

ELECTROCHEMICAL MEASUREMENTS (FOR FUEL CELLS AND BATTERIES)

Prof. Marco Bogar



INTRODUCTION

Electrochemical Characterization Techniques (In Situ)

These techniques use the electrochemical variables of voltage, current, and time to characterize the performance under operating conditions of either a single component or the full assembly of an electrochemical device.

Ex Situ / In Situ Complementary Characterization Techniques

These techniques characterize the detailed structure or properties of the individual components composing the fuel cell, but generally only components removed from the device an unassembled, non-functional form.

Advanced Characterization Techniques (Ex Situ / In Situ)

These techniques characterize the detailed structure or properties of the individual components inside the device.



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IN SITU ELECTROCHEMICAL CHARACTERIZATION

In any electrochemical experiment, the three fundamental variables to be monitored are voltage, current, and time. Moreover, the following distinction can be highlighted:

- Voltage-controlled. The voltage of a system is controlled by the user and the resulting current response is measured.
 Voltage can be either kept in steady state (*potentiostatic*, where the control voltage is constant in time) or dynamic (where the control voltage varies with time).
- **Current-controlled.** The current of a system is controlled by the user and the resulting voltage response is measured. Current can be either kept in steady state (*galvanostatic*, where the control current is constant in time) or dynamic (where the control current varies with time).

Measurements carried out in different dynamical ranges may lead to different outputs due to the fact that electrochemical kinetics could evolve differently depending on the frequency of the probe used.



OUTLOOK / IN SITU ELECTROCHEMICAL CHARACTERIZATION





OUTLOOK / IN SITU ELECTROCHEMICAL CHARACTERIZATION





CURRENT - VOLTAGE MEASUEREMENTS / FUEL CELLS

1. Quantification of device losses

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I. Activation (kinetic) overpotential at the electrodes.

II. Ohmic polarization of the fuel cell. This includes all electrical and ionic conduction losses through the electrolyte, catalyst layers, cell interconnects, and contacts.

III. Concentration polarization of the fuel cell, caused by mass transport limitations of the reactants to the electrodes.

IV. Departure from the Nernst thermodynamic equilibrium potential. This loss can be very significant and can be due to undesired species crossover through the electrolyte, internal currents from electron leakage through the electrolyte, or other contamination or impurity.

V. Departure from the maximum thermal voltage, a result of entropy change which cannot be engineered.

2. Comparison of fuel cell performances by means of polarization curve, waste heat generation and useful electrical power generation rate density.





2002, Proc. ASME 2002 Int. Mech. Eng. Congress, Pukrushpan https://doi.org/10.1115/IMECE2002-32051



1. Comparison of batteries performances: direct calculation of coulombic efficiency





 $\eta = \frac{C_d \text{ at the end of the discharging time}}{C_c \text{ at the end of the charging time}}$

In the example:

$$\eta_{2^{nd}cycle} = 94.4\%$$

 $\eta_{3^{rd}cycle} = 95.6\%$

This is a very typical example, where some energy is required in the first cycle to equilibrate the battery chemistry. Then, η approaches 100% in the following cycles.

Capacity measurements are used to define battery lifetime (end: when charged charge is below the 80% of initial value, recorded after the first 5 cycles for equilibration requirements)



2. Discharge curves as a tool for battery characterization



Quim. Nova, Vol. 39, No. 8, 901-905, 2016



3. Charge/Discharge cycling curves as a comparative tool and a guideline for system design



Higher Reliability, Safety, and 30% Longer Lifetime with Advanced Battery Management in Healthcare Energy Storage Systems, Stefano Gallinaro, Analog Devices Battery performances vary according to the application (in example electric vehicle is different that stationary power supply). In any case, a very flat discharge curve at a nominal voltage range is always desired.

In example, the flatter the curve, the higher the efficiency of the system in which batteries are installed.

As a drawback, SOC and SOH are harder to be identified and a more sophisticated protocol for avoiding overcharge has to be taken into account



4. Chronopotentiometry (galvanostatic voltammetry) involves the study of voltage transients at an electrode upon which is imposed a constant current. Used for investigating process kinetics at the electrodes



FIGURE 2.28 Chronopotentiogram of a system with significant resistance.





OUTLOOK / IN SITU ELECTROCHEMICAL CHARACTERIZATION





Cyclic voltammetry (CV) is one of the most widely used electrochemical techniques and it is frequently applied for the initial characterization of a redox system. It allows to:

- Define the number of oxidation state of the specimen under investigation.
- Retrieve qualitative information about the oxidation state stability and the electron transfer kinetics.
- Retrieve quantitative information of redox potentials of the electroactive species
- Evaluate of the effect of different materials, morphology, or operating environments upon the redox process.

Moreover:

- It is non-destructive and does not require the device to be disassembled during operation
- It can be used on single electrodes (half-cell) or on the entire device.



THE POTENTIOSTAT



https://www.metrohm.com/it_it/prodotti/elettrochimica/modular-line.html



https://www.biologic.net/topics/what-is-a-potentiostat-how-potentiostats-work-and-their-use-in-science-and-industry/



Basic overview of the working principle of a potentiostat/galvanostat (PGSTAT) – Electrochemical cell setup www.metrohm.com/en/products/electrochemistry



THE POTENTIOSTAT





Basic overview of the working principle of a potentiostat/galvanostat (PGSTAT) – Electrochemical cell setup www.metrohm.com/en/products/electrochemistry



CYCLIC VOLTAMMETRY



Elgrishi N., J. Chem. Educ. 2018, 95, 2, 197-206

UNIVERSITÀ DEGLI STUDI Ingegneria DITRIESTE Architettura

CYCLIC VOLTAMMETRY

In alkaline media



D+

 $U + O U^{-} \rightarrow D + + U O + a^{-}$

Figure 9.8 Cyclic voltammogram of polycrystalline platinum in 1 M KOH alkaline electrolyte solution at 20°C with voltage sweep rate of 100 mV/s. (Reproduced with permission from Ref. [12].)



CYCLIC VOLTAMMETRY

In acidic media



Figure 9.9 CV of polycrystalline platinum in acid $0.5 \text{ M} \text{ H}_2\text{SO}_4$ electrolyte solution with voltage sweep rate of 50 mV/s. (Reproduced with permission from Ref. [12].)

HOR	$Pt - H + H_2O \rightarrow Pt + H_3O^+ + e^-$
Pt oxidation	$Pt + H_2 O \rightarrow Pt - OH + e^- + H^+$ $Pt - OH + H_2 O \rightarrow Pt - O + H_3 O^+ + e^-$
OER	$2H_2O \to O_2 + 4H^+ + 4e^-$
ORR	$Pt + H_3O^+ + e^- \rightarrow Pt - H + H_2O$
HER	$2H_3O^+ + e^- \rightarrow 2H_2O + H_2$



By means of CV it is possible to quantify the electrochemically active surface area (ECSA), which is one of the most important parameters used to quantify the catalyst active surface, to compare different electrode formulations and/or compositions, and it can be used for describing the degradation of the electrode over time. It is calculated basing on two assumptions:

- 1. Each platinum site can adsorb only one hydrogen proton.
- 2. Every available platinum site will be occupied with hydrogen during the transition from hydrogen adsorption to hydrogen evolution.



CYCLIC VOLTAMMETRY / ECSA

It is calculated as:

 $ECSA(cm^2/g) = \frac{Q_{H,ad}(C/cm^2)}{m(g/cm^2)*C(C/cm^2)}$

 $Q_{H,ad}$ - hydrogen adsorption charge (C/cm²) m – Pt mass loading (g/cm²) C – is a proportionality constant relating charge and catalyst area; for polycrystalline Pt: C = 210 µC/cm²



For calculating the hydrogen adsorption charge the area underneath the hydrogen adsorption peaks is integrated:

$$Q_{H,ad} = \int I(t)dt$$

And the baseline for integration is set from the low-potential-end-side of the formation of the double layer



ECSA REDUCTION



Theo, Adv. Energy Mater. 2021, 11, 2101025, DOI: 10.1002/aenm. 202101025



ECSA REDUCTION



Meier, Nanotechnol. 2014, 5, 44–67. doi:10.3762/bjnano.5.5





CYCLIC VOLTAMMETRY / DOUBLE LAYER CAPACITANCE

When an electrode surface is subjected to a voltage ramp, a steady-state capacitive current is observed in a short time (i_c) if the only process taking place within the voltage range is the charging of the double layer, that is, movement of ions on either side of an electrode/electrolyte interface. For ideal capacitors, i_c is related to the capacitance (C_{DI}) and to the scan rate (v):

$$i_C = vC_{DL}$$

A possible approach for determining the double layer capacitance consist in recording CVs at various scan rates within a potential region where no redox processes take place, extracting i_c from the anodic and cathodic scans of the recorded voltammograms, and subsequently extracting C_{DL} from the slope of the resulting i_c vs v plot





CYCLIC VOLTAMMETRY / ON FUEL CELLS

- N₂ is used instead of O₂ for delating the background noise due to spurious hydrogen adsorption in addition to the hydrogen evolution/oxidation reaction.
- The potential reference is set at the hydrogen oxidation potential by connecting both RE and CE to the anode





Figure 9.10 The area shown under the dashed line represents hydrogen adsorption and can be used to determine electrochemically active catalyst area. CV done on a 5 cm² active area fuel cell, in-situ. 50 sccm hydrogen on anode, 200 sccm nitrogen on cathode. RH anode/cathode = 100/100%, scan rate 20 mV/sec.



CYCLIC VOLTAMMETRY / ON FUEL CELLS



Fig. 9 Cyclic voltammograms of fuel cells and characteristic desorption peaks assigned to the Pt(110) and Pt(100) crystal surface of the catalyst (inset); potential applied *versus* fuel cell anode.

Malinowski, RSC Adv., 2019,9, 24428-24439



Figure 4. a) CVs of the cathode after different aging stages during a SW-based AST between 0.6 and 1.0 V_{RHE} (see Figure 2b). CVs were conducted at a scan rate of 150 mVS from 0.07 to 1.00 V_{RHE} at ambient pressure and 40°C (the anode was supplied with 200 nccm of 5% H₂ (in N₂) and the cathode N₂ flow was 50 nccm (set to zero flow when recording the CVs)). b) CO stripping voltammograms after subtraction of the subsequent anodic sweep, recorded at a scan rate of 100 mV/s to 1.1 V_{RHE} at 150 kPa_{abs} and 40°C (constant flows of 200 nccm 5% H₂ on the anode and 5 nccm N₂ on the cathode). CO was dsorbed for 10 min at a flow rate of 100 nccm prior to the CV, maintaining the potential at 0.1 V_{RHE}. To remove residual CO gas from the cell and the test station, a purging procedure with N₂, lasting approximately 1.5 h was executed.

Harzer, 2018 J. Electrochem. Soc. 165 F3118



CYCLIC VOLTAMMETRY / ON BATTERIES





Diffusion coefficient can be estimated by comparing results obtained at different scan rates from the Randles–Ševčík equation:

$$i_P = 0.4463 nFAC \sqrt{\frac{nFvD}{RT}}$$

The comparison of CV allows thus also to perform size-dependant analysis. The effects on size change are observable as a shift in redox peaks.



CYCLIC VOLTAMMETRY / ON BATTERIES

CV analysis on two TiO_2 electrodes having different sizes: 0.11 and 4.20 μm





OUTLOOK / IN SITU ELECTROCHEMICAL CHARACTERIZATION





LINEAR SWEEP VOLTAMMETRY/ BATTERIES

LSV was here used for determining the electrochemical stability of an electrolyte with or without stabilizers for a graphite ||LiFePO₄ battery.

- shift of the reduction peak





OUTLOOK / IN SITU ELECTROCHEMICAL CHARACTERIZATION





TAFEL PLOTS

Let's consider an individual electrode, initially at equilibrium. For example, the global HOR:

 $H_2 \leftrightarrow 2H^+ + 2e^-$

At equilibrium (open circuit), this reaction actually proceeds in both directions across the anode double layer, with no *net* reaction in either direction. Some hydrogen is being oxidized, and an equivalent amount is being reduced (electrons involved in these redox processes constitute the exchange current density j_0)

To maintain a net reaction rate in a given direction, a small activation overpotential η is required to be set.





TAFEL PLOTS / THE BUTLER-VOLMER EQUATION

The balance among the overpotentials and the net current density at the electrode is defined by the BV equation:

$$j_{cell} = j_0 \left(e^{\eta \alpha_a F/RT} - e^{-\eta \alpha_c F/RT} \right)$$

Ι

Π

I and *II* represent, respectively, the oxidation and the reduction reaction at the particular electrode, j_{cell} is the cell total current density, j_0 is the exchange current density of the electrode of interest, η is the activation overpotential at the given electrode, α_a is the anodic charge transfer coefficient, the fraction of the activation polarization energy of reaction that goes toward enhancing the oxidation branch of the reaction at a given electrode, α_c is the fraction of the additional activation polarization energy of the reaction that goes into enhancing the reduction branch of the reduction branch of the equilibrium; $\alpha_a + \alpha_c = n$, where n is the number of electrons transferred in the *elementary* reaction step for the electron transfer. Experimentally, this value is often found to be a non integer between 1 and 2 due to multiple charge transfer reactions. The fundamental assumption of the BV kinetic model is that the reaction is rate limited by a single electron transfer step, which may not actually be true.



TAFEL PLOTS

Additional polarization required or increasing current is greatly increased after the low-currents threshold value. Defining the exchange current density j_0 is of preeminent importance, as it is a measure of the effectiveness of the electrode in promoting the electrochemical reaction and is the electrode reaction exchange at equilibrium.



BV equation can be linearized when the electrode polarization can be considered to be very low (x < 0.15): in this region $e^x \cong 1 + x$ (Taylor expansion), and:

$$j_{cell} \cong j_0 \left[\left(1 + \eta \frac{\alpha_a F}{RT} \right) - \left(1 + \eta \frac{-\alpha_c F}{RT} \right) \right]$$

Which leads to:

$$\eta = \frac{j}{j_0} \frac{RT}{(\alpha_a + \alpha_c)nF} = \frac{j}{j_0} \frac{RT}{nF}$$



TAFEL PLOTS

In the middle region, the Tafel approximation (stating that one of the two current branches dominating) can be used:

$$j_{cell} = j_0 [\pm e^{\eta(\pm \alpha_k F/RT)}] \Rightarrow \eta = \pm \frac{RT}{\alpha_k F} \ln\left(\frac{j}{j_0}\right)$$
From where: $\eta = a + b \log j$
With the constant a defined as:
$$a = 2.303 \frac{RT}{\alpha_k F} \log j_0$$
Ant the Tafel slope, b , defined as:
$$b = -2.303 \frac{RT}{\alpha_k F}$$

With *k* describing the dominant branch of the reaction


TAFEL PLOTS / ON FUEL CELLS



Karel P. S. Haesevoets et al 2019 J. Electrochem. Soc. 166 D315

Electrode kinetics are usually tested and optimized at first by means of laboratory instrumentation with the Rotating Disk Electrode setup, where The rotation rate is used to eliminate concentration polarization, and ohmic, nonuniformity, and crossover effects are all eliminated or corrected for, so that only the pure kinetic response of the electrode of interest is examined.



Tafel plots can be also retrieved from fuel cell devices: the anode is used as a dynamic hydrogen electrode, thus constituting a pseudo reference electrode, while the cathode becomes the electrode of interest, and all losses are assumed to come from ohmic, crossover (if applicable), and oxidizer reduction reaction (ORR):

$$E_{cell} = E^{0}(T, P) - \left|\eta_{a,c}\right| - \eta_{r} - \eta_{x}$$

the cell *corrected* voltage versus *effective* current density is plotted on a logarithmic scale







Figure 9.11 Tafel slope preparation from corrected polarization curve data. Data are taken for a 50-cm² fully humidified PEFC at 80°C, 270-kPa anode and cathode in a hydrogen/oxygen environment, for different mass loadings of platinum catalyst. Data are corrected for measured ohmic losses and crossover. (Reproduced with permission from Ref. [15].)

Figure 9.12 Tafel slopes for PEFC electrodes in 50-cm² hydrogen/air environment and hydrogen/ oxygen PEFC for different mass loadings of platinum catalyst on mass specific current-density basis (A/mg Pt). Data are taken from fuel cell polarization curves of a fully humidified PEFC at 80°C, 270-kPa anode and cathode. Data are corrected for measured ohmic losses and crossover, but not concentration losses, which results in deviation from Tafel slope at high current density. (Reproduced with permission from Ref. [15].)

From the Tafel slope, the charge transfer coefficient can be determined, and from the intercept the exchange current density can be found



OUTLOOK / IN SITU ELECTROCHEMICAL CHARACTERIZATION





EIS is a technique which is widely used in different fields dealing with electrochemistry due to its versatility and the depth of information which can provide.

For a redox system, ohmic contributions, such as ionic and electronic ohmic resistance in the electrolyte and through the other components, can be studied using direct current techniques.

Though, the nonohmic contributions, such as adsorption processes at the electrodes, the charge transfer across the double layer, and the kinetically based concentration polarization, normally have frequency-dependent response times which make them ideal for study using alternating current techniques.



EIS is thus carried out by applying a small AC perturbation to a (running) system. Frequency-dependant phenomena will start oscillate at the same frequency of the applied stimulus. An EIS measurement is thus conducted by analysing the behaviour of the system (or from a part of it only) within a defined range of frequencies.

The measured AC current is thus phase shifted according to the whole impedance value of the electrode/fuel cell. In order to correctly carry out the measure, AC signal must be small, that is, perturbation should be that small to be considered linear.

$$\omega = 2\pi f$$

$$Z = \frac{E(t)}{I(t)} = \frac{E_0 \sin(\omega t)}{I_0 \sin(\omega t + \theta)} = Z_0 \frac{\sin(\omega t)}{\sin(\omega t + \theta)}$$



Requirements:

- **Linearity** In general, electrochemical systems are non-linear (*e.g.* the current produced it follows the Butler–Volmer equation). Usually, when perturbations of a system from equilibrium are small, system response can be approximated with a linear model. Therefore, the amplitude of applied AC signal must be small enough to ensure a linear relation between perturbation and response during the entire measurement.
- **Causality** The response measured from the system must be directly originated from the applied AC perturbation.
- **Stability** The system must be returned to its original state without significant alteration after the applied AC perturbation is eliminated.
- Finiteness The measured impedance must be a finite value at the whole range of measurement frequency



High Medium Low frequency frequency frequency regionregionregionohmic charge mass resistances transfer transfer
 $\widetilde{S}(Z)$
 $^{\circ\circ}$ / Capacitive

 resistances resistances Inductive / $(\mathbf{0})$ $\mathcal{R}(Z)$ Resistive (1)

High frequency region:

$$Z_C = X_C = \frac{1}{2\pi fC} \Rightarrow X_C \Big|_{f \to \infty} \to 0$$

In (1) the High Frequency Resistance value is found: it is the sum of all of the ohmic resistances of the system (such as, for fuel cells: contact losses, ionic losses in thee electrolyte and electronic resistance).





 $\mathcal{R}(Z)$ Resistive



Medium frequency region:

The presence of a (positive) semicircle indicates a capacitive process is taking place (such as: charge transfer across the double layer). The semicircle can be represented by a RCparallel electric circuit, composed by the charge-transfer resistance and the chargetransfer capacity. The circle diameter is equal to the charge transfer resistance. Low frequency region:

Capacitive	High frequency region – ohmic resistances	Medium frequency region – charge transfer resistances	Low frequency region – mass transfer resistances		
Inductive / (

 $\mathcal{R}(Z)$

Resistive



 $\Im(Z)$

Mass transport phenomena are related to the evolution of the plot in this regime





- R_e^{χ} -: Electrical resistance
- R_i^{elyte} : lonic resistance
- R_{CT} : Charge transfer resistance

 C_{DL} : Double layer capacity (charge transfer processes across the double layer)

 Z_{diff} : Diffusion-related impedance (also called Warburg resistance, W); it is characterized by a constant slope and $\theta = 45^{\circ}$.

Sometimes a Constant Phase Element, Z_{CPE} , is used to describe capacitive effects which have a strong non-ideal behaviour:

$$Z_{CPE} = 1/((j\omega)^{\beta}Q)$$





frequencies higher than 1 Hz. (b) Corresponding Bode plots. (Source: Kelaidopoulou, A, Siddle, A, Dicks, AL, Kaiser, A and Irvine, JTS, 2001, Anodic behaviour of $Y_{0.20}Ti_{0.18}Zr_{0.62}O_{1.90}$ towards hydrogen electro-oxidation in a high temperature solid oxide fuel cell, Fuel Cells, vol 1(3–4), pp. 226–232.)

Figure 3.10 (a) Effect of overpotential on impedance plots for Nafion 117. Applied DC potential: (o) 0.775 V, ((a) 0.75 V, (·) 0.725 V and (·) 0.70 V. Temperature 303 K and oxygen pressure 207 kPa. Solid lines represent fits of the equivalent circuits. (b) Typical equivalent circuit of PEMFC for ORR at Pt/Nafion

50

100

 $Z'/\Omega \text{ cm}^2$

150

200





Figure 7.14. EIS characterization of a fuel cell requires impedance measurements at several different points along an i-V curve. The impedance response will change depending on the operating voltage. (a) At low current, the activation kinetics dominate and R_f is large, while the mass transport effects can be neglected. (b) At intermediate current (higher activation overvoltages), the activation loops decreases with increasing η_{act} . (Refer to Equation 7.15.) (c) At high current, the activation loops may continue to decrease, but the mass transport effects begin to intercede, resulting in the diagonal Warburg response at low frequency.





Fig. 5. (a) Distribution of the six special segments of the print circuit board; (b) Nyquit plot of the EKS results from the entire cell; (c) Nyquist plot of the local EKS results of Seg. 2 (athode inlet); (d) Nyquist plot of the local EKS results of Seg. 5 (cathode outlet) [140]. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [140], Copyright 2019, Elsevier.





Rc

CPE_{dl,C}

R_{A,mt}

L_{A.mt}

Rmt

Lmt

Ċ_{mt}

R_C

R_{C,mt}

L_{C,mt}

 $R_{I,M}$

Ċм

 L_M







(d)

(e)

Ro

Fig. 2. Typical ECMs used to interpret the EIS data of PEMFCs under various conditions. (a) A 2 kW PEMFC stack [35], reproduced with permission from Ref. [35], Copyright 2007, Elsevier; (b) SO2 contamination effects on ORR [36], reproduced with permission from Ref. [36], Copyright 2012, The Electrochemical Society; (c) electrode composition [37], reproduced with permission from Ref. [37], Copyright 2008, Elsevier; (d) water failure [38], reproduced with permission from Refs. [38], Copyright 2019, Elsevier; (e) inductive phenomena at LF [39] and (f) an ECM deduced from a complete process model [25,40], reproduced with permission from Ref. [25], Copyright 2016, Elsevier.



In principle, as performed in frequency domain, EIS allows to carry out a de-convoluted analysis of the different phenomena taking place in a battery during operation. As an example:

- Ionic conductivity and relative permittivity of an electrolyte can be extracted from the solution resistance (R_s) and the double layer capacitance (C_d).
- Double layer capacitance is also used to model and characterize the double layer formation at the electrodes interface
- By means of the polarization resistance (R_p) the evolution charge transfer processes associated at the electrode/electrolyte interface can be investigated.
- Diffusion processes are represented by means of Constant Phase Elements (also known as Warburg diffusion elements).





ELECTROCHEMICAL IMPEDANCE SPECTROSCOPY / DRT

Once of the main issues in EIS is related to the difficulty in finding the most suitable model to be used for data analysis, which is not always straightforward.

In this framework, Distribution of Relaxation Times analysis was developed, to better identify the relaxation time constants present in the system under investigation, by in turning the frequency dependence of the impedance data into a distribution of the time constants. To do this, a function composed by a finite number of RC-parallel elements is used:



 $https://www.biologic.net/wp-content/uploads/2019/08/battery-eis-distribution-of-relaxation-times-drt_electrochemistry-an60.pdf$



S. Dierickx, A. Weber and E. Ivers-Tiffée / Electrochimica Acta 355 (2020) 136764



ELECTROCHEMICAL IMPEDANCE SPECTROSCOPY / DRT



Table 1

Process assignment of identified polarization contributions to the underlying physical mechanisms.

Process	Dependencies	Relaxation frequency	Physical origin
P1	j, pO _{2,cat} , R.H.	2–10 Hz	gas diffusion of oxygen in GDL and CCL
P2	j, pO _{2,cat} (strong), R.H. (low)	2–200 Hz	charge transfer kinetics at the cathode (ORR)
P3 – P5	R.H.	300 Hz-30 kHz	proton conduction in the ionomer of the cathode catalyst layer (subordinate anode processes)

Fig. 1. Impedance spectra (a,c) and calculated DRTs (b,d) as a function of current density and with separation of individual polarization contributions (T = 80 °C, 70% R.H., and H₂/air).

M. Heinzmann et al., Journal of Power Sources 444 (2019) 227279



OUTLOOK / IN SITU ELECTROCHEMICAL CHARACTERIZATION







Complex Wave



This waveform contains a 2nd harmonic.







This waveform contains a 3rd harmonic.

Total harmonic distortion, is a measurement of the level of harmonic distortion present in power systems. It can be related to either current harmonics or voltage harmonics, and it is defined as the ratio of the RMS value of all harmonics to the RMS value of the fundamental component times 100%; the DC component is neglected.

$$THD_V = \frac{\sqrt{\sum_{k=2}^N V_k^2}}{V_1}$$

where V_k is the RMS voltage of the kth harmonic and k = 1 is the order of the fundamental component.





N.J. Steffy et al. Journal of Power Sources 404 (2018) 81-88





E. Ramschak et al. / Journal of Power Sources 157 (2006) 837-840





E. Ramschak et al. / Journal of Power Sources 157 (2006) 837-840



Air Starvation

H2 supply deficiency



Stack-compatible



OUTLOOK

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ELECTRON MICROSCOPY

Starting from the discoveries of Ernst Abbe in 1873 about optics, the so called "The Abbe diffraction limit" could be formulated, stating that the smallest spot you can focus down to is related to the wavelength of used radiation as:

$$d = \frac{\lambda}{2 n \sin \theta} \to d \propto \lambda \to d \ge \frac{\lambda}{2}$$

According to wave/particle duality every particle can be considered either a particle or a wave. In 1925 Louis de Broglie assumed that for particles are valid the same relations which were used for the photon, thus defining:

$$E = h\nu \quad \lambda = c/\nu \quad E = \frac{hc}{\nu} = pc$$
$$\lambda_B = \frac{h}{p} \rightarrow \lambda_B \propto \frac{1}{E}$$





TRANSMISSION ELECTRON MICROSCOPY



https://anapath.ch/electron-microscopy-2/

Fig. 1.1 A modern 30–300 kV HRTEM fitted with a cold field-emission gun, probe- and image-forming aberration correctors, and a range of digital detectors for HRTEM and STEM (scanning transmission electron microscopy) and configured for full remote operation



TRANSMISSION ELECTRON MICROSCOPY



transmission





scanning

EELS



TRANSMISSION ELECTRON MICROSCOPY FOR FUEL CELLS AND BATTERIES



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TRANSMISSION ELECTRON MICROSCOPY FOR FUEL CELLS AND BATTERIES



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TRANSMISSION ELECTRON MICROSCOPY FOR FUEL CELLS AND BATTERIES





Shan, Int. J. Hydrogen Energy, 2016, 41, 7, 4239-4250



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X-RAYS / THE ELECTROMAGNETIC SPECTRUM



X-Rays can be seen as the electromagnetic radiation in the region of an Angstrom (10⁻¹⁰m). They can be





X-RAYS



X-Rays are the electromagnetic radiation in the region of an Angstrom (10^{-10} m), more precisely they cover the range from 10^{-8} to 10^{-12} m.

They can be described in function of their wavelength or in function of their energy: usually at wavelengths bigger than 1 Å the Soft X-Ray region is defined, while at wavelengths of 1 Å or below, the Hard X-Ray can be found.

$$E = \frac{hc}{\lambda} \to E(keV) = \frac{12398}{\lambda(\text{\AA})}$$



RADIATION – MATTER INTERACTION





RADIATION – MATTER INTERACTION




RADIATION – MATTER INTERACTION / X-RAY ABSROPTION

(a) Photoelectric absorption



(b) Fluorescent X-ray emission



(c) Auger electron emission





RADIATION – MATTER INTERACTION / X-RAY SCATTERING





X-RAY ABSORPTION

(a) Photoelectric absorption





$$-dI = I(z) \, \mu \, dz$$

Ζ

$$\frac{dI}{I(z)} = -\mu \, dz$$

 $I(z) = I_0 e^{-\mu z}$



$$\mu = \rho_{at} \sigma_{at} = \left(\frac{\rho_m N_A}{M}\right) \sigma_a$$

For composite materials

$$\mu = \sum_{j} \rho_{at,j} \, \sigma_{at,j}$$





X-RAY ABSORPTION / THE XAS SPECTRUM





X-RAY ABSORPTION / THE XAS SPECTRUM



Incident Energy (eV)

UNIVERSITÀ DEGLI STUDI DI TRIESTE https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/X-ray_absorption_spectroscopy

X-RAY ABSORPTION / THE SETUP





X-RAY ABSORPTION / CASE OF STUDY









X-RAY ABSORPTION / CASE OF STUDY







X-RAY ABSORPTION / CASE OF STUDY





RADIATION – MATTER INTERACTION





X-RAY SCATTERING







$$a-b=rs_0-rs=r(s_0-s)$$
 $q=-\frac{2\pi}{\lambda}(s_0-s)$ \rightarrow $q=k-k_0$

$$\varphi = -\frac{2\pi}{\lambda} r(s_0 - s) = -qr$$
 $q = \frac{4\pi}{\lambda} \sin \frac{\theta}{2}$



X-RAY SCATTERING





 $\rho(\mathbf{r})d\mathbf{r}$

$$q = -\frac{2\pi}{\lambda}(s_0 - s) \rightarrow q = k - k_0$$

 $\varphi = -qr$

$$I(\boldsymbol{q}) = \int_{V} \rho(\boldsymbol{r}) e^{-i\boldsymbol{q}\boldsymbol{r}} d\boldsymbol{r}$$

Due to the similarity theorem of the Fourier transformation, we can call the space containing all position vectors \mathbf{r} the real space, and the space containing the vectors \mathbf{q} the reciprocal space.



X-RAY SCATTERING



https://wiki.anton-paar.com/cn-cn/saxs-nanostructure-analysis/



https://vincmazet.github.io/bip/filtering/fourier.html



X-RAY SCATTERING / THE FORM FACTOR



 $\begin{array}{c} 10^{2} \\ 10^{1} \\ 10^{1} \\ 10^{2} \\ 10^{2} \\ 10^{3} \\ 0.01 \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \\ 0.1 \\ 0.1 \\ 1 \\ q/nm^{-1} \end{array}$

PTB-Mitteilungen 124 (2014), No. 3 / 4

Figure 4. Two-dimensional (2D) scattering images (intensities are in log scale) of (a) sphere and (b) cylinder, where the axis of the cylinder is parallel to the *y*-axis. The 1D SAXS curves in (c) and (d) are the scatterings from randomly oriented spheres and cylinders, respectively. Intensities are normalized so that P(0) = 1. The radius of the sphere is 10 nm, and the radius and length of the cylinder are 10 and 50 nm, respectively. Chem. Rev. 202

Chem. Rev. 2016, 116, 18, 11128–11180

 10^{2}



X-RAY SCATTERING / THE STRUCTRE FACTOR



Figure 14. (a) SEM image of 15 nm DNA-conjugated gold nanoparticles (DNA–AuNPs) hybridized to DNA modified substrates. (b) Structure factors calculated from SEM and experimental SAXS data. (c) The pair distribution function calculated from the structure factor in (b) shows sharper peaks and clearer hexagonal symmetry than the pair distribution function calculated from the SEM in (a), likely because of better statistics. Reproduced from ref 129. Copyright 2014 American Chemical Society.

Chem. Rev. 2016, 116, 18, 11128-11180



X-RAY SCATTERING / CASE OF STUDY





https://wiki.anton-paar.com/cn-cn/saxs-nanostructure-analysis/



Martens, Journal of Power Sources 521 (2022) 230851



X-RAY SCATTERING / CASE OF STUDY



Martens, Journal of Power Sources 437 (2019) 226906



X-RAY SCATTERING / CASE OF STUDY



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