

ELECTROCHEMICAL INVESTIGATION TECHNIQUES AND ACCELERATED STRESS TESTS FOR FUEL CELLS AND WATER ELECTROLYSERS

Prof. Marco Bogar



OUTLINE

1.	Electrochemical investigation techniques
2.	The polarization curve
3.	Electrochemical Impedance Spectroscopy
4.	Total Harmonic Distortion
5.	Cyclic Voltammetry
6.	Linear Sweep Voltammetry
7.	Current Mapping
8.	Accelerated Stress Tests for FC and WE



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Insights		
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R2	Fuel Cell Engines, Mench M. M., (2008), Wiley, chapter 9	
R3	Tang Z. et al., Recent progress in the use of electrochemical impedance spectroscopy for the measurement, monitoring, diagnosis and optimization of proton exchange membrane fuel cell performance, Journal of Power Sources, 468, (2020), 228361; DOI: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jpowsour.2020.228361	
R4	Ramschak E. et al., Detection of fuel cell critical status by stack voltage analysis, Journal of Power Sources, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jpowsour.2006.01.009	157, 2, (2006), 837-840; DOI:
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INTRODUCTION

Jiao K. et al., Nature, 595, (2021), 361-369



Electrode degradation

- High temperatures
- High humidity
- High potentials
- High gas crossover
- Gas starvation

Membrane degradation

- Mechanical degradation (stress and strain by alternating humidification temperatures)
- Chemical degradation (high temperatures and the presence of radicals)

- Is the fuel cell operating properly or are there any failures?
- Which degradation phenomena • are taking place?
- How fast is degradation taking place?

.

How the performances of a new material component be or can compared to the current standard?



CLASSIFICATION OF CHARACTERIZATION TECHNIQUES

Characterization techniques

Ex situ

Used to characterize some properties of individual components of the fuel cell once removed from the device in a non-operative form.

In situ

Used to characterize the performance of a single component of the cell in an environment with the same (or similar) characteristics found in a real device.

In operando

Used to characterize the performance of a single component or of a cell in real operative conditions.

Characterization techniques

Electrochemical

Based on recording of the electrical parameters

Micrographs

Based on recording of microscopic images (using different probes)

Optical

Radiation at different wavelengths is used to investigate specific sample properties



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1. ELECTROCHEMICAL INVESTIGATION TECHNIQUES



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.



ELECTROCHEMICAL MEASUREMENTS – THE POTENTIOSTAT





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



ELECTROCHEMICAL MEASUREMENTS – THE POTENTIOSTAT





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



2. THE POLARIZATION CURVE



The polarization curve represents the cell voltage–current relationship for a fuel cell (or electrolyser), where voltage (V) is plot versus current density (A cm⁻²). It can be either expressed in terms of power density (W cm⁻²).





POLARIZATION CURVE



Thanks to the V/I curve, the main losses characterizing fuel cell operation can be identified in the different areas of the plot:

I. Activation (kinetic) overpotential at the electrodes.

II. Ohmic polarization losses (electrical and ionic conduction losses through the electrolyte, catalyst layers, interconnects, and contacts).III. Concentration polarization losses (mass transport).

IV. Departure from the Nernst thermodynamic equilibrium potential (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.



Polarization curves are measured after a conditioning stage in which the fuel cell is stabilised at the reference conditions. I/V can then be recorded in two ways, in steady-state (static) or in transient (dynamic) conditions. In steady-state conditions, at every new point of current density set, the corresponding voltage value is recorded once its rate of variation is below a specific threshold. In transient conditions the V/I curve is continuously recorded by setting a little slow rate.



The difference of potential for a fuel cell can be expressed by accounting all of the polarization losses:

$$V = V^0(T, P) - \eta_{a,a} - \eta_{a,c} - \eta_x - \eta_\Omega - \eta_{mt,a} - \eta_{mt,c}$$

Moreover it was also show as the same equation can be written as:

$$V_{c} = V^{0} - A \ln\left(\frac{i+i_{n}}{i_{0}}\right) - (i+i_{n})r + B \ln\left(1 - \frac{i+i_{n}}{i_{L}}\right)$$

Where V^0 is the (reversible) open-circuit voltage, i_n is the sum of equivalent current density from fuel crossover and the internal current density, A is the slope of the Tafel line, i_o is a function of both exchange current densities (or the exchange-current density at the positive electrode if the overpotential is much greater than that of the negative electrode one), r is the resistance per unit area, B is the parameter in the mass-transfer overvoltage equation, and i_L is the limiting current density at the electrode characterized by the lowest limiting current density.



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In order to understand the electrochemical behaviour of PEMFCs, several types of empirical modelling have been introduced to mimic polarization curves. In general the development of models is based on a first logarithmic term (deriving from Tafel approximation), a linear term, and a third term used to model the mass transport. In this case, different formulations were developed, some simpler, such as:

$$V_c = V + b \log(i_0) - b \log(i) - Ri - me^{\xi i}$$

Where m and ξ are used to model the mass transport limitation, some more complex, as:

$$V_{c} = V + b \log(i_{0}) - b \log(i) - Ri - t \ln\left(1 - \frac{i}{i_{L}}S^{-\mu\left(1 - \frac{i}{i_{L}}\right)}\right)$$

Where S can be related to flooding, or specifically targeting one of the reactants:

$$V_{c} = V + b \log(i_{0}) - b \log(i) - Ri - b \log\left(1 - \frac{i}{i_{L,O_{2}}}\right)$$

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Cell po

The polarization curve reflects an integral effect of all parameters of cell structure and operating conditions. It is a tool useful in studying both cell structure and operation.

Cell structure optimization

V/I curve comparison are useful for comparing different design choices, by either comparing the absolute values of data and their signal-to-noise ratio.





POLARIZATION CURVE – APPLICATION

Diagnosing degradation

Periodic recording of V/I can be used to time-resolve loss of performances.







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. In fact, it allows to perform nondestructive measurements providing detailed diagnostic information about a wide range of electrochemical phenomena including charge transfer reaction at the interface electrode/electrolyte, reaction mechanisms, state of charge of batteries, electrode material properties, and state of health of fuel cells, and so on.



Impedance can be viewed as a generalization of the resistance in the frequency domain:

$$Z(\omega) = R + jX(\omega) = |Z| e^{j\theta}$$

Where: $R = \mathcal{R}{Z}$ and $X = \mathcal{I}{Z}$, $Z_0 = |Z| e \theta = \arg(Z)$

In this extent, the ohm's law can be expressed as

$$E = ZI$$

By considering to apply a sinusoidal voltage

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

With $\omega = 2\pi f$





EIS is thus carried out by applying a small AC perturbation to a (running) system, sweeping in frequency usually within 10 kHz and 1 mHz. Frequency-dependent phenomena will start oscillate at the same frequency of the applied stimulus. EIS can either be potentiostatic (PEIS) or galvanostatic (GEIS). The system response (current for PEIS, voltage for GEIS) will be phase shifted according to the whole impedance of the object under analysis. In order to correctly carry out the measure, AC signal must be small that perturbation can be considered linear.

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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









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Description	_Ge=	
Impedance $Z(l) = \frac{R_1}{1 + i2\pi t R_1 C_1} + \frac{R_2}{1 + i2\pi t R_2 C_2}$ Nyquist Diagram (-Im(Z) vs. Re(Z))		
$f_{e_1} = \frac{1}{2\pi R_1 C_1}$		
order C ₁ < C ₂		
Equivalent circuit(s) <u>C1/R1+C2/R2</u> <u>C1/R1/C2+R2</u> B1/(C1-C2/R2)		
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 R_{e}^{x} -: 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 $\theta = 45^{\circ}$.

In some circumstances (such as to describe the porous structure of electrodes) the capacitance needs to be replaced by a Constant Phase Element, Z_{CPE} , is used to describe

capacitive effects which have a strong non-ideal behaviour: $Z_{CPE} = 1/((j\omega)^{\beta}Q)$





UNIVERSITÀ DEGLI STUDI 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).

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:

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



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 decrease since R_f 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.

Fuel Cell Fundamentals, O'Hayre, Suk-Won, Colella, Fritz B. Prinz (2016) Wiley





Ingegneria

Architettura

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Example #2 Cathode flooding

No unique solution and / or model. Data analysis can be carried out following a model-based or a model-free approach.

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.

ELECTROCHEMICAL IMPEDANCE SPECTROSCOPY

Model-based approach consists in identifying the most suitable equivalent circuit model to analyse data.



X. Yan et al., International Journal of Hydrogen Energy 32 (2007) 4358 – 4364



Recorded from a stack. Anode features were not modelled as considered neglectable. R_0 includes both ionic and electronic conduction resistance of the electrolyte. Subscripts C and mt refer to charge transfer and mass transport respectively



Zhal Y. et al., Journal of The Electrochemical Society, 159, 5, (2012), B524-B530



Charge transfer at the anode is here considered, while mass transport at the cathode are modelled by means of a Warburg element.

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Model-free approach (also known with the name Distribution of Relaxation Times, DRT) does not require prior knowledge of impedance in the interpretation of EIS data. Here relaxing time are monitored, quantifying the time required for electrochemical systems to shift from one equilibrium state to another under external perturbation. It was theorised and firstly developed within the first two decades of the XX century. Here, impedance is described as:

$$Z = R_0 + R_P \int_0^\infty \frac{\gamma(\tau)}{1 + j\omega\tau} d\tau$$
$$\int_0^\infty \gamma(\tau) d\tau = 1$$

With $\gamma(\tau)$ being the probability distribution function of the relaxation times, R₀ the ohmic resistance, and R_P the polarisation resistance.



ELECTROCHEMICAL IMPEDANCE SPECTROSCOPY





ELECTROCHEMICAL IMPEDANCE SPECTROSCOPY



Fig. 4. Impedance spectra (a) and calculated DRTs (c) for a variation of relative humidity (from 40% R.H. to 90% R.H. at $j = 146 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$). (b) Obtained model parameters for application of ECM (3RQ). (d) Area specific charge transfer resistance and ionic conductivity determined by application of ECM (TLM).



EIS can be used to monitor:

- Changes of performances due to stoichiometry variations, thus allowing to highlight the presence of reactant starvation.
- Contamination
- Presence of water content (drying, flooding)

EIS can be a tool used in design optimisation:

- MEA composition
- Flow field design



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R.3





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



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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 quick analysis on the redox properties of the system under evaluation; more in depth, 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 Moreover:
- It is non-destructive and does not require the device to be disassembled during operation
- It can be used on single electrodes (half-cells) or on the entire devices.





Plateau regions ٠

Peaks

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Recorded from full cells

For fuel cells, N_2 is used instead of O_2 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



The characteristics of the peaks in a cyclic voltammogram can be used to acquire gualitative information about the relative rates of reaction and reactant diffusion in a given electrochemical system. When the potential of the working electrode is more positive Current than that of a redox couple, the corresponding reactants may be oxidized and produce an anodic current. The peak current occurs when the potential reaches a value at which all the Voltage electrochemically active reactants at the electrode surface are V₁ V2 completely consumed. them. After this peak, the current will decline because the double-layer thickness increases, resulting in a less steep concentration gradient for the active reactant.



A redox reaction is defined quasi-reversible or irreversible when the rate

of electron transfer is slow compared to other processes. In this case, the peak position changes depending on the sweep rate used for recording the process.

The sweep rate thus becomes a crucial parameter in describing the meaning of the voltammogram, as some reactions can be reversible or irreversible at different scan rates, as the electron transfer process is constant. According to the selected sweep rate, it is thus possible to highlight different features of the redox reactions, such as oxidation and reduction potentials, as well as reaction kinetics.





In alkaline media



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

HOR	$Pt - H + OH^- \rightarrow Pt + H_2O + e^-$
Pt oxidation	$Pt + OH^{-} \rightarrow Pt - OH + e^{-}$ $Pt - OH + OH^{-} \rightarrow Pt - O + H_{2}O + e^{-}$
OER	$40H^- \rightarrow 0_2 + 2H_20 + 4e^-$
ORR	$Pt + H_2O + e^- \rightarrow Pt - H + OH^-$
HER	$2H_2O + 2e^- \rightarrow 2OH^- + H_2$



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	$Pt - H + H_2 O \rightarrow Pt + H_3 O^+ + e^-$			
Pt oxidation	$Pt + H_2 O \rightarrow Pt - OH + e^- + H^+$ $Pt - OH + H_2 O \rightarrow Pt - O + H_3 O^+ + e^-$			
OER	$2H_2 0 \to O_2 + 4H^+ + 4e^-$			
ORR	$Pt + H_3O^+ + e^- \rightarrow Pt - H + H_2O$			
HER	$2H_3O^+ + e^- \rightarrow 2H_2O + H_2$			



During fuel cell operation, overall during the start-up and shutdown phases, potential spikes up to 1.5 V can be found. This is a big issue because, for potentials bigger than 0.85 – 1.0 V, PtO starts forming at the cathode electrode, slowing down the reaction rate, and consequently making the Pt reduction peak shift towards higher potentials (lowering Pt oxophilicity).





In general, to evaluate catalyst activities, CV are recorded over time, searching for any shift of features towards higher potentials and/or of reduction of peak intensities, which are both a marker of activity reduction.





Khalakhan I. et al., ACS Appl. Mater. Interfaces 2020, 12, 17602-17610



- After the electrode fabrication process, not all of the deposited catalyst in the electrode is able to finally participate in the electrochemical reaction, due to either insufficient contact with the solid electrolyte or electrical isolation of the catalyst particles. In order to determine the effective area of catalyst available to participate into catalysis, the electrochemically active surface area (ESCA) is one of the main parameters which can be calculated by means of cyclic voltammetry.
- More in dept, the ESCA is calculated by measuring the charge needed to remove (or deposit) a layer of hydrogen atoms adsorbed on the electrode surface.



ECSA can be thus 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.



The charge is calculated as the integral of the voltammogram in the hydrogen

adsorption (or desorption) region:

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

Where the baseline is set from the low-potential-end-side of the formation of the double layer. Thus, the ECSA is calculated as:

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

Where m is the Pt mass loading (g/cm²), and C is a proportionality constant relating charge and catalyst area. It is measured by stripping a layer of Pt atoms on a plane Pt surface, and is conventionally accepted to be equal to 210 μ C/cm².





Suter A.M.T. et al., Adv. Energy Mater.2021, 11, 2101025, DOI: 10.1002/aenm.202101025



pathways

conduction

Investigation of



Bogar M. et al., Journal of Power Sources, submitted

Meier, Nanotechnol. 2014, 5, 44-67



degradation phenomena

Investigation of

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_{DL}) 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





6. LINEAR SWEEP VOLTAMMETRY



LINEAR SWEEP VOLTAMMETRY

Linear sweep voltammetry is an investigation technique which is useful in estimating gas cross-over in operative conditions. A linear potential scan is applied to the fuel cell electrode to obtain a limiting current, which is useful for calculating the crossover rate of hydrogen. By repeating the test over time, membrane degradation can be monitored over time. The potential sweep is usually ended at a voltage below 0.8 V (to prevent irreversible Pt or carbon oxidation), at a low scan rate (such as 4 mV s⁻¹). The same approach can be also applied with DMFC for determining methanol crossover.





Being N_2 flow at the cathode, all of the current produced is solely attributable to the electrochemical oxidation. The voltage sweeps polarises the cathode until a value of limiting current is reached, which value is invariant to additional polarisation. Usually, the limiting current value is stabilised above 0.3 - 0.35 V, when no more effects related to hydrogen adsorption/desorption on platinum take place. The rate of fuel or oxidant crossover to the other electrode can be estimated using the maximum current measured during the polarization.

In this framework, the hydrogen crossover flux can be related to the limiting current density value via the Faraday's law:

$$j_{cov} = \frac{i_{lim}}{nF}$$





LINEAR SWEEP VOLTAMMETRY



Hydrogen partial pressure (kPa)

Li S. et al., International Journal of Hydrogen Energy, 47, 92, (2022), 39225-39238

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- Cell 10 - Cell 9 - Cell 8 - Cell 7 - Cell 6 - Cell 5

Cell 4

Cell 3

Cell 2

Cell 1

LSV can be also used to quantify internal short circuits over the electrolyte. Finite electrical shorts between anode and cathode may occur as a result of electrolyte thinning or pinhole formation. Short circuit current linearly increases with the applied voltage and is inversely proportional to the resistance of the short.





7. CURRENT MAPPING



SEGMENTED FUEL CELLS



Rabissi C. et al., Journal of Power Sources 397 (2018) 361–373



Dipartimento di Ingegneria

e Architettura

c)

Cathode

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DITRIESTE



Osmieri S. et al., Journal of Power Sources 452 (2020), 227829



Sousa T. et al., (2011) Advances in Hydrogen Energy Technologies: Oportunities and Challenges in a Hydrogen Economy 4th International Seminar

SEGMENTED FUEL CELLS



Fig. 6 SegCell wet current density distributions for pristine MEA at 0.2, 0.6, 1, and 1.2 A cm⁻² total cell current density.

Philipps A. et al., Fuel Cell, 17, 3, (2017), 288-298



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

Z. Tang et al., Journal of Power Sources 468 (2020) 228361



SEGMENTED FUEL CELLS



Osmieri S. et al., Journal of Power Sources 452 (2020), 227829


The shunt-resistance-based method offers simplicity and adaptability to different technologies



http://www.splusplus.com/

PEMFC stack





Biswas I. et al., Energies, 12, (2020), 2301





Fig. 11. Current distributions at different gas utilizations. Left figures—the influence of fuel utilization at a constant oxygen utilization of 40%. Right figures—the influence of oxygen utilization at a constant fuel utilization of 75%. Average current density is set at 0.25 A cm⁻². The temperatures are kept at a constant of 75 °C by circulation of coolant. Dew points of gases are kept at a constant of 65 °C.Adapted from Ref. [37] with permission.





Figure 2. Series of current density mappings in a PEM fuel cell showing the local deactivation due to condensation of liquid water. (MEA: CCM by IonPower, 0.6 mg_{Pt}/cm², GDL: SGL Sigracet 25BC, 88 °C, 1.5 bar, 100% rH, stoichiometry: H₂: 1.5, air 2.0, constant voltage 680 mV).







Fig. 10. Transient developments of the local current distribution, (a) parallel flow field and (b) serpentine flow field, U = 0.5 V, $T_{cell} = 40 \text{ °C}$, $\lambda_{H_2} = 1.5 \text{ and } \lambda_{O_2} = 2.5$. From Ref. [52] with permission.





Figure 5. Current density distributions at an average of 1.6 A/cm² within a lab single cell, as recorded with segmented cell technology: The distribution with a laser-patterned GDL is more homogeneous (right) than without (left) (JM MEA02476, SGL Carbon 24BC, 80 °C, 50% rH, 1.5 bar, stoichiometry H₂: 1.5, air: 2, single serpentine flow field, co-flow configuration, gas inlet at upper right corner G1).





Figure 9. Stationary fuel cell stack (ten cells) with three integrated measurement boards for locally resolved current density measurements at the ends and in the centre. The highest difference between 350 mA/cm² (purple) and 550 mA/cm² (red) is observed in cell #10, while the other observed parts of the stack are more homogeneous.



8. ACCELERATED STRESS TESTS FOR FUEL CELLS AND WATER ELECTROLYSERS





https://www.hydrogen.energy.gov/pdfs/20005-automotive-fuel-cell-targets-status.pdf

Accelerated Stress Tests (AST) consists in protocols defining fuel cell key operational parameters such as pressure, temperature, contamination concentration, contamination exposure, test duration, and the loading conditions which should be measured and applied to fairly compare fuel cell devices.



They are structured to ensure that the data generated and supplied are:

- Applicable: test results are relevant to the needs of the industry.
- Repeatable: test results could be duplicated under the same conditions, with the same type of equipment
- Reproducible: test results could be duplicated under the same conditions, with a different type of equipment.
- Scalable and serviceable: sufficient information is provided such that single cell test data can be scaled up to represent a full-size stack.



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Fuel Cell Tech Team Accelerated Stress Test and Polarization Curve Protocols for PEM Fuel Cells

AUGUST 18, 2015

Hydrogen and Fuel Cell Technologies Office »

Fuel Cell Tech Team Accelerated Stress Test and Polarization Curve Protocols for PEM Fuel Cells

Accelerated stress test and polarization curve protocols developed by the U.S. DRIVE Fuel Cell Technical Team for polymer electrolyte membrane (PEM) fuel cells, revised January 14, 2013.

I Fuel Cell Tech Team Accelerated Stress Test and Polarization Curve Protocols for PEM Fuel Cells

Table A 1. Electrocatalyst Cycle and Metrics Table revised March 2, 2010					
Cycle	Triangle sweep cycle: 50 mV/s between 0.6 V and 1.0 V. Single cell 25–50 \mbox{cm}^2				
Number	30,000 cycles				
Cycle time	16 seconds				
Temperature	80°C				
Relative humidity	Anode/cathode 100/100%				
Fuel/oxidant	Hydrogen/N $_2$ (H $_2$ at 200 sccm and N $_2$ at 75 sccm for a 50 cm 2 cell)				
Pressure	Atmospheric pressure				
Metric	Frequency	Target			
Catalytic mass activity*	At beginning and end of test minimum	<40% loss of initial catalytic activity			
Polarization curve from 0 to \geq 1.5 A/cm ²	After 0, 1k, 5k, 10k, and 30k cycles	\leq 30 mV loss at 0.8 A/cm ²			
ECSA/cyclic voltammetry***	After 10, 100, 1k, 3k, 10k, 20k, and 30k cycles	≤40% loss of initial area			

* Mass activity in A/mg @ 150 kPa abs, backpressure at 857 mV iR-corrected on 6% H₂ (bal N₂)/O₂ {or equivalent thermodynamic potential}, 100% RH, 80°C normalized to initial mass of catalyst and measured before and after test.

** Polarization curve per Fuel Cell Tech Team Polarization Protocol in Table A-5.

*** Sweep from 0.05 to 0.60 V at 20 mV/s, 80°C, and 100% RH.





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JRC TECHNICAL REPORT

Development of reference hardware for harmonised testing of PEM single cell fuel cells

Bednarek, T, Tsotridis, G







UNIVERSITÀ DEGLI STUDI DI TRIESTE





AST for catalyst durability: Load Cycling







Georgios Tsotridis, Alberto Pilenga, Giancarlo De Marco, Thomas Malko

2015





AST for catalyst durability: Start/Stop Potential Cycles

It is known as the main mechanisms involved in catalyst degradation are:

- Pt dissolution, agglomeration, and/or detachment
- Carbon corrosion (oxidation) from the support
- Mechanical stress
- Pt catalyst contamination
- Pt oxidation
 - Pt atom



(a) Pt to Pt-H₂O (b) Pt-H₂O to PtO (c) PtO to OPt (d) OPt to PtO_2 Figure 1: Summary of the processes occurring during Pt oxidation

Arisetty S. et al., ECS Transactions, 69, 17, (2015), 273-289



Table 1
Fuel cell operating conditions affecting catalyst layer degradation

Catalyst layer degradation	Operating conditions		
Carbon support corrosion	Cold start-up		
	Fuel starvation		
	Start/stop cycling		
	Potential cycling		
Pt dissolution/agglomeration/	Load cycling		
detachment	Potential cycling		
	Temperature/Relative humidity (RH)		
	cycling		
Catalyst contamination	Impurities from supply reactants		
Pt oxidation	RH cycling		
	Fuel starvation		
	Start/stop cycling		



Fig. 1. Cyclic voltammetry and corresponding dissolution rate curves for Pt (111) in 0.1 M HClO₄ at 50 mV s⁻¹ at two potentials: 0.95 V (gray) and 1.15 V (blue). Inset curve shows the exponential relationship between the total amount of Pt dissolution and the potential where Pt oxide formation begins (Pt-Oad) [49]. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the Web version of this article.)

Pt degradation can develop in two conditions. During OCV, when no current is drawn from the FC, being the cell potential around 1 V, in the region where Pt-O starts to form. Once switching to the operating condition (where the voltage reduces to about 0.6 V), Pt reduction can take place following three mechanisms:

 $Pt \rightarrow Pt^{+2} + 2e^{-}$ $Pt0 + 2H^{+} + 2e^{-} \rightarrow Pt^{0} + H_{2}O$ $PtO^{*} + 2H^{+} \rightarrow Pt^{+2} + H_{2}O$

Leading to Pt dissolution. On the long term, from ex situ analysis, Pt-

band formation can be found within the electrolyte.

Pt dissolution can also lead to catalyst coarsening and to particle detachment too once the potential is risen above 1.2 V, while C

corrosion is always present and harsher, the higher the potential is.







of, ee bob catalyst sa	pport inor and meaner (adapt				
Tested device	Single cell 25–50 cm ²	Single cell 25–50 cm ²			
Cycle	Triangle sweep cycle: 50 1.5V	00 mV s $^{-1}$ between 1V and			
Number	5000 cycles				
Cycle time	2s				
Temperature	80 °C				
Relative humidity anode/ cathode	100%/100%				
Fuel/oxidant	H_2/N_2				
Pressure	Atm. pressure				
Metric	Frequency	Target			
Catalytic activity	Minimum at $t=0$ and $t=t_{\tt end}$	<40% loss of initial catalytic activity			
Polarization curve (0–1.5 A cm ⁻²)	At t = 0, 10, 100, 200, 500, 1000, 2000, 5000 cycles	<30 mV loss at 1.5A. cm ⁻² or rated power			
ECSA/Cyclic voltammetry	At t = 0, 10, 100, 200, 500, 1000, 2000, 5000 cycles	<40% loss of initial area			

2017 US DoE catalyst support AST and metrics (adapted from Ref. [74]).

2017 US DoE electrocatalyst AST and metrics (adapted from Ref. [74]).

Tested device	Single cell 25–50 cm ²			
Cycle	Square wave cycle: steps between 0.6V during 3s and 0.95V during 3s with rise time of ~0.5s or less			
Number	30,000 cycles			
Cycle time	бs			
Temperature	80 °C			
Relative humidity anode/cathode	100%/100%			
Fuel/oxidant	$\rm H_2$ at 200 sccm*/N_2 at 75 sccm (for a 50 cm^2 cell)			
Pressure	Atm. pressure			
Metric	Frequency	Target		
Catalytic mass activity		<40% loss of initial catalytic activity		
Polarization curve (0–1.5 A cm ⁻²)	At t = 0, 1k, 5k, 10k, 30k cycles	${<}30~{\rm mV}$ loss at 0.8A.cm $^{-2}$		
ECSA/Cyclic voltammetry	At t = 0, 1k, 5k, 10k, 30k cycles	<40% loss of initial area		



- High potentials imply Pt particle size growing.
- High temperature and high relative humidity induce Pt particle size rate of growth increasing.
- High potentials and low relative humidity imply fast carbon corrosion.
- The longer the OCV holding time is, the higher is the degradation, unlike a long-term idling that do not largely affect the fuel cell performance. The load cycling enhances the Pt aggregation.
- The degradation of the electrocatalyst under load cycling with long OCV period should be reduced, when running at low current density and low humidity
- A high potential operation (0.73V) enhances the Pt oxidation and the Pt dissolution by using an oxide film.
- Low RH condition suppresses both the Pt oxidation and the Pt dissolution.



No official standards or regulations have been issued yet; the JRC has started drafting the first guidelines, basing on what has been already done with FC.









Hydrogen and fuel cells Prof. Marco Bogar 2023-2024

<u>R.10</u>









<u>R.10</u>

In general, to date it was reported:

- Higher temperature causes faster degradation, but also higher performance
- Dissolution of the catalyst layer, thinning of the membrane, growth of the oxide layer on the metal components of the electrolyzer and contamination of the membrane can be extracted as the most important degradation mechanisms.
- However, voltage cycling affects this degradation process more than current cycling.





