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Enhanced heat capacity of binary nitrate eutectic salt-silica nanofluid for solar energy storage

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Abstract: In concentrating solar power plants, the heat capacity of thermal storage media is a key factor that affects the cost of electricity generation. This work investigated the effective specific heat capacity of binary nitrate eutectic salts seeded with silica nanoparticles, using both experimental measurements and molecular dynamics simulations. The effects of the mass concentration (0–2.0 wt.%) and average size (10, 20, and 30 nm) of the nanoparticles on the specific heat capacity value of nanofluids were analyzed. The results show that specific heat capacity increases when adding 10 nm silica nanoparticles up to 1.0 wt.%, and then it decreases at higher concentrations. At this optimal mass concentration, the 20 nm nanoparticles displayed a maximum enhancement in the average specific heat capacity (by ~26.7%). The simulation results provided information about the different energy components in the system. The rate of potential energy change versus nanoparticle mass concentration was found to be maximized at 1.0 wt.% concentration, which agrees with the experimental measurements. The potential energy components in the simulation system indicate that the change of Coulombic energy contributes the most to the variation of specific heat capacity.

Keywords: solar energy storage; molten salt based nanofluids; specific heat capacity; molecular dynamics simulation

1. Introduction

Solar energy has long been regarded as one of the main energy sources for the future, due to its virtually unlimited amount and environmentally friendly nature. Thermal energy storage systems play a vital role in the utilization of solar energy, by reducing the mismatch between energy supply and demand and therefore improving the performance and reliability of electricity production by harnessing solar thermal

1 energy. Due to their low vapor pressure, high latent heat, and wide operating
2 temperature range [1], molten salts are widely used in these thermal storage systems,
3 such as at the Andasol, Valle, and Themis solar power stations and Archimede solar
4 power plant [2,3]. However, the thermophysical properties of molten salts used in
5 these systems are not ideal, with their specific heat capacities less than 1.6 kJ/(kg·K)
6 and thermal conductivities less than 1.0 W/(m·K) [4]. Considering the large amount
7 of heat transfer fluid (HTF) and thermal energy storage (TES) materials required in a
8 concentrating solar power (CSP) plant, it is necessary to reduce their cost while
9 enhancing their heat transfer and thermal storage performance. Many researchers have
10 focused on the study, design, and characterization of salts to develop thermal storage
11 materials with improved properties [5–7].

12 Seeding nanoparticles with excellent thermal properties can effectively improve
13 the thermal conductivity and associated convective heat transfer [8–12]. Recently, the
14 effect of nanoparticles on specific heat capacity has been investigated, especially for
15 salt- and ionic liquid-based nanofluids [13]. Shin and Banerjee [14,15] measured the
16 specific heat capacity of eutectic salt based nanofluids and investigated the
17 microstructure change of this nanofluid. Tao et al. [16] used four kinds of carbon
18 nanomaterials with different microstructures to formulate carbonate salt based
19 nanomaterial composite and a maximum enhancement in specific heat capacity of
20 18.57% was obtained. Chen et al. [17] proposed a novel method to prepare molten salt
21 based nanofluids. During the preparation, molten salts were melting at high
22 temperature and nanoparticles were dispersed in molten salt by magnetic stirring. The
23 specific heat capacity enhancement was 16.4%, compared with that of pure molten
24 salt. Luo et al. [18] used a one-step method to synthesize molten salt based CuO
25 nanofluids and found a maximum increment of 11.48%. Using mechanical grinding
26 and mixing, Ding et al. [19] obtained a 10.48% enhancement of specific heat capacity
27 with CuO nanoparticles at the concentration of 0.1 wt.%. Zhang et al. [20] doped SiO₂
28 nanoparticles into a quaternary nitrate with low melting point and investigated the
29 effect of ultra-sonication time on specific heat capacity. They finally obtained an
30 average enhancement of 19.4% with the optimal ultra-sonication time. Jo and
31 Banerjee [21,22] investigated the influence of carbon materials such as graphite and
32 multi-walled carbon nanotubes in carbonate salt, and significant enhancements were
33 obtained even with a minute amount of added nanotubes. Ho and Pan [23] studied
34 alumina nanoparticles doped in molten HITEC, and showed that the optimal
35 concentration was about 0.063 wt.% with a specific heat capacity enhancement of

1 19.9%. Sang et al. [24] investigated the effect of different nanoparticles using ternary
2 carbonates as base fluids and found the enhancement of specific heat capacity was
3 79.9~113.7%. Though it is established that adding nanoparticles to molten salt can
4 significantly enhance specific heat capacity, the enhancement ratios are very different,
5 and the reported effects of nanoparticle size are inconsistent. For example, Seo et al.
6 [25] and Tiznobaik et al. [26] found no significant variation in specific heat capacity
7 with nanoparticle size, while in the investigation of Dudda et al. [27], the specific heat
8 capacity of nanomaterials was enhanced by increasing the nanoparticle size.

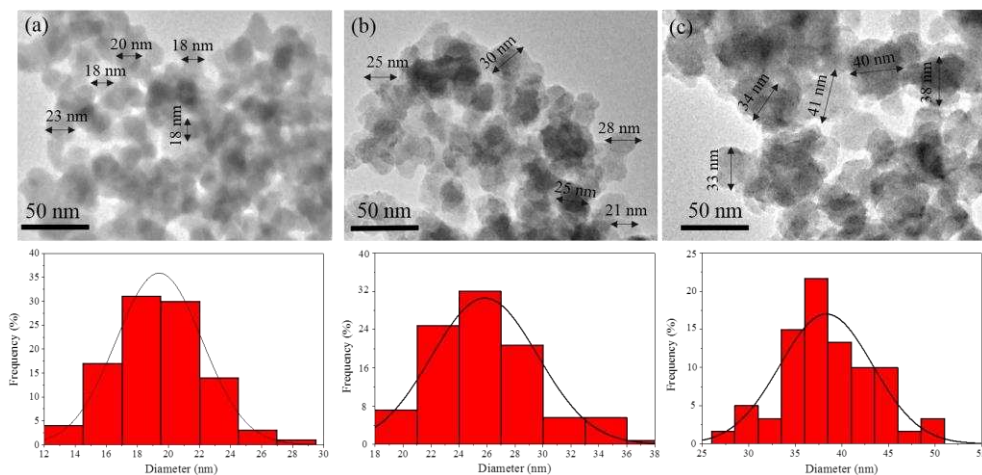
9 To explain the enhancement of specific heat capacity, Shin et al. [14,28,29]
10 proposed three possible mechanisms: (1) the relatively higher specific heat capacity of
11 the nanosized particles than the base material, (2) the solid-fluid interaction energy,
12 and (3) a high-density layer formed at the nanoparticle surface. Mechanism (1) is
13 clearly not plausible, as most nanoparticles actually have lower specific heat capacity
14 than the base salt, even after assuming that the heat capacity is enhanced upon
15 forming nanoparticles. Some studies [13,30] have reviewed the influences of
16 nanoparticles with many idealized assumptions. However, the exact reasons for the
17 specific heat capacity enhancement remain debatable. Considering the interaction
18 between molecules, molecular dynamics simulations (MDS) provided a powerful tool
19 to investigate nanoscale phenomena [31,32]. Qiao et al. [33] calculated specific heat
20 capacity using MDS, and their results show an enhanced specific heat capacity. Jo et
21 al. [34,35] simulated the interfacial thermal resistance between carbon nanoparticles
22 and salt molecules, and calculated the thickness of the compressed layer. However,
23 these results are still far from clarifying the mechanism of the enhanced heat capacity.

24 The purposes of this work are to develop a potential thermal storage material by
25 adding nanoparticles into binary eutectic nitrate salts, and to study the effects of silica
26 nanoparticle concentration and size on specific heat capacity. Meanwhile, a scanning
27 electron microscope (SEM) was employed to analyze the sample morphology after
28 the differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) measurement, and MD simulations were
29 carried out to calculate the specific heat capacity of the nanofluids in order to reveal
30 the cause of its enhancement. Differing from the previous MD simulations, the current
31 work analyzed the MD results from the perspective of energy distribution of the
32 ensemble.

2. Experiments

2.1 Nanofluid synthesis

Sodium nitrate (NaNO_3) and potassium nitrate (KNO_3) were obtained from Tianjin Fengchuan Chemical Reagent Technologies Co., Ltd., both with purities above 99.0%. Amorphous silica nanoparticles were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich Co., Ltd. (10 and 20 nm) and Beijing DK Nano Technology Co., Ltd. (30 nm). Transmission Electron Microscope (TEM) was used to verify the size of SiO_2 nanoparticles. Nano measure 1.2 software was used to obtain nanoparticle size distributions, as shown in Fig. 1. It can be seen that the sizes of nanoparticles were 19.4, 25.9, and 37.4 nm respectively, a little larger than those stated by manufacturer. The nanofluids were prepared based on a liquid solution method, and the main procedure is shown in Fig. 2. Initially, 4mg nanoparticles were dispersed into 20 ml of deionized water, stirred, and sonicated for 60 min in an ultrasonicator; in order to ensure good dispersion of the nanoparticles. Then, different amounts of eutectic mixture of NaNO_3 and KNO_3 with a mass ratio of 60:40 were dissolved in the suspension to make nanoparticle mass fraction range from 0.5% to 2.0%. The mixture was ultrasonicated for another 60 min to guarantee the uniformity and stability of the mixture. Afterwards, the solution was heated in a vacuum drying oven at 110 °C for 7 h to obtain the nanofluid without moisture. To avoid the effect of moisture, the samples were heated again before the DSC measurement.



21

22 Fig. 1. TEM images and size distributions for different nanoparticles (a)10 nm (2)20 nm (3)30 nm.

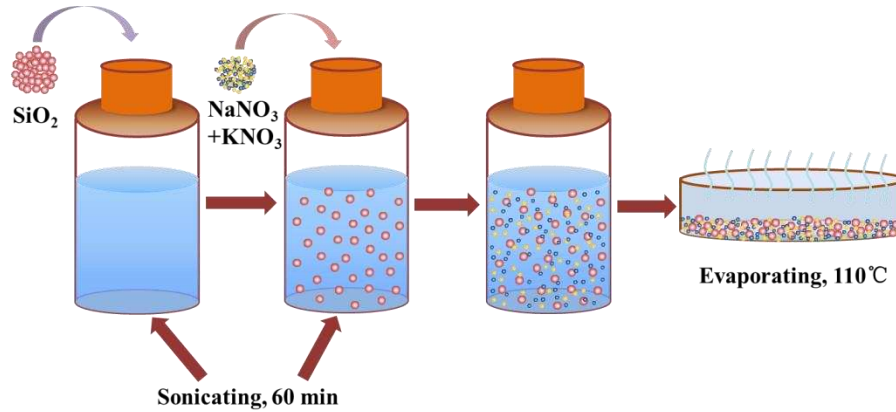


Fig. 2 Procedure of preparing the nanofluids.

2.2 Specific heat capacity measurement

The specific heat capacity of the samples was measured using DSC (204F1, NETZSCH) based on a standard test method proposed by American Society for Testing and Materials (ASTM E1269) [36]. Aluminum pans covered with pierced lids (avoiding the influence of air expansion on the shape of sealed pans) were used to hold the samples (5–15 mg, as weighed by a highly accurate electronic balance (MC 21S, Sartorius)). Before the DSC measurement, each sample was kept at 140 °C for 30 min to remove any absorbed moisture and maintained at 140 °C for another 5 min to stabilize the signal of the calorimeter. A ramping rate of 20 °C/min was employed during the measurement, and the end temperature was set to 450 °C. The sample was further maintained at 450 °C for 5 min to ensure the stability of the signal. After the measurement, the weight change was less than 0.05 mg, indicating few nanoparticles float into the air.

Initially, an experimental run was performed with an empty pan to obtain the baseline of the heat flux. Then, the heat flux of standard sapphire was measured for calibration. After that, the same procedure was repeated 3 times for each binary salt sample to ensure the reproducibility of the results and three randomly selected samples were measured for each mass fraction of nanoparticles. Since for one integrated test, it will last for more than 3 h and the samples will undergo meltdown and solidification for three times. The good repeatability for one sample can also ensure the stability of nanofluid. The morphology of the samples after DSC was examined using SEM (JSM-7500F).

The uncertainties of the experimental results depend on the measurement errors of the mass and heat flow. The specific heat capacity was determined by equation (1):

$$c_{p,s} = c_{p,sapp} \cdot \frac{\Delta q_s \cdot m_{sapp}}{\Delta q_{sapp} \cdot m_s} \quad (1)$$

where q is the heat flow and m is the sample weight. Subscripts s and $sapp$ denote salt samples and sapphire, respectively. Then the uncertainty of the experiment can be expressed as [37]:

$$\frac{\delta c_{p,s}}{|c_{p,s}|} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\delta q_s}{|q_s|}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\delta q_{sapp}}{|q_{sapp}|}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\delta m_{sapp}}{|m_{sapp}|}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\delta m_s}{|m_s|}\right)^2} \quad (2)$$

The accuracy of the electronic balance is ± 0.005 mg, and that of the heat flow is ± 0.1 μ W. Hence, the maximum measurement uncertainty of specific heat capacity was estimated to be 1.7%.

3. Molecular dynamics simulation

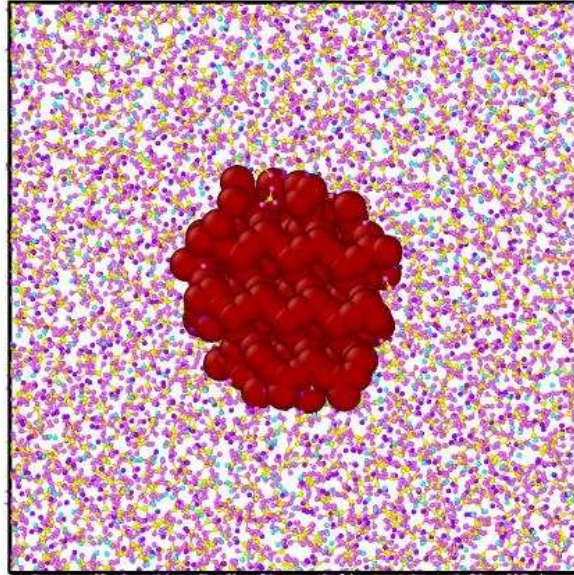
MD simulations were performed to explore the interaction between the nanoparticle and solvent molecules, using the Large-scale Atomic/Molecular Massively Parallel Simulator (LAMMPS) package [33]. A SiO_2 nanoparticle was placed at the center of the box, and the eutectic salt molecules were placed randomly in the box as shown in Fig. 3. Due to the computational limitation, the diameter of the SiO_2 nanoparticle was set as 20 Å. The concentration of the nanoparticles was adjusted from 0–2.0 wt.% by changing the length of the simulation box. Periodic boundary conditions were applied to the simulation domain.

The interaction between two non-bonded atoms was determined by a Lennard-Jones (L-J) potential with the long-range Coulomb force, as shown in equation (3) [21,38]. $E(r)$ is the potential of the two atoms, r is their distance, q_i and q_j are the charges on atoms i and j , ε is the depth of the potential well, and σ is the finite distance at which the inter-particle potential is zero. For the interaction between different atomic species, the L-J parameters were computed by the arithmetic mean according to equation (4) [39]. A cutoff radius of 12 Å was used for calculating the L-J interactions. In addition, bond-stretching, bond-bending, and torsion were considered for the bonded interactions, as shown in equation (5). All parameters used in the MD simulation were obtained from Materials Studios and literature [40] and were listed in Table 1.

$$E(r) = \frac{q_i q_j}{r} + 4\varepsilon \left[\left(\frac{\sigma}{r}\right)^{12} - \left(\frac{\sigma}{r}\right)^6 \right] \quad (3)$$

$$\varepsilon_{i,j} = \sqrt{\varepsilon_i \cdot \varepsilon_j}, \quad \sigma_{i,j} = \frac{(\sigma_i + \sigma_j)}{2} \quad (4)$$

$$E = K_s \cdot (r - r_0)^2 + K_b \cdot (\theta - \theta_0) + K_t \cdot (1 + d \cdot \cos(n\phi)) \quad (5)$$



3
4 Fig. 3 Simulation domain showing a SiO₂ nanoparticle surrounded by nitrate salt molecules.

5 Table 1 Parameters for MD simulation.

Lennard-Jones constants				
Material	Interaction	ε [kcal/mol]	σ [Å]	Charge
SiO ₂	Si-Si	0.040	4.053	+2.4
	O-O	0.228	2.860	-1.2
	N-N	0.167	3.501	+0.95
Eutectic	O-O	0.228	2.860	-0.65
	Na-Na	1.607	1.897	+1.0
	K-K	5.451	3.197	+1.0

Bonded interaction							
Material	Stretching		Bending		Improper Torsional		
	k_s	r_0	k_b	θ_0	k_i	d_i	n_i
SiO ₂	392.8	1.665	42.3	113.1	26.270	-1	2
Eutectic	525.0	1.268	105.0	120.0	26.270	-1	2

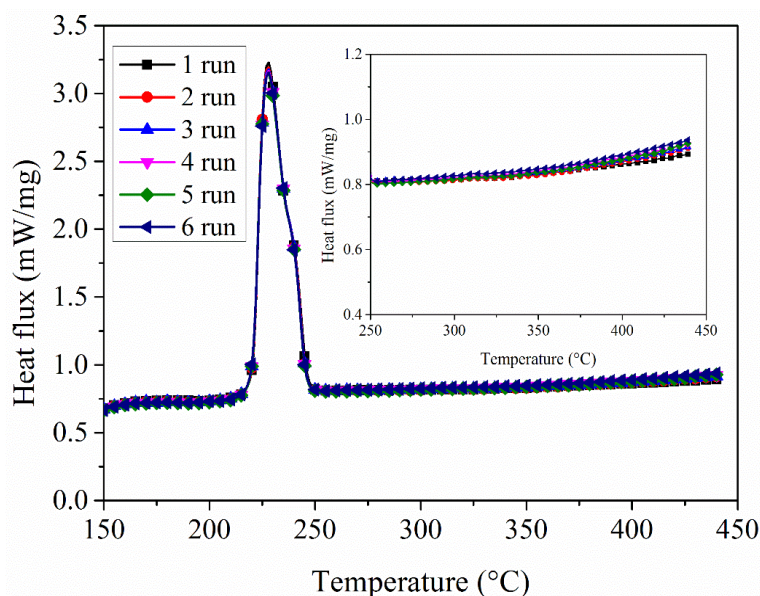
6
7 Initially, a SiO₂ nanoparticle was located at the center of the box and the solvent
8 molecules were placed randomly in the box. In this configuration, it is very likely for
9 atoms to get too close to cause non-physical interactions between the particle and
10 solvent molecules. Hence, an energy minimization step was implemented to
11 redistribute the atoms. During this step, the temperature of the system was reduced to

1 0 K. Afterwards, a microcanonical ensemble was used to perform the relaxation
2 procedure, using NVE integration (in which the number of atoms (N), the volume of
3 the system (V), and the total energy of the system (E) were held fixed). Subsequently,
4 the system temperature was raised to 650 K. A canonical Nose-Hoover thermostat
5 (NVT integration, with constant N, V, and temperature (T) controlled through direct
6 temperature scaling) was used for the temperature range from 550 to 750 K to obtain
7 the specific heat capacity of the system in liquid phase (the melting point was about
8 500 K).

9 4. Results and discussion

10 4.1 Experimental results

11 In this study, the average specific heat capacity of the pure eutectic salt in liquid
12 phase was found to be 1.560 J/(g·K), which is comparable with the value of 1.50–1.53
13 J/(g·K) in the literature [41] within 5% difference. Its melting point was up to 215 °C
14 based on the extrapolation method, which is also similar to the literature result 220 °C
15 [41]. To illustrate the stability of the samples, 6 thermal cycles for 1.0 wt.%
16 nanofluids were run and the heat flux curves were shown in Fig. 4. The thermal cycles
17 last for more than 6 h, and the heat flux curves showed good repeatability, indicating
18 the stability of the samples. Moreover, X-ray diffraction (XRD) analysis was carried
19 out before and after the thermal cycles, as shown in Fig. 5. It also indicates the
20 stability of the samples.



21

22

Fig. 4 Heat flux for different thermal cycles.

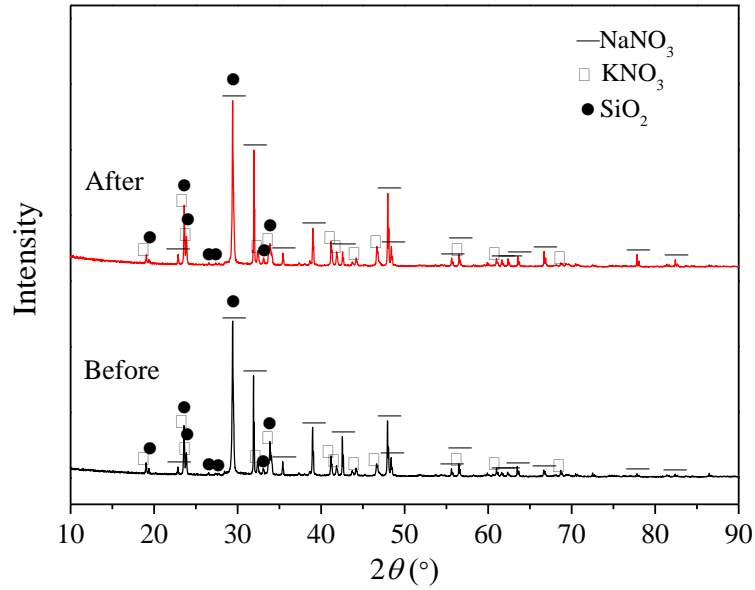


Fig. 5 XRD patterns of nanofluid before and after thermal cycles.

Fig. 6 shows the variation of specific heat capacity with temperature, for both the base salt and after seeding with nanoparticles at different mass concentrations (0.5–2.0 wt.%). The specific heat capacity of the salt containing nanoparticles at low concentrations (up to 1.0 wt.%) was higher compared to that of the base salt. Adding more nanoparticles (i.e., 1.5 wt.% and above), however, leads to a relative reduction in specific heat capacity.

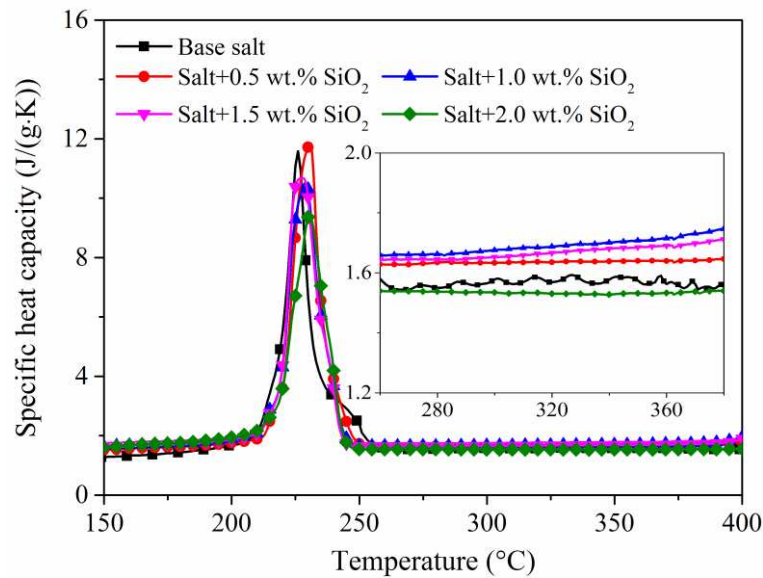
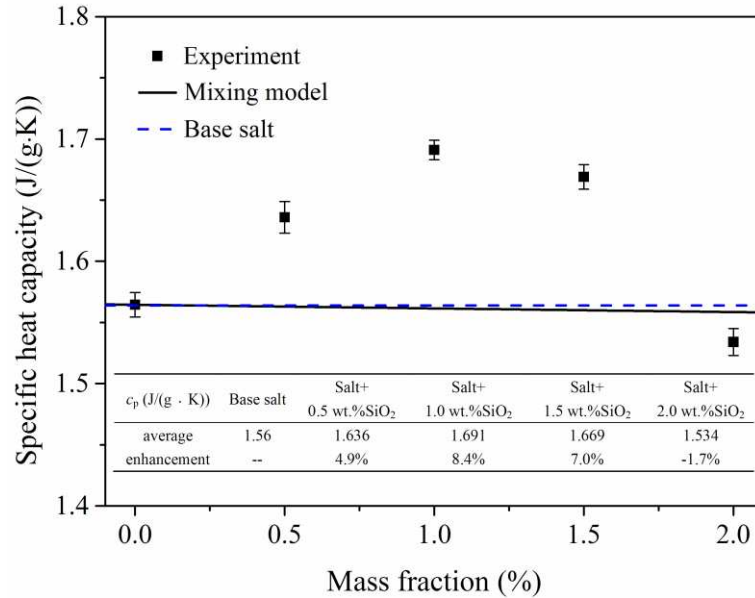


Fig. 6 Specific heat capacity vs. temperature for nanofluids with different mass fractions.

Fig. 7 gives the average specific heat capacity versus the content of nanoparticles in the liquid phase, showing that there is an optimal mass concentration (~ 1.0 wt.%) when using 10 nm SiO₂ nanoparticles to enhance the specific heat capacity of the binary nitrate eutectic salt. This is consistent with the results from Briges et al. [42]

1 who showed that specific heat capacity is enhanced at low nanoparticle concentrations
 2 and reduced at high concentrations. The maximum specific heat capacity
 3 enhancement is about 8.4% relative to the base salt in the present work. The specific
 4 heat capacities for each sample and each run were listed in Table 2.



5
 6 Fig. 7 Average specific heat capacity of pure base salt and after adding different amounts of 10 nm
 7 nanoparticles in the liquid phase.

8 Table 2 Specific heat capacities of nanofluids with different mass fractions

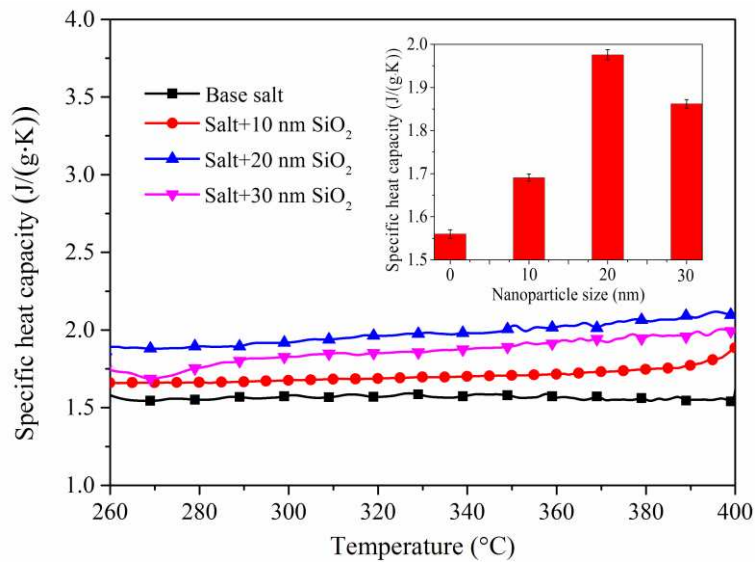
Sample	Base salt	Salt+ 0.5wt.% SiO ₂	Salt+ 1.0wt.% SiO ₂	Salt+ 1.5wt.% SiO ₂	Salt+ 2.0wt.% SiO ₂
1# First	1.558	1.648	1.683	1.669	1.523
1# Second	1.570	1.640	1.689	1.674	1.530
1# Third	1.563	1.645	1.685	1.675	1.528
2# First	1.563	1.633	1.697	1.667	1.534
2# Second	1.555	1.625	1.699	1.661	1.538
2# Third	1.551	1.623	1.699	1.660	1.538
3# First	1.565	1.637	1.685	1.673	1.539
3# Second	1.552	1.642	1.690	1.671	1.537
3# Third	1.562	1.632	1.691	1.670	1.539
Average	1.560	1.636	1.691	1.669	1.534
Enhancement	--	4.9%	8.4%	7.0%	-1.7%

9
 10 Fig. 7 indicates that the enhancement in specific heat capacity could not be
 11 predicted by the conventional effective specific heat capacity model based on the
 12 simple mixing theory:

$$c_{p,nf} = \frac{m_{np}c_{p,np} + m_s c_{p,s}}{m_{nf}} \quad (6)$$

where c is the specific heat capacity, and m is the weight. The subscripts nf , np , and s designate the nanofluid, nanoparticle, and salt, respectively. The specific heat capacity of the base salt is $1.56 \text{ J/(g}\cdot\text{K)}$ as measured in the present work. According to the literature [43], the specific heat capacity of nanoparticles may exceed that of the corresponding bulk material by 15%. Using the bulk value of $c_p = 0.97 \text{ J/(g}\cdot\text{K)}$ for SiO_2 , that of SiO_2 nanoparticles is assumed to be $1.11 \text{ J/(g}\cdot\text{K)}$. According to equation (6), the specific heat capacity of the nanofluid should be lower than that of pure molten salt, while in the present work the former is up to $\sim 8.4\%$ higher than the latter. Thus, this model underestimates the effect of nanoparticles on the specific heat capacity of the nanofluid.

We also measured the specific heat capacity values of eutectic mixtures seeded with SiO_2 nanoparticles of different average sizes (10, 20, and 30 nm) as shown in Fig. 8, with their concentrations fixed at 1 wt.% according to the previous result. While the average specific heat capacity of the pure sample in liquid phase is about $1.56 \text{ J/(g}\cdot\text{K)}$, those seeded with nanoparticles 10, 20, and 30 nm in size are 1.691, 1.976, and $1.862 \text{ J/(g}\cdot\text{K)}$, respectively. In other words, the specific heat capacity enhancements of nanofluids with different nanoparticle sizes (10, 20 and 30 nm) were 8.4%, 26.7% and 19.4%, respectively. Therefore, the 20 nm nanoparticles produced the largest enhancement of specific heat capacity, almost up to 26.7% higher than that of pure salt. The measured specific heat capacities were listed in Table 3.



22
23 Fig. 8 Specific heat capacity vs. temperature for nanofluids with different size SiO_2 nanoparticles.

24

1

Table 3 Specific heat capacities of nanofluids with different nanoparticle sizes

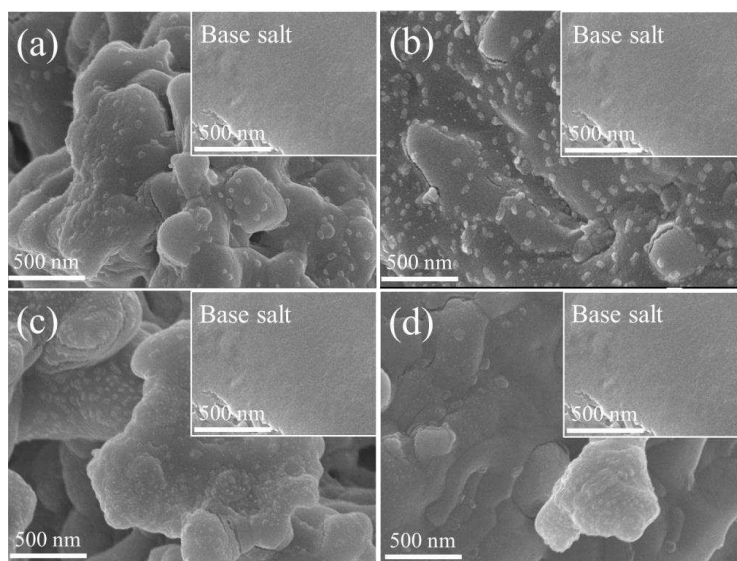
Sample	Base salt	Salt+10 nm SiO ₂	Salt+20 nm SiO ₂	Salt+30 nm SiO ₂
1# First	1.558	1.683	1.968	1.868
1# Second	1.570	1.689	1.964	1.871
1# Third	1.563	1.685	1.965	1.872
2# First	1.563	1.697	1.983	1.863
2# Second	1.555	1.699	1.988	1.862
2# Third	1.551	1.699	1.986	1.862
3# First	1.565	1.685	1.973	1.857
3# Second	1.552	1.690	1.98	1.853
3# Third	1.562	1.691	1.978	1.852
Average	1.560	1.691	1.976	1.862
Enhancement	--	8.4%	26.7%	19.4%

2

3 4.2 Material characterization

4 In general, the specific heat capacity of a material is related to its phase or
5 structure. Hence, SEM was employed to examine the morphology of pure and
6 nanofluid samples with different nanoparticle concentrations. From Fig. 9, the surface
7 of the base salt is smooth and has little visible structures. Starting with Fig. 9 (a), little
8 spots and blocks appear upon the addition of nanoparticles, and the amount of these
9 structures increases with the nanoparticle concentration, as shown in Fig. 9 (b).
10 According to the theory of Dudda and Shin [27], due to the temperature gradient
11 between nanoparticles and surrounding molten salt molecules, there should be a
12 concentration gradient of the binary salts from the surface of nanoparticle to away
13 from the particle. Moreover, since the responding difference to the charge on the
14 surface of nanoparticle, there will be a localized chemistry change. Combination of
15 these effects, semi-solid layer forms on the surface of nanoparticle and grow away to
16 formulate nanostructures. Upon further addition of nanoparticles, the amount of these
17 small nanostructures is reduced, while some agglomeration appears (Fig. 9 (c) and (d))
18 possibly as a result of the reduced homogeneity. The chemical composition was
19 determined by the energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS) instrument attached to
20 the SEM. Fig. 10 shows the EDS of O, Si, Na, and K elements in the sample
21 containing 1.0 wt.% SiO₂ nanoparticles following the DSC measurement. Si has the
22 same distribution as the other elements, indicating a uniform dispersion of Si in the

1 composite. No doubt, these small structures can significantly increase the specific
2 surface area of the nanomaterials. It is believed that a thermal contact resistance exists
3 at the interface between a liquid and a solid [44,45]. The interfacial thermal resistance
4 acts as a thermal barrier. Jo and Banerjee thought thermal resistance was determined
5 by a correlation considering the specific heat capacity, surface area and time constant
6 of decaying particle temperature [34]. A high surface area will contribute to an
7 anomalous increase in the interfacial thermal resistance between the solid phase and
8 surrounding liquid molecules, thereby acting as additional thermal storage.



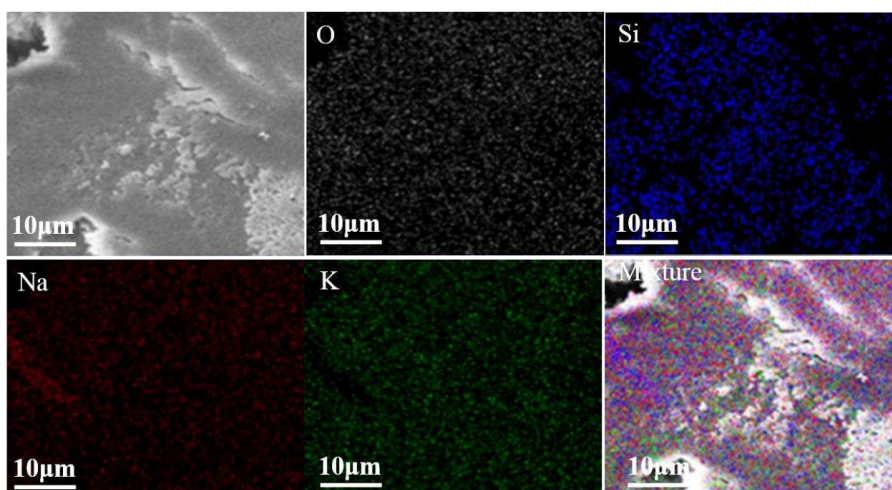
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10 Fig. 9 SEM images of salt with various concentrations of nanoparticles after DSC measurement:

11 (a) Salt+0.5 wt.% SiO₂, (b) Salt+1.0 wt.% SiO₂, (c) Salt+1.5 wt.% SiO₂, and (d) Salt+2.0 wt.%

12

SiO₂.



13

14

Fig. 10 EDS of the nanomaterial (1.0 wt.% SiO₂) after DSC measurement.

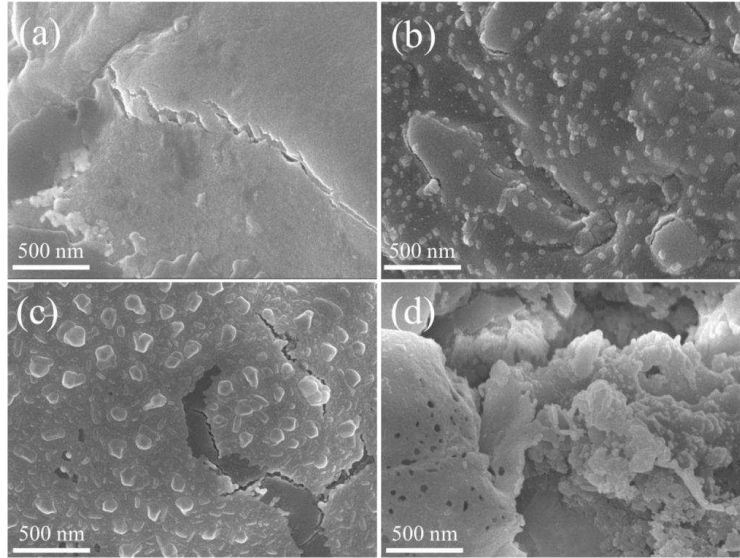


Fig. 11 SEM images of (a) Base salt, and with nanoparticles after DSC measurement: (b) Salt+10 nm SiO₂, (c) Salt+20 nm SiO₂, and (d) Salt+30 nm SiO₂ at 1.0 wt.% concentrations.

Fig. 11 shows the SEM images of the base salt and composites with 1.0 wt.% nanoparticles of various sizes (10, 20, and 30 nm) after the DSC measurement. Fig. 11 (a) shows the SEM image of pure molten salt. It can be seen that the surface is smooth. While in Fig. 11 (b), (c) and (d), some little spots and blocks appear. Comparing these three images, the sizes of little structures for salt with 10 nm nanoparticles are almost uniform while that for salt with 20 nm and 30 nm nanoparticles vary in a large range. The probable reason is that the surface charge for different size nanoparticle varies a lot, which induces different localized chemistry changes and forms different size of small structures. Afterwards, the small structures affect the specific heat capacity.

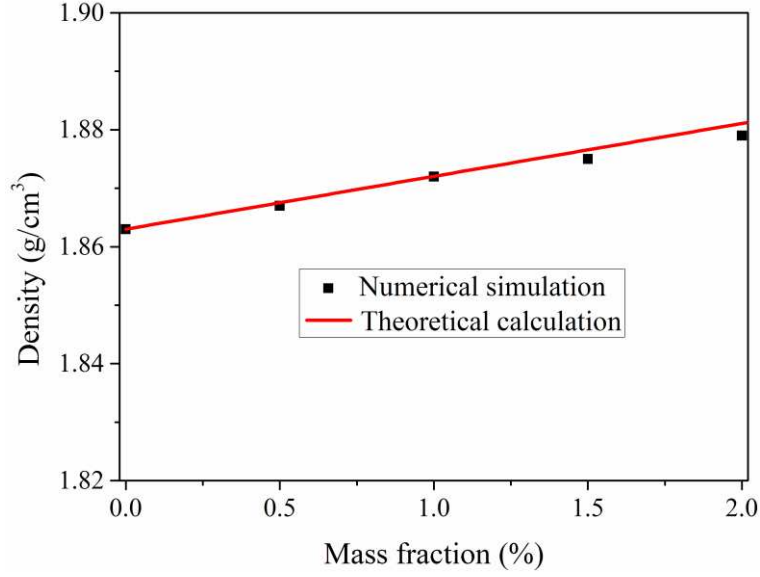
4.3 Molecular dynamics simulations

4.3.1 Density and specific heat capacity

To confirm that the potential and parameters used in the MD calculation are physical, the density and specific heat capacity of the molten salt were calculated for different nanoparticle mass concentrations. Fig. 12 compares the nanofluid density obtained from MD simulation and theoretical calculation, showing good agreement between the two. Usually, the density of a nanofluid is calculated using equation (7).

$$\rho_{nf} = \varphi\rho_p + (1-\varphi)\rho_f \quad (7)$$

where φ is the volume fraction of nanoparticles; and subscripts p and f denote the nanoparticles and fluid, respectively.



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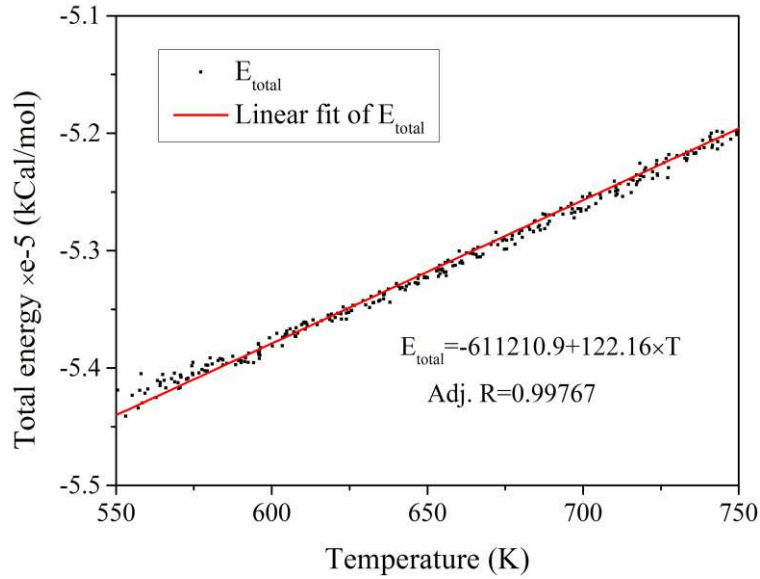
Fig. 12 Comparison of molten salt density from simulation and theoretical calculation.

3

4

Fig. 13 gives the relationship between the total energy of the ensemble and the temperature in 1.0 wt.% SiO₂-eutectic salt nanofluids. The total energy increases linearly with the temperature, with an Adj. R² = 0.99767. Therefore, the specific heat capacity of the SiO₂-molten salt nanofluid is almost constant in the temperature range of 550-750 K.

7



8

9

Fig. 13 Total energy of the ensemble versus temperature.

10

According to the MD results, specific heat capacity is calculated as follows:

11

$$c_p = \frac{\Delta E}{\Delta T \cdot V \cdot \rho} \quad (8)$$

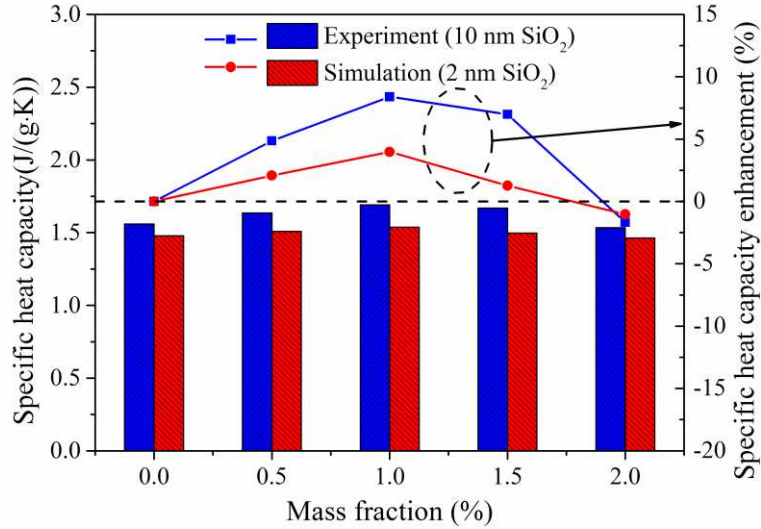
12

where ΔE is the total energy change of the system after a temperature change of ΔT ,

13

V is the volume, and ρ is the density of the system. In Fig. 14, the experimental and

1 simulated specific heat capacity at different nanoparticle ratios shows the same trend:
 2 it first increases and then decreases with increasing nanoparticle mass concentration,
 3 with a maximum at 1.0 wt.%. Considering the much smaller nanoparticle size used in
 4 the simulation and the complex interaction between the nanoparticle and solvent
 5 molecules, the differences between the experimental and simulation results are
 6 considered acceptable.



7
 8 Fig. 14 Experimental and simulated specific heat capacity values with different nanoparticle mass
 9 concentrations in the salts.

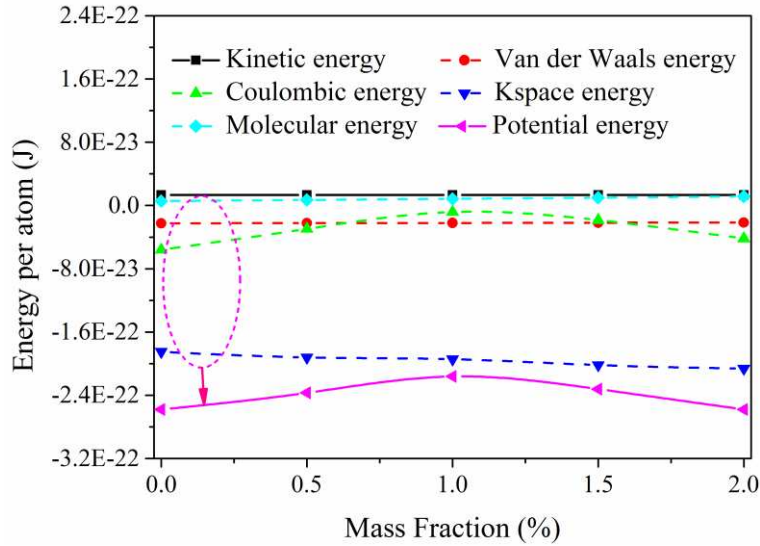
10 4.3.2 Molecular-scale analysis

11 To further investigate the reason behind the enhanced specific heat capacity, we
 12 analyzed the different energy components for each atomic type from the simulation
 13 (Fig. 15). Since specific heat capacity is defined as the energy needed to raise the
 14 system temperature by 1 K, it is also a measurement of how much energy can be
 15 stored in the system. Equation (9) gives the expression of energy per atom, consisting
 16 of kinetic (E_{ke}) and potential (E_{pe}) parts.

$$17 \quad E = E_{ke} + E_{pe} \quad (9)$$

18 The potential energy for each atom further consists of van der Waals, Coulombic,
 19 long-range Kspace, and molecular energy terms. From Fig. 15, there is no significant
 20 difference in the kinetic, molecular, and van der Waals energies for each atom,
 21 meaning that adding SiO₂ nanoparticles into the liquid molten salt has little effect on
 22 the movement and structure of the solvent molecules. The Coulombic energy,
 23 however, increases with the nanoparticle concentration up to 1.0 wt.%, after which it
 24 decreases. Meanwhile, the long-range Kspace energy decreases slightly with adding

1 more nanoparticles. Combining the effect on its four components, the total potential
 2 energy term increases with added silica nanoparticles up to 1.0 wt.% and then
 3 decreases at higher concentrations. Since the potential energy contributes more to the
 4 total system energy than the kinetic part, the specific heat capacity is mainly
 5 influenced by the potential energy change resulting from the changing Coulombic
 6 energy.



7

8

Fig. 15 Potential energy analysis of the nanofluid system at 650 K.

9 5. Conclusions

10 In this study, we investigated the influence of adding nanoparticles on the
 11 enhancement of specific heat capacity of molten salt. Composites with different
 12 amounts of nanoparticles (0.5–2.0 wt.%) were formulated, and their specific heat
 13 capacity values were measured by a DSC instrument. The results show that for 10 nm
 14 SiO₂ nanoparticles, the optimum concentration is 1.0 wt.% which corresponds to an
 15 8.4% enhancement of specific heat capacity. Using this mass concentration, we
 16 further investigated the effect of the nanoparticle size. The average enhancements of
 17 specific heat capacity using 10, 20, and 30 nm nanoparticles in the liquid phase were
 18 found to be 8.4%, 26.7%, and 19.4%, respectively. Therefore, the effect of
 19 nanoparticle size on specific heat capacity is not monotonous.

20 The material characteristics indicate that specific heat capacity of nanofluids
 21 increases with the number of formed nanostructures, which significantly augment the
 22 surface area of the nanomaterial, leading to a higher contribution of surface energy to
 23 the effective heat capacity. According to the MD simulation results, adding

1 nanoparticles into molten salt mainly changes the Coulombic energy of each atom to
2 influence the specific heat capacity of the system. The nanofluids with 1.0 wt.%
3 nanoparticles show the largest potential energy enhancement (i.e., the highest specific
4 heat capacity), in accordance with the experimental observations. Therefore, such MD
5 simulations can help people understand the internal interaction between nanoparticles
6 and molten salt molecules.

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