



Electrocaloric properties of lead-free ferroelectric ceramic near room temperature

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Abstract

Nowadays, much attention is paid for developing lead-free ceramics, which can be utilized in the refrigeration domain. This communication provides a detailed description of the synthesis and characterization of a lead-free solid solution of $\text{BaTi}_{0.91}\text{Sn}_{0.09}\text{O}_3$. The X-ray diffraction analysis showed that the compound exhibits a single phase of tetragonal symmetry (P4mm (99)). The average crystallite size estimated using Scherrer's technique was found to be 122 nm. The microstructure or surface morphology of the sintered sample was investigated by using scanning electron microscopy. Based on mapping image, the sensitivity and spatial resolution of the different elements in our sample were improved. Analytical and simulation data for the electrocaloric effect in our sample were reported. A good electrocaloric strength ($\xi = \Delta T / \Delta E$) of $\xi = 0.171 \text{ K mm/kV}$ near the ferroelectric-paraelectric phase transition temperature was obtained. These values are very interesting when compared to those for other materials and show the possibility of using such lead-free ceramics for refrigeration domain.

Keywords Lead-free ceramic · Ferroelectric · Theoretical model · Electrocaloric effect · Entropy change · Heat capacity change

1 Introduction

The refrigeration market has grown considerably because of the constant expansion of the industry, rising living standards, and climate change [1]. This has resulted in a lack of control over consumer energy expenditure. It should be noted that the extensive use of refrigeration is a major factor of excessive energy consumption resulting in the depletion of non-renewable energy resources, which

exacerbates the effect of global warming. Nowadays, the open debate is mainly focused on the energy transition towards a green development focused on protecting the environment, preserving human health and reducing global warming [2–4]. The necessity to improve energy performance has become a major concern for industrial and scientific communities. This fragment of innovation has, therefore, become under great pressure to produce more sustainable technological solutions predicated on promising cooling technologies. A few successful techniques have been developed. For example, the thermoelectric technique (Thomson or Peltier, Seebeck effect), solar sorption [1], as well as magnetocaloric (MC) [5–8] and electrocaloric (EC) cooling [9–13]. Compared to MC cooling, EC cooling main advantage is that the high electric fields necessary for the refrigeration cycle are less costly and much easier to produce than the magnetic fields necessary for MC refrigeration [1]. The electrocaloric effect (ECE) could be defined in adiabatic conditions by the change of temperature when an electric field is applied. In 2006, Mischenko et al. found a giant ECE in thin films $\text{PbZr}_{0.95}\text{Ti}_{0.05}\text{O}_3$ (PZT) [9]. The disadvantage of this type of material is that they are toxic and require high electric fields, which limits practical applications [14, 15]. So far,

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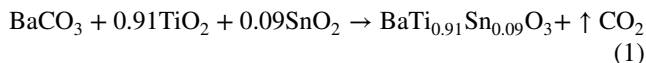
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most inorganic materials with exceptional ECE are lead-based while lead-free ceramics, generally, have a lower ECE [1, 16]. Nevertheless, because of worldwide lead limitations, there is a pressing need to create environmentally-friendly materials [17–22]. This makes them attractive to further research in relation to widely used refrigeration technology based on gas compression. Among the lead-free EC materials are the prototypical BaTiO₃ (BT), which has a maximum ECE at high temperatures [16, 23–25]. To enhance their ferroelectric performance and adjust their Curie temperature (T_C), near room temperature, a transition strategy has been adopted by substitution at A (such as Ca²⁺ and Sr²⁺), B (such as Sn⁴⁺ and Zr⁴⁺) or in both sites [26–30]. It worth noting that the substitution of Ti⁴⁺ by Sn⁴⁺ in BT has also been an effective way to shift the T_C close to room temperature and also to induce various interesting properties in the dielectric behavior and sensor applications [31–33]. Thus, it is important to continue research to achieve a giant ECE in a lead-free material in ceramic form by applying a relatively small electric field near room temperature.

In this work, we present a detailed study of the structural, morphology and EC properties of BaTi_{0.91}Sn_{0.09}O₃ compound, which can be a suitable candidate as a working substance in refrigeration domain near room temperature. A phenomenological model for the simulation of the dependence of polarization on temperature variation under different applied electric fields is used for predicting the different EC parameters such as entropy (ΔS^E), relative cooling power (RCP), heat capacity ($\Delta C_{p,E}$), temperature changes (ΔT) and electrocaloric strength ξ .

2 Experimental Details

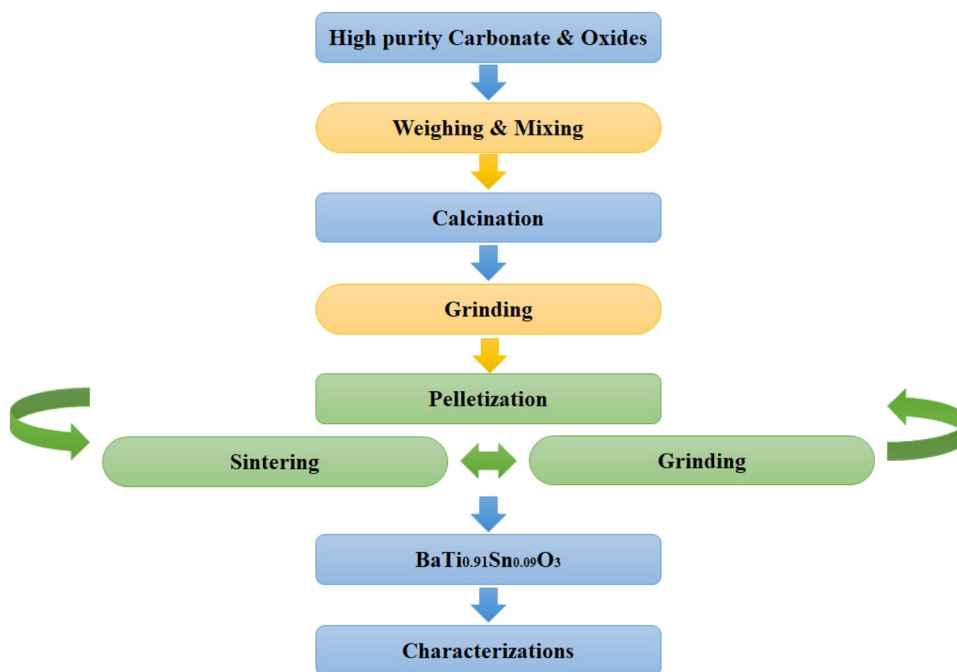
BaTi_{0.91}Sn_{0.09}O₃ polycrystalline sample was prepared by the solid-state reaction method. In this process, stoichiometric amounts of BaCO₃ (99.9% purity, Aldrich), TiO₂ (99.9% purity, Aldrich) and SnO₂ (99.9% purity, Aldrich) precursors were taken in the appropriate molar ratio. The powders were weighed according to the stoichiometric proportion of the following equation:



The initial powder was prepared by grinding the starting materials in ethanol with an agate mortar for 2 h. Then, it was calcined in two stages: at 900 °C for 24 h and at 1200 °C for 12 h. The obtained powder was again ground for 2 h and pressed into pellets. Subsequently, these pellets were sintered at 1400 °C for 2 h to get dense ceramic. Hence, the experiment density of our sample was equal to 5.7 g/cm³. Figure 1 summarizes the schematic diagram of the synthesis procedure for BaTi_{0.91}Sn_{0.09}O₃.

X-ray diffraction (XRD) pattern of our sample was recorded on a Philips diffractometer using CuK α radiation ($\lambda = 1.54056 \text{ \AA}$). The microstructure was characterized by scanning electron microscopy (SEM) using a TS QUATA 250. In order to predict the ECE properties, we determined the change in polarization as a function of the electric field for the selected temperature using a current Keithley 428 amplifier and a high voltage amplifier TREK Model 20/20C. The entropy change values, under different

Fig. 1 Schematic diagram for synthesis of BaTi_{0.91}Sn_{0.09}O₃



applied electric field, (experimental data) are calculated, using the Maxwell approach [34]:

$$\Delta S_E = \frac{1}{\rho} \int_{E_2}^{E_1} \left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial T} \right)_E dE \tag{2}$$

where S , P , E , ρ and T are the entropy, polarization, applied electric field, mass density of the sample and the temperature of the system, respectively.

3 Results and discussion

3.1 Structural properties

To describe the structural properties of our sample, we carried out XRD analysis, at room temperature. Figure 2 shows the dependence of XRD patterns of BST ceramic. It crystallized in the tetragonal structure with P4mm (99) space group with cell parameters: $a=b=4.0187(0)$ Å and $c=4.0199(9)$ Å; $\alpha=\beta=\gamma=90^\circ$.

Based on Debye Scherer’s formula [35, 36] and Williamson–Hall (W–H) method [37, 38], the mean size of the crystallites of our ceramic was calculated, using the following equations:

$$D = \frac{k\lambda}{\beta \cos \theta} \tag{3}$$

$$\beta \cos \theta = 4\varepsilon \sin \theta + \frac{k}{D} \tag{4}$$

where k ($=0.89$), λ , β , θ , ε and D are, respectively, the shape factor, the wavelength of X-ray, the full width at half

maximum (FWHM), the half of Bragg’s angle, the strain in the lattice and the crystallite size. The values of D obtained using Debye Scherrer’s formula and W–H method (inset of Fig. 2) were 129 and 151 nm, respectively. The difference of D values between the two methods is due to the lattice stress correction term in the calculations.

To better understand the morphology, the SEM image of our ceramic is shown in the inset (a’) of Fig. 3. The particles of our ceramic featured a relatively dense microstructure. Hence, the average particle size was estimated using ImageJ software. Then, we adjusted the data obtained with the log–normal function [35, 39]:

$$f(D) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma D} \exp\left(-\frac{\ln\left(\frac{D}{D_0}\right)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) \tag{5}$$

where σ and D_0 are, respectively, the data dispersions and the median diameter. The inset (a’’) of Fig. 3 shows the dispersion histogram. The mean diameter $\langle D \rangle \geq D_0 \exp\left(\frac{\sigma^2}{2}\right)$ and standard deviation $\sigma_D = \langle D \rangle [\exp \sigma^2 - 1]^{\frac{1}{2}}$ were determined using the results obtained from the fit to Eq. (5). Therefore, the average grain size was found to be 0.6 μm. In order to confirm the existence of all elements present in our sample, the energy-dispersive X-ray (EDX) analysis was carried out. Figure 3a shows the appearance of characteristic peaks of these elements on the EDX spectrum, confirming the purity of our sample. In addition, Fig. 3b shows the composition dependence of element mapping. It was suggested that the distributions of the four elements are uniform, which improved the stability of the electrical properties.

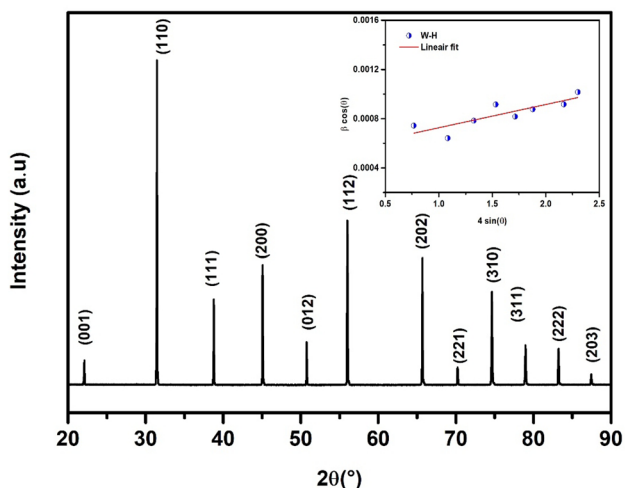


Fig. 2 XRD diffraction patterns of BaTi_{0.91}Sn_{0.09}O₃. The inset shows Williamson–Hall graph of our sample

3.2 ECE studies

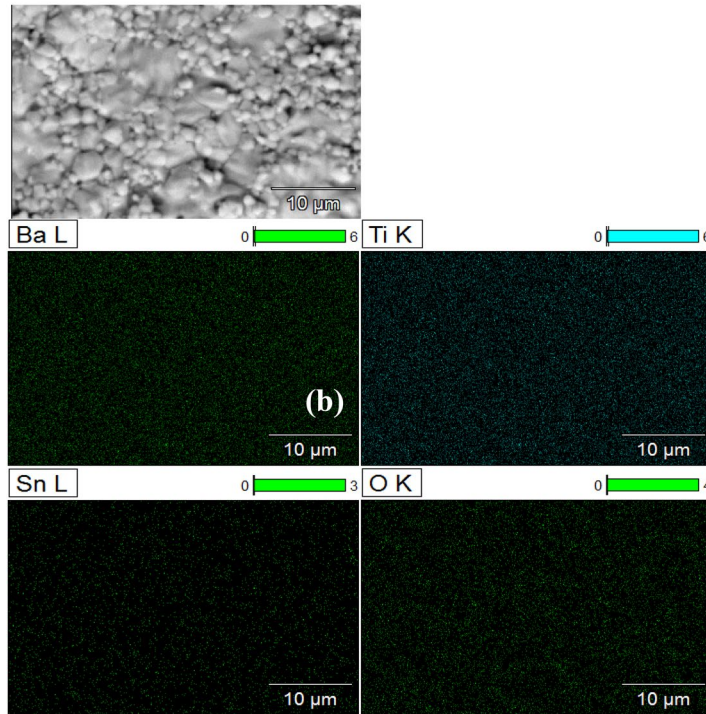
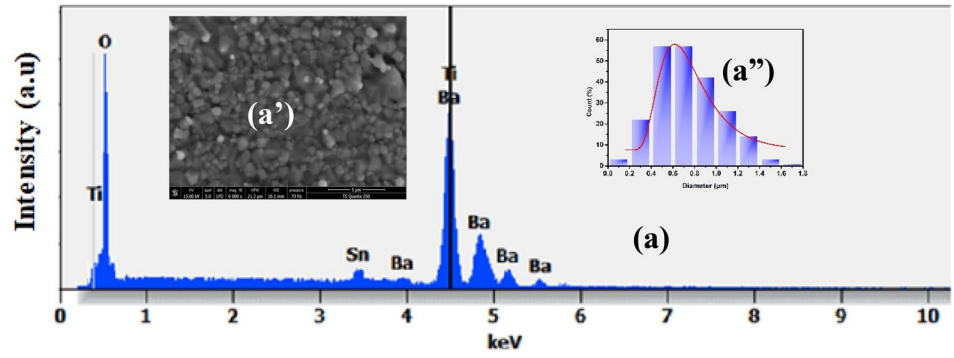
3.2.1 Theoretical considerations

To determine EC properties, both the experimental and theoretical approaches were used. For the experimental evaluation, an approach based on polarization (P) data was applied (Eq. 2). However, for the theoretical investigation, a phenomenological model outlined in [40–42] is used. From this model, the variation of P versus temperature (T) and T_C can be defined as:

$$P = \left(\frac{P_i - P_f}{2} \right) [\tanh(A(T_C - T))] + BT + C \tag{6}$$

where;

Fig. 3 **a** EDX analysis for BaTi_{0.91}Sn_{0.09}O₃ sample. Insets: **a''** of **a** shows the typical SEM and **a''** shows the histogram of the distribution of particles size. **b** EDX maps for Ba, Ti, Sn and O elements



- P_i/P_f are the initial/final values of P at ferroelectric (FE)–paraelectric (PE) transition, respectively, as shown in the inset (a) of Fig. 4.

$$A = \frac{2B - \left. \frac{dP}{dT} \right|_{T=T_c}}{P_i - P_f}$$

- B is P sensitivity $\frac{dP}{dT}$ at FE state before transition.

$$C = \frac{P_i + P_f}{2} - BT_c$$

From Eq. (6), the electrocaloric entropy change ΔS^E (Eq. 2), caused by the variation of the external electric field (E) from E_1 to E_2 , can be rewritten as follows:

$$\Delta S^E = \left(-A \left(\frac{P_i - P_f}{2} \right) \operatorname{sech}^2(A(T_c - T)) + B \right) \frac{\Delta E}{\rho} \quad (7)$$

where ρ is the mass density of the sample.

At $T = T_c$, ΔS^E becomes maximum. So Eq. (7) may be written as follows:

$$\Delta S_{\max}^E = \left(-A \left(\frac{P_i - P_f}{2} \right) + B \right) \frac{\Delta E}{\rho} \quad (8)$$

According to this model, a full width at half maximum can be calculated as follows:

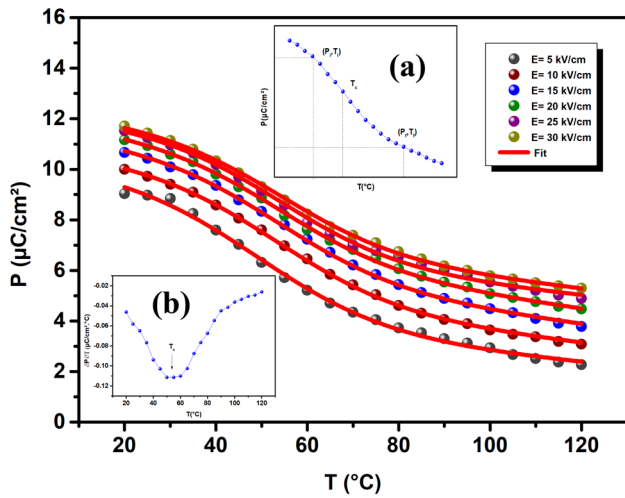


Fig. 4 Polarization versus temperature, under different electric field for BaTi_{0.91}Sn_{0.09}O₃ sample. The red lines are modeled results by Eq. (6) and symbols represent experimental data. The inset **a** shows the temperature dependence of polarization for BaTi_{0.91}Sn_{0.09}O₃ ceramic under constant electric field. The inset **b** is the plot of dP/dT versus T

$$\delta T_{FWHM} = \frac{2}{A} \cosh^{-1} \left(\sqrt{\frac{2A(P_i - P_f)}{A(P_i - P_f) + 2B}} \right) \quad (9)$$

Another very important parameter for refrigeration is the relative cooling power RCP, which presents the product of ΔS_{Max}^E and δT_{FWHM} . It is defined as:

$$RCP = \Delta S_{max}^E \times \delta T_{FWHM}$$

$$RCP = \left(P_i - P_f - 2\frac{B}{A} \right) \frac{\Delta E}{\rho} \times \cosh^{-1} \left(\sqrt{\frac{2A(P_i - P_f)}{A(P_i - P_f) + 2B}} \right) \quad (10)$$

A polarization-related change of heat capacity is given by:

$$\Delta C_{P,E} = T \frac{\delta \Delta S^E}{\delta T} \quad (11)$$

According to this phenomenological model, a change of heat capacity is given by:

$$\Delta C_{P,E} = -2TA^2 \left(\frac{P_i - P_f}{2} \right) \operatorname{sech}^2(A(T_c - T)) (\tanh(A(T_c - T))) \frac{\Delta E}{\rho} \quad (12)$$

A temperature change of a polar system under adiabatic electric field variation from an initial value E_1 to final value E_2 can be written in the form:

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta T &= -\frac{T}{C_E \rho} \int_{E_1}^{E_2} \left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial T} \right)_E dE \\ &= \frac{T}{C_E \rho} \left[A \frac{(P_i - P_f)}{2} \cdot \operatorname{sech}^2(A(T_c - T)) + B \right] \Delta E \end{aligned} \quad (13)$$

C_E is a heat capacity at constant electric field.

3.2.2 Simulation

In order to apply the phenomenological model, numerical calculations were carried out with the parameters displayed in Table 1. The FE-PE transition temperature (T_C) was determined from the inflection point of dP/dT versus T ($^{\circ}C$), as shown in the inset (b) of Fig. 4. Figure 4 shows P versus T for our sample under different electric fields (5–30 kV cm⁻¹). The symbols signify the experimental data and the red lines indicate the modeled data given by Eq. (6). It was found that these modeled data are consistent with the experimental data. Figure 5 shows the experimental entropy change data and their theoretical plot resulting from Eq. (7), at various applied electric fields. It appears that the results of the simulations agree well with the experimental data. It can also be noted that, for all applied electric fields and over the entire temperature range, the variation of ΔS^E is positive, which confirms the FE character [43]. From Fig. 5, ΔS^E increased sharply until reaching a peak near T_C . Hence, the values of ΔS_{max}^E are summarized in Table 2. Under an applied electric field $E = 30$ kV/cm, ΔS_{max}^E of our sample reached a value of 0.56 J kg⁻¹ K⁻¹.

In the framework of EC refrigeration, it is essential to take into account two other parameters, having the same importance of ΔS_{max}^E , namely RCP and δT_{FWHM} , which are defined in Eqs. 7 and 8, respectively. All EC parameters are recorded in Table 2, which are comparable to other works

Table 1 Model parameters for our sample, under different electric fields of 5–30 kV cm⁻¹

ΔE (kV cm ⁻¹)	T_C ($^{\circ}C$)	P_i (μC cm ⁻²)	P_f (μC cm ⁻²)	A (μC cm ⁻² K ⁻¹)	B (μC cm ⁻² K ⁻¹)
5	49.13	8.358	2.375	0.03426	-0.01681
10	53.50	9.312	3.963	0.03569	-0.02016
15	53.92	9.683	4.721	0.03637	-0.02301
20	54.12	10.194	5.543	0.03716	-0.02407
25	54.16	10.708	5.601	0.036501	-0.01782
30	54.33	11.557	6.853	0.03702	-0.02019

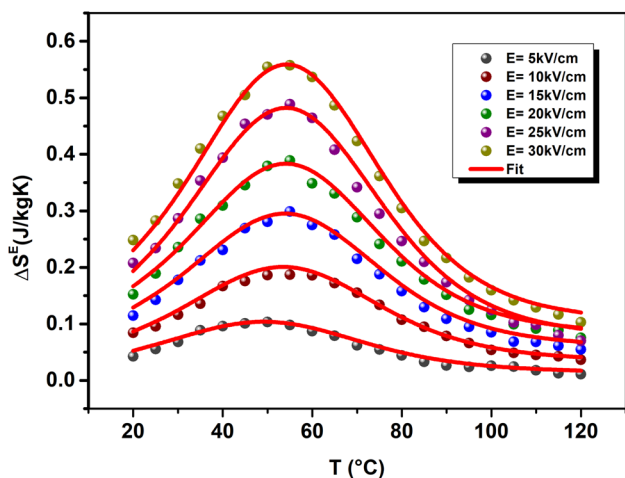


Fig. 5 ΔS^E as a function of temperature at different electric field, for $\text{BaTi}_{0.91}\text{Sn}_{0.09}\text{O}_3$ sample. The red line curves represent the modeled data results by Eq. (7) and symbols are the experimental data

such as 0.75 PMN-0.25 PT [44] and $\text{Pb}(\text{Mg}_{0.067}\text{Nb}_{0.133}\text{Zr}_{0.8})\text{O}_3$ [45]. Figure 6 shows the variation of $\Delta C_{P,E}$ as a function of the temperatures for different electric fields from 5 to 30 kV cm^{-1} , based on Eq. (12). In this figure, we can see that $\Delta C_{P,E}$ changed strongly from a negative to a positive value around T_C , which confirms FE behavior in our sample [40]. The obtained $\Delta C_{P,E}^{\min}$ and $\Delta C_{P,E}^{\max}$ values of our sample, under different electric fields, are listed in Table 2.

Using Eq. (13), Fig. 7a shows the experimental and theoretical curves of ΔT for our sample. It is obvious that the results of calculation are in good agreement with the experimental results. Also, it is clear that ΔT practically maintains the same behavior of ΔS^E . A maximum of ΔT was observed at around T_C , which is due to the great change in P with increasing T [46].

Furthermore, the EC strength ($\xi = \Delta T/\Delta E$) is generally used to predict the heating/cooling capacity of a material [44, 47]. The influence of the electric field and temperature on ξ for our samples shown in Fig. 7b. The variation of ξ versus T , under different electric fields, is similar to that of ΔT (Fig. 7a). Around room temperature, ξ reached a maximum

value ($\xi_{RT} = 0.12 \text{ K mm/kV}$) under an applied electric field equal to 5 kV/cm , which is higher than that of pure PZT ($\xi_{RT} = 0.02 \text{ K mm/kV}$) [16]. Around T_C , the maximum of EC strength ($\xi_{\max} = 0.171 \text{ K mm/kV}$) of BST ceramic is significantly higher than other lead-free ferroelectrics such as SBT ($\xi_{\max} = 0.083$) [48] and NBT ($\xi_{\max} = 0.05$) [49].

The different obtained EC parameters for our sample are summarized in Table 3. We can note that our sample can be considered as potential candidate in the field of refrigeration thanks to its important ΔT and ξ values, compared to those observed in other materials [48, 50–62].

In general, to determinate the nature of the magnetic phase transition, the plots of the magnetic entropy change (ΔS_M) as function of T , under different applied magnetic fields, should collapse on a single curve with a second-order phase transition, which is suggested by Franco et al. [63, 64]. So by analogy with the MCE, the universal phenomenological $\Delta S'$ curve can be determined by the normalization of ΔS^E [65, 66]:

$$\Delta S' = \Delta S^E(T, E) / \Delta S_{\max}^E \tag{14}$$

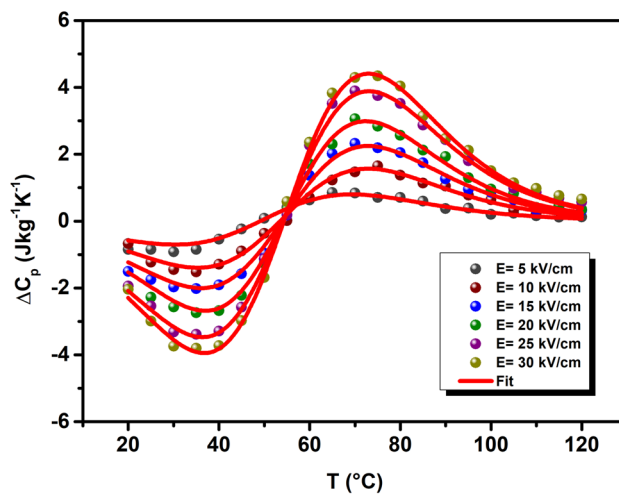


Fig. 6 Heat capacity changes versus temperature for $\text{BaTi}_{0.91}\text{Sn}_{0.09}\text{O}_3$ sample, obtained by Eq. (12) at different electric field

Table 2 Different values of EC properties for several applied electric fields of 5–30 kV/cm^{-1}

Sample	ΔE (kV cm^{-1})	T_C ($^{\circ}\text{C}$)	δ_{TFWHM} (K)	ΔS_{\max}^E ($\text{J kg}^{-1} \text{K}^{-1}$)	RCP (J kg^{-1})	$\Delta C_{P,E}^{\min}$ ($\text{J kg}^{-1} \text{K}^{-1}$)	$\Delta C_{P,E}^{\max}$ ($\text{J kg}^{-1} \text{K}^{-1}$)
$\text{BaTi}_{0.91}\text{Sn}_{0.09}\text{O}_3$	5	49.13	50.4657	0.104679	7.40786	-0.7755	0.7514486
	10	53.50	44.49342	0.20140	8.96097	-1.439	1.531595
	15	53.92	47.223	0.2963	13.99127	-2.0462	2.194335
	20	54.12	45.98149	0.3856	17.73046	-2.7283	2.91578
	25	54.16	47.5222	0.4866	23.1243	-3.59047	3.817341
	30	54.33	46.8823	0.56	26.25409	-3.9928	4.39306

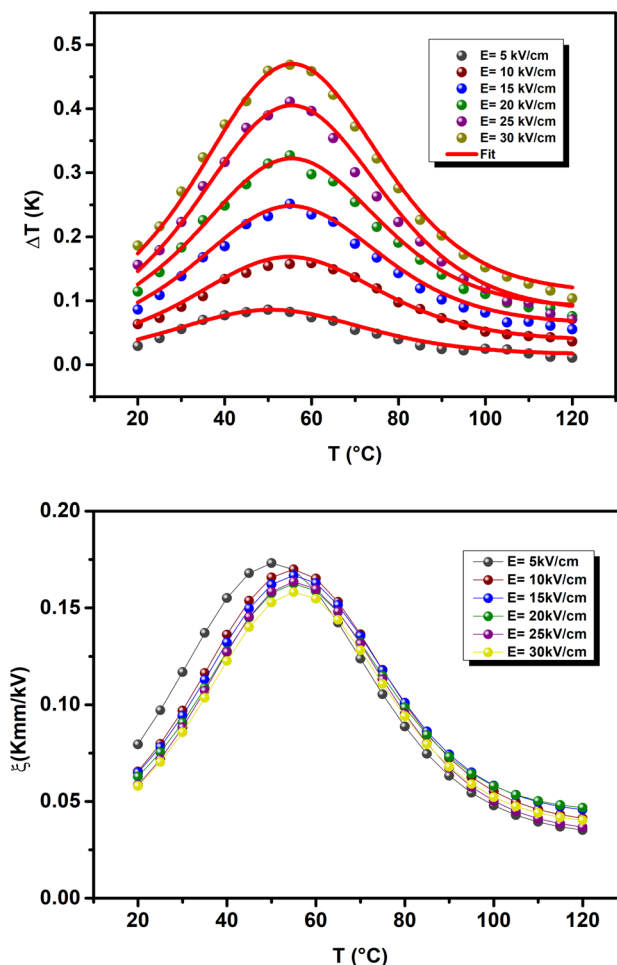


Fig. 7 **a** ΔT plotted as a function of temperature at different electric field, for $\text{BaTi}_{0.91}\text{Sn}_{0.09}\text{O}_3$ sample. The red line curves represent the modeled data results by Eq. (13) and symbols are the experimental data. **b** The temperature dependence of the electrocaloric strength ξ at different electric fields in the $\text{BaTi}_{0.91}\text{Sn}_{0.09}\text{O}_3$

Therefore, to construct the universal curve, it is important to resize the temperature axis, below and above T_C , by a new parameter on two clearly separated reference temperatures, represented by the following equation:

$$\theta = \begin{cases} \frac{T - T_C}{T_C - T_{r1}} & T \leq T_C \\ \frac{T - T_C}{T_{r2} - T_C} & T \geq T_C \end{cases} \quad (15)$$

where θ , T_{r1} and T_{r2} are, respectively, the rescaled temperature and the temperatures lower and higher than T_C of each curve which should satisfy the relation $\Delta S^E(T_{r1,2}) = \Delta S^E_{\text{max}}/2$.

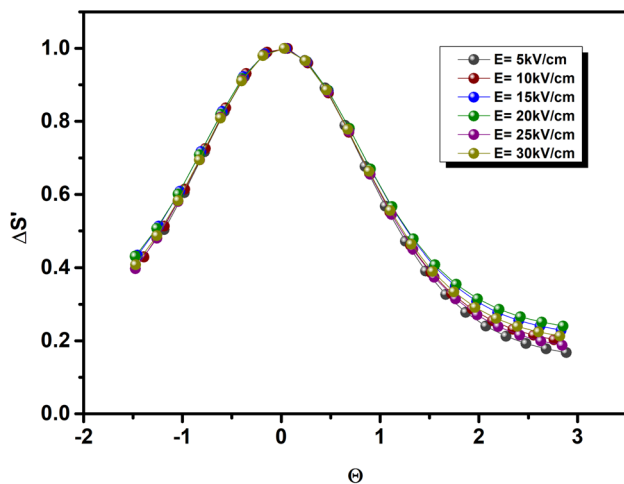
The curves of $\Delta S'(\theta)$ for the different applied electric fields are shown in Fig. 8. It is worth noting that all the data are dispersed on a single universal curve, which indicates that the transition in our sample is of a second order [67].

4 Conclusion

To sum up, $\text{BaTi}_{0.91}\text{Sn}_{0.09}\text{O}_3$ sample was prepared by solid-state method. XRD patterns showed that our sample crystallized in tetragonal structure with P4mm space group at room temperature. Based on mapping image, the sensitivity and spatial resolution of the different elements in our sample were improved. P versus T curves were adjusted at different electric fields and were used to calculate EC properties. Experimental and theoretical approaches were used to determine the EC properties. A good agreement of this model with the experimental data specifies the validity of this model under a variety of applied electric fields. Near room temperature, $\text{BaTi}_{0.91}\text{Sn}_{0.09}\text{O}_3$ sample displayed an important entropy change. The relative cooling power RCP was also analyzed. In addition, the maximum of EC strength (ξ_{max}) was found to be 0.171 K mm/kV around T_C , which is comparable to those obtained in the literature. These make our sample potential non-toxic candidate for cooling systems. According to the universal curve, we confirmed that the PE–FE phase transition observed for our sample is of second order.

Table 3 Comparison of the maximum electrocaloric strength (ξ_{\max}) and ΔT for our sample with other ceramics

Material form	T_C (°C)	ΔT (K)	ΔE (kV/cm)	ξ (K mm/kV)	Refs
BaTi _{0.91} Sn _{0.09} O ₃	49.13	0.09	5	0.171	Our work
BaTi _{0.91} Sn _{0.09} O ₃	53.50	0.17	10	0.170	Our work
BaTi _{0.91} Sn _{0.09} O ₃	53.92	0.25	15	0.167	Our work
BaTi _{0.91} Sn _{0.09} O ₃	54.12	0.33	20	0.1623	Our work
BaTi _{0.91} Sn _{0.09} O ₃	54.16	0.41	25	0.164	Our work
BaTi _{0.91} Sn _{0.09} O ₃	54.33	0.47	30	0.158	Our work
Ba _{0.8} Ca _{0.2} TiO ₃	125	0.12	8	0.15	[50]
BaTi _{0.8} Zr _{0.2} O ₃	77	2.78	161	0.17	[51]
BZr _{0.2} T-30BCa _{0.3} T	60	0.3	20	0.15	[52]
BHT-40BST	61	0.34	30	0.11	[53]
Ba _{0.97} Ce _{0.03} Ti _{0.99} Mn _{0.01} O ₃	55	0.41	30	0.14	[54]
Ba _{0.865} Ca _{0.135} Zr _{0.1089} Ti _{0.8811} Fe _{0.01} O ₃	74	0.45	30	0.15	[55]
Ba _{0.85} Ca _{0.15} Zr _{0.1} Ti _{0.9} O ₃ + 0.004CuO	110	0.09	15.3	0.06	[56]
Pb(Zr _{0.43} Sn _{0.43} Ti _{0.14})O ₃	170	0.27	30	0.09	[57]
(PbZrO ₃) _{0.71} -(BaTiO ₃) _{0.29}	25	0.15	20	0.08	[57]
BaTiO ₃	130	0.78	55	0.142	[58]
Ba _{0.7} Sr _{0.3} TiO ₃	40	0.67	40	0.16	[59]
Ba _{0.85} Ca _{0.15} Zr _{0.1} Ti _{0.9} O ₃	97	0.40	21.5	0.186	[60]
P(VDF-TrFE) 55/45	80	12.6	209	0.06	[61]
SrBi ₂ Ta ₂ O ₉	288	4.93	60	0.08	[48]
Gd _{0.02} Na _{0.5} Bi _{0.48} TiO ₃	97	0.75	90	0.083	[62]

**Fig. 8** $\Delta S'$ versus Θ for BaTi_{0.91}Sn_{0.09}O₃ sample, under different electric field

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