



Evaluation of the thermal properties of SrCO₃-microencapsulated palmitic acid composites as thermal energy storage materials

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Abstract

A novel composite of SrCO₃-microencapsulated palmitic acid (PA) (PA@SrCO₃ microcapsules) was prepared and evaluated as a phase-change material through a self-assembly approach. Samples of the material were studied by Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) spectroscopy, X-ray diffractometry (XRD), scanning electron microscopy (SEM), and transmission electron microscopy (TEM) to determine the composition, crystalloid phase, microstructure, and morphology of the product. Also differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) and thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) were used to monitor the thermal behavior of the PA@SrCO₃ microcapsules. The data obtained through XRD and FTIR indicated the presence of characteristic peaks of PA and SrCO₃, which is only possible when the species do not chemically react with each other. SEM images indicated the PA@SrCO₃ microcapsules to be spheres with rough surfaces and average diameters of 1.5–2 μm. TEM images proved the samples as being composed of PA cores encapsulated in a SrCO₃ coating. The DSC results showed that the samples had phase-change behaviors, similar to those of pristine PA (melting point = 66.9 °C, latent melting heat = 48.8 J g⁻¹, freezing point = 55.7 °C, latent freezing heat = 43.2 J g⁻¹, at a microencapsulation ratio of 43.92%), and TGA results showed improvements in the thermal stability of PA@SrCO₃ microcapsules as opposed to PA, due to the presence of the SrCO₃ shell.

Keywords Microcapsule · Phase-change material · Palmitic acid · Thermal stability · Strontium (II) carbonate

Introduction

The worldwide increase in energy consumption and the modern environmental problems pose a serious problem to energy supply industry. An approach to face such problems

is using the unconventional and renewable energies and the development of efficient technologies and devices for different purposes including storage of energy, photocatalyst, supercapacitor, etc. [1–10].

PCMs are currently receiving considerable attention due to their applications in different fields areas like energy-saving materials for construction, storage and using of thermal solar energy, smart temperature-regulating fibers and textiles, cooling systems in electronic elements and instruments, wastewater treatment, low-temperature transportation units, solar plants, photovoltaic cells, and thermal management systems, etc. [11–13]. Based on their chemical natures, PCMs can be classified as organic, inorganic, or eutectics, and they can offer advantages or disadvantages in their thermal energy storage (TES) behaviors. In general, organic PCMs (OPCMs) are called TES systems, since they offer advantages including congruent melting/freezing profiles, low super-cooling, and vapor pressure changes at operating conditions, non-toxicity, and availability [14–16]. These PCMs are further classified into two main

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subclasses of paraffins and fatty acids. The latter show large latent heat capacities, excellent thermal conductivity, and small volume change through phase transition [17]. However, disadvantages like the small thermal conductivity, volume changes, leakage from capsules, low thermal response, flammability, and instability limit the possibility of directly using organic PCMs in heat storage applications. To overcome such shortcomings, the PCMs are packed in thin or shallow containers and/or clumping agents have been added to them [18, 19]. On the other hand, the process of microencapsulation which involves the physical or chemical trapping of 1–100 μm liquid or solid particles in a solid shell has been considered as a strategy for overcoming these defects. Microencapsulated structures, in which organic PCMs are enclosed in an inert material, can maintain a macroscopic solid form even under conditions in which the PCM core is molten [20–22]. This process further enhances the ease of handling organic PCMs and further the resulting microcapsules have large specific surface areas for more effective heat transfer [23].

A great deal of investigation has been performed on the preparation and properties of organic PCMs microencapsulated in different polymeric shells and examples of the conventional polymers used in the encapsulation process are poly(styrene-co-ethylacrylate) [19], polymethylmethacrylate [24], high-density polyethylene [25], polyurea [26], and melamine formaldehyde resin [27]. The polymeric shells might, however, cause environmental and/or health problems due to releasing toxic vapors, which poses serious limitations for using them in construction, medical, or food TES applications [20, 28]. Further, the thermal properties of the polymeric microcapsules like their flammability, low thermal and/or mechanical stability, or poor thermal conductivity can limit their application in different applications [20, 29].

Due to the disadvantages of polymeric shells, and given the advantages offered by inorganic materials in terms of non-flammability, thermal conductivity, mechanical, thermal, and chemical stabilities has attracted much attention to the area of microencapsulating OPCMs with inorganic or inorganic/organic hybrid shells [30, 31].

Studies have proven inorganic materials like SiO_2 [17], $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4/\text{SiO}_2$ [32], magnesium [33–35], and TiO_2 [36] to be proper encapsulating materials for OPCMs, and the resulting microcapsules have been reported to reveal good phase-change thermal behaviors, which have been attributed to the enhanced thermal conductivity. The structures also offer improved thermal stability, longer lives, and better sealing and anti-permeability properties, due to their presence of the rigid and compact shells [37]. In this regard, alkaline earth carbonates like SrCO_3 and CaCO_3 would be great candidates

as inorganic shell due to their attractive properties especially their high thermal stability that lead to the increasing the durability and superior thermal conductivity. In this regard, there are some reports on using CaCO_3 as the shell material in constructing the PCMs, but to the best of our knowledge, there is no report on using SrCO_3 as inorganic shell [38–41].

Based on the above background, the present study was focused on preparing a SrCO_3 -microencapsulated palmitic acid (PA) ($\text{PA}@\text{SrCO}_3$) through a self-assembly approach and evaluating the composition, crystalloid phase, and surface morphology of the product using FTIR, XRD, and SEM. Further, the thermophysical properties and thermal stability of the product were monitored through DSC and TGA.

Experimental

Materials

Palmitic acid (PA), TWEEN 80, Span 80 (served as the surfactants), petroleum ether $\text{Sr}(\text{NO}_3)_2$, and K_2CO_3 were supplied by Merck Co. and used as received.

Preparation of samples

The typical method used for preparing the $\text{PA}@\text{SrCO}_3$ included adding 13.29 g of $\text{Sr}(\text{NO}_3)_2$ and 75 mL of deionized water to a beaker. In parallel, 10 g of PA, 0.65 g of TWEEN 80, and 0.35 g of Span 80 were mixed in 80 mL of DI water in a three-necked flask (250 mL). This mixture was stirred for a quarter at 80 °C, before the $\text{Sr}(\text{NO}_3)_2$ solution was gradually added to it in a drop-wise manner. The mixture was kept under stirring at 80 °C for 3 h. As a result, a stable oil/water emulsion was formed to which a solution of 9.7 g K_2CO_3 in 100 mL of DI water was added in a drop-wise manner in 60 min while being vigorously mixed at 1000 rpm. The resulting product, i.e., $\text{PA}@\text{SrCO}_3$, was eventually separated by centrifugation, washed with petroleum ether several times and then washed with deionized water. This white powder was next desiccated in a vacuum oven at 60 °C overnight. Three samples of the product were obtained at $\text{PA}/\text{Sr}(\text{NO}_3)_2$ mass ratios of 30/70, 40/60, and 50/50 by adjusting the stoichiometric ratios.

Characterization of the samples

To acquire the XRD patterns a Philips X'pert MPD instrument with a $\text{CuK}\alpha$ radiation ($k = 0.15478$ nm) was used. The FTIR spectra were recorded in the range of 400–4000 cm^{-1}

on a PerkinElmer Spectrum 100 spectrophotometer, using KBr sheets. The field emission scanning electron microscopy studies on the samples were performed using a TESCAN MIRA3 microscope, and the TEM images were recorded on a Philips EM208S device.

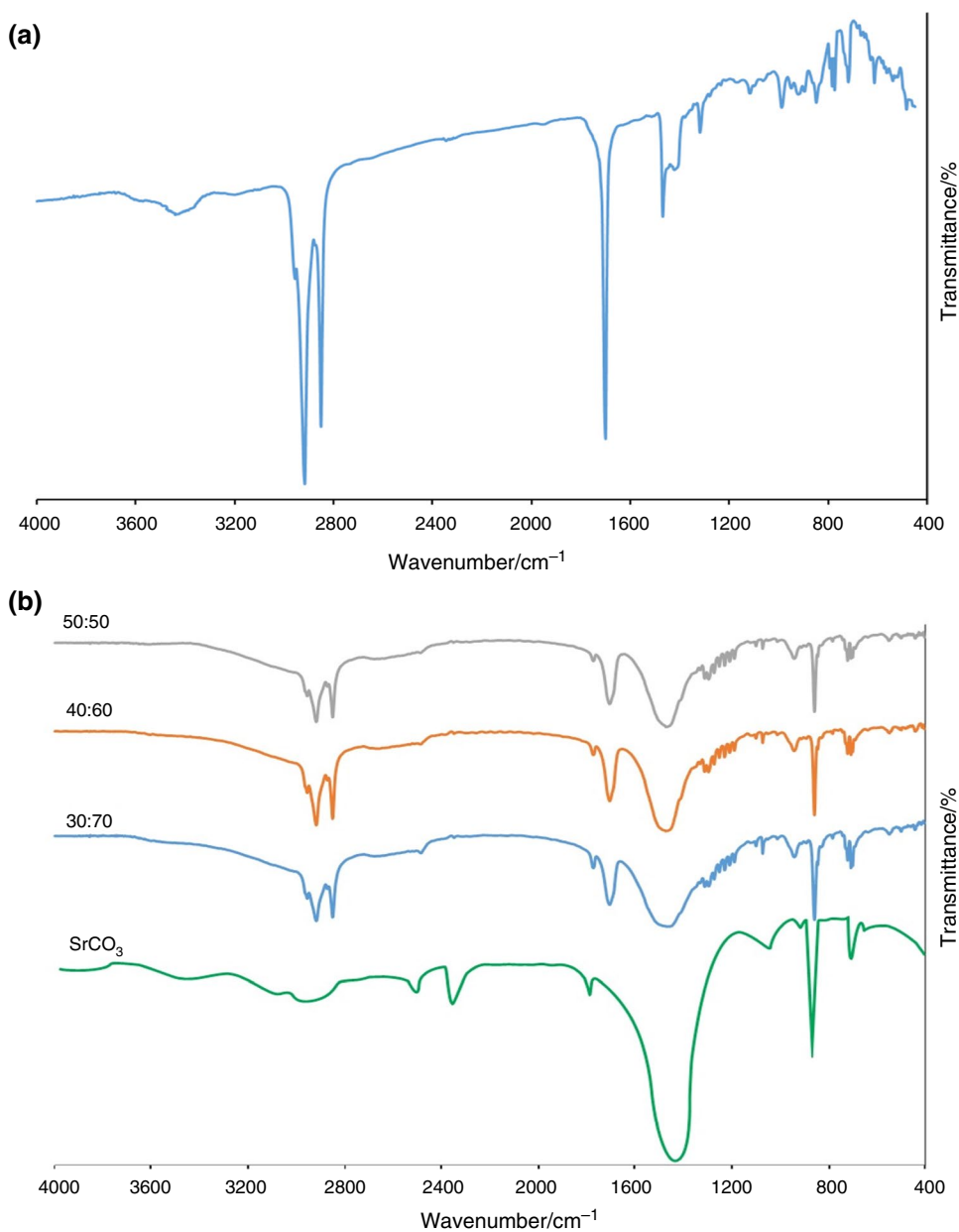
To study the melting and freezing temperatures, as well as the latent heats of the different PA@SrCO₃ samples, DSC data were recorded on a S800 SPICO instrument under a constant stream of nitrogen, while heating or cooling 5 mg of the samples at 10 °C/min. 6 mg of the PA@SrCO₃ samples was used for the TGA analyses on a NETZSCH TG 209 F1 Iris thermal analyzer. The

TGA analyses were performed in a nitrogen atmosphere at 20 °C/min starting from ambient temperature to 600 °C.

Results and discussion

The PA@SrCO₃ samples were synthesized through the self-assembly method. Since PA is not water soluble, a stable PA/water emulsion was formed upon adding and dispersing PA, the surfactant containing water. In this suspension, the hydrophilic ends of the surfactants interact with the H₂O molecules, while their hydrophobic segments of

Fig. 1 FTIR spectra of **a** pristine PA and **b** the microencapsulated PA synthesized with the PA/Sr(NO₃)₂ mass ratios of 50/50; 40/60, 30/70 and SrCO₃



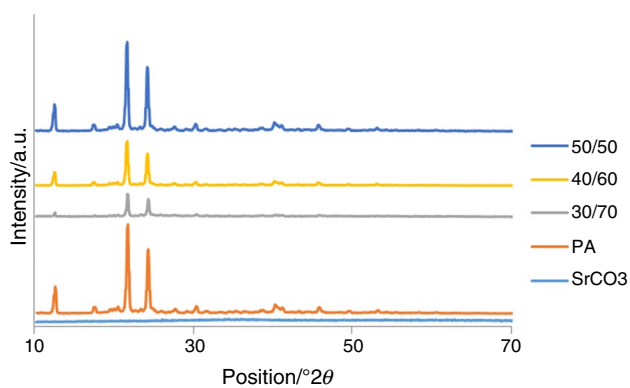


Fig. 2 XRD patterns of (a) pristine PA and the microencapsulated PA synthesized with the PA/Sr(NO₃)₂ mass ratios of (b) 50/50, (c) 40/60, (d) 30/70, (e) SrCO₃

the molecules are oriented toward the droplets of PA, and as a result, a layer of the surfactants is formed around the PA droplets. Upon the drop-wise addition of the Sr(NO₃)₂ solution to the mixture, the metal cations can assemble on the surfactant layer, through interacting with the –OH groups present in the structure of the surfactant. Adding K₂CO₃ to this reaction mixture finally leads to the formation of the SrCO₃ shell.

FTIR studies were performed on the PA, SrCO₃, and PA@SrCO₃ samples, and the results are given in Fig. 1a–e. In the case of pristine PA (Fig. 1a), the bands at 2920 and 2855 cm⁻¹ correspond to the stretching vibrations of the –CH₃ and –CH₂ groups and that at around 1700 cm⁻¹ to the stretching of carbonyl (C=O) group. The band at 1320 cm⁻¹

can be attributed to the in-plane bending of the hydroxyl groups [42–44].

In the case of SrCO₃ (Fig. 1e), the absorptions at 836 and 560 cm⁻¹ are the result of the stretching vibrations of CO₃²⁻ ions [45]. The signal at 1260–1670 cm⁻¹ corresponds to the C=O and the antisymmetric stretching of the C–O groups present in the CO₃²⁻. The absorption band at 3200–3600 cm⁻¹ originates from the stretching and bending of the hydroxyl groups of the water molecules adsorbed on SrCO₃ [46]. For the PA@SrCO₃ samples (Fig. 1b–d), the bands typical to SrCO₃ and PA can be still observed at 1445 and 3400 cm⁻¹ and at 2920, 2855, and 1320 cm⁻¹, and no considerable new bands can be observed. The band corresponding to the stretching vibrations of C=O at 1471 cm⁻¹ is significantly decreased as compared to the FTIR spectrum of pristine PA (i.e., at 1700 cm⁻¹), which can be attributed to the strong interfacial interactions among the carboxyl group of the two components. This indicates the nature of the interactions among the two components (i.e., PA and SrCO₃) to be purely physical.

In general, making use of X-ray analysis is on the rise so that scholars can reach pure crystal structure of nanoparticles. [47–55]. In the case of pure PA, SrCO₃, and the different PA@SrCO₃ composites, the XRD patterns were obtained and are illustrated in Fig. 2a–e. Figure 2a contains five sharp peaks at 2θ = 12.67°, 21.83°, 24.32°, 30.37°, and 40.32°. These were, respectively, attributed to the diffractions of (110) and (200) crystal lanes of PA according to JCPDS No. 03 - 0250. Figure 2e, which was acquired for SrCO₃, contains a smooth peak at around 30–40, indicating the sample to be amorphous. As shown in Fig. 2b–d, the XRD patterns of the PA@SrCO₃ samples contain the characteristic peaks of PA and amorphous SrCO₃, only at lower intensities in comparison with those in Fig. 2c, d, further indicating the physical nature of the interactions among the ingredients [29].

The SEM and TEM images of the different composites are presented in Fig. 3, indicating all samples as being regular spheres with rough surfaces. The figures also indicate that some tiny particles were attached to the rough spheres. This can be due to the short induction period for strontium ions for assembly on the surface of the droplets, as a result of the inherently rapid precipitation of the salt. Figure 3d (TEM), to further demonstrate the product as being composed of PA cores and SrCO₃ shells, indicates the spheres as having diameters in the range of 1.0–1.5 μm. All of the observations supported the successful fabrication of the PA@SrCO₃ composite through the self-assembly method.

TGA is a powerful technique to determine the stability of inorganic and organic materials [49, 56]. TGA tests were performed to evaluate the thermal resistance and mass loss of PA, SrCO₃, and the PA@SrCO₃ (Fig. 4a–e).

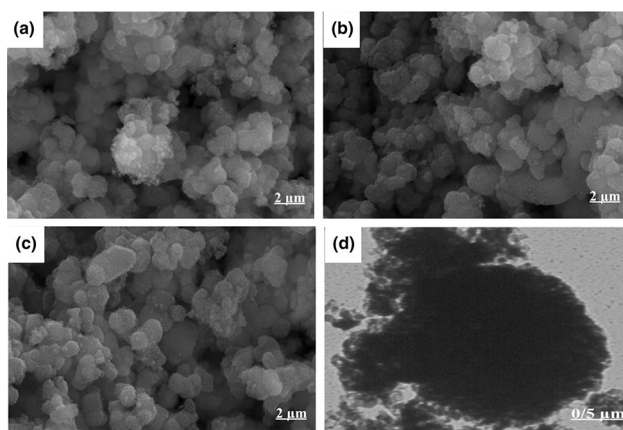
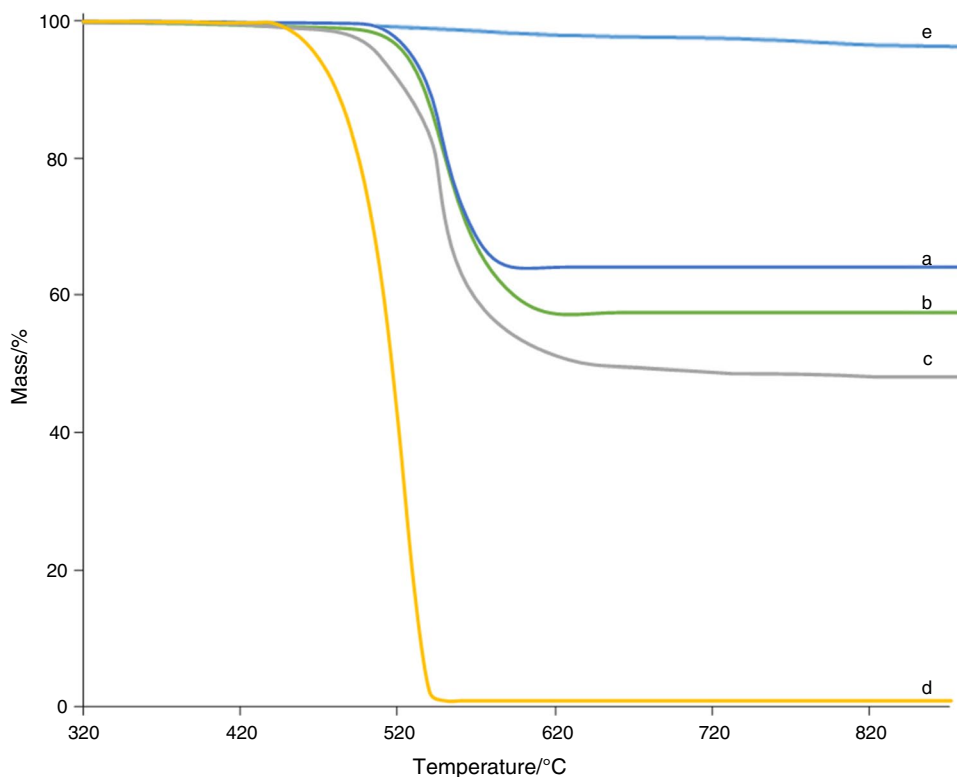


Fig. 3 SEM micrographs of the microencapsulated PA synthesized with the PA/Sr(NO₃)₂ mass ratios of **a** 30/70, **b** 40/60, and **c** 50/50; **d** TEM micrograph of the microcapsules obtained at the PA/Sr(NO₃)₂ mass ratio of 50/50

Fig. 4 TGA curves of the microencapsulated PA synthesized with the PA/Sr(NO₃)₂ mass ratios of (a) 30/70, (b) 40/60, (c) 50/50 and (d) pristine PA and (e) SrCO₃



According to Fig. 4a, pristine PA undergoes a one-step mass loss process from 170 to 270 °C, and beyond this range, it does not lose any mass. As to PA@SrCO₃ microcapsules, the samples exhibited a two-step degradation behavior from 200 to 310 °C. This was attributed to the independent decomposition of the ingredients (i.e., PA and SrCO₃). Figure 4b–d clearly reveals that the PA in the PA@SrCO₃ samples has a lower maximum mass loss as opposed to pristine PA, as a result of the enhanced thermal stability through the SrCO₃-encapsulation. Figure 4e presents the TG analysis of SrCO₃. According to the result, the mass has not decreased, and therefore, SrCO₃ has great stability.

The phase-change profiles and latent heats of PA and the different PA@SrCO₃ samples were studied through DSC. Figure 5a, b illustrates the typical melting and freezing DSC curves, and evaluations on the thermal properties from the curves are given in Table 1. It is evident that pristine PA had single melting and freezing peaks at 67.2 °C and 56.5 °C, respectively. The behaviors of the different PA@SrCO₃ samples were rather similar to those of the pristine PA, supporting the physical nature of the interactions among the ingredients of the composites once more.

The 30:70 sample melted at 65.9 °C (latent heat = 36.4 J g⁻¹) and froze at 55.7 °C (latent heat = 24.4 J g⁻¹). In Table 1, it can be seen that the melting and freezing peak temperatures were lower those of pristine

PA, for all composites. This could be due to higher specific surface areas of the microencapsulated composite in comparison with pristine PA. Also the microcapsules with a 50/50 core/shell mass ratio were found to have the highest melting and freezing latent heats among the three samples. The phase-change enthalpies of the composite samples were found to be directly proportional to the PA content of the samples.

Given the importance of the encapsulation ratio (*R*) and efficiency (*E*) in determining the thermal qualities of microcapsules, these values were calculated using the following equations and using the enthalpy determined through DSC [17], and the values are summarized in Table 1.

$$R = \frac{\Delta H_{m, \text{microcapsule}}}{\Delta H_{m, \text{PA}}} \times 100\% \quad (1)$$

$$E = \frac{\Delta H_{m, \text{microcapsule}} + \Delta H_{f, \text{microcapsule}}}{\Delta H_{m, \text{PA}} + \Delta H_{f, \text{PA}}} \times 100\% \quad (2)$$

$\Delta H_{m, \text{microcapsule}}$ and $\Delta H_{f, \text{microcapsule}}$ are the melting and freezing enthalpies of the product, and $\Delta H_{m, \text{PA}}$ and $\Delta H_{f, \text{PA}}$ are those of pristine PA, respectively.

The data in Table 1 show that the encapsulation ratio for the product with a 50/50 mass ratio was 39.44%, which is a bit lower than the loading content determined from the TGA results (46%). The encapsulation ratio

Fig. 5 **a** DSC cooling curves and **b** DSC heating curves of pristine PA and the microencapsulated PA synthesized with different mass ratios of PA/SrCO₃

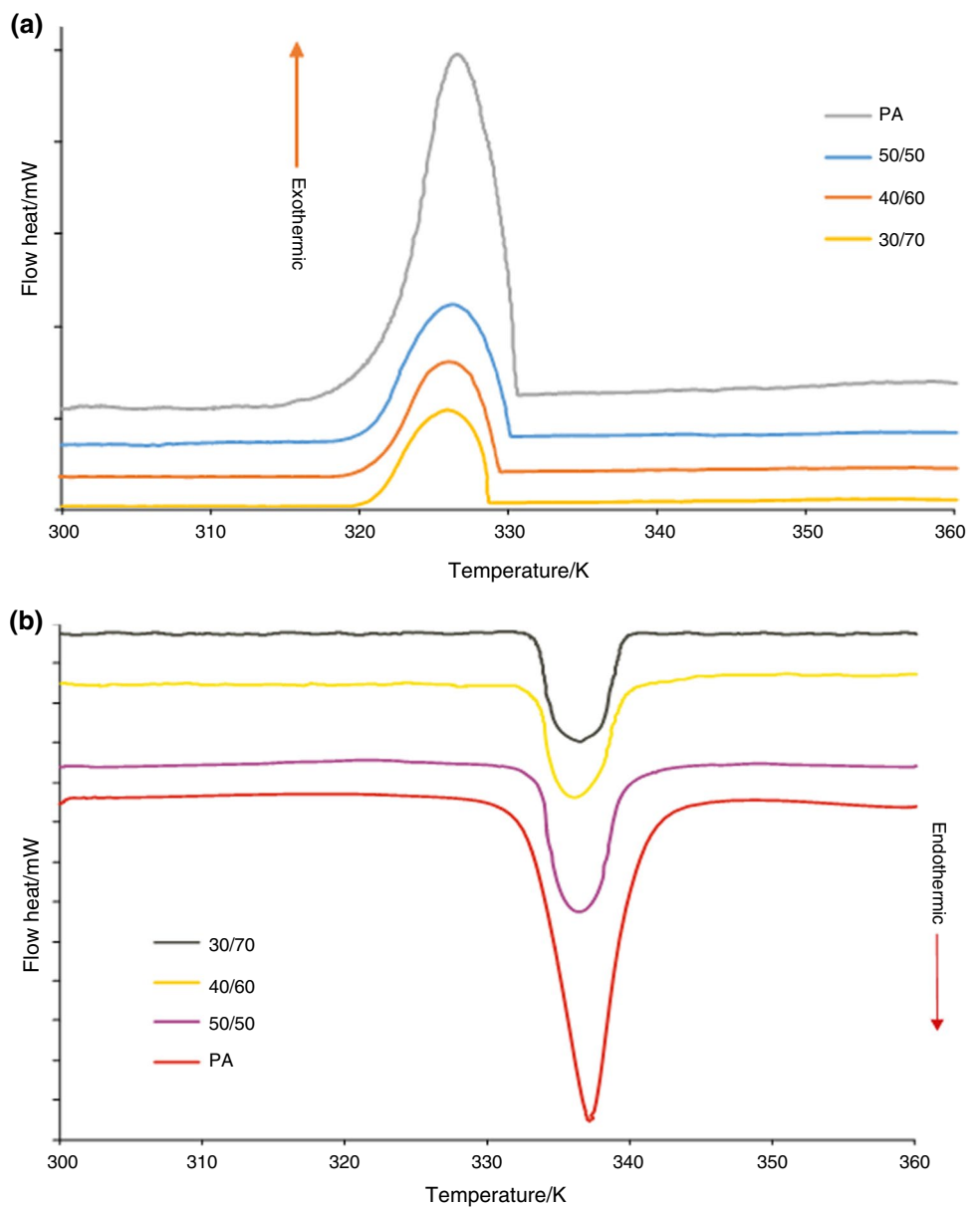


Table 1 Phase-change behaviors of the microencapsulated PA synthesized with different mass ratios of PA/Sr(NO₃)₂

Sample code	Mass ratio of PA/Sr(NO ₃) ₂	Freezing process		Melting process		R/%	EI/%
		T_f /K	ΔH_f /J g ⁻¹	T_m /K	ΔH_m /J g ⁻¹		
1	Pristine PA	329.5	103.17	340.2	111.21	–	–
2	50/50	329.19	43.07	339.2	43.87	39.44	40.55
3	40/60	328.9	31.87	338.9	37.57	33.78	30.62
4	30/70	328.7	24.41	338.9	36.48	32.8	28.4

shows the effective encapsulation of the encapsulated PA for storing the latent heat. The loading content, on the other hand, indicates the total mass percent of PA in the microcapsules. So it can be concluded that not all of the microencapsulated PA are able to store the latent heat by

phase change, and hence, the encapsulation ratio actually illustrates the effective performance of the microencapsulated PA.

Conclusions

A microencapsulated PCM, based on PA core and SrCO₃ shell, was successfully prepared through a self-assembly approach. The product was studied using FTIR, XRD, SEM, TEM, TGA, and DSC. The FTIR and XRD result were indicative of physical interactions among the ingredients of the composite. The SEM and TEM images further revealed the microcapsule to be regular rough spheres of 1.0–1.5 μm in diameter. TGA studies revealed that the product undergoes a two-step degradation and that the presence of the organic shell improves the thermal stability of PA in the product. The DSC analyses proved the phase-change behavior of the composite to be very similar to that of the pristine PA, supporting the observations indicating the physical nature of the interaction among PA and SrCO₃ in PA@SrCO₃.

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