

CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND AND LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 General Principle of Fuel Cell

Fuel cell is an electrochemical device which directly converts chemical energy into electricity through a redox process. Due to its ease of operation and clean renewable sources make fuel cell becomes the most promising and attractive candidate for a wide variety of power applications ranging form portable and transportation to large-scale stationary power system.

In the operating system, hydrogen gas is electrocatalytically oxidized to hydrogen ions at the anode composed of Pt deposited on a conductive carbon. The protons pass through an electrolyte membrane. The cathode is Pt on carbon in which \dot{O}_2 from air is electrocatalytically reduced which combines with the proton producing H₂O and heat. The electrons flow through the external circuit (Farrauto, 2005) to generate electricity (Figure 2.1). Even though the open circuit voltage or theoretical maximum voltage is E₀ = 1.16 Volt but in the case of a real system, it can generate only about 0.7 volt/cell. Therefore, a number of individual cells are combined to form a fuel cell stack to obtain the voltage up to a reasonable level (Figure 2.2).

Anode:
$$H_2 \rightarrow 2H^+ + 2e^-$$
 (1)

Cathode:
$$\frac{1}{2}O_2 + 2H^+ + 2e^- \rightarrow H_2O$$
 (2)

Overall:
$$H_2 + \frac{1}{2}O_2 \rightarrow H_2O + \text{electrical energy} + \text{heat energy}$$
 (3)



Figure 2.1 Schematic of fuel cell.



Figure 2.2 Types of fuel cell; (a) single cell of fuel cell, and (b) fuel cell stack. (<u>www.ecorete.it</u> and <u>www.machinedesign.com</u>)

2.2 Classification of fuel cell

Currently, fuel cells are devided into five types base on the material of the electrolyte.

1. Polymer Electrolyte Membrane Fuel Cell (PEMFC)

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- 2. Alkaline Fuel Cell (AFC)
- 3. Phosphoric acid Fuel Cell (PAFC)
- 4. Molten Carbonate Fuel Cell (MCFC)
- 5. Solid Oxide Fuel Cell (SOFC)

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These fuel cells operate at different temperatures and each is best suited to particular applications. Comparison of such fuel cells are summarized in Table 1.

Table 2.1 Comparison of different fuel cells

Fuel cell	Electrolyte	Conducting ion	Operating Temperature (°C)	Efficiency (Cell)	Applications	Advantages	Disadvantages
PEM	- Solid organic	H^+	50-80	50-60%	- Electric Utility	- Solid electrolyte reduce	- Low temperature
	polymer	÷			- portable	corrosion &	requires expensive
	- Poly perfluoro				power	management problems	catalysts
	sulfonic acid				- Transportation	- Low temperature	- High sensitivity to
						- Quick start-up	fuel impurities
						- High power density	
AFC	Aqueous solution	OH.	60-90	50-60%	- space	- High performance	- Expensive removal
	of potassium				- underwater	based on cathode	of CO ₂ from fuel
	hydroxide soaked					reaction in alkaline	and air streams
	in matrix					electrolyte	required
PAFC	Liquid phosphoric	H^+	160-220	55%	- Electric Utility	- Up to 85% efficiency in	- Pt catalyst
	acid soaked in				- Transportation	co-generation of	- Low current &
	matrix					electric and heat	power
						- Impure H ₂ as fuel	- Large size/weight

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Table 2.1 Comparison of different fuel cells (continue)

Fuel cell	Electrolyte	Conducting ion	Operating Temperature (°C)	Efficiency (Cell)	Applications	Advantages	Disadvantages
MCFC	Liquid solution of	CO3 ²⁻	620-660	60-65%	- Electric Utility	- High efficiency	- High temperature
	lithium, sodium					- Fuel flexibility	enhances corrosion
	and/or potassium					- Internal reforming	and breakdown of
	carbonates soaked					- High temperature waste	cell components
	in matrix					heat	
SOFC	Solid zirconium	O ²⁻	800-1000	55-65%	- Electric Utility	- High efficiency	- High temperature
	oxide to which a					- Fuel flexibility	enhances
	small amount of					- Internal reforming	breakdown of cell
	yttria is added					- High temperature waste	components
						heat	
						- Solid electrolyte reduce	
						corrosion &	
						management problems	

2.3 Polymer Electrolyte Membrane Fuel Cell (PEMFC)

Among various types of fuel cells, polymer electrolyte membrane fuel cell (PEMFC) is the most attractive fuel cell type for portable electrical devices and automotives due to its simplicity in compact size as well as high power density with fuel flexibility.

Generally, PEMFC consists of two electhodes which are anode and cathode, and a solid polymer membrane, which act as an electrolyte. The polymer electrolyte membrane is sandwiched between two platinum porous electrodes such as carbon paper and mesh. Some single cell assemblies can be mechanically compressed across electrically conductive separators to fabricate electrochemical stacks as shown in Figure 2.3.

Figure 2.3 Components of PEMFC.

2.4 Polymer Electrolyte Membrane (PEM)

The most important part of PEMFC is the polymer membrane which acts as an electrolyte with some unique capabilities. These polymers are electronic insulator, but excellent conductors of hydrogen ions. High proton conductivity, sufficient barrier to mixing of fuel and reactant gases, chemically and mechanically stable in the fuel cell environment are required in PEM. Up to now, membranes have been developed based on two systems; water based and water free system.

2.4.1 Water-based System

Conventional membranes are tetrafluoroethylene with sulfonic acid modified side chain polymers commercially available under the commercial name of Nafion[®](Du Pont), Flemion[®], Aciplex[®] and Dow as shown in Figure 2.4. Each regions provide the different performance; the main chain is the Teflon-like, fluorocarbon backbone whereas the side chain is connected to the molecular backbone. At the side chain, the ion clusters consisting of sulfonic acid ions, SO₃⁻, H⁺ are dopped.

$$-\left(CF_{2} - CF_{2}\right)_{x}\left(CF_{2} - CF\right)_{y}\left(O - CF_{2} - CF\right)_{m}O\left(CF_{2}\right)_{n}SO_{3}H\right)$$

Figure 2.4 Chemical structure of perfluorinated polymer electrolyte membranes (Nafion[®]117; m \ge 1, n=2, x=5-13.5,y=1000, Flemion[®]; m=0, 1, n=1-5, Aciplex[®]; m=0, 3, n=2-5, x=1.5-14, Dow; m=0, n=2, x=3.6-10) (Rikukawa *et al.*, 2000).

In an operating fuel cell, proton transport is believed to occur by two competing mechanisms: the vehicle mechanism and the Grotthuss or hopping mechanism (Kreuer, 1996). The vehicle mechanism occurs by the movement of the hydrated proton aggregate through the aqueous environment, in a process similar to molecular diffusion. The Grotthuss mechanism involves the 'hopping' of a proton along a chain of hydrogen bonded water molecules. The hops are followed by reorientation of the water molecules (Pivovar, 2006) (Figure 2.5).

Figure 2.5 Schematic of proton transport mechanisms; (a) vehicle mechanism,(b) Grotthuss or hopping mechanism (Pivovar, 2006).

As the structure and mechanism of proton transport of Nafion, the cluster of water molecules induces the proton movement through the irregular hydrogen network resulting in an increase in proton conductivity when increasing the temperature (Figure 2.6(a)). At that time, the significant movement of proton conductivity according to thermodynamics can be expected. Moreover, at high operating temperature, we can overcome the poisoning of expensive Pt catalyst with a trace amount of CO impurity in hydrogen fuel. In addition, about half of the theoretical electricity is lost as an heat. Therefore, the membrane that can be used at elevated operating temperature is an ideal. Nafion shows , however, on this viewpoint the performance is poor. When the temperature is increased, the shrinkage of water cluster (Figure 2.6(b)) brings the limitation to nafion. At present, the water free membrane is expected as an alternative choice for PEMFC.

2.4.2 Water-free System

In order to overcome the limitation of nafion, the use of non-aqueous, low volatile solvent to replace water as the proton acceptor within membranes has received much attention. Heterocycles (e.g. imidazole, benzimidazole, pyrazole) which have resonance structure are involved in proton transport of water free system. They form similar hydrogen bond networks to water and transport properties in the liquid state are similar to water for a given temperature relative to the melting point (Kreuer, 2001).

Figure 2.6 Morphologies and the relation between conductivity and temperture of Nafion membrane at; (a) $< 80^{\circ}$ C, and (b) $> 80^{\circ}$ C.

Although the proton transferring mechanism of heterocyclic molecules have remained obscure, the existence of a Grotthuss-type mechanism (structure diffusion) for pure-imidazole has been established experimentally (Munch *et al.*, 2001). The proton movement in an environment of immobilized heterocycles

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has been suspected to Grotthuss-type mechanism involving proton transfer between heterocycles and hydrogen bond breaking and forming process (reorientation) (Herz *et al.*, 2003) (Figure 2.7).

Figure 2.7 Proton transfer process as proposed by Daycock et al.

For the past several years, many approaches have focused on the development of new materials which incorporating the heteocyclic molecule into the main chain, side chain or even blending with polymer.

2.4.2.1 Incorporated Heterocylic Molecule into the Main Chain

Xiao et al. (2005) prepared a series of polybenzimidazoles (PBIs) incorporating main chain pyridine groups. It showed the high proton conductivities of 0.1 to 0.2 S/cm at 160°C (Figure 2.8). The mechanical property measurements showed that the pyridine-based PBI membranes were thermally stable and maintained mechanical integrity even at high PA doping levels. Moreover, preliminary fuel cell tests demonstrated the feasibility of the novel pyriding-based PBI(PPBI) membranes from the PPA process for operating fuel cells at temperatures in excess of 120°C without any external humidification.

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Figure 2.8 Chemical structure and temperature dependence of ionic conductivity of PA-doped 2,5-PPBI membranes.

2.4.2.2 Incorporated Heterocylic Molecule into the Side Chain

Persson *et al.* (2006) synthesized the comb-like copolymers with benzimidazole units tethered to the side chains and found that the benzimidazole-tethered copolymers showed T_g at 50-60°C. This might be a

consequence of the strong hydrogen bond between the benzimidazole units. The proton conductivity exhibited a non-arrhenius behavior and a maximum conductivity of 6.6μ S/cm was reached at 160° C under anhydrous conditions (Figure 2.9).

Figure 2.9 Chemical structure and Arrhenius conductivity plots of the bimiPSAGEx samples.

2.4.2.3 Blended Heterocylic Molecule with Polymer Matrix

Karadedeli *et at.* (2005) prepared anhydrous proton conducting organic eletrolytes by doping of adipic acid (AA) with benzimidazole

(BnIm) at various stoichiometric ratios to form $BnIm_xAA$. These materials exhibit a maximum proton conductivity of 4×10^{-3} S/cm at 130°C (Figure 2.10).

Figure 2.10 Chemical structure and temperature dependence of DC conductivity of the BnIm_xAA blends Arrhenius conductivity plots of the bimiPSAGEx samples: BnIm_{0.5} AA (Δ), BnIm₁ AA (\bullet), BnIm₂ AA (\Box).

2.5 Synthesis of Benzimidazole in Reports

Persson *et al.* (2003) successfully prepared ethylene oxide (EO) oligomers tethering benzimidazole as shown in scheme 2.1. 1,2- Benzenediamine and poly(ethylene glycol) bis(carboxymethyl) ether was dissolved in 4 M HCl, and then the solutions were refluxed under N_2 atmosphere for 48 h. During the reaction, the solutions changed color from red to dark blue. The products were precipitated in tetrahydrofuran, dissolved in methanol, and purified by using a column with basic Al_2O_3 , and finally dried in a vacuum for several days (Scheme 2.1).

Vinodkumar *et al.* (2007) synthesized 2-(4-bromophenyl)-1*H*benzimidazole by the condensation of *O*-phenylenediamine and 4-bromobenzoic acid as shown in Scheme 2.2. The product was carried out from polyphosphoric acid (PPA) at 180°C for 4 h (Scheme 2.2).

Scheme 2.2 Preparation of 2-(4-bromophenyl)-1*H*-benzimidazole (Vinodkumar *et al.*, 2007).