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HEAT TRANSFER ENHANCEMENT USING NANOFLUIDS IN THERMAL SYSTEMS

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ABSTRACT

This article presents a comprehensive review of heat transfer enhancement techniques employing nanofluids in diverse thermal systems. Nanofluids, engineered by suspending nano-sized particles (1–100 nm) of metals, metal oxides, or carbon-based materials in conventional base fluids, have emerged as a promising approach for augmenting thermal conductivity and convective heat transfer coefficients. The study examines the synthesis methods, thermophysical properties, heat transfer mechanisms, and practical applications of nanofluids across heat exchangers, solar collectors, electronic cooling systems, and refrigeration cycles. Key parameters influencing nanofluid performance—including particle concentration, size, shape, and base fluid chemistry—are systematically analyzed. Theoretical models predicting thermal conductivity and viscosity enhancements are evaluated against experimental data drawn from recent literature. The article also addresses challenges such as particle sedimentation, agglomeration, and increased pumping power demands. Findings indicate that nanofluids can achieve thermal conductivity enhancements of 5–60% over base fluids, with convective heat transfer coefficient improvements of up to 40%, depending on system conditions. This review highlights both the transformative potential of nanofluid technology and the outstanding issues that must be resolved for large-scale industrial deployment.

KEYWORDS: Nanofluids, Heat Transfer Enhancement, Thermal Conductivity, Nanoparticles, Convective Heat Transfer, Thermal Systems, Energy Efficiency.

1. INTRODUCTION

The rapid advancement of modern engineering systems—spanning microelectronics, solar energy, automotive, chemical processing, and HVAC—has created an escalating demand for efficient heat management solutions. Conventional heat transfer fluids, such as water, ethylene glycol, and mineral oils, are constrained by inherently low thermal conductivities, limiting their capacity to meet the cooling and heating requirements of high-performance systems. This limitation has motivated researchers and engineers worldwide to investigate novel strategies for augmenting fluid thermal properties.

In 1995, Choi and Eastman at Argonne National Laboratory introduced the concept of nanofluids—colloidal dispersions of nanometer-scale particles within a base liquid. This pioneering work demonstrated that even modest concentrations of metallic nanoparticles could yield significant enhancements in thermal conductivity far beyond predictions of classical mixing theories. Since then, a vast body of literature has explored the synthesis, characterization, and application of nanofluids across nearly every domain of heat transfer engineering.

Nanofluids offer several theoretical advantages over conventional fluids and macro/milli-scale particle suspensions. The extremely high surface-area-to-volume ratio of nanoparticles promotes intensified particle-fluid interactions. The Brownian motion of nanoparticles at room temperature creates micro-convection effects that contribute to elevated energy transport. Additionally, nanoparticles can be tailored in material, size, shape, and surface chemistry to optimize performance for specific applications.

However, the widespread adoption of nanofluids in industrial settings has been tempered by practical challenges. Stability—the tendency of nanoparticles to agglomerate and settle over time—remains a central concern. The rheological behavior of nanofluids, particularly at elevated concentrations, introduces increased viscosity and pumping penalties that may offset thermal gains. Furthermore, the reproducibility of experimental results across different laboratories has been inconsistent, partly due to variations in preparation methods and characterization protocols.

This article provides a comprehensive, structured review of nanofluid research, covering synthesis methodologies, thermophysical property models, experimental observations, and engineering applications. The objective is to equip researchers, engineers, and students with a thorough understanding of the current state of the field and to identify key directions for future work.

2. Classification and Synthesis of Nanofluids

2.1 Types of Nanoparticles

The selection of nanoparticle material is foundational to nanofluid design, as it directly governs thermal, optical, and rheological properties. Nanoparticles used in heat transfer applications are broadly classified into the following categories:

Metallic Nanoparticles: Copper (Cu), silver (Ag), gold (Au), and aluminum (Al) nanoparticles possess exceptionally high intrinsic thermal conductivities. Copper nanofluids, for instance, have demonstrated thermal conductivity enhancements exceeding 40% at volume concentrations below 0.3%. However, metallic nanoparticles are prone to oxidation and agglomeration, particularly in aqueous environments, necessitating careful surface treatment.

Metal Oxide Nanoparticles: Alumina (Al_2O_3), copper oxide (CuO), titanium dioxide (TiO_2), zinc oxide (ZnO), and silicon dioxide (SiO_2) represent the most extensively studied category. These oxides are chemically stable, cost-effective, and relatively easy to synthesize. Al_2O_3 nanofluids have become a benchmark system in the field, offering reliable enhancement in the range of 10–30% with good stability.

Carbon-Based Nanoparticles: Carbon nanotubes (CNTs), graphene nanoplatelets (GNP), and graphene oxide (GO) exhibit extraordinary thermal conductivities—up to 3000–6000 W/m·K for individual CNTs—far exceeding any metallic or oxide material. Their incorporation into base fluids can yield exceptional thermal performance at very low loadings. Challenges associated with poor dispersibility and high cost continue to be active areas of research.

Hybrid Nanofluids: An emerging class of nanofluids incorporates two or more types of nanoparticles in a single base fluid, seeking synergistic enhancement. Examples include Al_2O_3–Cu, TiO_2–SiO_2, and MWCNT–Fe_3O_4 hybrid systems. Hybrid nanofluids have shown promising results in achieving superior heat transfer coefficients compared to single-component nanofluids.

2.2 Base Fluids

The choice of base fluid influences nanofluid viscosity, density, specific heat, and chemical compatibility with nanoparticles. Common base fluids include distilled water, ethylene glycol (EG), propylene glycol (PG), engine oil, and ionic liquids. Binary mixtures such as water/EG (60:40) are widely used in automotive and HVAC applications to provide antifreeze protection. Ionic liquid-based nanofluids represent an advanced class with unique thermophysical tunability.

2.3 Synthesis Methods

One-Step Method: Nanoparticles are produced and dispersed in the base fluid simultaneously, typically via chemical vapor deposition, laser ablation, or submerged arc nanoparticle synthesis (SANSS). The one-step approach minimizes oxidation and agglomeration but is complex and difficult to scale.

Two-Step Method: Nanoparticles are first synthesized as a dry powder using standard chemical or physical processes, then dispersed into the base fluid using mechanical mixing, ultrasonication, or high-pressure homogenization. This method is more economical and scalable, though it requires the use of surfactants or pH adjustment to ensure colloidal stability.

Surfactant and pH Adjustment: Sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS), cetyltrimethylammonium bromide (CTAB), polyvinylpyrrolidone (PVP), and gum arabic are among the most common surfactants employed to sterically or electrostatically stabilize nanoparticle suspensions. Zeta potential measurements (typically >|30| mV indicating good stability) are used to assess dispersion quality.

3. Thermophysical Properties of Nanofluids

3.1 Thermal Conductivity

Thermal conductivity is the primary thermophysical property of interest in nanofluid research. Numerous theoretical models have been proposed to predict the effective thermal conductivity (k_{eff}) of nanofluids, each accounting for different physical mechanisms.

Maxwell Model (1873): This foundational model considers a dilute suspension of spherical particles and expresses k_{eff} as a function of particle and fluid thermal conductivities and particle volume fraction (φ). The Maxwell model reasonably predicts behavior at low concentrations but underestimates enhancement at higher loadings, particularly for non-spherical particles.

Hamilton–Crosser Model: An extension of the Maxwell model that incorporates particle shape through an empirical shape factor n ($n = 3$ for spheres, $n = 6$ for cylinders). This model better captures the influence of particle morphology on thermal conductivity.

Bruggeman Model: Applicable to higher particle concentrations, this self-consistent model accounts for particle-particle interactions and yields more accurate predictions for moderately concentrated nanofluids.

Brownian Motion Models: Models proposed by Koo and Kleinstreuer, and Yu and Choi, incorporate Brownian motion as an additional energy transport mechanism. These models predict that thermal conductivity enhancement increases with temperature, a trend confirmed experimentally. The Brownian-motion-based micro-convection effect is believed to be one of the most significant contributors to anomalous enhancement in nanofluids.

Experimentally, thermal conductivity enhancements of 5–60% have been reported depending on particle type, size, concentration, and base fluid. Notable findings include: Al2O3/water (1 vol%): ~10–15% enhancement; CuO/water (1 vol%): ~15–20% enhancement; SWCNT/water (0.1 vol%): up to 40% enhancement; graphene/ethylene glycol (0.1 vol%): 14–86% enhancement.

3.2 Viscosity

Increased viscosity is an inherent consequence of adding solid particles to a fluid, and it represents the primary thermodynamic cost of nanofluid use. The Einstein model (1906) provides the classic prediction for dilute suspensions: $\eta_{eff} = \eta_f (1 + 2.5\varphi)$. This expression underestimates viscosity at higher concentrations, where particle clustering and network formation become significant. The Brinkman model and Batchelor model extend Einstein's formula to moderate and high concentrations, respectively.

In practice, nanofluid viscosity can increase by 10–100% depending on concentration, temperature, and particle size. Non-Newtonian behavior (shear-thinning) has been observed in highly concentrated or aggregated nanofluids. Temperature has a strong inverse effect on viscosity, analogous to base fluids. These viscosity increases must be carefully balanced against thermal gains in system design.

3.3 Specific Heat Capacity

Nanoparticles generally have lower specific heat capacities than liquid base fluids, so nanofluid addition typically reduces the effective specific heat. For metallic and oxide nanoparticles, the effective specific heat can be estimated using a mass-weighted or volume-weighted mixing rule. This reduction in specific heat is partially compensated by enhanced thermal conductivity and convective effects, but it must be accounted for in energy storage applications.

3.4 Density

Nanofluid density increases linearly with particle volume fraction and can be calculated using a simple mixture rule. For high-density nanoparticles such as copper or silver, even small volume fractions can measurably increase fluid density, affecting buoyancy-driven (natural convection) flows and pumping power requirements.

4. Heat Transfer Mechanisms

4.1 Forced Convective Heat Transfer

The convective heat transfer coefficient (h) is the central performance parameter in most engineering applications. For fully developed turbulent flow in a tube, the Dittus-Boelter correlation expresses h as a function of the Nusselt number (Nu), which depends on the Reynolds and Prandtl numbers. Nanofluids improve h through two synergistic mechanisms: (1) enhanced thermal conductivity directly increases the Nusselt number, and (2) increased Prandtl number (due to higher viscosity relative to thermal diffusivity) further improves heat transfer at comparable flow conditions.

Experimental studies of Al2O3/water nanofluids in tube flows have reported convective heat transfer coefficient enhancements of 15–40% over the base fluid at identical flow rates. The enhancement is more pronounced at higher Reynolds numbers (turbulent regime), suggesting that turbulence-induced particle migration and disruption of the thermal boundary layer play important roles. For carbon nanotube nanofluids, enhancements exceeding 350% have been reported under specific conditions, though such extreme values require critical evaluation.

4.2 Natural Convection

Natural convection in nanofluids is governed by the interplay between thermal buoyancy (proportional to thermal expansion coefficient and temperature difference) and viscous resistance. While enhanced thermal conductivity is beneficial, increased viscosity tends to dampen buoyancy-driven flows. Experimental and numerical results show mixed outcomes: some studies report enhancement in natural convection Nusselt numbers by 5–18% at low particle concentrations, while others find suppression at higher concentrations where viscosity effects dominate. The aspect ratio of the enclosure and the Rayleigh number range are critical governing parameters.

4.3 Boiling Heat Transfer

Nucleate and pool boiling heat transfer in nanofluids is a complex, actively researched topic. Nanoparticle deposition on heated surfaces during boiling alters the surface wettability, nucleation site density, and bubble dynamics. Early studies found substantial critical heat flux (CHF) enhancements—up to 200% for dilute Al_2O_3 nanofluids—attributed to nanoparticle surface coatings that improved surface wettability and vapor-liquid interface dynamics. However, these deposited layers can also reduce nucleation site density over extended boiling periods, complicating long-term performance predictions. Recent research emphasizes surface-engineered nanofluid systems designed to controllably tune boiling performance.

5. Engineering Applications

5.1 Heat Exchangers

Shell-and-tube and plate heat exchangers are among the most common thermal components in industrial processes, and they represent a natural application domain for nanofluids. Studies using Al_2O_3/water and TiO_2/water nanofluids in counter-flow and parallel-flow heat exchangers have demonstrated overall heat transfer coefficient improvements of 20–35% at 1–2 vol% concentrations. The effectiveness-NTU (number of transfer units) methodology reveals that nanofluid adoption can allow heat exchanger size reduction while maintaining the same thermal duty, offering potential capital cost savings in new installations.

An important consideration is the pressure drop penalty. Increased viscosity in nanofluids raises the friction factor and pressure drop by 10–30% at equivalent flow rates, increasing pumping power requirements. The performance evaluation criterion (PEC), which compares heat transfer gain relative to pumping penalty, is commonly used to assess the net benefit of nanofluid use. Optimized nanofluid systems typically achieve PEC values of 1.2–1.8, indicating favorable overall performance.

5.2 Solar Thermal Collectors

Solar collectors are well suited to nanofluid integration because optical absorption, thermal storage, and heat transport are all relevant simultaneously. Nanofluids—particularly those using gold, silver, or carbon-based nanoparticles—exhibit strong optical absorption across the solar spectrum, enabling the concept of direct absorption solar collectors (DASC), where the working fluid itself converts solar radiation to thermal energy rather than relying on a solid absorber surface.

Studies on evacuated tube and flat-plate solar collectors using TiO_2/water and Cu/water nanofluids have reported thermal efficiency improvements of 5–25% compared to water. CuO/water nanofluid in a flat-plate collector at 0.2 vol% demonstrated a 23.7% improvement in collector efficiency. For concentrated solar power (CSP) applications, molten salt or thermal oil nanofluids offer enhanced heat storage capacity at high temperatures, potentially improving the economics of energy storage in large-scale power plants.

5.3 Electronic Cooling

The microelectronics industry faces severe thermal management challenges as transistor densities continue to increase in accordance with Moore's Law. Microchannel heat sinks—consisting of arrays of microchannels etched into a silicon or copper substrate—are a leading solution, and nanofluids have been studied as enhanced coolants in these systems. Al_2O_3/water and diamond/water nanofluids in microchannels have demonstrated significant reductions in chip junction temperature, with some studies reporting up to 40% reduction in thermal resistance compared to pure water.

Jet impingement cooling, another high-flux electronic cooling technique, has similarly benefited from nanofluid use. TiO_2/water nanofluids at 1–2 vol% in confined impingement configurations achieved convective heat transfer coefficients up to 30% higher than water at equivalent jet velocities. These enhancements are critical for next-generation data centers, power electronics, and high-performance computing systems where thermal budgets are increasingly constrained.

5.4 Automotive and HVAC Applications

Engine coolant and air conditioning systems are major consumers of conventional heat transfer fluids. The replacement of water/ethylene glycol with EG-based nanofluids has been studied extensively for internal combustion engine radiators. Al_2O_3/EG nanofluids have demonstrated 20–45% improvements in convective heat transfer coefficient in automotive radiators, potentially allowing radiator size reduction or enabling higher engine power density without overheating. Field testing has also shown compatibility with standard radiator materials over short to medium duty cycles.

In HVAC refrigeration systems, nanorefrigerants—refrigerants such as R134a or R22 loaded with nanoparticles such as Al_2O_3 or TiO_2—have been explored to improve both heat transfer and lubricant-oil miscibility. Results are promising but variable, and questions about long-term stability, compressor wear, and system compatibility remain under investigation.

5.5 Biomedical and Pharmaceutical Applications

Beyond traditional thermal engineering, nanofluids are being investigated for targeted hyperthermia therapy in cancer treatment, where magnetic nanoparticles (Fe_3O_4) suspended in biocompatible carriers can be directed to tumor sites and locally heated via alternating magnetic fields. Precise thermal control enabled by nanofluid properties is essential to destroy cancerous cells while sparing healthy tissue. Additionally, nanofluid-based drug delivery vehicles leverage enhanced fluid dynamics and surface interactions to improve therapeutic targeting and efficacy.

6. Challenges and Limitations

6.1 Stability and Sedimentation

The long-term colloidal stability of nanofluids is one of the most significant practical challenges. Van der Waals attractions between particles can lead to rapid agglomeration, increasing effective particle size and diminishing the high-surface-area advantage of nanoparticles. Agglomerated clusters settle over time under gravity, creating concentration gradients and ultimately separation of the nanofluid into a particle-rich sediment and a nearly particle-free supernatant.

Stability is enhanced by electrostatic repulsion (achieved through pH control to exploit surface charge) and steric repulsion (through surfactant coating). Ultrasonication prior to use temporarily breaks up agglomerates, but the effect diminishes over hours to days depending on particle type and concentration. pH-stabilized Al_2O_3/water nanofluids at pH 4 (far from the isoelectric point of ~9) have demonstrated stable dispersions for weeks to months. Development of covalently functionalized nanoparticles with permanently stabilizing surface groups is a promising research direction.

6.2 Increased Viscosity and Pumping Penalty

As previously noted, the viscosity increase associated with nanoparticle addition introduces a pumping power penalty that must be carefully evaluated against heat transfer gains. In laminar flow regimes, where heat transfer enhancement is modest, the viscosity penalty can dominate the energy balance. The net energy efficiency benefit of nanofluid use depends strongly on system geometry, flow regime, and the specific thermal and viscous properties of the nanofluid. Rigorous thermodynamic analysis using figures of merit such as the PEC and entropy generation minimization (EGM) is recommended for quantitative assessment.

6.3 Reproducibility and Measurement Uncertainty

A notable challenge in nanofluid research is the significant scatter in reported experimental data. Measurements of the same nanofluid by different research groups often yield inconsistent thermal conductivity and heat transfer values, attributable to variations in particle size distribution, surface chemistry, preparation method, purity, and measurement technique.

The transient hot wire (THW) method, thermal disk method, and laser flash analysis each carry different measurement uncertainties, complicating cross-study comparisons. Standardization of nanofluid preparation protocols and measurement methodologies is a recognized need in the community.

6.4 Cost and Scalability

The cost of nanoparticle synthesis—particularly for carbon nanotubes, graphene, and noble metal nanoparticles—remains significantly higher than that of conventional base fluids. For commodity industrial applications, the cost premium of nanofluids must be justified by commensurate performance gains and operational savings. Large-scale synthesis routes with adequate quality control, lower-cost functionalization methods, and reliable supply chains are prerequisites for broader industrial adoption.

6.5 Environmental and Health Considerations

The environmental fate and toxicological implications of engineered nanoparticles are subjects of ongoing investigation. Certain metal oxide and metallic nanoparticles have been shown to exhibit cytotoxicity, ecotoxicity, and potential bioaccumulation in aquatic organisms. Regulations governing nanoparticle discharge in wastewater are evolving, and responsible lifecycle management of nanofluid systems—including recovery, disposal, and recycling protocols—must be developed before widespread deployment.

7. Numerical and Computational Modeling

Computational fluid dynamics (CFD) plays an indispensable role in understanding nanofluid behavior and optimizing thermal system designs. Two main modeling frameworks are used:

Single-Phase Models: These treat the nanofluid as a homogeneous fluid with modified (effective) thermophysical properties. They are computationally efficient and capture macroscopic heat transfer trends well when nanofluid concentrations are low and particles are well dispersed. The single-phase approach has been extensively validated for Al_2O_3 and TiO_2 nanofluids in tube and channel flows.

Two-Phase Models: These explicitly account for the slip velocity between nanoparticles and the base fluid, as well as particle migration driven by Brownian diffusion, thermophoresis, and concentration gradients. The mixture model and Eulerian-Lagrangian approaches are the most common. Two-phase models provide more detailed insight into local particle concentration distributions and are necessary for accurate modeling of complex geometries, high concentrations, and boiling phenomena.

Recent advances include molecular dynamics (MD) simulations of nanofluid systems at the atomic scale, revealing the role of nanoparticle surface functionalization and interfacial thermal resistance (Kapitza resistance) in governing thermal conductivity. Lattice Boltzmann methods (LBM) have also been applied to simulate multiphase nanofluid flows in porous media and micro-structured surfaces.

Machine learning (ML) approaches—including artificial neural networks (ANNs), support vector machines (SVMs), and Gaussian process regression—are increasingly applied to correlate and predict nanofluid thermophysical properties from experimental databases, often outperforming classical empirical correlations in predictive accuracy.

8. Recent Advances and Emerging Trends

The nanofluid research landscape continues to evolve rapidly, with several emerging directions gaining prominence:

Hybrid and Ternary Nanofluids: Combining two or three nanoparticle species in a single base fluid offers the potential for synergistic enhancement of thermal and optical properties beyond what any individual component achieves. Recent studies on MWCNT-Al_2O_3/water and GO-Fe_3O_4/EG hybrid nanofluids have reported superior heat transfer coefficients and thermal conductivities compared to their single-component counterparts.

Phase Change Material (PCM) Nanofluids: Dispersing PCM microcapsules or nanoparticles in carrier fluids creates 'microencapsulated PCM slurries' with greatly enhanced heat storage capacity. These materials are promising for thermal energy storage in building HVAC systems and solar thermal applications.

Magnetic Nanofluids (Ferrofluids): Superparamagnetic iron oxide nanoparticles (SPION) in carrier fluids respond to external magnetic fields, enabling active control of fluid flow and heat transfer. Magnetohydrodynamic (MHD) nanofluid flows under controlled magnetic fields show promising enhancement of up to 55% in convective heat transfer coefficient, with potential for adaptive thermal management in electronics and biomedical applications.

Nanofluid-Enhanced Surfaces: Recent research integrates nanofluid use with advanced surface engineering—including micro-finned, porous, and super-hydrophilic surfaces—to achieve multiplicative heat transfer gains. The combination of nanofluid-modified surface wettability and macro-scale surface features leads to dramatic CHF enhancement and nucleate boiling improvement.

Sustainability and Green Nanofluids: Growing interest in environmentally benign nanofluid systems has spurred research into biologically derived stabilizers, reduced-toxicity nanoparticles, and water-based systems that minimize environmental impact. Cellulose nanocrystal (CNC) and silica-based nanofluids from agro-industrial waste streams represent examples of sustainable nanofluid concepts under development.

9. Discussion and Future Directions

The evidence accumulated over three decades of nanofluid research is clear: engineered nanoparticle suspensions can provide meaningful enhancements in thermal conductivity and convective heat transfer across a wide range of conditions. However, the path from laboratory demonstration to reliable industrial deployment remains incomplete. Several critical gaps and priorities can be identified:

Stability-Performance Trade-off: Future research must develop nanofluid formulations that maintain high particle dispersion stability under real operating conditions—elevated temperatures, varying pH, long service durations—without compromising thermal performance or introducing system contamination.

Standardization: The field would greatly benefit from standard reference nanofluids (analogous to NIST Standard Reference Materials) and consensus measurement protocols that enable meaningful cross-laboratory comparisons and accelerate the development of validated predictive models.

System-Level Analysis: Most published studies evaluate nanofluid performance in isolation (a single pipe or component). System-level analyses that account for all interactions—thermal gain, pumping penalty, material compatibility, maintenance costs, and environmental impact—over realistic operating lifetimes are needed to make sound engineering decisions.

Multiscale Modeling: Bridging molecular-scale insights from MD simulations with macroscale CFD predictions remains an open challenge. Multiscale models that accurately propagate nano-scale interfacial effects to system-level performance metrics could greatly enhance the predictive power of nanofluid theory.

Industrial Pilot Studies: More rigorous long-duration pilot studies in real industrial environments (solar plants, data centers, automotive systems) are essential to validate laboratory findings and uncover unforeseen failure modes or performance degradation mechanisms.

10. CONCLUSION

This comprehensive review has surveyed the science and engineering of nanofluid-based heat transfer enhancement across the full spectrum from fundamental thermophysics to practical application. The major findings can be summarized as follows:

Nanofluids represent a scientifically validated approach to improving the thermal performance of base fluids, with thermal conductivity enhancements ranging from 5% to over 60% and convective heat transfer coefficient improvements up to 40% or higher in optimal conditions. The degree of enhancement depends critically on nanoparticle material, size, shape, concentration, surface chemistry, and base fluid properties.

A diverse range of applications—from solar collectors and industrial heat exchangers to electronic cooling and biomedical hyperthermia—have been explored, and favorable performance in controlled experiments has been demonstrated across all these domains. Hybrid nanofluids, magnetic nanofluids, and nanofluid-surface integration represent the most actively developing frontiers.

Significant challenges remain, including colloidal stability, viscosity penalties, measurement inconsistency, and cost. Addressing these through advances in particle functionalization chemistry, predictive multiscale modeling, and rigorous system-level evaluation will be necessary before nanofluid technology achieves its potential in large-scale industrial deployment.

The convergence of nanotechnology, materials science, thermal engineering, and computational modeling continues to unlock new possibilities in this field. With sustained research investment and interdisciplinary collaboration, nanofluids are positioned to play a transformative role in next-generation energy systems, electronics cooling, and sustainable thermal management technologies.

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