ABSTRACT: Thermal energy storage (TES) systems are a key technology that utilizes renewable energy and low-level thermal energy to ensure continuous and stable operation in concentrated solar power plants, family heating, and industrial waste heat recovery fields. It solves the intermittent problem of solar radiation and significantly improves energy efficiency and economic benefits. Three varieties of natural basalt ores have been selected, namely, intermediate, basic, and ultrabasic basalt, which have been prepared into basalt glasses by the melt-quenching method. The applicability of basalt glass to high-temperature heat storage applications is studied. In the present paper, the chemical composition and structure of basalt glasses have been determined. The effect of temperature and composition on key thermophysical properties such as density, heat capacity, thermal diffusion, thermal conductivity, and thermal expansion has been analyzed during a series of thermal cycles. It has been confirmed that basalt glass has extremely high heat storage performance and thermal stability, and its working temperature is as high as 1000 °C such that it can be used as a solar energy heat storage material.

1. INTRODUCTION

In recent years, due to the rapid development of global industrialization and the population growth, the demand for energy is growing. Nevertheless, the large-scale use of fossil fuels has not only triggered an energy crisis but also caused serious environmental pollution by greenhouse gas emissions such as carbon dioxide. Researchers from all over the world are committed to the research and development of renewable energy systems. Solar energy is the most abundant and clean energy on earth. The efficient collection and utilization of solar energy is the most important technology to solve the energy crisis and environmental problems, but the radiation of solar energy is intermittent, the energy cannot be output smoothly and effectively, and its application is limited in time and space.¹ Thermal energy storage (TES) systems have emerged as one of the most promising candidates for solving this issue, and thermal storage materials are the core elements of these systems.² A heat storage system can convert solar energy into heat energy and store it, then output the energy via a heat transfer medium when needed. It can adjust the balance between energy supply and demand, and it plays a crucial role in solar power plants and home heating.³ Solar thermal power generation is the most appropriate and flexible way to generate electricity from renewable sources.⁴ The heat storage materials are generally divided into three categories according to the form of storage, namely sensible heat, latent heat, and chemical heat storage materials. Sensible heat storage materials store and release energy through temperature change, which does not involve the phase change process;⁵ typical materials include mineral rocks, concretes, water, oil, and molten salts.⁶ Latent heat storage materials are based on the phase change (solid–liquid, solid–solid, etc.) of the substance, which can store and
release energy during the phase change process, also known as phase change materials (PCMs). There are various common PCMs such as calcium chloride hexahydrate, sodium acetate trihydrate, and organic alcohol. Chemical heat storage materials, such as NH₃, ammonium hydrogen sulfate, and hydroxide, realize the energy charging and discharging by making use of chemical heat during reversible chemical reactions. Among them, phase change heat storage materials are mainly organic and inorganic salts, which are expensive, corrosive to containers, poor in thermal stability, and low in working temperature. Although the chemical heat storage material has a large amount of heat storage, it has high requirements for equipment and technology because of the gas involved in the reaction so it is still in the experimental research stage. Compared with sensible heat storage materials, these two kinds of heat storage materials have a limited application range. Therefore, sensible materials are more suitable for high-temperature thermal energy storage systems, have higher practical application values, and are the most commonly used materials for storing solar energy at present.

At present, the most commonly used thermal energy storage system for concentrating solar power plants is based on the concept of two-tank storage that using molten salt as the heat storage medium, and solar salt Hitec and Hitec XL (a mixture of nitrate and nitrite) are usually used. However, molten salts are unstable at high temperatures, such as nitrates, nitrites, and carbonates decomposing at temperatures higher than 600 °C, which limits their application in the high-temperature field.

Furthermore, the solidification point of molten salts is relatively high (100–200 °C) so the working temperature range is small, and thus, the heat storage density that is positively correlated with the operating temperature range is significantly weakened. In fact, the operating temperature of the tower concentrating system is as high as 1500 °C, and the energy above 600 °C is still not well stored and utilized. Moreover, molten salts are corrosive to pipes and equipment and can greatly increase investment costs. Compared with the existing thermal storage technology, the packed bed mode, in which the solid material is the heat storage medium and the air is the heat transfer fluid, is considered to be an excellent alternative to improve the efficiency and economic benefit of the storage system.

Some scholars have studied the heat storage potential of natural rocks. Due to the uncertain natural formation process, the chemical composition of natural rocks from different geological locations varies greatly. Some inclusions and impurities will cause chemical inhomogeneities in the rock. Some components in the rocks such as water and silanol can be volatilized or decomposed at high temperature and can lead to cracks inside the materials, which greatly weaken their mechanical properties and thermophysical properties. Some studies have found that preheat treatment of rocks can effectively avoid cracking during continuous heating—cooling cycles. Hanley et al. found that the thermal diffusivity of the rock heated to 727 °C and cooled to 27 °C would exceed 30–40% of that of untreated rock. Girarat et al. studied the heat storage potential of six rocks (quartzite, basalt, granite, hornfels, cipolin, and marble) in Morocco and found that basalt has higher heat capacity than other rocks and shows the best thermal performance in the concept of thermocline storage systems. Basalt is the raw material for preparing basalt fibers, and the fibers have excellent properties such as high tensile strength, high-temperature resistance, erosion resistance, thermal insulation, etc. They are widely used as basic materials for various composite materials. Basalt glass is an intermediate product for preparing basalt fiber. Melting and quenching natural basalt and annealing at a certain temperature can produce a uniform and stable glass system. In the melting process, impurity components can be removed, thermal expansion performance can be improved, and the density of the system can be increased, thus obtaining ideal mechanical properties and thermophysical properties. Basalt glass is an amorphous material with no lattice defects. It is in a viscous fluid state at high temperature, but it does not flow. It has good processability and can freely adjust its shape and size. Therefore, basalt glass can also be used in mobile heat storage systems to realize long-distance heat transfer. In this paper, the effects of temperature and composition on the thermophysical properties of basalt glass are studied, and its feasibility as a heat storage material is specifically analyzed.

2. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

2.1. Composition and Structural Analysis. The chemical composition of the basalt glasses was analyzed using an X-ray fluorescence spectrometer (XRF), and the molar percentages of the basic component of the glasses are presented in Table 1. It can be noticed that silica is the predominant component of the three samples, which acts as the glass network former, and the basic network skeleton of the glass system is formed in the [SiO₄] tetrahedron. Compared with ordinary glasses and ores, basalts contain more iron oxide (4–7 mol %), which will have a great impact on the thermophysical properties such as crystallization temperature and viscosity. Among the studied samples, the content of alumina in the network intermediate showed a weak variation. Alumina can combine with the free oxygen in the glass to participate in the network formation with the four-coordinate [AlO₄], which plays the role of network compensation. It will also enter the gap of the glass network in the form of six-coordinate [AlO₆]. In addition, a small amount of alkali metal oxides and alkaline earth metal oxides are included, and weak changes in these components also have a significant effect on the structure and properties of the sample.

The state of the glass network intermediate Al₂O₃ in the glass system is determined by the amount of free oxygen provided by the alkali metal and alkaline earth metal oxide, and 1 mole of free oxygen can be used for 1 mole of Al₂O₃ to form [AlO₄]. The amount of free oxygen can be calculated by eq 1

$$N_{\text{free oxygen}} = \sum K_i \times M_i$$  (1)
$N_{\text{free oxygen}}$ represents the amount of free oxygen, $K_i$ is the oxygen supply coefficient of the oxide, as listed in Table 2, and $M_i$ represents the mole fraction of the oxide. According to eq 1, the free oxygen contents of the three glass systems BG-1, BG-2, and BG-3 were 10.32, 9.93, and 13.07 mol %, respectively. Except that the amount of free oxygen of BG-1 is slightly smaller than that of Al$_2$O$_3$ (10.72 mol %), the others are higher than the Al$_2$O$_3$ content of the respective systems. Therefore, Al$_2$O$_3$ in all three glasses can be considered to be composed of [AlO$_4$] tetrahedrons participating in the network, and it functions as the network former. Depending on the basic structure theory of silicate glass melt, [SiO$_4$] and [AlO$_4$] tetrahedrons form a complex three-dimensional network structure by sharing oxygen ions and connecting corners and tops. The higher their content, the higher the polymerization degree of glass. Therefore, according to the composition of the three kinds of basalt glass, it can be preliminarily inferred that the structural stability of the three kinds of basalt glass decreases in turn, which is verified by subsequent tests. The infrared spectra of basalt ores and glasses are shown in Figure 1, wherein the wavenumber ranges from 500 to 4000 cm$^{-1}$. The small shoulder located at 550 cm$^{-1}$ can be attributed to the Si–O–Al bending vibration of [SiO$_4$] and [AlO$_4$] tetrahedral structural units. The band observed at around 699 cm$^{-1}$ is due to the Al–O stretching vibration of the [AlO$_4$] tetrahedron. The Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) spectra exhibit weak peaks at 743 and 780 cm$^{-1}$, which can be assigned to the Si–O–Si symmetric stretching vibration and the Si–Si stretching vibration. The broadband observed between 850 and 1250 cm$^{-1}$ is related to the asymmetric stretching vibration of Si–O–Si, Si–O–Al, and Si–O bonds. The peak near 1020 cm$^{-1}$ is attributed to the [SiO$_4$] tetrahedron and a nonbridged oxygen atom vibration. It can be concluded that the network skeletons of basalt ores and glasses are mainly composed of the [SiO$_4$] tetrahedron and the [AlO$_4$] tetrahedron, which also confirms the reliability of the calculation of the structure type. Weak peaks that appear at 1450, 1640, and 1730 cm$^{-1}$ are assigned to the H–O–H bending vibration of adsorbing water. Obviously, these peaks of basalt glasses are weakened or even disappeared, indicating that the content of adsorbed water is significantly reduced after the basalt ores are melted. The peak near 3430 cm$^{-1}$ is attributed to the presence of silanol hydroxyl groups: Si–OH deformation and stretching vibration.35,36 where the peaks of basalt glasses have significantly weakened, indicating the decrease of the Si–OH content.

2.2. Thermophysical Characterization. 2.2.1. Thermal Stability. Solid heat storage materials must not be able to melt in the working temperature range. Thermal stability analysis is critical to assessing thermal storage performance, so as to predict the appropriate working temperature of the thermal storage materials and the possible physical and chemical reactions during the thermal cycle. In this work, thermogravimetry (TG)–differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) analysis of basalt glasses was carried out in the temperature range of 40–1200 °C and three heating/cooling cycles were performed at a temperature change rate of 20 °C/min to evaluate the thermal cycling resistance. Figure 2a–c displays the TG curves of three heating–cooling cycles of basalts. It can be observed that the three samples have obvious mass loss during the first heating process and the mass loss rate is about 1.91, 5.18, and 2.04%, respectively, with sample B-2 having the largest mass loss.

Figure 3a shows the DSC analysis curves of basalts, wherein the heating rate is 20 °C/min. Combined with TG–DSC analysis, the three samples undergo the same reaction when they are heated for the first time. Below 200 °C, the mass loss is attributed to the escape of the adsorbed water, and sample B-2 has a higher adsorbed water content of about 1.7%. In 200–800 °C, due to the decomposition reaction of silanol, new Si–O–Si bonds and water molecules are produced. Water molecules are encapsulated in the closed pores of the network skeleton, the vapor pressure increases with increasing temperature, and the stress causes the internal atomic bonds to break, which then leads to the occurrence of cracks. The ores can be regarded as polycrystals composed of various mineral phases. There is an endothermic peak on each DSC curve at around 580 °C, which is the transformation of the quartz phase to hematite (Fe$_2$O$_3$). Because of the high Fe content in B-2, this peak is more evident. Owing to the higher content of quartz in B-1, the peak shape is sharper, and the peak shapes of B-2 and B-3 are gradually broadened. However, due to the large thermal expansion coefficient of β-quartz, the rock will crack during the heating process, thus limiting its working temperature. The escape of water molecules due to silanol decomposition and the phase transition of quartz will give rise to material fracture. To maintain the high heat storage performance and long service life, the ideal maximum working temperature of these basalts is only 500 °C. It is worth noting that sample B-2 has an additional endothermic peak on the DSC curve between 700 and 800 °C. This may be the conversion of the olivine phase to hematite (Fe$_2$O$_3$). Because of the high Fe content in B-2, this peak is more evident.

In contrast, the three glass samples showed almost no mass loss during the three cycles, as shown in Figure 2d for the TG curve of BG-1 (the other two glasses have the same trend, and here we were not presented to avoid the picture redundant). The TG curve fluctuates, and there is an upward trend at around 660 °C. This may be due to the thermal effect of the glass transition, resulting in uneven temperature distribution around the sample, producing gas convection and heavy gas sinking, and causing apparent weight gain. TG curves show that the volatile and decomposable impurities are removed, and the
thermal stability is greatly improved after the basalt ores are melted into glasses.

As shown in Figure 3b, the three glasses have both endothermic and exothermic peaks on the DSC curve (the heating rate is 20 °C/min), and the first endothermic peak represents the glass transition point. The glass transition temperature $T_g$ of the three samples is not much different, varied between 663 and 669 °C. The first exothermic peak corresponds to the crystallization temperature $T_p$. The temperature of the crystallization peak can be observed to decrease sequentially, which are 884, 864, and 851 °C, respectively, and the peak gradually becomes sharp. As the content of the network former decreases, the glass network becomes loose, the glass melt is more likely to suffer phase separation, more nucleation sites are provided, and crystal nucleus are easy to form and grow. Moreover, BG-2 and BG-3 contain more Fe$_2$O$_3$ and TiO$_2$. Since the bond energy of Fe−O (397.48 kJ/mol) is smaller than that of Al−O (481.16 kJ/mol) and Si−O (774.04 kJ/mol), the [FeO$_4$] tetrahedron is unstable in glass. During the heat treatment, part of the Fe−O bond is broken, resulting in the decrease of viscosity, thereby increasing the nucleation efficiency. It also leads more crystal nuclei to be formed in the glass and reduces the temperature of the crystallization peak. Moreover, TiO$_2$ can promote phase separation and reduce interfacial energy and crystallization activation energy. The last endothermic peak in the DSC.

Figure 2. TG curves of basalts and basalt glass: (a) B-1, (b) B-2, (c) B-3, and (d) BG-1.

Figure 3. DSC analysis: (a) basalt ores and (b) basalt glasses.
The above description confirms that the analyzed basalt glasses have excellent thermal shock resistance compared to basalts. The BG-1 sample has more SiO2 and Al2O3 as network formers, and a small amount of oxides that promote nucleation. The glass network structure is more compact, which is beneficial to the conduction of heat, reduces the thermal stress during the charge and discharge of the glass system, and avoids the generation of cracks. Since the melting temperatures of the three glasses are higher than 1100 °C, it is preliminarily concluded that the maximum working temperature of the basalt glasses used as sensible heat storage materials can reach 1000 °C. It can also be found from Figure 5 that the glasses do not melt when heated to 1000 °C.

2.2.2. Thermal Expansion. Thermal expansion performance is a prominent factor in determining the thermal stability of a thermal storage material. The heat storage material requires the thermal expansion coefficient to be as small as possible to reduce the volumetric stress caused by temperature change during the thermal cycle to prolong its service life and improve its safety. When the temperature rises, the vibration amplitude of the particles in the glass increases, and the distance between the particles increases accordingly so the glass expands. Thermal expansion is negative to the bond strength of the glass component and the tightness of the network. The thermal expansion curves of the three glass samples between 40 and 750 °C are presented in Figure 4, and the heating rate is 5 °C/

Figure 4. Evolution of the thermal expansion of basalt glasses.

The obtained result illustrates that the variation of the length of samples increases linearly with a temperature between 40 and 650 °C, and a steep increase in the slope of the thermal expansion curves when the temperature is higher than 650 °C. This is due to the glass transition that occurred at around 650 °C, the glass network becoming loose, and the characteristic of the melt state that begins to occur.

The highest point of the thermal expansion curve indicates the softening point of the glass, and the softening temperatures are 686.5, 697, and 684.6 °C, respectively, and the maximum length variable is between 0.6 and 0.7%. After the softening point temperature, the movement ability of atoms is enhanced, the pores of the network structure will be filled rapidly, and the microcracks will be healed to compensate for the thermal expansion effect, resulting in negative thermal expansion. This shows that basalt glasses are more favorable for high-temperature use. Ding et al.41 conducted a molecular dynamics simulation study on the thermal expansion properties of quartz glass, confirming the negative expansion phenomenon.

Figure 5 displays the contour picture of basalt glasses at a high temperature, showing that the volume hardly changes with increasing temperature without being subjected to an external force. The linear thermal expansion coefficients of the three samples vary between 7.63 and 8.91 × 10⁻⁶ °C⁻¹, which are significantly lower than that of flipt (16–18 × 10⁻⁶ °C⁻¹),37 Egypt and France basalts (10 × 10⁻⁶ °C⁻¹),39 high-temperature concrete (9.3 × 10⁻⁶ °C⁻¹), and castable ceramic (11.8 × 10⁻⁶ °C⁻¹),42 indicating that basalt glasses possess good thermal shock resistance and are suitable candidates for heat storage materials. The thermal expansion coefficients of the studied basalt glasses are slightly different, and the value of BG-1 is relatively low, which also confirms that the network structure of BG-1 is more stable.

2.2.3. Density. The measured density values of the studied samples at room temperature are exhibited in Table 3 with density values of other materials obtained from the literature. It can be observed that BG-2 and BG-3 have almost the same density, while the density value of BG-1 is slightly smaller. In fact, the first two samples have more network modified oxides, and the alkali metal ions and alkaline earth metal ions are filled into the [SiO₄] and [AlO₄] tetrahedral network interspace to make the system denser so the density values are slightly larger. We assume that the density of basalt glass remains constant at high temperatures because of its small coefficient of thermal expansion. This can also be demonstrated by contour images at different temperatures, as shown in Figure 5. After the studied glasses were heated from room temperature to 1000 °C and kept for 2 h, the volume of the glasses did not change significantly. Compared to the reported sensible heat storage materials, such as solar salt Hitec (1.899 g/cm³)43 and high strength concrete (2.250 g/cm³),44 the analyzed basalt glasses show higher density. According to eq 2, they have obvious advantages in heat storage.

2.2.4. Specific Heat Capacity and thermal Capacity. The volumetric heat capacity (ρ × Cp) is a physical property that characterizes the amount of thermal energy stored in a heat storage material. It is the most important parameter in thermal storage applications and has a significant impact on the thermal efficiency and investment of the thermal storage system.45,46 Furthermore, the widely recognized volumetric heat capacity must be higher than 1000 KJ/(m³·K).47 The heat storage density represents the total heat energy stored in a unit volume of heat storage material during one thermal cycle. According to eq 2, the heat storage density is positively correlated with the volumetric heat capacity and the working temperature range. As this property increases, it can reduce the storage volume required for thermal storage systems, improve economic efficiency, and be more competitive in commercial applications. In Figure 6a–c, the experimentally measured specific heat capacity Cp of basalt glasses was plotted in the temperature range of 40–1000 °C during three thermal cycles, and the solid line indicates the heating process. During the first heating process, the peaks appeared on the specific heat curve, which is due to an exothermic or endothermic reaction at the peak temperature, which corresponds to the glass transition and crystallization processes, respectively. This will affect the measurement of the actual specific heat capacity, and the true specific heat value around the endothermic and
exothermic areas can be obtained by interpolation. Nevertheless, in the subsequent two heating processes, BG-1 and BG-3 had no obvious endothermic and exothermic peaks. This implicates that the first thermal cycle has allowed the glass system to relax for a sufficient time, and the internal energy is released to reach a more stable equilibrium state. It is worth mentioning that BG-2 still has crystallization peaks in the subsequent two heating processes, which may be due to the high Fe2O3 content that makes it difficult to reach the energy equilibrium state and easy to devitrify. It can be observed that during the three consecutive heating and cooling processes, the specific heat value of each sample at the same temperature

Table 3. Density of Basalt Glasses and Other Storage Materials Given in Literature at Room Temperature

| Sample | BG-1 | BG-2 | BG-3 | Solar Salt | Concrete |
|--------|------|------|------|------------|----------|
| Density (g/cm³) | 2.66 | 2.85 | 2.81 | 1.899 | 2.25 |

Figure 5. Contour pictures of basalt glasses at different temperatures: (a) BG-1, (b) BG-2, and (c) BG-3.

Figure 6. Specific heat capacity vs temperature of basalt glasses. Experimental measurements: (a) BG-1, (b) BG-2, (c) BG-3 and fitted values, and (d) three glass samples.

![Figure 5](https://example.com/figure5.png)

![Figure 6](https://example.com/figure6.png)
hardly changes because of the fixed composition, which proves that the studied basalt glasses possess good thermal cycling stability.

The specific heat capacity of basalt glasses at different temperatures are presented in Table 4, and the real change in specific heat capacity as a function of temperature is fitted in Figure 6d. Obviously, the specific heat capacity of the three glass samples varies similarly with temperature, and the specific heat value generally increases with temperature. This is due to the fact that the specific heat of solids is the sum of the contributions of atomic vibrations at various frequencies. As the temperature increases, the degree of freedom of atomic vibrations increases so the specific heat increases.48 In addition, the specific heat capacity rapidly rises below 300 °C, the atomic vibrations are frozen at very low temperatures and trapped in the energy potential well, and the number of “thawed” atoms increases rapidly with increasing temperature. The increase of specific heat capacity between 300 and 600 °C becomes slow and gradually reaches a constant value, which is in line with the Dulong and Petit law. The specific heat abruptly changes between 600 and 800 °C, this is due to the rapid decrease in glass viscosity after the glass transition temperature and the transition from a dense structure to a loose structure. It has meltlike properties and increases the freedom of atomic vibration; the sudden increase in specific heat capacity is called configurational entropy, and then, the specific heat stabilizes.

In detail, the specific heat capacities slightly vary from 0.822 to 0.770 J/(g·K) at 40 °C for BG-1, BG-2, and BG-3, and the Cp values that rise to reach maximum values vary from 1.274 to 1.025 J/(g·K) at 1000 °C, which increased about 55, 58, and 53%, respectively. The average specific heat capacity of the ceramics that are certified as sensible heat storage materials is 0.85 J/(g·K) in the range of 200–400 °C,43 and the Cp values of basalt glasses analyzed in this study are significantly higher than this value. The average specific heat capacity of solar salt Hitec at the working temperature between 220 and 600 °C is 1.5 J/(g·K).49 Although the specific heat capacities of basalt glasses are lower than this value, the density is remarkably higher than that of solar salt so they have higher heat capacity values. The thermal capacity of each basalt glass is calculated by multiplying its specific heat capacity and density, and the obtained results are presented in Figure 7. It can be observed that before 700 °C, BG-1 has the largest thermal capacity. At higher temperatures, the thermal capacity of BG-2 even exceeds BG-1 due to its higher density. The average volumetric thermal capacities of basalt glasses between 100 and 1000 °C are 3.164, 2.915, and 2.28 MJ/(k·m³), and the heat storage densities calculated by eq 2 in this temperature range are 2847.6, 2623.5, and 2052 MJ/m³, respectively. The thermal capacity of currently preferred molten nitrates is 3.0 MJ/(k·m³),34 limited to the working temperature range of about 300 °C so it can store only 900 MJ/m³ of heat, which shows that basalt glasses have enormous advantages in terms of heat storage.

2.2.5. Thermal Diffusivity and Thermal Conductivity. Thermal diffusivity and thermal conductivity determine the efficiency of charge and discharge in heat storage materials.39 The materials need to have sufficiently high thermal conductivity that should be greater than 1 W/(m·K),49 to allow the heat to quickly transfer between inside and the surface so that each part of the materials has a smaller temperature gradient51 so as to reduce the thermal stress of the heat storage material and improve the heat exchange performance of the TES. Measuring the thermal diffusion coefficient is an indirect method for obtaining thermal conductivity. The measured value of the thermal diffusion coefficient as a function of temperature is shown in Figure 8a, and the error bars in the figure representation correspond to the standard deviations of three measurements at the same temperature. In Figure 8a, the similarity of the thermal diffusivity curves of basalt glasses is evident. Between 200 and 750 °C, the thermal diffusion coefficient decreases slightly with increasing temperature. This is because the heat conduction of solid materials depends on the motion of phonons, and as the temperature increases, the number of phonon collisions increases and hence the average free path of phonons decreases. Within this temperature range, the thermal diffusion coefficient of the studied samples decreases from 0.46 to 0.41 mm²/s (about 11%), 0.44 to 0.41 mm²/s (about 7%), and 0.43 to 0.38 mm²/s (about 12%), respectively. The thermal diffusion coefficient increases slightly above 750 °C, which may be due to the filling of structural pores and microcracks leading to an increase in heat transfer of basalt glasses. It is worth noting that the thermal diffusion coefficient of BG-1 is higher than those of BG-2 and BG-3, which is attributed to the high content of SiO₂ in BG-1, and quartz has the highest thermal diffusion coefficient among the major minerals (3.8 mm²/s).50 Hanley et al.20 demonstrated that rocks with a high content of silica (SiO₂), such as Berea sandstone or quartzite, tend to have high thermal diffusivity, while limestone and marble have low thermal diffusion coefficients because they do not contain quartz.

As shown in Figure 8b, the thermal conductivity of the studied glasses was calculated from eq 3 increases as a function of temperature, which is consistent with the change in the thermal conductivity of most glasses. The thermal conductivities of basalt glasses at 200 °C are 1.19, 1.07, and 1.02 W/(m·K), respectively. BG-1 has the highest thermal conductivity,
and BG-3 has the lowest one because SiO$_2$ with high thermal conductivity can significantly improve the thermal conductivity of glass. In addition, most of [SiO$_4$] and [AlO$_4$] in BG-1 are connected by a framework structure, and the structure has a high degree of polymerization and order, which is conducive to phonon transmission. Before 700 °C, the change in thermal conductivity of the three samples is relatively gentle. The thermal conductivity increases rapidly after the softening point temperature, and BG-2 has the fastest growth and even reaching the level of BG-1. It is worth mentioning that the studied basalt glasses have very low thermal expansion. In addition, the obtained results showed that BG-1 also has higher specific heat capacity, heat capacity, and thermal conductivity. The mean value of heat capacity between 100 and 1000 °C is 3.164 MJ/(k-m$^3$), and each cubic meter of BG-1 can store 2847.6 MJ of heat in this temperature range. The thermal conductivity during thermal cycling from 200 to 1000 °C is 1.19–1.60 W/(m-K). In summary, compared with other sensible heat storage materials, basalt glasses studied in this work not only have the characteristics of low cost and being environmentally friendly but also have higher heat capacity, thermal conductivity, and excellent thermal stability between 100 and 1000 °C. Finally, the research content included in this work has a reference value for the effective use of other natural ores, and the effect of the composition on the thermophysical properties of ores and glasses has been analyzed in detail, so as to better predict and optimize the thermal storage performance of such materials.

3. CONCLUSIONS

In this work, the thermophysical properties of different types of basalt glasses have been successfully measured and compared with basalt ores in terms of structure and thermal stability. The obtained results demonstrate that basalt glasses have better heat storage performance than ores. After the high-temperature melting process, the volatile and decomposable impurities such as water and silanol are removed and the thermal stability is improved. Furthermore, the working temperature range is greatly improved up to 1000 °C, while the maximum working temperature of these basalts is only 500 °C. It is worth mentioning that the studied basalt glasses have very low coefficients of thermal expansion. They will self-heal pores and microcracks at high temperatures, resulting in negative thermal expansion and a rapid increase in thermal conductivity. Remarkably, there is almost no variation in volume when heated to 1000 °C. Moreover, it has been concluded that these basalt glasses are suitable candidates for concentrated solar power plants and home heating systems.

In detail, among the three basalt glass studied in this work, BG-1 prepared from intermediate basalt has better comprehensive thermophysical properties. In fact, larger amounts of SiO$_2$ promotes the formation of a [SiO$_4$] polymerized network, and the lower O/(Si + Al) molar ratio also improves the structural stability, thereby reducing the coefficient of thermal expansion. In addition, the obtained results showed that BG-1 also has higher specific heat capacity, heat capacity, and thermal conductivity. The mean value of heat capacity between 100 and 1000 °C is 3.164 MJ/(k-m$^3$), and each cubic meter of BG-1 can store 2847.6 MJ of heat in this temperature range. The thermal conductivity during thermal cycling from 200 to 1000 °C is 1.19–1.60 W/(m-K). In summary, compared with other sensible heat storage materials, basalt glasses studied in this work not only have the characteristics of low cost and being environmentally friendly but also have higher heat capacity, thermal conductivity, and excellent thermal stability between 100 and 1000 °C. Finally, the research content included in this work has a reference value for the effective use of other natural ores, and the effect of the composition on the thermophysical properties of ores and glasses has been analyzed in detail, so as to better predict and optimize the thermal storage performance of such materials.

4. MATERIALS AND METHODS

4.1. Sample Selection and Preparation. In mineralogy, natural basalts can be divided into intermediate basalt (SiO$_2$ content is between 53 and 66 wt %), basic basalt (SiO$_2$ content is between 45 and 53 wt %), and ultrabasic basalt (SiO$_2$ content is less than 45 wt %). There are large differences in the structure and properties of different types of basalt. Three typical samples from these three kinds of basalts were picked and recorded as B-1, B-2, and B-3, respectively. The composition of the basalts is shown in Table 5. A total of 1000g of each basalt was weighed and was crushed; the powder was transferred to a platinum crucible and dried at 200 °C for 1 h, subsequently kept at 1500 °C to enable it to clarify and homogenize. After 3 h, part of the melt was quenched in water and then milled into 200-mesh powder for DSC testing and component analysis. The rest was transferred to a preheated
550 °C steel plate. After annealing at 500 °C for 2 h in a muffle furnace and cooling with the furnace, basalt glasses can be obtained, which were respectively recorded as BG-1, BG-2, and BG-3.

4.2. X-ray Fluorescence (XRF). The composition of basalt glasses was analyzed using an X-ray fluorescence spectrometer 9900 X-ray workstation produced by the American Thermo Fisher. A total of 1 g of basalt glass powder for analysis was placed in a crucible containing 5 g of 100% pure Li2B4O7, then 3 drops of LiBr saturated solution was added to it. It was then transferred to a fully automatic multi-head melting machine, and its chemical composition was determined after the glass frit was cooled.

4.3. Fourier Transform Infrared (FTIR) Spectra. To determine the structural and chemical stability of the studied rocks and glass, Fourier transform infrared analysis was carried out using a Thermo Fisher Nicolet iS10 spectrometer. Pellets of powdered glass and KBr were pressed into sheets for measurement. The absorption spectra were recorded in the range 400–4000 cm⁻¹ and obtained with an accumulation of 16 scans.

4.4. Differential Scanning Calorimetry (DSC). The specific heat capacity \( C_p \) is an important index of the sensible heat storage material. The heat capacity is the product of density (\( \rho \)) and \( C_p \). The heat storage density is calculated by multiplying the mean values of heat capacity and the applicable temperature interval, which can be expressed by eq 2

\[
M = \rho \times C_p \times \Delta T
\]

where \( M \) represents the volumetric heat storage density (J/m³) and \( \Delta T \) is the applicable temperature range of the material. It can be seen that the larger the \( C_p \) value is, the more heat energy is stored per unit volume of material. The glass transition temperature \( T_g \), crystallization temperature \( T_m \), and specific heat capacity \( C_p \) of the samples were measured by DSC using a Netzsch STA 449 F3 differential scanning calorimeter. The instrument can simultaneously measure the TG–DSC curve, the purge gas and protective gas are in an argon atmosphere, the gas flow rates are 60 and 20 mL/min, respectively, and the sample to be tested is in the platinum crucible. To improve the detection sensitivity of the weak thermal effect, the baseline test is performed on the empty crucible within the temperature range, then the sapphire standard sample is tested, and finally the sample is run and the specific heat value is determined by the ASTME 1269 standard thermal analysis method.

4.5. Thermal Expansion. The thermal expansion coefficient was measured using the German Netzsch TMA 402F1. Cuboid samples (\( 4 \times 5 \times 25 \) mm) were prepared and polished to ensure parallel ends. The standard alumina sample was heated at 5 °C/min to 750 °C to make a thermal expansion baseline, and then the tested sample was measured according to the same temperature procedure.

4.6. Density. The density of the sample was determined by the Archimedes method at room temperature, each sample was measured five times, and then the average value of the measured values was taken as the actual density.

4.7. High-Temperature Contour. The prepared basalt glasses were processed into a \( 4 \times 5 \times 5 \) mm square block, and a high-resolution camera equipped with the Dataphysics OCA 20.LHT high-temperature contact angle measuring instrument was used to record the contour change of the glass block at different temperatures.

4.8. Laser Flash. In this work, the thermal diffusivity of basalt glasses was measured by the laser flashing method using a Netzsch LFA 427 instrument. The basalt glasses were made into a square sample (10 × 10 × 1.5 mm), and the measurement was carried out under an argon atmosphere at a heating rate of 2.5 °C/min. Three valid data were collected at each temperature point between 200 and 1000 °C, and each presented experimental result represents the average of three measured values at the same temperature. The thermal conductivity (\( \lambda \)) of the prepared glasses was calculated by multiplying thermal capacity (\( \rho \times C_p \)) and thermal diffusivity (\( \alpha \)), which can be expressed by eq 3

\[
\lambda(T) = \rho \times C_p(T) \times \alpha(T)
\]
ABBREVIATIONS

XRF  X-ray fluorescence
FTIR  Fourier transform infrared
DSC  differential scanning calorimeter
TMA  thermomechanical analyzer
LFA  laser flash analyzer
TES  thermal energy storage
PCMs  phase change materials

NOMENCLATURE

ρ  density (g/cm³)
Cp  specific heat capacity (J/(g-K))
α  thermal diffusivity (mm²/s)
λ  thermal conductivity (W/(m-K))
T  temperature (°C)
M  volumetric heat storage density (J/m³)
Nfree oxygen  the amount of free oxygen
Koxygen supply coefficient
Mox  mole fraction of the oxide

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