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Investigating mechanical enhancement and vibrational response of additive manufactured PLA scaffolds with carbon nanotube and graphene oxide: Fabrication and multi-scale simulation

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ABSTRACT

This paper investigates the relationship between nanomaterials concentration, scaffold topologies, and mechanical and vibrational performance of additive manufactured Polylactic Acid (PLA) scaffolds reinforced with Graphene Oxide (GO) and Carbon Nanotube (CNT). Three different scaffold topologies namely Cube, Diamond, and Lattice Diamond were designed. Every scaffold comprised PLA reinforced with GO and CNT at different concentration levels of 0 wt%, 0.2 wt%, 0.4 wt%, and 0.6 wt%. The mechanical performance of scaffolds was evaluated via compressive testing. A representative volume element (RVE) model, evaluated using periodic boundary conditions, was developed and successfully validated against experimental results, with a deviation between 13.5 % to 23 %. The novelty of the work lies in incorporating GO and SWCNT agglomeration within the RVE models, enabling a more accurate comparison with 3D-printed composite test samples. Additionally, a comprehensive evaluation of scaffold shapes, geometry, vibrational response, and reinforcement concentration, provides valuable insights into their performance. Experimental and RVE results indicated that the PLAs reinforced with 0.6 wt% GO and 0.6 wt% CNT experience agglomerations. Finite element simulations using the Mooney-Rivlin hyperelastic model showed that the compressive strength of the structures followed this order: Diamond > Cube > Lattice Diamond. The results showed that increasing GO and CNT content from 0 wt% to 0.4 wt% led the Diamond scaffold to exhibit the greatest improvement in compressive strength and elastic modulus, with increases of 79.3 %, 26 %, 165.9 %, and 129 %, respectively. It was found that the additive manufactured modified PLA Diamond scaffold displays the best mechanical performance among the other scaffold topologies. The finite element analysis using the Lanczos Eigensolver revealed that mechanical enhancements and structural topology directly impact natural frequency variations, making them major parameters to consider for specific applications.

1. Introduction

Additive manufacturing (AM) technology provides a highly effective methodology for the construction of products with high levels of geometry complications without the need for new instruments [1]. AM is an emerging technology that can significantly alter the procedures and manufacturing operations in different sectors such as healthcare [2,3], transportation [4], energy [5] and other disciplines [6]. Additionally, AM can create structures from a diverse range of materials, such as metals [7], ceramics [8], and composites [9,10].

Fused deposition molding (FDM) is one of the most used AM approaches. FDM is the process of applying molten filaments layer-bylayer through an extrusion process. The molten blend material is dispensed on a platform after the mixtures are heated at the nozzle. Subsequently, the dissolved mixture of materials stack on top of the previous layers and consolidate into the ultimate forms [11]. The majority of thermoplastic polymers, powder/fiber composites, and metals are used as the material of choice for FDM [11]. Polymer filaments are

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Fig. 1. Synthesized PLA/GO, and PLA/CNT particles for filament fabrication and Nanocomposite filament extruder machine.



Fig. 2. Additively manufactured scaffolds, PLA, PLA/GO, and PLA/CNT.

utilized in the FDM process, which can be swiftly chilled to produce a wide variety of printed products and forms. The three-dimensional AM is capable of processing thermoplastic polymer materials, including acrylonitrile butadiene styrene (ABS) [12,13], PLA [14,15], polyamide (PA) [16], and polycarbonate (PC) [17], as well as thermosetting polymer materials like epoxies [18,19].

Recent years have seen a surge in the discussion regarding the creation of products with exceptional mechanical and physical performance for industrial applications, biomedical engineering, transportation, and other sectors, among other applications of AM [20–23]. For this purpose, a geometric model of the porous material is typically generated using computer-aided design software. This model is subsequently imported into the AM instruments in the form of STL files, and the model is subsequently processed with geometric segments and fabricated layer by layer [24]. In this line, a variety of structures and scaffolds have been developed, including honeycomb structures [25], porous lattice structures [26], mechanical metamaterials [27–29], plate-lattice scaffolds [30], diamond-based scaffolds [31], auxetic scaffolds [32], and triply periodic minimal surfaces (TPMS)-inspired scaffolds [33–36].

Due to its demand for eco-friendly, biocompatibility, and non-toxic degradation products, PLA has a broad range of applications from bone tissue regeneration to automotive applications such as jigs and fixtures [37,38]. Additionally, PLA is the most frequently employed





material in the FDM process for the production of certain medical devices, such as suture anchors, meshes, and fasteners [39]. The considerable modulus of elasticity, tensile strength, and limited elongation at fracture of PLA make it an appropriate material for use in bone tissue [40,41].

Nevertheless, additive manufactured PLA materials have limitations, such as mechanical strength in comparison to other materials [42]. It is crucial to take these limitations into account, particularly in applications that necessitate greater mechanical properties, despite their advantages [43,44]. In order to create AM products with desired properties, it is possible to combine reinforcements such as CNT, carbon fiber (CF), short glass fiber (SGF), short basalt fiber (SBF), and ceramic particles with the PLA matrix to create modified nanocomposite filaments [45–47].

PLA reinforced with graphene is one of the nanocomposites that are

developed to overcome the neat PLA mentioned limitations [48–50]. The graphene network in the matrix has allowed composites to exhibit exceptional mechanical strength while preserving flexibility which is a consequence of the addition of graphene to the PLA matrix [51,52]. Research has been done to improve mechanical strength and enhance interfacial bonding between polymers and GO using surface modification agents, including sodium stearate [53], titanium ester coupling agents [54], and biomolecule L-lysine [55]. Pandey, Atul, et al. fabricated PLA reinforced with GO with high mechanical and surface properties using pencil lead for GO synthesization [56].

Moreover, PLA reinforced with CNT is one of the promising nanocomposites which can address the neat PLA drawbacks in recent years [57,58]. The extraordinary properties of CNT as nanofillers, such as a low density (1.3–2.0 g/cm3) and a high Young's modulus (0.3–1.0 TPa), have attracted significant attention [59,60]. As a result, these materials



Fig. 3. Additively manufactured scaffolds under compressive test.

are both lightweight and durable. Furthermore, research suggests that CNT has the potential to be bioactive in biomedical applications, which could potentially enhance cell adhesion and proliferation, which are intriguing implementations of the PLA/CNT nanocomposite [50,61]. Additionally, the incorporation of CNTs into a PLA matrix can enhance the degree of crystallinity and crystallization process. The crystallization behavior of PLA mixed with multi-walled CNT was synthesized through melt blending [62]. The rapid spread and movement of PLA chains induce rapid heterogeneous crystallization due to CNT serving as an agent of nucleation [62].

Finite element method (FEM) has been used extensively to determine the most appropriate nanocomposite geometries with desired mechanical and physical characteristics such as elastic constants, compressive strength, and magnetic properties [63–65]. The numerical analysis results enable the researchers to acquire a more comprehensive and precise comprehension of the problem criteria prior to the commencement of the experimental process. The RVE is an appropriate method for the analysis of composites that contain two or more phases. The mechanical properties of the desired composites are predicted and supported by the appropriate representative volume element (RVE) model per their intended applications [66]. In composite materials theory, the RVE is the minimum volume at which a measurement may be obtained to provide a result that accurately represents the complete model [66]. The development of RVE models that integrate fibers and particles that are arbitrarily dispersed within the matrix is made possible by the DIGIMAT tool [67,68], which provides insights into complex materials' characteristics.

Existing literature reveals a gap in the systematic analysis of CNTreinforced AM PLAs, particularly in evaluating scaffold architecture, material properties, and their interrelationships with mechanical performance [69,70]. This research addresses this gap by investigating various modified filaments and scaffolds to assess their mechanical properties, morphologies, and compressive load responses. The objective is to identify the optimal scaffold topology and nanomaterial composition for superior mechanical performance by comparing experimental results with finite element simulations. PLA reinforced with graphene oxide (GO) and CNT is used to fabricate three distinct 3D scaffold designs: Cube, Diamond, and Lattice Diamond. These scaffolds



Fig. 4. Additively manufactured scaffolds, PLA, PLA/GO, and PLA/CNT after compressive test.

are analyzed for their mechanical performance and vibrational behavior to determine the influence of architecture and filament modifications.

Detailed microstructural analysis is conducted using FESEM to assess the dispersion and agglomeration of GO and CNT, and their impact on mechanical strength. Compressive testing is performed to evaluate the elastic modulus and compressive strength. Additionally, RVE is analyzed under periodic boundary conditions (PBC) to predict the material properties of the modified filaments. FEM is used to investigate the stress distribution and mechanical response of the scaffolds. To enhance accuracy, experimental testing of the scaffolds is performed to determine the Mooney-Rivlin hyperelastic constants. Moreover, to investigate the influence of mechanical enhancement and structure topologies on the vibrational response and identifying their resonance, natural frequency of structures was determined. Thus, a new perspective for choosing the appropriate structures for applications were provided. The following sections provide a detailed analysis of each of these aspects.

2. Materials and methods

At first, PLA/GO and PLA/CNT 3D printer filaments were manufactured. Subsequently, test samples were produced, and hyperelastic constants were ascertained. The scaffold models were generated and incorporated into the additive manufacture software (Simplify 3D) for the purpose of printing the scaffolds with modified filaments that were fabricated. Following this, FESEM was employed to examine the morphology and microstructure behavior of PLA, PLA/GO, and PLA/ CNT nanocomposites. Additionally, scaffolds were subjected to compressive testing in order to assess their mechanical and physical characteristics. The subsequent subsections provide a comprehensive explanation of each of the aforementioned subjects.

2.1. Materials and filament preparation

Pure PLA granules (Sigma-Aldrich, Germany) were combined with a variety of nanomaterials to create a composite material: CNT (US Research Nanomaterials Inc., USA) treated with strong nitric acid, PBS



Fig. 5. Morphology and microstructure of the neat PLA, PLA mixed with 0.2 wt% GO (G1), PLA mixed with 0.4 wt% GO (G2), and PLA mixed with 0.6 wt% GO (G3), PLA mixed with 0.2 wt% CNT (C1), PLA mixed with 0.4 wt% CNT (C2), and PLA mixed with 0.6 wt% CNT (C3).

powder, introducing hydroxyl (–OH) and carboxyl (–COOH) groups onto their surface as surface treatment, and GO nanoplates (US Research Nanomaterials Inc., USA) prepared through mechanical stripping. The components were mixed for 10 min at a rotor speed of 60 r/min and a temperature of 150 °C using a Haake torque rheometer (Haake PolyLab OS) [71]. After being centrifuged, the liquid above the sediment was filtered, washed with deionized water, and dehydrated in an oven at 60 °C for one day. The solid that resulted was chilled and subsequently fractured into 0.5 cm-diameter fragments. The nanocomposite filament extruder machine and the synthesized particles for modified PLA filaments are depicted in Fig. 1. Moreover, PLA/GO and PLA/CNT particles were prepared for subsequent filament fabrication, as illustrated in Fig. 1.

Wire-shaped composites were produced to satisfy the precise specifications of the FDM 3D printer (Raise-3D Pro2 Plus) by meticulously managing the temperature and extruding composite particles through a small single-screw extruder. It is crucial to be aware that the extrusion temperature was contingent upon the specific composite formulation. The synthesis of PLA/GO and PLA/CNT nanocomposites was conducted using three different weight percentages: G1, G2, and G3, which consisted of PLA mixed with 0.2 wt% GO, 0.4 wt% GO, and 0.6 wt% GO, respectively. Additionally, C1, C2, and C3, which consisted of PLA



Fig. 6. Neat PLA, PLA mixed with 0.2 wt% GO (G1), PLA mixed with 0.4 wt% GO (G2), and PLA mixed with 0.6 wt% GO (G3), PLA mixed with 0.2 wt% CNT (C1), PLA mixed with 0.4 wt% CNT (C2), and PLA mixed with 0.6 wt% CNT (C3) RVEs.

mixed with 0.2 wt% CNT, 0.4 wt% CNT, and 0.6 wt% CNT, were also synthesized. Analysis of the mechanical characteristics of PLA, PLA/GO, and PLA/CNT was conducted utilizing test samples, which also yielded the essential data for a following FEM investigation.

2.2. Scaffolds printing

Three distinct structures (Cube, Diamond, and Lattice Diamond) are generated using CATIA software. The dimensions of each scaffold are 2.4 cm in length, 2.4 cm in width, and 2.4 cm in height. Additionally, the porosity ratio of the structure's ranges from 45 % to 55 %.

The corresponding STL files were generated by simplified 3D software as input after the associated design was completed. These files were evaluated for any required adjustments to the AM equipment. Rapid prototyping enables the immediate fabrication of systematically organized and biologically suitable scaffolds from a computer. FDM 3D printer (Raise-3D Pro2 Plus) has a speed range of 30–150 mm/s, a maximum nozzle temperature of up to 300 °C, and a variety of nozzle diameters, including 0.2 mm, 0.4 mm, 0.6 mm, 0.8 mm, and 1 mm. The temperature, nozzle diameter and filaments diameter were set to 210 °C,

0.4 mm, and 1.75 mm, respectively. Moreover, simulations were conducted to extract G-code and perform AM. The AM apparatus was subsequently programmed with the credentials that were acquired. The production phase commences following calibration, and each sample requires approximately three hours. The scaffolds that were additively manufactured are depicted in Fig. 2. Each scaffold was appropriately printed, and the quality of the architecture and porosity were satisfactory. Each scaffold in Fig. 2 is illustrated in two main perspectives, including an isometric view and a magnified view to visualize the scaffold geometry and structure.

2.3. Experimental procedures

The scaffolds were assessed for their mechanical and physical characteristics utilizing a compressive strength testing mechanism (SAN-TAM-STM50, Amirkabir University of Technology). Fig. 3 depicts the compressive test conducted on scaffolds produced by AM.

By subjecting each sample to a displacement rate of 0.2 mm/min, its compressive strength is evaluated. The stress–strain curve is generated by the output of the device, which includes data on displacement and



Fig. 7. Neat PLA, PLA mixed with 0.2 wt% GO (G1), and PLA mixed with 0.4 wt% GO (G2), PLA mixed with 0.2 wt% CNT (C1), PLA mixed with 0.4 wt% CNT (C2) Von Misses Equivalent Stress.

Table 1

Mechanical properties of PLA/CNT, and PLA/GO test samples obtained by RVE and EXP.

Sample	RVE		EXP	Error		
	Elastic Modulus (MPa)	Poisson Ratio	Elastic Modulus (MPa)	Poisson Ratio	(%)	
G1	1551.98	0.32	1338.12	0.33	13.78	
G2	2128.02	0.31	1824.78	0.33	14.25	
G3	1837.09	0.31	1493.81	0.32	22.98	
C1	4494.27	0.33	3885.75	0.33	13.54	
C2	5071.83	0.32	4287.22	0.32	15.47	
C3	4323.23	0.32	3536.52	0.32	22.24	

Table 2

Mooney-Rivlin constants c_{10} and $..c_{01}$

Sample	<i>c</i> ₁₀ (MPa)	<i>c</i> ₀₁ (MPa)
PLA	156	84
G1	182	89.64
G2	248.2	122.25
C1	528.52	260.32
C2	664.19	312.56

force. To calculate the elastic modulus of each sample, the gradient of the elastic area of the stress–strain curve was computed. Additionally, the microstructure of the scaffolds was examined using a FESEM (MIRA3, TESCAN, Germany) after they were coated with gold in a cold sputtering coater (Scd005, Leica, Czech Republic) at a voltage of 10 kV.

3. Multi-scale simulation

A multiscale analysis was conducted to examine the RVE of PLA/BN, PLA/GO, and PLA/CNT. The RVE model was examined under PBCs to attain satisfactory results. PBCs are a collection of constraints that are frequently implemented to simulate an infinitely large system through the utilization of a diminutive component known as a unit cell. PBCs are included in computer simulations and mathematical models. In contrast to experimental studies, this approach demonstrated the ability to accurately determine the mechanical characteristics of a wide range of nanocomposites. Subsequently, the generation of RVEs and the examination of test samples were discussed. Additionally, Abaqus software was employed to conduct FEMs to examine the mechanical properties of scaffolds. In order to guarantee mesh convergence and achieve consistent outcomes, a trial-and-error approach was implemented. As a result, the mesh size was taken to be 0.4 mm for all finite element simulations. The hyperelastic properties of the fabricated scaffolds were used to define the material properties. Simulations were conducted using the Mooney-Rivlin model. The strain energy function for the Mooney-Rivlin model was established using the following equation [72]:

$$U = C_{10}(\bar{I}_1 - 3) + C_{01}(\bar{I}_2 - 3) + \frac{1}{D_1} (J^{el} - 1)^2$$
(1)

where C_{10} , C_{01} , and D_1 are material parameters. \overline{I}_1 and \overline{I}_2 are the first and second deviatoric strain invariants defined as:

$$\bar{I}_1 = \bar{\lambda}_1^2 + \bar{\lambda}_2^2 + \bar{\lambda}_2^2 \tag{2}$$

$$\bar{I}_{1} = \bar{\lambda}_{1}^{(-2)} + \bar{\lambda}_{2}^{(-2)} + \bar{\lambda}_{2}^{(-2)}$$
(3)

where the deviatoric stretches $\overline{\lambda}_i = J^{-\frac{1}{3}} \lambda_i (J \text{ is the total volume ratio}), J^{el}$ is the elastic volume ratio, and λ_i are the principal stretches [73]. The formulae defining initial shear modulus (μ_0) and bulk modulus (K_0) are defined by following equations:

$$\mu_0 = 2(c_{10} + c_{01}) \tag{4}$$

$$k_0 = \frac{2}{D_1} \tag{5}$$

According to R. Afshar et al. [74], hyperelastic constants were obtained. In this study incompressible Mooney-Rivlin model was considered.

4. Results and discussions

4.1. Mechanical results

The mechanical performance of the scaffolds (PLA, PLA/GO, and PLA/CNT) was evaluated using compressive testing, as shown in Fig. 4. Buckling occurred in the Cube scaffolds due to the narrow links in their structure. In contrast, the Diamond scaffolds experienced link fractures, while the Lattice Diamond scaffold was uniformly compressed without collapsing or breaking. This behavior was primarily attributed to the absence of interconnected links in the Lattice Diamond design.

FESEM images of the PLA, PLA/GO, and PLA/CNT scaffolds are shown in Fig. 5. At 0.2 wt% and 0.4 wt% concentrations, CNT and GO nanomaterials were evenly dispersed within the PLA matrix, with no evidence of aggregation. On the other hand, scaffolds made with PLA reinforced with 0.6 wt% GO and 0.6 wt% CNT showed significant agglomeration, which could considerably weaken their overall mechanical strength.

4.2. Finite element results

The commercial DIGIMAT software platform (developed by e-Xstream Engineering SA) was used to construct the RVE models, incorporating DIGIMAT-FE as a practical tool. The nanomaterial weight percentages (GO and CNT) varied at 0 wt%, 0.2 wt%, 0.4 wt%, and 0.6 wt%. RVEs were generated by analyzing microstructure data, including Poisson's ratio, elastic modulus, and material density. GO in the RVE was modeled as nanoplates with diameters of $10-50 \ \mu m$ and a thickness of 7 nm, while CNTs were represented as curved cylinders with a diameter of 1 nm and an aspect ratio of 1000, based on the datasheet specifications (length = 1000 nm). The PLA/GO and PLA/CNT nanocomposites were synthesized in three different weight percentages: 0.2 wt% (G1), 0.4 wt% (G2), and 0.6 wt% (G3). GO and CNT nanomaterials were assumed to be elastic and isotropic, with random distribution within the PLA matrix during RVE simulations to enhance precision. Each RVE model underwent five tests to ensure the accuracy of the simulations, with the PLA, PLA/GO, and PLA/CNT RVEs shown in Fig. 6. Cluster formations were observed in RVEs with 0.6 wt% GO and CNT, potentially reducing mechanical properties, as indicated in Fig. 6. Therefore, the research proceeded with PLA reinforced with 0.2 wt% and 0.4 wt% GO and CNT.

The PBCs allow for the simulation of a microsystem without surface constraints or external forces, enabling it to reach uniformity at a larger scale. This approach is essential for examining RVEs, achieved through the periodic repetition of PBCs in all directions [67]. It allows for modeling a compact system without surface boundaries, facilitating the comparison and analysis of numerical results with experimental findings. Fig. 7 presents the equivalent stress for PLA, PLA mixed with 0.2 wt % GO (G1), and PLA mixed with 0.4 wt% GO (G2), as well as PLA mixed with 0.2 wt% CNT (C1) and PLA mixed with 0.4 wt% CNT (C2).

Table 1 presents the mechanical parameters of PLA/GO and PLA/ CNT composites obtained through PBCs and experimental results. It can be seen that the elastic modulus determined using PBCs aligns well with experimental values, with an error margin ranging from 13.5 % to 23 %. The elastic modulus of PLA/GO increased from 1551.98 MPa (G1) to 2128.02 MPa (G2), as shown in Table 1. Similarly, the elastic modulus of PLA/CNT increased from 4498.27 MPa (C1) to 5071.83 MPa (C2).



Fig. 8. Stress distribution of Cube structures, PLA, PLA/GO, and PLA/CNT.



Fig. 9. Stress distribution of Diamond structure, PLA, PLA/GO, and PLA/CNT.



Fig. 10. Stress distribution of Lattice Diamond structure, PLA, PLA/GO, and PLA/CNT.



Fig. 11. Stress-Strain graph obtained by FEM and EXP for (a) Cube structure, (b) Diamond structure, and (c) Lattice Diamond structure.

Experimental results also showed an increase in elastic modulus for PLA/GO, from 1338.12 MPa (G1) to 1824.78 MPa (G2). Likewise, PLA/CNT's modulus rose from 3885.75 MPa (C1) to 4287.22 MPa (C2). However, the mechanical performance significantly declined for G3 and C3, as confirmed by the experimental results.

The mechanical behavior of the additive manufactured scaffolds (Cube, Diamond, and Lattice Diamond) was analyzed using FEM under compressive testing, based on the mechanical properties of the additive manufactured nanocomposites under experimental study. The scaffolds' behavior was evaluated using the Mooney-Rivlin hyperelastic model, as outlined in Section 3. The Mooney-Rivlin constants applied in the finite element simulations are provided in Table 2.

Figs. 8-10 show the stress distribution for the Cube, Diamond, and Lattice Diamond scaffolds, respectively. The Diamond scaffold exhibited superior mechanical performance compared to the Cube and Lattice Diamond scaffolds. From Fig. 8, the maximum stress was concentrated in the links, causing failure initiation in these areas, which agrees with the experimental findings. Fig. 9 shows that the stress was uniformly distributed throughout the Diamond structure, resulting in fracture patterns consistent with the experimental results. Fig. 10 demonstrates that maximum stress was on the areas in which Lattice Diamond's cells were in contact.

Fig. 11 illustrates the stress-strain curves of cube, diamond, and lattice diamond scaffolds from the FEMs. Compared to scaffolds made from PLA/GO and PLA reinforced with 0.2 wt% CNT, those fabricated with PLA reinforced with 0.4 wt% CNT exhibited enhanced mechanical performance across all scaffold topologies. The compressive strengths of the cube, diamond, and lattice diamond scaffolds were measured at 249.7 MPa, 387.29 MPa, and 228.2 MPa, respectively, for those made with PLA/0.4 wt% CNT. Notably, the diamond scaffold exhibited superior mechanical properties compared to the cube and lattice diamond structures. Fig. 11 indicates that the deviation observed in the PLA and PLA/GO scaffolds is less than that in the PLA/CNT scaffolds. The formation of CNT within the scaffolds' links significantly influences the mechanical performance of the scaffolds due to the potential for localized weakness in areas with CNT agglomeration. The dispersion level of CNT within the 3D-printed scaffolds exhibited greater sensitivity. As a result, when damage was observed in PLA/CNT scaffolds during a compressive test, the measured stress was lower than that predicted by ideal finite element simulations. As shown in Fig. 11, the difference between the FEM and EXP results at the beginning stage of EXP stress-strain curves in the Diamond and Lattice Diamond structures is related to the contact between the scaffolds and the upper fixture. This is because the upper fixture surface partially touched these scaffolds' top surface at the beginning, therefore the initial stress-strain slope is lower at the beginning.

Table 3 presents the elastic modulus and compressive strength of additive manufactured scaffolds obtained through FEM and experimental measurements. Across all configurations, the elastic modulus of the diamond scaffolds exceeded that of both the cube and lattice diamond scaffolds. Furthermore, the results indicate a satisfactory degree of agreement between the elastic modulus values derived from the experimental procedure and those obtained through FEM, with deviations ranging from 11.5 % to 23 % depending on the filament and scaffold topology. Moreover, the compressive strength of structures reported by FEM and EXP has acceptable deviation between 8.54 % to 28.74 %.

To assess the impact of mechanical improvements and structural architecture on vibrational response, the natural frequencies across five successive modes were identified using FEM. This was achieved through frequency simulation using the Lanczos Eigensolver. The natural frequencies and modes of the investigated scaffolds are shown in Fig. 12 and reported in Table 4. As mechanical properties improve in the modified filaments, the natural frequency value increases significantly. For example, an 86 % rise can be observed in the Cube structure's 5th mode, from 6932.6 Hz to 12951 Hz. Diamond and Lattice Diamond scaffolds exhibit higher frequencies than Cube scaffolds. For Cube and Diamond scaffolds, the frequencies across five modes were relatively close, with variations ranging from 2802 Hz (PLA) to 5187.7 Hz (C2) for Cube, and from 4604 Hz (PLA) to 8745 Hz (C2) for Diamond. In contrast, Lattice Diamond scaffolds showed a broader frequency variation, from 9161.3 Hz (PLA) to 17089 Hz (C2). This wider frequency range may limit the application scope of Lattice Diamond scaffolds compared to Cube and Diamond scaffolds.

5. Conclusion

This study evaluates AM PLA nanocomposite scaffolds by investigating the effect of architecture and modified PLA filaments on their

Table 3

Compressive strength and elastic modulus additive manufactured scaffolds.

Scaffold	Inclusion	Compressive strength (MPa)		Elastic modulus (MPa)			
		FEM	EXP	Error (%)	FEM	EXP	Error (%)
Cube	PLA	98.53	78.95	19.87	1769.26	1565.26	11.53
	G1	123.42	107.04	13.27	2005.92	1697.41	15.38
	G2	168.13	143.30	14.77	2749.41	2274.57	17.27
	C1	225.46	187.08	17.02	4165.26	3472.98	16.62
	C2	249.73	203.08	18.68	4635.55	3721.88	19.71
Diamond	PLA	145.60	133.17	8.54	2488.46	2233.14	10.26
	G1	214.58	177.26	17.39	2742.69	2291.24	16.46
	G2	261.17	211.12	19.16	3489	2814.58	19.33
	C1	327.40	259.39	20.77	5927.73	4840.58	18.34
	C2	387.29	275.98	28.74	6626.28	5114.83	22.81
Lattice Diamond	PLA	87.64	76.14	13.12	1783.74	1559.17	12.59
	G1	103.47	87.63	15.31	2016.59	1731.24	14.15
	G2	131.80	110.06	16.49	2741.02	2306.57	15.85
	C1	195.23	162.63	16.70	3919.89	3295.06	15.94
	C2	228.20	184.56	19.12	4392.64	3487.32	20.61



Fig. 12. The natural frequency of (a) Cube structure, (b) Diamond structure, and (c) Lattice Diamond structure.

Table 4

The natural frequency of structures in 5 successive modes.

Cube Structure Natural Frequency (Hz)							
Mode	1 st	2 nd	3 rd	4 th	5t h		
PLA	4130.6	4154.5	4161.9	6803.4	6932.6		
G1	4393	4418	4426	7232.6	7370.5		
G2	5116	5143.9	5153.4	8414.7	8575.1		
C1	7381.5	7414.8	7429	12,114	12,324		
C2	7763.3	7796.9	7811.9	12,737	12,951		
Diamond Structure Natural Frequency (Hz)							
Mode	1st	2 nd	3 rd	4 th	5t h		
PLA	11,306	11,803	11,843	15,111	15,910		
G1	12,027	12,556	12,599	16,078	16,927		
G2	14,011	14,631	14,680	18,744	19,730		
C1	20,207	21,118	21,189	27,113	28,513		
C2	21,247	22,209	22,284	28,525	29,992		
Lattice Diamond Structure Natural Frequency (Hz)							
Mode	1st	2 nd	3 rd	4 th	5t h		
PLA	9856.7	9859.1	9994.6	16,586	19,018		
G1	10,483	10,486	10,630	17,641	20,223		
G2	12,210	12,214	12,385	20,549	23,542		
C1	17,639	17,647	17,910	29,685	33,906		
C2	18,557	18,565	18,847	31,229	35,646		

mechanical properties and vibrational behavior. Using PLA reinforced with GO and CNT, three scaffold topologies-Cube, Diamond, and Lattice Diamond-were fabricated and evaluated under compression. Moreover, the possibility of fabricating test samples with modified PLA filaments was evaluated and their mechanical properties were predicted using experimentally validated micromechanics modelling. FESEM analysis revealed uniform dispersion of nanomaterials at 0.2 wt% and 0.4 wt%, while 0.6 wt% led to agglomerations, negatively impacting mechanical performance. Compressive tests measured elastic modulus and compressive strength, and the results were compared with FEM. To predict the impact of agglomeration inside the PLA matrix, agglomeration formation was also studied. RVE models, analyzed under PBC, showed a deviation of 11.5 % to 23 % from experimental data, confirming their accuracy. The Mooney-Rivlin material behavior was considered for scaffold simulations by determining its constants from the experimental tests conducted on samples that were 3D-printed. Both experimental and FEM results indicated that the Diamond scaffold, reinforced with 0.4 wt% CNT, exhibited superior mechanical properties, with a compressive strength of 387.29 MPa compared to 249.7 MPa for the Cube and 228.2 MPa for the Lattice Diamond. Thus, the Diamond scaffold with 0.4 wt% CNT was identified as the optimal design for enhanced mechanical performance. The vibrational response shows that the reinforced scaffolds showed higher natural frequencies. In addition,

Cube and Diamond scaffolds have closer natural frequencies across five modes compared to Lattice Diamond scaffolds. The variation in frequency behavior should be considered in the design, as it increases the risk of reaching resonance, potentially limiting their use.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Sajad Niazi Angili: Writing – original draft, Project administration, Methodology, Investigation, Formal analysis, Conceptualization. Mohammadreza Morovvati: Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Conceptualization. Yashar Vatandoust: Writing – original draft, Methodology, Formal analysis. Mohammad Fotouhi: Investigation, Writing – review & editing. Mahdi Bodaghi: Investigation, Writing – review & editing.

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Data availability

Data will be made available on request.

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