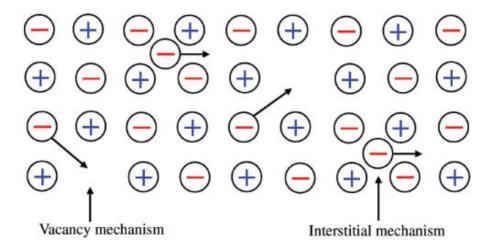
## Fuel Cells 2

## Ionic conduction

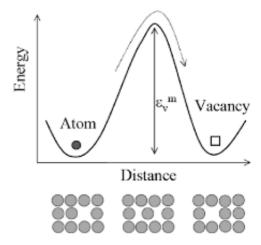
All the technologies in this course rely on ionic motion. In the solid state, this occurs through two main mechanisms:



There is an energy barrier  $E_{\mathrm{a}}$  to ionic diffusion

- This can be overcome by thermal energy
- Follows an Arrhenius relationship:

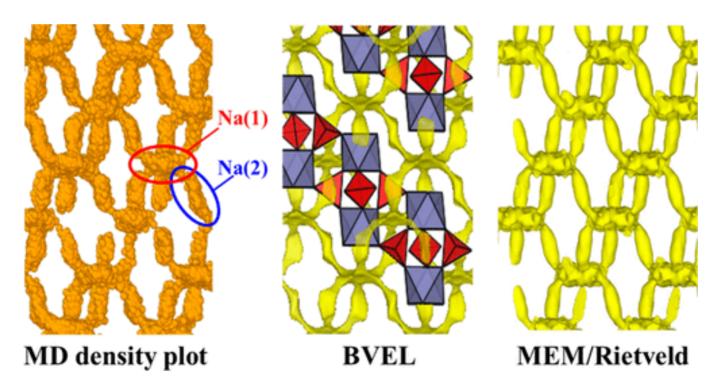
$$\sigma(T) = Ae^{rac{-E_{
m a}}{RT}}$$



# Diffusion pathways are often complex

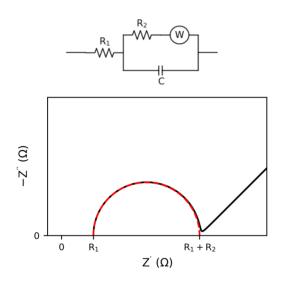
- Often there are competing pathways, with different energy barriers.
- Diffusion pathways can be calculated and/or experimentally determined

e.g. **NASICON** Na<sup>+</sup> conductor, Na<sub>3</sub>Zr<sub>2</sub>(SiO<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>(PO<sub>4</sub>):



# Characterising diffusion

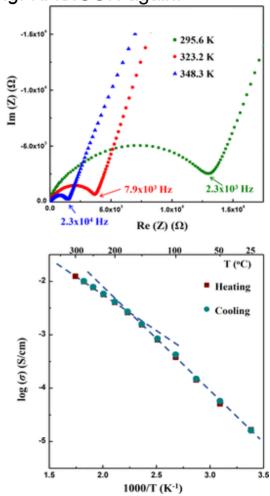
Impedance spectroscopy allows us to determine the conductivity at different temperatures.



$$\sigma(T) = Ae^{rac{-E_a}{RT}}$$

- A plot of  $\ln \sigma(T)$  versus 1/T has slope  $= \frac{-E_a}{R}.$
- We usually plot  $\log_{10}\sigma$  then slope  $=rac{-E_a}{2.303R}$

e.g. NASICON again:

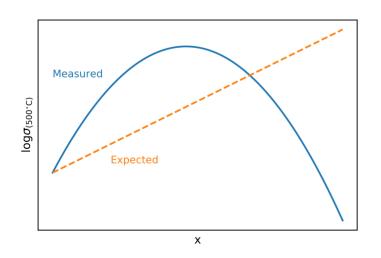


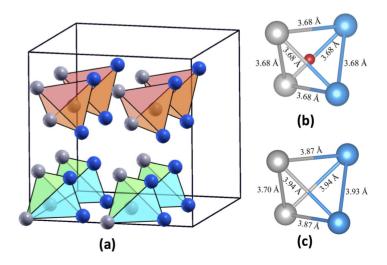
#### Ionic conduction

$$\sigma(T) = Ae^{rac{-E_a}{RT}}$$

- - (conductivity should increase with more charge carriers)
- However, at high defect concentrations we can get defect clusters
  - Local ordering of vacancies (or other defects) reduces conduction

e.g. YSZ: 
$$((1-x)ZrO_2 + \frac{x}{2}Y_2O_3 \longrightarrow Y_xZr_{1-x}O_{2-\frac{x}{2}})$$
:



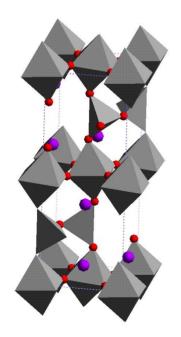


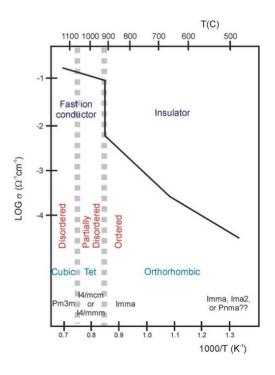
## Long-range ordering

In some cases, long-range ordering of anions or cations can influence conductivity.

#### Ba<sub>2</sub>In<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>

- Brownmillerite structure (essentially ABO<sub>2.5</sub> perovskite with ordered vacancies)
- Low conductivity at low T due to anion ordering
- Large increase in conductivity as vacancies disorder





## Oxide/Proton conductors

e.g. Perovskite  ${\rm BaTi_{2.98}Ca_{0.02}O_{2.98}}$ :

- In dry N<sub>2</sub> is an oxide ion conductor
- In wet N<sub>2</sub>, shows proton conduction below 600 K, and oxide ion conduction

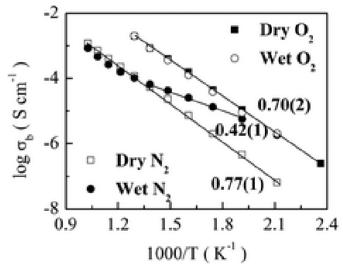
above this

#### Why?

In the presence of anion vacancies:

$$\mathrm{H_2O} + \mathrm{O^2}^- \longrightarrow 2\,\mathrm{OH}^-$$

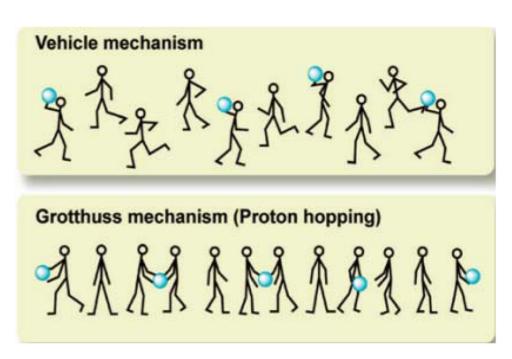
In theory this could occur for *any* oxidevacancy conductor, but depends strongly on the enthalpy change during water incorporation.



## How are protons transported?

Two possible mechanisms:

- Vehicle mechanism
  - Direct diffusion of
     OH<sup>-</sup>
- Grotthuss mechanism
  - Exchange of H<sup>+</sup>
     between
     neighbouring OH<sup>-</sup>

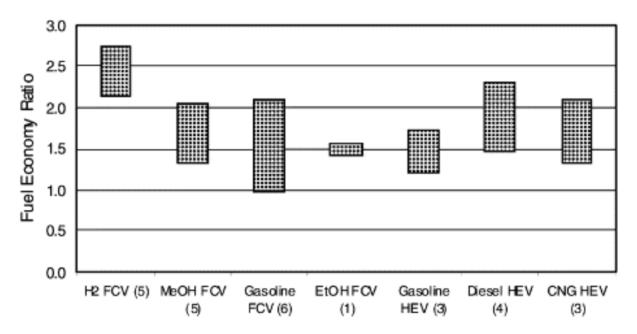


- The Grotthuss mechanism dominates
  - Water incorporation fills anion vacancies, so there is no conduction pathway for OH<sup>-</sup>

## Which fuel to chose?

Lots of economic parameters to consider. Some work has been done in relation to fuel cell vehicles

'Well-to-wheel' analysis



H<sub>2</sub> is the most efficient fuel (ignoring many other factors), but there are two important obstacles to a *hydrogen economy*:

- Generation
- Storage

## Hydrogen generation

#### Chemical methods

- · Steam reforming
  - High temperatures and pressures required
  - Requires catalyst (e.g. Ni, Pt, Rh)
  - Produces a mixture of H<sub>2</sub>, CO, CO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O



- Pyrolysis
  - Thermal cracking of hydrocarbons in the absence of oxygen
  - Precious-metal catalyst required
  - Produces carbon waste
- lodine-sulfur cycle:

$$\begin{split} \mathrm{I_2} + \mathrm{SO_2} + 2\,\mathrm{H_2O} &\longrightarrow 2\,\mathrm{HI} + \mathrm{H_2SO_4} & (T = 120^{\circ}C) \\ 2\,\mathrm{HI} &\longrightarrow \mathrm{I_2} + \mathrm{H_2} & (T = 450^{\circ}C) \\ \mathrm{H_2SO_4} &\longrightarrow \mathrm{SO_2} + \mathrm{H_2O} + \frac{1}{2}\mathrm{O_2} & (T = 850^{\circ}C) \end{split}$$

## Hydrogen generation

#### **Biological sources**

- Fermentation
  - Enzymatic conversion of sugars to H<sub>2</sub>

$$\circ \ \text{e.g.} \ \mathrm{C_6H_{12}O_6} + 2\,\mathrm{H_2O} \longrightarrow 2\,\mathrm{CH_3CO_2H} + 2\,\mathrm{CO_2} + 4\,\mathrm{H_2}$$

- Photosynthesis
  - Green algae (and others) can use sunlight to generate H<sub>2</sub>

#### Direct water splitting

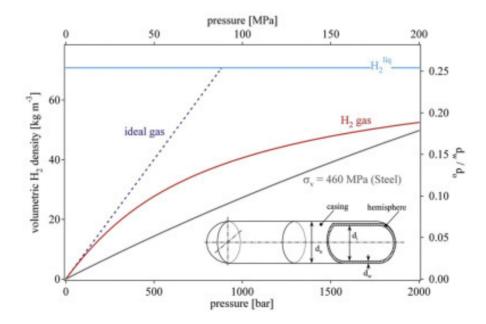
- Electrolytic splitting
  - Use electricity to split water directly
  - Can use renewable energy sources
- Direct solar splitting
  - Use solar furnace to reach the ~2000 K required to split water directly



## Hydrogen Storage

### Under pressure

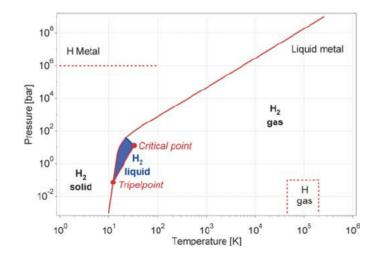
- Compressed gases are an established technology, but
- H<sub>2</sub> is not an ideal gas
  - Extremely high pressures are required to achieve a reasonable density (much higher than hydrocarbons)
- Safety concerns over compressed H<sub>2</sub>



## Hydrogen Storage

#### Cryogenically

- Liquid H<sub>2</sub> (LH2) has a density of 70.6 kg m<sup>-3</sup>
- Boiling point = 21.2 K (at ambient pressure)
- but hydrogen liquifaction is technically challenging
  - At room temperature, H<sub>2</sub> warms on expansion
  - Conversion between ortho and para H<sub>2</sub> is exothermic
    - at RT, 75% ortho, but para is the low-temperature stable form
- Liquifaction takes ~35% of the energy stored in H<sub>2</sub>!



# Hydrogen Storage

#### Chemically - Physisorption

- High surface area materials (e.g. activated carbon) can adsorb H<sub>2</sub>
- How much?

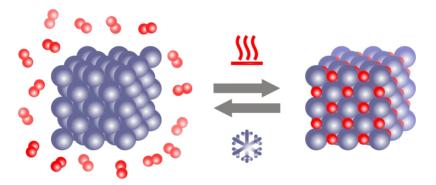
$$\circ~A = \left(rac{M_{ads}}{
ho_{
m liq}N_A}
ight)^{rac{2}{3}}$$

- So, for a carbon with surface area of 1000 m<sup>2</sup> kg<sup>-1</sup>:
  - $\circ$  A = 1.304 × 10<sup>-19</sup> m<sup>2</sup> per molecule, or 78240 m<sup>2</sup> mol<sup>-1</sup>
  - 1 g carbon can store 0.026 g H<sub>2</sub>, i.e. 2.6 wt %
- Relatively cheap materials
- Storage capacity depends on surface area; dificult to exceed ~4000 m<sup>2</sup> g<sup>-1</sup>
- Could be used to enhance LH2 storage (as a trap for boil-off)

## Hydrogen storage

#### Chemically - Hydride phases

- Challenging → H-H bond is remarkably strong
  - $\circ~ ext{H}_2 \longrightarrow 2\, ext{H} \qquad \Delta H = 436 ext{ kJ mol}^{-1}$
- Dissociation can still occur if balanced by an exothermic reaction
  - o e.g. formation of (metal) hydride phase



- Good volumetric storage (up to 150 kg m<sup>-3</sup>)
- hydrogen is extracted at constant pressure
- Often pyrophoric in air
- Large volume changes on hydridation cause material breakdown
- Metals are typically heavy!

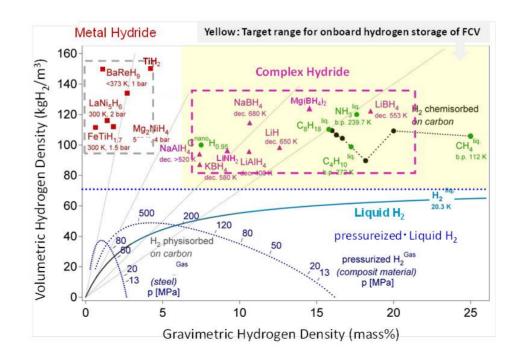
Metal	Hydride	wt%	p (bar)	T (K)
Pd	$PdH_{0.6}$	0.56	0.02	298
LaNi <sub>5</sub>	LaNi <sub>5</sub> H <sub>6</sub>	1.37	2	298
$ZrV_2$	$\rm ZrV_2H_{5.5}$	3.01	10 <sup>-8</sup>	323
FeTi	FeTiH <sub>2</sub>	1.89	5	303
Mg <sub>2</sub> Ni	Mg <sub>2</sub> NiH <sub>4</sub>	3.59	1	555

## Hydrogen storage

#### Chemically - lighter hydrides

One way to increase H<sub>2</sub> capacity (per kg) is to use lighter elements

- e.g. MgH<sub>2</sub> has 7.6 wt% H<sub>2</sub>
- They are often cheaper than heavier metals
- but formation of lighter hydrides is kinetically slow
- Often complex sequence of reactions to yield full H<sub>2</sub> content



## Summary

Three similar energy storage technologies (batteries, supercapacitors and fuel cells) all share very similar chemistry requirements:

- High ionic conductivity at relevant temperatures
- High (or low) electronic conductivity depending on component
- Chemical stability under different operating conditions / between neighbouring materials
- Device compatibility (e.g. thermal expansion, cyclability, cost...)

