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1 **Critical parameters governing elastocaloric effect in polyisoprene rubbers**
2 **for solid-state cooling**

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11 **Abstract**

12
13 The aim of this work is to study the critical parameters governing the eCe (elastocaloric effect) of poly-
14 isoprene rubber (NR and IR) in use conditions of a cooling device, i.e. under partial cyclic loading. The
15 effect of mechanical cyclic loading parameters (pre-extension ratio, waveform and frequency) on eCe
16 was first studied. It shows that the eCe increases when the minimum pre-extension ratio is increased
17 and frequency is lowered from 1Hz to 0.001Hz, as it promotes strain-induced crystallization. However,
18 it also leads to a decrease in potential cooling power, from 7 to 0.01 MW/m³ (i.e. 8 kW/kg to 0.01
19 kW/kg). At intermediate frequency ($f \approx 0.1$ Hz), the comparison of square and triangular waveforms
20 demonstrated that the former enables greater temperature variation. This is due to its holding step (at
21 maximum extension ratio), which maximizes crystallization but also promotes stress relaxation,
22 resulting in increased mechanical losses. Consequently, the square and triangular loadings have a COP_{mat}
23 of 12 and 25, with a temperature variation of 4.2K and 3.6K, respectively. Regarding the formulation,
24 rubbers that do not have a great tendency to crystallise such as synthetic polyisoprene rubber seem to
25 have the best COP_{mat}, while to maximise ΔT , the best of our formulations are NR crosslinked with
26 sulphur and having a crosslink density close to 1.5×10^{-4} mol/cm³, which combine large strain induced
27 crystallisation and entropic elasticity. This material has a COP_{mat} of about 27 and allows a $\Delta T \approx 4$ K,
28 i.e. performance comparable to that of the best Shape Memory Alloys (at equivalent COP_{mat}).

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1. Introduction

Solid refrigeration is an alternative technology to refrigeration systems using gases responsible for environmental issues. It involves caloric materials that can display a temperature variation induced by phase transformation due to the application of an electric field, a magnetic field or mechanical stress [1,2]. Among them, elastocaloric materials present a mechanical stress dependent phase transformation. Natural (NR) and synthetic (SR) polyisoprene rubber belong to this class of materials, their elastocaloric behavior is linked to entropic elasticity and reinforced by the strain induced crystallization phenomenon (SIC) [3–5]. They have a significant elastocaloric effect (eCe) with a temperature variation up to 14°C [6–11] and the advantages of being non-toxic, inexpensive, relatively abundant, and bio-sourced in the case of NR. Besides, in comparison with shape memory alloys (SMA), polyisoprene rubbers require low stresses (10-20 MPa for true stress) and high extension ratios (λ) (around 6), to reach a significant eCe [12] as other elastomers [13–16]. This hinders the development of solid regenerative refrigeration systems involving cyclic circulation of a fluid, in particular because such extension ratio makes difficult to ensure the device sealing and proper heat exchanges due to the large variations of heat transfer contact areas [17,18]. One way to overcome this problem is to stretch the material over a restraint and wisely chosen extensions domain range (i.e. $\lambda_{\min}=4$ to $\lambda_{\max}=6$) since it minimizes the material surface ($S \sim S_0 * \sqrt{\lambda}$) and thickness ($t \sim \frac{t_0}{\sqrt{\lambda}}$) variations. Moreover to maximize the eCe and improve their fatigue strength, it is necessary that the in use extension ratio domain remains in the SIC domain, i.e. with extension ratios typically greater than $\lambda=3$ for materials used near room temperature [19,20]. Nevertheless crystallization and melting of polyisoprene rubber depend on the applied thermo-mechanical loading [21,22]. Thus, it is difficult on the basis of usual tensile tests (uniaxial testing from $\lambda=1$ to $\lambda=6$ under quasi-static conditions) [22–24] to predict what will be their ability to crystallize, their mechanical properties and thus their elastocaloric power during cyclic loading without full unloading (i.e. for λ remaining above 3) [21,25]. To our knowledge, no study in the literature focused on the optimization of mechanical cycling to maximize eCe in use conditions suitable for solid-state cooling device. This paper is the first devoted to the study of the influence on eCe of different characteristic parameters of cyclic non-sinusoidal loadings (pre-extension ratio, square or triangular shape, amplitude and frequency). Indeed, although the influence of frequency on the mechanical response of the sinusoidal waveform has been extensively studied, the square and triangular waveforms have not and may be potentially different due to strain-

66 induced crystallization phenomenon which has a nucleation time (of around 100ms)
67 neighboring the strain time involved in use conditions of cooling device. This will be performed
68 with a specific NR sample already studied in a previous study [10]. Besides, the ability to
69 crystallize of polyisoprene rubber materials depends on their natural or synthetic origin [26,27],
70 and their cross-linking density [3,28–31]. Hence we will study the impact of these different
71 parameters in conditions close to those used in the first regenerative solid state refrigeration
72 systems involving NR [17,18].

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74 2. Materials and methods

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76 The rubbers chosen for this study are Natural Rubber (NR: RSS1 purchased from Resinex) and
77 Synthetic polyisoprene Rubber (SR : Nipol® IR2200 kindly provided by Zeon Chemical).
78 Their formulations, processing temperatures and curing times are summarized in Table 1. The
79 subscripts S and P refer to the crosslinking with sulfur and peroxide respectively. Samples
80 crosslinking with sulfur samples were cured at 160°C for 14 minutes. The numbers 1.46 and
81 1.1 refer to their elastically active chain density obtained by swelling in toluene, which are
82 $1.46 \cdot 10^{-4} \text{ mol.cm}^{-3}$ and $1.1 \cdot 10^{-4} \text{ mol.cm}^{-3}$ respectively (table.1). NR_{S_1.53} is also a sulfur cured
83 natural rubber, it is a commercial grade purchased to Xinyinte Rubber Products Co., Ltd.,
84 China. The samples (NR and SR) crosslinked with peroxide were cured at 160°C for 30
85 minutes. SRP_{1.55} and NRP_{1.50} were eliminated from the study because they had a too low
86 extension ratio at break (i.e. lower than $\lambda < 4$) to be relevant.

87

88 The homemade tensile test bench used for this study allows to achieve a strain rate of 13 s^{-1} . It
89 is equipped with a force sensor XFTC300-200N (Measurement Specialties, France) and a laser
90 optical displacement sensor ILD1420-200 (micro-epsilon, France). In this study, the
91 mechanical results are presented using engineering stress and extension ratio. Extension ratio,
92 λ , is defined as $\frac{l(t)}{l_0}$ with $l(t)$ the length at time t and l_0 the initial length. The sample tested is a
93 parallelepiped with $1 \times 20 \times 20 \text{ mm}^3$ dimensions. The material's surface temperature is measured
94 using a thermal camera Optris PI450 (Optris, Germany).

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97

98 Table.1 Samples recipes and network chain density estimated from swelling measurements
 99 via Flory-Rhener equation [32] and Mooney Rivlin measurements [33] (*Anti-oxydant,
 100 **Stearic acid,***N-Cyclohexyl-2-benzothiazole sulfonamide,****Arcos Organics Dicumyl
 101 peroxide 99%)

102

Materials	NR _{S_1.53}	NR _{S_1.46}	NR _{S_1.1}	NR _{P_0.84}	NR _{P_1.50}	SR _{P_0.92}	SR _{P_1.55}
NR (phr)	N/A	100	100	100	100		
SR (phr)						100	100
6PPD* (phr)	N/A	3	3	3	3	3	3
SA** (phr)	N/A	2	2				
ZnO (phr)	N/A	1.5	1.5				
CBS*** (phr)	N/A	1.9	1.27				
Sulfur (phr)	N/A	1.2	0.8				
DCP**** (phr)				1	2	1	2
$v_{\text{Mooney-Rivlin}} (*10^{-4} \text{ mol.cm}^{-3})$	2.2	1.9	1.6	1.1	1.7	1.3	2
$v_{\text{swelling}} (*10^{-4} \text{ mol.cm}^{-3})$	1.53	1.46	1.1	0.84	1.5	0.92	1.55
Curing time (min)	N/A	14	14	30	30	30	30
Temperature (°C)	N/A	160	160	160	160	160	160

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105 3. Results and discussion

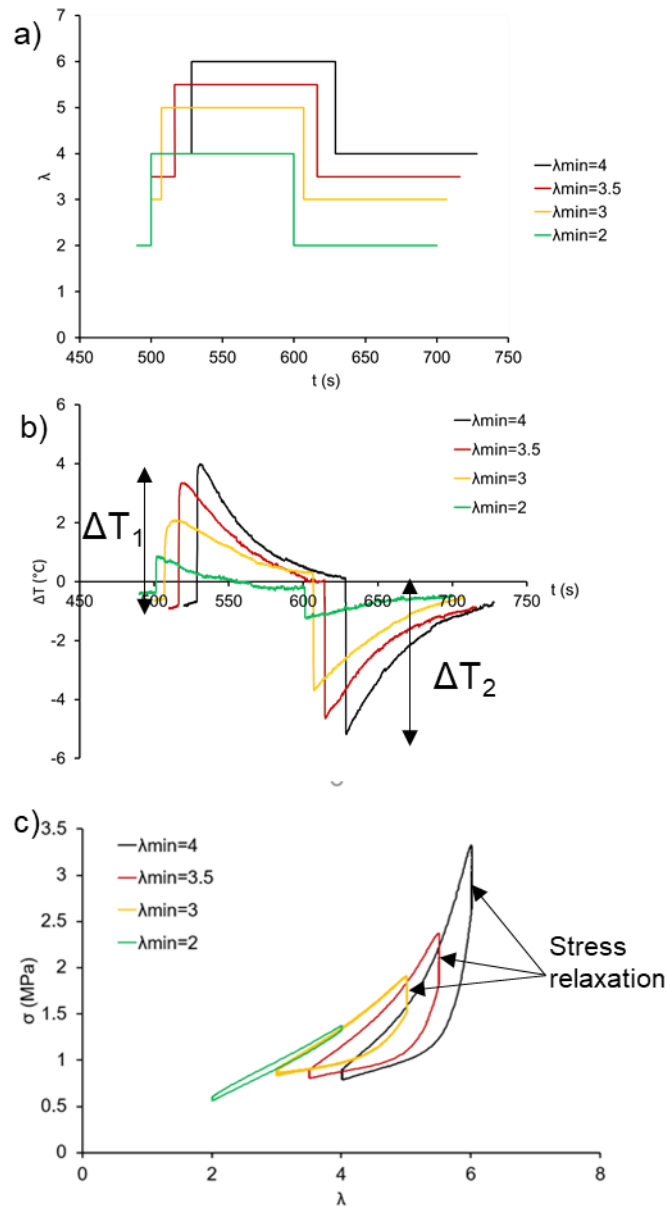
106

107 NRS_{1.46} was first studied under square cyclic loading with an extension ratio amplitude
 108 $\Delta\lambda=2$ and different minimum extension ratio $\lambda_{\text{min}} \in [2,3,3.5,4]$ at $f=0.005$ Hz. As shown in
 109 Figure 1a, the test protocol for square cyclic loading is made of 4 steps: stretching at 13 s^{-1} from
 110 λ_{min} to $\lambda_{\text{max}} = \lambda_{\text{min}} + \Delta\lambda$ in 150 ms, which is in the same range than the characteristic time of
 111 crystallization [34–36], a holding step during which the sample is maintained at λ_{max} for a
 112 duration of $1/(2f)$ which allows the material to crystallize, a fast unloading to λ_{min} and finally a
 113 holding step at constant λ_{min} for the same duration $1/(2f)$. As shown in figure 1b, this is reflected
 114 in the rise of the material temperature by ΔT_1 during the loading phase. During the holding step,
 115 the temperature drops as heat is transferred from the material to its surrounding. A negative
 116 temperature variation ΔT_2 is measured during the fast unloading phase, followed by a return to
 117 the initial temperature. ΔT_2 is only -1.1°C for $\lambda_{\text{min}} = 2$ (and therefore $\lambda_{\text{max}}=4$) and its origin is
 118 ascribed to entropic elasticity (stretching/unstretching of polymer chains) since during the
 119 cycle, λ_{max} is below the onset of strain induced crystallization (known to be above 4) [10,22,36].
 120 $|\Delta T_2|$ increases strongly with the increase of λ_{min} . It is worth noting that the plotted values are
 121 the stabilized ones (i.e. obtained for the third or following cycles). Indeed, as discussed in the

122 supplementary section S.1 and S.2, the first cycle leads to quite different behavior due to the
123 fact that the first loading step is performed on an amorphous sample. The much larger value of
124 ΔT_2 for cycles with λ_{\max} above 4 is explained by the melting of crystallites formed during the
125 stretching step, which is in addition to the entropic elasticity contribution. For cycles with
126 $\lambda_{\min}=4$, ΔT_2 reaches -5.2°C . The associated crystallinity variation $\Delta\chi$ is estimated to be -10%
127 (Supporting information S2 and S3), and explains a temperature variation of -3.4°C (calculated
128 as $\Delta\chi \cdot h_f / C_m$, taking a melting enthalpy $h_f = 64 \text{ kJ/kg}$ and a specific heat capacity of $C_m = 1,9$
129 kJ/kg/K). Thus, SIC enables to more than double the temperature variation. This also means
130 that the entropic elasticity contribution is not negligible. It is worth noting that, as expected,
131 ΔT_2 is significantly smaller (in absolute value) than in the case of a full cycle, i.e. for $1 < \lambda < 6$
132 (for which $\Delta T_2 \approx -10^\circ\text{C}$, see Supporting information Figure.S4)[10,22,37] since the melting of
133 the crystallites is only partial: λ staying above $\lambda_{\text{melt}}=3$, the unloading step does not enable
134 complete melting (Supporting S2).[21].

135 Figure 1c shows the corresponding stress-extension ratio curves. For $\lambda_{\min}=2$, a quasi-elastic
136 behavior is observed, the mechanical hysteresis, ascribed to a weak viscoelasticity, being very
137 small ($\Delta W = 0.14 \text{ MJ/m}^3$). There is no significant difference between the first and following
138 cycles. When λ_{\min} is higher than 3, the stress increases much more rapidly during stretching and
139 reaches up to 3.3 MPa for $\lambda_{\min}=4$ (λ_{\max} is then equal to 6). For these λ_{\min} , the presented cycle
140 corresponds to the third and following cycles, which show less mechanical hysteresis than the
141 first cycle, a lower stress level at λ_{\min} and more hardening at λ_{\max} , as discussed in supplementary
142 sections S1 and S.2. During the holding step, a stress relaxation is observed for λ_{\max} above 4 (it
143 is negligible for λ_{\max} below). This stress relaxation increases with the increase of λ_{\max} : indeed,
144 during this step, the crystallized chain portion oriented in the stretching direction gives free space
145 to the remaining amorphous chain portion, lowering the stress on the chain [10,38,39].
146 The result is an increase in mechanical hysteresis (up to 1.1 MJ/m^3). Different studies show
147 that the mechanical hysteresis in crosslinked natural rubber (with crosslinking densities such as
148 the ones we used) can be mainly attributed to structural change (i.e. crystallization/melting)
149 rather than heat dissipation from chains friction associated to viscoelasticity [40]. Regarding
150 the square loading in figure 1.c (for which the speed of loading is very high and should promote
151 viscoelasticity), a mechanical hysteresis is recorded only when SIC takes place (i.e. for $\lambda_{\max} > 4$).
152 With triangular loading, Figure 3b, the hysteresis (ΔW) is divided by 2 (between 0.001 and
153 1 Hz) while the frequency is multiplied by 1000 . This clearly demonstrates that the
154 viscoelasticity is negligible in our experiments. Besides, the COP_{mat} [2,41], i.e. the ratio of the

155 heat that can be absorbed Q (approximated as being $Q = \rho * C_m * |\Delta T_2|$) divided by the
 156 mechanical hysteresis ΔW ($COP_{mat} = \frac{Q}{\Delta W}$), increases from 8 to 13 as λ_{min} decreases from 4 to 2
 157 (Figure 4). But, as illustrated on Figure 4 where our results are compared to data obtained with
 158 Shape Memory Alloy [2], this increase is at the expense of the temperature variation (which
 159 strongly depends on the crystallinity variation).



160
 161 Figure 1. NR_{S1.46} under square wave solicitation at a frequency of $f=0.005$ Hz for different λ_{min}
 162 (3rd and following cycles): (a) Extension ratio as a function of time (b) Resulting temperature
 163 variation (c) Stress-extension ratio curves
 164

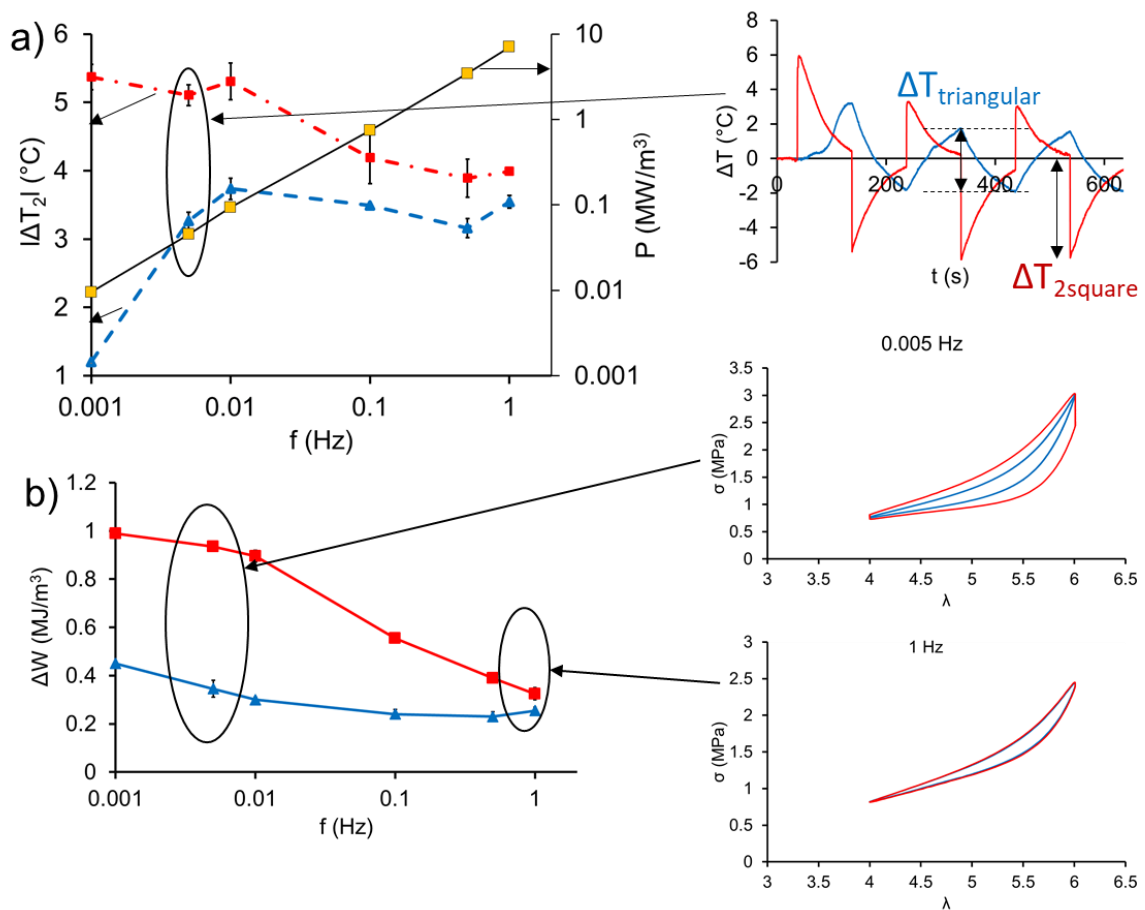
165 For mechanical cycles ($4 < \lambda < 6$), which previously leads to the largest $|\Delta T_2|$, we also studied the
 166 influence of the shape of loading (triangular and square) still with NR_{S1.46}, and at different

167 frequencies [0.001; 0.005; 0.01; 0.05; 0.1; 0.5; 1Hz]. The compared $|\Delta T|$ in both cycle types
168 (see supporting information S1) are the difference between the temperature measured at the
169 beginning of the unloading step (from λ_{\max}), and the one measured at the end of this same step,
170 i.e. when λ_{\min} is reached. As shown in Figure 2, for the square cycles, $|\Delta T|$ (equal to $|\Delta T_2|$)
171 decreases with the frequency increase. This is consistent with what we know from the
172 crystallization kinetics after a sudden strain (supporting information S3): the longer the holding
173 step, the larger the crystallinity which can then melt during the unloading step (see schemes in
174 supporting S5 which describe the change of crystallinity versus the loading shape). The holding
175 time $\frac{1}{2f}$, goes from 100s at 0.005 Hz to 500ms at 1Hz, this leads during the unloading step, to a
176 $\Delta\chi$ varying from -10% to -5%. Both $\Delta\chi$ induce a temperature decrease of ca. 3.4°C and ca.
177 1.7°C respectively. These two values are consistent with the evolution of $|\Delta T|$ (observed in
178 Figure 2: from 5.5°C at 0.005 Hz down to 4°C at 1Hz) by taking into account the effect of
179 entropic elasticity in addition to one of SIC. This means that the entropic elasticity contribution
180 becomes predominant for frequency above 0.1 Hz.

181 With triangular cycle, $|\Delta T|$ shows a maximum at 0.01 Hz. This can be explained by a
182 competition between the crystallization kinetics and the heat exchange of the material with its
183 environment [42]. Decreasing the frequency promotes heat transfer which lowers the
184 temperature variation (this one should tend towards 0 at very low frequency). At high
185 frequencies, in spite of a negligible heat transfer, the temperature variation should also decrease
186 because crystallization has less time to proceed [34] in the range of used frequencies. In
187 addition, there is the contribution of entropic elasticity, which depends only on the variation in
188 the extension ratio. This explains that the curve does not tend toward zero at high frequency.
189 Regardless of the frequency, $|\Delta T|$ is always greater for square signal; this is expected since the
190 time spent at maximum extension ratio λ_{\max} for which the SIC kinetics is faster [10,43,44], is
191 greater and the heat exchange during unloading is minimized. This difference between both
192 types of cycle logically diminishes at high frequencies as the duration of the plateau of the
193 square signal decreases to such an extent that both signals become almost similar.

194 Finally, the mechanical hysteresis (i.e. the work measured during one cycle), is reported for
195 both cycle types at different frequencies on Figure 2b. At $f=1$ Hz, the hysteresis areas are almost
196 equal. However, by decreasing the frequency to $f=0.005$ Hz, ΔW increases by around 40% in
197 triangular and 200% in square-wave. This difference is mainly related to the holding step in the
198 square signal, which leads to more stress relaxation, in relation, as previously said, with an
199 increase in the crystallinity.

200 In more practical view, for frequencies close to those used in refrigeration systems ($f=0.1\text{Hz}$),
 201 potential heat exchange Q , deduced from the ΔT variation, is ca. 6.2 MJ/m^3 for the triangular
 202 cycle and ca. 7.2 MJ/m^3 for the square one, and the mechanical work is 0.25 MJ/m^3 and 0.60
 203 MJ/m^3 respectively. These results lead to COP_{mat} of 25 and 12 respectively. The former value
 204 rivals the best ones found for SMAs, and is very close to the one found with natural rubber
 205 tubes at the same frequency under trapezoidal solicitation in conditions of real cooling system
 206 [17]. On the basis of all these results, it appears that square type cycles enable to maximize the
 207 exchangeable heat, whereas it seems more judicious to work with a triangular signal to increase
 208 the COP_{mat} .
 209
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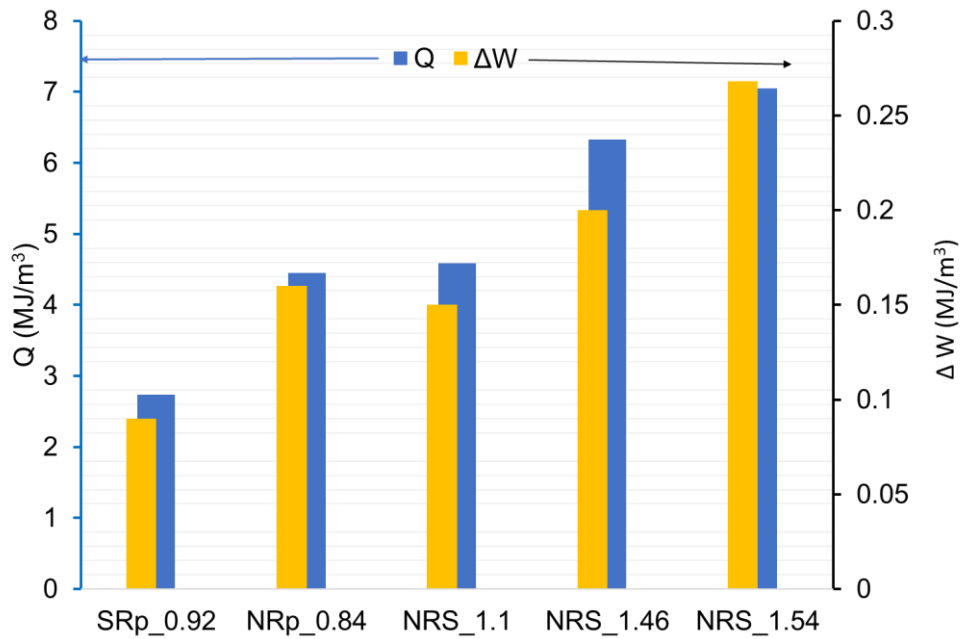
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 212 Figure.2 (a) Temperature variations during the unloading step measured for square (red) and
 213 triangular (blue) type solicitation, cooling power deduced from square signal measurement in
 214 yellow (b) Mechanical hysteresis deduced from the integration of the mechanical response over
 215 the whole cycle.
 216

217 From the data obtained with the square signal, for which ΔT is obtained in adiabatic conditions,
218 we may also calculate the maximum power P that can be used for solid refrigeration P . P can
219 be estimated as $\rho * C_m * |\Delta T| * f$. As shown in Figure 2a it significantly increases with the
220 frequency, despite the decrease of $|\Delta T_2|$. Thus, lowering the frequency of the cycle (in the range
221 accessible for this experiment), in the hope that it will maximize crystallization, is not enough
222 to compensate the reduce power. In this context, for a given material, optimization of the
223 device's cooling power should focus on both heat exchange within the device and on
224 crystallization kinetics. Thus, the frequency should not be increased above 10Hz because the
225 ability of the material to crystallize may be greatly reduced (SIC kinetics do not have time to
226 occur because the minimum time required to start crystallization is of the order of 100 ms) and
227 because viscoelastic self-heating is known to increase significantly at high frequency[34].

228

229 We may now consider the impact of the material properties on the elastocaloric effect. We
230 selected an extension ratio range of $\lambda_{\min}=3.5$ to $\lambda_{\max}=5.5$ due to the proximity of the extension
231 ratio at break, equal to 6 for some formulations tested [27]. We chose a frequency of $f=0.1$ Hz
232 as the temperature variation in the material can then be considered as adiabatic [17] and
233 homogeneous. A triangular waveform was selected because it has been previously seen to yield
234 the best COP_{mat} . Interestingly, as shown in Figure.3, among the NR samples studied, the more
235 cross-linked the material, the greater the exchangeable heat Q and the mechanical hysteresis (to
236 which it is strongly correlated). This results in a quasi-constant COP of the order of 25-30 while
237 Q increases from 5 to 7.0 MJ/m³. On the other hand, in the case of the peroxide-crosslinked SR,
238 the heat that can be exchanged is very low (2.7 MJ/m³) due to its lower ability to crystallize
239 with extension ratio, but the mechanical hysteresis being rather low, this results in the highest
240 COP (of the order of 30).

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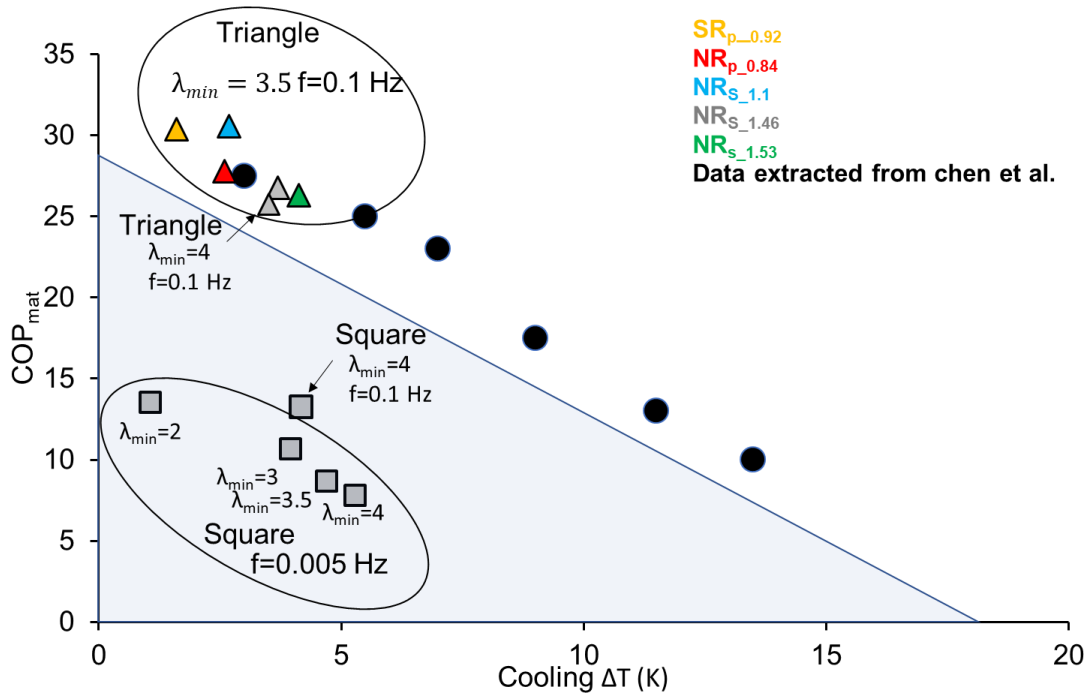
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243 Figure.3 exchangeable heat Q and ΔW for cycles performed between $\lambda=3.5$ and $\lambda=5.5$ at $f=0.1$
 244 Hz

245

246 All the COP_{mat} values deduced for the different studied materials have been reported on Figure
 247 4 for comparison as a function of the temperature variation $|\Delta T|$. We have also painted an area
 248 in light blue which represents the domain of all the data that Chen et al. collected from the
 249 literature and added the data that they obtained in their study (black disks) with Shape Memory
 250 Alloys NiTi gradient-structured materials [2,45].

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Figure. 4: COP_{mat} as a function of adiabatic cooling temperature for Shape Memory Alloys (SMA) and for our studied rubbers. Each color corresponds to a material formulation as specified in the figure legend. Square symbols are for square type cycles, triangle for triangular type cycles.

In terms of COP_{mat} , rubbers which do not have a great tendency to crystallize such as polyisoprene synthetic rubber [5] seem to be the best, while to maximize ΔT , the best of our formulations is NR crosslinked with sulfur and having a crosslink density close to $1.5 \times 10^{-4} \text{ mol/cm}^3$. This material has a COP_{mat} of about 27 and enables a $\Delta T \approx 4 \text{ K}$. Its performance are comparable with those of the best SMA with temperature variation below 5 K and high COP (>25). It actually corresponds to the formulation with the best crystallization ability [3] combined with a large entropic elasticity. A higher cross-link density (above $1.6 \times 10^{-4} \text{ mol/cm}^3$) could restrict strain at break and reduce crystallization and thus impede improved elastocaloric performance [27,46]. Conversely, a lower cross-linking density would diminish the elastocaloric effect by allowing stable crystals to persist at room temperature [31], as well as reducing the contribution of entropic elasticity [47].

269

4. Conclusions

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271 To summarize, we have studied different critical parameters governing the eCe (elastocaloric
272 effect) of poly-isoprene rubber (NR and SR) in use conditions of a cooling device, i.e. under
273 partial cyclic loading (the chosen amplitude of extension ratio was fixed to 2). As expected, we
274 showed that the eCe increases when the minimum pre-extension ratio is increased. Moreover,
275 cycles must not be performed at too high frequency (above 1Hz) since it reduces SIC
276 contribution to the exchangeable heat. It is not judicious either to cycle below 0.1Hz since it
277 reduces too much the power of the cooling system. At intermediate frequency ($0.1 \text{ Hz} < f <$
278 0.5 Hz), often used in elastocaloric systems, the best thermal response is obtained with square
279 type cycle since the holding step enables to maximize crystallization, whereas the rapid
280 adiabatic unloading enables to maximize the temperature variation and therefore the
281 exchangeable heat. Nevertheless, the stress relaxation obtained during the holding step also
282 strongly increases the mechanical hysteresis, and therefore promotes energy waste. From this
283 point of view, and without considering the way heat could be exchanged in the device (which
284 may need a holding step), the triangular type signal seems finally the best option. Regarding the
285 formulation, rubbers that do not have a great tendency to crystallise such as polyisoprene synthetic
286 rubber seem to have the best COP_{mat} , while to maximise ΔT , the best of our formulations are NR
287 crosslinked with sulphur and having a crosslink density close to $1.5 \times 10^{-4} \text{ mol/cm}^3$, which combine large
288 strain induced crystallisation and entropic elasticity. This material has a COP_{mat} of about 27 and allows
289 a $\Delta T \approx 4 \text{ K}$, i.e. performance comparable to that of the best Shape Memory Alloys (at equivalent COP_{mat}).

290

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293 through the Project No. ECPOR (No. ANR-17-CE05-0016).

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298 Data Availability

299 The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding authors
300 upon reasonable request.

301

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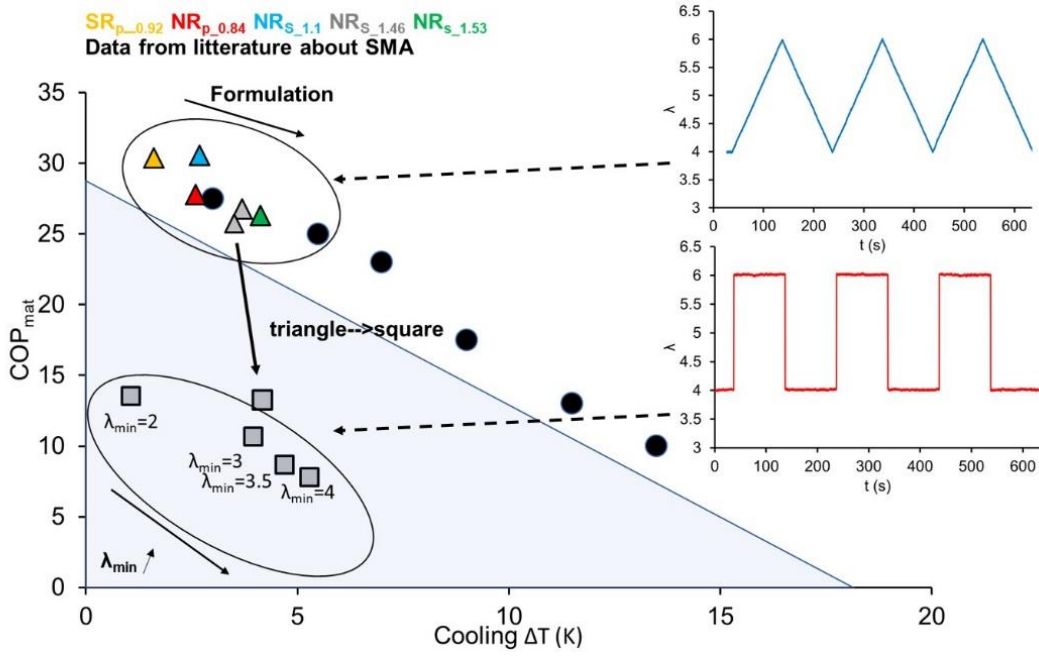
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453 Graphical abstract

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