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Novel nanofibers composite based clay: synthesis, characterization and intrinsic properties

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Abstract: This work focuses on the study of red brick doped with reed fibers. These properties have been studied using characterizations techniques. In this context, we used Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR), scanning electron microscopy (SEM) and X-ray diffraction (XRD) analysis on the stability configuration, chemical structures and surface properties (morphology and porosity). The synthesis protocol is followed according to the manufacturing process of bricks on an industrial scale with well-defined standards and specifications. SEM and XRD experimental results showed that doping of clay fibers could effectively increase pore size and grain size as an indication of the removal of non-crystalline cellulosic materials from the fibers. The benefits of using fiber additives in clay bricks are then confirmed from a performance and environmental point of view.

Keywords: clay bricks, cellulosic fiber, composites, structural and morphological characterization

1. Introduction

Over the past decade, with the overexploitation and depletion of resources Fossil resources and severe environmental degradation are among the increased interest in developing low-cost applications and renewable resources (Bilgiç and Bilgic, 2019). Clay composites have important advantages in the development and innovation of polymers such as epoxy (Park and Jana, 2003; Messersmith, 1994), methyl methacrylate (Okamoto et al., 2001), nylon (Choi et al., 2001), polyaniline (Cheng et al., 2005), polyethylene (Lu et al., 2005) and polypropylene (Wang et al., 2007). It is well known that the parent material has a major cause of environmental pollution due to the emission of smoke during production. In addition, the non-biodegradability of synthetic polymers results in their elimination and recycling. On the other hand, natural biodegradable cellulosic fibers can be easily incorporated into composites that have improved properties and overcome the problems of climate change (Wang et al., 2007; Ray and Bousmina, 2005). Hence, a right approach is to improve and make it more cost effective material is the addition of natural fiber that have recently gained attention to ameliorate the composite matrix for based clay for their utilisation in building, because of many advantage such as low density, nonabrasive character, high specific strength, low cost and biocompatibility (Bilgic and Bilgic, 2019; Chen et al., 2015). Various forms of cellulose have been investigated as reinforcing agent in clay. Therefore, it is necessary to use natural fibers and incorporate them into clay in order to reduce the production cost by partially replacing the clay by low cost mixture of clay and the present form of natural cellulosic fibers without destroying the biodegradation performance of the polymer matrix (Bilgiç and Bilgic , 2019; Chen et al., 2015). The composites are cellulose (Park et al., 2004; Park et al., 2006), chitosan (Wang et al., 2007 and Zhuang et al., 2007), polylactide (PLA) (Ray et al., 2003), gelatin (Li et al., 2003) and poly (3-hydroxy butyrate) (PHB) (Maiti et al., 2003). The cellulose is a molecular extracted from vegetable plants, it is a renewable polymer largely available in nature, which can be used in material applications. The annual production of cellulose biomass is about one trillion tons (Mas et al., 2005), implying the inexhaustible nature of cellulose as a natural raw material (Ioelovich, 2008). Cellulosic nanocrystals (CNCs) have been used in various types of applications such as textiles, gels, optics, aircraft, pharmaceuticals, food additives, composites, electronics, dental repair and adsorption (Mccormick, 2010). cellulose contains hydroxyl (-OH) groups on the glucose cycle acting as coordination sites with heavy metal ions, making it an attractive natural adsorbent (Ngah and Hanafiah, 2008; Thirumavalavan et al., 2009). In this study,

red clay doped by cellulosic fibers of reed plant, they were processed by a simple method to create a porous material in order to assess their feasibility as nanofiber reinforcing material and for developing the utilisation of red brick in many applications such as building (Kbiri et al., 2020; Kbiri et al., 2022) and other biomaterial applications. Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR), scanning electron microscope (SEM), X-Ray fluorescence spectroscopy and X-ray diffraction (XRD) analysis were used to study the chemical structure, morphology of raw fibers and processed clay. This study aims to provide a systematic overview of how cellulosic reed plant fibers can be used to modify the porosity of red brick in the building for a novel ecological construction.

2. Experimental section

2.1. Materials

The reed plant stick as can be seen in Fig. 1, was ground using a drill with wood polishing disc, and the powder was manually collected in a plastic bag as shown in Fig. 2 shows the sample before and after grinding. Then, the samples were prepared as follows: we doped the clay with different percentages of fiber reed plant in the presence of water. Table (1) illustrates composition of the prepared products.



Fig. 1. Reed plant



Fig. 2. Crushed reed plant with clay

Sample	Clay (kg)	Fibers (%)	Water (L)
Sample 1	9.75	2.5	1.75
Sample 2	9.50	5	1.75
Sample 3	9.25	7.5	1.75
Sample 4	9.0	10	1.75
Sample 5	8.5	15	1.75

Table 1. Composition of the prepared products

2.2. Photograph of cellulosic fibers from 25°C to 825 °C

Following an experimental part and after a thermal heating to 825°C, the samples have been subjected to the brick manufacturing process in a Jbel Annour brickyard, specialist in the manufacture of red bricks. The synthesis of the samples was carried out according to the industrial protocol. The photos of our products are illustrated in the Figs. 3-4.

It is observed that the color of the samples below are remarkable. This color is because of the elements that make up this present brick. We also observe a circular gray color in the interior part of the brig and that its exterior part remains red. This aspect is the fingerprint of cellulosic fibers like tree rings. When the percentage of fiber has increased, the diameter of ring increase as shown in Fig. 5. These differences present intrinsic properties of fibers of reed plant used.



Fig. 3. Photograph of samples of clay doped by reed plant fibers at 25°C



Fig. 4. Photograph of red brick doped by reed plant fibers at 825°C

Fig. 5 represents the difference between the samples. Resistance of fiber varies considerably depending on the direction of the applied force, i.e. parallel, radial or tangential to the grain of the wood. Wood is strongest when stressed in the direction of the grain, in tension or in compression.



Fig. 5. Drawing describes the difference between the samples

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) spectroscopy

FTIR spectra were taken using a Perkin Elmer Frontier FTIR spectrometer. The scanning range was from 600 to 4000 cm⁻¹ with a spectral resolution of 4 cm⁻¹ and 33 scans. A few milligrams of each product were taken, and they measured directly by FT-IR spectrometer UATR. The FTIR experiments results are show in Fig. 6. The broad peak ranging from 3660 to 2990 cm⁻¹ was because of hydroxyl groups stretching vibration present in cellulose, hemicellulose, and lignin. The vibration peaks at 2919 cm⁻¹ and 2854 cm⁻¹ revealed asymmetric and symmetric CH₂ stretching in cellulose/hemicellulose, respectively. The peaks at 1730 cm⁻¹, 1620 cm⁻¹, 1245 cm⁻¹ and 1023 cm⁻¹ corresponded to ester carbonyl group stretching, C=O stretching in carboxylic acid in cellulose, O-CH₃ stretching in lignin and C-O stretching vibration (Oushabi et al., 2018; Atiqah et al., 2018; Minhajul et al., 2017). The clay mineral samples shown in Fig. 5 can be attributed to kaolinite by IR transmittance spectra. Their IR spectra demonstrate fullyrepresented and well-resolved Si-O-Si and Al-O-Si bands of the mineral lattice, as shown in Table 2 (Smilja et al., 2003). From the FT-IR spectrum, it is clear that the clay and cellulosic fiber peaks are visible as can be seen in Fig. 5. Major peaks like the alkane peak due to the presence of the alkyl group in the modified clay, they are finding at 9000-1020 cm⁻¹ (Chen et al., 2015). From 1000.15 cm⁻¹ to 1020.87 cm⁻¹ due to C-H trans waggin vibration present in the crystalline cellulose can be observed in the composite, the bridge Si-O-Si, Si-O stretching of clay structure. The band about 446 cm⁻¹ assigned to lattice vibrations. These peaks are particularly dominant in the samples S1, S2, S3 and S4; the peaks of clay and fibers overlapped. The displacement of the main peak position due to the effect of the addition of fibers.



Fig. 6. FTIR spectra for (A) raw clay and clay doped by fibers from 2.5% to 10%

Peaks resulting from the combination of these elements can be observed. While in the S1 composite, the clay and fiber peaks are more evident individually, in the S5 composite, the peaks are more distorted. This implies a better interaction between the clay and the fibers and because they contain a higher percentage of fibers, see sample S5. The peaks shift due to the increase in the percentage of fiber. This may be due to better dispersion and exfoliation of the clay as a red brick building material. The FTIR results showed that the clay structure has a high porosity to reduce the thermal and acoustic flow. In the right part, we have added the absorption spectra to deduce that the absorbance decreases as a function of the percentage of fibers to 10%. Nevertheless, the fibers leave pores after the heat treatment of the brick.

FTIR analysis for functional groups revealed the presence of various characteristic functional groups in the samples of clay and clay doped by fibers. The frequency range and functional group obtained from transmittance spectra are presented in Table 2 (Bilgiç C. and Bilgic S., 2019; Chen et al., 2015)

Peak	Transmittance (%)	Frequency range (cm ⁻¹) Functional grou			
	Raw clay				
1	89.26	446.51	Si-O stretching,		
			Si-O-Fe Stretching		
2	94.64	1006.87	Si-O-Si, Si-CH=CH ₂ :		
			(C-H) trans waggin		
			vibration		
			Si-O stretching		
Peak	Transmittance on (%)	Frequency range on (cm ⁻¹)	Functional group		
		Clay + 2.5% of Fibers			
1	-	-	-		
2	97.92	1000.15	Si-O-Si, Si-CH=CH ₂ :		
			(C-H) trans waggin		
			vibration.		
			Si-O stretching		
Peak	Transmittance (%)	Frequency range (cm ⁻¹)	Functional group		
		Clay + 5% of Fibers			
1	92.98	431.32	Si-O stretching,		
			Si-O-Fe Stretching		
2	97.28	1014.56	Si-O-Si, Si-CH=CH ₂ :		
			(C-H) trans waggin		
			vibration		
			Si-O stretching		
Peak	Transmittance on (%)	Frequency range on (cm ⁻¹)	Functional group		
		Clay + 7.5% of Fibers			
1	88.15	445.99	Si-O stretching,		
			Si-O-Fe Stretching		
2	93.90	1007.04	Si-O-Si, Si-CH=CH ₂ :		
			(C-H) trans waggin		
			vibration		
			Si-O stretching		
Peak	Transmittance (%)	Frequency range (cm ⁻¹)	Functional group		
	Clay + 10% of Fibers				
1	88.89	445.46	Si-O stretching,		
			Si-O-Fe Stretching		
2	94.19	1012.68	Si-O-Si, Si-CH=CH ₂ :		
			(C-H) trans waggin		
			vibration		
			Si-O stretching		

Table 2. FTIR frequency range and functional groups present in the samples

3.2. Scanning electron microscopy analysis

Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images of different composition of composites as shown in Fig. 7A to 7F, there is a significant difference in morphology of the studied samples. The stark contrast between crystalline cellulose, modified clay, composite S1 and S6 are clearly visible from their SEM images at 8500× magnification. As can be seen from Fig. 7A to Fig. 7D, from the SEM images, it is evident that there is no separate cellulosic fiber visible in composite. Moreover, clay particles are not distinct either. In composite S1, the structure of the composite surface is compact. The surface is rough and porous. It is impossible to distinguish either cellulose or clay even at 1000× magnification. Cellulose fiber has changed its structure. Instead of fibrous structure, it looks more like slates here. In composite S5, with 15% crystalline cellulose, the structure is more filled and less porous. It is difficult to separate individual particles. The structure looks layered with smoother surface. The surface of the clay doped with 2.5% of fibres as shown in Fig. 7A is coarse and rough. There are a few non-uniform aggregates on the surface. The surface is characterised with heterogeneous non-uniform particles, which dye molecules can adhere to. There are also holes on the surface that can encapsulate (Sathish et al., 2021; El-Hami, 2022).



at 8500× magnification, wd 10.7mm



D. SEM image of clay with 10% at 8500× magnification, wd 10.7mm



at 7500× magnification, wd 10.5mm



E. SEM image of clay with 15% at 8500× magnification, wd 10.7mm

at \$500× magnification, wd 10.3mm



F. SEM image of clay modified inside of sample at 8500× magnification, wd 10.7mm

Fig. 7. SEM images of clay doped by different percentage of fibers

3.3. X-ray diffraction (XRD)

XRD analysis is most commonly used to determine the crystallinity and physical structure of the sample after the modification. The Fig.8 exhibits the XRD pattern for raw and C8 treated of date palm Phoenix dactylifera fiber (DPF). The diffractogram of raw and C8 treated of date palm Phoenix dactylifera fiber (DPF) shows two peaks commonly seen in DPF (Sathish et al., 2021; Bezazi et al., 2020; Perera et al., 2022). The first peak at (16.6°) corresponding to the 101 planes represents the presence of amorphous constituents of cellulose, hemicellulose and lignin. The second peak (23°) corresponds to the 200 plane represents the presence of α -cellulose (Sathish et al., 2021; Bezazi, et al., 2020; Perera, et al., 2022). The experimental results reveal that during surface treatments with fibers, there is no structural transformation from cellulose. The XRD diffraction pattern of clay doped by fibers of reed plant (Fig. 8) and the quantification data reveal that there are four major compounds (alumina, silica, calcite or calcium carbonate and burnt ochre or iron oxide) in the composite (Adebayo et al., 2021; Adebayo et al., 2020). The composite is dominated by calcite, followed by alumina, burn ochre, and silica. The assignments of the peaks are: alumina (Al₂O₃) with 20 of 25.441° (0 1 2), 43.363° (1 1 3), and 54.574 ° (0 2 4) (JCPDS card: 00-010-0173); silica or quartz (SiO₂) with 2θ of 26.587° (101), and 45.809° (201) (JCPDS card: 00-033-1161); calcium carbonate (CaCO₃) with 20 of 29.406° (1 0 4), 31.418° (0 0 6), and 50.319° (1 1 6) (JCPDS card: 00-005-0586); and iron oxide (Fe₂O₃) with 20 of 33.134° (1 0 4), 35.752° (1 1 0), and 59.975 ° (1 1 3) (JCPDS card: 00-033-0664). The clay doped by fibers has high degree of crystallinity.



Fig. 8. XRD patterns for red brick doped by different percentage of reed fibers

3.4. X-Ray fluorescence spectroscopy

The percentage of silica and aluminium is very important for building and their application for red brick. This indicates the presence of kaolinite (Al₂Si₂O₅(OH)₄). As for calcium, which is relatively high, therefore this material is rich in calcite (CaCO₃). The alumina/silica ratio provides information on the permeability of the material humidity towards an increase pore size of structure for our focus to reduce the thermal and acoustic flow. The greater this ratio, the greater the permeability (Hartman et al., 2006). In our case, this ratio is small Al₂O₃/SiO₂=0.422. This low value is in agreement with the low percentage of humidity (1.41%) estimated by the loss on drying see table 3 (Jensen et al., 2018). The SiO₂/Al₂O₃ molar ratio = 2.3 (maximum substitution of Si⁴⁺ by Al³⁺ is greater than the conventional bentonite value, which is 2.7. This difference indicates the presence of free quartz in the clay fraction in large proportion (Sathish et al., 2021). From the Table 3, we notice that the percentage (%) of elements increases when we add the cellulosic fibers, we can see that the cellulosic fibers have been incorporated into the structure of the clay as shown in the Table 3.

Table 3. Elementary chemical composition of the clay sample

Compound S	Conc 1	Conc 2	Conc 3	Conc 4	Conc 5	Conc 6	Unit
MgO	0.906	2.224	2.287	2.541	2.218	2.204	
Al_2O_3	5.025	12.856	13.558	13.171	13.378	12.015	
SiO ₂	12.157	30.459	32.279	32.813	32.266	29.359	
P_2O_5	0.204	0.394	0.381	0.356	0.355	0.331	
SO ₃	0.579	1.228	0.507	0.82	0.457	0.196	%
K ₂ O	2.293	4.333	4.503	4.042	4.474	4.141	
CaO	1.714	2.833	3.068	2.708	2.992	3.021	
TiO ₂	0.513	0.82	0.85	0.75	0.87	0.767	
Fe ₂ O ₃	5.458	6.981	7.46	6.303	7.751	7.32	

3.5. Particle size analysis

The measurements are carried out on the fraction retained during the screening of the raw clays on the sieve less than 100 μ m. This fraction is then suspended in a solution of sodium hexametaphosphate in a concentration of 1 g/L. The suspension thus obtained is introduced into a granuloma LA-920 laser beam of the HORIBA brand. The particle size distribution is derived from the interaction between a set of particles and the incident laser beam (Choubert et al., 1984; Guillemin and Houzay, 1982 ; Jabaloy et al., 2015).

The properties of good plasticity and high water absorption are related to the fraction of particle size less than 20 μ m, which actually represents the clay fraction.

The particle size and particle size distribution of the different clay shades show:

- A relatively high fraction of average particles: fraction between 0.13 and 1 μm;
- An average fine particle fraction: < 0.13 μm;
- A very small fraction of coarse particles: > 1μm.

	Clay	
Diameter (µm)	Frequence (%)	Frequence cumulee (%)
0.131	0	0
0.150	0.104	0.104
0.172	0.186	0.290
0.197	0.297	0.586
0.226	0.421	1.007
0.259	0.623	1.630
0.296	0.732	2.362
0.339	0.789	3.151
0.389	0.812	3.963
0.445	0.769	4.732
0.510	0.709	5.442
0.584	0.686	6.128
0.669	0.692	6.820
0.766	0.748	7.568
0.877	0.870	8.437
1.005	1.073	9.510

Table 4. The results of the particle size analysis of the fraction below 100 μm

4. Conclusions

The main conclusions of the study, is as follows: it is clear that the clay and the reed fibers can be successfully incorporated to make a composite of clay and their structure very porous. The FTIR and SEM and DRX study showed good incorporation and significant changes in their structure and the XRD diffraction pattern of clay doped by fibers of reed plant and the quantification data reveal that there are four major compounds (alumina, silica, calcite or calcium carbonate and burnt ochre or iron oxide) in the composite of red brick. The FTIR analysis for functional groups revealed the presence of various characteristic functional groups in the samples of clay and clay doped by fibers. In addition, even at different colours and rings variation of the starting components, the composite material was able to show improved properties, although better results were obtained in composite nanofibers where the percentage of cellulose was lower than that of clay. The structure of the composite surface is compact. The surface is rough and porous. It is impossible to distinguish either cellulose or clay even at 1000× magnification. Cellulose fiber has changed its structure. Instead of fibrous structure, it looks more like slates here. The fibers produced from cellulose nanofibers can be used for fiber reinforced strong and environmentally friendly composites. A measuring instrument has been building; it is able to give significant values of thermal and acoustic properties. A study will later provide a systematic overview of how cellulosic reed plant fibers that used to modify the morphology and the thermal and acoustic properties of material nanofibers.

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