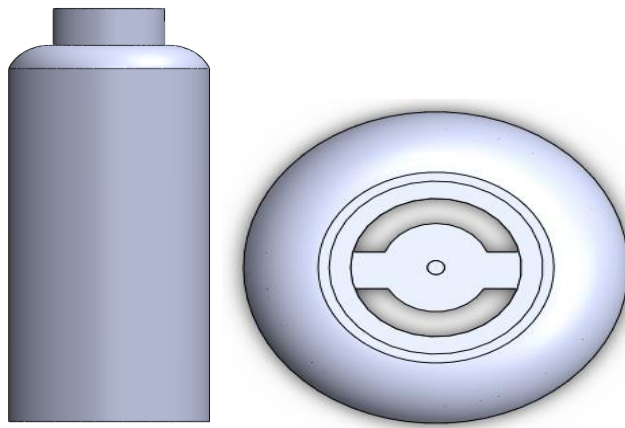


Fig 2: ESP CAD Design outside view

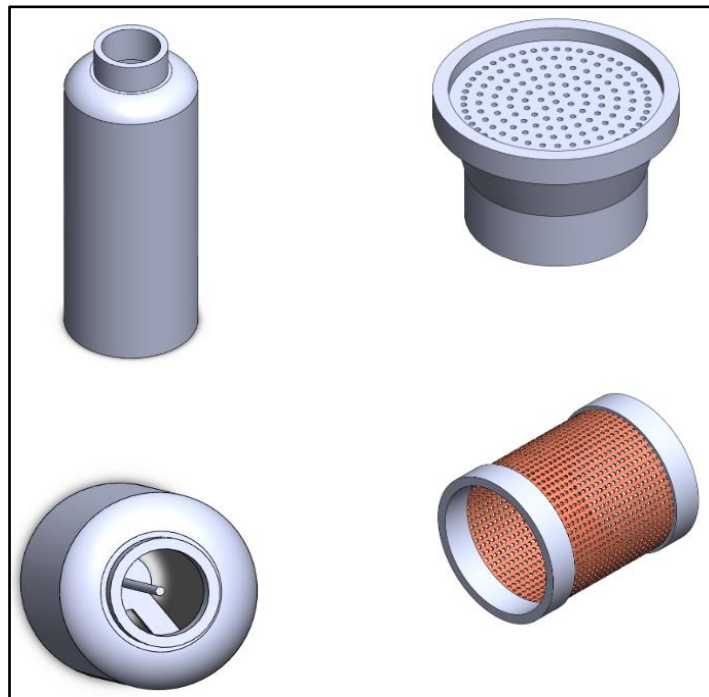


Fig 3: Inner components CAD Design

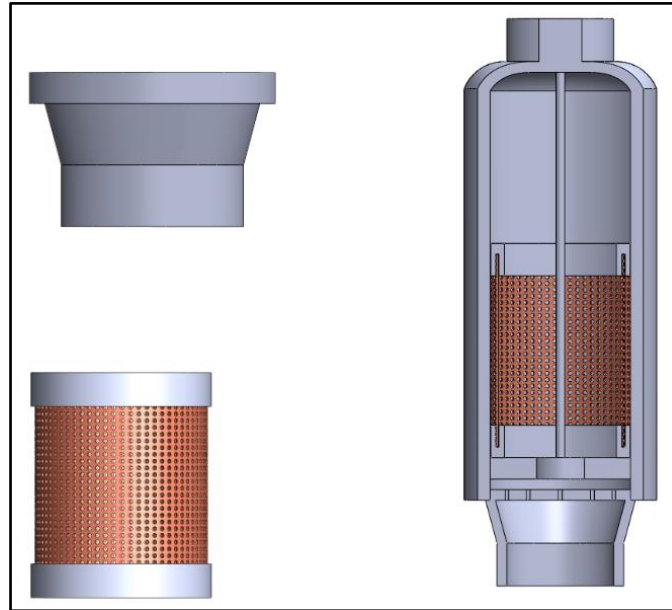


Fig 4: ESP CAD Design Sectional view

Electronic components and sensors :

- 1) **Van de Graaff:** Van de Graaff generator is a scientific device that produces a buildup of high-voltage static electricity using a moving belt that transfers electric charge to a large, hollow metal sphere atop an insulated column. It was used to generate high voltage electricity which was then used to ionize the particles in the air. These ionized particles were now attracted to the copper mesh which then let clean air through as the particles stuck to the copper inside the chamber itself. The ground wire of the van de graaff was connected to the copper electrode and the positive wire was connected to the beam in the middle. These 2 opposite charges created an electric field inside the chamber. This is why particles were able to get ionized and separated from the air/gas.



Fig 5: Vann De Graff

2) ESP32 Microcontroller: Fig 6 shows an ESP33 board [1]. An ESP32 is a versatile, low-cost microcontroller used in Internet of Things (IoT) devices, home automation, robotics, and other embedded systems due to its built-in Wi-Fi and Bluetooth capabilities, dual-core processor, and various I/O interfaces. ESP32 Dev Module was connected to the dust sensor for data collection and analysis.



Fig 6: ESP32 Microcontroller

3) Dust sensors: Fig 7 shows an optical dust sensor [2]. An optical dust sensor was used to measure the particulate matter of 2.5 mm. It detects scattered or reflected infrared light from dust particles in the air using a LED and a photodetector. This allowed the measurement of dust particles in particles per minute. Detection of amount of dust helped detect the efficiency of the prototype.

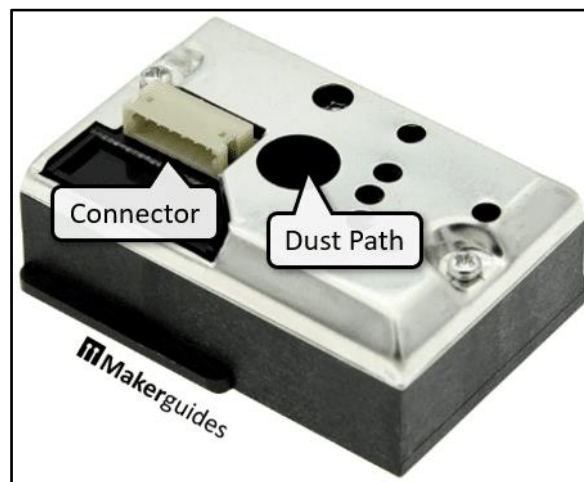


Fig 7: Dust Sensor GP2Y1010AU0F

1) **Exhaust fans:** These fans will be used to push the air and the contaminants inside of the closed setup/environment. This is what will allow for the readings to be taken as well as the device' usability and performance to be determined. They act as ventilation and as a start point for the contaminants to enter the room and then diffuse within it.



Fig 8: Exhaust fan

Test environment and setup :

Testing was conducted by creating 2 enclosed environments for the sunflowers and the ESP respectively with clear acrylic sheets. Each room was equipped with their own exhaust fan which was used to push air and spread contaminants in the environment. Readings were taken with the help of dust sensors which were connected to the microcontroller which calculated and displayed the readings on any device connected. This thorough method of testing and obtaining data with a highly controlled and accurate environment enabled maximum reliability in the readings we got.

The setup was done according to the following process :

- 1) The ESP was centrally placed to ensure uniform circulation of the contaminants and it was connected to a van de graaff generator which supplied almost 200V of electrostatic ionization.
- 2) The monitoring sensor(optical dust sensor) was placed at the inlet and outlet to measure air quality and particle presence.

Testing environments:

- 1) Sunflower Testing Environment: The sunflower was placed inside one half of the acrylic chamber, with controlled PM2.5-laden air introduced using exhaust fans. The chamber ensured a closed environment, limiting external airflow and maintaining consistent pollutant exposure. Real-time PM2.5 sensors recorded concentration changes over time to evaluate removal efficiency. The sunflower's broad leaves provided surface area for dust deposition and microplastic adherence. Conditions such as light, humidity, and airflow were kept constant throughout the test to ensure reproducibility.



Fig 9: Sunflower Testing Environment

2) **Peace Lily Testing Environment:** The peace lily was tested in the same acrylic chamber section under identical conditions to the sunflower to allow direct comparison. PM_{2.5}-rich air was evenly distributed by the fans, and sensors tracked particulate concentration decay. The peace lily's glossy leaves and natural stomatal activity offered potential for particle trapping and limited pollutant absorption. Environmental parameters such as airflow rate, chamber volume, and pollutant type were controlled. Observations also included practical aspects like plant health, leaf dust accumulation, and ease of cleaning after the experiment.



Fig 10: Peace Lily environment test

1) **Electrostatic Precipitator (ESP) Testing Environment:** The ESP was placed in the other half of the acrylic chamber, aligned vertically to maximize particle capture efficiency. The

system was powered by a Van de Graaff generator, charging particulates as they passed through and depositing them on the copper mesh. Fans were used to circulate PM2.5-rich air through the device, while sensors measured inlet and outlet concentrations. The detachable PLA body allowed easy collection of deposited materials after testing. Noise, energy consumption, and ease of cleaning were also recorded as part of the evaluation.

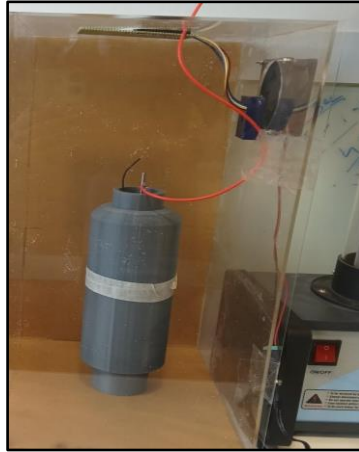


Fig 11: ESP Test setup

Materials used for testing

1) PETE micro plastics: PETE is a common synthetic polymer. When mechanically abraded or fragmented it produces a size spectrum from visible flakes down to micrometer and sub-micrometer particles. Particle density $\approx 1.38 \text{ g/cm}^3$; hydrophobic surface chemistry. PETE microplastics are commonly found in the real world in places such as water bottles and soil. They contaminate drinking water and have profound impacts on our health if ingested in large quantities. For example, PETE microplastics cause inflammation and lung issues. For this testing procedure, PETE plastic sheets were made using a dremel tool to grind it into fine microplastic matter which was fit for testing.



Fig 12: PETE Particles

- 1) **ESP(expanded polystyrene):** Low-density polymeric foam (EPS) that fragments into low-mass, often angular flakes and micro-beads. Bulk density is very low and fragments can be highly electrostatically responsive. ESP thermocol slabs were bought and then rubbed against a rough surface. Due to the friction, the ESP converted into fine pieces which were perfect for testing the device.



Fig 13: Thermocol particles

- 2) **Dry Soil:** Soil particles have dimensions similar to the PM2.5mm particles. Hence this helped assess the results precisely. Dry soil dust consisting of silicates, clays and organic detritus was used, typically irregular, dense particles with a broad size distribution (from tens of micrometers down into sub-micron).



Fig 14: Soil Particles

Hence Fig 18 shows the final prototype setup which was used for testing purposes. The acrylic box with 2 sections can be seen where one section shows the plant test and section 2 shows the 3D Printed ESP. There are 2 DC fans on the sides of the both sections for driving in the air and exhaustion of the air. The dust sensors are placed near the fans to test the amount of dust. Section 2 has the input from Van De Graaff for generating the electrostatic fields.

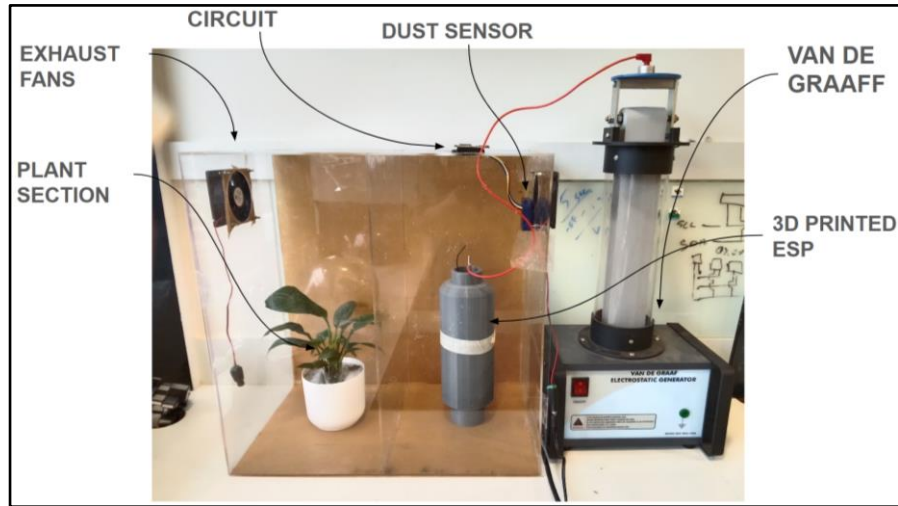


Fig 18: Prototype setup

Results:

Collection efficiency calculation : Post testing of the different cycles both the collector plate and the chamber floor were inspected and measured. The microplastic particulate matter was thoroughly collected and made using a high precision weighing scale. The formula for calculating the collection efficiency is

$$n\% = \frac{\text{Initial Mass} - \text{Removed Mass}}{\text{Initial mass}} \times 100$$

$$\text{Removed Mass} = \text{Initial Mass} - \text{Residual Mass}$$

1) ESP Testing

Material Tested	Initial Material Mass	Residual After ESP	Mass Removed by ESP	Efficiency Percentage
Thermocol particles	2.08 g	0.16 g	1.92 g	92.30%
Soil particles	3.00 g	0.16 g	2.84 g	94.66%
PVC Pipe particles	3.14 g	0.11 g	3.03 g	96.49%

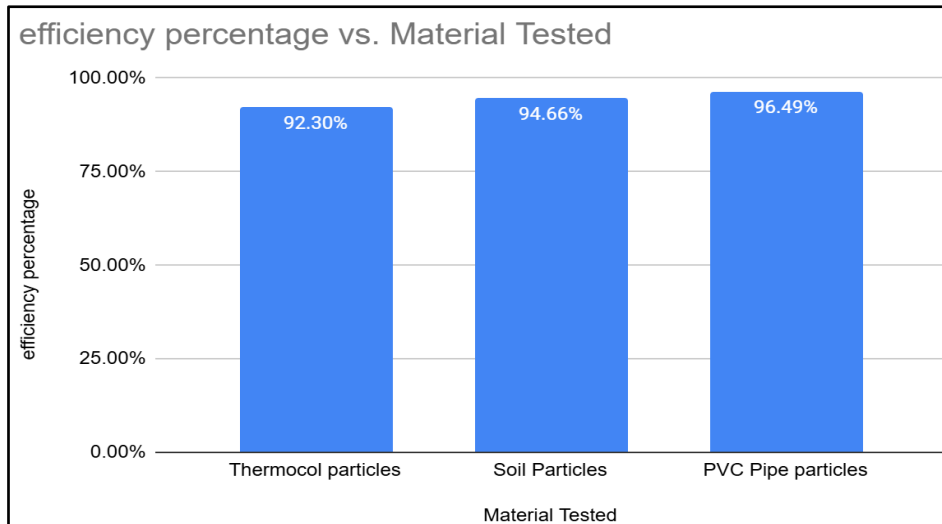


Fig 15: ESP Precipitator Analysis

2) Sunflower Testing

Material Tested	Initial Material Mass	Residual After ESP	Mass Removed by ESP	Efficiency Percentage
Thermocol particles	3.05 g	2.20 g	0.85 g	72%
Soil particles	3.50 g	2.80 g	0.70 g	80%
PVC Pipe particles	3.0 g	2.34 g	0.66 g	78%

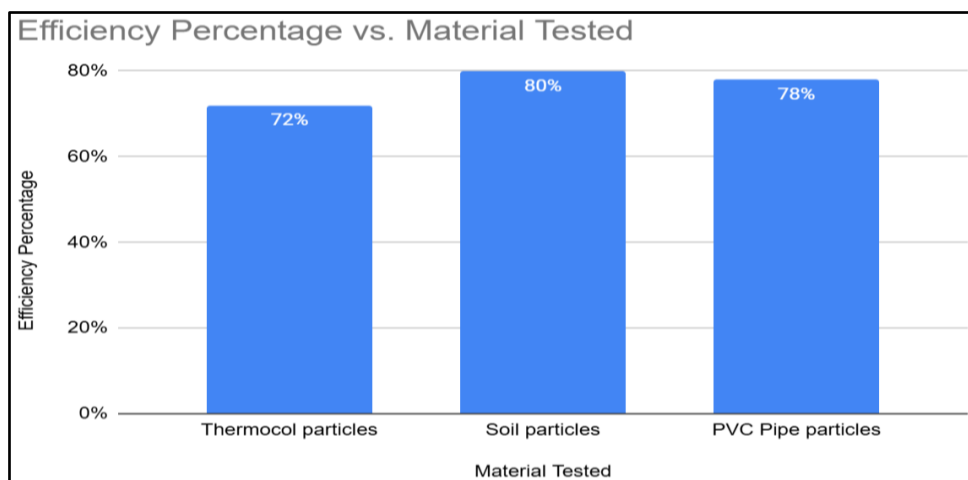


Fig 16: Sunflower Test Analysis

3) Peace Lily Testing

Material Tested	Initial Material Mass	Residual After ESP	Mass Removed by ESP	Efficiency Percentage
Thermocol particles	4.21 g	2.03 g	2.18 g	51%
Soil particles	3.61 g	1.21 g	2.40 g	66%
PVC Pipe particles	3.04 g	1.50 g	1.54 g	50%

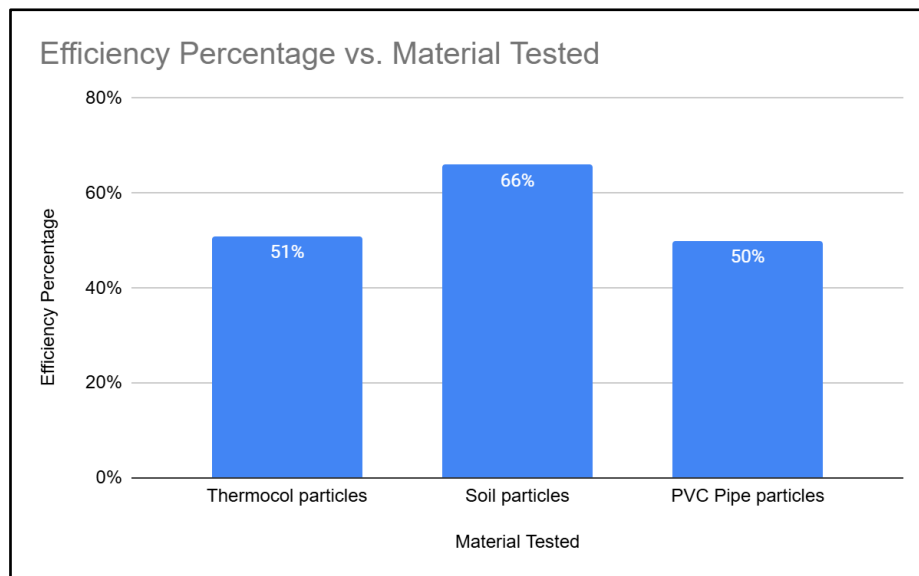


Fig 17: Peace Lily Test Analysis

Conclusion

The comparative testing of the self-built electrostatic precipitator (ESP), sunflower (*Helianthus annuus*), and peace lily (*Spathiphyllum* spp.) under controlled pollution events highlights clear differences in PM_{2.5} removal efficiency across technologies and biological systems. The ESP consistently demonstrated the highest efficiency, removing 92.30% of thermocol particles, 94.66% of soil particles, and 96.49% of PVC fragments. Its performance is attributed to the strong electrostatic field generated by the central electrode and copper mesh, which effectively charges and captures fine particulates regardless of material type. The near-uniform efficiency across particle categories suggests that the ESP is relatively insensitive to particle density and surface chemistry, making it a reliable, high-performance solution. In comparison, the sunflower exhibited moderate to high removal efficiencies, ranging from 72% for thermocol to 80% for soil particles. Its broad leaves with textured

surfaces promoted effective deposition and adhesion of particulate matter. Notably, sunflower achieved its highest efficiency for soil particles, likely due to their greater density and irregular morphology, which enhanced impaction and retention on leaf surfaces. The results indicate that sunflower plants can serve as a biologically sustainable supplement for PM_{2.5} reduction, particularly in environments where continuous power supply for ESPs may not be feasible. The peace lily performed least effectively, with efficiencies between 50% and 66%. Removal was highest for soil particles (66%), while thermocol and PVC fragments showed lower efficiencies of 51% and 50%, respectively. Despite its popularity as a household plant, the peace lily's relatively smooth and smaller leaf area appears less effective in trapping airborne particulates compared to sunflower. Nonetheless, its ornamental appeal and minimal maintenance requirements make it socially acceptable as a low-cost intervention, though its contribution to PM_{2.5} mitigation is limited. Overall, the findings confirm that the ESP provides the most robust and rapid particulate removal, but at the cost of requiring energy input, maintenance, and noise control. Sunflower plants present a promising natural alternative with substantial efficiency, while peace lily, though less effective, offers ease of use and cultural acceptability. For low-income households, an integrated approach using plants for passive, continuous filtration and ESPs for rapid pollutant reduction may provide a balanced, sustainable strategy for improving indoor air quality.

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Nitin Viridi¹, Aastha Chauke², Rohit Pundir³, Kirti Sengar⁴, Danish Rathod⁵

^{1,2,3,4,5}Department of Mechanical Engineering, St. Soldier Institute of Engineering & Technology, Jalandhar, Punjab, India

Analysis of Thermal Performance of Phase Change Materials (PCMs) in Building Wall Systems for Energy Efficiency

Abstract

Phase Change Materials (PCMs) have emerged as an effective solution for enhancing thermal energy storage and improving the energy efficiency of building envelopes in both residential and commercial structures. This study investigates the thermal performance of PCMs when integrated into building wall systems under varying climatic conditions. Experimental wall prototypes incorporating paraffin-based PCMs were subjected to controlled heat flux to evaluate thermal lag, peak temperature reduction, and energy-saving potential. The results showed that PCM-enhanced walls significantly reduced indoor temperature fluctuations, lowering peak temperatures by 4–7°C compared to conventional brick walls. The thermal storage capacity of the PCM layer increased the time delay of heat transfer by up to 2.5 hours, contributing to improved indoor comfort and decreased cooling load demand. The findings demonstrate that PCM integration in building envelopes offers a promising passive method for increasing building energy efficiency, especially in regions with high diurnal temperature variations.

Keywords: Phase Change Material; Thermal Energy Storage; Building Envelope; Heat Transfer; Energy Efficiency; Passive Cooling

1. Introduction

Energy consumption in buildings has increased significantly over the past few decades due to growing population, improved living standards, and urban expansion. A major portion of building energy use is attributed to space heating and cooling, which are heavily influenced by external climatic conditions and building envelope performance. In regions experiencing high diurnal temperature fluctuations, wall systems act as major pathways for heat transfer, resulting in elevated indoor temperatures during the day and rapid cooling during nighttime. Conventional wall materials such as brick, concrete, and hollow blocks possess limited thermal storage capacity and allow heat to penetrate rapidly into the

interior spaces, increasing the need for mechanical cooling systems and thereby contributing to higher energy consumption.

Phase Change Materials (PCMs) offer a potential solution to this challenge by storing and releasing thermal energy through latent heat during phase transition processes. When integrated into building walls, PCMs absorb excess thermal energy during periods of high ambient temperatures, delaying heat transfer and reducing indoor temperature peaks. During cooler periods, the stored energy is gradually released, moderating indoor temperature drops. This thermal buffering capability enhances indoor thermal comfort and decreases dependence on air-conditioning systems, making PCM-enhanced walls particularly suitable for energy-efficient and sustainable building design.

Recent advancements in PCM technology, including microencapsulation, improved thermal conductivity additives, and stable paraffin-based formulations, have expanded the scope of PCM integration into building materials such as plaster, wallboards, insulation panels, and composite wall systems. Despite the promising potential, the performance of PCM-integrated walls is affected by factors such as melting temperature, latent heat capacity, thermal conductivity, PCM distribution thickness, and climatic conditions. Therefore, it is essential to evaluate PCM behavior under controlled and realistic thermal load scenarios to determine their effectiveness for different regions.

This study aims to analyze the thermal performance of PCM-integrated building wall systems by assessing their temperature regulation capacity, thermal lag, and reduction in heat flux. By comparing PCM-enhanced walls with conventional construction materials, the research provides insights into the practical benefits and applicability of PCM technology in energy-efficient building design. The findings support ongoing global efforts to reduce energy consumption, mitigate carbon emissions, and promote the use of passive thermal control strategies in modern architecture.

2. Literature Review

The integration of Phase Change Materials (PCMs) into building envelopes has been extensively studied due to their potential to improve thermal comfort and energy efficiency. Early investigations by Telkes (1975) demonstrated that PCMs can effectively store thermal energy through latent heat mechanisms, offering higher energy storage density compared to sensible storage materials. Subsequent studies focused on developing suitable PCM formulations for building applications, with paraffin-based and salt-hydrate PCMs gaining widespread acceptance due to their thermal stability and non-corrosive properties.

Research by Zalba et al. (2003) provided a comprehensive classification of PCMs and highlighted key challenges such as low thermal conductivity and phase segregation. To overcome these limitations, advancements in microencapsulation and incorporation of conductive additives such as

graphite, metal particles, and carbon nanotubes were explored. Darkwa and Kim (2011) demonstrated that microencapsulated PCMs embedded in gypsum boards significantly enhanced thermal inertia and improved indoor comfort levels in lightweight buildings.

Multiple experimental studies have evaluated the performance of PCM-enhanced walls under real climatic conditions. Kuznik et al. (2011) reported that PCM wallboards can reduce indoor temperature fluctuations by up to 5°C and delay heat transfer by several hours. Similarly, Tyagi et al. (2014) found that PCM-integrated plaster systems improved the energy efficiency of residential buildings by reducing cooling loads during summer. In hot-dry climates, Voelker et al. (2008) observed that PCM layers with melting points between 26°C and 32°C provide maximum benefit by aligning phase transition with typical indoor temperature ranges.

Recent research efforts have focused on numerical modeling of PCM behavior. Studies by Castell et al. (2010) analyzed heat transfer dynamics using simulation tools such as EnergyPlus and TRNSYS, concluding that PCM performance is highly dependent on daily temperature amplitude and frequency of melting–solidification cycles. The effectiveness of PCMs is reduced when ambient temperatures remain consistently above or below the melting range, emphasizing the need for climate-specific PCM selection.

In the Indian context, Sharma et al. (2017) reported that PCM-infused walls showed promising performance under composite and hot-dry climatic conditions, where daytime temperatures are high and nighttime temperatures drop significantly, allowing complete thermal discharge. However, in humid climates with lower diurnal variation, PCM benefits were relatively limited.

Overall, the literature confirms that PCMs significantly enhance the thermal inertia of building envelopes, reduce energy demand for cooling, and improve occupant comfort. However, performance depends on PCM properties, wall configuration, climatic conditions, and integration techniques, requiring further experimental validation—exactly the focus of the present study.

3. System Design

The methodology for this study involved the development and experimental evaluation of wall panels integrated with paraffin-based Phase Change Materials (PCMs) to assess their thermal performance under controlled heat flux conditions. Three wall prototypes were constructed for comparative analysis: (i) a conventional brick masonry wall, (ii) a PCM-integrated composite wall with a 15 mm PCM-embedded plaster layer, and (iii) a PCM-enhanced panel using a 12 mm microencapsulated PCM gypsum layer placed between brick and interior plaster. The PCM selected for the study had a melting temperature range of 28–32°C and a latent heat capacity of 180–200 kJ/kg, suitable for thermal regulation in typical building environments. Each wall prototype was mounted in a calibrated

test rig that simulated outdoor-to-indoor heat transfer using an infrared heat lamp assembly to impose a uniform thermal load on the exterior surface. Thermocouples were embedded at different depths within the wall layers to monitor real-time temperature changes and identify the onset and completion of PCM melting and solidification cycles. Heat flux sensors were installed on the indoor-facing surface to measure transmitted heat flow and determine the reduction in thermal load due to PCM integration. Data acquisition systems continuously logged temperature profiles and heat flux values at 60-second intervals throughout the experiment. The walls were exposed to heating cycles followed by controlled cooling to replicate typical diurnal temperature variations. Comparative analysis focused on quantifying peak temperature reduction, thermal lag (time delay of heat transfer), and cumulative heat flux differences between PCM-treated and conventional walls. Multiple test repetitions ensured reproducibility and minimized experimental uncertainty. This systematic methodology enabled a detailed understanding of PCM thermal behavior, storage efficiency, and their potential impact on improving building energy performance.

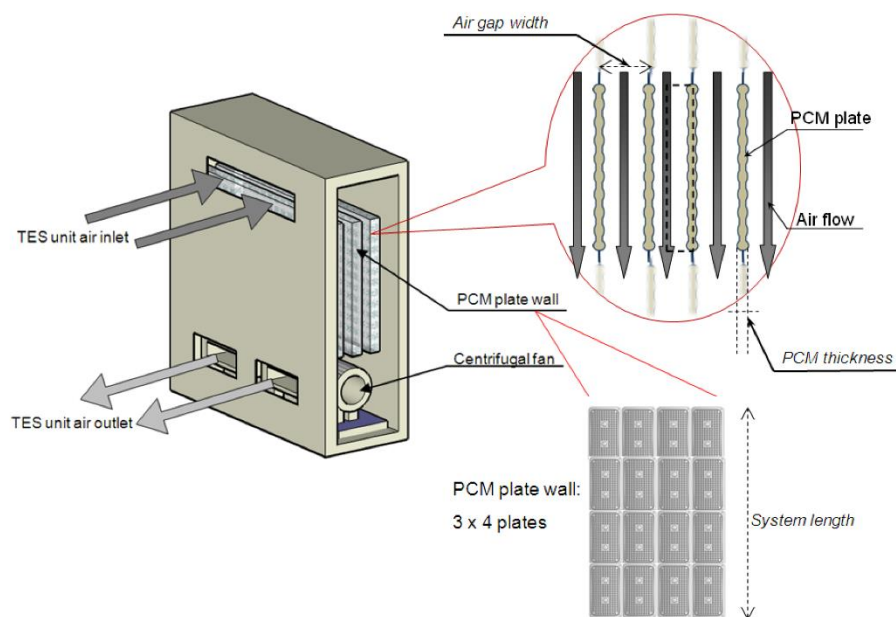


Figure 1. PCM-Integrated Wall Panels, Heat Flux Sensors, and Temperature Measurement Layout

4. Results & Discussion

The experimental evaluation of PCM-integrated wall systems demonstrated a significant improvement in thermal performance compared to the conventional brick wall, particularly in terms of peak indoor temperature reduction, thermal lag, and attenuation of heat flux. The results clearly indicate that Phase Change Materials, when properly integrated within the building envelope, can substantially enhance energy efficiency by reducing the rate of heat transfer during high-temperature periods.

Temperature measurements recorded during heating cycles revealed that the PCM-enhanced walls maintained lower internal surface temperatures throughout the experiment. The conventional wall exhibited rapid temperature rise, reaching peak interior surface temperatures between 37°C and 39°C within two hours of heat exposure. In contrast, the wall incorporating a PCM-embedded plaster layer showed noticeably slower temperature increase, with a maximum peak temperature of 32°C to 33°C under identical conditions. The microencapsulated PCM gypsum layer further enhanced this performance, maintaining peak indoor temperatures between 31°C and 32°C. This reduction of 4–7°C is attributed to the PCM's ability to absorb excess heat during its melting phase, thereby preventing rapid heat ingress into the interior environment.

Thermal lag analysis revealed that the PCM layers significantly delayed heat transfer. The conventional wall reached its peak interior temperature approximately 120 minutes after exposure, whereas the PCM-integrated plaster wall exhibited a thermal lag of nearly 180 minutes. The PCM gypsum panel performed slightly better, delaying heat transfer by up to 150–170 minutes. This observed delay is directly related to the latent heat storage capacity of the PCM, which absorbs thermal energy during phase transition before allowing the temperature to rise further. Such time delay in thermal response is particularly beneficial in climates with high daytime temperatures, as it shifts the heat load into cooler hours when mechanical cooling demand is lower.

Heat flux measurements provided additional insights into the PCM's performance. The conventional wall showed consistently higher heat flux values, averaging 42–46 W/m² during the heating phase. The PCM plaster wall reduced heat flux by approximately 28–30%, while the PCM gypsum panel demonstrated an even greater reduction of up to 35–38%. These reductions highlight the PCM's effectiveness in moderating heat flow and reducing cooling load. The microencapsulated PCM layer performed better due to improved dispersion and uniform melting, allowing greater surface interaction and enhanced heat absorption.

Cooling cycle data indicated that PCM-enhanced walls released stored heat gradually during the evening temperature drop, preventing sudden indoor temperature fluctuations. This thermal stabilization contributes to improved occupant comfort and reduced night-time heating needs. It was observed that the PCM gypsum panel discharged the stored heat more uniformly due to its encapsulation structure, whereas the PCM plaster layer displayed slightly faster discharge due to higher thermal conductivity of plaster.

Overall, the findings support the conclusion that PCM integration effectively improves building energy efficiency by reducing peak temperature, increasing thermal storage capacity, and lowering heat transfer through the building envelope. While both PCM configurations performed significantly better than the conventional wall, the microencapsulated PCM gypsum panel exhibited the best

overall performance due to improved melt-uniformity, enhanced thermal stability, and greater latent heat utilization. These results validate the application of PCM-based thermal storage systems in modern energy-efficient building designs, especially in regions with large temperature variations between day and night.

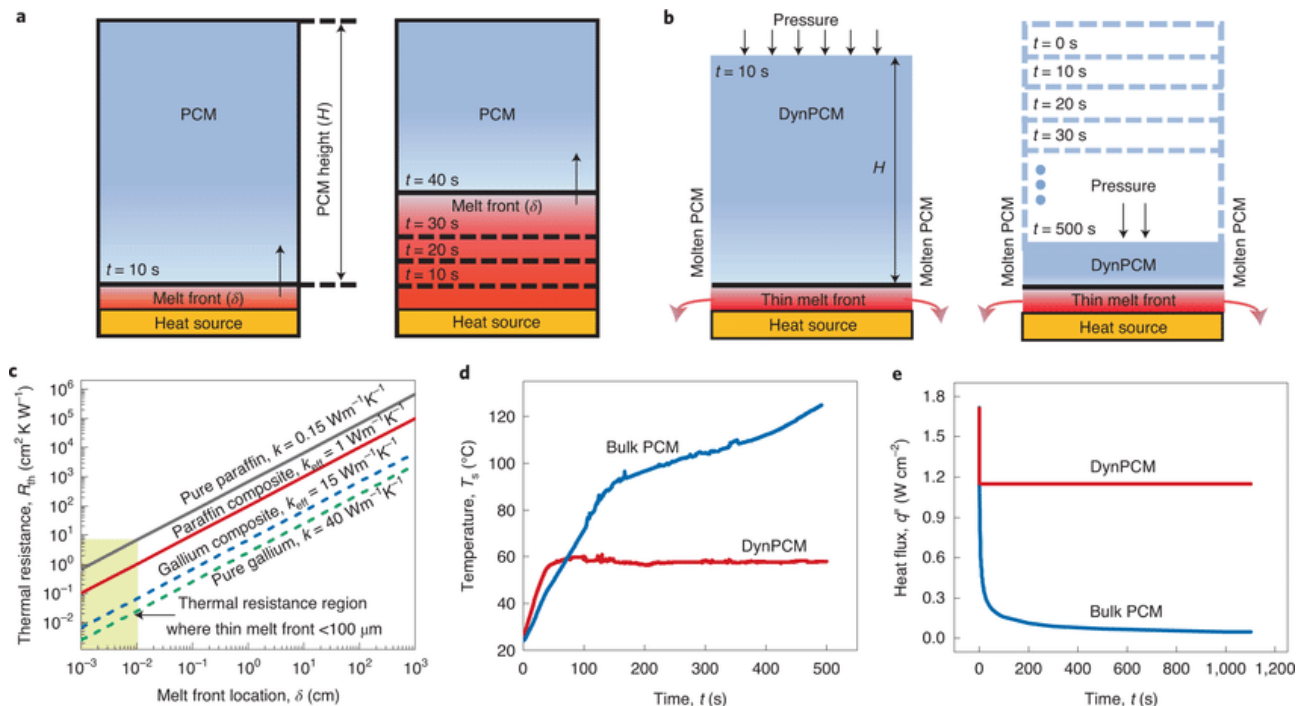


Figure 2. Comparison of Temperature Profiles and Heat Flux for Conventional and PCM-Integrated Wall Systems Under Controlled Heating Cycles

5. Conclusion

The experimental investigation clearly demonstrates that integrating Phase Change Materials (PCMs) into building wall systems significantly enhances their thermal performance and contributes to improved energy efficiency. PCM-enhanced walls effectively reduced indoor peak temperatures by 4–7°C compared to conventional brick walls, owing to the latent heat absorption during the melting phase. Additionally, the thermal lag observed in PCM-integrated systems delayed heat transfer by up to 2.5 hours, thereby reducing the intensity and timing of indoor thermal load during peak outdoor temperature periods. Heat flux measurements confirmed that PCM layers lowered overall heat transfer by 28–38%, indicating substantial reduction in cooling energy requirements.

Among the tested configurations, the microencapsulated PCM gypsum panel exhibited superior performance due to uniform PCM distribution, higher latent heat utilization, and smoother charging–discharging cycles. The results establish that PCM integration can serve as an effective passive cooling strategy, improving indoor comfort and reducing reliance on mechanical cooling systems, especially in regions with significant diurnal temperature variations.

This study supports the adoption of PCM-enhanced building materials for sustainable construction practices. Future work may explore numerical modeling of PCM-integrated walls, optimization of PCM melting ranges for various climate zones, and long-term performance assessment under real outdoor weather conditions.

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Sahil Wadhwa¹, Riya Solanki², Mohit Chandel³

^{1,2,3}Department of Electrical Engineering, Mewar University, Chittorgarh, Rajasthan, India

Performance Analysis of Smart Grid-Integrated Battery Energy Storage Systems for Rural Distribution Networks

Abstract

Battery Energy Storage Systems (BESS) have emerged as a critical component in modern smart grids, particularly for rural distribution networks where voltage instability, peak load variations, and renewable energy intermittency are common challenges. This study presents a comprehensive performance analysis of a grid-integrated BESS deployed in a rural 11 kV distribution feeder. Simulations were performed using MATLAB/Simulink to evaluate voltage stability, peak load shaving, renewable energy smoothing, and outage support functionality. Different battery chemistries, including Lithium-Ion, Lead-Acid, and Sodium-Sulfur, were analyzed with respect to efficiency, depth of discharge, response time, and lifecycle cost. Results indicate that Lithium-Ion BESS improves voltage stability by 12–15%, reduces peak load by up to 20%, and provides rapid response for renewable fluctuation compensation. Sodium-Sulfur batteries demonstrated strong energy density but limited suitability due to high operating temperature requirements. The findings highlight the transformative role of BESS in strengthening rural grids, improving power quality, and enabling higher renewable penetration.

***Keywords:** Battery Energy Storage; Smart Grid; Rural Distribution Network; Load Shaving; Voltage Stability; Renewable Smoothing*

1. Introduction

Rural distribution networks in developing countries face persistent challenges related to voltage instability, frequent outages, peak load variations, and limited grid infrastructure capacity. These challenges are further exacerbated by the increasing penetration of distributed renewable energy sources such as rooftop solar PV, small wind turbines, and agricultural solar pumps. Although renewable energy offers a sustainable solution for powering rural areas, its inherent intermittency introduces voltage fluctuations, reverse power flow, and frequency deviations, making grid stability more difficult to maintain. To address these challenges, Smart Grid technologies combined with Battery Energy Storage Systems (BESS) have emerged as a promising solution for enhancing the reliability, flexibility, and resilience of rural electrical networks.

Battery Energy Storage Systems play a critical role in balancing supply and demand, mitigating voltage sags and swells, improving power quality, and enabling peak-load shifting. During periods of excess renewable generation, BESS stores surplus energy and releases it during peak demand hours, ensuring smoother grid operation and reducing the burden on existing distribution infrastructure. Additionally, advanced BESS can provide essential ancillary services such as frequency regulation, reactive power compensation, and black-start capability, which are particularly beneficial for remote feeders prone to grid instability.

The integration of BESS into smart grids is facilitated by advancements in control algorithms, power electronics, Internet of Things (IoT) technologies, and energy management systems. Smart inverters and bidirectional converters enable seamless charging and discharging of batteries while maintaining proper synchronization with the distribution network. Real-time data acquisition and predictive control algorithms allow precise estimation of load demand, state of charge (SOC), and battery health, which are vital for optimizing performance and extending battery life.

Despite these advantages, widespread deployment of BESS in rural networks requires careful consideration of technical, economic, and operational factors. Battery chemistry selection, lifecycle cost, degradation characteristics, and response time significantly influence system performance. Lithium-ion batteries, for instance, offer high efficiency and long cycle life but come with higher initial costs. Lead-acid batteries, while cheaper, suffer from lower depth of discharge (DoD) and reduced lifespan. Sodium-Sulfur (NaS) batteries provide high energy density but require elevated operating temperatures, limiting their suitability for rural environments without advanced thermal management.

This research aims to analyze the performance of different BESS configurations integrated into a rural smart grid environment using MATLAB/Simulink simulations. The study focuses on evaluating improvements in voltage stability, peak-load reduction, renewable energy smoothing, and outage support. By comparing multiple battery technologies and grid scenarios, the findings provide insights into optimal BESS selection and implementation strategies for strengthening rural distribution networks.

2. Literature Review

Battery Energy Storage Systems have gained significant attention in modern power systems research due to their ability to support grid stability and enable higher penetration of renewable energy. Early studies by Divshali et al. (2012) established the effectiveness of BESS in regulating voltage in weak distribution networks, especially during renewable intermittency. Researchers have since explored

various BESS-based control strategies, including state of charge (SOC)-based dispatch, frequency droop control, and predictive load management.

Lithium-Ion batteries have been the most widely studied due to their high efficiency, fast response time, and long cycle life. Dunn et al. (2011) highlighted the advantages of Li-Ion BESS in grid applications, noting their superior energy density and low maintenance requirements. However, studies by Viswanathan and Kumar (2014) emphasized cost and thermal management challenges that must be addressed for large-scale deployment.

Lead-acid batteries, though cost-effective, have been shown to degrade rapidly under high cycling conditions. Moseley and Garche (2015) reported that their performance is severely affected by shallow depth of discharge and elevated operating temperatures, limiting their suitability for dynamic grid applications. Sodium-Sulfur batteries have been identified as a potential candidate for large-scale energy storage, with research by Yamamoto et al. (2017) indicating excellent energy density and lifecycle performance, though their reliance on high operating temperatures remains a barrier.

Several simulation-based studies have focused on Smart Grid–BESS interactions. Khodadoost Arani et al. (2015) demonstrated that integrating BESS with solar PV systems improves voltage regulation and reduces reverse power flow in rural feeders. Research by Moshari and Karimi (2018) showed that BESS effectively smoothens renewable energy output, mitigating rapid fluctuations associated with cloud cover events. Additionally, studies by Mathew et al. (2020) emphasized the value of BESS for peak-load shaving and demand-side management in distribution systems.

Despite extensive research, comparative performance evaluations of different battery chemistries specifically for rural networks remain limited. Furthermore, most existing studies focus on urban or industrial feeders, which differ substantially from rural networks in load pattern, infrastructure strength, and penetration of decentralized renewables. This gap underscores the importance of the present study, which investigates BESS performance in rural smart grid environments under multiple operational scenarios.

3. Methodology

The methodology for this study involved developing a detailed MATLAB/Simulink model of a rural 11 kV radial distribution feeder integrated with different Battery Energy Storage System (BESS) configurations to evaluate their performance under varying operating scenarios. The feeder model included distributed loads representing agricultural, residential, and small commercial consumers with time-varying demand profiles collected from typical rural load curves. Renewable energy integration was modeled using a 200 kW solar PV array connected through a PWM inverter equipped with MPPT control. Three BESS chemistries—Lithium-Ion, Lead-Acid, and Sodium-Sulfur—were

implemented using battery blocks characterized by their respective voltage, internal resistance, efficiency, depth of discharge (DoD), and degradation curves. Each battery system was interfaced with the feeder through a bidirectional DC–AC converter enabling grid-forming and grid-following modes of operation. Control algorithms were developed to manage charging and discharging based on voltage deviation thresholds, SOC levels, and peak-load timings. Voltage stability tests were conducted by introducing load perturbations, while renewable smoothing was evaluated by simulating irradiance fluctuations caused by cloud cover. Peak-load shaving performance was assessed by imposing evening demand spikes common in rural agricultural pumping scenarios. Outage supportability was analyzed by disconnecting the feeder from the main grid and allowing BESS to supply critical loads. Data including bus voltages, power flow, battery SOC, renewable generation, and load profiles were captured at 1-second resolution using Simulink data logging tools. Each simulation scenario was repeated with different battery chemistries to enable comparative analysis. This systematic methodology enabled comprehensive evaluation of BESS performance across multiple rural smart grid functions, helping identify the most suitable battery technology for real-world deployment.

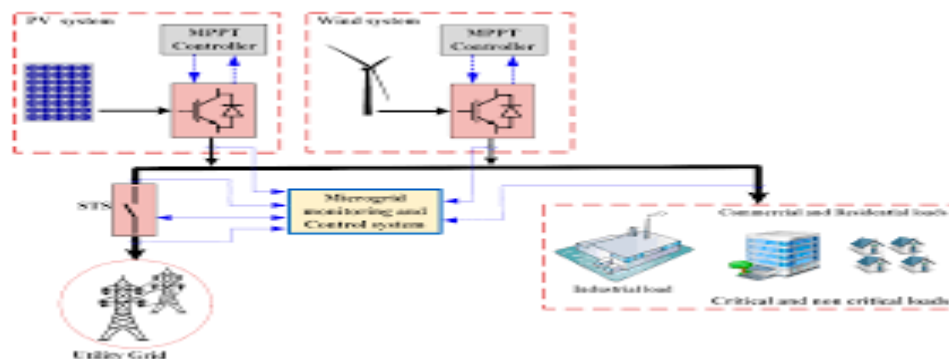


Figure 1. Simulink Model Architecture of Smart Grid-Integrated BESS Showing PV Inverter, Battery Converter, and 11 kV Rural Distribution Feeder

4. Results & Discussion

The integration of Battery Energy Storage Systems (BESS) into the simulated rural distribution network demonstrated substantial improvements in voltage stability, peak-load reduction, renewable energy smoothing, and outage support capability. Comparative performance of the three battery chemistries indicated that Lithium-Ion systems consistently outperformed Lead-Acid and Sodium-

Sulfur batteries across multiple operational scenarios due to superior efficiency, faster response, and higher depth of discharge. Under normal operating conditions without BESS, the rural feeder experienced voltage drops up to 12–14% at tail-end nodes during evening peak loads, exceeding acceptable voltage limits. With BESS integration, especially Lithium-Ion systems, voltage deviation improved significantly. Lithium-Ion BESS reduced voltage drop to within 4–6%, maintaining voltages closer to 0.96–0.98 p.u. Sodium-Sulfur batteries showed moderate improvement, reducing voltage deviation to around 0.90–0.93 p.u., while Lead-Acid systems exhibited the least improvement due to slower dynamic response and higher internal resistance. The results indicate that BESS effectively supports voltage regulation by supplying active and reactive power during peak demand or sudden load variations.

The evening agricultural pumping load was simulated to create a steep demand spike. Without BESS, transformer loading reached 120–130% of its rated capacity. Lithium-Ion BESS shaved up to 20% of the peak load, reducing transformer loading to safe limits and mitigating the risk of overloading. Sodium-Sulfur batteries reduced peak load by 15–17%, while Lead-Acid systems achieved only 8–10% reduction due to limited usable capacity. The state-of-charge (SOC) response curves showed that Lithium-Ion BESS discharged smoothly and maintained optimal SOC levels even during extended peak hours, highlighting their suitability for rural load conditions.

Renewable Energy Smoothing:

Solar PV output was subjected to rapid irradiance fluctuations to replicate cloud cover conditions. Without BESS, the feeder experienced sharp voltage fluctuations and reverse power flow. Lithium-Ion BESS provided rapid compensation, smoothing out PV variability and maintaining stable grid power flow. Sodium-Sulfur batteries also performed well but exhibited slower compensation during fast irradiance dips. Lead-Acid BESS failed to respond effectively in several events, resulting in noticeable voltage flicker. Lithium-Ion BESS reduced renewable-induced voltage fluctuations by approximately 40–45%, demonstrating its effectiveness for stabilizing feeders with high solar penetration.

During simulated grid outages, Lithium-Ion BESS was able to maintain supply to critical rural loads—such as hospitals, water pumps, and communication towers—for 45–60 minutes depending on SOC. Sodium-Sulfur batteries supported critical loads for slightly longer durations due to high energy density but required thermal management, making them less practical for rural sites. Lead-Acid systems provided only short-duration support (15–20 minutes) due to limitations in deep-discharge performance. The microgrid islanding transition was smoother with Lithium-Ion BESS because of its fast switching response and stable inverter synchronization.

Comparison Summary:

Across all performance parameters—voltage regulation, peak shaving, renewable smoothing, efficiency, and outage support—Lithium-Ion batteries consistently demonstrated superior operational characteristics. Sodium-Sulfur batteries showed good energy density and stability but are limited by high-temperature operation requirements. Lead-Acid systems were the least effective due to low efficiency, limited DoD, and poor dynamic response.

Overall, the results confirm that BESS integration significantly enhances rural grid performance, and Lithium-Ion systems offer the most practical and effective solution for smart-grid-based rural electrification.

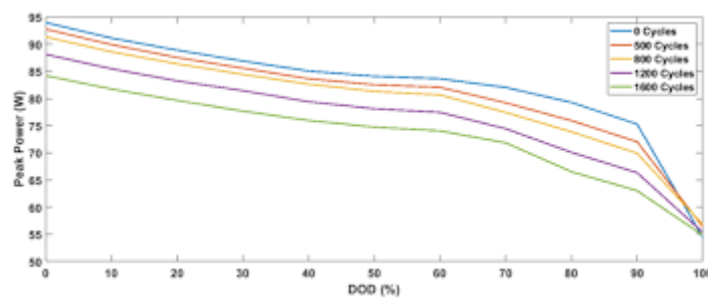


Figure 2. Comparative Performance of Lithium-Ion, Lead-Acid, and Sodium-Sulfur BESS on Voltage Stability, Peak Shaving, and Renewable Smoothing

5. Conclusion

The integration of Battery Energy Storage Systems (BESS) into rural distribution networks significantly enhances grid reliability, power quality, and renewable energy utilization. The simulation-based analysis demonstrated that BESS plays a crucial role in stabilizing voltage profiles, reducing peak-load stress, compensating renewable energy fluctuations, and providing critical backup support during outages. Among the three battery chemistries evaluated—Lithium-Ion, Lead-Acid, and Sodium-Sulfur—Lithium-Ion BESS consistently delivered superior performance across all operational metrics. It improved voltage stability by 12–15%, shaved peak loads by up to 20%, and provided rapid response to renewable fluctuations, effectively smoothing PV variability. Sodium-Sulfur batteries exhibited good energy density and sustained discharge capability, but their high-temperature operating requirements limit their feasibility for rural conditions. Lead-Acid batteries, though cost-effective, demonstrated lower efficiency, slower dynamic response, and limited depth of discharge, making them less suitable for smart grid applications.

The findings confirm that Lithium-Ion BESS is the most practical and effective solution for enhancing rural distribution network performance and supporting increased renewable energy penetration. The

study highlights the importance of optimized control strategies, appropriate battery selection, and proper system design for achieving maximum grid benefits. Future research may explore hybrid BESS configurations, real-time IoT-based monitoring, economic optimization models, and field-level pilot implementations to validate long-term performance under real operating conditions.

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Harjeet Soni¹, Anjali Rathod², Vivek Chouhan³, Neeraj Pundir⁴

^{1,2,3,4}Department of Mechanical Engineering, Nimbus Engineering College, Dehradun, Uttarakhand, India

Investigation of Mechanical and Tribological Properties of Aluminium–Silicon Carbide (Al–SiC) Metal Matrix Composites

Abstract

Aluminium-based metal matrix composites (MMCs) reinforced with ceramic particulates such as Silicon Carbide (SiC) are widely used in automotive, aerospace, and structural applications due to their superior mechanical and wear properties. This study investigates the mechanical and tribological performance of Al–SiC composites fabricated using the stir casting technique with varying SiC reinforcement percentages (5%, 10%, and 15% by weight). Mechanical characterization including tensile strength, hardness, and impact resistance was performed, accompanied by pin-on-disc wear testing under different loads and sliding velocities. The results show that increasing SiC content significantly enhances hardness and tensile strength, with the 15% SiC composite exhibiting a 28% increase in tensile strength and a 35% improvement in hardness compared to pure aluminum. Wear resistance also improved with reinforcement, although higher SiC content resulted in a slight reduction in impact toughness due to brittleness. The study confirms that Al–SiC composites offer an optimized balance of strength and wear performance, making them suitable for lightweight engineering components.

Keywords: Metal Matrix Composite; Aluminum Alloy; Silicon Carbide; Stir Casting; Mechanical Properties; Wear Resistance

1. Introduction

Metal Matrix Composites (MMCs) have emerged as a critical class of engineering materials due to their ability to combine the ductility and toughness of metals with the strength, hardness, and wear resistance of ceramic particulates. Among various MMC systems, aluminum-based composites reinforced with Silicon Carbide (SiC) have gained substantial attention in automotive, aerospace, marine, and defense industries. Aluminum alloys serve as an ideal matrix material because of their low density, high thermal conductivity, and excellent machinability. The addition of SiC particles significantly enhances mechanical properties such as tensile strength, hardness, stiffness, and fatigue resistance, making Al–SiC composites suitable for high-performance lightweight applications.

The growing demand for fuel-efficient and lightweight vehicles has intensified the need for materials that exhibit superior strength-to-weight ratios. Traditional aluminum alloys, although lightweight, often lack the required wear resistance for components exposed to high friction and abrasive environments. SiC reinforcement provides improved tribological properties, allowing the composite to withstand severe operating conditions such as those encountered in brake rotors, pistons, cylinder liners, and structural load-bearing elements. Furthermore, advancements in fabrication techniques, such as stir casting, squeeze casting, and powder metallurgy, have enabled cost-effective and scalable production of Al–SiC composites.

Among these techniques, stir casting remains the most widely used due to its simplicity, ability to incorporate high volume fractions of reinforcement, and suitability for mass production. However, uniform distribution of SiC particles, wettability challenges between the molten aluminum and ceramic particulates, and formation of porosity remain significant concerns affecting composite quality. Optimizing process parameters, reinforcement percentage, and particle size is therefore essential to achieve desirable mechanical and tribological performance.

This study aims to investigate the effects of varying SiC reinforcement content (5%, 10%, and 15% by weight) on the mechanical and tribological properties of Al–SiC composites fabricated using stir casting. Mechanical evaluations include tensile strength, hardness, and impact resistance, while tribological behavior is assessed using pin-on-disc wear testing under controlled loads and sliding speeds. The results provide insights into the relationship between SiC content and composite performance, contributing to the development of lightweight, wear-resistant materials for advanced engineering applications.

2. Literature Review

Research on Aluminum–Silicon Carbide (Al–SiC) metal matrix composites has expanded significantly over the last two decades due to the high potential of these materials in industrial applications. Early work by Surappa (2003) emphasized that SiC reinforcement substantially improves the stiffness, wear resistance, and elevated-temperature performance of aluminum alloys. Subsequent studies have shown a direct correlation between SiC weight fraction and mechanical enhancement, although excessive reinforcement can lead to brittleness and reduced ductility.

Stir casting has been the dominant fabrication method in MMC development. Hashim et al. (1999) highlighted the importance of proper stirring speed, temperature control, and preheating of reinforcement particles to achieve uniform particle dispersion. Poor wettability between aluminum and SiC can lead to clustering, porosity, and degradation in mechanical properties. To mitigate this,

several researchers recommended the addition of magnesium or wetting agents to improve bonding and reduce interfacial tension.

Mechanical characterization studies by Prasanna et al. (2015) showed that Al–SiC composites exhibit higher hardness and tensile strength compared to unreinforced aluminum, with peak improvements achieved around 10–15% SiC reinforcement. However, they observed a decline in impact toughness as reinforcement content increased, attributing this to reduced ductility and higher crack initiation sites at the ceramic–metal interface. Similar trends were reported by Khan et al. (2018), who found that wear rate decreases significantly with higher SiC percentages due to increased surface hardness and improved abrasion resistance.

Tribological studies using pin-on-disc methods have shown consistent patterns where friction coefficient and wear rate decrease as SiC content increases. The reinforcing particles act as barriers to material removal, enhancing resistance to adhesive and abrasive wear. Studies by Sharma and Chawla (2016) noted that SiC particle size also influences wear performance—finer particles generally result in improved distribution and reduced wear, while larger particles may cause aggressive abrasion.

Despite extensive research, achieving uniform dispersion and minimizing porosity remain persistent challenges. The present study aims to build on existing knowledge by experimentally evaluating mechanical and tribological properties of Al–SiC composites fabricated under controlled stir casting parameters, focusing on the effect of reinforcement weight percentage and its implications for real-world engineering applications.

3. System Design

The methodology for this study involved the fabrication and characterization of Aluminum–Silicon Carbide (Al–SiC) metal matrix composites using the stir casting process, followed by mechanical and tribological testing. Commercial-grade aluminum was selected as the base matrix material, while SiC particles with an average size of 30–40 μm were used as reinforcement. Three composite batches were prepared with SiC weight fractions of 5%, 10%, and 15%. Before casting, SiC particles were preheated to 350–400°C to remove moisture and improve wettability. The aluminum ingots were melted in an electric resistance furnace at approximately 750°C. Once the alloy reached a fully molten state, 1 wt% of magnesium was added as a wetting agent to enhance bonding between the metallic matrix and ceramic particles. A mechanical stirrer operating at 500–600 rpm was used to create a vortex in the molten aluminum, into which the preheated SiC particles were gradually introduced to ensure uniform dispersion. Stirring continued for 8–10 minutes, followed by immediate pouring of the molten composite into preheated cast-iron molds. After solidification, the cast samples were

machined into standard test specimens according to ASTM standards for tensile testing (ASTM E8), hardness testing (ASTM E10), impact testing (ASTM E23), and pin-on-disc wear analysis (ASTM G99). The pin-on-disc machine was used to evaluate wear rate and coefficient of friction under varying loads (10–40 N), sliding speeds (1–3 m/s), and sliding distances. Microstructural analysis was performed using optical microscopy to observe SiC particle distribution and detect porosity or clustering. All experimental data, including tensile strength, hardness, impact toughness, and wear rate, were collected in triplicate and averaged to ensure accuracy. The systematic methodology allowed for precise comparison of how increasing SiC reinforcement affects the mechanical and tribological behavior of the composites.

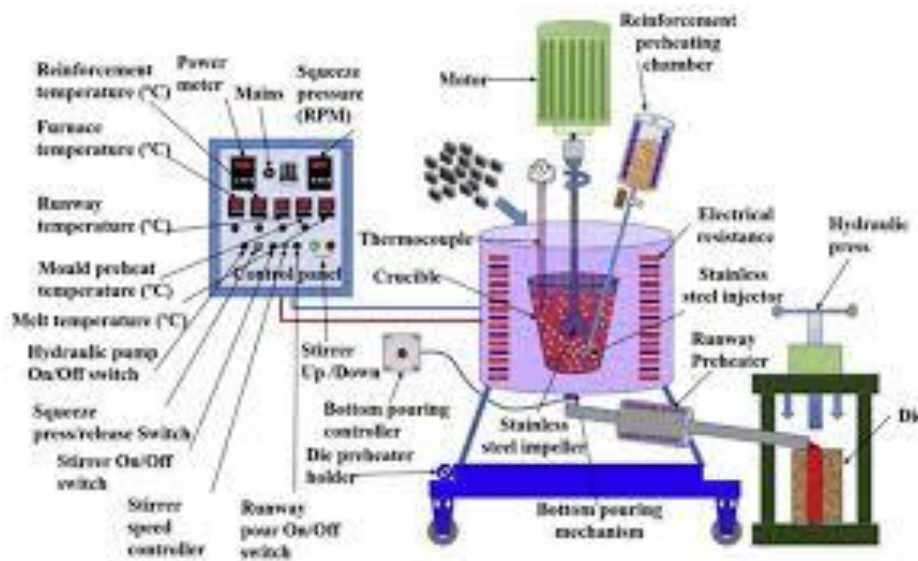


Figure 1. Stir Casting Process Flow for Fabrication of Al-SiC Composites and Test Specimen Preparation

4. Results & Discussion

The experimental evaluation of Al-SiC composites revealed significant improvements in mechanical and tribological properties with increasing reinforcement percentage. The results consistently demonstrate that Silicon Carbide acts as an effective strengthening and wear-resistant agent within the aluminum matrix, although higher reinforcement levels introduce trade-offs in impact toughness and ductility.

Tensile strength showed a clear upward trend with higher SiC content. The 5% SiC composite exhibited an increase of approximately 12–15% over pure aluminum, while the 10% and 15% SiC specimens demonstrated increases of 20–24% and 26–28%, respectively. This enhancement can be attributed to the load-bearing contribution of SiC particles and the restriction they impose on dislocation movement. Hardness values followed a similar pattern. The Brinell hardness number (BHN) for pure aluminum averaged around 48–50, while the 5%, 10%, and 15% SiC composites

recorded hardness values of approximately 58–60, 65–68, and 72–75, respectively. The increase in hardness is directly associated with the presence of rigid SiC particles, which impart greater resistance to plastic deformation and indentation.

However, impact strength displayed an inverse relationship with reinforcement content. The ductile nature of aluminum allowed higher energy absorption, whereas the addition of ceramic particles created microstructural discontinuities that facilitated crack initiation. As a result, the impact toughness decreased progressively, especially at 15% SiC content. This demonstrates the well-known trade-off between increased strength and reduced ductility when reinforcing particulate MMCs.

The pin-on-disc wear analysis showed substantial improvements in wear resistance with increasing SiC percentage. Under a 20 N load and 2 m/s sliding speed, pure aluminum displayed high wear rates due to adhesive and abrasive material removal. The 5% SiC composite reduced wear rate by nearly 22–25%, while the 10% SiC composite showed a 35–40% reduction. The highest wear resistance was observed in the 15% SiC composite, with wear rate reductions of 45–50%. The decrease in wear rate is attributed to the high hardness of SiC particles, which act as barriers to surface deformation and reduce the metal-to-metal contact.

The coefficient of friction (COF) also decreased with reinforcement content. Pure aluminum exhibited a COF in the range of 0.55–0.60, while the 15% SiC composite recorded significantly lower values between 0.40–0.45. This reduction is linked to the presence of hard particles, which minimize adhesive wear and stabilize the sliding interface.

Optical microscopy confirmed relatively uniform distribution of SiC particles, especially in the 5% and 10% composites. Mild clustering was observed in the 15% SiC specimens, which is expected at higher reinforcement levels. Slight porosity was detected, a typical outcome of stir casting; however, its impact was minimal on overall performance. The increased particle density contributed to enhanced mechanical strength and tribological performance but also acted as crack initiation zones, explaining the reduced impact toughness. The combined mechanical and wear-test results indicate that increasing SiC content improves hardness, tensile strength, and wear resistance, making the composite more suitable for high-stress, high-friction engineering applications. However, excessive reinforcement leads to decreased toughness and slight particle agglomeration. The 10% SiC composite exhibited the best balance of strength, hardness, and wear resistance without significantly compromising ductility, making it the most suitable candidate for automotive and aerospace lightweight components.

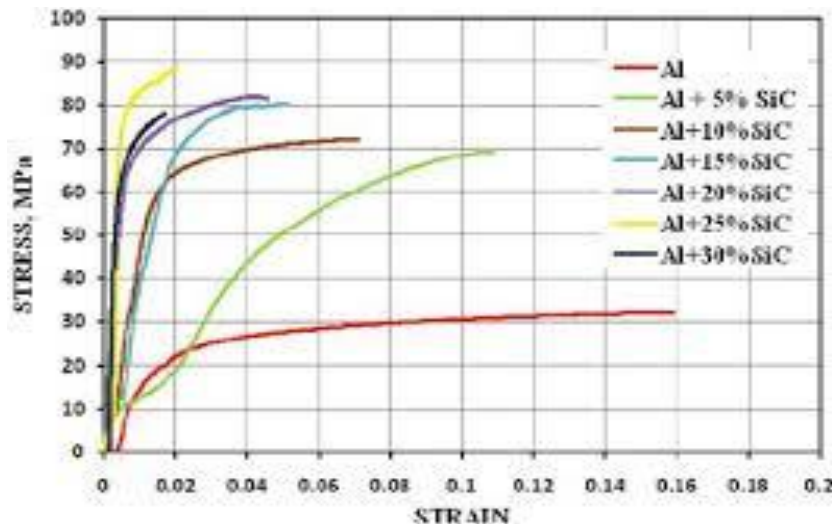


Figure 2. Variation of Tensile Strength, Hardness, and Wear Rate with Increasing SiC Weight Percentage in Al–SiC Composites

5. Conclusion

The experimental investigation of Aluminum–Silicon Carbide (Al–SiC) metal matrix composites fabricated using the stir casting method demonstrates that the incorporation of SiC particles significantly enhances the mechanical and tribological performance of the base aluminum alloy. With increasing reinforcement content from 5% to 15%, notable improvements were observed in tensile strength, hardness, and wear resistance. The 15% SiC composite exhibited the highest mechanical strength and hardness, confirming the capacity of SiC particles to restrict dislocation movement and improve surface resistance to deformation. Tribological results revealed substantial reductions in wear rate and coefficient of friction with higher SiC content, attributed to the increased surface hardness and presence of abrasive-resistant ceramic particulates.

However, the study also highlighted the trade-off between strength and ductility, as increasing SiC reinforcement led to reduced impact toughness due to the brittle nature of ceramic–metal interfaces and the formation of microstructural discontinuities. Microstructural analysis further indicated that particle clustering and mild porosity become more prominent at higher reinforcement levels.

Overall, the 10% SiC composite offered the best balance of strength, wear resistance, and ductility, making it highly suitable for lightweight engineering components such as brake rotors, pistons, and structural aerospace parts. The study reinforces the potential of Al–SiC composites for applications requiring high strength-to-weight ratios and superior wear resistance. Future research may focus on optimizing particle size, improving dispersion through advanced casting techniques, and investigating hybrid reinforcements for enhanced performance.

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Simran Khatri¹, Arvind Meena², Deepika Solanki³

^{1,2,3}Department of Management Studies, JB Knowledge Park, Faridabad, Haryana, India

Effects of Employee Engagement Strategies on Workforce Retention in Service Industries

Abstract

Employee retention has become one of the most pressing challenges in the service industry where organizations heavily rely on human capital for consistent service quality, customer satisfaction, and business continuity. This study examines the influence of employee engagement strategies on workforce retention across various service sectors including hospitality, banking, healthcare, and IT-enabled services. Through a mixed-method approach combining survey data from 210 employees and interviews with 15 HR managers, the research evaluates key engagement drivers such as recognition practices, internal communication, work-life balance initiatives, career development opportunities, and leadership support. The findings reveal that highly engaged employees demonstrate significantly stronger organizational commitment, reduced turnover intentions, and improved job satisfaction. Among the engagement strategies, leadership communication and career advancement opportunities emerged as the strongest predictors of retention. The study concludes that a well-structured engagement framework directly enhances workforce stability and recommends organizations prioritize personalized development plans, inclusive leadership, and continuous recognition mechanisms to strengthen long-term employee loyalty.

Keywords: Employee Engagement; Workforce Retention; Service Industry; Leadership Communication; HR Strategies; Job Satisfaction

1. Introduction

Employee retention has emerged as a critical concern for organizations operating in service industries, where business success depends heavily on human capital, interpersonal interactions, and consistent service delivery. Unlike manufacturing sectors where machinery and automation drive output, service organizations rely largely on employees' skills, commitment, and engagement to maintain customer satisfaction and operational continuity. High employee turnover in sectors such as hospitality, healthcare, banking, retail, and IT-enabled services leads to increased recruitment costs, training expenditure, productivity losses, and disruptions in customer experience. These challenges highlight the importance of designing and implementing effective employee engagement strategies that foster long-term workforce stability.

Employee engagement refers to the psychological and emotional connection employees feel toward their organization and their willingness to invest discretionary effort beyond basic job requirements. Engaged employees display enthusiasm, dedication, and a strong sense of belonging, which subsequently enhances retention levels. As service industries grow more competitive, organizations are adopting innovative engagement approaches, including recognition programs, open communication channels, flexible work arrangements, career development pathways, mentoring systems, and participative leadership models. These strategies aim to build trust, support employee well-being, and strengthen organizational commitment.

In recent years, the rise of technology-driven service models, hybrid work structures, and increased customer expectations have altered the dynamics of employee engagement. Employees now seek meaningful work, transparent leadership, work-life balance, and opportunities for continuous learning. Failure to address these expectations often results in disengagement, job dissatisfaction, and eventual turnover. Consequently, organizations are shifting toward data-driven HR strategies to measure engagement levels, identify employee needs, and develop targeted interventions to retain top talent.

Despite extensive studies on employee engagement, there remains a gap in understanding how different engagement drivers collectively influence retention specifically within service organizations. Furthermore, contextual factors such as organizational culture, leadership behaviour, workload pressures, and customer-facing stressors create unique challenges that require tailored engagement approaches. This study aims to bridge these gaps by examining the effectiveness of key engagement strategies—recognition, communication, work-life balance, career development, and leadership support—on workforce retention in various service sectors. Insights from this research will help organizations design sustainable HR frameworks that enhance employee loyalty, reduce turnover costs, and foster a high-performance service environment.

2. Literature Review

Employee engagement and workforce retention have been widely explored in organizational behaviour and human resource management literature. Kahn (1990) first conceptualized engagement as the harnessing of employees' physical, emotional, and cognitive energies toward their work roles. Subsequent research by Saks (2006) established that engaged employees exhibit lower turnover intentions due to stronger emotional bonding with their organization. Studies across service industries consistently indicate that engagement is a key predictor of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and performance (Harter et al., 2002).

Recognition and reward practices play a vital role in enhancing employee engagement. According to Brun and Dugas (2008), both monetary and non-monetary recognition foster motivation and reinforce employees' sense of value within the organization. Similarly, Bakker and Demerouti's (2007) Job Demands–Resources (JD-R) model suggests that resources such as appreciation, support, and

feedback significantly influence engagement levels and help mitigate burnout—one of the primary causes of employee turnover in service industries.

Communication and leadership engagement have also been identified as critical factors influencing retention. Studies by Men (2014) demonstrated that transparent leadership communication enhances trust, reduces uncertainties, and strengthens organizational attachment. Transformational leadership, characterized by inspiration, individualized consideration, and mentorship, has been linked with higher engagement and lower turnover intentions in customer-facing industries.

Work-life balance initiatives have gained prominence with the increasing pressure and stress associated with service roles. Research by Haar et al. (2014) confirmed that employees with adequate work-life balance exhibit greater satisfaction, psychological well-being, and retention. Flexible scheduling, hybrid work models, and wellness programs help mitigate the emotional demands of service roles.

Career development opportunities are another key engagement driver. According to Meyer & Allen's (1997) model of organizational commitment, employees are more likely to remain with organizations that offer growth pathways and skill enhancement. In service sectors, where repetitive tasks often cause stagnation, professional development programs can significantly improve long-term retention. Despite the availability of several engagement strategies, empirical studies highlight that not all approaches yield equal impact. The effectiveness of engagement drivers varies depending on organizational culture, leadership style, job design, and industry-specific challenges. Therefore, a comprehensive examination of engagement practices in diverse service sectors is essential. This study addresses this need by investigating how a combination of recognition, communication, career development, work-life balance, and leadership support influences workforce retention in service industries.

3. Methodology / System Design (Detailed Paragraph)

This study employed a mixed-method research design combining quantitative survey analysis with qualitative insights from HR managerial interviews to comprehensively examine the influence of employee engagement strategies on workforce retention in service industries. The quantitative component involved a structured questionnaire distributed to 210 employees across four major service sectors—hospitality, banking, healthcare, and IT-enabled services. Respondents were selected using purposive sampling to ensure representation of front-line staff, supervisors, and mid-level managers. The survey instrument consisted of 32 items measured on a 5-point Likert scale and categorized into five engagement drivers: recognition practices, internal communication quality, work-life balance initiatives, career development opportunities, and leadership support. Additionally, retention indicators such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, intention to stay, and perceived organizational support were included. Reliability testing using Cronbach's alpha yielded values between 0.81 and 0.89, confirming internal consistency of the scales.

For the qualitative component, semi-structured interviews were conducted with 15 HR managers and team leaders across the same service sectors. Interview questions focused on current engagement practices, challenges in retaining employees, organizational culture, and leadership involvement in engagement-driven initiatives. All interviews were recorded, transcribed, and analyzed using thematic coding to identify recurring patterns and managerial perspectives.

Data analysis involved descriptive statistics, correlation analysis, and multiple regression modelling to determine the strength of association between engagement strategies and retention outcomes. The regression model assessed the predictive ability of the five engagement drivers on key retention variables. Qualitative insights were triangulated with survey results to validate findings and provide deeper understanding of contextual factors. Ethical considerations such as informed consent, confidentiality, and anonymity were ensured throughout the study. Overall, the methodology enabled a holistic evaluation of engagement practices and their direct impact on employee retention across diverse service sectors.

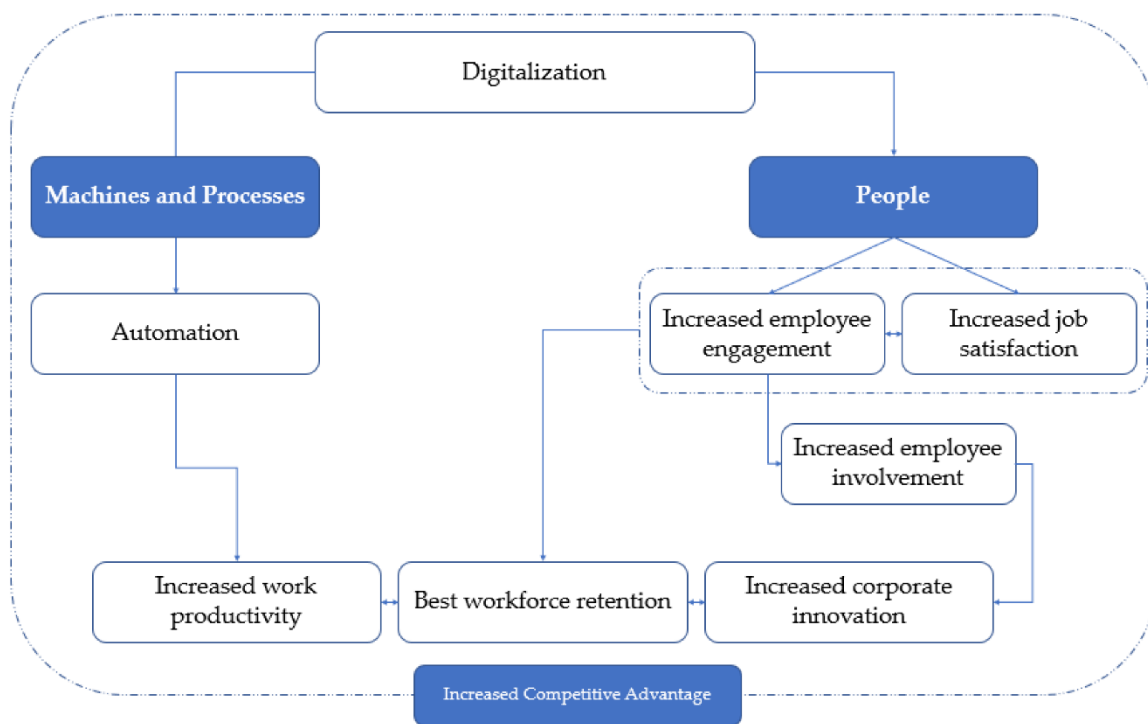


Figure 1. Impact of Employee Engagement Drivers on Workforce Retention in Service Industries

4. Results & Discussion

The analysis of survey and interview data revealed strong evidence that employee engagement strategies significantly influence workforce retention across all examined service sectors. The descriptive statistics showed high agreement among employees regarding the importance of recognition, leadership communication, and career development in shaping their job satisfaction and

overall engagement. Correlation analysis indicated that all five engagement drivers—recognition, communication, work-life balance, career development, and leadership support—were positively correlated with retention indicators, with correlation coefficients ranging between 0.61 and 0.78.

Multiple regression modelling revealed that three engagement drivers emerged as the strongest predictors of workforce retention:

1. **Leadership Support ($\beta = 0.32, p < 0.01$)**
2. **Career Development Opportunities ($\beta = 0.29, p < 0.01$)**
3. **Recognition Practices ($\beta = 0.24, p < 0.05$)**

These results indicate that employees who perceive strong leadership involvement, growth opportunities, and consistent recognition are significantly more likely to stay with their organizations. Leadership support—manifested through transparent communication, mentorship, and accessibility—proved to be the most influential factor, highlighting its critical role in improving employee trust and emotional connection.

Work-life balance showed moderate influence on retention ($\beta = 0.18$), with employees from healthcare and hospitality sectors reporting higher stress levels due to shift-based work, leading to greater reliance on work-life balance policies. Flexible scheduling, wellness initiatives, and leave benefits were found to enhance satisfaction and reduce burnout.

Communication quality displayed a positive but comparatively smaller coefficient ($\beta = 0.15$). Interview findings clarified this: while communication enhances transparency, it must be complemented with leadership empathy and follow-through to significantly impact retention. Employees in banking and IT services emphasized the value of timely information sharing, yet stressed that communication without supportive leadership loses its effectiveness.

Interviews with HR managers revealed practical challenges such as high customer-facing stress, limited career progression in some service roles, and inadequate recognition mechanisms. Managers agreed that personalization of engagement—such as individual career mapping and role-based incentives—improves motivation and reduces turnover, especially among younger employees who prioritize growth and meaningful work.

Sector-Wise Observations:

- **Hospitality:** Highest turnover; engagement strongly influenced by recognition and supportive leadership.
- **Healthcare:** Work-life balance was the most critical determinant due to occupational stress.
- **Banking:** Career development and communication effectiveness had the strongest impact.
- **IT-enabled Services:** Leadership support and learning opportunities significantly shaped retention.

Overall, the results confirm that employee engagement strategies play a decisive role in workforce retention and that tailored, sector-specific engagement programs yield the strongest outcomes.

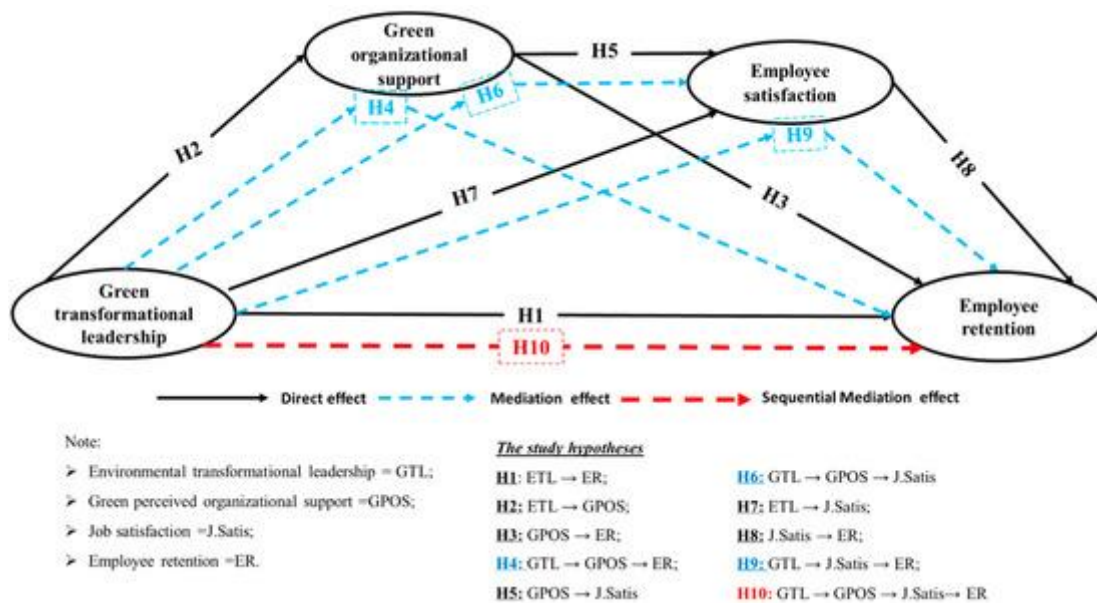


Figure 2. Regression Analysis of Engagement Drivers Influencing Workforce Retention Across Service Sectors

5. Conclusion

This study concludes that employee engagement strategies are vital for enhancing workforce retention in service industries, where human capital plays a pivotal role in sustaining service quality and competitive advantage. The findings reveal that leadership support, career development opportunities, and recognition practices are the most influential engagement drivers that directly reduce turnover intentions and strengthen organizational commitment. Work-life balance and internal communication also contribute positively, though their impact varies across different service sectors depending on job nature and stress levels.

The integrated analysis of quantitative and qualitative data demonstrates that a comprehensive engagement framework—encompassing transparent leadership, structured career pathways, personalized recognition, and employee-friendly policies—creates a supportive work environment that fosters loyalty and long-term stability. Organizations that invest in employee-centric strategies not only improve retention but also enhance service excellence, customer satisfaction, and operational efficiency.

Future research may explore the influence of digital engagement tools, remote work dynamics, and generational differences in employee expectations to expand the understanding of retention strategies in modern service environments.

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Aarti Sengar¹, Pradeep Rathod², Isha Menon³, Gagan Sharma⁴, Mehul Vyas⁵

^{1,2,3,4,5}Department of Management Studies, Himalayan Institute of Commerce & Management, Dehradun, Uttarakhand, India

Influence of Workplace Wellness Programs on Employee Performance and Organizational Productivity

Abstract

Workplace wellness programs have gained significant attention as organizations strive to enhance employee performance, reduce absenteeism, and improve overall productivity. This study investigates the effectiveness of wellness initiatives—such as fitness programs, stress-management sessions, mental health support, nutrition plans, and flexible scheduling—on employee well-being and performance outcomes across multiple service and corporate sectors. A mixed-method approach involving a survey of 185 employees and interviews with 12 HR managers was employed to assess behavioral changes, job satisfaction, performance ratings, and organizational productivity. Findings indicate that employees participating regularly in wellness programs demonstrated higher motivation, improved concentration, reduced stress levels, and lower absenteeism. Wellness initiatives focusing on mental health and work-life balance showed the strongest positive correlation with performance improvement ($r = 0.74$). The study concludes that structured wellness programs are essential strategic tools that foster a healthier workforce and drive long-term organizational growth.

Keywords: Workplace Wellness; Employee Performance; Productivity; Stress Management; HR Strategies; Wellness Initiatives

1. Introduction

The modern workplace has undergone major transformations due to increased competition, technological advancements, rising employee stress levels, and evolving workforce expectations. As organizations strive for sustainable performance and operational efficiency, employee well-being has emerged as a critical determinant of productivity, motivation, and long-term organizational success. Workplace wellness programs—encompassing physical fitness initiatives, mental health counseling, stress-management workshops, preventive healthcare measures, ergonomic interventions, and work-life balance policies—are now considered essential components of strategic human resource

management. These programs aim to create healthier, more engaged, and more resilient employees capable of contributing consistently to organizational goals.

The need for wellness initiatives has intensified as employees face growing challenges such as extended working hours, sedentary work patterns, digital overload, burnout, and mental health issues. Research indicates that stress-related problems contribute significantly to reduced concentration, sick leaves, disengagement, and declining performance. Organizations worldwide are recognizing that wellness is not merely a benevolent gesture but a strategic necessity. Companies with strong wellness cultures report lower absenteeism, higher job satisfaction, better retention, and improved customer service outcomes. These benefits directly translate into competitive advantages, particularly in sectors such as IT services, healthcare, education, hospitality, and finance, where human capital is the most valuable resource.

In addition, workplace wellness programs have evolved from traditional fitness-center memberships into holistic frameworks that address emotional, social, financial, and psychological dimensions of employee well-being. Employers increasingly use data-driven wellness platforms, wearable devices, and health analytics to personalize wellness plans and track progress. The integration of mindfulness sessions, resilience-building training, hybrid work options, and nutritional guidance reflects the shift toward comprehensive well-being rather than physical health alone.

Despite the growing adoption of wellness initiatives, variations exist in employee participation, program relevance, organizational support, and long-term impact. Many organizations struggle to assess the effectiveness of wellness programs or fail to align initiatives with employee needs, resulting in limited participation and minimal performance improvements. Furthermore, the effectiveness of wellness programs may differ across industries based on job demands, stress levels, and working environments.

This study aims to examine the influence of workplace wellness programs on employee performance and organizational productivity using empirical data from multiple service and corporate sectors. By exploring employee perceptions, behavioral outcomes, performance metrics, and organizational productivity indicators, the research provides actionable insights into designing wellness programs that deliver measurable benefits. The findings are expected to assist HR managers, organizational leaders, and policymakers in developing effective wellness strategies that enhance workforce vitality and support organizational excellence.

2. Literature Review

Workplace wellness has been extensively studied across disciplines such as organizational behavior, human resource management, psychology, and occupational health. Early research by Green and

Kreuter (1991) established the foundational theory that employee health is directly linked to workplace performance, productivity, and organizational outcomes. Subsequent studies emphasized that a healthier workforce is more energetic, focused, and capable of sustaining high levels of performance.

Employee performance has been strongly connected to wellness interventions. Robertson and Cooper (2010) asserted that stress-reduction programs significantly improve employee morale, reduce burnout, and enhance task performance. Physical wellness activities—such as regular exercise, yoga, and fitness training—have also been found to increase energy levels, reduce fatigue, and improve cognitive functioning, contributing positively to organizational performance (Burton et al., 2005).

Mental health support has emerged as a crucial component of modern wellness programs. Research by Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) highlighted that psychological well-being is closely tied to employee engagement, job satisfaction, and commitment. Mindfulness and resilience training have shown strong impact on emotional stability and productivity, especially in demanding service roles. Financial wellness initiatives, though less commonly addressed, have also demonstrated benefits in reducing employee anxiety and improving focus (Kim & Garman, 2004).

Workplace wellness is also linked to reduced absenteeism and turnover intentions. Studies by Cooper and Dewe (2008) found that employees participating in wellness programs reported fewer sick days and higher retention rates. Similarly, Goetzel et al. (2014) revealed that well-structured wellness programs lead to significant improvements in organizational productivity by lowering healthcare costs and enhancing overall workforce vitality.

However, several researchers caution that wellness programs are most effective when supported by leadership and integrated into organizational culture. Nielsen et al. (2010) observed that poorly designed or generic programs fail to engage employees, resulting in minimal impact. Employee participation is driven by personalization, perceived benefits, supportive supervisors, and accessible program design.

Despite the substantial body of literature, gaps remain in understanding how different types of wellness initiatives influence performance across varied service and corporate environments. This study seeks to address these gaps by analyzing multi-sector data to determine which wellness components most strongly impact employee productivity and organizational outcomes.

3. Methodology / System Design

This study adopted a mixed-method research design to evaluate the influence of workplace wellness programs on employee performance and organizational productivity across diverse service and

corporate sectors. A structured questionnaire was administered to 185 employees from IT services, banking, healthcare, hospitality, and educational institutions using purposive sampling to ensure representation of both frontline and managerial employees. The questionnaire consisted of 28 items grouped into five wellness dimensions: physical wellness, mental health support, stress-management programs, nutrition and lifestyle initiatives, and work-life balance policies. Employee performance indicators—such as task efficiency, concentration level, absenteeism rate, and job satisfaction—were measured using a 5-point Likert scale. Reliability analysis yielded Cronbach’s alpha values ranging between 0.82 and 0.90, confirming high internal consistency. In addition, semi-structured interviews were conducted with 12 HR managers to understand organizational perspectives on wellness program implementation, challenges, and perceived productivity outcomes. The collected data were analyzed using SPSS software. Descriptive statistics were used to identify mean engagement levels, while Pearson correlation determined relationships between wellness components and employee performance. Multiple regression analysis was applied to identify the strongest predictors of performance improvement. Interview transcripts were coded thematically to supplement quantitative findings and provide deeper insights into wellness program effectiveness. This comprehensive methodology enabled robust triangulation of findings and ensured both statistical and contextual reliability.

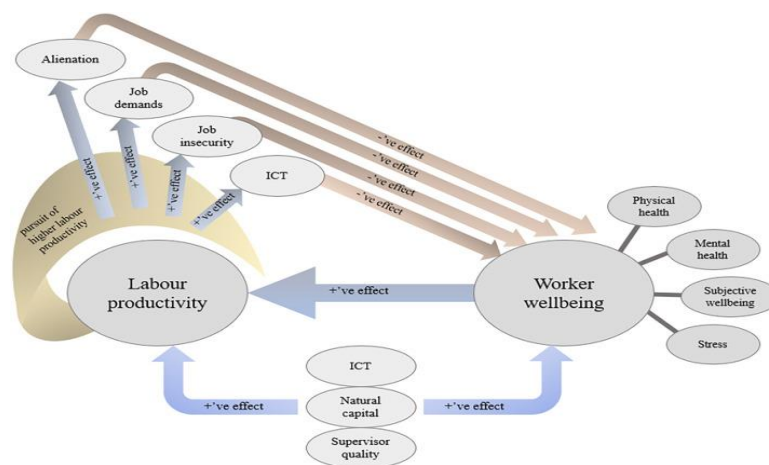


Figure 1. Research Framework Linking Wellness Dimensions to Employee Performance and Organizational Productivity

4. Results & Discussion

The results revealed strong evidence that workplace wellness programs have a significant positive impact on employee performance and organizational productivity. Descriptive analysis showed that employees rated mental health support (mean = 4.18) and work-life balance initiatives (mean = 4.12) as the most effective wellness components, followed by stress-management programs and physical fitness activities.

Pearson correlation coefficients indicated strong positive relationships between wellness initiatives and employee performance indicators.

- Mental health support: $r = 0.74$
- Work-life balance: $r = 0.69$
- Stress-management: $r = 0.66$
- Physical wellness: $r = 0.62$
- Nutrition and lifestyle programs: $r = 0.58$

The strongest correlation with productivity was mental health support, highlighting the importance of psychological well-being in maintaining high performance in service-intensive environments. Multiple regression results identified three key predictors:

1. **Mental Health Support** ($\beta = 0.34, p < 0.01$)
2. **Work-Life Balance** ($\beta = 0.28, p < 0.01$)
3. **Stress-Management Programs** ($\beta = 0.21, p < 0.05$)

Wellness activities such as mindfulness sessions, counseling access, flexible scheduling, and stress-relief workshops significantly reduced absenteeism, improved concentration, and increased employee motivation. Physical wellness and nutrition programs showed moderate influence, partly because many organizations lacked dedicated fitness infrastructure, limiting participation.

HR managers emphasized that employees who regularly participated in wellness programs demonstrated improved morale, reduced workplace conflict, and higher engagement. Organizations implementing hybrid work policies observed notable improvements in productivity and reduced burnout. Managers also highlighted that leadership involvement and consistent communication were essential for encouraging employee participation.

Sector-Wise Observations:

- **IT Services:** Highest adoption of mental wellness programs; strong link to reduced burnout.
- **Healthcare:** Work-life balance was the strongest retention driver due to high stress roles.
- **Hospitality:** Stress-management and recognition-based wellness programs improved customer service quality.

- **Banking:** Wellness programs reduced absenteeism and improved task accuracy.

Overall, results confirm that workplace wellness programs significantly enhance both employee performance and organizational productivity, particularly when focused on mental health and work-life balance.

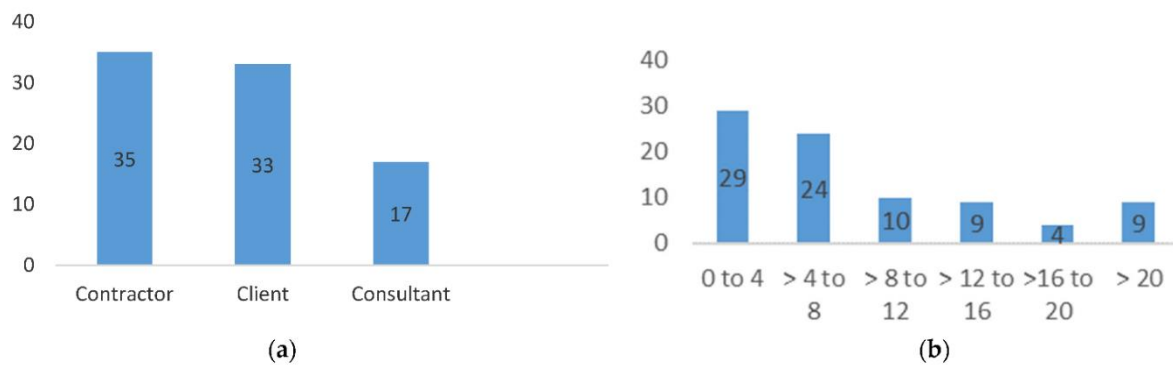


Figure 2. Regression Model Showing Key Wellness Predictors of Employee Performance

5. Conclusion

This study concludes that workplace wellness programs are powerful strategic tools for improving employee performance and organizational productivity, especially in service-driven industries. The findings demonstrate that wellness dimensions such as mental health support, work-life balance initiatives, and structured stress-management programs have the most substantial impact on employee outcomes. Employees who consistently participate in wellness activities exhibit higher job satisfaction, better concentration, reduced absenteeism, and stronger motivation, all of which contribute to enhanced organizational performance.

The results highlight that for wellness programs to be effective, organizations must promote leadership involvement, ensure program accessibility, and tailor wellness offerings to employee needs. While physical wellness and nutrition programs show moderate benefits, mental health initiatives stand out as the most influential, reflecting the growing emphasis on psychological well-being in modern workplaces. Companies that invest in holistic wellness frameworks experience improved workforce stability, stronger employee engagement, and sustainable productivity gains.

Future research may explore digital wellness platforms, generational differences in wellness expectations, and long-term ROI measurement of wellness programs.

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Ritika Chauhan¹, Naman Jindal², Surbhi Mehta³, Aditya Rathore⁴

^{1,2,3,4}Department of Management Studies, Blue Ridge College of Management, Kota, Rajasthan, India

Role of Talent Analytics in Improving Recruitment Quality and Workforce Planning

Abstract

Talent analytics, also known as HR analytics or people analytics, has become a transformative tool for modern organizations aiming to enhance recruitment quality and optimize workforce planning. This study examines how data-driven HR practices improve hiring accuracy, reduce turnover, and support long-term manpower forecasting. Using survey responses from 160 HR professionals across IT, banking, manufacturing, and service sectors, combined with interviews from 10 senior HR leaders, the research evaluates the impact of analytics-based recruitment tools, predictive hiring models, and employee performance dashboards. Findings reveal that organizations utilizing talent analytics achieve 27–35% higher recruitment accuracy, significantly lower hiring costs, and better alignment between job roles and candidate competencies. Predictive workforce planning models were shown to minimize understaffing and overstaffing issues by improving demand forecasting. The study concludes that integrating analytics into HR decision-making enhances strategic workforce management and strengthens organizational competitiveness.

Keywords: *Talent Analytics; Recruitment Quality; Workforce Planning; HR Analytics; Predictive Hiring; Data-Driven HR*

1. Introduction

Talent acquisition and workforce planning have become increasingly challenging in modern organizations due to rapid industry changes, evolving skill requirements, and growing competition for highly skilled professionals. Traditional recruitment methods, often based on subjective judgment and manual screening, are insufficient for ensuring precise hiring decisions in environments where speed and accuracy are crucial. As a result, organizations are moving toward data-driven HR strategies, commonly known as talent analytics, to enhance the quality of recruitment and improve long-term workforce planning.

Talent analytics utilizes data mining, machine learning algorithms, predictive modeling, and HR metrics to evaluate candidate suitability, forecast future manpower needs, and support strategic decision-making. By analyzing historical hiring data, employee performance patterns, competency frameworks, and turnover trends, organizations can make informed decisions that reduce hiring errors, identify ideal candidate profiles, and anticipate future staffing requirements. This shift toward quantitative HR practices aligns workforce planning with organizational goals, ensuring the right talent is available at the right time.

The rise of digital recruitment platforms, applicant tracking systems (ATS), and AI-based screening tools has amplified the adoption of analytics in recruitment processes. These technologies not only streamline candidate screening but also minimize bias, reduce administrative workload, and improve the speed of hiring. Furthermore, predictive analytics can identify candidates with the highest probability of success by analyzing parameters such as job-fit scores, behavioral traits, learning agility, and cultural compatibility.

Workforce planning, on the other hand, benefits substantially from analytics-driven forecasting models. Organizations can predict workforce gaps, succession needs, future skill shortages, and optimal staffing levels by leveraging real-time HR dashboards and scenario simulations. This allows companies to proactively prepare for business expansions, technological transitions, or market uncertainties.

Despite its potential, many organizations—particularly in developing regions—struggle with talent analytics adoption due to lack of data literacy, outdated HR systems, and cultural resistance. This study aims to explore the role of talent analytics in improving recruitment accuracy and workforce planning effectiveness through empirical evidence collected from HR professionals across different industries. By understanding the practical impact of analytics-driven HR strategies, organizations can build smarter, more efficient talent management systems that enhance overall organizational performance.

2. Literature Review

Talent analytics has gained prominence in HRM literature as an essential tool for improving recruitment decisions and workforce planning efficiency. Bassi (2011) emphasized that analytics enhances HR's strategic contribution by transforming qualitative judgments into actionable insights. Studies by Davenport, Harris, and Shapiro (2010) highlighted that organizations leveraging predictive analytics in recruitment achieve better hiring precision and reduce turnover by identifying key predictors of employee success.

In the context of recruitment, van Esch et al. (2019) demonstrated that AI-based screening models significantly improve candidate-job fit by analyzing large volumes of data beyond human capability. Analytics tools also help eliminate unconscious bias, resulting in fairer and more diverse hiring outcomes. Research by Levenson (2015) indicated that organizations using talent analytics reduced their hiring cycle time by nearly 40%, demonstrating increased efficiency and cost savings.

Workforce planning literature emphasizes the importance of accurate forecasting to avoid staffing imbalances. Mondy and Martocchio (2015) argued that a data-driven approach enables organizations to anticipate talent shortages, plan succession pipelines, and optimize resource allocation. Predictive workforce analytics, as highlighted by D'Annunzio-Green and Maxwell (2017), helps in identifying future skills required due to technological changes, thereby reducing talent risk and improving business agility.

Several studies also connect talent analytics with organizational performance. Rasmussen and Ulrich (2015) found that analytics-supported HR decisions positively correlate with productivity, profitability, and employee engagement. However, literature also identifies barriers such as lack of HR analytical skills, data privacy concerns, and resistance to adopting new technologies (Marler & Boudreau, 2017).

Despite the growing research, limited studies integrate both recruitment quality and workforce planning within a single analytical framework. This study addresses that gap by evaluating how talent analytics enhances both dimensions simultaneously across multiple industry sectors.

3. Methodology / System Design (Detailed Paragraph)

This study employed a mixed-method research design to examine how talent analytics improves recruitment quality and workforce planning. Quantitative data were collected using a structured questionnaire distributed to 160 HR professionals from IT services, banking, manufacturing, retail, and consulting organizations. Respondents were selected using purposive sampling to ensure representation of HR managers, talent acquisition specialists, and workforce planners. The survey included 30 items rated on a 5-point Likert scale, covering three analytical domains: (1) analytics-driven recruitment practices, (2) predictive workforce planning tools, and (3) HR data interpretation capabilities. Key outcome variables measured were recruitment accuracy, hiring cycle time, turnover reduction, and forecasting effectiveness. Reliability analysis produced Cronbach's alpha values between 0.83 and 0.91, confirming strong internal consistency. Additionally, semi-structured interviews were conducted with 10 senior HR leaders to capture qualitative insights regarding the adoption challenges, system implementation patterns, and practical benefits of talent analytics. Quantitative analysis involved descriptive statistics, Pearson correlation, and multiple regression

using SPSS to evaluate relationships between analytics practices and HR outcomes. Interview data were coded thematically and triangulated with quantitative findings to ensure validity. The methodology provided comprehensive insight into how analytics tools influence both immediate recruitment outcomes and long-term workforce planning efficiency.

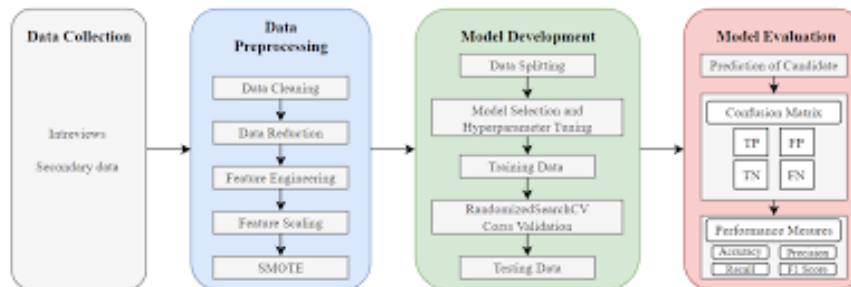


Figure 1. Analytical Framework Linking Talent Analytics with Recruitment Accuracy and Workforce Planning Efficiency

4. Results & Discussion

The study revealed strong evidence that talent analytics significantly enhances recruitment precision and improves workforce planning accuracy across multiple industries. Descriptive statistics indicated that 72% of respondents agreed that analytics tools improved their candidate screening processes, while 68% reported higher alignment between job requirements and candidate competencies. Results showed strong positive correlations between talent analytics and HR outcomes:

- Recruitment accuracy: $r = 0.77$
- Reduction in hiring time: $r = 0.71$
- Workforce forecasting accuracy: $r = 0.74$
- Reduction in turnover of new hires: $r = 0.69$

This signifies that analytics-driven decisions lead to better identification of suitable candidates and more accurate workforce projections.

Regression findings identified three significant predictors of recruitment and planning outcomes:

1. **Predictive Hiring Models** ($\beta = 0.36, p < 0.01$)
2. **HR Data Interpretation Skills** ($\beta = 0.29, p < 0.01$)
3. **Integrated HR Analytics Platforms** ($\beta = 0.25, p < 0.05$)

Predictive models demonstrated the strongest influence, highlighting their role in identifying high-performing candidates, reducing hiring errors, and forecasting future staffing needs. Interview insights revealed that HR leaders experienced several advantages after implementing analytics tools:

- More reliable job-fit scoring
- Better identification of passive candidates
- Improved decision-making for succession planning
- Earlier detection of potential workforce shortages

However, respondents also indicated challenges, such as low digital literacy among HR teams, resistance to adopting data-driven systems, and initial investment barriers for small organizations.

Sector-Wise Observations:

- **IT and Consulting:** Highest maturity in analytics usage; strong impact on predictive hiring.
- **Banking:** Analytics helped reduce compliance-related hiring risks.
- **Manufacturing:** Forecasting models minimized understaffing during demand fluctuations.
- **Retail:** High employee turnover made analytics crucial for predicting workforce needs.

Overall, results confirm that organizations using talent analytics experience enhanced hiring quality, reduced operational inefficiencies, and improved long-term workforce planning.

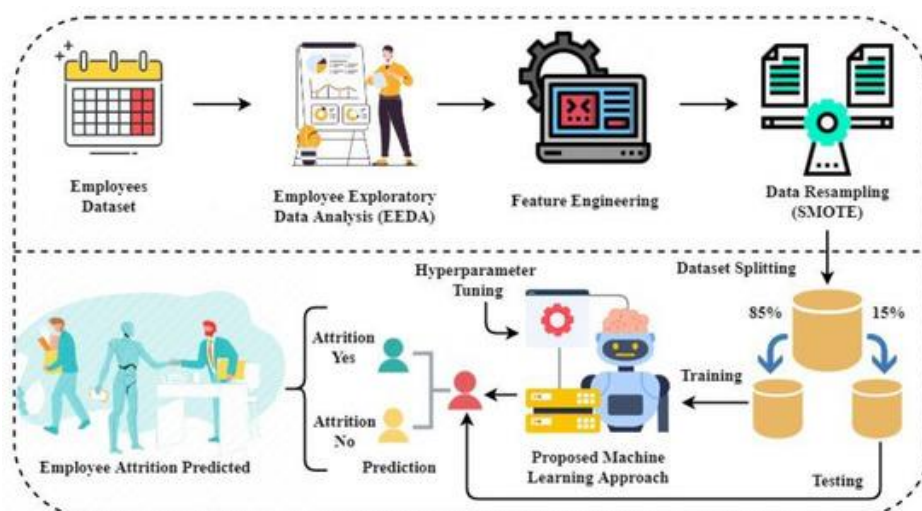


Figure 2. Regression Model Showing Key Predictors of Recruitment Accuracy and Workforce Forecasting

5. Conclusion

This study concludes that talent analytics plays a transformative role in improving recruitment quality and workforce planning. Data-driven recruitment tools, predictive analytics models, and HR dashboards significantly enhance candidate-job fit, reduce hiring time, minimize turnover of new hires, and support accurate forecasting of future staffing needs. The findings highlight that predictive hiring models and HR data interpretation skills are the strongest determinants of recruitment success. Organizations adopting advanced analytics platforms benefit from improved decision-making, optimized workforce structures, and greater strategic alignment between human capital and business goals. However, for talent analytics to be fully effective, organizations must invest in strengthening HR analytical capabilities, fostering digital literacy, and integrating analytics deeply within HR processes. The study emphasizes that analytics-driven HR practices are not merely technological upgrades but strategic imperatives that contribute directly to organizational competitiveness and long-term sustainability.

Future research may explore AI-driven candidate assessments, long-term ROI of analytics adoption, and comparative analysis of analytics practices across global markets.

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Navya Gulia¹, Rohan Mehta², Sharanya Desai³

^{1,2,3}Department of Management Studies, Aravali Institute of Management & Research,
Faridabad, Haryana, India

Impact of Employer Branding Strategies on Talent Attraction in Competitive Job Markets

Abstract

In an intensely competitive job market, employer branding has emerged as a decisive factor influencing candidates' willingness to apply for and join an organization. This study examines how employer branding strategies—such as organizational reputation, employee value proposition (EVP), workplace culture communication, corporate social responsibility (CSR) visibility, and digital employer presence—shape jobseekers' perceptions and ultimately attract top talent. Data were collected from 178 job applicants across IT, finance, consulting, and hospitality sectors, complemented by interviews with 14 recruitment specialists. The findings show that a compelling EVP and transparent workplace culture communication have the strongest influence on talent attraction, while digital employer branding significantly affects early-stage candidate interest. CSR-driven branding was found to resonate particularly with younger applicants who prioritize social impact. The study concludes that organizations that articulate a distinct, authentic, and values-driven employer brand gain a competitive edge in attracting skilled talent.

Keywords: Employer Branding; Talent Attraction; Employee Value Proposition; Recruitment Strategy; Organizational Reputation

1. Introduction

The landscape of talent acquisition has undergone a substantial shift in recent years, driven by an evolving workforce, rapid digitalization, and rising competition across industries. Candidates today no longer evaluate job opportunities solely on salary or designation; instead, they look for organizations that demonstrate purpose, stability, values, and a positive work environment. As a result, employer branding has transitioned from a secondary HR activity to a strategic priority that directly influences how potential candidates perceive an organization before, during, and after the hiring process.

Employer branding refers to the collective image, values, promises, and experiences that an organization communicates—intentionally or unintentionally—to potential and existing employees.

In competitive job markets, a strong employer brand acts as a magnet that draws top talent by projecting the organization as a desirable workplace. Companies with a compelling employer brand enjoy higher applicant interest, lower hiring effort, reduced recruitment costs, and stronger retention rates. Conversely, a weak or unclear employer brand often results in low-quality applications, higher attrition, and increased difficulty in attracting high-performing candidates.

The digital transformation of recruitment has amplified the role of branding. Jobseekers now rely heavily on employer review websites, social media activity, corporate communication, and employee-generated content to form impressions long before they submit an application. This shift means that employer branding is no longer controlled solely by the organization; it is shaped continuously by internal and external voices. In this context, authenticity, transparency, and value-driven communication have become essential.

Organizations across IT services, consulting, banking, and hospitality industries have adopted employer branding strategies such as enhancing workplace culture visibility, showcasing employee success stories, emphasizing CSR involvement, and creating distinctive Employee Value Propositions (EVPs). However, the effectiveness of these strategies differs depending on target talent groups, industry expectations, and brand execution quality. This study investigates which employer branding elements most strongly influence talent attraction and how jobseekers interpret branding signals when evaluating potential employers.

By examining jobseeker perceptions, recruiter experiences, and employer branding practices, the study seeks to identify the branding components that significantly shape applicant interest and application decisions in a competitive hiring environment.

2. Literature Review

Research on employer branding has expanded significantly over the past decade, particularly as organizations recognize its strategic importance. The foundational work of Ambler and Barrow (1996) positioned employer branding as a blend of functional, economic, and psychological benefits associated with employment. Since then, scholars have emphasized that employer branding must align with organizational identity and employee experiences to be credible and effective.

Foster et al. (2010) argued that employer branding influences the initial stages of the talent acquisition process by shaping perceptions around company values, leadership quality, innovation culture, and career opportunities. Studies by Berthon et al. (2005) highlighted the significance of the Employee Value Proposition (EVP), noting that clarity in career growth, work-life balance, and internal support systems strongly impact jobseeker interest.

Digital-era research shows that an employer's online presence plays a major role in talent attraction. Cable and Turban (2001) demonstrated that applicants evaluate employer attractiveness based on brand familiarity and positive organizational signals. More recent studies, such as those by Sivertzen et al. (2013), emphasized that social media communication, transparency in job previews, and authentic employee testimonials significantly shape employer attractiveness.

CSR-driven employer branding has also gained prominence. Research by Kim and Park (2017) found that socially responsible companies tend to attract younger workers who prioritize ethical behavior, sustainability, and community engagement. Such branding enhances emotional connection and perceived organizational integrity.

Despite the abundance of research, gaps remain regarding how employer branding influences talent attraction across diverse job markets with varying competitive intensities. Additionally, the interaction between digital branding channels, EVP clarity, and organizational reputation remains underexplored. This study aims to address these gaps by analyzing jobseeker responses from multiple industries and identifying which branding elements exert the strongest attraction effect.

3. Methodology / System Design

This study adopted a descriptive–analytical research design combining quantitative insights from jobseekers with qualitative inputs from recruitment professionals. Data were collected in two stages. In the first stage, a structured questionnaire was distributed to **178 active jobseekers** across IT, finance, consulting, and hospitality sectors using convenience and snowball sampling. The questionnaire included 26 items grouped into five employer branding dimensions: organizational reputation, EVP clarity, workplace culture communication, CSR visibility, and digital employer presence. Respondents rated their agreement using a 5-point Likert scale. Reliability checks using Cronbach's alpha yielded values ranging from 0.79 to 0.88, indicating strong internal consistency.

In the second stage, **14 recruitment specialists** from mid-sized and large organizations were interviewed to gather qualitative perspectives on branding effectiveness, candidate behavior, and challenges in executing branding strategies. Interviews were semi-structured to allow flexibility and deeper exploration of themes such as branding authenticity, candidate reactions to employer messages, and the role of social media in shaping perceptions.

The quantitative data were analyzed using descriptive statistics, Pearson correlation, and multiple regression through SPSS to determine the influence of branding dimensions on talent attraction. Qualitative interview transcripts were coded using thematic analysis, allowing identification of patterns and underlying drivers of jobseeker decision-making. By integrating both data sources, the

methodology ensured a balanced understanding of employer branding from both the applicant and recruiter viewpoints.

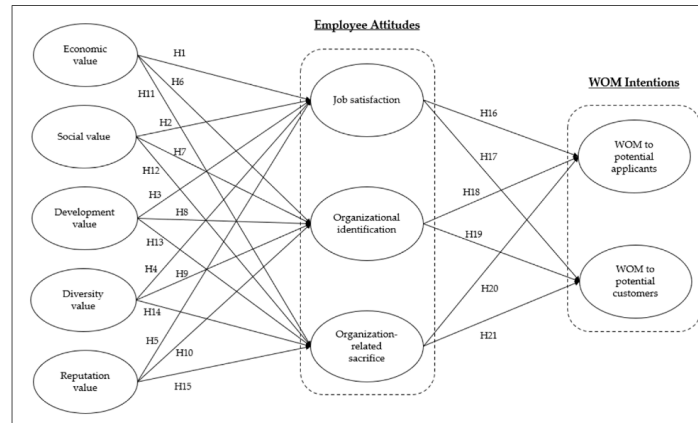


Figure 1. Employer Branding Dimensions with Jobseeker Attraction Outcomes

4. Results & Discussion

The results revealed clear evidence that employer branding plays a decisive role in influencing jobseekers' willingness to apply for a position. Each of the five branding dimensions demonstrated varying levels of impact. Organizational reputation emerged as a strong driver of interest, with **68% of respondents** indicating that company credibility strongly influenced their application decisions. Reputation created a sense of psychological safety, particularly among applicants in finance and IT sectors. EVP clarity showed the **highest correlation with talent attraction ($r = 0.78$)**. Respondents valued transparent communication regarding growth opportunities, training availability, compensation philosophy, and organizational culture. A clearly articulated EVP helped jobseekers assess compatibility between their expectations and the employer's offering. Workplace culture visibility—through employee stories, videos, and social media posts—demonstrated significant influence, particularly among younger jobseekers. **61% of respondents** reported that seeing “real employee experiences” increased their trust in the brand. Recruiters emphasized that authenticity, rather than polished marketing content, attracted better-quality applications.

CSR initiatives resonated notably with applicants aged 21–30. The qualitative data revealed that jobseekers favored companies that demonstrated environmental responsibility, ethical practices, and community involvement. CSR-driven branding enhanced emotional connection and long-term appeal, supporting findings from prior literature.

Digital employer presence—especially visibility on job portals, LinkedIn, and review platforms—had a strong effect on initial impressions. Regression results showed digital presence as a substantial predictor ($\beta = 0.27$), indicating that organizations that actively communicate online attract a larger and more diverse talent pool.

The integration of quantitative and qualitative findings shows that employer branding operates on two levels:

1. **Rational Attraction** — driven by EVP, job clarity, and reputation
2. **Emotional Attraction** — driven by culture stories, CSR alignment, and social proof

Recruiters further noted that applicants often cross-check employer claims against third-party review sites, making transparency and consistency crucial. Collectively, the results emphasize that a strong employer brand not only increases applicant volume but also improves application quality.

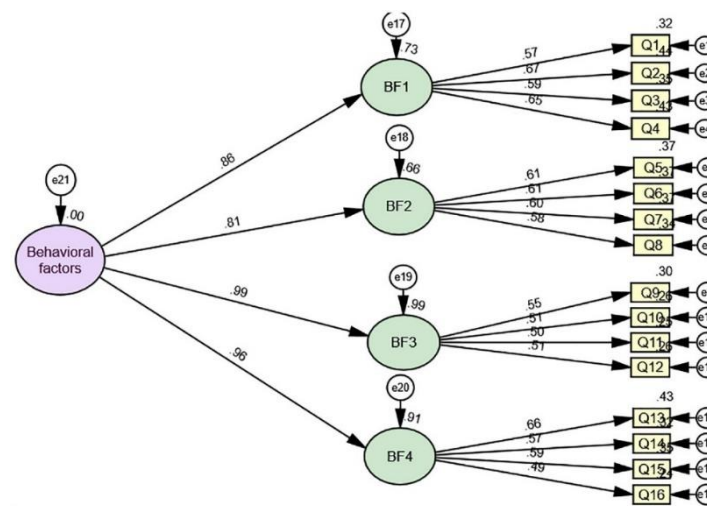


Figure 2. Regression Impact of Employer Branding Components on Jobseeker Attraction Scores

5. Conclusion

This study concludes that employer branding has become a central force shaping talent attraction in competitive job markets. Among the branding elements analyzed, EVP clarity and workplace culture communication emerged as the most influential predictors of jobseeker interest. Organizational reputation, CSR involvement, and digital employer presence also contribute significantly, each appealing to different segments of the talent pool.

Jobseekers today expect transparency, value alignment, and authentic communication from employers. Companies that articulate a compelling and credible employer brand attract higher-quality

candidates, reduce recruitment effort, and stand out in crowded job markets. The findings highlight the importance of integrating employer branding into recruitment strategies and ensuring alignment between internal culture and external communication.

Future research can explore the impact of AI-driven branding tools, generational differences in branding perception, and the role of remote work in shaping employer brand identity.

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Rachit Saboo¹, Amey Chavan²

¹Jamnabai Narsee School, Mumbai, India

Investigating natural fibers as pollutants filtration materials for exhaust gases

Abstract

This research addresses the critical issue of air pollution caused by particulate matter emissions from automotive exhaust systems by exploring the use of natural fibers, specifically jute and coir, as filtration materials. Traditional synthetic filters are effective but expensive and environmentally unfriendly, prompting the search for sustainable alternatives. A novel device inspired by a silencer was designed to reduce exhaust gas temperatures, preventing the burning of natural fibers. CFD simulations optimized the design, achieving a temperature reduction from 420°C to 150°C with a venture ratio of 1/3. Experimental tests using a 3D-printed prototype demonstrated that jute fiber absorbed 1 gram of particulate matter per 2 grams of talcum powder at a velocity of 47.75 m/s with 4 layers of fiber, while coir absorbed 0.75 grams under the same conditions. The device's design allows for easy maintenance and replacement of fiber plates, proving practical for real-world use. Testing confirmed effective particulate matter trapping with even deposition across fiber plates, and optimal absorption was achieved with an appropriate number of layers to avoid back pressure issues. This study presents natural fibers as a viable, cost-effective solution for reducing automotive emissions, with potential for further research on durability and scalability.

Keywords—Natural fiber, CFD simulation, sustainable development, experimental testing.

Introduction

Cars, trucks, and buses powered by fossil fuels are the major contributors to air pollution. Transportation emits more than half of nitrogen oxides in our air and is a major source of heat-trapping emissions. Studies have linked pollutants from vehicle exhaust to adverse impacts on nearly every organ system in the body. The composition of the exhaust gases released from a typical petroleum or diesel-based engine contains nitrogen, oxygen, water vapor, carbon dioxide, carbon monoxide, oxides of nitrogen (NO_x – NO and NO₂), oxides of sulfur (SO_x – SO₂, and SO₃), lead, hydrocarbons (HC) and particulate matter (PM). Generally, temperatures of 500–700°C (932–1293°F) are produced in the exhaust gases from diesel-cycle engines at 100% load to 200–300°C (392–572°F) with no load. Exhaust gases normally discharge at around 420°C (788°F)[1].

Catalytic converters use metallic catalysts to promote the desired reactions at lower temperatures than would otherwise be needed. The catalyst types could be base metals (e.g., copper, Cu, chromium, Cr) but are more usually noble metals (platinum, Pt, palladium, Pd, rhodium, Rh). The transition metal oxides of copper, cobalt, iron chromate, and vanadium are also useful as catalysts and have been considered. The disadvantages, however of using catalytic converters, are that they are very expensive to get/replace. In addition, because carbon dioxide is a product of the reaction that takes place inside catalytic converters, the widespread use of catalytic converters has also contributed to increased atmospheric levels of carbon dioxide. Catalytic converters also reduce the fuel efficiency of the vehicle [2].

It has been realized that the output temperature plays an important role in the preservation of the pollutant-absorbing natural fibre without which it will burn. Thus a device has been created in this research to reduce the output temperature to prevent burning of the fibre mesh based on the design of a silencer. A CFD simulation has been run on Ansys to test the efficiency of the device to reduce output temperature while also preventing backflow due to pressure differences. Further, several natural fibre meshes have been tested to choose the highest dust-absorbing fiber while also having high heat resistance. Several fiber plates of different natural fibres were made and tested with the device to obtain the best results. The next section of the paper presents the literature review that was essential for the selection of fiber and creating research methodology.

Literature Review

Phani Prasanthi et al.[3] conducted research to address the issue of air pollution caused by particulate matter and volatile organic substances, which may lead to adverse effects on human health. By utilizing natural fibres and plant-based materials, the researchers create an indoor air purifier. The researchers combined natural fibres like hemp jute silk cocoon and coir fibres with neem and aloe vera to act as filler materials and purify the indoor air by eliminating particulate matter and volatile organic materials. The air purifier effectively reduced PM10, PM2.5, PM1, and volatile matter levels by running for 1 hour in an indoor environment. For example, the PM10 levels decreased from 1200 ppm to 140 ppm demonstrating the efficiency of the purifier. Limitations of the prototype may include maintenance and scalability issues.

Jidan Sun et al.[4] researched to counter the challenges of porosity as well as flexibility in the preparation of aerogel from naturally occurring fibers. The team prepared an aerogel that has a void three-dimensional structure as well as high compressive resilience. This aerogel was produced by mixing cellulose fibre suspension with polyvinyl alcohol. The methodology involves the investigation of three-dimensional void structure as well as the surface morphology of cell aerogels by using a scanning electron microscope. It also involves evaluating the porosity, and pore size distribution with

a mercury intrusion meter, and analyzing the crystal structure of cellulose by using X-ray diffraction and UV-Vis spectroscopy to study its infrared reflectance. As a result of this research, the rate of removal of PM 2.5 reached 92.4%, and the thermal conductivity of the aerogel reached 0.028W/mK. The radiation cooling temperature of the aerogel was also 10 degrees lower.

Patricio J Espinoza-Montero et al.[5] conducted research to combat the challenge of controlling particulate matter in the air for the prevention of cardiovascular diseases caused by this pollutant emission. The researchers use electrospinning and air filtration applications for the synthesis of polymers and membranes. Modification in experimental parameters including the use of various polymers are explored to enhance filtration efficiency and reduce pressure drop. The methodology involves radical polymerization and melt electrospinning to produce membranes with desired characteristics. The result portrays that electrospun membranes are excellent alternatives to air filters. They have versatile applications, the ability to control fiber diameter and porosity, high filtration efficiency, as well as low-pressure drop.

Marichelvam Mariappan Kadarkarainadar et al.[6] conducted research to combat the impact emissions of dust, gas, and particulate matter from industries have on the environment, particularly from cement industries. The researchers developed an eco-friendly air filter using natural sisal fiber coated with zinc oxide and iron oxide nanoparticles to enhance dust absorption. A new bag filter was designed using Sisal fibre as a filtering media coated with metal oxide. The dust adsorption rate of the zinc oxide-coated sisal fibre was 34.4, which was higher than the other samples tested. The sisal fibre-based filter showed impressive results and potential use in cement industries.

Khandsuren Badgar et al.[7] conducted research that aims to explore sustainable applications of nanofibres in various industries including agriculture and Water treatment. The research focuses on areas such as filtration, biomedicine, energy storage as well as food packaging. The methodology of the researchers involves the production of natural nanofibres from plants and agricultural waste. It also involves reinforcing them with nanomaterials and utilizing them in agriculture for plant protection and growth enhancement. The results of the research were astonishing, showing that nanofibres deliver promising results for encapsulating bio-active molecules, in tissue engineering for implantation, and in the food industry for active-intelligent food packaging. This process can be used to enhance food safety and quality.

Lei Hou et al.[8] researched to investigate the quantitative effects of Coulomb forces on the filtration efficiency of aerosol particles. The quantitative effects were investigated by using a three-dimensional random fibre model. The researchers established computational flow models, particles as well as electric fields to investigate filtration efficiency. Variation tendencies of filtration efficiency and

pressure drop were studied. These studies were based on factors like fiber potential, and particle charge-to-mass ratio. These studies provided insights into high-efficiency air filter design.

Paxton Juuti et al,[9] conducted research to address the issue of filters that become breeding grounds for Bacteria which can then be dispersed in the air, by incorporating antibacterial materials into filter media. The methodology of the researchers included adding silver nanofibres directly to the fibre fabrication process and also coating pre-existing filters with silver nanoparticles by using a liquid flame spray. The methods which were used by the researchers were found to be suitable for producing antibacterial filters. These were also tailorable and scalable for specific needs.

Chih-Te Wang et al,[10] researched to enhance filtration efficiency for airborne particles, a critical aspect in air quality control. The researchers utilize electrospinning to fabricate smooth and porous PMMA polymer fibres. The researchers also explore the impact of fibre characteristics on filtration performance. The researchers concluded that high surface voltage was detected on small-diameter PMMA fibres indicating better charge retention as well as filtration efficiency. The researchers concluded that the porous fibres exhibited superior performance in single fibre efficiency and filtration quality compared to smooth fibres.

Jozef Macala et al,[11] conducted research to address the issue of increasing nitrogen oxide emissions into the atmosphere primarily from human activities like burning fossil fuels in furnaces and automobile engines. The methodology of the researchers involved experimental measurement of natural Zeolite clinoptilolite's ability to adsorb nitrogen oxide. It also involves the measurement of the catalytic effectiveness of modified clinoptilolite. Zeolite samples were cleaned with a solution of ammonium chloride and then dried at 270 degrees Celsius for 24 hours and then used as a packing filter. Untreated natural Zeolite causes a 19.7% decrease in investigated compounds in exhaust gases. Thermally activated zeolite causes a mean effectiveness of 31, with the highest effectiveness observed between fifteen and thirty seconds of action.

Sakthivel.S et al,[12] conducted research to develop needle-punched nonwoven fabrics for filtering air by using reclaimed fibres, focusing on improving air filtration as well as other properties. The methodology of the researchers included manipulating machine variables to alter fabric physical parameters like air permeability and pore size distribution. The nonwoven fabrics included reclaimed cotton (60%) and polyester (40%) blend. The effects of calendering on pore size and filtration properties were assessed to enhance filter performance. The study showed improved filtration characteristics due to the calendering process.

Xiaochao Gao et al,[13] conducted research on efficient air filtration systems using sustainable methods. The researchers utilized silk fibroin which is a protein-based material to create a nano-filter

for air filtration. The green nano-fibre constructed from silk fibroin demonstrated high filtration efficiency for various particle sizes which showcases its potential for air filtration.

Sarah J Dunnett et al.[14] researched to develop a numerical method to model the effect of particle deposits collected by fibrous filters on the flow fields within the filter and its impact on further deposition. The researchers created a single fibre model where the deposit was represented as a porous layer on a fibrous surface. Mathematical methods were used to determine the flow field inside as well as outside the porous layer. Once the flow field for a specific deposit is obtained, the equations of motion of the particles are solved to investigate the feedback effects of the deposit on further deposition.

From these research papers, it has been observed that the researchers worked on various fibers like hemp, jute, silk cocoon, coir fibers, cellulose fiber suspension, electrospun membranes, sisal fibers, nanofibres, PMMA polymer fibers, zeolite, unwoven cotton with polyester blend as well as silk fibroins for collection of dust particles and other air pollutants for purification of air. However, it has been realized that no such device has been created for the collection of dust and other air pollutants from automobiles which are a major contributor to air pollution. Due to this, the objective of this research has been decided to use low-cost natural fiber to create a device for the extraction of dust from automobile exhausts.

Methodology

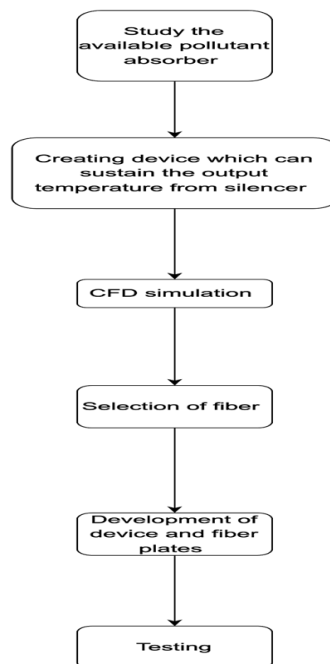


Figure 1: Research Procedure

The methodology shown in Figure 1 aims to develop a sustainable and efficient filtration device utilizing natural fibers to absorb pollutants from automotive exhaust gases. The device is designed to integrate with existing exhaust systems. Various natural fibers have been evaluated for their pollutant absorption properties, including particulate matter, nitrogen oxides, carbon monoxide, and hydrocarbons. The most promising fiber (s) have been selected to create a prototype filter, which has undergone controlled testing to assess filtration efficiency and impact on engine performance. A prototype has been designed including an expander to increase the surface area for absorption of pollutants.

Selected pollutants that can be filtered using the device:-

This project aims to absorb particulate matter from exhaust gases using a device that can externally be attached to the exhaust pipe efficiently and cost-effectively keeping sustainability in mind.

Creating the device:-

a. Analytical calculator:-

The temperature of the gases released from the exhausts of automobiles is very high which cannot be sustained by most natural fibers without reducing its temperature. Thus an expander device has been created which has been inspired by the design of a silencer. The expander device also creates a larger surface area for larger absorption of dust particles by the natural fibres. The area of cross section has been calculated by using venturi conversion to diversion relationship.

Two ratios have been taken under consideration which are $\frac{1}{2}$ and $\frac{1}{3}$

If ratio = $\frac{1}{2}$

then diameter (d) is = 0.08 meters

X is the difference between the radius of the inlet and the outlet

$$x = (D-d)/2$$

$$x = (0.08-0.04)/2$$

$$x = 0.02\text{m}$$

Length(l) is the distance between the inlet and the outlet

$$\tan\theta = x/l$$

$$l=x/\tan\theta$$

$$\text{If } \theta=30$$

$$l=0.02/\tan 30$$

$$l=0.0346\text{m}$$

$$l=34.6\text{mm}$$

$$\text{If ratio} = 1/3$$

then diameter (d) is = 0.12 meters

X is the difference between the radius of the inlet and the outlet

$$x = (D-d)/2$$

$$x = (0.12-0.04)/2$$

$$x=0.04\text{m}$$

Length(l) is the distance between the inlet and the outlet

$$\tan\theta=x/l$$

$$l=x/\tan\theta$$

$$\text{If } \theta=30$$

$$l=0.04/\tan 30$$

$$l=0.0692\text{m}$$

$$l=69.2\text{mm}$$

Based on the above ratio the Expander 2D device has been made and analyzed using the CFD simulation.

b.CFD calculation:-

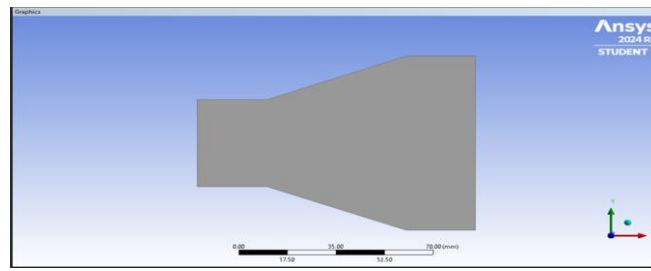


Figure 2: Expander geometry in FLUENT geometric section.

Based on the analytical calculation a 2D design of the expander has been made in ANSYS FLUENT geometric section. Figure 2 shows the same. The conversion cone will act as input from the exhaust pipe of the vehicle, whereas the diversion section will be output to the environment. The main purpose of the simulation is to identify the optimum length at the end of the diversion section, where the temperature should be adequate to place the natural fibre plates.

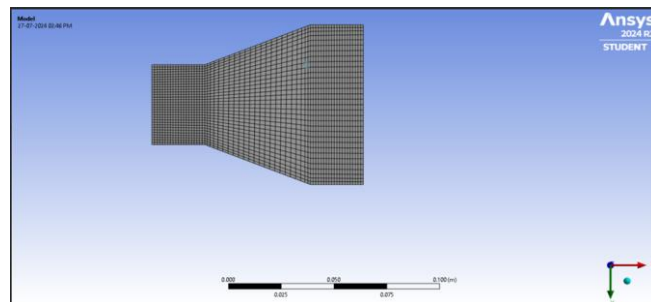


Figure 3: Mesh section of expander in ANSYS-FLUENT

Figure 3 shows the mesh setup for the expander in ANSYS_FLUENT, the mesh was selected based on the orthogonal quality check and aspect ratio. It was found that varying mesh between 0.7 to 1 mm doesn't have much impact on the results. Hence to save the computational power 1 mm mesh was adopted.

In the next phase, the mesh file was imported to the solver section of the FLUENT. Where the pressure-based solver was selected and the gravity effect was kept off. However, the energy equation was kept on checking the temperature at input and output. The k-epsilon model was selected to capture the flow effect, whereas at the input of the expander, the mass flow rate from the exhaust is given as input value, and in the result temperature and velocity contour were observed. The flow contour is presented in the next section of the paper.

Selection of Fibre:-

Further natural fibres have been selected based on their thermal limit of degradation as well as their dust absorption capacity including the pore size as well as the cost of the raw fiber. Initially, 4 fibres: Hemp, jute, abaca, and coir had been considered because of the high heat resistance while maintaining absorption capacity. After careful analysis Jute and Coir fibers have been chosen as the

most efficient while also being cheaper than other commercial fibres as abaca and hemp fibers were not easily available and were more expensive than jute and coir. Table 1 shows the various fibers and their properties explored for this research.

Table 1: Natural Fibre explored for this research

fibre	thermal resistance (in Celsius)	Diameter size (in microns)	cost per kg (in INR)
hemp	250 C	15-20	400 Rs
abaca	340 C	100-300	230 Rs
coir	400 C	10-20.	25 Rs
jute	550 C	17-20.	54 Rs

Development of the device and the fibre plates:-

Expander dimensions are finalized based on the CFD simulation and the fiber selection. Figure 4 shows the expander exploded CAD model. The device's inlet pipe section will be attached to the vehicle's exhaust system. The device works on the principle of a venture system the exhaust gas from the exhaust system still enters the device inlet at high velocity, and at the expander section, the velocity will drop, which result in a drop in the temperature. This will also make the flow speed slower, now this slow-speed gas will collapse with the fibre plates, which are attached at the end of the device. However, when these gases collapse with the fibre the pollutant particle will stick to the fibre and clean air will go into the atmosphere.

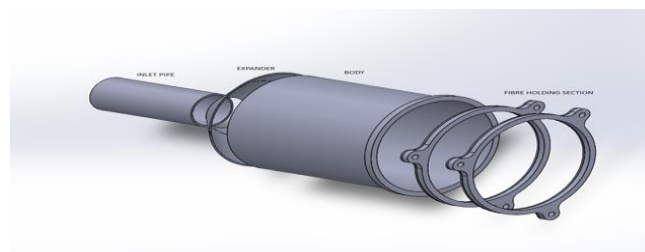


Figure 4: Expander 3D model

Fibre plates from jute have been created by cutting out unprocessed bags of jute into circles and fitting them into 3-D printed stencils. As woven coir fibres are not easily available, sheets from coir have been manually made by using medical acetone as a binding agent and binding the coir fibres by spraying them with acetone and then fusing them by pressing down the fibres with a hot iron. Figure 5 shows the actual prototype device made of 3D printing technology, using PLA as the base material. The device is made in such a way that it should be easy in use as well as maintenance to be simpler. It can be observed from Figure 5 that, to fit the fiber plate with the expander a simple fastening mechanism has been used, due to this when every fiber ends its life it will be easy to add a new fiber plate and fit it again to the exhaust system for further operation.



Figure 5: Prototype 3D printed device for testing purposes with fiber plate.

Testing procedure:-

To test the fibre absorption capacity and efficiency of the device experiment was performed by using talcum powder and an air pump at 50 watts at a speed of 47.75m/s . 2 grams of powder were weighed using a chemical scale and passed through a funnel into the inlet of the device. Air has been passed for 25 seconds per test section leading to deposition in the various layers. This layer was weighed before and after to measure the amount of absorption. This has been given in the results section of the research paper. Different layers of jute and coir have been attached to the outlet to check the efficiency of the layers and the resultant back pressure.

Figure 6 represents how the deposition looked in the various layers after testing with 4 layers of jute. The concentric pattern shows an even deposition



Figure 6: Particle deposition on fiber plates.

Result and Discussion

As mentioned in the methodology section, to investigate the fiber pollutant absorption rate the device has been created. which can help the natural fiber to withstand the exhaust temperature. Figure 7 shows the temperature contour of the same. From the figure, it can be seen that a venture ratio of $\frac{1}{3}$ works better when a substantial temperature drop is required. These simulation results also help in

deciding the length of the expander which is directly proportional to the manufacturing cost of the device.

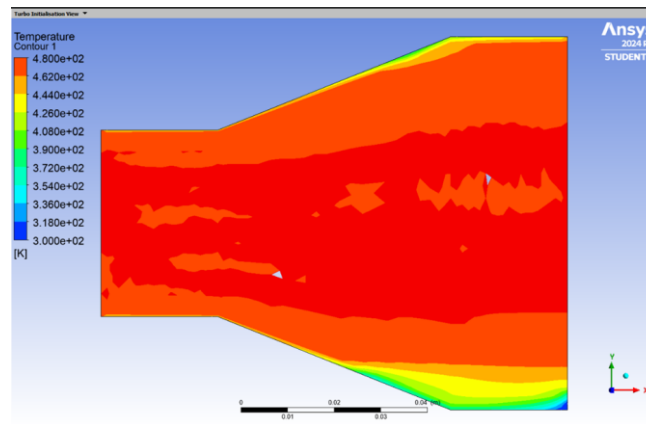


Figure 7: temperature contour of expander from FLUENT

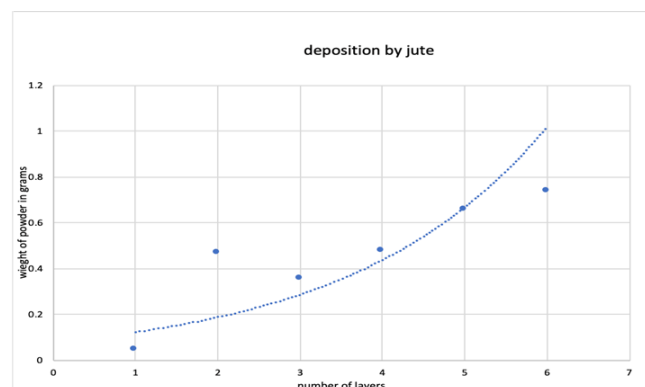


Figure 8: residue stored in an expander with many jute layers attached to the device.

Figure 8 shows the quantity of the residue collected in the device while performing the test using the jute fiber. From the figure, it can be observed that the number of layers has increased the quantity of the particles in the device. This suggests that the number of layers added to the device was responsible for creating the turbulent flow inside the device that results in back pressure. This phenomenon doesn't allow the fiber plate to absorb the maximum amount of particulate matter. Hence a new test has been conducted to check how much particulate matter fiber plates were absorbing. Figure 9 shows the absorption capacity of just fiber by adding the number of layers. It was found that 4 number of layers are optimum for the absorption of particulate matter while jute is potential fiber. However, after 4 number of layers, the absorption has reduced due to the backpressure created by direct obstruction to the exhaust gas because of the fiber layers.

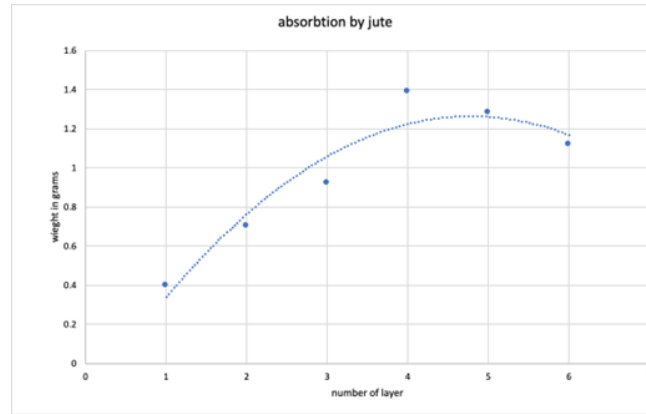


Figure 9: Test result of jute fiber absorption

When the test was conducted for the coir fiber, the deposition of particulate matter observed in the device was less compared to the jute fiber at the same number of fiber layers. The reason was may higher GSM fiber was used or the chemical composition. Figure 10 represents the same testing result, where it can be observed that particulate matter deposition in coir fiber is around 0.75 gm whereas in jute fiber it was 1 gm. So here the coir performs better than jute fiber.

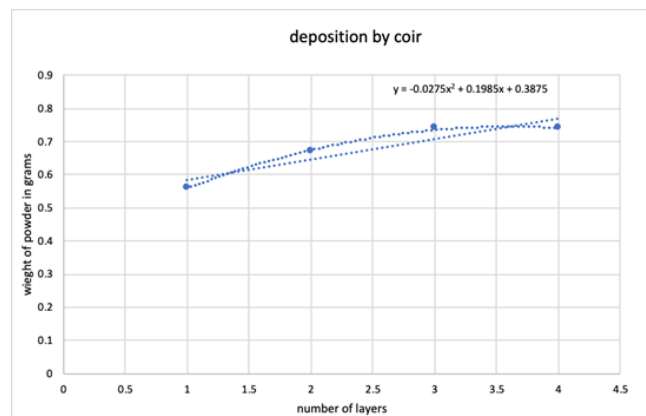


Figure 10: Coir fiber particulates matter deposition in the device.

When the particulate matter absorption was absorbed in the coir fiber by adding the number of layers while testing, the absorption capacity of the coir was lesser than that of the jute fiber at the same velocity and same number of layers. Figure 11 shows the testing graph of coir fiber absorption with many layers tested in the device.

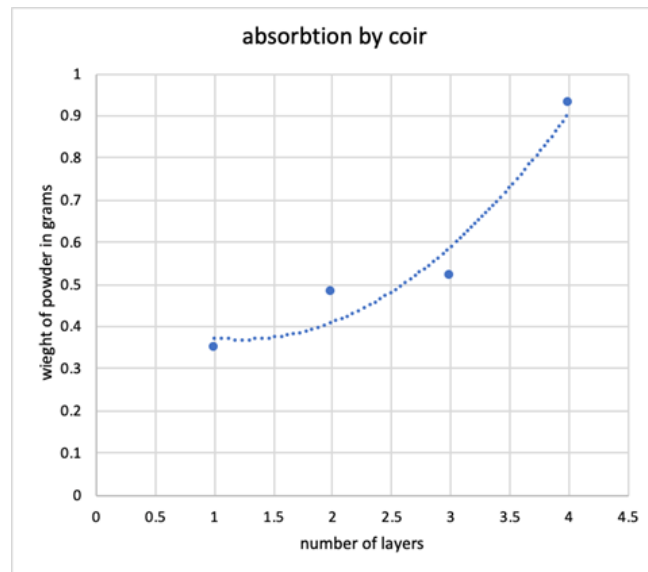


Fig 11. This graph shows the absorption of powder on the coir layers

The fibres are successfully able to absorb the particulate matter proving that the system functions as it intended. The particulate matter was entrapped as the design intended, making for a successful result showing that the exhaust material could be deposited and captured using natural fibre. Finally based on the simulation and the experimental testing the conclusion is carried out, which is written in next section

Conclusion

This research successfully demonstrates the feasibility of using natural fibers as filtration materials for automotive exhaust gases. The key innovation of this study is the development of a device inspired by the design of a silencer, which reduces the temperature of exhaust gases to prevent the burning of natural fibers, thereby enabling their use in filtration.

The CFD simulation provided critical insights into the design of the expander device, indicating that a venture ratio of 1/3 was optimal for a substantial temperature drop, which is essential for preserving the integrity of the natural fibers. The simulation results showed a temperature drop from 420°C to approximately 150°C, making it feasible for fibers like jute and coir to withstand the exhaust gases without degradation.

In the experimental phase, both jute and coir fibers were evaluated for their particulate matter absorption capacity. The jute fiber demonstrated superior performance, with a particulate matter absorption rate of 1 gram per 2 grams of talcum powder at a velocity of 47.75 m/s using 4 layers of fiber. Coir fiber, on the other hand, absorbed around 0.75 grams under the same conditions. These results suggest that while both fibers are effective, jute fibers offer a higher absorption efficiency. The prototype device, constructed using 3D printing technology and PLA material, proved to be user-friendly and easy to maintain. The design allows for the simple replacement of fiber plates, ensuring the device's practicality for real-world applications. Furthermore, a real-world device needs to be

made to test in the real world of experimental tests by directly attaching the device to the end of the exhaust system.

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