



In Situ XRD Studies of the Hydration Degree of the Polymeric Membrane in a Fuel Cell

V. Rossi Albertini,^{a,z} B. Paci,^a A. Generosi,^b S. Panero,^b M. A. Navarra,^{b,*}
and M. di Michiel^c

^aISM-CNR, Rome 00133, Italy

^bDipartimento di Chimica, Università "La Sapienza," Rome, Italy

^cESRF, Grenoble 38043, France

One factor influencing the performances of polymer electrolyte membrane fuel cells (PEMFCs) is the degree of hydration of their membranes. Until now, only theoretical calculations of the number of water molecules contained in the membranes, few studies of the distribution of water in working fuel cell membranes and *ex situ* measurements, have been carried out. In the present study, we report the first experimental determination of a dehydration process occurring in the polymeric membrane of a fuel cell, observed in real time by *in situ* X-ray diffraction (XRD) of a very high-energy synchrotron radiation.
© 2004 The Electrochemical Society. [DOI: 10.1149/1.1817888] All rights reserved.

Manuscript submitted May 6, 2004; revised manuscript received July 12, 2004. Available electronically November 3, 2004.

The wide applicability of fuel cells, as environmentally friendly and highly efficient systems for the production of electricity, ranges from stationary power plants, to small portable devices for powering cars.^{1,2} Advances have been made recently in hydrogen/oxygen polymer electrolyte membrane fuel cells (PEMFCs), a leading alternative to internal combustion and diesel engines for transportation.³ Nevertheless, there are still several technical issues that must be resolved before fuel cell systems become a commercial reality. One of the main concerns regards water management in PEMFCs, which is essential for maximizing the performance of fuel cell systems.⁴

Typically, a hydrated polymer membrane of perfluorosulfonic acid (Nafion) is used as proton conducting electrolyte, the ionic mobility being connected to the water content in the polymer.^{5,6} Much effort in the engineering of these devices has been devoted to the determination of the most favourable conditions, such as environmental humidity, working temperature, and pressure and stoichiometry of reagents etc., for maximizing the water content of the membrane. Nevertheless, the physical-chemical processes occurring to water inside the electrolyte membrane upon cell working is still under investigation.

In a PEMFC, along with the water present in the conducting membrane, more water is produced at the membrane-catalyst interface in the cathodic side and its transportation through the cell is driven by diffusion, pressure gradients, and electro-osmotic drag. The overall mechanism is further complicated by the heat generated as a consequence of the exothermic reaction at the cathode that induces evaporation.⁷ The need for a deeper understanding of water management upon operating conditions has stimulated a large number of theoretical modelling studies.⁸⁻¹² However, due to the large number of factors that need to be taken into account, the results of the calculation are not stringent and a direct experimental method is preferable.

The determination of water profile across the membrane of a running polymer electrolyte fuel cell has traditionally been carried out with methods involving *in situ* small angle neutron scattering (SANS),¹³ magnetic resonance imaging (MRI),¹⁴ neutron radiography,¹⁵ and *in situ* resistance measurements.¹⁶ Therefore, detecting the amount of water present in the polymer matrix in real working conditions would be extremely important, as this amount may vary, depending on many parameters, such as the pressure exerted on the membrane inside the cell, the electrical current flowing across it, temperature, aging effects etc. One straightforward technique would be *in situ* X-ray diffraction (XRD), applied in a similar way to that used to study the structural evolution of the battery electrodic materials.¹⁷ However, due to geometric constraints, per-

forming *in situ* diffraction measurements in fuel cells is extremely difficult and the primary X-ray beam must cross thick layers of X-ray absorbing materials (on the order of several centimeters thick). Moreover, such materials are numerous, inhomogeneous, and each of them represents a complex composite system. For this reason, the diffraction signal reaching the detector consists of the overlap of the various contributions produced by the single elements crossed by the primary X-ray beam. Furthermore, the diffraction pattern coming from the membrane (Nafion + water) is not easy to identify (and process), also because it does not contain sharp peaks but only smooth long period modulations (amorphous and liquid "haloes").

In the present study, a solution to the above problems is found by applying a method based on the use of the very high energy X-ray beam and the tools available at the ID15 line of the European Synchrotron Radiation Facility (ESRF) in Grenoble. The results obtained represent the first *in situ* determination of the (time-dependent) amount of water contained in a Nafion-like membrane fuel cell.

To evaluate the hydration level of a fuel cell polymer electrolyte, a Nafion membrane N-117 (DuPont) was investigated. The membrane was previously treated in acid to restore it to the original H⁺-form, following DuPont technical information, and then placed between two Toray carbon paper electrode backings (ElectroChem, Inc., estimated surface area 1.13 cm²). The assembly obtained was constricted between two Teflon cylinders of two electrodes cell made in-house (see Fig. 1).

To accomplish the *in situ* diffraction study, the 87 keV X-ray beam available in the ID15 B beamline at the ESRF was utilized. The use of an image plate (model MAR 345) allows the complete collection of the Debye-Scherrer rings in static conditions (no movements being required during data collection), increasing the counting statistics. Moreover, the high-energy radiation used balances the decrease in resolution due to the large size of the irradiated sample area, which is a consequence of the grazing angle geometry adopted to maximize the signal.¹⁸ Indeed, high energy radiation requires longer sample-to-detector distances, since the angular dispersion of the Debye Scherrer cones is smaller, in this way the ideal Fraunhofer conditions (infinite distance limit) are recovered.

Before starting the *in situ* study, a preliminary test is required to find the height at which the beam passes through the membrane only, in a manner that the diffraction pattern does not contain spurious contributions coming from the other components of the cell (see Fig. 2). To do this, a vertical scan of the cell is carried out and the various contributions produced by diffraction on such components, *i.e.*, carbon papers (electrode backings), membrane interfacial regions, can be distinguished. Once the cell is placed in such a way that the membrane can be clearly observed by XRD, a sequence of patterns is collected (see Fig. 3). The analysis of these patterns pro-

* Electrochemical Society Student Member.

^z E-mail: valerio@ism.cnr.it

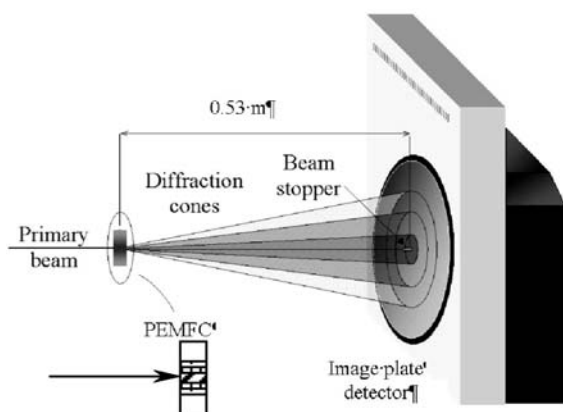


Figure 1. Setup used at the ESRF ID15 beamline. In the inset there is a schematic drawing of the cell and the X-ray beam impinging the Nafion membrane.

vides the information needed in order to follow, in situ, the time evolution of the degree of membrane hydration. In the present case, the evolution consists of the spontaneous dehydration process at room temperature. In fact, the membrane, when exposed at air equilibrates to the ambient relative humidity (and changes in size accordingly).

The main changes in the diffraction pattern are localized between the q -values 0.5 and 5 \AA^{-1} . They correspond with the progressive increase of the main peak height (at 1.1 \AA^{-1}) accompanied by a decrease of the intensity in the $1.5\text{-}2.5 \text{ \AA}^{-1}$ q -range, where the initial secondary maximum gets progressively flatter before finally becoming a minimum.

In Fig. 4, the first (initial (a)) and last (final (b)) patterns of the sequence are shown together with pattern (c), representing a pure water sample and with the result of data processing (d). It can be noticed that the profile of the latter curve overlaps that of the final pattern. This means that, after proper data correction,¹⁹ the pattern of the fully hydrated membrane can be obtained by normalizing a weighted composition of the pattern produced by the fully dehydrated membrane at the end of the process (namely pure Nafion) with the pattern produced by a pure liquid water sample.

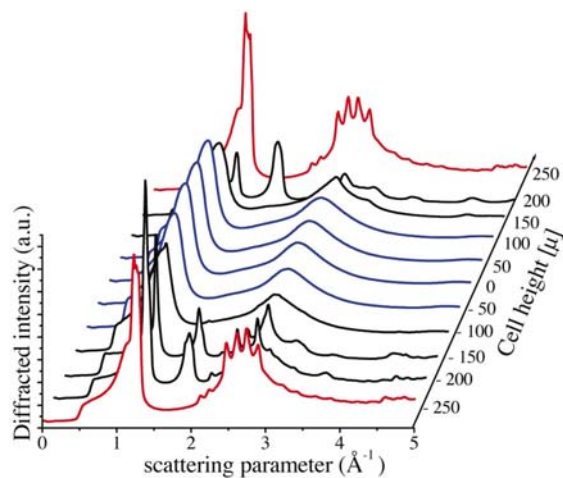


Figure 2. A vertical scan of the cell allows the separation of the various contributions produced by the single elements (carbon paper in red, membrane in blue, interfacial regions in black).

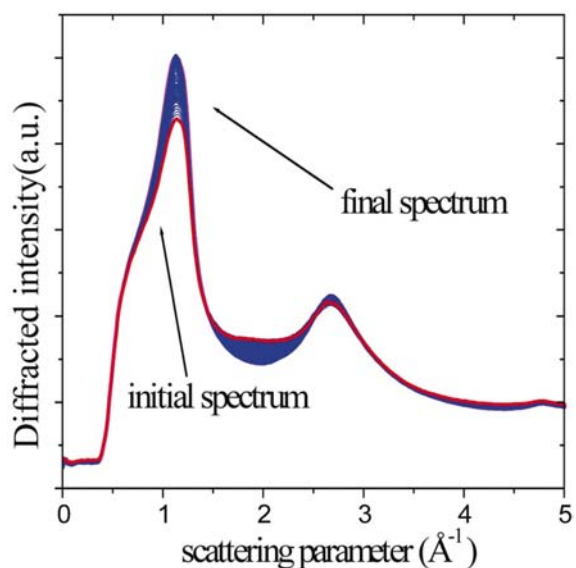


Figure 3. Time resolved measurements of the dehydration process of the cell membrane at room temperature.

This method applied to the first and the last patterns can also be applied to each pattern of the sequence, which represents an intermediate stage of the dehydration process, providing the amount of water contained in the membrane at that stage. The graph in Fig. 5 is obtained by plotting the values of the water content calculated in this way. It describes an exponential decay, as can be seen more clearly in the insert, in which a semi log scale is used. The hydration percentage is reported on the vertical axis, having assumed that the initial water uptake of the fully hydrated Nafion is 38%, according to the data supplied by DuPont.²⁰

The above method is able to detect the relative variation, rather than the absolute values of the water content. However, once the initial amount of water is known, a precise determination of its changes can be obtained. The time constant (*i.e.*, the time at which the water is reduced to $1/e$ of its initial value) of the dehydration process under investigation can be calculated in a straightforward manner by fitting the data in Fig. 5, and is $\tau = (25.5 \pm 0.4) \text{ min}$.

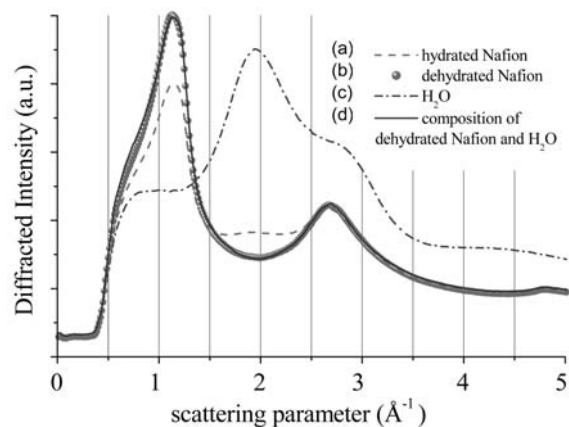


Figure 4. Pattern of the hydrated membrane can be reproduced by composing the pattern of fully dehydrated membrane with that of pure water.

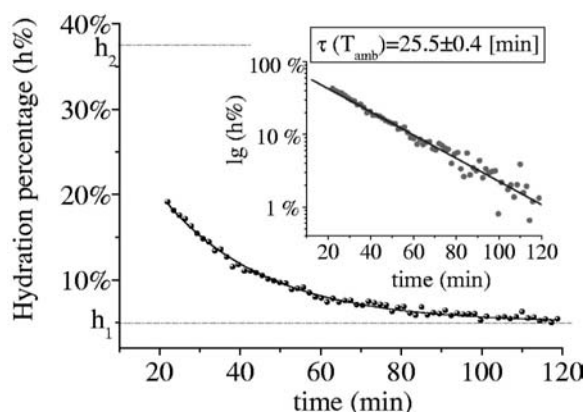


Figure 5. The amount of water present in the membrane at intermediate stages of the dehydration process can be obtained by processing the pattern collected at that stage together with those of the pure Nafion-like membrane and pure water. The hydration degree $h(t)$ can be expressed as $h(t) = (h_2 - h_1)\exp(-t/\tau) + h_1$, where h_2 = full (initial) hydration degree = 38%, h_1 = equilibrium (asymptotical) hydration degree = 5%, and τ = dehydration time constant.

This numerical value cannot be considered to be representative of the general dehydration process, because it depends on many of the characteristics of the system under investigation, such as the membrane thickness, its active surface, temperature, environmental humidity, cell geometry etc. Nevertheless, this is a demonstration of the feasibility of *in situ* measurements to detect the time evolution of the water content in a fuel cell membrane.

Once this test cell is substituted with an operating cell, which is currently under construction, it will be possible to observe the time change of the PEM water content in real working conditions.

In conclusion, we report the first determination of the (time-dependent) amount of water contained in a Nafion membrane of a fuel cell. The method that is utilized is based on the use of the very high energy X-ray beam available at ESRF and on the capability of

distinguishing and, then, extracting and analyzing the diffraction signal coming from the membrane. In this way, the characteristics of the spontaneous dehydration process of a membrane were observed in real time.

The results demonstrate that the proposed technique can be successfully used to measure the degree of hydration of the membrane and, therefore, to correlate it with its transportation properties and with overall cell performances.

Acknowledgments

The authors are grateful to Dr. V. Honkimaky for the (many) fruitful discussions and to A. Casling for his critical reading of the manuscript.

ISM-CNR assisted in meeting the publication costs of this article.

References

1. G. Cacciola, V. Antonucci, and S. Freni, *J. Power Sources*, **100**, 67 (2001).
2. G. J. K. Acres, *J. Power Sources*, **100**, 60 (2001).
3. J. Zieger, *Hydrogen Energy Progr.*, **10**, 1427-1437 (1994).
4. K. Kordesch and G. Simader, in *Fuel Cells and Their Applications*, VCH, Weinheim (1996).
5. T. A. Zawodzinski, C. Derouin, S. Radzinski, R. J. Sherman, V. T. Smith, T. E. Springer, and S. Gottesfeld, *J. Electrochem. Soc.*, **140**, 1041 (1993).
6. X. Ren and S. Gottesfeld, *J. Electrochem. Soc.*, **148**, A87 (2001).
7. J. Larminie and A. Dicks, in *Fuel Cell System Explained*, 2nd ed., J. Wiley & Sons Ltd, London (2003).
8. D. Bernardi, *J. Electrochem. Soc.*, **137**, 3344 (1990).
9. D. Bernardi and M. W. Verbrugge, *AIChE J.*, **137**, 1151 (1991).
10. D. Bernardi and M. W. Verbrugge, *J. Electrochem. Soc.*, **139**, 2477 (1992).
11. T. E. Springer, T. A. Zawodzinski, and S. Gottesfeld, *J. Electrochem. Soc.*, **138**, 2334 (1991).
12. T. E. Springer, M. S. Wilson, and S. Gottesfeld, *J. Electrochem. Soc.*, **140**, 3513 (1993).
13. R. Mosdale, G. Gebel, and M. Pineri, *J. Membr. Sci.*, **118**, 269 (1996).
14. S. Tsushima, K. Teranishi, and S. Hirai, Abstract 974, The Electrochemical Society Meeting Abstracts, Orlando, FL, Oct 12-16, 2003.
15. R. J. Bellows, M. Y. Lin, M. Arif, A. K. Thompson, and D. Jacobson, *J. Electrochem. Soc.*, **146**, 1099 (1999).
16. F. N. Büchi and G. G. Scherer, *J. Electrochem. Soc.*, **148**, A183 (2001).
17. F. Ronci, B. Scrosati, V. Rossi Albertini, and P. Perfetti, *Electrochem. Solid-State Lett.*, **3**, 174 (2000).
18. V. Rossi Albertini, P. Perfetti, F. Ronci, P. Reale, and B. Scrosati, *Appl. Phys. Lett.*, **79**, 27 (2001).
19. R. Caminiti and V. Rossi Albertini, *Int. Rev. Phys. Chem.*, **18**, 263 (1999).
20. <http://www.dupont.com>