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# Robust and durable superlubricity enabled by carboxylated graphene quantum dots in lubricated steel contacts

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## ABSTRACT

Achieving macroscale superlubricity on engineering steel by utilizing aqueous green lubricants has gained growing interest, given its substantial potential to reduce energy consumption and carbon footprint. However, maintaining superlubricity under diverse sliding conditions over a prolonged duration is a major obstacle for real-scale applications. Herein, we report that a robust and durable tribofilm enabled by a unique lubrication mechanism based on carboxylated graphene quantum dots (CGQDs) in aqueous glycerol triggers macroscale superlubricity in self-mated steel contacts. A dedicated intermittent test was designed to show the superlubricity's robustness and the ability of the tribofilm to adapt to a variety of relevant sliding conditions. Moreover, the boundary film provides an average coefficient of friction of around 0.007 and up to 69 % wear reduction (compared to the base lubricant), resulting in the maintenance of superlubricity at a real final contact pressure of 123 MPa, which increases the upper limit of the contact pressure compared to current aqueouslubricated steel contacts. The new superlubricity mechanism was enabled by the chemical adsorption of the CGQDs onto the worn metal surface, coupled with the tribo-induced structural degradation and transformation of the CGQDs into layered graphitic structures that generate an adaptable low-shear interface. This work provides new insights into the role of chemical adsorption and structural transformation of CGQDs in achieving superlubricity and is an important step forward for implementing energy-efficient and green lubrication technologies for industrial applications.

## 1. Introduction

With rapid industrialization, friction and wear are becoming concerning issues, leading to substantial energy losses, resource depletion, and environmental pollution. It is estimated that friction costs roughly one-fifth of the annual global primary energy [1]. Therefore, in terms of the Sustainable Development Goals, it is crucial to mitigate energy losses and carbon footprints by utilizing green lubricants [2]. At this juncture, the concept of superlubricity has attracted a great deal of attention owing to its prospects for minimizing material loss and energy consumption [3]. Superlubricity refers to a near-zero friction between two sliding surfaces, with the coefficient of friction (COF) falling below 0.01 [4]. Several approaches have been employed in recent years to achieve superlubricity in solid and liquid-lubricated contacts [5]. Solid superlubricity was achieved using various two-dimensional materials [6–10] and heterostructures [11–13]. However, it is usually achieved at the nano- or microscale and is pertinent to strictly defined conditions, including incommensurable contact or a specific external environment such as a particular temperature, ultra-high vacuum, or dry nitrogen environment [5,14,15].

In contrast, liquid superlubricity has been demonstrated at the macroscale under ambient conditions with a variety of liquid lubricants with and without additives, for instance, aqueous glycerol with or without nanodiamonds [16-18], ionic liquids combined with aqueous

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glycerol [19], ionic liquids containing carbon quantum dots or graphene oxide (GO) [20,21], and ethanediol containing GO [22], etc. Nevertheless, superlubricity is predominantly observed in specific contact pairs consisting of diamond-like-carbon coatings (DLC) or ceramics, such as steel/ta-C [23], Si<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>/sapphire [14,21,24], and DLC/DLC [25, 26]. However, in self-mated steel contacts, the phenomenon of superlubricity is rarely observed or realized only at low final contact pressures or in a mixed-lubrication regime [16–19,27,28]. This is due to either a rigorous tribochemical reaction or the unavoidable wear of contact surfaces during the running-in phase, which leads to the low contact pressure and causes the transition from boundary to a mixed-lubrication regime. Furthermore, in most of these studies, the superlubricity was very susceptible to test parameters, external contaminants, and environmental factors (such as temperature, humidity, etc.). Even a slight alteration to these factors could disrupt the superlubricious layer, resulting in a loss of superlubricity. Therefore, maintaining liquid superlubricity over an extended period under varying operating conditions is necessary for practical applications, especially for steel, the most widely used engineering material in the industrial world.

Recently, a newly developed fluorescent material, graphene quantum dots (GODs), has attracted interest in various scientific fields such as photocatalysis, bioimaging, lithium-ion batteries, solar cells, and lightemitting diodes [29]. Unlike their cousins, carbon dots (CDs), GQDs are considered a smaller version of graphene oxide and possess the advantage of graphene lattices inside their dots [30]. Due to their very small size (<10 nm), low toxicity, eco-friendliness, and good biocompatibility, they have attracted a lot of attention as environmentally friendly additives in liquid lubricants [24]. In addition, their surface has excess-oxygen-containing moieties, which improves their compatibility and dispersibility in aqueous lubricants [31]. Moreover, GQDs possess a superior embedding stability between surface micro-asperities due to their ultra-small size compared to conventional carbon-based nanomaterials such as graphene and carbon nanotubes, as the latter have a large size in the lateral direction (in the micrometre range) [32,33]. A recent study has elucidated the impact of size variation in GO nano-additives on tribological performance. Particularly, the GO nanoflakes with smaller lateral dimensions effectively improve surface wear by easily penetrating the contact surfaces and forming a protective tribofilm [34]. Recently, Liu et al. [24] demonstrated the potential of GQDs to provide superlubricity between a Si<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>/sapphire tribo-pair using graphene oxide quantum dots (GOGQDs) as an additive in aqueous ethylene glycol. The results show that the formation of a tribofilm containing GOGODs shortens the running-in time and provides superlubricity with a 90 % reduction in the wear volume compared to ethylene glycol. The mechanisms suggested that the rolling and shearing effects of GOGQDs are responsible for the superlubricity. The rolling effect of carbon-based quantum dots has been reported several times in the literature [24,31,33,35]. However, most of these studies lack direct evidence of the rolling effect [24,31,35]. In addition to rolling, adsorption, polishing, and mending effects are proposed as being responsible for their excellent lubrication performance [24,31,35].

There is no evidence of long-lasting superlubricity under boundary conditions between steel contacts using GQDs-based nano-lubricants [24,28,31,35]. Additionally, a comprehensive understanding of the prevailing boundary-lubrication mechanisms, encompassing the physical and chemical attributes of GQDs in the realization of superlubricity between steel/steel contacts, is not yet well understood, and so requires further investigation.

Recent studies have demonstrated that lubricants with excessive carboxylic groups can improve the tribological performance and provide superlubricity in certain tribo-pairs [25,36–39]. It is believed that the carboxylic groups bind strongly to the metal atoms on the worn surface and facilitate the formation of a dense tribofilm, improving the boundary-lubrication performance [36,38]. A recent study by Sun et al. [39] demonstrated macroscale superlubricity in a steel/a-C contact using an aqueous 3-hydroxypropionic acid (3HPA) solution. They

suggested that the synergistic hydration effect provided by the water molecules and the chemisorption of the 3HPA molecules onto the oxidized steel surface in the mono or bi-dentate configuration facilitates the realization of superlubricity. However, due to excessive steel-ball wear during the running-in phase and the severe tribochemical reaction, the final contact pressure during the superlubricity is low (i.e., 55.04 MPa) compared to the initial contact pressure (i.e., 700 MPa). Thus, achieving superlubricity with aqueous lubricants usually requires a long running-in period, leading to severe wear of the friction pair before reaching the superlubricity state. Chemical modification of liquid lubricants and the incorporation of nanoparticles in aqueous lubricants have proved to be advantageous in reducing the running-in phase before achieving superlubricity [21].

Inspired by the rapid adsorption and friction-reduction capabilities of carboxylic groups and considering the merits of GQDs, we investigated the macroscale superlubricity between self-mated steel contacts using carboxylated graphene quantum dots (CGQDs) as nano-additives in aqueous glycerol under various contact pressures and sliding speeds. The worn surfaces were analysed using state-of-the-art surfacecharacterization techniques, including Raman, X-ray photoelectron, and time-of-flight secondary-ion mass spectrometry, while a scanning transmission electron microscope was utilized to investigate the triboinduced interfacial changes to elucidate the underlying superlubricity mechanism between the steel/steel contacts.

## 2. Experimental section

#### 2.1. Materials

The contact pairs used in this study consisted of steel balls with a diameter of 10 mm and steel discs with a diameter of 25 mm. Both were made of AISI 52100/DIN 100Cr6 steel with a hardness of 760 HV<sub>0.1</sub>, determined using a micro-hardness tester (Leitz Miniload, Wild Leitz GmbH, Wetzlar, Germany). The steel ball had a measured surface roughness (R<sub>q</sub>) of 40  $\pm$  3 nm, while the discs were ground and polished to obtain a mirror surface finish with an R<sub>q</sub> of 10  $\pm$  2 nm.

Carboxylated graphene quantum dots (CGQDs) with a purity of more than 80 % and size of less than 10 nm were obtained from XFNANO Materials Tech. Co. Ltd (Nanjing, China). As specified by the supplier, the CGQDs were prepared by direct pyrolysis and tuning the carbonization degree of citric acid [40,41]. Pure glycerol derived from palm oil with a purity better than 99.5 % was purchased from Sigma Aldrich (St. Louis, MO, USA). The aqueous glycerol solution (G<sub>aq</sub>) was prepared by mixing pure glycerol (70 wt%) and demineralized water (30 wt%), followed by stirring at ambient temperature (WiseStir MSH-20D, Germany) for 30 min to ensure homogenization. This glycerol-to-water ratio was chosen carefully to lower the freezing point of  $G_{aq}$  from 17  $^\circ C$  to -37 °C [42], and to reduce the viscosity (i.e., 18.2 cP) to the 97.8 % less than pure glycerol [43], where both properties extending its potential applications. Furthermore, a higher concentration of glycerol is advantageous for preventing water evaporation due to predominant glycerol-glycerol hydrogen bonds [44], which strengthens interactions among molecules [16,18,44]. The aqueous solutions of CGQDs  $(CGQDs_{aq})$  were prepared by adding four different concentrations of CGQDs (i.e., 0.01, 0.025, 0.05, and 0.1 wt%) to Gag followed by ultrasonication using a bath sonicator (Sonis 4 GT, Entjernej, Slovenia).

## 2.2. Characterization of CGQDs

The morphologies and microstructures of the CGQDs were determined using a transmission electron microscope (TEM; FEI Tecnai, NL) and an atomic force microscope (AFM; Asylum research MFP 3D origin, UK). For this purpose, CGQDs were added to isopropanol and diluted to a concentration of 0.1 mg/mL, then dripped and dried, respectively, on a copper grid (for TEM) and silicon wafer (for AFM). The chemical composition and structure of the CGQDs were studied using an X-ray

photoelectron spectrometer (XPS; Kratos, Manchester, UK), whereas the presence of surface functional groups were investigated using attenuated total reflection Fourier-transform infrared spectrometry (ATR-FTIR; PerkinElmer Instruments, USA). The crystal structure of the CGQDs was determined by X-ray diffraction (XRD; D8/Advance, Bruker, Germany) with a Co  $K_{\alpha}$  radiation source over a 2 $\Theta$  range of 5–80° with a step size of 0.02° at room temperature. The UV-Vis spectrum of the CGQDsag was recorded using a UV-Vis spectrophotometer (Hewlett-Packard-8453, Palo Alto, CA). In addition, a custom-made 100-W ultraviolet lamp with a wavelength of 365 nm was used to investigate the light-excitation properties of the CGQDs and to further confirm their structure. The structural unit of the CGQDs was determined using a confocal Raman spectrophotometer (alpha 300 RS, Witec, Germany) operating at a laser wavelength of 532 nm. Finally, the surface charge of the CGQDs was determined using a Zetasizer Nano ZS instrument (Malvern, United Kingdom) by measuring the zeta-potential. For this purpose, the CGQDs were dissolved in ethanol at a 0.1-mg/mL concentration for the measurement.

## 2.3. Friction experiments

The friction experiments were performed with a ball-on-disc configuration in a reciprocating mode using a universal microtribometer (UMT-2, Bruker, USA). Prior to the friction tests, both the balls and the discs were ultrasonically cleaned sequentially in heptane for 20 min and then in acetone for 5 min. 30 µL of the prepared CGQDs<sub>an</sub> solution was introduced into the contact zone before the start of each test. At first, the friction tests were conducted using pure water, Gao, and 0.1 wt% CGQDsag at an applied normal load and sliding speed of 3.5 N and 0.1 m/s, respectively. These tribological parameters and the concentration of CGQDs were carefully selected based on the existing literature on ultra-low friction involving aqueous lubricants [16,18,32, 33]. In addition, the performance of the CGQDs<sub>aq</sub> lubrication was evaluated between self-mated hydrogenated DLC contacts (a-C:H/a-C: H), which are considered chemically non-reactive surfaces [45]. The objective was to investigate the effectiveness of the physical structure of CGQDs in reducing friction. Afterwards, the friction tests were conducted with normal loads of 2, 3.5, 5, and 10 N, corresponding to initial contact pressures of 0.6, 0.7, 0.8, and 1 GPa, respectively, according to Hertz's contact theory (0.1 wt%  $CGQDs_{aq}$  and 0.1 m/s). The effect of sliding speeds on the superlubricity behaviour was evaluated by varying them from 0.05 to 0.15 m/s under optimum load and CGQD concentration. Finally, the influence of varying the CGQD concentrations (i.e., 0.01, 0.025, 0.05, and 0.1 wt%) on the superlubricity behaviour was investigated by conducting friction tests at a normal applied load of 3.5 N and sliding speed of 0.1 m/s. All these experimental conditions were chosen to ensure severe boundary lubrication (see Note S1). All the friction tests were performed at room temperature with a relative humidity of 28-32 % and repeated three to five times to ensure reproducibility.

## 2.4. Start-stop friction tests to assess the durability and robustness of the lubricating film

To evaluate the stability of the superlubricity over an extended period and under different operating conditions (i.e., sliding speeds and loads), a series of friction tests were designed and executed by performing start-stop tests after a running-in phase. All these tests were performed without altering the horizontal position of the friction pair using 0.1 wt% of CGQDs under ambient conditions, in contrast to the controlled laboratory conditions.

## 2.5. Worn-surface analysis

After the friction experiments, the contact surfaces were thoroughly cleaned with isopropanol to remove contaminants on the worn surface prior to the subsequent characterization. The wear-scar diameter (WSD), surface roughness, and morphology of the worn surfaces were analysed using a 3D white-light interferometer (Bruker - Contour GT -KO, Germany) and a digital microscope (Hirox - HRX-01, Japan). The wear volume of the discs was difficult to determine because the surface is almost wear-less, and the surface-wear profile could not be accurately fitted into a reliable wear equation. Therefore, the wear volumes of the steel balls with effective WSD after the tribological tests were calculated using the following equation [46]:

$$V = \left(\frac{1}{6}\pi h\right) \left(\frac{3}{4}d^2 + h^2\right) \tag{1}$$

where,

$$h = r - \sqrt{r^2 - \frac{1}{4}d^2}$$
 (2)

where d is the WSD, and r is the radius of the actual ball.

In addition, the topography of the worn surfaces was analysed using a scanning electron microscope (SEM; JEOL, JSM IT100) under a high vacuum. 2D Raman mapping on the wear track was performed with a WITec Alpha 300 RS (WITec, Ulm, Germany) scanning confocal Raman microscope equipped with a piezo stage in a backscattered geometry using a frequency-doubled Nd:YAG laser (532 nm).

The chemical composition of the worn surfaces was investigated using XPS and time-of-flight secondary-ion mass spectrometry (ToF-SIMS). The XPS measurements were performed with an AXIS Supra+ instrument (Kratos, Manchester, UK) equipped with an Al  $K_{\alpha}$  (1486.6 eV) excitation source and a monochromator. The analyses were performed at a take-off angle of  $90^{\circ}$  (with respect to the surface of the samples), where the diameter of the analysed spot size in the wear track was 55 µm. The analysed spot size for the XPS measurements outside the wear track was 300 by 700 µm. A main peak at 284.8 eV in the highresolution (HR) C 1s spectra was used to correct the binding energy (E<sub>B</sub>) scale. ESCApe 1.4 software was used to acquire and process the data (Kratos, Manchester, UK). ToF-SIMS measurements were performed with an M6 instrument (IONTOF, Münster, Germany). Spectra in positive and negative polarity were calibrated using the signals of known *m*/ z. The measurements were performed using a 30-keV Bi<sub>3</sub><sup>+</sup> primary beam (target current of 0.6 pA). Sputtering was performed using a gas-cluster ion beam (GCIB) at an acceleration energy of 5.0 keV and  $Ar_{1900}^+$  on an area of 500  $\times$  500  $\mu$ m, while the analysis was performed on an area of 300  $\times$  300  $\mu m.$  ToF-SIMS data acquisition and processing were performed using SurfaceLab 7.3 software (IONTOF, Münster, Germany).

To study the tribo-induced interfacial changes, a TEM lamella was prepared from the worn surface using an in-situ lift-out technique with a combined focused ion beam (FIB) and SEM (Helios Nanolab 650, FEI, NL). Prior to the lamella preparation, a uniform Cr layer of about 30 nm was deposited on the surface, followed by the deposition of a Pt layer at the FIB cutting position to protect the underlying tribolayer during lamella preparation. A cross-sectional examination of the lamellae was then performed using a probe Cs aberration-corrected cold-field-emission-gun scanning transmission electron microscope (STEM; JEOL JEM, ARM 200-CF, JP) equipped with a Jeol Centurio EDS system with a 100mm<sup>2</sup> SDD detector and operating at an accelerating voltage of 80 KV. Electron-energy-loss spectroscopy (EELS) was performed using the Gatan DualEEELS Quantum ER spectrometer to elucidate the bonding and compositional features of the tribofilm. Data acquisition and analysis of the STEM images and EELS spectra were performed using Digital Micrograph software (Gatan Inc., CA, USA).

## 3. Results

## 3.1. Characterization of CGQDs

The microstructure, morphology, and chemical nature of the CGQDs

impact the tribological performance and are characterized by TEM, AFM, Raman, XRD, ATR-FTIR, and XPS (Fig. 1). A TEM image of CGQDs shows that they have a spherical morphology and uniform size, ranging from 1 to 4 nm (Fig. 1a and b). The inset of Fig. 1a showed that they have an in-plane lattice spacing of 0.24 nm, which corresponds to the (1120) lattice plane of graphene [47,48]. The AFM image in Fig. 1c shows that the topographic height is not more than 1.5 nm, indicating that most CGODs have 1-4 graphene layers inside their dots [49]. The X-ray diffraction pattern of the CGQDs in Fig. S1a showed a broad diffraction peak at  $\sim 28^{\circ}$  corresponding to the (002) plane of the graphitic structure [48]; this broader peak is due to the super-small size of the CGQDs [50]. Raman spectroscopy was used to investigate the chemical structure of the CGQDs. The Raman spectrum in Fig. S1b shows the two characteristic peaks at  $\sim$ 1378 and  $\sim$ 1587 cm<sup>-1</sup>, which correspond to the disordered D band (originating from a disorder of the carbon lattice due to an excess of oxygen-containing functional groups) and the graphitic G band (stemming from the sp<sup>2</sup> hybridized carbon lattice), respectively [51]. The intensity ratio  $(I_D/I_G)$  of these two bands is 0.88, indicating a defect-rich structure due to excessive functional groups on the surface of the CGQDs, which could serve as strong active sites for interactions with the worn metallic surface. The broadness of the D and G bands and the absence of a doublet between them indicate that the CGQDs are mainly composed of nanocrystalline graphite [52]. ATR-FTIR spectroscopy was used to identify the functional groups on the surfaces of the CGQDs. The ATR-FTIR spectrum in Fig. 1d shows the O-H stretching vibration at about 3400  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  [53]. The peaks at 1710 and 1404  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  correspond to the stretching of the C=O and C-O, respectively, confirming the presence of carboxylic acid groups [53,54]. Moreover, the peak at 1637  $cm^{-1}$  is due to the bending vibrations of the aromatic C=C [22,55], while the peak at 1213 cm<sup>-1</sup> corresponds to the C–OH stretching of the hydroxyl groups [53]. Next, an XPS analysis was performed to determine the chemical composition and to confirm the functional groups in the CGQDs further. The XPS survey spectrum in Fig. S2 shows that the

CGODs signals correspond to C 1s and O 1s, respectively. By performing a quantitative XPS analysis, a C concentration of 57.3 at.% and an O concentration of 42.7 at.% were obtained. Furthermore, a high resolution (HR) C 1s spectrum of CGQDs was deconvoluted with peaks following a Gaussian-Lorentzian function. The HR C 1s spectrum (Fig. 1e) was deconvoluted into three components, which correspond to C=C/C-C at an  $E_{\rm B}$  of 284.8 eV (no attempt was made to separate the peaks for C–C and C=C as they appear very close together), C–O at 286.4 eV, and COO/COOH at an EB of 288.6 eV [53]. UV-vis spectroscopic analyses were used to further characterize the CGQDs. The UV-vis absorption spectra show that the CGQDs exhibit a strong absorption peak at a wavelength of about 239 nm (Fig. 1f), corresponding to the  $\pi$ - $\pi$ \* transition in the carbon core [56]. While a long absorption edge at a wavelength of about 340 nm, originates from the  $n-\pi^*$  transition of C=O bonds at the edges or in the carbogenic core [47]. The unpaired electrons on the oxygen in the C=O bond are referred to as nonbonding or 'n' electrons, and a transition from n to  $\pi^*$  occurs when one of these electrons is excited to the antibonding  $\pi^*$  orbital. The inset of Fig. 1f shows that the CGODs emit a bright blue colour when irradiated with a UV light of 365 nm. This emission behaviour and the UV absorbance in the CGQDs are most likely due to the synergistic effect of the quantum-confinement effect and their surface-oxygenated state [57]. The dispersion stability of the CGQDs<sub>an</sub> was further investigated by irradiating the lubricant under a UV lamp. The consistent and uniform emission of the blue colour from the lubricant shows that the CGQDs remain stable and uniform without aggregating, even after 6 months of preparation. These results indicate that CGQDs have smaller dimensions compared to graphene and graphene oxide. Additionally, they exhibit a graphene-layered structure within their dots, along with carboxylic functional groups on their surface. These combined attributes make CGQDs promising candidates for lubricant additives.



**Fig. 1.** Characterization of CGQDs: (a) TEM image (inset HR TEM image), (b) particle size distribution determined by TEM, (c) AFM analysis, (d) ATR-FTIR spectrum, (e) HR C 1s XPS spectrum, and (f) UV–Vis spectrum of CGQDs, where inset shows a photograph of 0.025 wt% CGQDs<sub>aq</sub> under (i) white light, (ii) UV light after sonication, and (iii) after standing for 6 months.

## 3.2. Macroscale superlubricity evaluation of CGQDs

The macroscale superlubricity behaviour of CGQDs<sub>aq</sub> under various contact pressures, sliding speeds, and for different concentrations is presented in Figs. 2 and 3. To demonstrate the significance of the CGQD nano-additives in aqueous glycerol (Gaq), additional friction tests were conducted with pure water and G<sub>aq</sub> (Fig. 2a). For lubrication with pure water, the COF is relatively high, in the range  $\sim$ 0.3–0.33, indicating the ineffectiveness of the water to form a compelling lubricating film. In contrast, for lubrication with  $G_{aq}$ , the COF is about 0.058 during the first ~1000 s of the initial running-in period, then gradually begins to decrease, reaching a minimum value of  $\sim 0.028$  by the end of the test, indicating the possible formation of a lubricating film by Gao, but this film does not have superior characteristics to provide superlubricity. When lubricated with  $CGQDs_{aq}$ , the COF drops to a value below 0.01 shortly after ~620 s of the running-in period and then decreases to  $\sim$ 0.006 and remains stable until the end of the test, indicating a 72–78 % reduction in the COF compared to the Gaq. An additional friction test was performed with an old CGQDs<sub>aq</sub> (standing for 6 months after preparation) to evaluate the dispersion stability and efficacy of the CGQDs<sub>aq</sub>. Fig. S3a shows that the old CGQDs<sub>aq</sub> maintained its lubricating performance and provided superlubricity, indicating that the CGODs remain stable and uniform in aqueous glycerol for a long time without aggregating.

Next, the effectiveness of the  $CGQDs_{aq}$  lubrication was evaluated between self-mated, hydrogenated diamond-like-carbon (a-C:H) contacts (Fig. 2b). In the case of self-mated a-C:H contacts, the superlubricity is not realized, and the COF decreases to  $\sim$ 0.015 after a long running-in period. Since the a-C:H coatings are regarded as a non-reactive surface [45], this decrease in friction could be attributed to a physical mechanism based on inter-layer shearing of the graphene layers within the CGQDs, suggesting that the structure of the CGQDs plays an important role in the friction reduction. In contrast, robust super-lubricity is achieved in self-mated steel contacts, indicating the possible formation of a tribochemical film due to a tribochemical reaction.

The effect of varying the contact pressure on the superlubricity performance of CGQDs<sub>aq</sub> was further investigated by varying the applied normal loads (Fig. 2c). It was observed that for all the applied loads, the corresponding COF decreases to 0.006-0.0095 after the running-in phase, maintaining the state of superlubricity. When the contact pressure was increased from 0.6 to 0.7 GPa (2-3.5 N), the time to reach superlubricity slightly increased from 550 to 620 s, respectively. To evaluate the influence of low contact pressure on the running-in time, another friction test was conducted at 0.5 GPa (1.5 N), as shown in Fig. S3b. The result indicated that the running-in time was about the same as observed for 0.6 and 0.7 GPa. However, with a further increase in the contact pressure to 0.8 and 1 GPa (5 and 10 N), the time to reach the superlubricity state increased to  $\sim$ 1100 and  $\sim$ 1250 s, respectively. This increase in the running-in period could be due to the unavoidable wear of the contact surfaces with increasing contact pressure. This implies that the increasing contact pressure in our case does not prevent from achieving the superlubricity, but just increases the running-in time, and a stable superlubricity is observed between steel/steel contacts even at an initial contact pressure of 1 GPa.



**Fig. 2.** Tribological characterization of  $CGQDs_{aq}$ : (a) Evolution of COF over time when lubricated with pure water,  $G_{aq}$ , and 0.1 wt%  $CGQDs_{aq}$ , respectively (test conditions: 3.5 N and 0.1 m/s). (b) Comparison of frictional performance of self-mated a-C:H and steel contacts lubricated with 0.1 wt%  $CGQDs_{aq}$  (3.5 N and 0.1 m/s). (c) COFs as a function of time at various normal loads (2–10 N, 0.1 m/s), and (d) at various sliding speeds (0.05–0.15 m/s, 3.5 N) lubricated with 0.1 wt %  $CGQDs_{aq}$ .

The robustness of the superlubricity was further evaluated by varying the sliding speed from 0.05 to 0.15 m/s (Fig. 2d). It can be seen that as the sliding speed increases from 0.05 to 0.15 m/s, the time to reach the superlubricity state decreases from ~1517 to 453 s and the COF remains stable between 0.005 and 0.0075, with the lowest COF value (i. e., 0.005) being reached at a sliding speed of 0.05 m/s. The sliding distance required to reach the superlubricity state does not vary much and lies in the range ~63–81 *m*.

The influence of varying the CGQD concentration on the superlubricity behaviour and the final contact pressure (FCP) is shown in Fig. 3a. FCP refers to a contact pressure calculated over the final contact area, rather than the initial, theoretical nominal contact pressure, i.e., by dividing the normal applied load by the worn ball contact area [14,21]. With 0.01 wt% of CGQDs concentration, the friction is reduced by 54.5 % compared to the Gag, achieving an average COF value of 0.011, which is close to the superlubricity range. Consequently, the WSD is reduced by 21.5 % (see Table S2), resulting in a 38 % increase in FCP compared to the G<sub>aq</sub>, indicating the ability of CGQDs to reduce both friction and wear. This suggests that the 0.01 wt% of CGQDs is insufficient to form an effective lubricating film to realize the superlubricity. However, with a further increase in the concentration to 0.025 and 0.05 wt%, the average COF decreased to 0.006–0.007, while the corresponding FCP increased to 110-112 Mpa. However, when the concentration is increased to 0.1 wt%, superlubricity is also achieved, and the FCP increases to a maximum value of 123 MPa. These results imply that 0.01 wt% CGQDs is the threshold for attaining superlubricity, and when the concentration exceeds this threshold, robust superlubricity is achieved under the given experimental conditions.

Fig. 3b shows the influence of applied normal loads and sliding speeds on the FCP during the superlubricity state. The FCP increases with increasing applied normal load from 2 to 3.5 N (0.6-0.7 GPa), reaching a maximum value of 123 MPa, which means 112 % higher than  $G_{aa}$  (i.e., ~58 MPa). However, when the applied normal load is further increased from 3.5 to 10 N (0.7-1 GPa), the FCP fluctuates in the range 113-123 MPa. It can be seen that the FCP does not increase monotonically with an increase of the initial contact pressure. Whereas the initial contact pressure increases linearly (from 0.6 to 1 GPa) with an increasing applied normal load from 2 to 10 N, which could influence the wear behaviour during the running-in period. Therefore, the FCP is always lower than the initial contact pressure due to the unavoidable wear of the ball during the running-in period. In contrast, the FCP increases with an increasing sliding speed from 0.05 to 0.1 m/s, reaching a maximum value of 123 MPa. However, it slightly decreases to about 102 MPa with an increase in the sliding speed to 0.15 m/s. This means that for our conditions, 0.1 m/s is the optimum sliding speed for achieving superlubricity.

The results in Figs. 2 and 3 suggest that this realization of

superlubricity is due to a specific lubrication mechanism rather than elasto-hydrodynamic lubrication. The superlubricity performance of the CGQDs as lubricant additives can be summarized as follows: (i) CGQDs provide superlubricity under various initial contact pressures (even at 1 GPa) and sliding speeds; (ii) robust superlubricity could be achieved with a concentration of CGQDs as low as 0.025 wt%, significantly reducing the costs associated with synthesizing nano-lubricants; (iii) the highest FCP during superlubricity is as high as 123 MPa in the boundarylubrication regime, which is achieved at an initial contact pressure of 0.7 GPa, a sliding speed of 0.1 m/s, and with 0.1 wt% CGQDs.

## 3.3. Surface characterization of the worn surfaces

After the friction tests, the worn surfaces lubricated with CGQDs<sub>ac</sub> were characterized using a 3D white-light interferometer and an SEM (Fig. 4a and b). The wear-scar diameter (WSD) on the ball lubricated with CGQDs<sub>aq</sub> is about 186.5 µm, which is 35.2 % less than the WSD on the ball lubricated with  $G_{aq}$  (i.e., 287.7  $\mu$ m). In addition, the surface roughness of the ball's wear scar lubricated with CGQDsag was about 12.7 nm, which is about 3 times less than the original roughness of the ball (i.e., 40 nm). In contrast, the surface roughness was about 19.8 nm for the ball's wear scar when lubricated with Gaq, which was considerably larger than the surface lubricated with CGQDs<sub>aq</sub> (Fig. 4a). The surface topography of the disc lubricated with CGQDs<sub>aq</sub> indicates that the surface is relatively smooth compared to the surface lubricated with  $G_{aq}$ , with a maximum wear depth of only 15 nm, indicating the excellent wear-reduction ability of CGQDs. In contrast, the maximum wear depth was 105 nm when lubricated with  $G_{aq}.$  Therefore, it was difficult to calculate the wear volume of the discs because the surface-wear profile could not be accurately fitted into a reliable wear equation. Consequently, the effective WSDs of the steel balls after the friction test were used to estimate the wear volume using Equation (1). Fig. S3c shows the wear volume, and Table S2 shows the average WSD of the balls lubricated with CGQDsaq under different loads, sliding speeds, and CGQD concentrations. The average WSD decreases from 277.5 to 217.8 µm when the concentration of CGQD nano-additives increases from 0 to 0.01 wt%. However, when the CGOD concentration is further increased (i.e., 0.025-0.1 wt%), it does not vary much and ranges from 190.7 to 200.1  $\mu$ m. In contrast, it increases from 171.2 to 326.9  $\mu$ m with an increasing normal applied load from 2 to 10 N. This increase in WSD is due to the increase in the severity of the wear with the increasing load during the running-in period, resulting in an increase in wear volume to  $11.6 \times 10^{-5}$  mm<sup>3</sup>, which is still a considerably lower value for the selfmated steel contacts under aqueous lubrication conditions (Fig. S3c). In contrast, with increasing sliding speed from 0.05 to 0.075 m/s, the WSD decreases from 285.3 to 224.7  $\mu$ m, while it further decreases to an average value of 190.7  $\mu$ m at a sliding speed of 0.1 m/s, resulting in a



**Fig. 3.** (a) Average COFs and corresponding measured final contact pressures (FCP) during superlubricity with various concentrations of CGQD (3.5 N, 0.1 m/s). (b) The corresponding FCP in a superlubricity state with various loads and sliding speeds (conc. of CGQDs is 0.1 wt%), where the FCP is calculated by dividing the normal applied load by the contact area of the worn region on the ball.



## (a) 3D White-light Interferometer analysis of the worn surfaces

## (b) SEM analysis of the worn surfaces



**Fig. 4.** Characterization of worn surfaces after friction tests with  $G_{aq}$  and 0.1 wt% CGQDs<sub>aq</sub> (3.5 N, 0.1 m/s): (a) 3D surface topography of the balls and the worn disc surfaces lubricated with (i)  $G_{aq}$ , and (ii) CGQDs<sub>aq</sub>. (b) SEM images of the morphology of the worn surfaces lubricated with (i)  $G_{aq}$ , and (ii) CGQDs<sub>aq</sub>.

minimum wear volume of  $1.30 \times 10^{-5}$  mm<sup>3</sup> (see Fig. S3c and Table S2). However, with a further increase in the sliding speed to 0.125 and 0.15 m/s, the WSD does not vary much and lies between 200 and 205  $\mu$ m.

Next, the worn zone on the steel ball and the wear track on the steel disc after the friction test were analysed using the SEM (Fig. 4b). It can be seen that the worn surfaces (steel ball and disc) lubricated with  $G_{aq}$  are relatively rough and show some abrasion marks, compared to the surfaces lubricated with CGQDs<sub>aq</sub>, which are much smoother and hardly

show any sign of wear. This implies that the  $CGQDs_{aq}$  protects the contact surfaces from severe wear, suggesting the formation of a protective tribofilm.

Raman mapping was used to investigate the adsorbed tribofilm on the worn surface of the disc (Fig. 5). Fig. 5b shows the Raman mapping of the signal intensity of the characteristic G band. The regions with a bright yellow colour correspond to the active Raman modes of the G band, indicating that the CGQDs are adsorbed onto the worn surface,



**Fig. 5.** Raman analysis of the worn disc surface after the friction test performed with 0.1 wt%  $CGQDs_{aq}$ ; (a) optical image of the worn region, (b) Raman-intensity map of the G band in the spectral range 1490–1720 cm<sup>-1</sup>, and (c) corresponding Raman spectrum obtained at a location marked in a 2D Raman map.

providing evidence for the formation of a tribofilm that is responsible for the superlubricity. The Raman spectrum obtained at point 1 shows the characteristic D, G, and 2D bands, corresponding to the graphitic carbon structure [51]. The variation of the intensity ratio of the D band to the G band (I<sub>D</sub>/I<sub>G</sub>) reflects the degree of disorder or structural defects in carbon-based materials [58,59]. The Raman spectrum shows that  $I_D/I_G$ increases from 0.88  $\pm$  0.01 (for CGQDs) to 1.34  $\pm$  0.02 after the tribological test (Fig. 5c), indicating the friction-induced structural deformation and degradation of the CGQDs. This increase in  $I_D/I_G$  could also be attributed to the additional defects in the carbon network of graphene resulting from the formation of C-H and C-OH bonds due to sliding in the presence of an aqueous lubricant [60]. Furthermore, a 2D band at  ${\sim}2680~\text{cm}^{-1}$  and an  $I_{2D}/I_G$  ratio of 0.46  $\pm$  0.01 indicate that the CGQDs in the adsorbed tribofilm have a multilayer structure. Nevertheless, the appearance of well-defined 2D and G bands implies the existence of a tribofilm with a graphite-like carbon structure [61]. Additionally, the multiple peaks observed below 750 cm<sup>-1</sup>, correspond to iron oxide and hydroxide [62]. The peak and shoulder at about 590 and 655  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ indicate the presence of Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> (hematite) and  $\gamma$ -FeOOH (lepidocrocite) [63]. While the peaks centred at  $\sim$ 274.2 and 383 cm<sup>-1</sup> correspond to magnetite (Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>) and  $\alpha$ -FeOOH (goethite), respectively [62]. The presence of  $\gamma$ -FeOOH could be responsible for the polishing effect observed on the surfaces of the steel contact (see Fig. 4a), as explained by Long et al. [23].

The chemical composition on the worn surface lubricated with 0.1 wt %  $CGQDs_{aq}$  was analysed by XPS after the 75-min friction test (3.5 N, 0.1 m/s), where the analysed spot size inside the wear track was 55  $\mu$ m.

The surface atomic concentration of C-, O-, and Fe-containing species was determined to be 41.0, 44.3, and 14.7 at. %, respectively. The HR C 1s spectrum inside and outside of the wear track indicates the presence of four peaks centred at E<sub>B</sub> of 283.0, 284.8, 286.4, and 288.6 eV, which corresponds to C-Fe, C=C/C-C, C-O, and COO/COOH, respectively (Fig. 6a and b). Compared with the HR C 1s spectra of the original CGODs (Fig. 1e), the surface atomic concentration of C in the C-O increased to 16.3 at. %, whereas the surface atomic concentration of C in COO/COOH decreased from 38.3 to 30.8 at. %. Therefore, the density of carbon-containing groups was changed under sliding. This could be due to the tribochemical interaction of the CGQDs with the worn steel surface. Interestingly, there is no significant difference in the concentration of C=C/C-C, which indicates that the structure of CGQDs is not completely damaged due to friction [33]. Moreover, the surface atomic concentration of C in COO/COOH is significantly higher inside the wear track (i.e., 30.8 at. %) compared to outside the wear track (i.e., 20.2 at. %) (Fig. 6a and b) and for the surface lubricated with  $G_{aq}$  (i.e., 21.2 at. %, Fig. S4a). These results indicate that CGQDs were adsorbed onto the worn surface of the steel during the friction process.

The HR O 1s spectrum for the analysis spot inside and outside the wear track was deconvoluted into five peaks (Fig. 6c and d). The peak centred at 529.8 eV corresponds to iron oxide with a higher contribution outside the wear track, while the peak centred at an  $E_B$  of 530.9 eV corresponds to FeOOH [39]. The peak at 531.8 eV corresponds to COO/COOH [64], with a higher contribution inside the wear track than outside (Fig. 6c and d). In addition, the peak at 532.9 eV was attributed to C–OH [64,65], while the peak corresponding to water molecules



Fig. 6. High-resolution (HR) XPS spectra of C 1s and O 1s (a,c) inside the wear track and (b,d) outside the wear track, lubricated with 0.1 wt%  $CGQDs_{aq}$  (test conditions: 3.5 N, 0.1 m/s). The diameter of the analysed spot size for the measurements inside the wear track was 55  $\mu$ m.

indicates that they were either adsorbed from moist air or formed during the degradation of glycerol [23]. The corresponding high intensity of COO/COOH inside the wear track and the appearance of an additional C–Fe peak indicates that the CGQDs were adsorbed onto an oxidized steel surface that is exposed during the running-in period as a consequence of wear, as also suggested by Restuccia et al. and Marchetto et al. [66,67]. In addition, the negative zeta-potential of the CGQDs (–33.4 mV) suggests the interaction of negatively charged CGQDs with positively charged worn-surface sites (Fig. S5). Raman spectroscopy also confirmed the adsorbed film, demonstrating that the CGQDs were adsorbed on the worn surface.

On the other hand, the XPS measurements on the surface lubricated with  $G_{aq}$  (Fig. S4) showed that the surface atomic concentrations of C in C–OH (24.0 at. %) and O in FeOOH (32.8 at. %) were higher than that of the surface lubricated with CGQDs<sub>aq</sub>. This indicates that the tribochemical reaction on the surface lubricated with CGQDs<sub>aq</sub> was less intense than the surface lubricated with  $G_{aq}$  [24], which in turn leads to less wear and shortens the running-in time, as observed for the wear analysis (Fig. 4a).

ToF-SIMS analysis was further performed to investigate the surface layer of the adsorbed tribofilm on the worn surface lubricated with 0.1 wt% CGQDs<sub>aq</sub>. Fig. S6 shows the negative-ion and positive-ion ToF-SIMS spectra in the range 0–300 *m*/z and 0–150 *m*/z, respectively. The signals for C<sub>5</sub>H<sub>9</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, C<sub>6</sub>H<sub>5</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, C<sub>5</sub>H<sub>3</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, C<sub>7</sub>H<sub>5</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, C<sub>7</sub>H<sub>6</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, C<sub>5</sub>H<sub>5</sub>O<sub>4</sub>, C<sub>8</sub>H<sub>5</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, C<sub>9</sub>H<sub>15</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, C<sub>10</sub>H<sub>19</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, C<sub>6</sub>H<sub>5</sub>O<sub>6</sub>, C<sub>12</sub>H<sub>13</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, C<sub>9</sub>H<sub>3</sub>O<sub>5</sub>, C<sub>12</sub>H<sub>23</sub>O<sub>2</sub> in Fig. S6a might originate from the CGQDs. Moreover, Fig. S6b shows ToF-SIMS spectra in a positive polarity with various hydrocarbon related signals (C<sub>x</sub>H<sub>y</sub><sup>+</sup>). These signals can originate from the advantageous carbon species that adsorbed on the sample surface during sample handling, or they may result from the fragmentation of the CGQDs.

The signal at m/z 211.06 corresponds to C<sub>9</sub>H<sub>15</sub>O<sub>2</sub>Fe<sup>-</sup> (Fig. S6a). In addition, Fig. S7 shows signals corresponding to CH<sub>3</sub>OFe<sup>+</sup> at m/z 86.88 and C<sub>6</sub>H<sub>5</sub>OFe<sup>+</sup> at m/z 148.95, indicating the possible interaction of CGQDs with the worn surface.

Subsequently, the depth profiling associated with the 3D ToF-SIMS imaging was performed in a negative polarity to investigate the spatial distribution of  $COO^-$  and  $FeO_2^-$  in the tribolayer (Fig. 7). Fig. 7b shows that the topmost surface layer consists of species containing  $COO^-$  (which most likely mainly originates from the CGQDs). The  $FeO_2^-$  signal that comes from the iron oxide [68,69] was also present on the topmost layer despite the abundance of  $COO^-$ . Fig. 7b shows that by sputtering the sample with GCIB, in the deeper subsurface region (below the topmost position), is a mixed and inhomogeneous layer of iron oxide (characterized by the  $FeO_2^-$  signal) and  $COO^-$  species. These findings

further suggest the adsorption of CGQDs on the worn surface.

## 3.4. Investigation of tribofilm

The microstructural, compositional, and bonding features of the tribofilm formed on the worn surface lubricated with 0.1 wt% CGQDs<sub>aq</sub> (3.5 N, 0.1 m/s) were characterized using the analytical techniques HRTEM and STEM, equipped with EDS and EELS, to gain a further insight into the underlying mechanism responsible for the super-lubricity. Compared with traditional TEM, STEM is a much more powerful technique, offering advanced Z-contrast-imaging capabilities with atomic-level resolution [70]. The in-situ lift-out technique using the FIB-SEM dual system was used to prepare a thin cross-sectional lamella from the worn surface. The location of the FIB's cut position and the cross-sectional image of a few-nanometres thick lamella are shown in Fig. S8.

The BF-STEM image in Fig. 8a shows that a tribofilm with a thickness varying from 5 nm to 22 nm is formed during the friction test, which can be clearly seen between the dense Cr layer and the steel substrate. Interestingly, the image of the tribofilm at higher magnification shows the presence of a uniform sublayer of iron oxide of about 2.2 nm between the interface of the carbon-rich tribofilm and the steel substrate (Fig. 8b). The EDS elemental mapping and line scanning across the tribofilm show the high oxygen concentration in the grey layer, confirming the formation of the iron oxide layer (Fig. 8e). The formation of an iron oxide layer indicates the tribo-oxidation of the friction pairs, which occurs due to the more frequent direct contact during the initial runningin phase of the friction test. This iron oxide layer is covered with a tribofilm derived from the CGQDs, which is a chemically adsorbed layer formed by the symmetrical carboxylayte binding onto the iron oxide surface in the presence of an aqueous lubricant [71]. This indicates the passivation effect provided by the CGQDs [66,67], which reduces the wear by reducing the severity of the tribochemical reaction and provides a low-shearing interface for the realization of superlubricity. Moreover, Fig. 8b shows that the CGQDs are highly deformed and could not maintain their original morphology (compared to the original CGQDs) under the influence of a high contact pressure and continuous sliding. The splitting of the D and G bands and the increase of the  $I_D/I_G$  ratio observed in the Raman analysis of the worn surface further support the structural deformation of the CGQDs (Fig. 5).

The BF-STEM image of the tribofilm reveals the presence of an ordered graphitic layer along the sliding interface (Fig. 8c), implying that the interface is likely to transform from steel/steel to graphite/graphitelike interface. This observation is also confirmed by the appearance of a



**Fig. 7.** (a) ToF-SIMS depth profile and (b) 3D ToF-SIMS image obtained in a negative polarity for  $COO^-$  and  $FeO_2^-$ . GCIB sputtering was performed using 5.0-keV  $Ar_{1900}^+$  on an area of  $500 \times 500 \,\mu\text{m}$ , while the analysis was performed on an area of  $300 \times 300 \,\mu\text{m}$ . The height of these images in the z direction is not proportional to the scale in the x and y directions.



**Fig. 8.** STEM cross-sectional investigation of the tribofilm formed on the worn steel surface lubricated with 0.1 wt%  $CGQDs_{aq}$  (3.5 N, 0.1 m/s). (a–b) BF-STEM image of the lamella cross-section indicating a tribofilm between the dense Cr layer and the steel substrate, (c) BF-STEM image of the tribofilm indicating a layered graphitic structure across the sliding direction (inset is a FFT of the crystalline feature, corresponding to a 11  $\overline{2}$  0 graphitic plane), (d) EELS spectrum of the C–K edge obtained inside the tribofilm in an area marked with "d" in Fig. 8b showing the presence of sp<sup>2</sup>-bonded carbon inside the tribofilm, (e) EDS elemental mapping and line-scan analysis across the tribofilm cross-section of the selected area marked with "e" in Fig. 8a.

sharp 2D band in the Raman spectrum of the worn surface, demonstrating the presence of a multilayer graphitic structure (Fig. 8c) [61]. The fast Fourier transform (FFT) analysis of Fig. 8c indicates that the crystalline feature corresponds to the lattice fringes of the 11  $\overline{2}$ 0 graphitic plane, possessing a lattice spacing of  $\sim$ 0.24 nm [47]. This suggests that the sliding-induced structural transformation of the CGQDs into the layered structure is one of the main reasons for the realization of superlubricity. To better illustrate the characteristics and bonding structure of the carbon in the tribofilm, the EELS core-edge spectrum of the C-K edge was recorded in the region marked in Fig. 8b. The C-K edge spectrum in Fig. 8d exhibits a well-defined line at 284.75 eV corresponding to the  $1s \rightarrow \pi^*$ , and broad line at around 292.5 eV corresponding to the  $1s \rightarrow \sigma^*$  transition of the  $sp^2$  hybridized carbon at the K-edge region. The energy difference between the  $\pi^*$  and  $\sigma^*$  is 7.75 eV, as also found by Tang et al. for the GQDs [72]. The occurrence of the  $\pi^*$ confirms the presence of sp<sup>2</sup>-bonded carbon inside the tribofilm. The EDS elemental mapping and line-scan analysis across the cross-section of the tribofilm indicate that the tribofilm is enriched in C, which is confirmed by the superimposed mapping of Fe, C, and Cr presented in Fig. 8e. These results suggest that the formation of an iron oxide sublayer and the CGQDs-based tribolayer are key factors for the superlubricity.

## 3.5. Robustness and longevity of superlubricity

An additional series of start-stop friction tests were performed after the running-in phase, to comprehensively assess the role of the lubricating film and the robustness of the superlubricity under various speeds and loading conditions (Fig. 9). Initially, the test was performed at a sliding speed of 0.1 m/s and a normal applied load of 3.5 N, using a 50µL droplet of CGQDs<sub>aq</sub> (stage i). The superlubricity state ( $\mu < 0.01$ ) was achieved after just 55 m of sliding distance. Then, after 20 min of sliding, the test was halted without altering the horizontal positions of the friction pairs. The test was again started (step ii) after a gap of 30 min, without removing the lubricant residue or cleaning the tribo-pairs. The aim was to evaluate the influence of contamination on the superlubricity performance. It can be seen that the COF remains in the superlubricity range, where the COF is about 0.007, indicating the facile recovery of the superlubricity during the in-situ friction test.

Subsequently, a series of start-stop tests were performed by varying the sliding speeds from 0.05 to 0.15 m/s (steps iii to v), then lowered

back to 0.04 m/s (step vi). This observation revealed that the COF fluctuated slightly during the start-stop period; nevertheless, it remained in the superlubricity range.

Afterwards, the test was stopped and resumed at a sliding speed of 0.05 m/s by increasing the load from 3.5 to 5 N (step vii). Remarkably, the superlubricity state ( $\mu < 0.01$ ) was attained after just 100 s of running-in time. Subsequently, when the applied load increased to 10 N (step vii), the initial COF in the running-in phase was about 0.045, which was considerably lower than that in the initial step (i.e., step i). This improvement can be attributed to the already-adsorbed and exfoliated CGQDs on the sliding interface from the preceding steps. The COF reached less than 0.01 after a sliding distance of just 26 m (about 52 % shorter than in step i) and continued to decrease, eventually reaching a steady-state COF of 0.006 after about 43 m of sliding. Compared to step vii, this slightly longer running-in phase is due to the increased contact pressures with an increasing applied load, which causes inevitable wear of the contact pairs due to the increased direct contact between the surface asperities. Nevertheless, thanks to the rapid and robust adsorption ability of the carboxylates groups present on the CGQD surfaces, which ultimately leads to the regeneration of the lubricating film responsible for the superlubricity.

Next, the contact pairs were thoroughly cleaned with ethanol and water to remove the tribofilm or any residual lubricant from the surface, while maintaining the horizontal position of the tribo-pair unchanged. Afterwards, an in-situ friction test was initiated with a freshly added droplet of CGQDs<sub>ad</sub> (step ix, Fig. 9). In contrast to the swift restoration of the superlubricity observed in the preceding experiments, a running-in process with a gradually decreasing COF was observed before achieving the superlubricity state. However, the superlubricity was achieved after a sliding of 14 m, which is less than steps i and vii, respectively. These findings suggest that the formation of a tribofilm derived from CGQDs emerges as a crucial factor in achieving superlubricity. In the final stage (step x), both surfaces were thoroughly cleaned to remove the residual lubricant and tribofilm from the surface and then made to slide again with the addition of a water droplet. The COF immediately increased sharply and reached about 0.3, resembling the same frictional behaviour as observed in Fig. 2a for pure water.

Fig. 9 shows that the superlubricity sustained various sliding conditions, which is a notable achievement; however, maintaining consistently ultra-low friction below 0.01 for a longer duration is challenging [73,74]. Therefore, to ascertain the longevity of the superlubricity,



Fig. 9. Evaluation of the robustness and stability of the superlubricity by performing in-situ start-stop tests under various sliding speeds and loading conditions. The tests were performed without altering the horizontal position of the friction pairs using 0.1 wt% CGQDs<sub>aq</sub>. Step x was performed using pure water.

prolonged intermittent friction tests were performed for a total sliding distance of 10,800 m ( $\sim$ 13 X longer than in Fig. 9) using a 50  $\mu$ L droplet of CGQDs<sub>aq</sub> (Fig. 10). Initially, the test was performed for a longer duration of 10 h (3.6 km sliding), and the results showed that superlubricity remained stable throughout the test. The test was then stopped, and the samples were unloaded and separated for a 4-h interval, during which the horizontal position of the friction pairs remained unchanged, and no additional lubricant was introduced. Afterwards, the test was restarted for another 15 h (5.4 km sliding) and the CGQDsag maintained its superlubricity performance, and the COF remained unchanged after the pause. Then, the test was started again for 5 h (1.8 km sliding), and the COF stayed in the same superlubricity regime below 0.01. After prolonged sliding, Raman spectra were acquired on the worn surfaces, as shown in Fig. S9. The observance of characteristic D, G, and higher-order 2D bands corresponds to the graphitic carbon structure [61], implying that the graphite-based tribofilm derived from CGODs remains adsorbed onto the contact surfaces even after prolonged sliding. This shows that once the tribofilm derived from CGQDs is formed, it continues to provide superlubricity for an extended period of sliding, and different contact condition variations do not harm it either.

These observations demonstrate that the formed lubricating film remained stable in its natural state under ambient conditions, which is critical in industrial applications where start-stop operations can cause severe damage and shorten equipment's service life due to COF fluctuations.

## 4. Discussion

Our findings show that CGQDs nano-additives in aqueous glycerol can provide superlubricity under various tribological parameters and enhance the load-bearing capacity in boundary lubrication compared to previously reported studies on aqueous lubricants [16–19,27,28]. However, the applicability of superlubricity for practical engineering applications depends on several factors, such as the stability of the lubricant, the ability to provide superlubricity at a high contact pressure in boundary lubrication, and the formation of a stable and robust tribofilm that is not affected by the variation of tribological parameters and start-stop conditions [75–77]. These factors are discussed in the following sections.

## 4.1. Stability of CGQD-based nano-lubricant

The stability of nanoparticles is one of the primary prerequisites for their use as lubricant additives. Fig. 1f shows the dispersion stability of  $CGQDs_{aq}$  by irradiating the lubricant under a UV lamp. The consistent and uniform emission of the blue colour from the lubricant shows that the CGQDs remain stable and uniform without aggregating, even after 6 months of preparation. In addition, prolonged friction with old  $CGQDs_{aq}$  (standing for 6 months after preparation) shows that it retains its lubrication performance and provides superlubricity (Fig. S3a). This excellent compatibility of CGQDs with aqueous glycerol is due to their ultra-small size, high surface-to-volume ratio, and the polar groups (i.e., - OH and -COOH) on their surface, as shown in Fig. 1d.

## 4.2. Contact pressure during the superlubricity state

The problem with steel/steel contacts lubricated with aqueous or water-based lubricants is that the superlubricity is observed almost exclusively in a mixed-lubrication regime, or the FCP is low during the superlubricity state [16-19,27,28]. This low FCP is either due to a rigorous tribochemical reaction or the inevitable wear of tribo-pairs during the running-in period, which causes the transition from boundary-to a mixed-lubrication regime. Furthermore, most of the studies based on the superlubricity between the self-mated steel contact involve uni-directional motion [16,18,19], contrary to the reciprocating motion, which is even more severe due to the zero velocity at the end of the stroke, and where it is hard to maintain the lubricating film to realize superlubricity [78]. Therefore, protecting the surface from wear and reducing friction in the boundary-lubrication regime is a major requirement for most industrial applications [75]. We observed that the CGODs exhibit excellent lubrication properties and provide superlubricity in the boundary-lubrication regime at a contact pressure as high as 123 MPa, which is almost five times higher than existing findings relating to superlubricity in boundary lubrication employing an aqueous lubricant (Fig. 11). This higher contact pressure is attributed to the tribofilm formed by the CGQDs, which improve the load-bearing capacity

![](_page_11_Figure_11.jpeg)

Fig. 10. Prolonged friction tests demonstrating the longevity of the superlubricity. The tests were performed using a 50 µL droplet of 0.1 wt% CGQDs<sub>aq</sub> without changing the horizontal position of the friction pairs; the applied load was 3.5 N, and the sliding speed was 0.1 m/s.

and mitigate the surface wear during the running-in period.

#### 4.3. Significance of robustness and stability of superlubricity

Macroscale superlubricity is rarely observed in steel/steel contacts and is very sensitive to tribological parameters and specific environmental conditions, such as sliding speed, contact pressure, humidity, temperature, and type of lubricant. Slight variations in these conditions can disrupt the sensitive lubricating film, leading to an increase in friction. Another concern is that contaminants can disrupt the superlubricity behaviour, and even a minute quantity of impurity or particles can affect the lubricating film, leading to a loss of superlubricity performance [77]. Consequently, maintaining superlubricity over a prolonged duration and across diverse operating conditions is imperative for practical applications [75–77]. Our observations shown in Fig. 9 indicate that alterations in the system state, such as sliding speeds and the introduction of a new contact pressure, do not significantly affect the superlubricity during the start-stop period, and the formed lubricating film remained stable in its natural state under ambient conditions. Moreover, once a tribofilm derived from CGQDs is formed, it continues to provide superlubricity for an extended period (Fig. 10). This outcome is important, as the substantial fluctuations in the COF during the starting and stopping of industrial production equipment can lead to severe damage and impact the overall service life of the equipment.

## 4.4. Proposed mechanism for the macroscale superlubricity

A determination of the lubrication regime is crucial to elucidate the underlying superlubricity mechanism of the CGQDs<sub>aq</sub> between the selfmated steel surfaces. Therefore, to ascertain the lubrication regime during the superlubricity period, a minimum lubricating film thickness was estimated using the Hamrock–Dowson equation [79]. Finally, the ratio of the calculated film thickness to the combined surface roughness of the worn tribo-pairs ( $\lambda$ ) was used to classify the lubrication regime [79]. Detailed information about the calculation process can be found in the supporting information (see NOTE S2). The calculated central film thickness with 0.1 wt% CGQDs<sub>aq</sub> (based on Table S4) ranged from 19.9 to 24.1 nm (i.e., 23.0 nm for 2 N, 19.9 nm for 3.5 N, 22.4 nm for 5 N, and 24.1 nm for 10 N). In contrast, it was 33.6 nm when lubricated with G<sub>aq</sub>, almost 44 % more than the surface lubricated with CGQDs<sub>aq</sub>. The lower film thickness in the case of CGQDs<sub>aq</sub> is primarily due to the higher contact pressure in the superlubricity condition resulting from a smaller WSD (123 MPa compared to 58 MPa for  $G_{aq}$  lubrication). In addition, the  $\lambda$ -value for CGQDs<sub>aq</sub> was found to be in the range 0.82–0.93, implying that the superlubricity was primarily observed in the boundary-lubrication regime [80]. These results indicate that the observed superlubricity is not due to a change in the lubrication regime, but is due to boundary-lubrication mechanisms such as the ball-bearing effect, the mending effect, and the formation of a boundary lubricating film between tribo-pairs [24,31–33].

Therefore, based on the above analysis and our findings, the primary lubrication mechanism for the superlubricity is proposed and illustrated in Fig. 12. During the running-in process, the COF drastically reduced to the superlubricity range within  $\sim$ 620 s (3.5 N, 0.1 m/s), indicating that the physical and the chemical structures of the CGQDs play a dominant role in friction reduction, and at the same time protect the surface from excessive wear under extreme boundary conditions. Firstly, the supersmall size (i.e., ~2.6 nm) and excellent stability of the CGQDs in aqueous glycerol ensure the continuous supply of CGQDs between the rubbing surfaces, which facilitates the formation of a solid-lubrication film during asperity contact under the influence of pressure, resulting in a lowering of the friction and wear to some extent. Secondly, it is wellaccepted that during the running-in phase, the steel surface becomes positively charged due to the release of low-energy electrons, resulting in exposure of  $Fe^{2+}$  and  $Fe^{3+}$  on the rubbing surfaces [31,35,81]. Therefore, during the early stages of the running-in period, the carboxylic anions on the surface of the CGQDs facilitate their adsorption by binding strongly with the preferentially exposed iron cations on the worn surface [36,38], which protects the surface from excessive wear by mitigating the direct asperity contact (Fig. 12a). In addition, due to the large surface area of the CGODs, they have numerous active moieties to react with the worn steel surface under the influence of a high contact pressure and the frictional heat, expediting the formation of a boundary tribo-chemical film. The XPS and ToF-SIMS analyses of the worn surface further support the adsorption of CGQDs (Figs. 6 and 7). Thirdly, the worn surfaces are relatively smooth and polished without noticeable abrasive marks compared to the surfaces lubricated with G<sub>aq</sub> (Fig. 4a), indicating a positive nano-lubrication effect provided by the CGQDs. Nevertheless, this polishing effect could also be due to increased C-OH groups on the worn surface (Fig. 6a), which could act as low-friction brushes while preventing the asperity contact [23,82,83] and promote chemical polishing in an aqueous lubricating environment, as suggested by Long et al. [23,84]. This indicates the positive lubrication effect of the synergistic role played by the tribofilm derived from the CGQDs and

![](_page_12_Figure_9.jpeg)

**Fig. 11.** Comparison of the final contact pressure (FCP) during the superlubricity state of this study and other self-mated steel systems lubricated with aqueous lubricants [16–19,27,28]. The FCP is calculated by dividing the normal applied load by the contact area of the worn region on the ball. (Note that this comparison graph is for pin-on-disk systems only)

![](_page_13_Figure_2.jpeg)

**Fig. 12.** Schematic of the proposed superlubricity mechanism of CGQDs<sub>aq</sub> in a steel/steel contact. (a) Adsorption of CGQDs on the worn steel surface; (b) triboinduced shearing and exfoliation of graphene sheets inside CGQDs; (c) tribofilm with structurally transformed CGQDs to layered graphitic structure.

aqueous glycerol with dispersed CGQDs. Lastly, due to the continuous inter-layer shearing and exfoliation of the graphene sheets within the CGQDs (Fig. 12b), the adsorbed CGQDs on the tribo-oxidized worn surface underwent a sliding-induced structural transformation to the layered graphitic structure, which is mainly responsible for the superlubricity being achieved (Fig. 12c). This implies that the structure of the CGQDs plays a pivotal role in achieving superlubricity. The importance of the CGQD structure was further testified by performing the friction test between self-mated a-C:H (Fig. 2b), which is regarded as a non-reactive surface and provides high friction in humid and aqueous environments [85]. The COF decreased to 0.015 after a long running-in period. This decrease in friction could be attributed to a physical mechanism that relies on the shearing of the graphene layers within the CGQDs, suggesting that the structure of the CGQDs plays a role in reducing the friction. However, the interlayer shearing of the graphene is not solely responsible for the superlubricity in steel tribo-pairs; the adsorption of the CGQDs to the metallic surface via tribochemical reaction is a prerequisite for forming a super-lubricious layer.

The above findings suggest that the chemically adsorbed film containing structurally transformed CGODs passivates the tribo-oxidized surface and protects it from excessive wear and oxidation during the running-in process [6], consequently leading to a higher contact pressure during superlubricity in the boundary-lubrication regime, compared to available studies based on aqueous lubricants [16,18,19, 27,39]. Therefore, this excellent lubrication effect is due to the synergistic adsorption, shearing and polishing effect provided by the CGQDs dispersed in aqueous glycerol. In particular, the chemical adsorption of CGQDs onto the worn surface protects the tribo-pairs from excessive wear. At the same time, the structural transformation of the CGQDs to the graphitic layered structure due to continuous exfoliation and shearing of the graphene structure inside the CGQDs resulted in the realization of superlubricity. This research not only sheds light on the active lubrication mechanism for superlubricity between the steel contacts, but it also clarifies the role of the CGQDs' physical and chemical structure in achieving superlubricity. As a result, we believe this study is a significant step forward in the pursuit of superlubricity in steel contacts operating under aqueous lubrication conditions, especially at high contact pressures, thereby establishing a foundation for their practical applicability in mechanical systems.

## 5. Conclusion

CGQDs as an additive in aqueous glycerol provide robust superlubricity between self-mated steel contacts for various tribological parameters with a COF between 0.005 and 0.0095, which is a 72-78 % reduction in friction compared to aqueous glycerol without any nanoadditives. At the same time, surface wear is greatly suppressed, resulting in a final contact pressure during the superlubricity state as high as 123 MPa, which elevates the upper limit of contact pressure under boundary-lubrication conditions in aqueous lubricated steel contacts. This enhancement in lubrication performance is ascribed to the robust adsorption ability of CGQDs on the worn surface, combined with the sliding-induced structural degradation and transformation of CGQDs into a layered graphitic structure, which led to the generation of a lowshear interface. Once a tribofilm with structurally transformed CGQDs is formed, it can maintain its superlubricity state and adapt to different sliding conditions without an additional supply of CGQDs<sub>ac</sub>. This study is a major advance in the search for superlubricity in steel contacts because we were able to clarify the role of chemical adsorption and the structural transformation of CGQDs in achieving superlubricity under aqueous lubricated conditions.

## CRediT authorship contribution statement

Irfan Nadeem: Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Methodology, Investigation, Formal analysis, Data curation. Matjaž Finšgar: Writing – review & editing, Validation, Investigation, Formal analysis, Data curation. Goran Dražić: Writing – review & editing, Validation, Software, Investigation, Formal analysis, Data curation. Matjaž Malok: Data curation. Ardian Morina: Writing – review & editing, Visualization. Mitjan Kalin: Writing – review & editing, Visualization, Supervision, Resources, Methodology, Funding acquisition, Conceptualization.

## 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.

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## Appendix A. Supplementary data

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