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Presentation of Content

In the first article we present, *Design of experiments (DOE) of parts manufactured in 3D printers using composed filaments of PLA and Aluminum* by LÓPEZ-CORELLA, José Alejandro, HERNÁNDEZ-RUIZ, Sergio Iván, VÁZQUEZ-CUEVAS, Ignacio Javier and NAVIDAD-LÓPEZ, Ruben Alejandro, with adscription in Instituto Tecnológico de Nogales, as the next article we present, *Europium metal organic frameworks: Chemical and Optical properties* by SÁNCHEZ-FABILA, Barbara Michelle, LOERA-SERNA, Sandra and GARDUÑO-WILCHES, Ismael A., with adscription in Universidad Autónoma Metropolitana and CONACyT, as the next article we present, *Sn₃Sb₂S₆ thin films for photovoltaic applications* by GONZALEZ-GARZA, Jorge Oswaldo, GARCÍA-GUILLEN, Grisel, RÍOS-RAMÍREZ, Bernardino and DE RAMÓN-CONDÉ, Andres, with adscription in Universidad Politécnica de García, as the last article we present, *Destructive Test in 3D Printing* by LERMA-GARCÍA, Miguel Angel, ROSALES-GALLEGOS, Israel Atzin, TUDÓN-MARTÍNEZ, Alberto and DOMÍNGUEZ-HERNÁNDEZ, Carlos Alberto, with adscription in Universidad Tecnológica de San Luis Potosí.

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Design of experiments (DOE) of parts manufactured in 3D printers using composed filaments of PLA and Aluminum

Diseño de experimentos (DOE) de piezas fabricadas en impresoras 3D utilizando filamentos compuestos de PLA y Aluminio

LÓPEZ-CORELLA, José Alejandro†*, HERNÁNDEZ-RUIZ, Sergio Iván, VÁZQUEZ-CUEVAS, Ignacio Javier and NAVIDAD-LÓPEZ, Ruben Alejandro

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Abstract

The Department of Mechanical Metal (Mechatronic Engineering) of the Technological Institute of Nogales was one of the first national degrees to offer in its study plans the specialty of plastic injection molding (IMCE-MIP-2017-01), with the eager to continue innovating and evolving in this area, we present the following research work, with which we experimented and generated knowledge to determine the mechanical properties of parts manufactured in 3D printers, with polymer composite materials (PLA) and metallic powders (Aluminum). In the first place, the filament formed by a matrix of PLA and an ALUMINUM reinforcement was created, which was extruded in a molding machine manufactured inside in the molding laboratory of this Institute, taking as consideration that the reinforcing material in this case aluminum the following percentages will be 0% and 20%. Placing these filaments in a suitable printer for the manufacture of 3D parts with composite materials to which an analysis of experiments was performed to determine what percentage of composite material has better mechanical properties

PLA Filament, Composite Material, Design of Experiments (DOE)

Resumen

El departamento de Metal Mecánica (Ingeniería Mecatrónica) del Instituto Tecnológico de Nogales fue de las primeras licenciaturas a nivel nacional en ofrecer dentro de sus planes de estudio la especialidad de moldeo por inyección de plásticos (IMCE-MIP-2017-01), con el afán de continuar innovando y evolucionando en esta área, se presenta el siguiente trabajo de investigación, con el cual se experimentó y generó conocimiento para determinar las propiedades mecánicas de piezas fabricadas en impresoras 3D, con materiales compuestos de polímero (PLA) y polvos metálico (Aluminio). En primer lugar, se creó el filamento formado por una matriz de PLA y un refuerzo de ALUMINIO, el cual fue extruido en una máquina moldeadora fabricada dentro en el laboratorio de moldeo de este Instituto, tomando como consideración que el material de refuerzo en este caso aluminio serán los siguientes porcentajes 0% y 20%. Colocando estos filamentos en una impresora adecuada para la fabricación de piezas en 3D con materiales compuestos a las cuales se les realizó un análisis de experimentos para determinar qué porcentaje de material compuesto tiene mejores propiedades mecánicas.

Filamento PLA, Material compuesto, diseño de experimentos (DOE)

Citation: LÓPEZ-CORELLA, José Alejandro, HERNÁNDEZ-RUIZ, Sergio Iván, VÁZQUEZ-CUEVAS, Ignacio Javier and NAVIDAD-LÓPEZ, Ruben Alejandro. Design of experiments (DOE) of parts manufactured in 3D printers using composed filaments of PLA and Aluminum. Journal of Innovative Engineering. 2023. 7-20: 1-6

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Introduction

Conventional manufacturing processes are based on the use of resources with a large capacity of control elements to achieve very high levels of precision and reliability. The use of computer systems in the design, manufacturing and simulation engineering phases of a product, in combination with other techniques based on mechatronics, have managed to raise production systems to high levels of efficiency Mesa María (2015). Within the manufacturing processes of a product, three groups of technologies can be distinguished, depending on the method of obtaining the required geometry:

- **Conformative technologies:** Molds or preforms are used to achieve the geometry of the part. This set encompasses all known molding techniques.
- **Subtractive technologies:** The specific geometry is obtained by removing material from a larger geometry. It includes techniques such as machining, EDM and cutting by water jet or laser.
- **Additive technologies:** geometry is obtained by adding material layer by layer according to a virtual 3D design, without resorting to molds and without removing material.

This research is focused on the use of additive technology, specifically 3D printing with composite materials, modifying the mechanical properties of the manufactured parts, generating knowledge that greatly contributes to the contribution of advantages in the field of education.

State of the Art

At the Polytechnic University of Madrid, Technical School of Industrial Engineering, the aluminum castability study was carried out with models made in PLA by 3D printing, the objective of which is to obtain unique parts for prototyping or very small print runs per the casting process with lost models in polymers manufactured by 3D printing, a casting process basically consists of pouring liquid metal into a mold with the geometry of the part to be manufactured inside and its subsequent solidification and cooling.

To achieve this end, the traditional molding system (green molding and chemical molding) will be maintained. The main variant of the project is the replacement of the molds created from any material with the possibility of being machined (metal, wood, resins, waxes, among others) with the cost of tooling that entails and using 3D technology. In the study we proceed to the union of both technologies, 3D printing and the casting process, manufacturing a model in a polymer using a 3D printer. The manufacture of the models is carried out by the material deposition system from a coil Bustos Carolina (2016).

In the Department of Continuous Media Mechanics and Theory of Structures of the Higher Technical School of Engineering at the University of Seville, work was done on the development of an additive manufacturing system for composite materials, as well as the characterization of the material used. Said system is related to a 3D printer that allows the use of two types of materials: thermoplastic filament (nylon) and composite filament (fiberglass, carbon fiber and Kevlar). The novelty of the printer is the manufacture with fiber reinforcements, which allows obtaining parts with better rigidity and resistance properties than the usual ones obtained with printers for plastic materials Mesa María (2015).

In the Faculty of Biotechnology of the University of Ljubljana in Slovenia in conjunction with the Faculty of Mechanical Engineering in Sarajevo, they are working on research related to the effect of the wood contained in the properties of the filaments used in 3D printing Mirko Kariz (2017).

System Components

Polymer (PLA)

Polymers based on renewable or biodegradable resources are generating growing interest, both in society in general and in the plastics industry, as well as in the agricultural sector, since it would mean an outlet for their products towards different markets. Poly (lactic acid) PLA is a synthetic thermoplastic polymer from the family of alpha hydroxy acids or aliphatic polyesters derived 100% from renewable raw materials, which are produced from lactic acid Valero Manuel (2013).

Lactic acid is produced by anaerobic fermentation of carbon-containing substrates, either pure (glucose, lactose) or impure (starch, mixtures) with bacteria and fungi. PLA molecules can be synthesized through a lactic acid condensation polymerization process at a temperature not less than 120 degrees Celsius. PLA is characterized by its good mechanical properties compared to other thermoplastic polymers (such as PET, the best-known thermoplastic polyester). PLA also has good barrier properties against odors and flavors, likewise it has high resistance to fats and oils, making it appropriate for packaging oils, dry and perishable products. PLA has been used in biomedical applications in drug-controlled release systems, thanks to its biodegradability. To improve the properties of PLA, it can be mixed with plasticizing agents, metals or other polymers.

Metallic powders

The metallic powders available for additive manufacturing are largely the same as those used in many areas of industrial application (such as: aerospace, automotive, medical devices, among others) Escorsa Enric (2017), such as: stainless steels, aluminum alloys, cobalt-chromium or nickel superalloys, pure titanium or titanium alloys, copper alloys, precious metals (gold, silver, platinum, palladium, among others), developments and current aluminum application patents are shown below : Anvil Semiconductors, uses aluminum (US2017018634A1) and Hamilton Sundstrand aluminum alloys and other metals (US2017016093A1); Hitachi (EP3118865A1) iron, aluminum and chrome alloys. UACJ Corp aluminum alloys that allow thermal bonding (EP13884783A).

Methodology

As previously mentioned, PLA is a thermoplastic synthetic polymer derived from renewable raw materials that are produced from lactic acid. Its main advantages are that it is biodegradable, recyclable and compostable. In addition to saving energy since 25-55% less energy is required for its production compared to petroleum-based polymers Valero Manuel (2013). PLA is characterized because its mechanical properties are good compared to other thermoplastic polymers (such as PET).

In order to modify the mechanical properties of PLA, in this work it was mixed with aluminum metal powders and the process is described below.

Preparation and generation of the filament.

The research of the Faculty of Biotechnology of the University of Liubliana Slovenia Mirko Kariz (2017) was taken as a reference. In which a material with wood dust is manufactured, it began with the smallest combination 80 - 20 in which good results were not obtained, retaking this investigation and applying the Taguchi methodology of a 2² Factorial design (see Table 1). The creation of the new composite materials has been carried out by means of the extrusion-composition of a filament with an approximate diameter of 1.75 mm extruded at a temperature of 175 °C, using 80 grams of PLA reinforced with Aluminum 20 metal powders as a base matrix. grams, for the generation of a composite material (see Figure 1).



Figure 1 Mixture of PLA with metallic aluminum powder (80% PLA and 20% Al).
Source: TecNM / ITN

	MA1(%)	MA2(%)	MA3(%)	MA4(%)
PLA	100	80	90	95
Aluminio	0	20	10	5

Table 1 Percentages of PLA and Aluminum
Source: TecNM / ITN

Manufacture of the 3D part with the filament made up of PLA and Aluminum

The composite filament with the aluminum metallic powder was placed in the Flash Forge Creator Pro 3D printer for the manufacture (at a controlled temperature of 21°C) of the 3D part to which the tests described in the following section were performed. The printing parameters configured in the printer are the following:

- Resolution: Standard.
- Layer height: 0.18mm.
- Height of the first layer: 0.27mm.
- Filling density: 100%.
- Pattern density: Line.
- Printing speed: 60mm/s.
- Travel speed: 80mm/s.
- Extruder temperature: 180°C.
- Platform temperature: 50°C.

In Figure 2, you can see the image of the part modeled in SolidWorks and manufactured in the 3D printer to which the stress tests were applied.

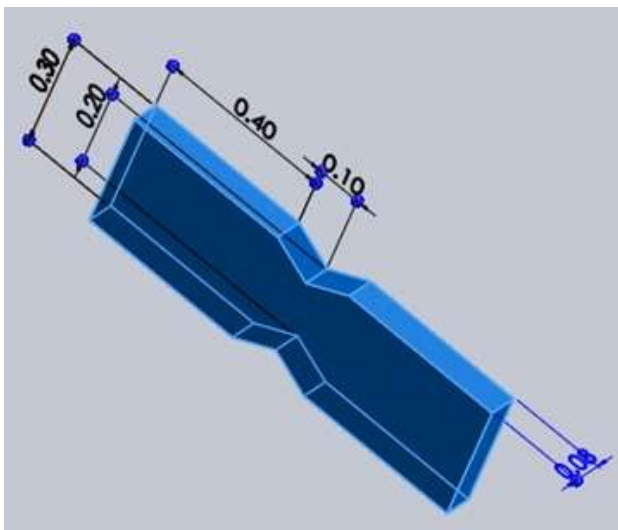


Figure 2 Modeling of the part manufactured in the 3D printer with the composite material used for tension (inch units)

Source: TecNM / ITN

Figure 3 shows the image of the part modeled in SolidWorks and manufactured in the 3D printer to which the compression tests were applied.

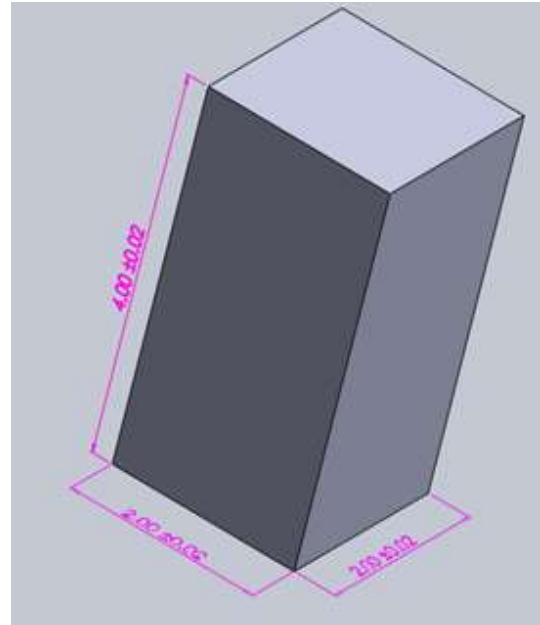


Figure 3 Modeling of the part manufactured in the 3D printer with the composite material used for compression (inch units)

Source: TecNM / ITN

Results

Tension and compression tests were carried out in a universal tension, bending and compression machine model: WDW-S5 (with traceability to CENAM and NIST) owned by the company Metrología y Pruebas S.A. de C.V. (MYPESA), as can be seen in Figure 4.



Figure 4 Tension, bending and compression machine model: WDW-S5

Source: MYPESA

Table 2 shows the result of the destructive tension test of 3 pieces created with pure PLA, the fracture point was in the center of the piece, which has a cross-sectional area of 0.016 in² and the greatest effort was 6210 psi, on the specification sheet for this material gives us a maximum tensile strength of 7,000 psi.

PLA puro (MA1)		
P (LBF)	Area (in ²)	Esfuerzo (PSI)
99.365578	0.016	6210.34863
87.67551	0.016	5479.71938
76.210251	0.016	4763.14069
PLA-AL (MA2)		
76.43506	0.024	3184.79412
78.008723	0.024	3250.36346
76.210251	0.024	3175.42713
PLA-AL (MA3)		
89.249173	0.016	5578.07331
59.799194	0.016	3737.44963
56.651868	0.016	3540.74175
PLA-AL (MA4)		
94.41978	0.016	5901.23625
125.443422	0.016	7840.21388
84.5281842	0.016	5283.0115

Table 2 PLA tension destructive test
Source: Own Creation

Tests were carried out with 3 pieces of PLA with Aluminum, in which the fracture point was in the clamping of the jaws, which has a cross-sectional area of 0.024 in² and the maximum stress was 3250.36 psi, as can be seen in the Table 2 PLA-AL (MA2).

As can be seen, there was a degradation of the PLA and aluminum composite material; During the creation of the filament, in the printed pieces and the tension tests it was possible to observe that the pieces were very fragile.

Compression tests of pieces created as in Figure 3 were also carried out, in which they were printed according to the percentages in Table 1, the results of these destructive tests can be seen in Table 3, as can be seen as in the tension test there is a degradation of the material from the ultimate stress.

PLA puro (MA1)		
P (LBF)	Area (in ²)	Esfuerzo (PSI)
334.066174	0.04	8351.65435
332.267702	0.04	8306.69255
335.415028	0.04	8385.3757
PLA puro (MA2)		
314.282982	0.04	7857.07455
288.205138	0.04	7205.12845
326.422668	0.04	8160.5667
PLA puro (MA3)		
348.903568	0.04	8722.5892
292.926127	0.04	7323.15318
229.529989	0.04	5738.24973
PLA puro (MA4)		
333.616556	0.04	8340.4139
460.85845	0.04	11521.4613
339.911208	0.04	8497.7802

Table 3 PLA compression destructive test
Source: Own Creation

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Conclusions

Among the main objectives of this work is to generate knowledge in the area of composite materials and 3D printing, the tests carried out generated data that, when interpreted, we reached the following conclusions:

The filaments that were generated were 1.5-meter sections since the piece to be printed required that amount of material (1.1 m). The filaments made with aluminum powder when being processed we realized that they were more brittle than those of PLA alone. We came to the conclusion that it was due to an excess of reinforcing material (Aluminium), which functioned as a source of heat and degraded the material since the material's technical sheet gives us a melt temperature of 188 to 210 °C, we handle it at 175 °C since We observed that the material was burning and coming out very liquid and must have a viscous consistency (melt temperature).

In the tests carried out, the highest stress was 6,210 psi. The specification sheet for this material gives us a maximum tensile stress of 7,000 psi (PLA in pellets for plastic injection molding). As it can be seen, the data is not very far from the maximum tensile stress of the PLA specification sheet used (we do not have any reference in 3D printing), we consider that the degradation was due to the high amount of aluminum metal powder. In the future, it is intended to carry out the same tests with smaller amounts of aluminum metal powder and we are comparing tensile strength given by the manufacturer of polymer for plastic injection molding. We hope to have a reference for 3D printing.

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Europium metal organic frameworks: Chemical and Optical properties

Redes metal orgánicas de Europio: Propiedades Químicas y Ópticas

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Abstract

This paper presents the results of synthesizing five metal-organic frameworks (MOFs) of europium with luminescent properties using a stirring methodology at room temperature. The materials were obtained using the organic linkers benzene dicarboxylic acid (BDC), benzene tricarboxylic acid (BTC), naphthalene dicarboxylic acid (NDC), amino benzene dicarboxylic acid (BDC-NH₂) and hydroxybenzene dicarboxylic acid (BDC-OH). XRD and FTIR determined structural and optical properties, and, for three of the materials, SEM. The MOFs obtained have a crystal size of the order of nanometers and presented characteristic functional groups of organic linkers. Optical properties were determined by luminescence spectroscopy, and emission and excitation spectra were obtained. The photoluminescence data of the MOFs showed that the organic linkers were useful for the energy transfer to the lanthanide ion (antenna effect). The material with the highest emission was Eu₂BDC₃, and the one with the lowest was Eu₂(BDC-NH₂)₃. The latter did not present a defined crystalline structure. The Eu₂(BDC-NH₂)₃ and Eu₂(BDC-OH)₃ structures suffered the loss of emission over time. The materials with the highest emission can be used as chemical sensors, cell tracers, and electronic components, including some of their applications.

Resumen

En este proyecto se presentan los resultados de la síntesis de cinco redes metal-orgánicas (MOFs), de europio con propiedades luminiscentes, utilizando una metodología de agitación a temperatura ambiente. Los materiales fueron obtenidos usando los ligandos orgánicos ácido benceno-dicarboxílico (BDC), ácido benceno-tricarboxílico (BTC), ácido naftaleno-dicarboxílico (NDC), ácido amino benceno-dicarboxílico (BDC-NH₂) y ácido hidroxibenceno-dicarboxílico (BDC-OH). Las propiedades estructurales y ópticas se determinaron mediante DRX, FTIR y, para tres de los materiales, SEM. Las MOFs obtenidas tienen tamaño de cristal del orden de nanómetros y presentaron grupos funcionales característicos de los ligandos orgánicos. Las propiedades ópticas se determinaron mediante espectroscopia de luminiscencia y se obtuvieron los espectros de emisión y excitación. Los datos de fotoluminiscencia de las MOFs mostraron que los ligandos orgánicos resultaron ser útiles para la transferencia de energía al ion lantánido (efecto antena). El material con mayor emisión fue Eu₂BDC₃ y el de menor fue Eu₂(BDC-NH₂)₃, este último no presentó una estructura cristalina definida. Las estructuras Eu₂(BDC-NH₂)₃ y Eu₂(BDC-OH)₃ sufrieron la pérdida de emisión con el paso del tiempo. Los materiales con mayor emisión pueden utilizarse como sensores químicos, trazadores celulares, en componentes electrónicos, por mencionar algunas de sus aplicaciones.

Metal-organic frameworks, Europium, Luminescence

Redes metal orgánicas, Europio, Luminiscencia

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Introduction

The incorporation of ions to a transition metal or a rare earth of the lanthanide family in MOFs is encouraging due to the possible benefits for the production of luminescent emission: the ligands maintain minimum distances between adjacent emitting ions, diminishing the effect of reabsorption of the emitted radiation, also known as “*quenching*.” In addition, the ligands can function as energy absorption centers that later transfer it to the ions, exciting them and causing light emission. [Eliseeva & Bunzl, 2010]. In particular, aromatic molecules such as carboxylic acids can significantly help since their delocalized electrons and energy state density facilitate the energy absorption process [Jiang *et al.*, 2001] through the antenna effect.

In this effect, the electron interacts and resonates with the incident electromagnetic radiation, facilitating its excitation to higher energy levels; the relaxation of these electrons can transfer energy to the metal ion, producing light emission. There is a wide variety of binder molecules of this type, for example benzene dicarboxylic acid (BDC), benzene dicarboxylic acid (BTC), naphthalene dicarboxylic acid (NDC), amino benzene dicarboxylic acid (BDC-NH₂) and hydroxybenzene-dicarboxylic acid (BDC-OH), which are aromatic molecules that are suitable for forming luminescent MOFs.

Er²⁺ or Eu³⁺ cations, as such, exhibit weak luminescence, although some peculiarities have been observed in nanoparticles [Yu *et al.*, 2004]. One way to activate them is by inserting them into inorganic compounds or by forming compounds with organic binders that allow an energy transfer to the metal and a symmetry breaking, thus favoring an increase in emission power [Aubouy *et al.*, 2006]. The most common coordination number of europium compounds is 8 [Chen *et al.*, 1999].

There are few reports of work with MOFs with luminescent properties based on the Eu³⁺ lanthanide ion [Habimana *et al.*, 2016; Medina- Velazquez *et al.*, 2016; Mirhosseini *et al.*, 2021]. In this sense, the synthesis commonly used to obtain these materials is solvothermal, and synthesis times range from days to months, except for microwave-assisted synthesis, which lasts 20 minutes.

Conventional synthesis methods for obtaining MOFs represent a problem due to energy requirements, which increase production costs, and the use of toxic and carcinogenic solvents such as dimethylformamide (DMF). Our research group has implemented a synthesis technique by stirring at room temperature, where MOFs with nanometric sizes are obtained. This work presents the results of the structural and optical properties of different europium MOFs using this methodology.

Experimental development

Materials

The reagents used in the synthesis of the MOFs were: hexahydrated europium chloride (EuCl₃ · 6H₂O, 99%) 1,4- chloride benzene dicarboxylic acid (BDC, 98 %), 1,3,5-benzene acid tricarboxylic acid (BTC, 95%) and dimethyl,2-aminobenzene-1,4-dicarboxylate (BDC-NH₂, 90%), dimethyl-2,5-hydroxybenzene-1,4-dicarboxylate (BDC-OH, 99%) and naphthalene-2,6-dicarboxylic acid (NDC, 99%), all from Sigma-Aldrich brand. Solvents were absolute ethanol (99%) and deionized water.

Synthesis of the MOFs

A solution containing 1 mmol of the organic binder in water and another 0.5 mmol of the europium salt in ethanol was prepared. Once dissolved, the Eu solution was added dropwise to the organic binder solution. The mixture was kept under magnetic stirring for 12 h at room temperature. The solid obtained was separated from the liquid by centrifugation and dried in an oven for 4 h at 100°C. The solid was ground in an agate mortar and stored for further characterization.

Characterization of the MOFs

The MOFs were subjected to characterization tests; for the structural analysis, powder X-ray diffraction (XRD) was used, and the determination of the diffractograms was carried out using a Bruker Advance 8 brand diffractometer, at a step of 0.02 °(2θ) every 0.4 seconds. For analysis of functional groups, the characterization of the samples by infrared spectroscopy with Fourier transform (FT-IR), a Perkin-Elmer brand "Spectrum one" spectrophotometer was used, at a resolution of 1 cm⁻¹ and with an attenuated total reflectance (ATR) configuration.

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The morphological characteristics of the MOFs were studied using scanning electron microscopy (SEM) on a Jeol model JSM-6390LV microscope, and the atomic composition using a Voyager microanalysis system from Noran Instruments coupled to the microscope. The photoluminescent spectra obtained using the Edinburgh Instruments FS5 spectrofluorimeter equipment determined the luminescent properties. To get the excitation and emission spectra of photoluminescence, tablets were prepared with 100 mg of each sample.

Results

Structural analysis

The diffractogram Figure 1 compares the pattern reported for the structure of DyBTC (H₂O) DMF [Guo *et al.*, 2006] with the pattern obtained for the EuBTC sample. The reported structure is a dysprosium-synthesized MOF and corresponds to a three-dimensional lattice with a P4₃22 space group, with a basic building unit with 7 Dy³⁺ ions coordinated to a BTC ligand. The network has 6 × 6 Å channels along the (0 0 1) plane, as observed in the structure of the diagram in Figure 1, and is obtained by synthesis in the presence of DMF (10 mL) and HNO₃ (6 M) at 60 °C for 7 days. The structure of DyBTC(H₂O)DMF is isorecticular to that obtained in this project for EuBTC; the reported patterns have peaks at the same Bragg angles and with practically the same relative intensities.

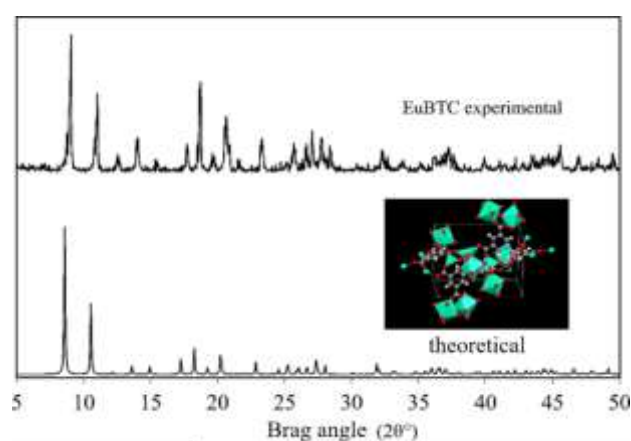


Figure 1 Diffraction pattern of theoretical and experimental EuBTC

Figure 2 compares the XRD patterns of the materials synthesized with bidentate ligands and different functional groups, including all materials prepared with 1,4-benzene dicarboxylic precursors.

The theoretical Eu₂BDC₃ sample corresponds to a pattern reported by [Santos *et al.*, 2017], with a solvothermal method at 120 °C for 3 days. The lattice of this MOF has a space group P1 and is formed by the coordination of 8 Eu³⁺ ions with 6 oxygens coming from the BDC ligands and 2 water molecules. Some missing peaks are observed in the XRD of the synthesized MOFs, indicating that the structure was not completely formed or had lower crystallinity than the reported lattice.

In the case of the sample with -NH₂, there is no defined pattern because the structure is not favored; it is probable that the -OH group generates interactions that tend to the structure, which does not occur for the amino group. The splitting energy can explain the difference between these two functional groups since the -OH is a low-field ligand in the chemical spectrum series, and the -NH₂ is a high field. This is attributed, among others, to the difference in electronegativity of the donor atoms. Since the formation of a coordination compound is sought, chemical factors that can change the donor nature of the carboxylic acids must be considered.

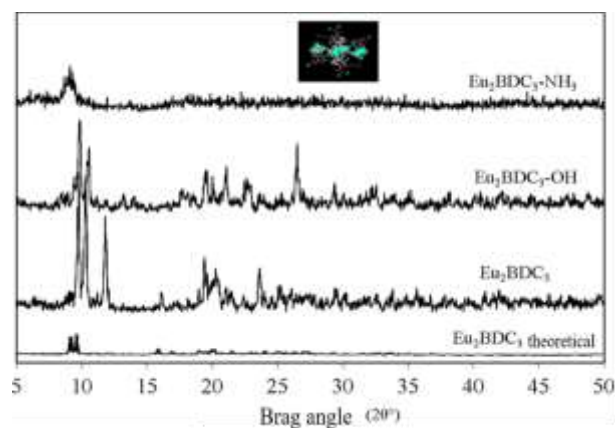


Figure 2 Diffraction pattern of the MOFs: Eu₂BDC₃, Eu₂(BDC-OH)₃, Eu₂(BDC-NH₂)₃

Figure 3 compares the diffractograms of the experimental Eu₂NDC₃ MOFs with one reported for Nd and NDC [Wang *et al.*, 201]. It is observed that the samples present peaks at the same Bragg angles. However, the diffractogram of the experimental MOF has less defined peaks, which is attributed to the low crystallinity of the material. In the work reported by Wang *et al.*, a synthesis at room temperature was used, but this lasted several weeks. The metallic center they studied was neodymium, indicating an isorecticular structure was obtained.

The Nd network comprises bi-dentate ligand chains and has a formula: $\text{Nd}(\text{NDC})_{1.5}(\text{H}_2\text{O})_2 \cdot 2\text{DMA}$. (DMA: dimethylacetamide).

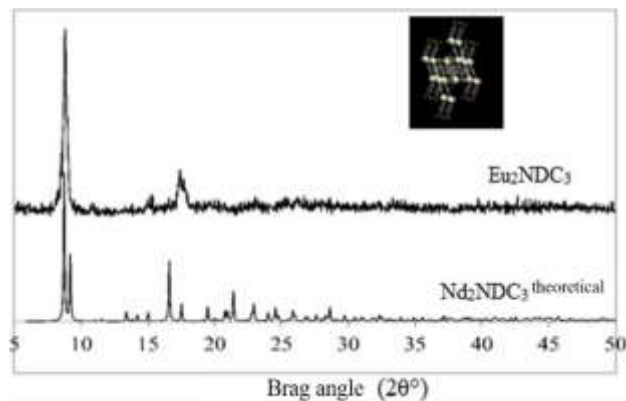


Figure 3 Theoretical and experimental Eu_2NDC_3 diffraction pattern

Crystal size

According to Debye's equation Scherrer (equation 1), the crystal size was determined for the samples EuBTC , Eu_2BDC_3 , $\text{Eu}_2(\text{BDC-OH})_3$, $\text{Eu}_2(\text{BDC-NH}_2)_3$ and Eu_2NDC_3 taking the value of 2θ in the maximum peaks: 9.06, 9.75, 9.82, 9.09 and 7.7°, respectively. The results are described in Table 1.

$$D = \frac{k \cdot \lambda}{B \cos \theta_B} \quad (1)$$

Where D is the crystal size, k is the Scherrer constant (value of 0.9), λ is the wavelength belonging to the line $\text{Cu } \alpha(1.5406 \text{ \AA})$, B is the width of the peak at half height (radians), and θ_B corresponds to the angle of the maximum peak in radians.

The crystal size for all the samples is in the range of 10-100 nm except the sample $\text{Eu}_2(\text{BDC-NH}_2)_3$, which presented a tiny crystal size, previously mentioned that it corresponds to the material that did not give a definite diffraction pattern. The sample with the largest crystal size is the MOF EuBTC with 49 nm. The change in size can be associated with the presence of donor groups in the organic binders. However, the presence of these groups can favor chemical interactions; for the formation of the structure, it is preferable not to have functional groups that interfere with the coordination of the metal and the oxygens of the ligand.

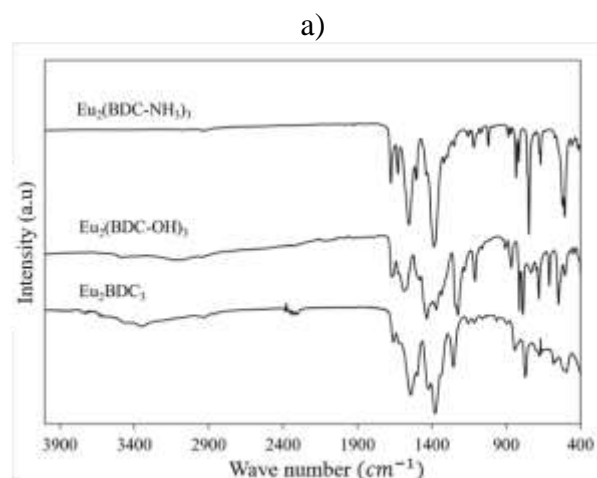
Sample	D (nm)
EuBTC	49
Eu_2BDC_3	22
$\text{Eu}_2(\text{BDC-OH})_3$	16
$\text{Eu}_2(\text{BDC-NH}_2)_3$	5
Eu_2NDC_3	25

Table 1 The crystal size of the MOFs.

Analysis of functional groups

EuBTC , Eu_2BDC_3 , $\text{Eu}_2(\text{BDC-OH})_3$, $\text{Eu}_2(\text{BDC-NH}_2)_3$, and Eu_2NDC_3 are presented. As can be seen, in the spectra of the five samples, there are characteristic bands of the vibration of elongation of the metal-oxygen bond that would be Eu-O , located in the range of $400\text{--}560 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ [Lui *et al.*, 2009], said band reveals that Eu atoms have successfully coordinated with carboxylate groups. In addition, the intense absorption at 3407 cm^{-1} must be the -OH stretching vibration of water, indicating that water molecules act not only as the solvent but also as a reagent for forming the MOFs [Lui *et al.* 2009].

The bands located in the range of $1104\text{--}1110 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ are attributed to the doubling of the C-H bond in the plane of the ring [Silverstein *et al.*, 1967]. All samples exhibit symmetric stretching vibrations of carboxylic groups in the range of $1590\text{--}1480 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ and symmetric vibrations centered at 1381 cm^{-1} [Xu *et al.*, 2011]. Particularly for the MOF Eu_2NDC_3 , the band located at 1908 cm^{-1} characteristic of the CN stretching vibration is presented [Hansen *et al.*, 2022].



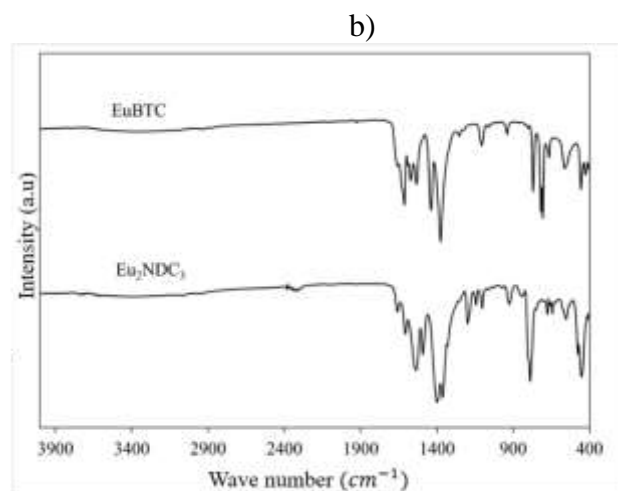


Figure 4 IR spectra of a) Eu_2BDC_3 , $\text{Eu}_2(\text{BDC-OH})_3$, $\text{Eu}_2(\text{BDC-NH}_2)_3$ and b) EuBTC and Eu_2NDC_3

Morphology

Figure 5 shows the micrographs with 20,000 magnifications that could be obtained and correspond to the $\text{Eu}_2(\text{BDC-OH})_3$, $\text{Eu}_2(\text{BDC-NH}_2)_3$, and Eu_2NDC_3 samples. In the $\text{Eu}_2(\text{BDC-OH})_3$ material, aggregates of particles reaching $4.5 \mu\text{m}$ and small grains of lighter tonality and asymmetric morphology with a diameter of $0.5\text{--}0.8 \mu\text{m}$ are observed. In the $\text{Eu}_2(\text{BDC-NH}_2)_3$ sample, flower-shaped grains with a size of $7 \mu\text{m}$ are observed, whose petals are $2 \mu\text{m}$ long and $0.95 \mu\text{m}$ wide. Again, the aggregates are covered by tiny grains of $5\text{--}10 \text{ nm}$. In the sample Eu_2NDC_3 , the same aggregates are seen (beginning to have a concentric formation), but with greater dispersion, the size is $3\text{--}4 \mu\text{m}$, and the petal-shaped crystals are $1.5 \mu\text{m}$ long and $0.6 \mu\text{m}$ wide. These formations have been previously observed in microwave-obtained europium MOFs [Garduño-Wilches *et al.*, 2021].

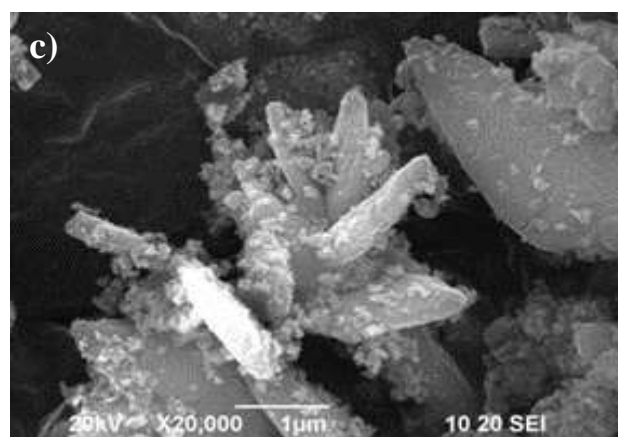
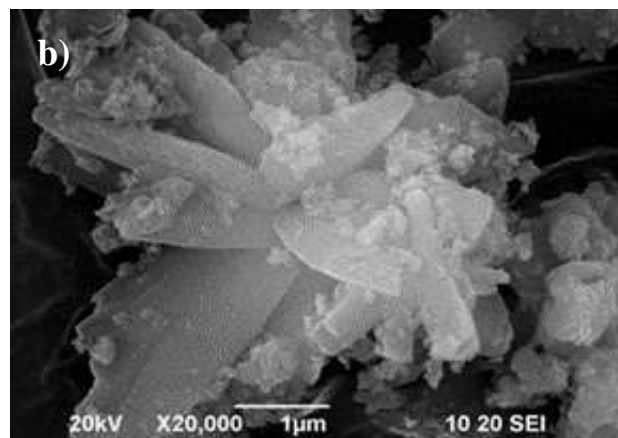
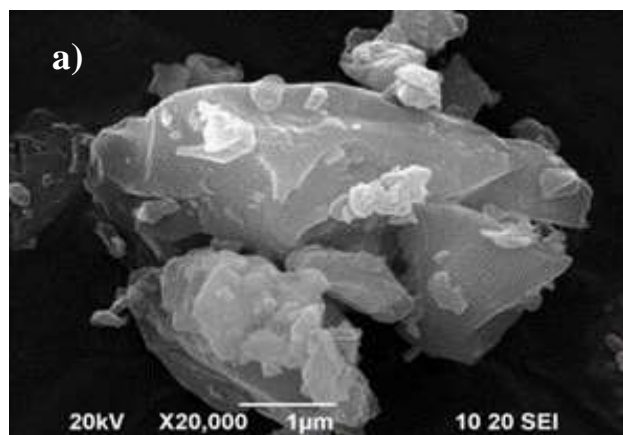


Figure 5 Micrographs of a) $\text{Eu}_2(\text{BDC-OH})_3$, b) $\text{Eu}_2(\text{BDC-NH}_2)_3$ and c) Eu_2NDC_3 .

Luminescent properties

The luminescent properties of the materials are described with the excitation and emission spectra to know the influence of the organic ligand (LO) on the lanthanide ion (Ln^{3+}), which are the components of the MOFs synthesized in this work.

Emission spectra

Figure 6 shows the emission spectra of Eu_2BDC_3 , $\text{Eu}_2(\text{BDC-OH})_3$, $\text{Eu}_2(\text{BDC-NH}_2)_3$ powders. The excitation wavelengths were set at 305 and 348 nm to obtain these spectra, respectively. In the spectrum of the MOF- Eu_2BDC_3 , the 4 characteristic emission peaks of the transitions between the electronic energy states of the europium ion are shown. They are $5D_0 \rightarrow 7F_J$, where $J = 1, 2, 3$ and 4 [Han *et al.*, 2017] are located at 591, 617, 652, and 700 nm, respectively. It should be noted that the two remaining MOFs do not present a very strong intensity in the 4 transition states.

It is observed that the highest intensity peak for the three samples is located between 600 and 630 nm, so the samples present an intense red emission. Differences in the bands of the MOFs were identified: $\text{Eu}_2(\text{BDC-OH})_3$, $\text{Eu}_2(\text{BDC-NH}_2)_3$. The light emission of the sample E_2BDC_3 is the one with the highest intensity; the remaining two are of lower intensity, and its band in the $5D_0 \rightarrow 7F_2$ transition state presents two peaks, which is attributed to the splitting of this transition state, in addition, the change in intensity of this can be attributed to the NH_2 and OH groups, which modify the network. Considering that these samples in the DXR spectra present shorter interplanar distances, their crystal size is also smaller; this effect on the crystal is affected by the luminescence intensity they emit.

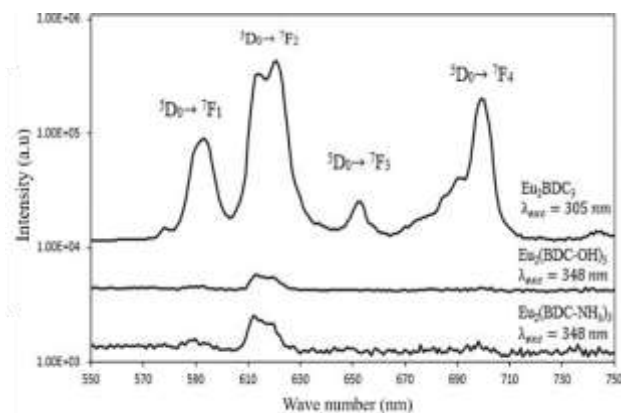


Figure 6 Emission spectra of Eu_2BDC_3 , $\text{Eu}_2(\text{BDC-OH})_3$, $\text{Eu}_2(\text{BDC-NH}_2)_3$

Figure 7 presents the emission spectrum of Eu_2BDC_3 , EuBTC , and Eu_2NDC_3 , monitored with a 305 and 348 nm wavelength, respectively. It is observed that the three MOFs show the four typical transition states of Eu^{3+} and an emission wavelength of 600-630 nm, where the MOF Eu_2BDC_3 presents the highest intensity, 105, followed by EuBTC and Eu_2NDC_3 with an intensity of 104, where the MOF Eu_2NDC_3 is the one with the lowest intensity.

The emission intensity bands of Eu_2BD_3 and Eu_2NDC_3 show two different intensities in the $5D_0 \rightarrow 7F_2$ transition state, similar to the previous MOFs. These differ in emission intensity due to the depopulation of this state because they have a difference in the number of aromatic rings.

In the case of the EuBTC , the number of rings is the same as in the MOF Eu_2BDC_3 . However, the number and positioning of the carboxylate groups will influence the antenna effect between them to impact the emission capacity.

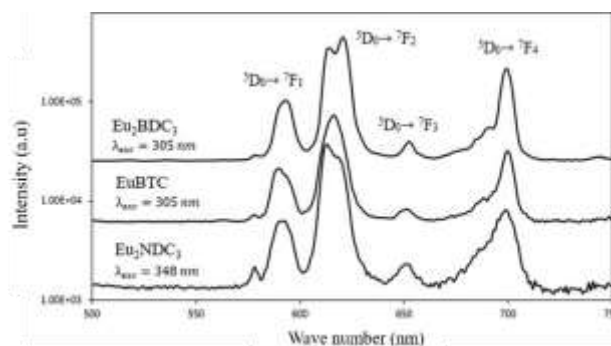


Figure 7 Emission spectra of Eu_2BDC_3 , EuBTC , and Eu_2NDC_3 .

Excitation spectra

The excitation spectra obtained from the samples $\text{Eu}_2(\text{BDC})_3$, $\text{Eu}_2(\text{BDC-OH})_3$, and $\text{Eu}_2(\text{BDC-NH}_2)_3$, with emission wavelengths at 619 and 613 nm, respectively, are presented in Figure 8. A broad absorption band of the excitation energy is observed in the interval of wavelengths of 307 and 350 nm, respectively.

The excitation spectrum of $\text{Eu}_2(\text{BDC})_3$, Figure 8, shows a broad band from 307 to 333 nm and an absorption band at 330 nm, strongly related to the energy transfer between the aromatic rings in the organic phase. Of the MOF and the Eu^{3+} ions (antenna effect), however, for the MOFs $\text{Eu}_2(\text{BDC-OH})_3$ and $\text{Eu}_2(\text{BDC-NH}_2)_3$, this band is shifted to a range of 357 to 370 nm, which is attributed to the functional groups NH_2 and OH .

The shift of the absorption bands of the MOFs to the UV spectrum greatly potentiates its implementation in biomedical applications. However, mediations were carried out after 1 month of the synthesis and previous studies, and the emission capacity in these networks was lost.

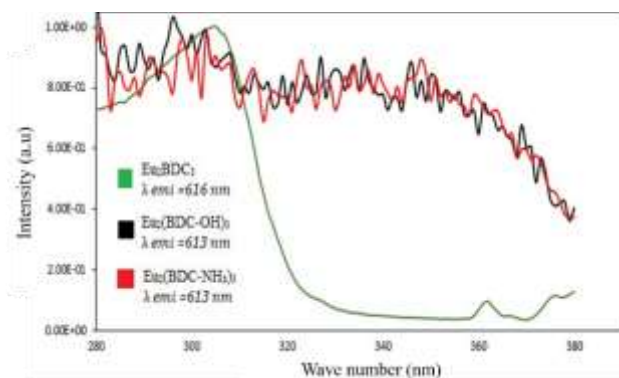


Figure 8 Excitation spectra of $\text{Eu}_2(\text{BDC})_3$, $\text{Eu}_2(\text{BDC-OH})_3$ and $\text{Eu}_2(\text{BDC-NH}_2)_3$

The excitation spectrum of $\text{Eu}_2(\text{BDC})_3$ and EuBTC is represented in Figure 8; the similarity in their patterns is observed. However, their absorption band differs; EuBTC is 300 nm, and $\text{Eu}_2(\text{BDC})_3$ is 310 nm. Unlike the Eu_2NDC_3 (Figure 9) in which this band appears at 350 nm, which is strongly related to the energy transfer between the aromatic rings present in the organic phase of the MOF, in this case, it is naphthalene—and Eu^{3+} ions (antenna effect).

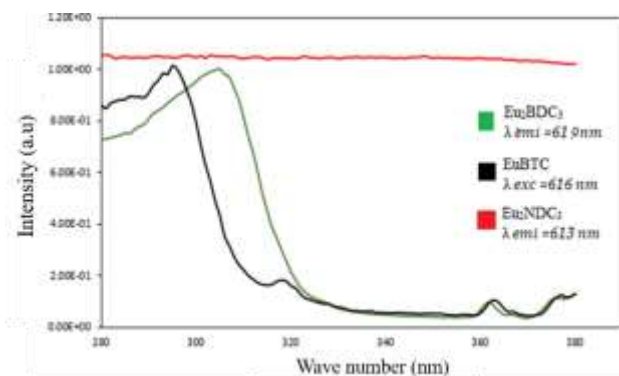


Figure 9 Excitation photoluminescence spectra of Eu_2BDC_3 , EuBTC and Eu_2NDC_3

The results from the photoluminescence spectra demonstrate an energy transfer between the organic ligand and the lanthanide ion. It is reasonable to conclude that a process of absorption and transmission of energy from the aromatic rings of the benzoate groups produces the emission of the Eu^{3+} ions. In this luminescence process, the excitation energy is selective for the aromatic rings of the benzoate since the emitting levels of the Eu^{3+} will be populated through the mechanism of sensitization of the excited state of the benzoate groups where these are working as an antenna since it is the molecule that absorbs the excitation energy and transfers it to the activating ions of the lanthanide series.

Acknowledgment

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Conclusions

In this work, five different metal-organic networks based on the europium lanthanide ion were synthesized, with the organic ligands (BDC, BDC-OH, BDC-NH₂, BTC, and NDC) obtained by a synthesis method at room temperature, which turned out to be favorable compared to the most reported technique (solvothermal), mainly due to the reduction of reaction times, in addition to not using carcinogenic or harmful solvents for health and the environment. However, it was impossible to obtain a crystalline structure for the material synthesized with BDC-NH₂, which is attributed to the nucleophilicity of the functional group.

The photoluminescence data of the Eu^{3+} complex showed that the organic ligands turned out to be helpful for the energy transfer of the lanthanide ion, because the organic ligands present the ability to transfer the appropriate and sufficient energy to the Eu^{3+} ions, thanks to the mechanism of excitation that takes place in these elements, which is known as the antenna effect.

This study proposes a strategy to increase the luminescence intensity of MOFs by up to two orders of magnitude when treating them with different organic ligands, due to the presence of different numbers of functional groups, such as carboxylates, alcohols, aminos, and aromatic rings. that impact the properties of the MOFs; crystalline structure, grain size, morphology and emission intensity.

The samples $\text{Eu}_2(\text{BDC-OH})_3$ and $\text{Eu}_2(\text{BDC-NH}_2)_3$ showed the ones with the lowest luminescence emission and a decay in this property over time. However, the energy they require to be excited is very favorable, since the wavelength is in the visible spectrum, and they are promising for their use in biomedical applications.

Similar case for the MOF of Eu_2NDC_3 , which presents an intense emission and because the ligand has two aromatic rings and allowed the excitation wavelength to be covered in the visible spectrum.

The MOFs with the highest luminescent intensity of exponential order 105 are the MOFs E_2BDC_3 and EuBTC , being the sample Eu_2BD_3 the MOF with the best luminescent properties, which were attributed to the presence of different organic compounds in each of them.

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Sn₃Sb₂S₆ thin films for photovoltaic applications**Películas delgadas de Sn₃Sb₂S₆ para aplicaciones fotovoltaicas**

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Abstract

Tin antimony sulfide semiconductor thin films have been extensively investigated due to their potential application as absorber in thin films solar cells, to convert solar radiation into electricity (A. Gassoumi, 2011; A. Larbi, 2014; Auttasit Tubtimtae, 2021; D. Abdelkader, 2014; N. Ali, 2015; Nisar Ali S. H., 2013a; Nisar Ali S. H., 2013b; Sebin Devasia, 2020); this is due to the excellent optoelectronic properties and due to abundance of the constituent elements on the earth crust and low toxicity. In this research we studied the effect of heat treatment temperature on the formation and optoelectronic properties of Sn₃Sb₂S₆ thin films prepared by the heating of multilayers glass/ SnS/Sb₂S₃ chemically deposited, the results show the formation of the ternary phase at temperatures above 250 °C, increasing the crystallinity of the phase at 325 °C. Sn₃Sb₂S₆ thin films show an indirect optical transition with band gaps around 1 eV, and absorption coefficient $\sim 10^5 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ in the visible range. Sn₃Sb₂S₆ thin films show conductivities in the range of $10^{-7} - 10^{-6} \text{ Wcm}^{-1}$, showing an increase in conductivity as the temperature increased. The good optoelectronic properties of this material make it suitable for photovoltaic applications.

Resumen

Las películas delgadas de materiales semiconductores de la familia de sulfuro de antimonio estaño han sido objeto de investigación debido a su potencial aplicación como absorbedor en celdas solares de película delgada, para la generación de electricidad a partir de la radiación solar (A. Gassoumi, 2011; A. Larbi, 2014; Auttasit Tubtimtae, 2021; D. Abdelkader, 2014; N. Ali, 2015; Nisar Ali S. H., 2013a; Nisar Ali S. H., 2013b; Sebin Devasia, 2020); esto debido a sus excelentes propiedades optoelectrónicas y a que sus elementos constituyentes son abundantes en la corteza terrestre y son de baja toxicidad. En esta investigación se estudió el efecto de la temperatura de tratamiento térmico en la formación y propiedades optoelectrónicas de películas delgadas de Sn₃Sb₂S₆ preparadas mediante el calentamiento de multicapas de vidrio/SnS/Sb₂S₃ preparadas mediante la técnica de baño químico, los resultados muestran la formación de la fase ternaria a temperaturas superiores a 250 °C, aumentando su cristalinidad a una temperatura de 325 °C. Las películas delgadas de Sn₃Sb₂S₆ muestran una transición óptica indirecta con brechas de energía cercanas a 1 eV, y coeficientes de absorción $\sim 10^5 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ en el rango del espectro visible. Las películas delgadas de Sn₃Sb₂S₆ muestran conductividades de $10^{-7} - 10^{-6} \text{ Wcm}^{-1}$, observándose un incremento en la conductividad conforme aumenta la temperatura. Las buenas propiedades optoelectrónicas obtenidas hacen que este material sea prometedor para aplicaciones fotovoltaicas.

Optoelectronic, Semiconductor, Properties

Optoelectrónico, Semiconductor, Propiedades

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1. Introduction

Thin film solar cell (TFSC) technology is based on copper indium gallium selenium (CIGS) and CdTe absorber materials, which have demonstrated the best efficiency conversion of sunlight into electricity in TFSC technology; efficiencies of 22.6% and 22.1%, have been reported for CIGS (Taoufik Chargui, 2023) and CdTe (E.I. Emon, 2023), respectively. The main drawback with these absorber materials is the scarcity of indium and gallium, and the toxicity of cadmium. In that fact, new absorber materials are being extensively studied, focusing on the availability of the constituent elements and low toxicity (Aiswarya Nadukkandy, 2023; Jiayou Xue, 2023). Ternary compounds base on tin antimony sulfide (TAS) sulfosalts family are good candidates as absorber materials for thin films solar cell technology.

The chemistry of this sulfosalts family is $A_xB_yX_z$, where A is the metallic atom such as tin (Sn^{2+} , Sn^{4+}), Iron (Fe^{2+}), etc. B corresponds to the metallic atoms like Antimony (Sb^{3+}), Arsenic (As^{3+}), and X is the anion such as Sulfur (S^{2-}), Selenium (Se^{2-}) (Sebin Devasia, 2020). Abdelkader *et al.* prepared SnSb_4S_7 , $\text{Sn}_2\text{Sb}_6\text{S}_{11}$, SnSb_2S_4 , $\text{Sn}_4\text{Sb}_6\text{S}_{13}$, $\text{Sn}_2\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_5$ and $\text{Sn}_3\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_6$ thin films by thermal evaporation of the corresponding $\text{Sn}_x\text{Sb}_y\text{S}_z$ powders; the powders were obtained by crushing $\text{Sn}_x\text{Sb}_y\text{S}_z$ ingots prepared by the Bridgman method. The optical properties of the TAS thin films were analyzed, the films showed high absorption coefficients in the visible region around 10^5 cm^{-1} , direct and indirect optical transitions, with band gaps in the range of 1.37 – 1.87 eV, depending on the chemical composition (D. Abdelkader, 2014). Bindu *et al.* prepared $\text{Sn}_6\text{Sb}_{10}\text{S}_{21}$ by heating chemically deposited multilayers of $\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3/\text{SnS}$ in vacuum; the thin films showed band gaps 1.26 – 1.45 eV, and high absorption coefficient 10^5 cm^{-1} , moreover, $\text{Sn}_6\text{Sb}_{10}\text{S}_{21}$ thin films were incorporated as absorber in a photovoltaic structure, the obtained cell parameter were: $V_{oc} = 409 \text{ mV}$, $J_{sc} = 1.46 \text{ mA/cm}^2$, and $\text{FF} = 0.25$ (Sebin Devasia, 2020).

To our knowledge there are no reports of the preparation $\text{Sn}_3\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_6$ by heating multilayers of $\text{SnS}/\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3$ deposited by chemical bath deposition. The findings in this work are relevant and can contribute to the development of photovoltaic structures using this material as absorber.

2. Methods

2.1 Deposition of SnS thin films

SnS thin films were deposited on clean glass Corning substrates, that, previously to deposition, were washed with neutral detergent and rinsed with distilled water. For the deposition, 1 g of $\text{SnCl}_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$ was dissolved in 5 ml of acetone, and to this solution 12 ml of triethanolamine (3.7M) was added, followed by 65 ml of deionized water, 8 ml of thioacetamide (1M), and 10 ml of NH_3 (4M) (David Avellaneda, 2007). Cleaned glass substrates were placed vertically on a 100 ml beaker and the temperature was maintained at 40 °C for 20 h. Uniform SnS thin films of ~ 500 nm were obtained; thickness was measured using a Alpha-Step D-600 Stylus profiler.

2.2 Deposition of Sb_2S_3 thin films

On the glass/SnS structure Sb_2S_3 thin films were deposited. For this, 650 mg of SbCl_3 was dissolved in 2.5 ml of acetone in a 100 ml beaker, and then 25 ml of 1 molar $\text{Na}_2\text{S}_2\text{O}_3$ solution was added followed by 72.5 ml of precooled distilled water at 10 °C, the final solution was mixed for 30 s, and glass/SnS samples were placed vertically in the beaker for 4.5 h and maintained at 10 °C (J.O. Gonzalez, 2014), two consecutive deposits were done.

2.3 Heat treatment of glass/SnS/ Sb_2S_3 multilayers

The glass/SnS/ Sb_2S_3 multilayers were heated in a conventional non-vacuum furnace at 100°C, 150 °C, 200 °C, 250 °C, 300 °C and 325 °C in air for 1 h.

3. Results and Discussion

XRD diffractograms for the glass/SnS/ Sb_2S_3 multilayers heated at 100 °C, 150 °C, 200 °C, 250 °C, 300 °C and 325 °C in air are shown in graphic 1. At 100 °C, 150 °C and 200 °C the samples show the formation of two phases, SnS and Sn_2S_3 . Peaks at 2θ of 28.55° and 30.52° are indexed to the planes (1 1 2) and (0 1 3), respectively, and correspond to Ottemannite phase (Card. No. 9011236). A peak at $2\theta = 31.54^\circ$ corresponds to the plane (1 3 0) of the phase SnS (Card. No. 9008785).

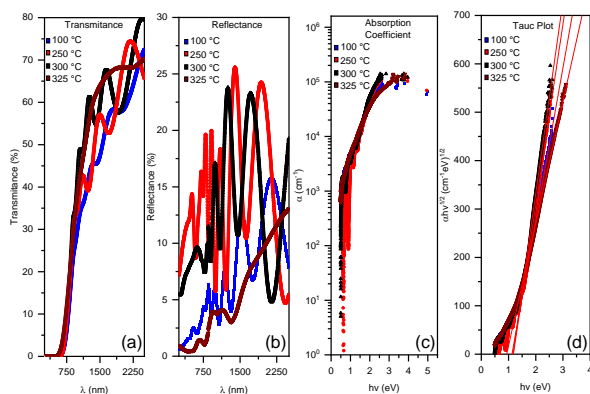
$$\alpha = \frac{1}{d} \ln \left[\frac{(1 - \%R)^2}{\%T} \right] \quad (3)$$

Where α is the absorption coefficient measured in cm^{-1} , d is the film thickness, in our experiments the measured thickness was ~ 1000 nm, $\%T$ is the percentage of transmittance and $\%R$ is the percentage of reflectance. In graphic 2 c) the absorption coefficients for the samples are shown, from the graphic is evident that all samples have high absorption coefficients $\sim 10^5$ cm^{-1} in the visible range, which means that small thickness is necessary to absorb most of the incident radiation.

From the spectra, the optical band gap of the samples was calculated using the formula, id.:

$$(\alpha h\nu)^{1/2} = A(h\nu - E_g) \quad (4)$$

Where E_g is the optical band gap, the exponent of $1/2$ indicates an allowed indirect transition, α is the absorption coefficient at a frequency ν , and A is a constant. From graphic 2 d), all samples showed band gaps near 1 eV.

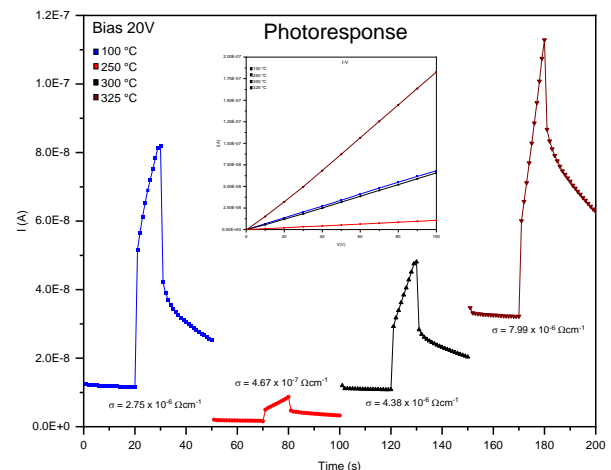


Graphic 2 Optical characteristics of samples heated at 100 °C, 250 °C, 300 °C, and 325 °C in air. a) % Transmittance, b) % Reflectance, c) Absorption coefficient, and d) Tauc plot.

Graphic 3 shows the electrical characteristics of the samples heated at 100 °C, 250 °C, 300 °C, and 325 °C. In the graphic, both, photocurrent and IV curves of the samples are shown. The IV curve of the samples follows the ohm's law, in which, current and voltage varies linearly; this is, as voltage increases current increases.

We observe that conductivity of sample heated at 100 °C is higher than conductivities of samples heated at 250 °C and 300 °C, this may be due to the formation of Sb_2S_3 phase these temperatures, which is a highly resistive material (Sarah Messina, 2009). For the samples heated at 250 °C, 300 °C and 325 °C the photo response and conductivity increases, this may be due to the formation of $\text{Sn}_3\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_6$ phase, additionally, as the temperature increases conductivity increases due to the increase of grain size and crystallinity of the ternary compound.

As grain size increases, defects in the material, such as voids, grain boundaries, etc, that act as traps, reduces, decreasing the probability of recombination and the mobility of carries is improved as well as conductivity. The photo response of the samples was carried out by applying a bias voltage of 20 V and measure the current at dark and under illumination, 20 s at dark, 20 s under illumination and again 20 s at dark. When samples are illuminated, electrons from the valence band are promoted to the conduction band by absorbing photons with energy equal or greater than the band gap, current is increased due to more carriers are available for conduction. All samples show good photoconductivity behavior.



Graphic 3 Electrical characteristics of samples heated at 100 °C, 250 °C, 300 °C, and 325 °C in air.

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6. Conclusions

Sn₃Sb₂S₆ thin films were prepared by heating multilayers of glass/SnS/Sb₂S₃ at different temperatures in air. XRD studies indicate that Sn₃Sb₂S₆ begins formation at 250°C, and a temperature of 325°C it is completely formed. Texture coefficient showed a preferential orientation along the (1 1 4) plane for sample heated at 250 °C and (5 0 10) plane for samples heated at 300°C and 325 °C. Optical properties of the films showed high absorption coefficients in the order of 10⁵ cm⁻¹, and indirect allowed optical transitions with band gaps near 1 eV. The electrical properties of the samples were determined, samples showed conductivities in the order of 10⁻⁶ Ωcm⁻¹, and an improvement in the electrical conductivity for Sn₃Sb₂S₆ thin films was observed as temperature increases.

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Destructive Test in 3D Printing

Ensayo Destructivo en Impresión 3D

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Abstract

Today it is essential for any manufacturing company, to be able to have information about the effectiveness of the designs, as well as the quality of its raw materials, due to this, one of the key strategies is the prototyping of parts through additive manufacturing, the objective of this article is to provide information about the structural resistance of a 3D printed component through the effectiveness in the deposition of extruded filament and according to a deposition made, the implicit variables for both cases will be determined, which will be measured by tests. destructive, identifying values of deformation versus effort and will contribute to the determination of advantages and disadvantages of the impression, as well as the position with which the deposition is made.

Printing, Resistance, Test

Resumen

Hoy en día es imprescindible para cualquier empresa manufacturera, el poder tener información acerca de la efectividad de los diseños, así como de la calidad de sus materias primas, debido a ello una de las estrategias clave es el prototipado de partes mediante manufactura aditiva, el objetivo de este artículo es proveer información acerca de la resistencia estructural de un componente impreso en 3D mediante la efectividad en la deposición de filamento extruido y de acuerdo a una deposición efectuada, se determinarán las variables implícitas para ambos casos, las cuáles se medirán mediante ensayos destructivos, identificando valores de deformación versus esfuerzo y se contribuirá en la determinación de ventajas y desventajas de la impresión, así como la posición con la se realiza la deposición.

Impresión, Resistencia, Ensayo

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Introduction

3D printing is an additive manufacturing method, with which prototype models or functional work components can be generated, this method involves the application of material input, which can be of different properties and characteristics, among the most used:

- PLA
- ABS
- Resin
- Metallic powders.

This technique is very useful for the production of parts, however, in the manufacturing process that ranges from design to preparation, it is vitally important to identify the best position of the component, which will structurally define the way in which the filler material will be deposited and in the definition of the Cartesian trajectories in which the printing machine generates the material deposition.

In addition to the above, the way in which the position of the element to be printed is defined will depend on its geometry, since from this it will depend on the need for support, the printing time, the amount of material input and the structural resistance of the component, due to this, the present investigation will identify these change factors and through a destructive stress test, the effectiveness of the method in relation to the direction of material deposition can be measured.

The relationship of the deformation factor (dependent variable) with respect to the stress factor (independent variable) and through a plastic specimen with PLA material in a configuration directed from the design process, preparation of files according to the extension of the modeling software, preparation process for post-processing, execution of 3D printing in horizontal and vertical position and application of tests, will allow observing the result of the implicit variables in each proposal and verified by applying destructive testing.

Development of Sections and Sections of the Article with subsequent numbering

In the application of the destructive test to identify the resistance in the proposed specimens, it is important to work in the following stages, which are:

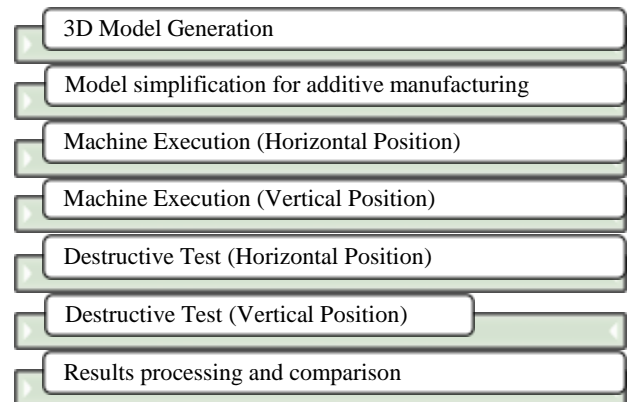


Figure 1 Stages of 3D printing and destructive testing (Boisas, 2018)

1. Design of the 3D model

The design of the 3D model, part of the GeDG (Computer extended Descriptive Geometry) structure, which is oriented to a sequence of geometric construction, this leads the generation of the model to focus on dimensional qualities in a graphical environment, which provides Cartesian positions in the generation of the element, of which axes x, y and z.

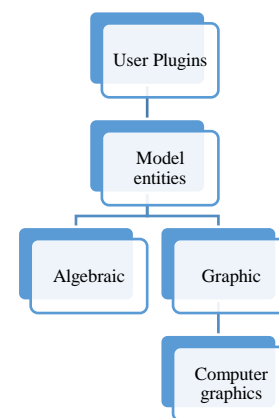


Figure 2 Modelo GeDG (Prado-Velasco, García-Ruesgas, Ortiz-Martín 2023)

Taking the previous structure as a reference, the specimen is modeled in the CAD software environment and under the standard (ASTM D638), the three-dimensional design is generated according to the resistance of the material to be used (PLA).

For the beginning of the design of the specimen, a round smooth head specimen is considered, with origin in Cartesian coordinates at 0.

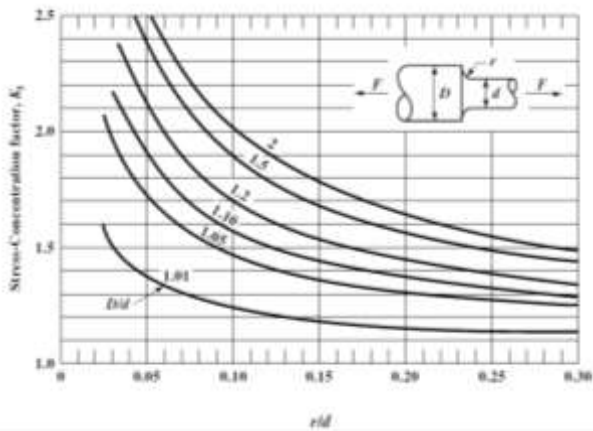


Figure 3 Factor stress-concentration (McCauley, 2013)

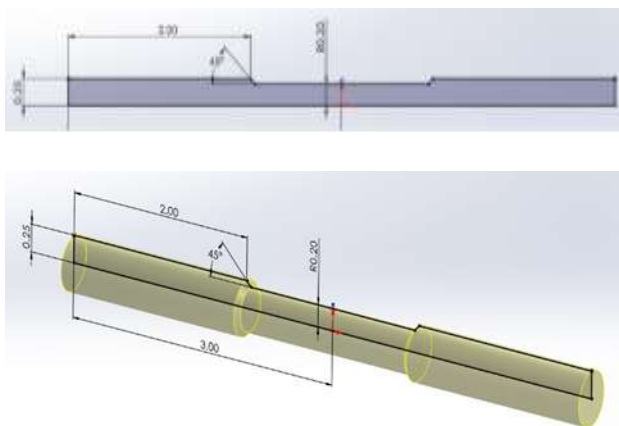


Figure 4 Zero Origin Specimen Design (Contribution to the project, unpublished)

2. Simplification of the model for additive manufacturing

The three-dimensional model is a very important factor in the preparation process for printing, since according to the GeDG structure approach, it supposes a solid element, since in the software environment the element is floating, it must be to achieve a preparation of the modeling, this by means of a recognition of nodes from a binary element.

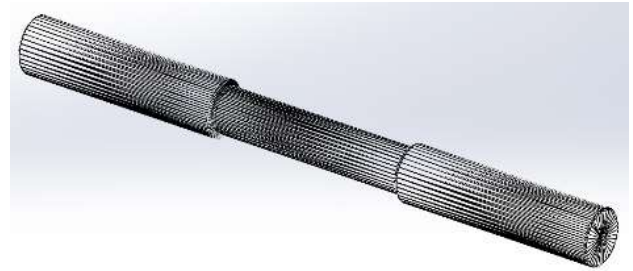
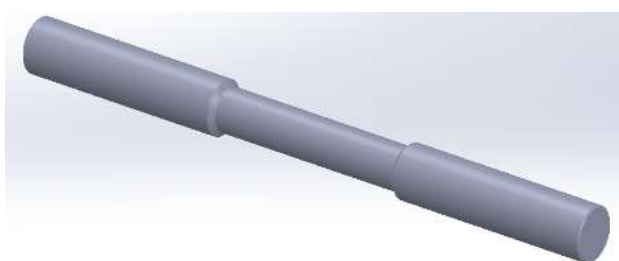


Figure 5 Design simplification (Contribution to the project, unpublished)

During the model simplification process, each binary element of the model is configured to the origin in the Cartesian system, which generates a position value in space. Said value will be determined from the import of the file in post software. processed for geometric recognition, and trajectory assignment.

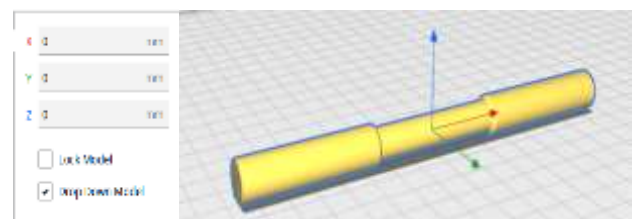


Figure 6 Geometric Recognition, horizontal position (Contribution to the project, unpublished)

After the geometric recognition stage, the positions of each binary element of the component will be identified and a translation process into standard language, better known as G Language, will be generated through which the printing process can be governed, through a sequence of codes and trajectories in a Cartesian plane with which the deposition of material will be achieved at each necessary space and corresponding to the model in three dimensions and supported with a 3D printing machine with a base extruder at temperature conditions between 180 and 200 ° c.

<pre> ;FLAVOR:Marlin ;TIME:1763 ;Filament used: 3.89792m ;Layer height: 0.3 ;MINX:117.489 ;MINY:190.45 ;MINZ:0.3 ;MAXX:282.508 ;MAXY:209.897 ;MAXZ:12.6 ;Generated with Cura_SteamEngine 5.2.2 M140 S60 M105 M190 S60 M104 S200 M105 M109 S200 M82 ;absolute extrusion mode M107 ;Start with the fan off </pre>	<pre> G92 E0 G92 E0 G1 F2400 E-6 ;LAYER_COUNT:42 ;LAYER:0 M106 S255 M204 S3000 M205 X10 Y10 G1 F600 Z0.375 G0 F3000 X120.935 Y191.511 Z0.375 M204 S1800 M205 X8 Y8 ;TYPE:SKIRT G1 F600 Z0.3 G1 F2400 E0 G1 X121.571 Y191.183 E0.04998 G1 X122.239 Y190.929 E0.0999 G1 X122.932 Y190.751 E0.14987 G1 X123.761 Y190.634 E0.20835 </pre>
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Table 1 Horizontal ISO language (Project contribution, unpublished)

3. Machine Execution (Horizontal Position)

During the machine execution process, there is a simulation stage, which will show the user the trajectories defined according to the binary system, which is translated into ISO language by post-processing software algorithms. It is important to mention that the Characteristics can be of a proposed nature or can be customized by the user according to the geometric characteristics.

According to Güler Özgül, H., & Tatlı, O. (2021), considering these factors is a highly relevant issue since the difference between geometries, as well as the direction during the deposition of material, may have different mechanical properties, which will contribute to the different resistance values depending consequently on the location and load that acts on them when constituting a geometric structure

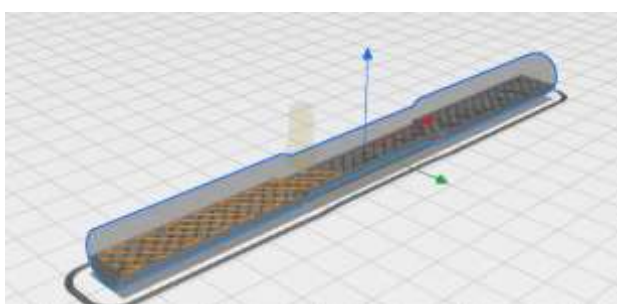


Figure 7 Preview horizontal trajectories, (Contribution to the project, unpublished)

Once it has been identified by the user that the trajectories have been recorded, it is transferred to a removable memory, in which the standard programming language (Language G) will be stored and it will be physically connected to the printing machine to start with the manufacturing process by additive manufacturing (3D printing).

The 3D printing machine must cover work parameters in order to carry out the deposition efficiently, among which:

- Extrusion temperature (200°C)
- Printing table temperature (60°C)

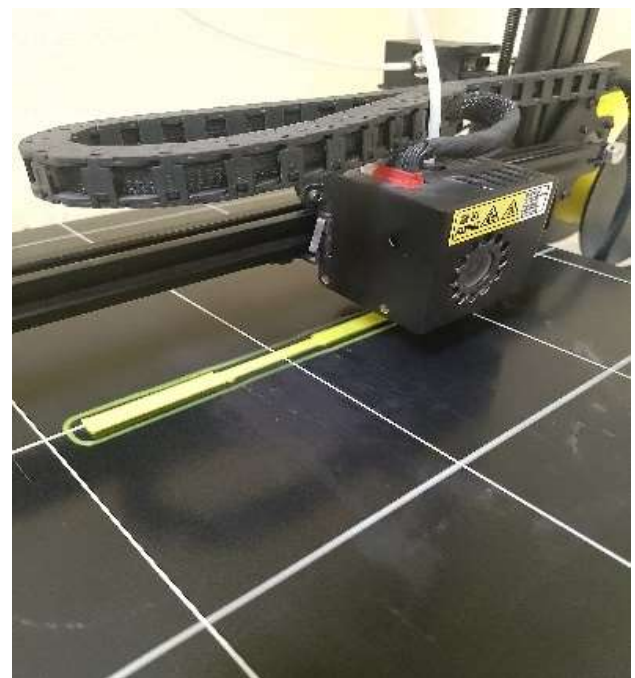


Figure 8 Landscape 3D printing (Contribution to the project, unpublished)

4. Machine Execution (Vertical Position)

After the horizontal prints, the prints will be made in a vertical position, it should be noted that the machine parameters are the same, which were described in the previous section and the change factor for printing these tests will be the position. In this process, once both samples are finished, the resistance given according to the material deposition will be identified.

It is important to highlight that during the parameter setting process, the capacity dimensions of the printer must be considered, according to its total height, since a maximum degree of opening must be avoided, at the same time that it must be avoid collision during the deposition process.

Of the extruder with respect to the test tube, since its base area is proportional to the dimension of the standardized test tube, which generates a possible detachment of the printing table at the moment of being displacing the extruder on the axes considered during the post-processing process when generating the ISO printing program.

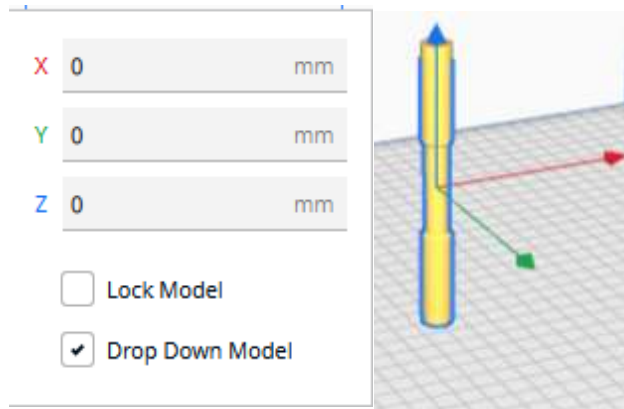


Figure 9 Geometric recognition, vertical position, (Contribution to the project, unpublished)

<code>;FLAVOR:Marlin</code>	<code>G92 E0</code>
<code>;TIME:2739</code>	<code>G1 F2400 E-6</code>
<code>;Filament used:</code>	<code>;LAYER_COUNT:508</code>
<code>3.80996m</code>	<code>;LAYER:0</code>
<code>;Layer height: 0.3</code>	<code>M106 S255</code>
<code>;MINX:186.955</code>	<code>M204 S3000</code>
<code>;MINY:186.953</code>	<code>M205 X10 Y10</code>
<code>;MINZ:0.3</code>	<code>G1 F600 Z0.375</code>
<code>;MAXX:213.044</code>	<code>G0 F3000 X190.606</code>
<code>;MAXY:213.036</code>	<code>Y190.949 Z0.375</code>
<code>;MAXZ:152.4</code>	<code>M204 S1800</code>
<code>;Generated with</code>	<code>M205 X8 Y8</code>
<code>Cura_SteamEngine 5.2.2</code>	<code>;TYPE:SKIRT</code>
<code>M140 S60</code>	<code>G1 F600 Z0.3</code>
<code>M105</code>	<code>G1 F2400 E0</code>
<code>M190 S60</code>	<code>G1 X191.327 Y190.257</code>
<code>M104 S200</code>	<code>E0.0698</code>
<code>M105</code>	<code>G1 X192.184 Y189.548</code>
<code>M109 S200</code>	<code>E0.14749</code>
<code>M82 ;absolute extrusion</code>	<code>G1 X193.1 Y188.93</code>
<code>mode</code>	<code>E0.22467</code>
<code>M107 ;Start with the fan</code>	<code>G1 X194.042 Y188.39</code>
<code>off</code>	<code>E0.30051</code>
	<code>G1 X195.001 Y187.952</code>
	<code>E0.37414</code>
	<code>G1 X195.514 Y187.758</code>
	<code>E0.41245</code>

Table 2 Vertical ISO language (Project contribution, unpublished)

In the sequence of machine execution stage 4, of the printing process in vertical position, the post-processing software adjusts to a different sequence of the trajectory in the coordinate system, said process performs the simulation of plastic deposition PLA.

In which a different process is observed in the application of the material, but the same in the geometric shape of the standardized specimen.

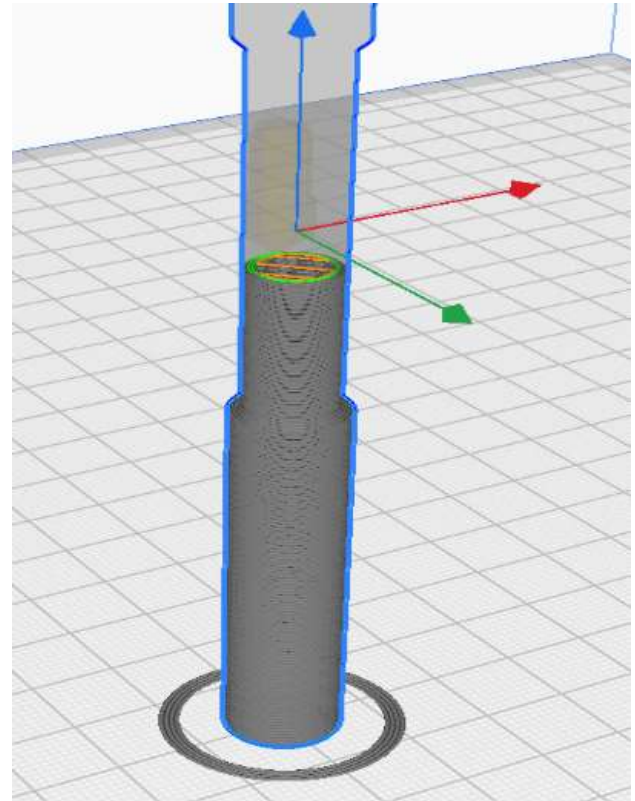


Figure 10 Preview vertical paths (Contribution to the project, unpublished)

Once the trajectories have been simulated by the software and no interferences have been detected in the code, the standard programming language (Language G) is once again transferred to carry out the manufacturing process by additive manufacturing (3D printing), this time in a vertical position.

The work parameters must be reviewed again in order to carry out the deposition efficiently, the following will be considered again:

- Extrusion temperature (200°C)
- Printing table temperature (60°C)

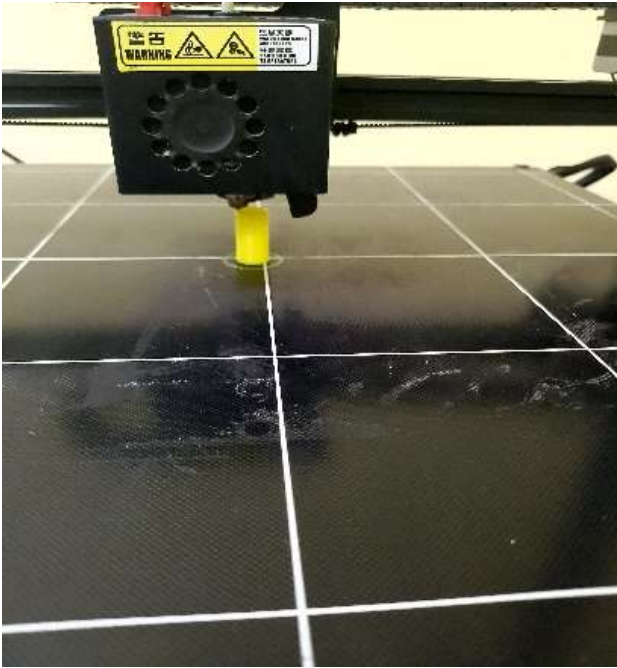


Figure 11 Vertical 3D printing
(Contribution to the project, unpublished)

5. Destructive Test (Horizontal position)

By definition, a destructive test is the verification of mechanical properties, which can be:

- Static: Hardness, traction, compression, shearing, bending, buckling, creep.
- Dynamic: Shock resistance, wear, fatigue (Moreno, López-González, Malagón-Mendoza, Henao-Vega, 2006).

For the present investigation, a tension study will be applied, this concept is based on a physical study in which a solid is subjected to the action of a system of external forces, which is recognized when there is the application of loads and consequently a reaction is obtained, which is why it is defined that any member that supports a load is deformed by the influence of the applied load according to its direction and magnitude, which will be proportional and transversal to its section area (Mott, R. L., Salas, R.N., Flores, M.A.R., & Martínez, E.B.-2009).

The direct action of the application of loads in a solid is represented by the presence of forces in interaction through the surface, these forces achieve an interaction, they are equal in opposite directions on the contact sections (Cervera-Ruiz, Blanco-Díaz, 2002).

The relationship in this interaction process is achieved in the proportion in which the force or load acting on a surface generates a condition called effort, which is denoted by the assignment of the Greek letter sigma σ .

According to the direction in which the force is applied, two types of effort are obtained, of which:

- Compression stress, which occurs to the extent that the action of the forces is collinear, that is, in the same direction.
- Effort of tension or traction, which occurs to the extent that the action of the forces is concurrent, ie in the opposite direction.

Once the relationship to the cross-sectional area has been identified, it will be possible to identify the effects of effort and force (Guzmán, 2005).

$$\sigma = \frac{F}{A} \quad (1)$$

According to the previous theorem, a test will be considered taking into account the action of the force applied in a uniaxial manner and a section of cross-sectional area of the specimen that was printed horizontally, this to identify the effort to which it is subjected. and identify the value of the maximum force and the resulting deformation, this process will be carried out in a WAW-1000D destructive testing equipment, this machine allows the specimen to be held according to its geometry, which can be flat or with a cylindrical head,

For the present study, a change in the clamping means is considered through the jaws, since the geometry is cylindrical, for which smooth head jaws will be used, with a V-cut, which is determined to achieve effectiveness. in the process of measuring the resistance of the component, which according to the shape and dimensions of the test tube for each case, will consider the uniform cross section and its type of manufacturing process, which may include cast test tubes and test tubes with or without machining, which will be essential in the study to obtain the necessary measurement data and according to the variables that are sought to be obtained from the study CASTRILLÓN, A. A., & TORRES, M. R. M. (2017).



Figure 12 Destructive test, horizontal specimen
(Contribution to the project, unpublished)

For the validation of the destructive test, a population sample size of 50 test tubes is being considered, of which the following will be measured:

- Upper Yield Force
- Stress
- Deformation

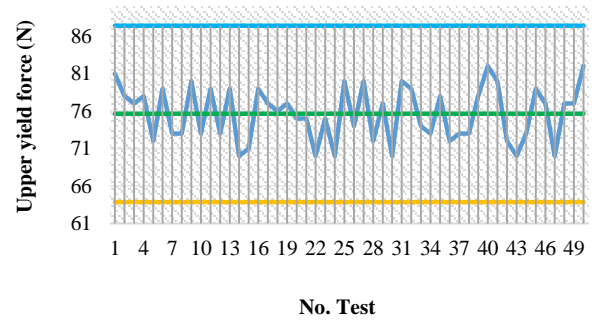
Likewise, the Average value of the sample and the limits of the test will be validated, this as a method of consideration of the consistency of the test and biases in the study.

3D printed specimens in horizontal position				
No. Test	UYF (N)	Strees (Pa)	Deformation	Test speed
1	81	1031452	0.0003126	5 N/S
2	78	993250	0.0003010	
3	77	980517	0.0002971	
4	78	993250	0.0003010	
5	72	916847	0.0002778	
6	79	1005984	0.0003048	
7	73	929581	0.0002817	
8	73	929581	0.0002817	
9	80	1018718	0.0003087	
10	73	929581	0.0002817	

Table 3 Measurement of Upper Yield Force, Horizontal Specimen (UYF)
(Contribution to the project, unpublished)

During data processing and considering the relationship between tests, it is observed that the individuals in the population have a normal discrepancy among themselves, but they remain at control values, which translates into a correct application of the test.

- MEAN: 75.64 N
- UCL: 87.42 N
- LCL: 63.86 N



Graphic 1 Control Chart UYF horizontal
(Contribution to the project, unpublished)

In the process of application of the load during the test, it can be seen that the rupture condition occurs at an average value of 75.64N, at this stage a detachment of filaments can be seen, which manage to behave as tensioned threads at a maximum load, to later generate a detachment by uniaxial action, by determination it is appreciated that fatigue is directly related to the degree of resistance that the presence of filaments opposes in the construction architecture, which according to Becerra, J. L., Díaz-Rodríguez, J. G., & González-Estrada, O. A. (2020), is obtained using a concentric and isotropic arrangement of fiber reinforcement, which interlocks the deposition groups parallel to the section set.



Figure 13 Destructive test horizontal position
(Contribution to the project, unpublished)

Due to the type of test and the 3d printing position in the manufacturing process of the specimen, an elongation is observed, which manages to be translated and calculated by means of the value of the deformation which is present in the given value of the effort and the elastic modulus (Guzmán, 2005).

$$\epsilon = \frac{\sigma}{E} \tag{2}$$

6. Destructive Test (Vertical Position)

In this stage of the test, the condition in the manufacture of the test tube is changed, which, as explained in stage 4, will be carried out by deposition of PLA material in a position parallel to the extrusion axis and in a vertical direction to the printing table. , which under the same criteria in the WAW-1000D machine, will be measured:

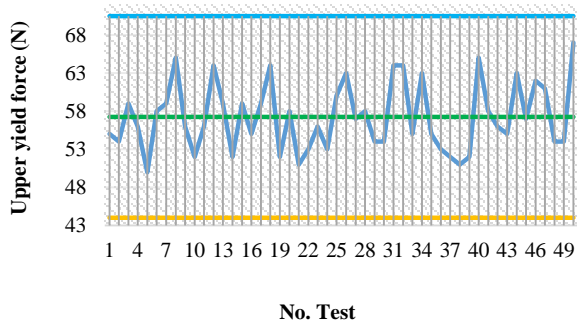
- Upper Yield Force
- Stress
- Deformation

3D printed specimens in vertical position				
No. TEST	UYF (N)	Strees (Pa)	Deformation	Test speed
1	55	700369	0.0002122	5 N/S
2	54	687635	0.0002084	
3	59	751305	0.0002277	
4	56	713103	0.0002161	
5	50	636699	0.0001929	
6	58	738571	0.0002238	
7	59	751305	0.0002277	
8	65	827709	0.0002508	
9	56	713103	0.0002161	
10	52	662167	0.0002007	

Table 4 Measurement of Upper Yield Force, vertical specimen (UYF) (Contribution to the project, unpublished)

During the test, a normal discrepancy is observed, which translates into a correct application of the same, which translates into the following values:

- MEAN: 57.24 N
- UCL: 70.48 N
- LCL: 44 N



Graphic 2 Control Chart UYF vertical (Contribution to the project, unpublished)

In the test application, it can be observed that the rupture condition occurs at an average value of 57.24N and consequently the elongation characteristics are not present, instead a detachment of section between filaments is observed, which are arranged in a circular way resembling a set of necklaces



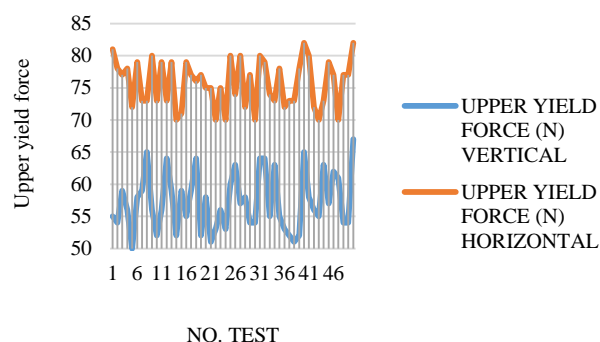
Figure 14 Destructive test vertical position (Contribution to the project, unpublished)

7. Data processing and results

The data comparison reflects a difference focused on the application of force and structural rupture, in which a greater application of this is observed in the 3D printing samples in a horizontal position, compared to the 3D printing samples in a vertical position.

3D print horizontal	3D print vertical
MEAN: 75.64 N	MEAN: 57.24 N
UCL: 87.42 N	UCL: 70.48 N
LCL: 63.86 N	LCL: 44 N

Table 5 Comparison of UYF, UCL and LCL data (Contribution to the project, unpublished)



Graphic 3 Comparison (Contribution to the project, unpublished)

Financing

This research work and application of tests has been financed by the UTSLP (Technological University of San Luis Potosí), as a means of research development and content publication, which is contemplated in the Institutional POA (SA7 Program K09.03_010103 " Publication of articles and attendance at congresses)

Conclusions

The application of destructive tests to a 3D printed element is of vital importance, since through the results of the tests, the best position is determined during the material deposition process, as is the case of the present study, since it can Verify that according to the geometry of the printed body and its position through extrusion, it will determine the tensile strength, this according to the results obtained in the proposed tests, it is concluded that the direction of the filaments of the material of The contribution is significant to the presence of uniaxial yield forces, as long as their direction coincides with that of the extruded filaments.

A recommendation aimed at improving this test measurement process is to check the elastic modulus of the material to be studied, which is significant due to its intrinsic properties and according to its nature, composition and mechanical properties, since these will determine directly the result obtained from the calculations at the time of carrying out the test, likewise it must be considered that the type of material to be printed, as well as the variables to be evaluated, will be according to their properties and depending on the parameterization machine (3D printer) during the material deposition process.

In addition, it is highlighted that, under the action of fluctuating stresses, in this case it consequently generates fatigue, which is evident through visual effects and transversely measurable at the moment of applying the load, which is continuous and constant in unit value, generating a structural phenomenon called "fatigue", which as a result leads to the collapse of the specimen (fracture) SUÁREZ, H. E. J. (2017).

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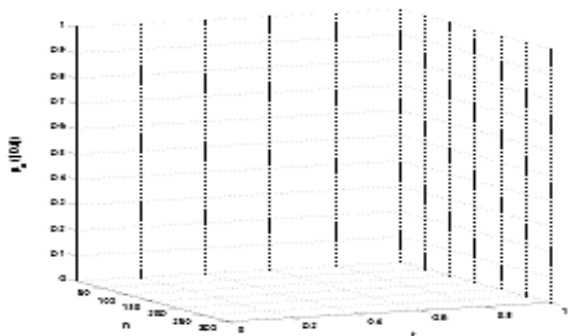
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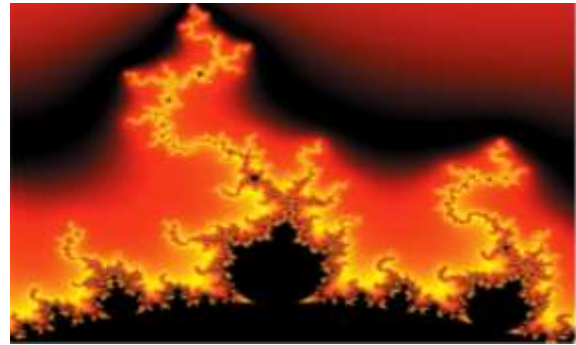


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