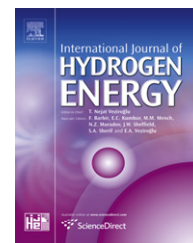


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Review

Nanoscale and nano-structured electrodes of solid oxide fuel cells by infiltration: Advances and challenges

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ABSTRACT

Solid oxide fuel cells (SOFCs) are the most efficient devices for the direct conversion of the chemical energy stored in fuels such as hydrogen and hydrocarbons into electricity. The development of highly efficient and robust SOFCs requires cathodes and anodes with high electrocatalytic activity for O_2 reduction and direct oxidation of hydrocarbon fuels, respectively. Nanoscale engineering of electrode structures via metal salt solution impregnation or infiltration attracts increasing attention as the most effective way to develop highly active and advanced electrode structures for SOFCs. The infiltration method opens a new horizon in the advanced electrode development as the method expands the set of variable electrode materials combinations with the elimination of thermal expansion mismatch and the suppression of potential detrimental reactions between electrode and electrolyte materials. In this article, the advances and challenges in the development of nanoscale and nano-structured electrodes and the fundamental understanding of the remarkable enhancement in the electrode performance are reviewed and discussed with primary focus on the progress and status of the field in the last 5 years.

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1. Introduction

The excessive and accelerated use of fossil fuels, especially coal, oil and gas, in the last 100 years has triggered a global energy crisis, and carbon dioxide emission from power generation burning fossil fuels is considered as a key contributor to climate change and related environmental problems. With increasing energy demand and depleting fossil fuel reserves, the current power generation from fossil fuels will not be sustainable.

Consequently, there are urgent needs to increase electricity generation efficiency and to develop renewable energy sources. Among the power generation technologies, fuel cell is

considered to be the most efficient, clean power-generating technology, and is a potential and viable candidate to moderate the fast increase in power requirements and to minimize the impact of the increased power consumption on the environment. Fuel cells are electrochemical reactors in which the chemical energy contained in fuels such as hydrogen, methane, methanol, etc is converted directly into electricity. Fuel cells are inherently much more efficient than other existing energy conversion technologies such as internal combustion engines and there are significant interests worldwide in the development of fuel cells as environmental friendly and high efficient energy conversion technologies. Among various types of fuel cells, the two types that have received the most attention

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are the low temperature proton exchange membrane fuel cells (PEMFCs) and high temperature solid oxide fuel cells (SOFCs). PEMFCs systems use proton exchange polymer membranes as the electrolyte and precious platinum, palladium, ruthenium and/or their alloys as the electrocatalysts. Since Pt, Pd and Ru are precious metals, it is natural and logical that significant efforts have been made in the synthesis, development and optimization of Pt-based electrocatalysts to increase the Pt utilization via the nanoscale engineering and nanotechnologies [1]. SOFCs operate at temperature range of 600–1000 °C, promote rapid kinetics with non-precious materials and offer high fuel flexibilities. However, the nanoscale engineering and nano-structured approach in the development of high efficient and high performance electrodes in SOFCs and more recently in high temperature solid oxide electrolysis cells (SOECs) is relatively new phenomena, but the interest in this area grows very rapidly in the last 5–10 years.

A typical SOFC consists of a dense layer of an oxygen ion conducting electrolyte separating a cathode, on which oxygen molecules react with electrons to produce oxygen anions, from an anode on which the fuel is oxidized (see Fig. 1). The electrons that are produced during the oxidation of fuels are transported through an external load back to the cathode. In practice, the actual voltage of a fuel cell is less than the theoretical Nernst value due to the irreversible losses associated with transport of the ions through the electrolyte, finite rates of the electrode reactions and mass transport losses of gases in the porous electrodes. The electrolyte losses can be limited by using thin $\text{Y}_2\text{O}_3\text{-ZrO}_2$ (YSZ) electrolyte layers or alternative electrolyte materials such as doped ceria and LaGaO_3 [2–4]. It has been well known to the SOFC community that losses associated with the electrode processes can be minimized through carefully engineering and optimization of the three phase boundaries (TPBs) where electrode, electrolyte and gas phases meet. A well adopted strategy is to develop new cathode and anode materials with high electrochemical activity and stability for the electrode reaction with good tolerance toward impurities such as chromium in the case of metallic interconnect and carbon and sulfur in the case of hydrocarbon fuels. Despite the enormous efforts in the development of new electrode materials for

SOFCs for the operating at intermediate temperatures of 500–800 °C (low operation temperature of IT-SOFCs has potential advantages of significantly increased materials section, reduced materials and fabrication cost and increased long-term stability [5]), challenges still remain; “Development of new electrode or electrolyte materials is not a straightforward and simple issue in SOFC and requires careful consideration of the compatibility and stability with various cell components. This is usually a long and costly process”, as pointed out in 2006 [6]. Against this background, the new approach for the development of nano-structured electrodes by wet impregnation or infiltration has been gaining increased attention in the last few years. This paper will start with a brief overview of the anode and cathode in SOFCs and the emphasis will be on the progress and achievements in the development of nano-structured electrodes in SOFCs and most recently in SOECs in the last 5 years.

2. An overview of current anodes and cathodes

A SOFC cathode is the material where pure oxygen or oxygen from air is reduced to oxygen ions through the combination of electrons externally from the cell, and the oxygen reduction reaction requires the presence of oxygen and electrons as well as the transportation of generated oxygen ions from the reaction sites to the bulk of the electrolyte. Thus, the materials used as the SOFC cathodes should have high electronic conductivity and oxygen ionic conductivity, and should also meet the requirement of chemical and thermal stability in oxidizing environment, chemical and thermal compatibility with the electrolyte, and high catalytic activity toward oxygen reduction reactions at intermediate temperatures. Similarly, the anode materials of SOFCs must have high electronic conductivity and oxygen ion conductivity, high activity for the oxidation reaction of fuels such as hydrogen, methane and light hydrocarbons as well as redox stability under oxidation environment. However, limited materials up to now have met the complete requirements for SOFC cathodes and anodes.

Strontium-doped lanthanum manganite (LSM) is the most common cathode materials for SOFC because of its high electrochemical activity for the O_2 reduction reaction at high temperatures, good thermal stability, good chemical stability and compatibility with the most commonly used YSZ electrolyte, and the demonstrated structural stability under SOFC operation conditions [7,8]. LSM is an excellent electronic conductor (its electronic conductivity is $\sim 200 \text{ S cm}^{-1}$ at 800 °C [9]), but with a negligible oxygen ionic conductivity (e.g., $\sim 10^{-16} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ at 700 °C) [10]. As the incorporation and bulk diffusion of oxygen inside LSM cannot be expected to occur to a significant degree, the O_2 reduction reaction is limited to TPB areas at the electrode/electrolyte interface. Thus, with the reduced operation temperature of SOFCs, the polarization resistance for the O_2 reduction reaction on the LSM-based cathodes increases significantly [11]. As a result, pure LSM is not a suitable candidate as the SOFC cathode at intermediate temperatures of 600–800 °C.

Various strategies have been developed to improve the electrocatalytic activity of the LSM-based cathodes. Murray

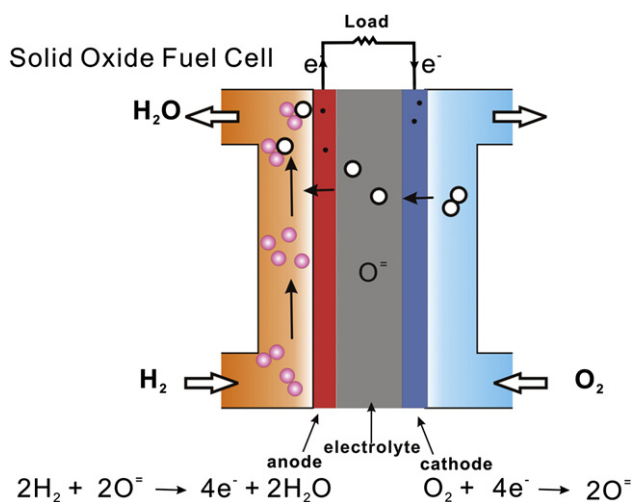


Fig. 1 – Schematic of operating principle of a solid oxide fuel cell.

and Barnett [12,13] showed that the addition of YSZ and GDC to LSM significantly reduced the electrode polarization resistance. The electrode polarization resistance decreases as the GDC concentration increased to 50 wt%. Another family of materials that has been extensively studied for SOFC cathode is LaCoO₃-based perovskites. LaCoO₃, like LaMnO₃, shows *p*-type electronic conductivity. Acceptor-doped cobaltites are characterized by enhanced lattice oxygen vacancy formation and, hence high ionic conductivity. However, the thermal expansion coefficient (TEC) of Co-rich perovskites, $\sim 20 \times 10^{-6} \text{ K}^{-1}$, is generally too high for both YSZ and doped CeO₂ electrolytes. An alternative to the Co-rich perovskites is the Sr-doped LaFeO₃ which has a lower TEC and a good chemical compatibility with doped CeO₂ electrolyte. Compositions in the system (La,Sr)(Co,Fe)O₃, such as La_{0.6}Sr_{0.4}Co_{0.2}Fe_{0.8}O₃ or LSCF6428 [14], may have desirable properties for IT-SOFC cathode applications. The oxygen self-diffusion coefficient of cobaltite based materials is several orders of magnitude higher than that of the manganites [10]. Maximum power density of 0.99 W cm^{-2} at 600°C was achieved on a thin Gd_{0.1}Ce_{0.9}O_{1.95} (GDC) electrolyte cell with nano-structured LSCF cathodes [15]. The addition of ionically conductive phase, such as GDC also promotes the electrocatalytic activity of LSCF cathodes [16–18].

Barium-based cobalt ferrite was also developed as cathodes of SOFCs. Shao and Haile [19] applied Ba_{0.5}Sr_{0.5}Co_{0.8}Fe_{0.2}O₃ (BSCF) as cathode to a doped ceria electrolyte cell and achieved the power densities of 1.01 W cm^{-2} and 402 mW cm^{-2} at 600°C and 500°C , respectively, when operated with hydrogen as the fuel and air as the oxidant. However, the TEC of BSCF is $\sim 20 \times 10^{-6} \text{ K}^{-1}$ and the electronic conductivity is low, $\sim 25 \text{ S cm}^{-1}$ at 800°C [20]. The low conductivity of the BSCF is a serious concern in practical application in SOFCs as the low conductivity of the electrode materials would lead to the significant increase in the contact resistance between the current collector and the electrode, resulting in the increase in the electrode polarization losses [21]. The presence of CO₂ also deteriorates the BSCF performance by adsorbing on the cathode surface and thus obstructing the oxygen surface exchange reaction [22]. A number of other oxide materials have also been investigated as cathodes of SOFCs. Examples are lanthanum nickelate, La₂NiO_{4+ δ} (LN) [23], La(Ni, M)O₃ (M = Al, Cr, Mn, Fe, Co, Ga) perovskites [24], lanthanum strontium manganese chromite, La_{0.75}Sr_{0.25}Cr_{0.5}Mn_{0.5}O₃ [25], and GdBaCoO₅ [26]. However, their long-term stability under SOFC operating conditions is generally unproven.

La_{1-x}Sr_xMO₃ (M = Co, Ni and Fe) and in general cobalt-based perovskites are not as stable as their manganite counterparts [27], though excellent performance and good stability have been reported for LSF based cathodes [28,29]. The preparation of lanthanum cobalt ferrite or nickelate perovskites is complicated by that fact they readily react with YSZ at the sintering temperatures required for the fabrication of standard SOFC electrodes [30–32]. The interaction between the nano-structured thin film cathodes of La_{0.5}Sr_{0.5}CoO₃ and YSZ could even occur at $650\text{--}700^\circ\text{C}$ [33]. Use of interlayer such as doped ceria can prevent the interaction, but the long-term stability of such double layer structure is largely unknown.

The state-of-the-art anode materials for the H₂ oxidation reaction are the Ni/YSZ cermet due to their high electronic

conductivity, high electrochemical activity for the H₂ oxidation, high structural stability and compatibility with YSZ electrolyte [34]. The function of the oxide component is primarily to reduce the sintering of the Ni metal phase, to decrease the TEC and to improve the electrochemical performance of the anode. Thus, the composition and phase distribution are important for the electronic conductivity, microstructure and performance of the Ni-based anode. The YSZ phase in the cermet plays a significant role in the creation of additional reaction sites by extension of the TPB [35].

For hydrocarbon fuels such as natural gas, the most abundant impurity is sulfur, existing as gaseous hydrogen sulfide, H₂S, after reforming. Sulfur is a major impurity in coal, so sulfur tolerance is also a major issue for SOFC power plants designed to utilize gasified coal. Ni-based anodes have very low level tolerance toward the sulfur poisoning [36]. Nickel and alloys based metals also corrode in high carbon-activity gases by a process known as metal dusting. Metal dusting involves carbon deposition and incorporation into the metal that results in the disintegration of bulk metals and alloys into metal particles at high temperatures ($300\text{--}850^\circ\text{C}$). The carbon deposition/cracking on Ni/YSZ cermet anodes can be avoided by providing a high enough steam to carbon (S/C) ratio in the fuel gas, e.g., by mixing the fuel with H₂O [37]. However, high S/C ratio is not attractive for fuel cells as it lowers the electrical efficiency of the fuel cells by diluting the fuel. The endothermic nature of the steam reforming reaction can also cause local cooling and steep thermal gradients potentially capable of mechanically damaging the cell stack. Thus, development of anodes with high tolerance toward carbon deposition and sulfur poisoning is critical for SOFCs utilizing hydrocarbon fuels. A number of groups have shown that perovskite oxides, e.g., (La_{0.75}Sr_{0.25})(Cr_{0.5}Mn_{0.5})O₃ (LSCM) and (La,Sr)VO₃ (LSV), exhibit better sulfur tolerance [38–41]; LSV makes it possible to work with $\sim 10\%$ H₂S in the fuel [40]. Unfortunately, LSV appears to be insufficiently stable for use in SOFCs.

Oxide materials based on perovskite-related structures have been extensively investigated as alternative anode for SOFCs. Examples include titanates-based perovskites [42], yttria-stabilized zirconia-terbia (YSZT) such as Y₂O₃-ZrO₂-TiO₂ and Sc₂O₃-Y₂O₃-ZrO₂-TiO₂ [43], perovskite SrTiO₃ doped with La or Nb and niobium based tetragonal tungsten bronzes [44,45], La_{0.75}Sr_{0.25}Cr_{0.5}Mn_{0.5}O₃ (LSCM) [46], and double perovskites Sr₂Mg_{1-x}Mn_xMoO_{6- δ} [47]. Among the perovskite-based materials, LSCM appears to be most promising. Tao and Irvine reported a maximum power density of 0.47 W cm^{-2} on a cell with LSCM anode and LSM cathode at 900°C [46], which is considered to be compatible to the cell based on Ni/YSZ cermet anodes. However, the electronic conductivity of LSCM is very low, $\sim 0.22 \text{ S cm}^{-1}$ in $10\% \text{H}_2/\text{N}_2$ [48]. The low electrical conductivity will result in the high ohmic losses and the high contact resistance between the electrode and current connector.

The nanoscale and nano-structured electrode approach by infiltration method attracts increasing attention as the viable alternative for the development of new electrodes for SOFCs. Infiltration method is a two-step sintering process, which effectively separate the catalytic active phase formation temperature from the sintering temperature as required to establish the intimate electrode/electrolyte interface bonding

in the standard SOFC electrodes. Due to the relatively low temperature for the formation of catalytic active phases, nano-size particles can be formed onto structurally stable and compatible scaffolds such as LSM, Ni/YSZ, and YSZ or doped ceria. The infiltration method opens a new horizon in the electrode development as the method expands the selection of variable electrode materials combinations with the minimized TEC mismatch and the suppression of possible detrimental reactions between electrode and electrolyte materials. Since the first review of the nano-structured electrodes via impregnation in 2006, [6] there has been significant progress in the development of nano-structured electrodes in SOFCs. This is indicated by the recent review articles on the nano-structured SOFC anodes [49] and cathodes [50–52].

3. Nano-structured electrodes – approach and status

3.1. Deposition of nanoparticles by infiltration process

Due to the fact that high process temperatures are required to achieve good bonding and contact between electrode and electrolyte, e.g., 1000–1150 °C for LSM cathodes and 1300–1400 °C for Ni/YSZ cermet anodes [53,54], the conventional approach to introduce nanoparticles in the green stage of the electrodes such as that commonly used in the development of Pt-based nano-structured electrocatalysts in PEMFCs is not very successful for the high temperature SOFC electrodes. Thus the key consideration in the development of nano-structured SOFC electrodes is to bypass the high processing temperature via the deposition of catalytically and/or electrochemically active nanoparticles into a rigid and pre-fired electronic and/or ionic conducting electrode or electrolyte scaffold/framework by infiltration techniques. An infiltration process involves the precipitation and decomposition of a metal salt solution inside a porous electrode or electrolyte structure. Fig. 2 shows schematically a typical synthesis route for the deposition of nano-sized particles into a pre-fired electrode or electrolyte scaffold or framework via infiltration of metal salt or nanoparticle suspension solutions. For example, wet infiltration of CeO_2 and Gd-doped CeO_2 (GDC) into pre-fired LSM cathode can be carried out by simply placing a drop of a $\text{Ce}(\text{NO}_3)_3$ or mixed $\text{Gd}(\text{NO}_3)_3$ and $\text{Ce}(\text{NO}_3)_3$ ($\text{Gd}_{0.2}\text{Ce}_{0.8}(\text{NO}_3)_x$) solution on top of the coating which

infiltrates the cathode layer by capillary force. The infiltration process can be facilitated under vacuum [55]. Then the infiltrated LSM is heated at 500–800 °C to decompose the metal salt solution, forming CeO_2 or GDC nanoparticle phase. The phase formation temperature of the catalytic phase (i.e., CeO_2 or GDC) is much lower than the processing temperature of the standard LSM (i.e., ~1150 °C in this case). The significantly reduced phase formation temperature avoids the grain growth, resulting in the deposition of nano-sized GDC particles on the surface of grains of LSM scaffold.

The infiltrated catalytic nanoparticles can form discrete distribution or a thin and continuous network on the surface of the porous scaffold, as schematically shown in Fig. 3. The porous scaffold can be electronic conducting electrode materials such as LSM or ionic conducting electrolyte materials such as YSZ and doped ceria. The latter requires deposition of a continuous nanoparticle layer with high electronic conductivity as well as high electrocatalytic activity, and multiple infiltration steps are necessary to achieve sufficient electron conduction [56,57]. Such repeated infiltration process is time-consuming and hinders the practical application of the infiltration approach. Using a concentrated LSM nitrate precursor solution with surfactant (e.g., Triton-X100), Sholkapper et al showed that it may be possible to form a continuous and thin nano-structured LSM layer on YSZ scaffold with a single-step infiltration [52,58,59]. Fig. 4 shows a SEM picture of infiltrated LSM on porous YSZ scaffold [58]. The infiltrated LSM nanoparticles formed a continuous layer on YSZ grains with a thickness of 30–100 nm (~6 wt% of the YSZ scaffold). However, our own experience shows that in general it would be very difficult for concentrated precursor solutions to penetrate and infiltrate uniformly into micro- and nanopores of the scaffold by capillary force even under the vacuum treatment, and multiple infiltration-calcination steps are generally required, particularly in the case of thick anode-substrate supports.

Adding surfactants or complexing agents is beneficial for the uniform distribution and phase formation of infiltrated nanoparticles. Addition of urea and polymeric dispersant can facilitate the formation of perovskite phase such as $\text{Sm}_{0.6}\text{Sr}_{0.4}\text{CoO}_3$ and LSM at low temperatures [58,60], presumably due to the complexing effect of the additives. Addition of glycine is also shown to be effective to promote the uniform distribution of infiltrated yttria-stabilized bismuth (YSB) nanoparticles with reduced infiltration steps [61,62]. Li et al showed that the effect of adding urea is to enhance the distribution and electronic connectivity of Cu nanoparticle phases in the infiltrated Cu-YSZ composite anodes [63]. Nevertheless, the benefit of the additives appears to be related to the infiltrated nanoparticle phase and the scaffold. In a recent article, Nicholas and Barnett showed that adding additives such as surfactant Triton X-100 in $\text{Sm}_{0.5}\text{Sr}_{0.5}\text{CoO}_{3-x}$ (SSC) nitrite solution did not produce pure SSC phase while adding citric acid resulted in pure SSC phase. [64]. Furthermore, addition of additives such as Triton X-100 and citric acid had little effect on the morphology or the performance of the infiltrated SSC-GDC composite cathodes [64]. Electrodeposition and electroless deposition have also been used to accelerate the infiltration process [65,66]. However, the electrodeposition and electroless deposition

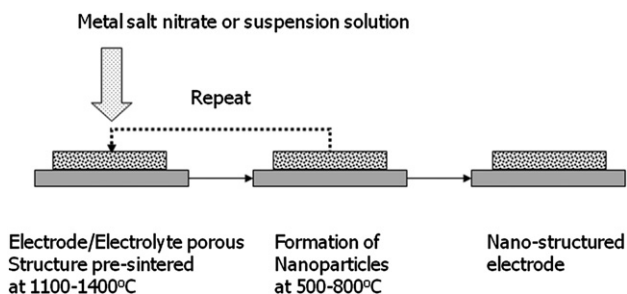


Fig. 2 – Typical process for the infiltration of metal salt nitrate solution or nanoparticle suspension into pre-sintered electrode or electrolyte porous structure.

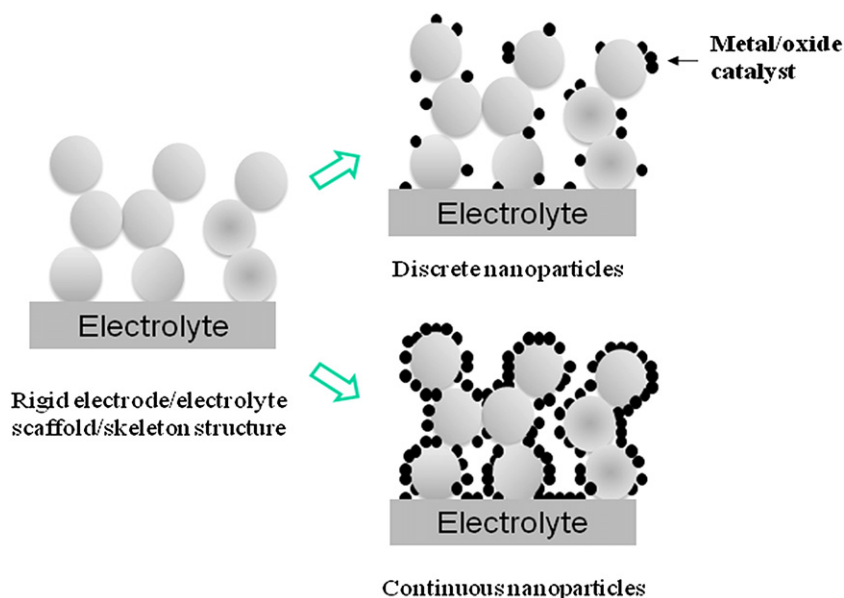


Fig. 3 – Scheme of the infiltrated nano-structured electrodes on pre-sintered porous electrode or electrolyte scaffold/skeleton.

require the porous scaffold to be conductive. Distribution of infiltrated nanoparticles also depends on the wetting properties between the metal salt solution and the porous scaffold. Lou et al shows that using SSC nitrate solution in a water/ethanol mixture significantly improves the wetting property between the infiltration solution and LSCF scaffold, resulting in the significantly enhanced SSC nanoparticle distribution and performance [67].

Cu-based anodes were initially developed for the direct oxidation of CH_4 [68]. Different to Ni, Cu is relatively inert for the formation of C–C bonds, however, its melting temperature is 1083 °C, significantly lower than 1453 °C for Ni. Therefore Cu-based cermet anodes cannot be produced using the same methods usually for Ni-based cermet anodes. The method developed by Prof. Gorte's group is to impregnate $\text{Cu}(\text{NO}_3)_2$

solution into porous YSZ scaffold prepared on a dense YSZ electrolyte layer, followed by calcinations to decompose the nitrate and form the oxide [69,70]. Both the dense electrolyte and porous scaffold can be fabricated by conventional tape-casting techniques, see Fig. 5 [50]. Other components such as ceria, perovskite oxides and precious metal catalysts can be added via infiltration processes to provide the ionic and electronic conductivity as well as the catalytic activity for the direct oxidation of hydrocarbons [71–79]. Similar to Cu-based anodes, silver with low melting temperature of 960 °C was also infiltrated into porous YSZ scaffold as potential anodes for hydrocarbon fuels, however, the activity of infiltrated Ag/YSZ composite anodes is not satisfactory, the area specific resistance, area specific resistance (ASR) is 38.4 Ωcm^2 in H_2 and 16.1 Ωcm^2 in CH_4 at 700 °C [80].

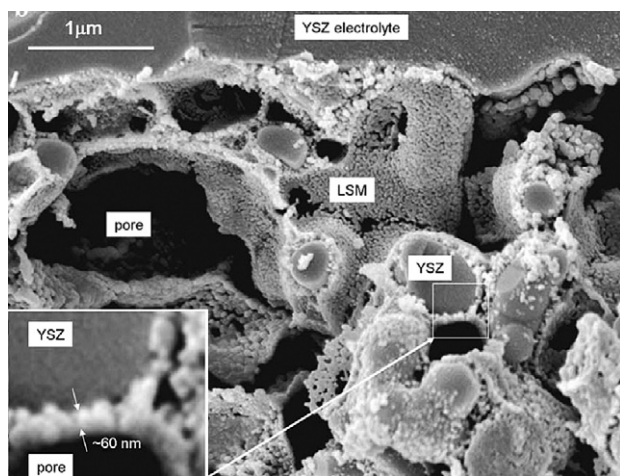


Fig. 4 – SEM micrograph of LSM infiltrated YSZ composite cathodes prepared from mixed nitrate solution with polymeric complexing agent, Triton X-100 [58].

3.2. Performance of nano-structured electrodes

Solution infiltration is extremely versatile in the development of wide range of nanostructures that combines the catalytic and electrochemical active phase with the structural rigidity of porous scaffold. Table 1 lists the performance and promotion factors of various nano-structured electrodes systems [55,56,81–99]. Recent development of nano-structured electrodes for SOEC [100,101] is also included in the Table. The promotion factor, f_p , was calculated by dividing the ASR (i.e., the electrode polarization resistance, R_E) or the overpotential, η of the nano-structured electrodes or power density of the cell with nano-structured electrodes by the performance of the baseline electrodes fabricated by conventional mixing and sintering processes, measured under identical conditions.

$$f_p = \text{ASR}_{\text{infiltrated electrode}} / \text{ASR}_{\text{conventional electrode}} \text{ OR}$$

$$\eta_{\text{infiltrated electrode}} / \eta_{\text{conventional electrode}}$$

(1)

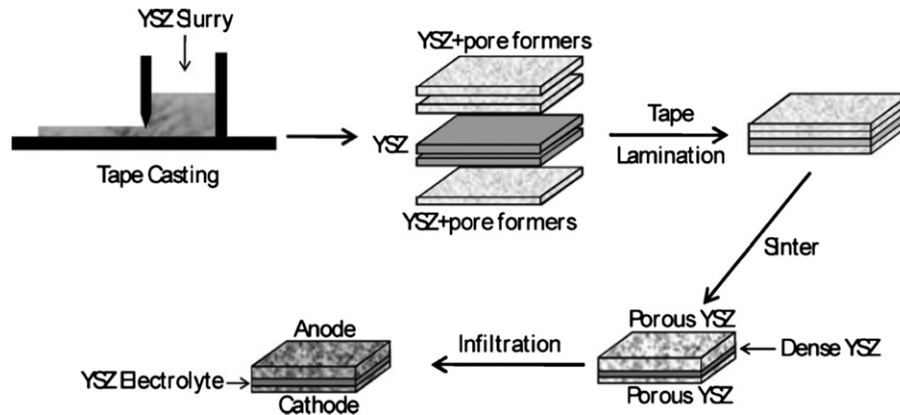


Fig. 5 – Diagram showing the steps used to fabricate an SOFC in which the electrodes are produced by infiltration of active components into a porous YSZ scaffold [50].

In addition to SOFCs and SOECs, infiltrated nano-structured electrodes have also been applied to metal-supported SOFCs and single-chamber SOFCs [102–104].

The enhancement in the electrochemical performance of nano-structured cathodes is truly remarkable. For instance, in the case of LSM cathodes, the electrode polarization (interface

resistance (R_E) is $11.7 \Omega \text{cm}^2$ at 700°C . With the infiltration of 5.8 mg cm^{-2} GDC nanopartilces phase, R_E is reduced dramatically to $0.21 \Omega \text{cm}^2$ at 700°C , which is 56 times smaller than that of the pure LSM cathode at the same temperature [105]. The R_E for the O_2 reduction reaction on the nano-structured Pd + YSZ is $0.11 \Omega \text{cm}^2$ at 750°C and $0.22 \Omega \text{cm}^2$ at 700°C , and this is

Table 1 – Performance and promotion factors of various nano-structured electrode systems.

| Impregnated nanoparticles | Scaffold/skeleton | Performance | Promotion factor, f_p | Ref |
|--|---|---|--|---------|
| Cathode of SOFC | | | | |
| GDC (5.8 mg cm^{-2}) | LSM | $R_E = 0.21 \Omega \text{cm}^2 @ 700^\circ \text{C}$ | 56 for O_2 reduction | [81] |
| Pd (1.8 mg cm^{-2}) | LSM/YSZ | $R_E = 0.9 \Omega \text{cm}^2 @ 600^\circ \text{C}$ | 78 for O_2 reduction | [92] |
| Pd (1.2 mg cm^{-2}) | LSCF | $R_E = 2.9 \Omega \text{cm}^2 @ 600^\circ \text{C}$ | 1.9 for O_2 reduction | [90] |
| GDC (1.5 mg cm^{-2}) | LSCF | $R_E = 1.6 \Omega \text{cm}^2 @ 600^\circ \text{C}$ | 3.4 for O_2 reduction | [90] |
| LSM ($\sim 2 \text{ mg cm}^{-2}$) | YSZ | $R_E = 1.6 \Omega \text{cm}^2 @ 600^\circ \text{C}$ | 44 for O_2 reduction ^a | [92] |
| LSCF (1.1 mg cm^{-2}) | YSZ | $R_E = 0.54 \Omega \text{cm}^2 @ 600^\circ \text{C}$ | | [86] |
| LSCF (12.5 vol%) | GDC | $R_E = 0.25 \Omega \text{cm}^2 @ 600^\circ \text{C}$ | 14 for O_2 reduction | [96] |
| $\text{La}_{0.6}\text{Sr}_{0.4}\text{CoO}_3$ (30 vol%) | YSZ | $P = 2.1 \text{ W cm}^{-2} @ 800^\circ \text{C}$ in H_2/air | | [97] |
| $\text{La}_{0.6}\text{Sr}_{0.4}\text{CoO}_3$ (55 wt%) | SDC | $R_E = 0.36 \Omega \text{cm}^2 @ 600^\circ \text{C}$ | | [93] |
| Ag | LSCF/GDC | $P = 0.98 \text{ W cm}^{-2} @ 600^\circ \text{C}$ | 3.3 for H_2/air | [94] |
| Pd (1.4 mg cm^{-2}) | YSZ | $R_E = 0.22 \Omega \text{cm}^2 @ 700^\circ \text{C}$ | | [56] |
| BSCF (1.8 mg cm^{-2}) | LSM | $R_E = 1.3 \Omega \text{cm}^2 @ 700^\circ \text{C}$ | 12 for O_2 reduction | [89] |
| $\text{Sm}_{0.6}\text{Sr}_{0.4}\text{CoO}_3$ | LSM/YSZ | $R_E = 8.5 \Omega \text{cm}^2 @ 600^\circ \text{C}$ | 2.3 for O_2 reduction | [60] |
| $\text{Y}_{0.5}\text{Bi}_{1.5}\text{O}_3$ (50 wt%) | LSM | $R_E = 0.14 \Omega \text{cm}^2 @ 700^\circ \text{C}$ | | [98,99] |
| Anode of SOFC | | | | |
| $\text{Sm}_{0.2}\text{Ce}_{0.8}\text{O}_2$ ($\sim 4 \text{ mg cm}^{-2}$) | Ni/YSZ | $R_E = 0.24 \Omega \text{cm}^2 @ 800^\circ \text{C}$ | 7.3 for H_2 oxidation | [55] |
| GDC (4 mg cm^{-2}) | $(\text{La}_{0.75}\text{Sr}_{0.25})(\text{Cr}_{0.5}\text{Mn}_{0.5})\text{O}_3$ | $R_E = 0.44 \Omega \text{cm}^2 @ 800^\circ \text{C}$ | 26 for CH_4 oxidation | [83] |
| GDC (4 mg cm^{-2}) | $(\text{La}_{0.75}\text{Sr}_{0.25})(\text{Cr}_{0.5}\text{Mn}_{0.5})\text{O}_3$ | $R_E = 0.12 \Omega \text{cm}^2 @ 800^\circ \text{C}$ | 20 for H_2 oxidation | [83] |
| GDC (1.42 mg cm^{-2}) | Ni | $R_E = 1.29 \Omega \text{cm}^2 @ 800^\circ \text{C}$ | 25 for CH_4 oxidation | [84] |
| Pd ($0.36\text{--}0.46 \text{ mg cm}^{-2}$) | $(\text{La}_{0.75}\text{Sr}_{0.25})(\text{Cr}_{0.5}\text{Mn}_{0.5})\text{O}_3/\text{YSZ}$ | $R_E = 0.88 \Omega \text{cm}^2 @ 800^\circ \text{C}$ | 1.5 for H_2 oxidation | [85] |
| Pd ($0.36\text{--}0.46 \text{ mg cm}^{-2}$) | $(\text{La}_{0.75}\text{Sr}_{0.25})(\text{Cr}_{0.5}\text{Mn}_{0.5})\text{O}_3/\text{YSZ}$ | $R_E = 2.0 \Omega \text{cm}^2 @ 800^\circ \text{C}$ | 4.6 for CH_4 oxidation | [85,87] |
| Pd ($0.36\text{--}0.46 \text{ mg cm}^{-2}$) | $(\text{La}_{0.75}\text{Sr}_{0.25})(\text{Cr}_{0.5}\text{Mn}_{0.5})\text{O}_3/\text{YSZ}$ | $P = 0.111 \text{ W cm}^{-2} @ 800^\circ \text{C}$ | 8 for $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}/\text{air}$ | [85] |
| Pd (0.06 mg cm^{-2}) | $(\text{La}_{0.7}\text{Ca}_{0.3})(\text{Cr}_{0.5}\text{Mn}_{0.5})\text{O}_3/\text{GDC}$ | $R_E = 1.1 \Omega \text{cm}^2 @ 750^\circ \text{C}$ | 6.5 for CH_4 oxidation | [88] |
| Pd (0.11 mg cm^{-2}) | Ni/GDC | $R_E = 0.6 \Omega \text{cm}^2 @ 700^\circ \text{C}$ | ~ 5 for H_2 oxidation | [91] |
| Pd (5 wt%) + CeO_2 (5 wt%) | $(\text{La}_{0.75}\text{Sr}_{0.25})(\text{Cr}_{0.5}\text{Mn}_{0.5})\text{O}_3/\text{YSZ}$ | $P = 0.52 \text{ W cm}^{-2} @ 700^\circ \text{C}$ | ~ 5 for H_2/air | [95] |
| Oxygen electrode of SOEC | | | | |
| GDC (2 mg cm^{-2}) | LSM | $R_E = 0.15 \Omega \text{cm}^2 @ 800^\circ \text{C}^b$ | 148 for O_2 oxidation | [100] |
| LSM | YSZ | $R_E = 0.48 \Omega \text{cm}^2 @ 800^\circ \text{C}^c$ | 2.3 with 50% AH ^c | [101] |

a Calculated based on performance for LSM/YSZ composite cathodes.

b Measured after polarized at 1000 mA cm^{-2} , 800°C for 22 h.

c Measured on a SOEC with 50% absolute humidity (AH) and based on performance for LSM/YSZ oxygen electrode.

significantly lower than that of the LSM ($9\text{--}54\ \Omega\text{cm}^2$ at $700\ ^\circ\text{C}$ [13,106]), LSM/YSZ ($2.5\ \Omega\text{cm}^2$ at $700\ ^\circ\text{C}$ [12]) and LSM/GDC ($1.1\ \Omega\text{cm}^2$ at $700\ ^\circ\text{C}$ [13]) composite cathodes.

The most distinctive advantage of the nano-structured approach is the flexibility in the selection and combination of highly active catalytic materials with structurally stable and highly electronic or ionic conducting scaffold to meet stringent requirements of anodes and cathodes of SOFCs. For example, the high performance SOFC cathodes required for anode-supported YSZ electrolyte cells can be fulfilled by the combination of highly active MIEC but thermally incompatible materials such as BSCF with the structurally stable and highly conductive LSM scaffold. In such nano-structured BSCF-infiltrated LSM composite cathode, the uniformly distributed BSCF nanoparticles significantly enhance the electrochemical activity, while the LSM scaffold provides an effective electron transfer path, TEC matching and thermal stability with the YSZ electrolyte. The interfacial reaction between the infiltrated BSCF and YSZ is minimized due to the low phase formation temperature of BSCF. Fig. 6 shows the performance of anode-supported YSZ film cells with pure LSM and $1.1\ \text{mg cm}^{-2}$ BSCF-infiltrated LSM cathodes at different temperatures under H_2/air [89]. The cell with thin YSZ electrolyte film and the nano-structured BSCF-LSM cathode

exhibits maximum power densities of 1.21 and $0.32\ \text{W cm}^{-2}$ at $800\ ^\circ\text{C}$ and $650\ ^\circ\text{C}$, respectively, substantially higher than 0.51 and $0.08\ \text{W cm}^{-2}$ for the cells with the pure LSM cathode under identical conditions. Highly active cobaltite based perovskite cathodes such as $\text{Sm}_{0.5}\text{Sr}_{0.5}\text{CoO}_{3-\delta}$ (SSC), $\text{La}_{0.6}\text{Sr}_{0.4}\text{CoO}_{3-\delta}$ (LSC), $\text{La}_{0.8}\text{Sr}_{0.2}\text{FeO}_3$ (LSF), and LSCF, and K_2NiF_4 -type materials such as $\text{La}_{n+1}\text{Ni}_n\text{O}_{3n+1}$ are also developed with YSZ electrolytes via infiltration route using porous SDC or YSZ scaffolds [57,86,107–111].

The promotion effect of infiltrated nanoparticles on the performance of nano-structured anodes is equally impressive. Replacing Ni with carbon-inert Cu to form Cu/YSZ cermet anodes [111] and infiltration of porous YSZ scaffold with copper, nickel and cerium nitrate solution [112] were found to improve significantly the resistance toward carbon deposition. Infiltration of catalytic active nanoparticles can substantially enhance the electrocatalytic activity of Ni-based cermet anodes as well as ceramic oxide anodes such as LSCM in H_2 and methane and suppress carbon deposition [55,83,84,113]. In the case of LSCM anodes, for example, the conductivity of LSCM is low, $\sim 29\ \text{S cm}^{-1}$ in air and $0.22\ \text{S cm}^{-1}$ in $10\%\ \text{H}_2$ at $800\ ^\circ\text{C}$ [48]. Our studies on LSCM-based electrodes show that the electrocatalytic activity of LSCM is also low in methane [114]. Introduction of GDC or Pd nanoparticles by infiltration substantially enhances the activity of LSCM anodes for the electrochemical oxidation reaction in H_2 , CH_4 and $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}$ fuels [83,85]. Fig. 7 shows the V–I curves and cell performance of LSCM, LSCM/YSZ, GDC- or Pd-infiltrated LSCM and LSCM/YSZ composite anodes. Pure LSCM and LSCM/YSZ composites have very poor electrocatalytic activities for the oxidation reaction of H_2 , CH_4 and $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}$. With the infiltration of GDC or Pd nanoparticles, the electrocatalytic activity of the LSCM and LSCM/YSZ anodes is increased remarkably. GDC nanoparticles are equally effective for the promotion of the oxidation reaction of H_2 and CH_4 (Fig. 7a and b). However, the effect of the infiltrated Pd nanoparticles is most pronounced for the reaction in methane and ethanol. The maximum power output is $24\ \text{mW cm}^{-2}$ for the cell with a pure LSCM/YSZ composite anode in CH_4 and is almost doubled to $45\ \text{mW cm}^{-2}$ with the infiltration of $\sim 0.4\ \text{mg cm}^{-2}$ Pd nanoparticles (Fig. 7c). For the ethanol oxidation reaction on a pure LSCM/YSZ anode, the cell power density is only $14\ \text{mW cm}^{-2}$. After the infiltration of $\sim 0.4\ \text{mg cm}^{-2}$ Pd nanoparticles, the power density reaches $111\ \text{mW cm}^{-2}$, an 8-times increase in power output (Fig. 7d).

High temperature solid oxide electrolysis cell (SOEC) has a great potential for efficient and economic production of hydrogen fuel as it involves less electrical energy consumption compared to conventional low temperature water electrolysis [115]. SOEC is a reversely operated SOFC in which steam is fed to the cathode side of the SOEC where it is reduced to hydrogen. At the anode side, the oxygen ions immigrated from the electrolyte are oxidized to oxygen gas. The materials and fabrication technologies that are used for SOFCs can be directly applicable for SOECs. LSM is so far the most commonly used anode or oxygen electrode for SOECs. As shown recently by Elangovan et al. [116] one of the major problems for the long-term stability of the SOEC stacks is the degradation of the LSM-based electrodes due to the high oxygen partial pressure generated at the LSM/YSZ interface

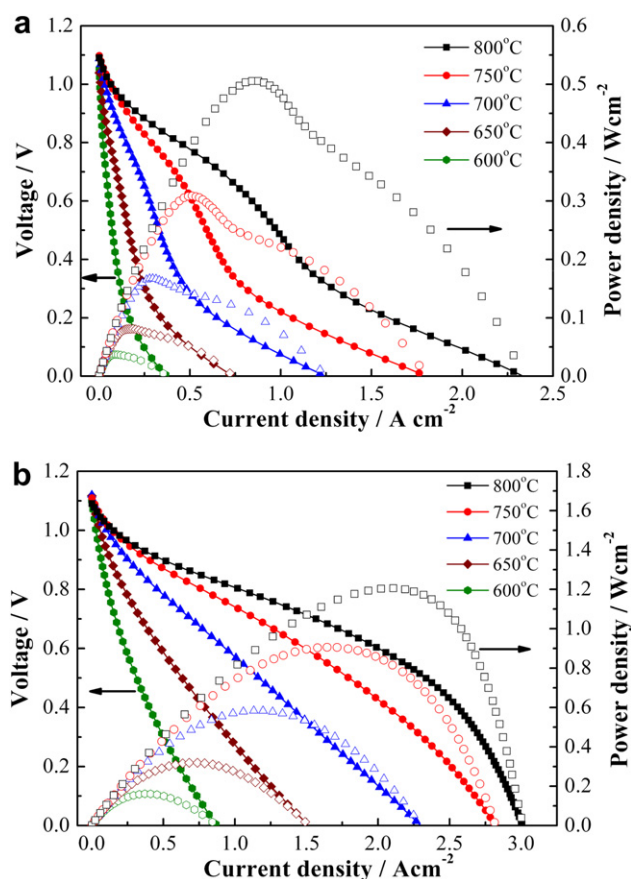


Fig. 6 – Performance of the Ni/YSZ anode-supported YSZ electrolyte film cells with (a) pure LSM cathode and (b) $1.1\ \text{mg cm}^{-2}$ BSCF-infiltrated LSM composite cathode at different temperatures in H_2/air . H_2 flow rate: $200\ \text{mL min}^{-1}$; oxidant: stationary air [89].

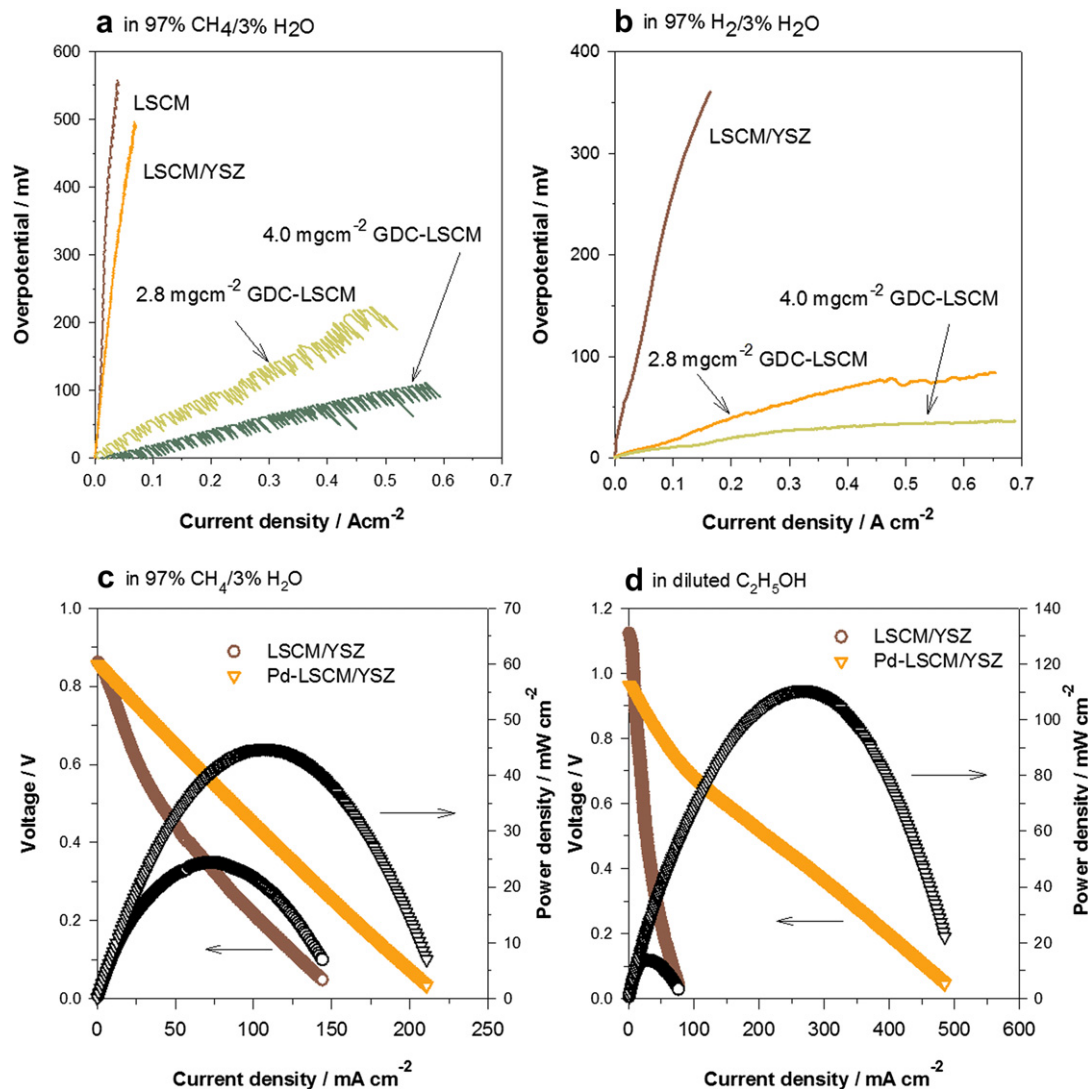


Fig. 7 – (a,b) Overpotential – current curves of LSCM, LSCM/YSZ and GDC-infiltrated LSCM anodes at 800 °C in wet CH₄ and H₂ and (c,d) performance of cells with and without ~0.4 mg cm⁻² Pd-infiltrated LSCM/YSZ anodes at 800 °C in CH₄ and C₂H₅OH. The YSZ electrolyte thickness was 1 mm [83,85].

which causes the delamination of the oxygen electrodes. Recent study on the nano-structured GDC-infiltrated LSM oxygen electrodes at 800 °C showed that the introduction of the GDC nanoparticles phase not only leads to the enhanced electrocatalytic activities of the LSM oxygen electrode but also effectively inhibits the shrinkage and delamination of the LSM oxygen electrode under high anodic current polarization, significantly enhancing the stability and durability of the oxygen electrodes [100]. Nano-structured LSM-infiltrated YSZ oxygen electrodes also show significantly better performance as compared to conventional LSM/YSZ composite oxygen electrodes of SOECs [101].

3.3. Microstructure of nano-structured electrodes

The remarkable promotion effect of the nano-structured electrodes on the performance of anodes and cathodes of SOFCs is a direct result of the formation and uniform

deposition of nano-sized and catalytically active phases on the surface of porous electrode or electrolyte scaffolds. Fig. 8 shows typical microstructures of selected nano-structured cathodes [117,118]. The GDC nanoparticles phase is formed after heat-treatment at 800 °C and the particle size is in the range of ~50 nm, which is much smaller than 1000–1500 nm of the LSM grains of the pre-sintered LSM electrode scaffold (Fig. 8a). LSM can also be infiltrated into pre-sintered YSZ electrolyte scaffold to form nano-structured LSM + YSZ composite cathodes (Fig. 8b). The infiltrated LSM phase is characterized by the formation of continuous LSM nanoparticles on the surface of YSZ grains. The formation of continuous Pd nanoparticles on the YSZ grain surface via simple palladium nitrate solution infiltration process is clearly demonstrated by the SEM and high resolution TEM pictures of a Pd-infiltrated YSZ cathode (Fig. 8c and d). The Pd nanoparticles are well interconnected. However, infiltrated Pd intends to form discrete nanoparticles on the surface of the

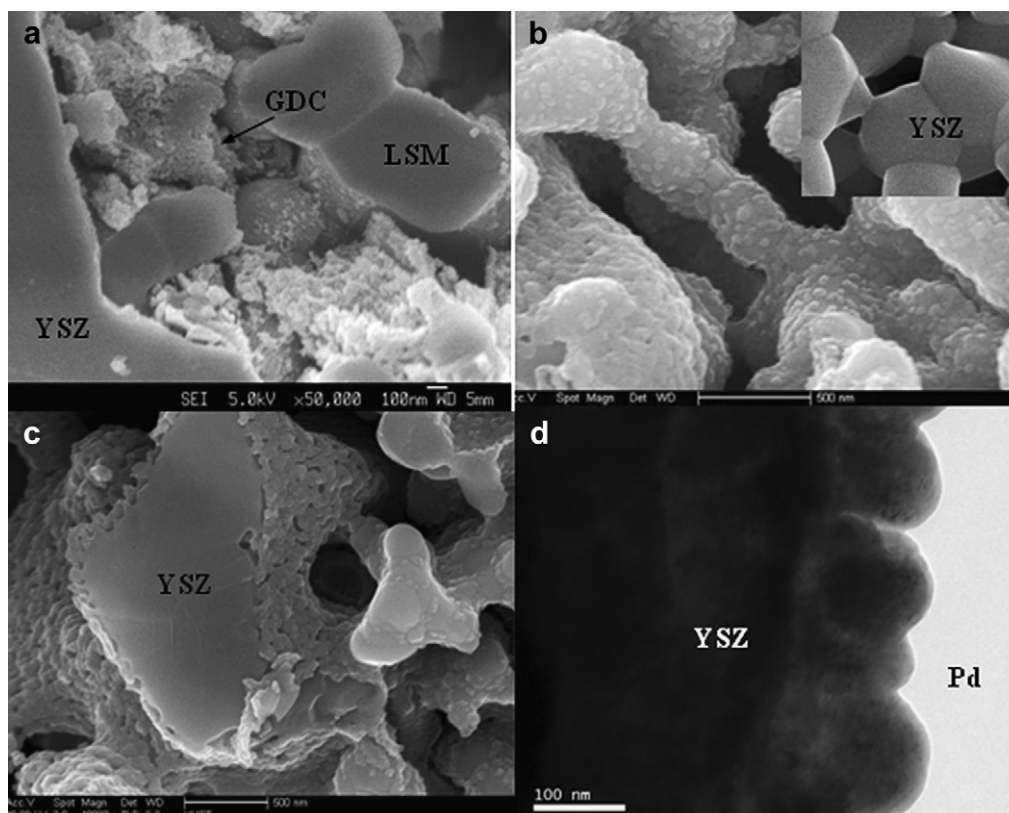


Fig. 8 – SEM micrographs of (a) GDC-infiltrated LSM, (b) LSM-infiltrated YSZ, (c) Pd-infiltrated YSZ, and (d) high resolution TEM of (c) [117,118]. The inset in (b) is the YSZ scaffold before infiltration.

anodes such as LSCM/YSZ and Ni/GDC under reducing environment [87,91,119].

One of the most important conclusions from the observed formation of continuous nanoparticles layers on highly porous YSZ scaffold (Fig. 8b and c) is that the resulting structure is not entirely random. Such characteristic is particularly important to achieve sufficient conductivity on the dominant ionic electrolyte scaffold structure using perovskite loadings below the normal percolation threshold of 30 vol% [50]. It has been shown that the conductivity of the infiltrated LSM + YSZ composite cathodes increases at very low LSM loading and threshold for the reasonable conductivity is below 20 vol%, significantly lower than the minimum value of 30 vol% based on the percolation theory for conventional LSM/YSZ composites [120]. The advantage of the electrolyte scaffold in the development of nano-structured electrodes is the better mechanical strength of the porous scaffold as compared to that of the electrode scaffold.

The intrinsic relationship between the microstructure of the nano-structured electrodes and the performance is further demonstrated in Fig. 9 [117]. The anode-supported cell with infiltrated nano-structured LSM-YSZ cathode (electrode II) achieved a power density of 0.83 W cm^{-2} at 750°C in H_2/air , more than 4 times higher than that on similar cells with conventional LSM-YSZ composite cathode (electrode I). With the infiltration of Pd to conventional LSM-YSZ composite cathode (electrode III), the cell performance was enhanced substantially to 1.42 W cm^{-2} . Though the microstructure of LSM-infiltrated YSZ (LSM + YSZ) and Pd-

infiltrated LSM-YSZ (Pd + LSM-YSZ) composite electrodes appears similar (Fig. 9b), the reaction paths on the electrode II and III are in fact very different. For electrode II, YSZ scaffold only provides the path for the oxygen ion conductivity and infiltrated LSM nanoparticles on YSZ surface provides the TPB for the O_2 reduction. In the case of nano-structured Pd + LSM-YSZ (electrode III), the LSM-YSZ scaffold is both electronic and ionic conductive and the deposition of Pd nanoparticles layers on the surface of the LSM-YSZ scaffold not only provides the additional reaction sites but also significantly accelerate the reaction rate of the dissociation and diffusion of oxygen species (Fig. 9a). This explains the very high performance of the cell with nano-structured Pd + LSM-YSZ composite cathodes.

Fig. 10 is the typical microstructures of selected nano-structured anodes [85,113]. Infiltrated GDC forms flow-like nanoparticle agglomerates on the Ni grain surface (Fig. 10a) while on the LSCM grain surface, a continuous GDC nanoparticle is formed with some agglomeration (Fig. 10b). The formation of agglomerates may be related to the poor wettability between the infiltration solution and the pre-sintered scaffold structures, as shown by Lou et al recently [67]. Pd forms discrete nanoparticles on the surface of the LSCM/YSZ composite anodes and initial particle size is in the range of 10–20 nm (Fig. 10c). After polarization test in wet CH_4 at 800°C , Pd nanoparticles aggregate, forming relatively large Pd nanoparticles of 70–90 nm (Fig. 10d) [87]. This shows that the stability of the impregnated metal nanoparticles is still a major concern due to the inevitable agglomeration and grain

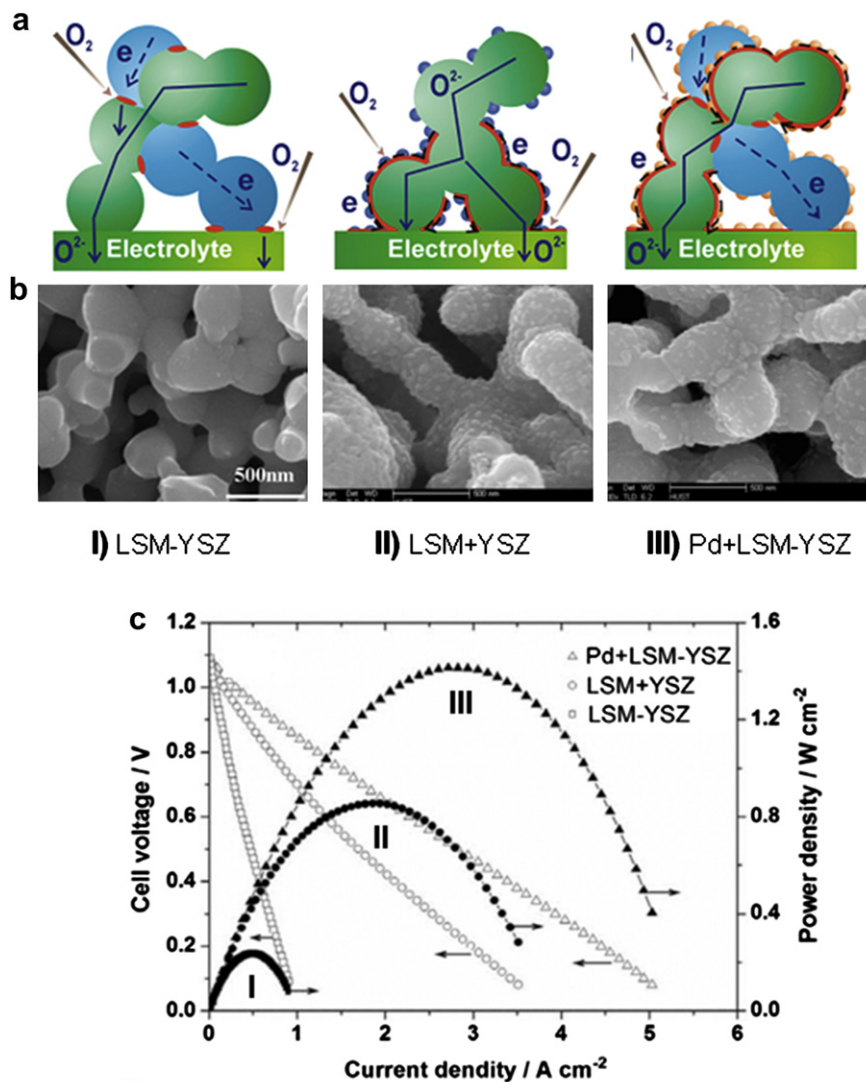


Fig. 9 – Demonstration of the performance and microstructure of the nano-structure electrodes. a) Schematic illustrations of electrodes I, II, and III, showing the paths of transport for electrons and oxygen ions and reaction sites for the O_2 reduction reaction; **b)** SEM micrographs of electrodes I, II, and III; **c)** Power output of anode-supported cells with electrode types I, II, and II, measured at 750 °C in H_2 /air. Electrodes: (I) standard LSM-YSZ composite cathode by mechanical mixing of LSM and YSZ phases; (II) nano-structured LSM-infiltrated YSZ (LSM + YSZ) composite cathode; and (III) nano-structured Pd-infiltrated LSM-YSZ (Pd + LSM-YSZ) composite cathode [117].

growth of the nanoparticles under the high operation temperature of SOFCs.

The microstructure such as porosity and surface area of the porous scaffold also play an important role in the microstructure development and optimization of infiltrated electrodes. Shah and Barnett studied the relationship between the performance of LSCF infiltrated GDC composite cathode and the sintering temperature of GDC scaffold [96]. Increasing the GDC scaffold sintering temperature from 1000 to 1100 °C effectively decreases ASR due to the improved interconnectivity between GDC particles, however, increasing the sintering temperature above 1300 °C substantially increases ASR, most likely due to the decreased porosity. Organic or polymeric pore formers were used to control the scaffold pore size and the results show the impact of the pore size on the

ASR of the infiltrated LSC-YSZ cathodes [107] and infiltrated Cu-ceria-YSZ anodes [121]. Other methods to control the microstructure of scaffold are also effective. For example, Armstrong and Rich fabricated YSZ scaffold from NiO-YSZ composites where the NiO was removed by reduction and subsequent acid leaching [97]. The advantage of this approach is to allow high sintering temperature and at the same time to retain the high surface area of the scaffold. Recent results by Küngas et al showed that treatment of YSZ scaffold with hydrofluoric acid (HF) can significantly increase the surface of YSZ scaffold and improve the performance of the infiltrated LSF cathodes [122].

Kim et al studied the effect of infiltrated Pd on the $(La_{0.75}Sr_{0.25})(Cr_{0.5}Mn_{0.5})O_3$ (LSCM)/YSZ composite anodes for the H_2 oxidation reaction [95]. LSCM/YSZ composite anodes

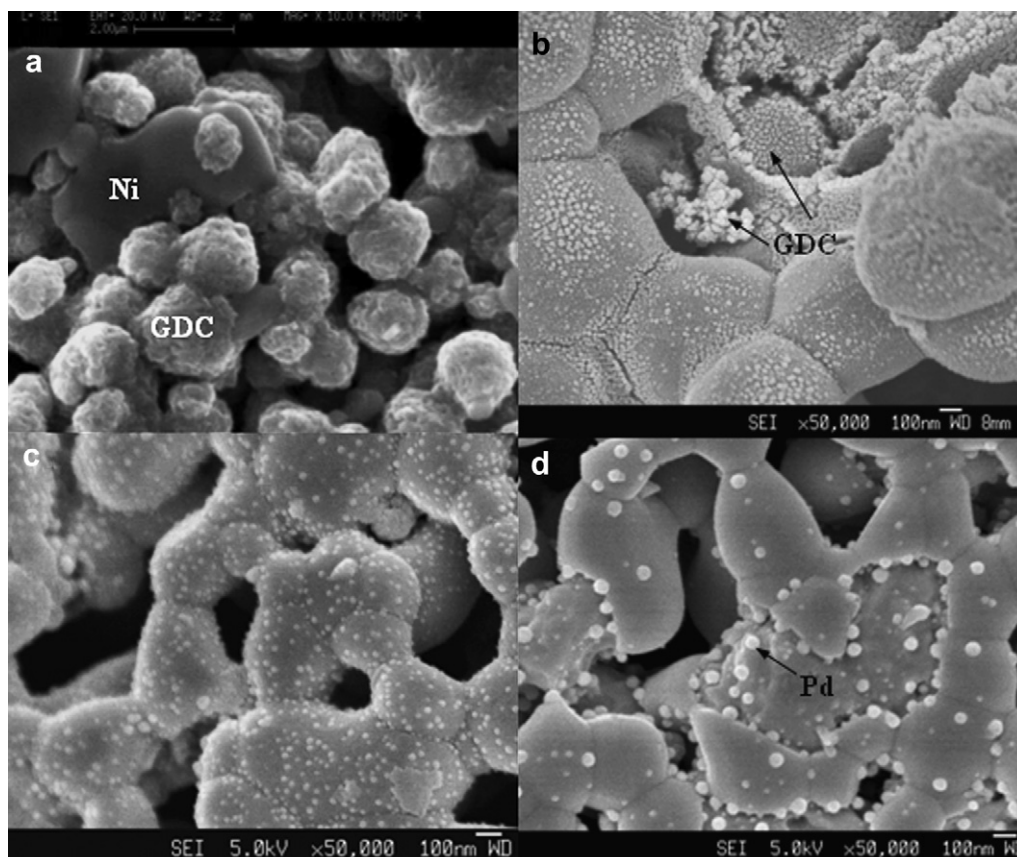


Fig. 10 – SEM micrographs of (a) GDC-infiltrated Ni, (b) GDC-infiltrated LSCM, (c) Pd-infiltrated LSCM/YSZ, and (d) Pd-infiltrated LSCM/YSZ anodes after polarization test [85,113].

were prepared by infiltrating YSZ scaffold with LSCM aqueous nitrate solutions, followed by sintering at 1200 °C. For pure LSCM/YSZ composite anodes, the maximum power density was 105 mW cm⁻² in H₂ at 700 °C and increased significantly to 500 mW cm⁻² with infiltration of ~0.5 wt% Pd. We also studied the effect of infiltrated Pd on the LSCM/YSZ composite anodes prepared by conventional method of sintering the mixed LSCM and YSZ oxides [85]. In the case of H₂, infiltration of ~0.46 wt% Pd had no significant effect on the cell performance. Fig. 11 compares the cell performance of the infiltrated Pd on infiltrated LSCM/YSZ anodes and on conventional LSCM/YSZ anodes [85,95]. The apparently significant differences in the promotion effect of infiltrated Pd on the LSCM/YSZ composite anodes for the H₂ oxidation may be related to the significant differences in the morphology of the scaffold of LSCM/YSZ composites prepared by infiltration and by conventional methods. As shown in Fig. 11c, after reduction in H₂, the infiltrated LSCM film is broken into very small particles and is highly porous [95]. This may imply that Pd may be able to infiltrate to the interface between the YSZ and LSCM, promoting the electrochemical reaction at the interface regions. In the case of conventional LSCM/YSZ composites, infiltrated Pd intends to form isolated nanoparticles on the surface of the LSCM or YSZ grains (see Fig. 10d). Thus, the morphology and microstructure of scaffold could also affect the distribution and thus the catalytic activity of the infiltrated nanoparticles.

4. Understanding the microstructural and catalytic effects of infiltrated nanoparticles

The peculiar microstructure of infiltrated nano-structured electrodes as shown in Figs. 4, 8 and 10 suggests the significantly enlarged TPBs for the electrode reactions. Zhu et al carried out a modeling study on the enhancement of TPB of nano-structured electrodes by infiltration [123]. The model is based on the random packing of sphere particles and electronic or ionic conducting scaffold coated with a continuous nanoparticle layer, see Fig. 12 [123]. The results predict the substantial increase in the TPB length, e.g., 6.2 and 14.6 times higher as compared to conventional mixed composites when the infiltrated nanoparticle size is 50 and 20 nm, respectively (assuming the particle size of conventional composite phase is 1 μm). The finite element calculation based on a model structure consisted of micrometer-scale columns and nano-scale branches of ionically conducting materials also shows that the increase in the surface area of the infiltrated mixed conductor could result in a factor of 10 polarization resistance decrease [124]. Based on a simple model, Shah et al predicted the apparent saturation in performance enhancement at higher infiltrate loading most likely due to the dominated ionic transport limitation at the scaffold [125].

As shown in Table 1, the promotion factor varies significantly for nano-structured cathodes and anodes, 2.3–78 for

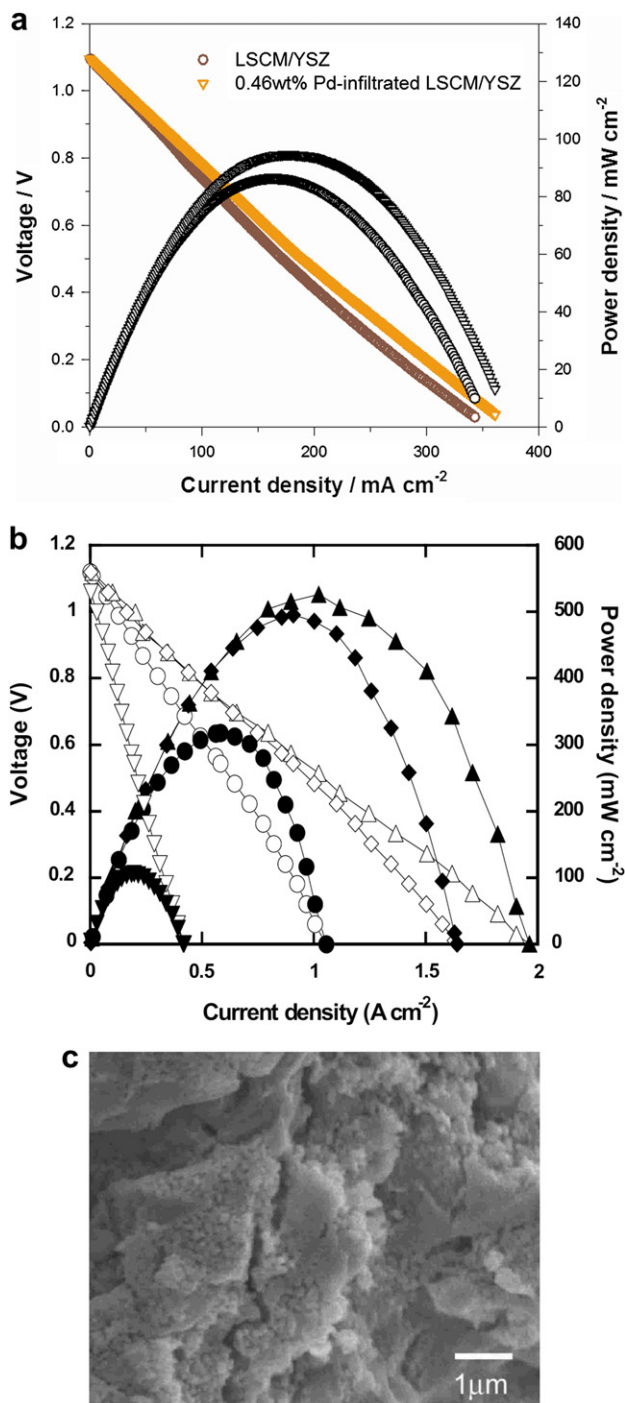


Fig. 11 – Cell performance in humidified H₂ (3% H₂O) of (a) conventional LSCM/YSZ composite anodes with and without Pd infiltration at 800 °C and the infiltrated Pd loading was ~0.46 wt% [85]; (b) infiltrated LSCM/YSZ composite anodes at 700 °C, where (▽) pure LSCM/YSZ anodes, (O) with 5 wt% ceria, (◇) with 0.5 wt% Pd, and (Δ) with 5 wt% ceria and 0.5 wt% Pd; and (c) SEM micrograph of an infiltrated LSCM/YSZ composite anodes after reduced in humidified H₂ at 800 °C for 4 h [95].

the O₂ reduction reactions, 1.6–25 for the H₂ oxidation reaction and 4.6–26 for the CH₄ oxidation reaction. The wide variations of the promotion factors are clearly due to the significant differences in the microstructure, electronic and

ionic properties of the scaffold, and to the distribution, loading and catalytic activities of the infiltrated nanoparticles. The observed significant promotion effect of the nano-structured electrodes with discretely distributed nanoparticles (i.e., nanoparticles are not interconnected) indicates that there must be significant catalytic effects of the infiltrated nanoparticles on the electrochemical performance of the electrodes in addition to the obviously enhanced TPB. This is particularly true that in the case of metallic nanoparticles (e.g., Pd), the amounts of metallic nanoparticles required to provide significant enhancement in electrode performance are so small that the effect must be catalytic.

Early studies on the effect of infiltrated GDC nanoparticles on the performance and electrode behavior of the LSM cathode show that the promotion effect of infiltrated GDC is far more pronounced on the electrode process at low frequencies as compared to that at high frequencies [81]. The activation energy of the electrode process at high frequencies, σ_H for O₂ reduction on the GDC-infiltrated LSM is ~100 kJ mol⁻¹, similar to that for the reaction on pure LSM [126]. On the other hand, the activation energy of the electrode process associated with low frequency arc, σ_L for the reaction on the GDC-infiltrated LSM is 140 kJ mol⁻¹, significantly lower than ~170–200 kJ mol⁻¹ for the reaction on pure LSM [126]. The low activation energy of the reaction on the GDC-impregnated LSM is probably related to the low activation energy of ~74 kJ mol⁻¹ for the ionic conductivity on the infiltrated GDC [127]. This indicates that the infiltration of nano-sized GDC particle phase greatly accelerates the oxygen dissociation and diffusion process in addition to the substantial reduced overall electrode polarization resistance of the nano-structured GDC-LSM cathodes for the O₂ reduction reaction. Similar promotion effect is also reported for the reaction on Y_{0.5}Bi_{1.5}O₃-infiltrated LSM electrodes [98].

The effect of the nano-structured electrodes on the mechanism of the O₂ reduction reaction is also studied by AFM. Fig. 13 is the AFM images of the electrode/YSZ electrolyte interface in contact with the BSCF-impregnated LSM cathodes before and after the polarization test [89]. The convex rings on the YSZ electrolyte surface are the contact interfaces between the LSM grains and YSZ electrolyte formed during the sintering of the LSM electrodes [128]. There is clearly a morphological change and broadening of the convex rings after the polarization at 200 mA cm⁻² and 700 °C for 120 h for the reaction on the pure LSM cathode, as compared to that before the polarization (Fig. 13a and b). The morphological change of the convex rings is the direct indications of the O₂ reduction reactions that take place at the LSM/YSZ interface [128]. In contrast to that of the pure LSM cathode, the morphological changes of the convex rings on the YSZ electrolyte surface in the case of the nano-structured BSCF-infiltrated LSM cathodes before and after polarization treatment are negligible (Fig. 13c and d). This indicates that the O₂ reduction reaction is no longer restricted to the electrode/electrolyte interface region in the case of the nano-structured BSCF-LSM cathodes. Instead, the TPBs for the O₂ reduction reaction extend to the bulk of the electrode.

Among the metallic nanoparticles, infiltrated Pd nanoparticles are the most interesting and widely studied catalysts for the O₂ reduction and in particular the hydrocarbon

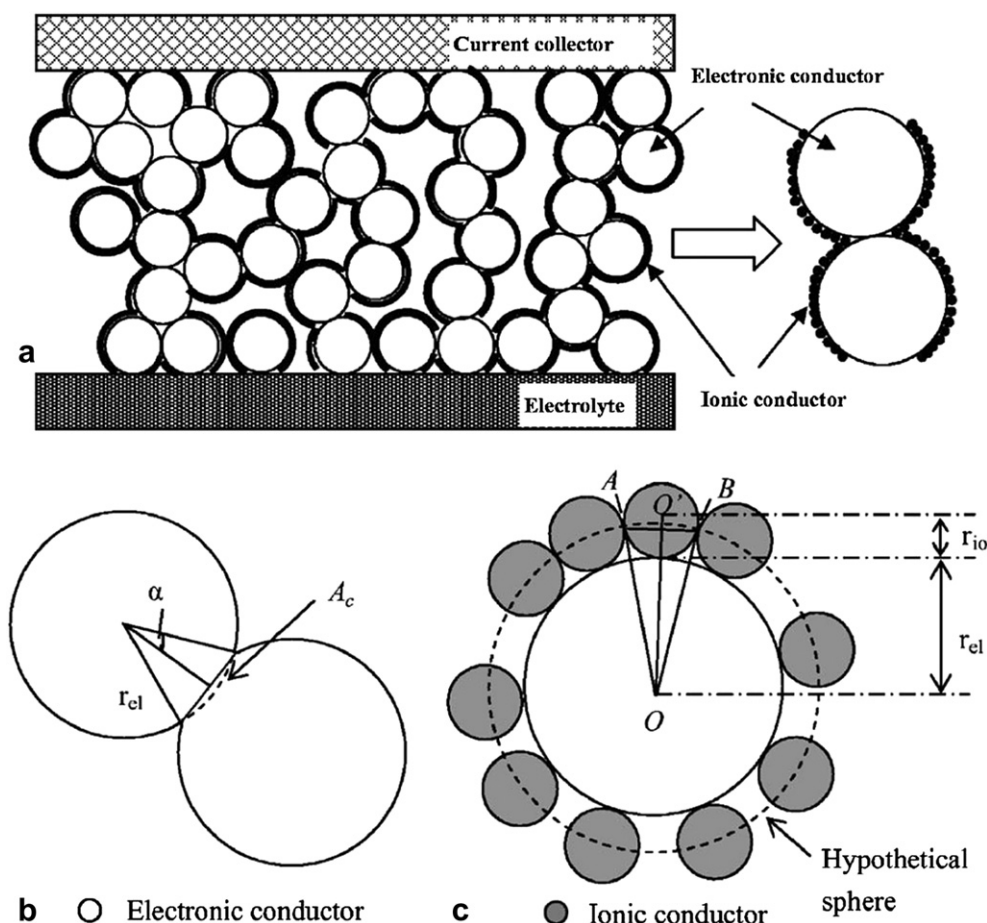


Fig. 12 – Modeling approach based on the random packing of sphere particles and electronic or ionic conducting scaffold coated with a continuous nanoparticle layer [123].

oxidation reactions. The transition between nano-sized PdO and Pd occurs at temperatures of $\sim 800^\circ\text{C}$ [129]. Even in the reducing environment, XPS studies indicate that $\sim 27\%$ of the surface of the infiltrated Pd nanoparticles on Ni/GDC scaffold remains as PdO [91]. The reason could be related to the presence of nickel which could retard the reducibility of palladium, forming PdO on the surface of Pd nanoparticles. Fox et al. [130] studied the reducibility of bimetallic PdCu/CeO₂ catalysts and showed that mutual interaction between Cu, Pd and CeO₂ components affects the reduction process. The presence of copper significantly retards the reducibility of Pd on ceria at high temperatures probably due to the greater oxygen affinity of copper over palladium. The presence of Pd/PdO redox couples appears to play a critical role in the promotion of the H₂ oxidation on the Ni/GDC anodes. Fig. 14 shows the impedance curves of the H₂ oxidation reaction on Ni/GDC cermet anodes as a function of the infiltrated Pd loading in 97% H₂/3% H₂O at 850°C . For the oxidation reaction of H₂ on the pure Ni/GDC anode, the impedance responses are characterized by a large impedance arc with no clear separation in the impedance frequency range studied. The impedance arc for the H₂ oxidation reaction on Ni/GDC anodes decreases with the infiltrated Pd nanoparticles, indicating the significant promotion effect of the Pd on the H₂ oxidation reaction. The most interesting observation is that the

impedance responses of the H₂ oxidation reaction on the Pd-infiltrated Ni/GDC anodes become clearly separated at low and high frequencies. The clear separation of the electrode processes indicates that the promotion effect of infiltrated Pd nanoparticle phase is also preferential toward particular electrode processes taking place on the Ni/GDC anode.

The preferential catalytic effect of infiltrated Pd on the H₂ oxidation reaction on Ni/GDC anodes is also indicated by the dependence of the activation energies of the electrode processes associated with low and high frequency arcs, R_L and R_H on the loading of the infiltrated Pd phase, as shown in Fig. 15 [91]. The activation energy of R_L decreases almost linearly with the increasing Pd loading, while for R_H it is independent of the infiltrated Pd loading. The significant reduction in the activation energy for the hydrogen dissociation and diffusion process (i.e., the process associated with the low frequencies, R_L) is most likely due to the accelerated hydrogen and oxygen spillover mechanism over the Pd/PdO redox couple on the Ni/GDC anodes. The observed significant promoting effect of infiltrated Pd nanoparticles on the oxidation reaction of methane and ethanol (see Fig. 7c and d) is most likely related to the high catalytic activity of palladium on the dissociation and activation of methane and ethanol and subsequent gasification and oxidation of carbon and hydrogen species [131]. However, it should be pointed out here

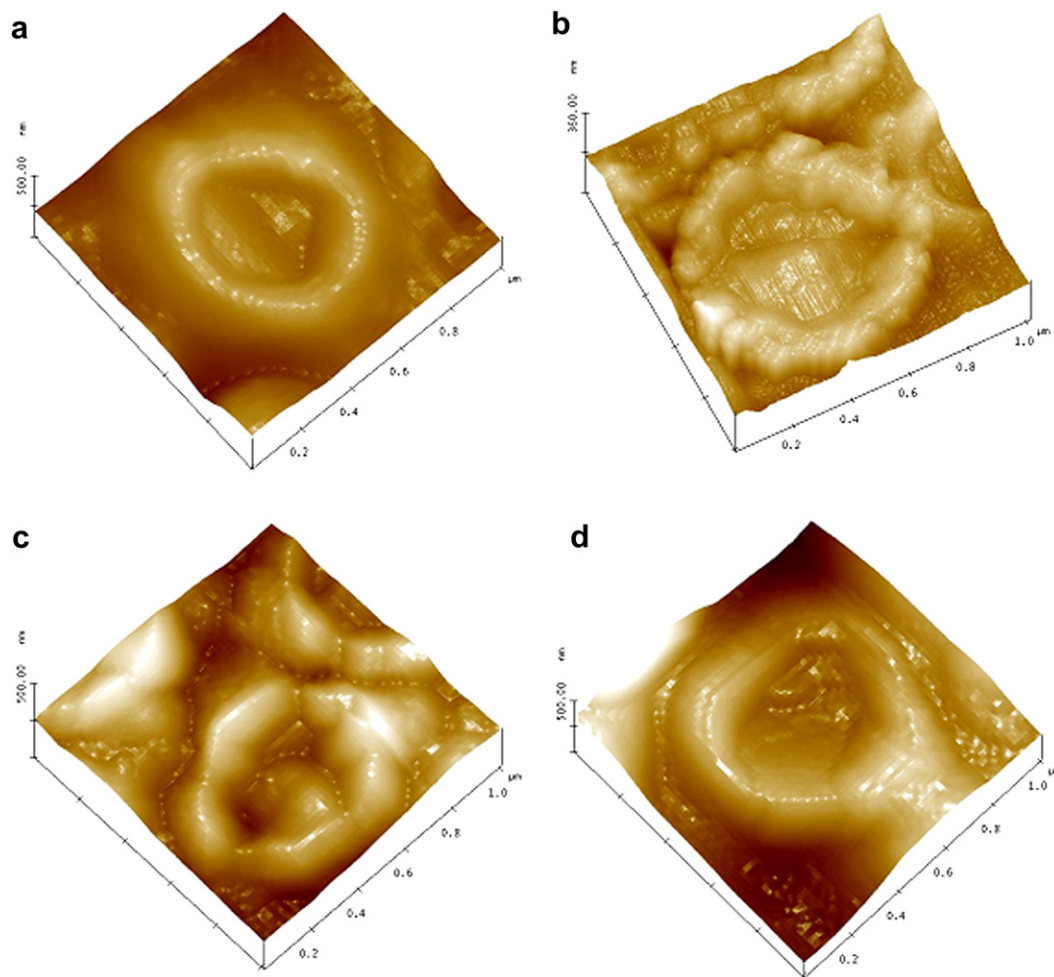


Fig. 13 – AFM micrographs of the YSZ surface in contact with the cathodes: (a) before and (b) after cathodic current passage at 200 mA cm^{-2} , 700°C for 120 h for the pure LSM cathode and (c) before and (d) after cathodic current passage at 200 mA cm^{-2} , 700°C for 120 h for the 1.2 mg cm^{-2} BSCF-infiltrated LSM cathode. Electrode coatings were removed by HCl treatment [89].

that unique catalytic activity of infiltrated nanoparticles is not limited to Pd. Other metals such as infiltrated Rh, Ni and Fe also show high catalytic activity for the anode reactions in SOFCs [95].

Most interesting, infiltrated Pd nanoparticles are very effective for the promotion of the O_2 reduction reactions. Fig. 16 is the impedance responses of the conventional LSM/YSZ, LSM infiltrated YSZ (LSM + YSZ) and Pd-infiltrated LSM/YSZ (Pd + LSM-YSZ) composite cathodes measured at 700°C in air at open circuit [92]. The electrode polarization resistance of nano-structured LSM + YSZ cathode is substantially smaller than that on the conventional LSM/YSZ composite cathodes, clearly due to the substantially increased TPB as the results of the nanoscale engineering of the conventional LSM/YSZ composite (e.g., see Fig. 9). The R_E value of the Pd + LSM/YSZ cathode is $0.18 \Omega\text{cm}^2$ at 700°C , which is comparable to those of the MIEC cathodes like LSCF ($0.32 \Omega\text{cm}^2$ at 700°C [11]) and $\text{Gd}_{0.8}\text{Sr}_{0.2}\text{CoO}_3$ ($0.10 \Omega\text{cm}^2$ at 700°C [132]). The activation energy of the O_2 reduction reaction on nano-structured Pd + LSM/YSZ composite cathodes is 96 kJ mol^{-1} , also significantly lower than 163 kJ mol^{-1} on conventional LSM/YSZ

composite cathodes [92]. This indicates that nano-structure reduces the energy barrier for the O_2 reduction reaction as compared to that on micro-structured conventional electrodes. The observed inductance loop for the O_2 reduction reaction appears to be closely associated with the nano-structured electrodes [56,87,90,92]. Pd was also shown to significantly increase the electrochemical activity of SSC/ $\text{La}_{0.8}\text{Sr}_{0.2}\text{Mg}_{0.15}\text{Co}_{0.05}\text{O}_3$ composite cathodes [133]. Pd may incorporate into perovskite structure such as LSCF, adjusting the surface composition and thus enhancing the catalytic activity of the electrode, as proposed by Serra and Buchkremer [134].

However, there are significant discrepancies of the electrocatalytic roles of the infiltrated nanoparticles. Bidrawn et al studied the effect of the microstructure of the host scaffolds of infiltrated LSM/YSZ and LSF/YSZ electrodes on the infiltrated nanoparticles [135]. The addition of CeO_2 , SDC, Pd, YSZ, CaO and K_2O had little effect on the infiltrated LSF/YSZ and LSM/YSZ pre-sintered at 850°C but showed more or less similar improvement to the electrodes pre-sintered at a much higher temperature of 1100°C . They claim that the enhancement

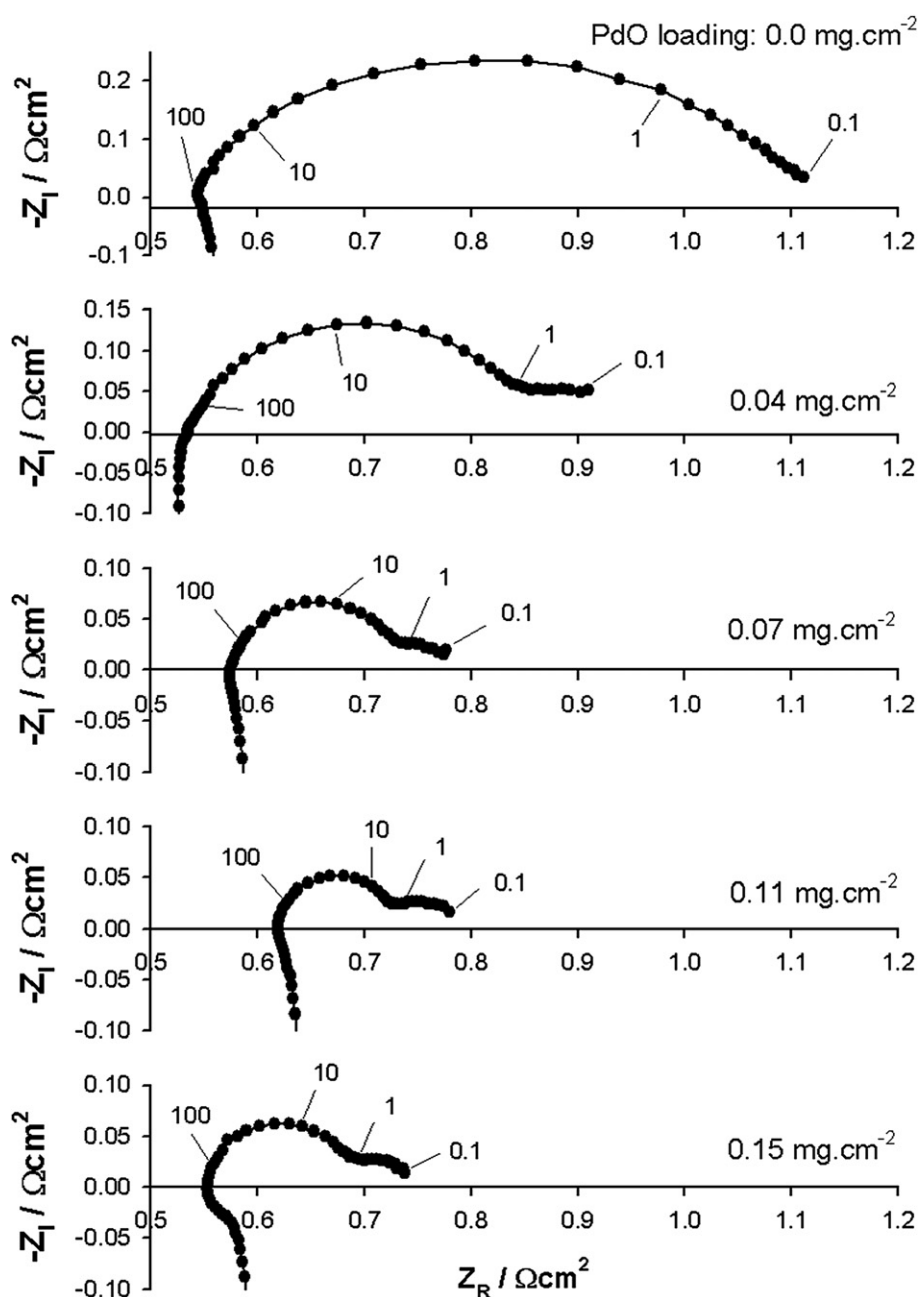


Fig. 14 – Impedance spectra for the H_2 oxidation reaction on Pd-infiltrated Ni/GDC cermet anode as a function of PdO loading in 97% H_2 /3% H_2O at 850 °C. Numbers are frequencies in Hz [91].

associated with addition of a catalyst is simply an artifact of structure [135]. Yamahara et al reported a significant decrease in the electrode polarization resistance of cobalt-infiltrated LSM cathodes [136], while Huang et al showed that addition of 10 wt % CoO_x to an LSM/YSZ composite has basically no effect on the cathode performance [137]. A study by Imanishi et al showed that addition of cobalt oxide by infiltration significantly reduced the polarization overpotentials of the LSM/YSZ composite cathodes at temperatures 600–800 °C [138]. An early study by Haanappel et al showed that LSM cathodes are indistinguishable with or without addition of Pd [139]. On the other hand, work carried out in our laboratory

consistently showed that infiltrated Pd has remarkable promoting effect on the LSM, LSM/YSZ, and LSCF electrodes for the O_2 reduction reaction [90,117].

Though the enhancement of the addition of inert materials such as CaO and K_2O on the performance of LSF/YSZ scaffold as observed by Bidrawn et al. [135] is difficult to comprehend, a study by Hansen et al. [140] showed that infiltration of LSM in general improves the performance of LSM/YSZ cathodes, and adding inert alumina nano-particles had a detrimental effect on the activity of the LSM/YSZ composite electrodes. Lee et al studied the effect of ionic conductive LSC and electrically insulating Sr-doped $\text{La}_2\text{Zr}_2\text{O}_7$ (LSZ) infiltrated SDC/

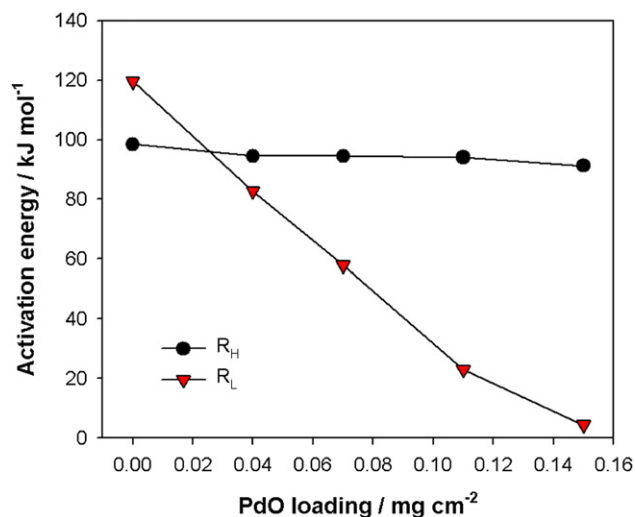


Fig. 15 – Plot of the activation energies of high frequency arc resistance (R_H) and low frequency arc resistance (R_L) as a function of the infiltrated PdO loading for the hydrogen oxidation reaction on Pd-infiltrated Ni/GDC cermet anodes [91].

LSCF cathodes [141]. The LSC-infiltrated SDC/LSCF cathodes improved the performance, while infiltration of LSZ has a negative effect on the performance. The detrimental effect of the infiltrated LSZ increased with the increased infiltrated loading of the insulated LSZ phase. A well-designed study of the LSCF model electrode infiltrated with a thin layer of LSM demonstrated that efficient electrode architecture is critical for the catalytic role of the infiltrated nanoparticles or films, see Fig. 17 [142]. The ASR of the LSM-coated LSCF cathode is larger at OCV but smaller under the cathodic bias. In contrast with the continuous degradation of the cell with LSCF model cathodes, the cell with LSM-infiltrated LSCF cathodes show a time-dependent activation phenomena. The results show that the infiltrated LSM film plays an important catalytic role

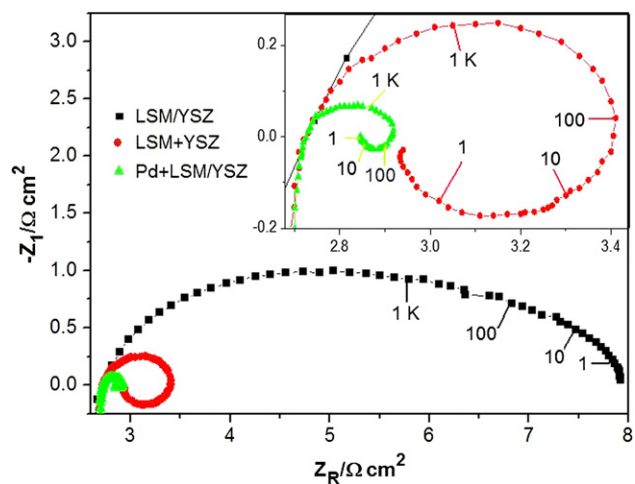


Fig. 16 – Electrochemical impedance spectra of the conventional LSM/YSZ, nano-structured LSM + YSZ and Pd + LSM/YSZ composite cathodes measured at 700 °C in air at open circuit. Numbers are frequencies in Hz [92].

in the promotion of the surface oxygen adsorption and/or dissociation and in the polarization-induced activation process. DFT calculation showed that adsorption energy is lower on LSM than that on LSC and LSF [143]. Evidently, such catalytic role of the infiltrated LSM nanoparticles would only be effective for the thin infiltrated LSM layer. Infiltrated Ag nanoparticle also showed the enhancement on the electrochemical activity of LSCF cathodes [94,144], most likely due to the promotion of silver for the oxygen adsorption, dissociation and diffusion. Hojberg and Sogaard showed that the activation energy for the O_2 reduction on LSM/YSZ composite cathode was decreased from 1.35 eV to 1.19 eV on the LSM/YSZ composite cathodes infiltrated with LSM and SDC [145].

5. Prospect and challenges

Nanoscale engineering approach via low temperature infiltration process has attracted increasingly attention as the most effective and alternative techniques in the development of the nano-structured electrodes to achieve high performance and advantageous microstructure in a way that otherwise would not be possible with high temperature processes for standard SOFCs electrodes. The unique advantages and flexibilities of the nanoscale engineering of the conventional electrode structure via a two-step firing approach have been clearly demonstrated on the wide range nano-structured electrodes systems for SOFCs, SOECs, metal-supported SOFCs and single-chamber SOFCs. Recent results also show that infiltration process can be used for large and practical planar cells with active areas of 81 cm² (100 × 100 mm cells) [146]. The results so far clearly demonstrate that infiltrated metal and metal oxide nanoparticles not only substantially increase the TPBs for the reaction but also play very important catalytic roles in the enhancement of the fuel cell reactions. The catalytic role of infiltrated nanoparticles/films depends on both morphology and microstructure of the infiltrated phase and the nature of the scaffold supports.

One of the most challenging problems associated with a SOFC system over a 3–5 year lifetime is the gradual degradation and deactivation of the cathodes and anodes by contaminants which can be either in the air or fuel streams or from the volatile species of cell components, such as metallic interconnect, sealant and manifold [147]. Thus in practical SOFC systems, the electrodes not only need to be high performance but also need to be very stable and tolerant toward various contaminants including chromium, boron, sulfur, carbon, silica, etc [147]. Nano-structured electrodes already show specific tolerance toward the carbon deposition [83,84] and poisoning of sulfur [148] and chromium [149]. Nano-structured electrodes based on infiltration are not limited to one electrocatalytic active species and in principle, it is possible to develop nano-structured electrodes with high activity and tolerance toward contaminants with infiltration of multiple nanoparticles phases with specific functions and activities.

Consequently, the most significant challenge in the application and development of nano-structured electrodes is the long-term stability of the microstructure and activity of the infiltrated nanoparticles. As the particle size of the infiltrated phase is very fine (20–100 nm), the tendency for sintering and

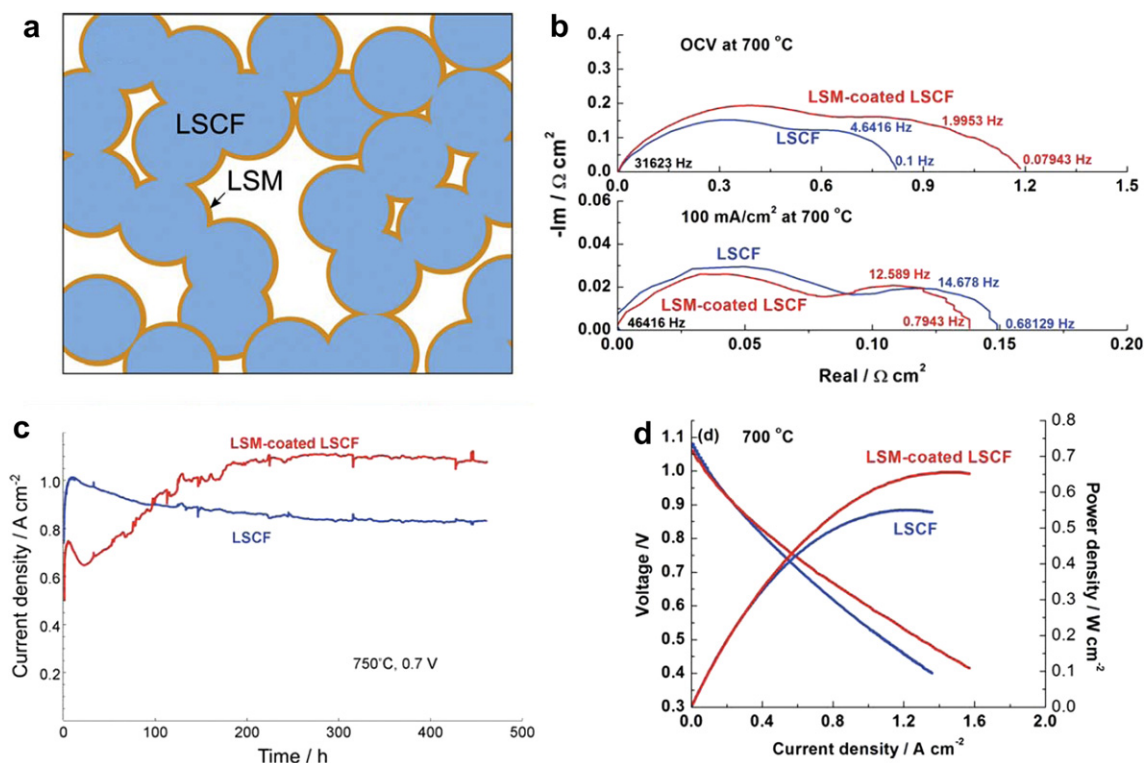


Fig. 17 – (a) Schematic diagram of the LSM-infiltrated LSCF cathode. (b) Impedance spectra of fuel cells with and without infiltration of LSM measured at OCV and at 100 mA cm^{-2} , without Ohmic portion. (c) Current density of two test cells with and without infiltration as a function of time under a constant voltage of 0.7 V and approximate cathodic overpotential of -0.12 V . (d) Cell voltages and power densities as a function of current density for full cells with and without infiltration of LSM after long-term testing [142].

grain growth at operation temperature of SOFCs ($500\text{--}800\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$) would be high due to the large surface energy associated with the nano-sized oxide or metallic phase [150]. Wang et al studied the stability of LSF infiltrated YSZ composite cathodes at $700\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ and the ASR increased linearly with time for the infiltrated composite cathodes calcined at $850\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ [151]. In the case of infiltrated Pd nanoparticles on porous YSZ scaffold, the

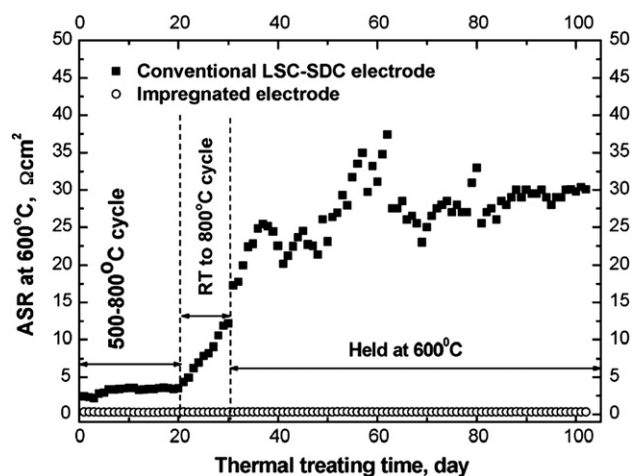


Fig. 18 – ASR at $600\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ for the infiltrated LSC-SDC cathode and conventional LSC-SDC cathodes as a function of thermal treatment [154].

agglomeration and grain growth would result in the formation of continuous and dense Pd films on the YSZ scaffold surface, leading to the increase in the polarization losses due to the blocking of the oxygen diffusion path [152]. Alloying with cobalt, manganese and silver has been found to be effective to increase the thermal stability and to enhance the performance stability of Pd-infiltrated electrodes [152,153]. Kim et al showed recently that highly active and stable Pd catalysts can be obtained by infiltrate Pd@CeO₂ core-shell nanoparticles into YSZ scaffold [119]. The core-shell nanostructure inhibits the growth of Pd nanoparticles. Co-infiltration of mixed ceria and cobalt solutions was also found to suppress the aggregation of Co₃O₄ nanoparticles [138]. Zhao et al showed that excellent thermal cycle durability can be achieved by the nano-structured LSC-Sm_{0.2}Ce_{0.8}O₂ cathodes, see Fig. 18 [93,154]. The high stability of the infiltrated LSC-SDC cathodes is most likely due to the formation of a continuous and stable LSC nanoparticles anchored on the SDC scaffold. The modeling study suggests that the size of the nanoparticles is probably the most important factor to stabilize the nano-structure during the thermal cycle [155]. Nevertheless, the long-term stability of nano-structured electrodes on large and practical cells has not been demonstrated yet. Multiple component infiltration, selective alloying or nano-structured engineering such as core-shell catalysts may provide solutions to enhance the structural stability of the infiltrated nano-structures [119,152]. On the other hand, Ni infiltrated

YSZ composite anodes showed no dimensional changes after one redox cycle, indicating the potential as the redox stable Ni-based anodes of SOFCs [156].

Discrepancies for the promotion effect of infiltrated nanoparticles on the performance and electrode reactions of SOFCs are a significant issue in the development and understanding of the nanoscale and nano-structured electrodes based on infiltration. Part of the discrepancies could be related to differences in the infiltration process such as heat-treatment temperature, surfactant in the infiltration solutions, and the loading and distribution of the infiltrated phase. Another reason could be due to the fact that the catalytic effect of the infiltrated phases depends strongly on the architect or the morphology and microstructure of the infiltrated nanoparticles or films as demonstrated by Liu et al. [142], the nature of the porous scaffold, as observed for the significant different effects of infiltrated Pd on Ni/GDC and LSCM scaffolds [85,88,91,95], and the potential interaction between the scaffold and infiltrated phase [134]. The activation and deactivation phenomena of SOFC cathodes, which depends strongly on the microstructure, polarization and presence of other phases [157–159] and the phase segregation at the electrode/electrolyte interface [160,161] also complicate the mechanism of the promotion effect of infiltrated nanoparticles.

Despite the multiple step nature associated with the infiltration method, nanoscale engineering of electrode structures via infiltration is probably the most effective way to develop highly active and advanced electrode structures for SOFCs. However, much more systematic and extensive studies and long-term tests are needed to fundamentally understand the promotion mechanism of the infiltrated nanoparticles and to fully assess the structural and performance stability of the nanoscale engineered electrodes under SOFCs operation conditions. The modeling simulations can be very useful and important in the fundamental and structural stability assessment of nano-structured electrodes [64,123–125,155,162], particularly if the microstructural as well as electrochemical and catalytic aspects of the infiltrated nanoparticle are incorporated into the models.

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