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Operando infrared spectroscopy of the fuel cell membrane electrode assembly Nafion–platinum interface

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ABSTRACT

The Nafion–Pt interfaces in membrane electrode assemblies of operating fuel cells were studied by operando infrared spectroscopy. The potential dependence of atop adsorbed CO peak frequencies were measured over the potential range of 0–600 mV (vs. NHE) at 60 °C. Complex Stark tuning of peak frequencies arise from a combination of potential dependent coverage effects, and changes in the extent of back-donation from the metal d-band to the renormalized $2\pi^*$ MO of CO_{ads} . The Nafion–Pt interface was studied at higher potentials (initiating at open circuit) by examining platinum reflectivity as a function of electrode potential. The oxygen reduction onset-current is coincident with the observance of a 2% step-increase in Pt reflectivity and emergence of Nafion–Pt interface spectra.

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1. Introduction

The ionomer-catalyst interface is the site of chemical transformation in a polymer electrolyte fuel cell membrane electrode assembly (MEA). The MEA is a polymer electrolyte membrane sandwiched between anode and cathode catalytic layers. The electrocatalytic layers are contacted to porous carbon paper or cloth that serve both as current collectors and gas diffusion layers (GDLs). The GDLs facilitate transport of reactants and products between the fuel cell flow fields and the ionomer-catalyst interfaces. Catalysts are dispersed in alcoholic solutions of a solubilized version of the polymer electrolyte to form an ink that is deposited on the membrane directly (catalyst-coated-membrane), or deposited directly onto the GDL to form a gas diffusion electrode. The final form of the electrocatalytic layers have carbon supported metal or metal-black surfaces [1] wetted by the ionomer electrolyte.

The ionomer facilitates proton transport and enhances electrocatalysis [2].

MEAs have applications in organic synthesis [3–10], environmental remediation [11,12] energy conversion [13] and storage devices [14–17]. Each application requires an ionomer-catalyst interface that is optimized for the required chemical reaction. Optimization requires methods for characterization under relevant conditions. Because the active state of the ionomer-catalyst interface exists only during electrocatalysis [18], characterization is best done at normal operating temperatures with typical reactant stream flow (*i.e.*, Operando). Operando methods preclude the use of supplemental electrolytes (e.g., H_2SO_4 or HClO_4) that contribute mobile anion adsorbates and dehydrate at the high end of relevant temperatures (e.g. 70–90 °C). Infrared (IR) spectroscopy, ideally suited for the characterization of ionomer-catalyst interfaces, elucidates potential and temperature

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dependent reaction intermediates and competitive adsorbates [19–22]. Such information is required for optimization of ionomer-catalyst interfaces for rapidly emerging applications.

We introduced operando IR spectroscopy of fuel cells [23] for study of mechanistic methanol electro-oxidation on Pt and Pt alloys as well as X-ray absorption spectroscopy of the active phases of alloy catalysts in hydrogen–air [24] and direct methanol fuel cells [25]. More recently we applied operando IR spectroscopy to Nafion–Pt interfaces to better understand the self-assembly of Nafion onto metal surfaces [26–28]. This work focuses on operando spectroscopy of the Nafion–Pt interface in fuel cell MEAs.

2. Experimental

2.1. Membrane electrode assembly preparation

As received Nafion 117 is immersed in boiling 8 M HNO₃ (20 min), rinsed with Nanopure™ water and then immersed in boiling water (20 min). Catalyst inks are prepared by the method of Wilson [29]. Briefly, Pt black (Johnson Matthey) and 5 wt.% Nafion ionomer solution (Sigma Aldrich, Milwaukee, WI) are dispersed in Nanopure™ water. Catalyst coated membranes (CCMs) are prepared by brush painting (Red Sable marking brush size #1, Tanis Inc., Delafield, WI) the ink on 5 cm² of Nafion immobilized on a heated vacuum table (NuVant Systems, Crown Point, IN) at 70 °C. The CCM is sandwiched between sheets of carbon paper gas diffusion layers (Toray Industries, Tokyo, Japan) and then installed into the operando spectroscopy fuel cell. The catalyst loadings at both electrodes are 4 mg/cm² of Pt black. MEAs were conditioned in the fuel cell at 50 °C by scanning the potential (5 cycles) between 800 mV and 600 mV (40 mV/min) with humidified hydrogen (50 sccm) and air (200 sccm), both at ~0 gauge pressure, delivered to the anode and cathode, respectively. The working electrode is conditioned immediately before obtaining reference spectra by cycling the potential from 0 V to 1.2 V at 100 mV/s, 50 times in the presence of humidified N₂ (200 sccm).

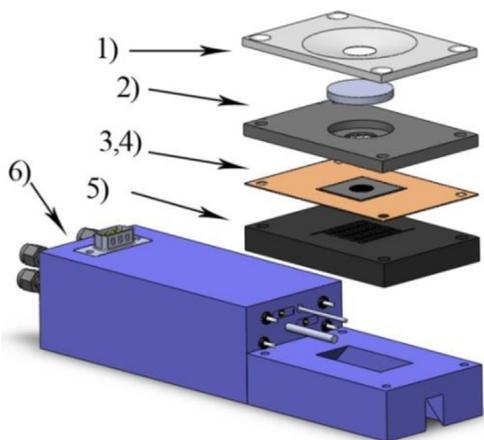


Fig. 1 – Exploded diagram of the IR-XAS cell and components: 1) Top plate, 2) Top flow field, 3) Membrane electrode assembly gasket, 4) Membrane electrode assembly, 5) Lower flow field, and 6) Slider housing.

2.2. Operando spectroscopy

Reflectance IR spectra were obtained using the cell described by Lewis and coworkers (Fig. 1) [27]. The cell is interfaced to a diffuse reflectance stage (Pike Technologies, Madison, WI) and installed in a Vertex 70 spectrometer (Bruker, Billerica, MA). The IR beam accesses the MEA catalytic layer through a CaF₂ window inserted into the upper flow field via a slit cut into the gas diffusion layer. The cell (50 °C) is fed humidified H₂ (50 sccm) and N₂ (200 sccm) to the counter/reference and working electrodes, respectively. After obtaining a reference spectrum at 1.2 V, spectra were acquired from 1.2 V to 0 V at decreasing 0.1 V increments. Spectra were obtained by averaging 100 scans at 4 cm⁻¹ resolution using a liquid N₂ cooled MCT detector¹. Operando interferogram amplitudes were obtained after acquiring each potential dependent FTIR spectra using the Opus 6.5 (Bruker).

Potential dependent IR spectra of linear bound CO (CO_{ads}) were obtained at 60 °C. The small CO oxidation currents do not measurably polarize the counter electrode which is also used as a hydrogen reference electrode [30]. The reference spectrum was acquired at 0 mV. At 300 mV the working electrode feed was switched to CO (40 sccm) for 15 min prior to purging the working electrode with N₂ (15 min). Four signal-averaged (250 scans) spectra were acquired at 100 mV and at increasing 50 mV increments, until the CO vibrational bands were no longer observable. Spectra were obtained at resolution of 4 cm⁻¹ using a DLaTGS detector.

3. Results and discussion

Fig. 2 (left) shows the potential dependent spectra of CO_{ads} at the Nafion–Pt interface with the fuel cell at 60 °C. The corresponding Stark tuning curve of $\bar{\nu}_{\text{CO}}$ vs. potential (Fig. 2 right) is similar to previously reported curves on arc-melted [31] and Pt(111) [32] exposed to 0.5 M H₂SO₄, and on Nafion–platinum interfaces of operating MEAs [23,26,33,34]. Anderson explained Stark tuning in terms of metal-to-adsorbate orbital overlap (i.e., Blyholder mechanism) [35], first with cyanide on Ag [36] and later CO_{ads} on Pt [37]. Norskov provides a detailed description of the π bonding of CO to Pt in two steps [38,39]. In the first step, the 2 π^* and the 5 σ CO MOs shift to lower energy and broaden due to coupling with the Pt s,p electrons. The renormalized CO orbitals then mix with the Pt d-band bonding orbitals resulting in the splitting of the 2 π^* MOs into antibonding and bonding orbitals. Thus, a shift of the surface d-band center to more positive potentials decreases the overlap between the surface d-band and the renormalized 2 π^* CO MOs, increasing the carbon–oxygen bond order, and thus increasing the $\bar{\nu}_{\text{CO}}$. An alternative explanation has been provided by Dimakis et al. [40–44]. Cluster and periodic DFT calculations for CO_{ads} on Pt of pure Pt and Pt-based alloys show that shifts in the binding of the CO to the Pt surface are primarily due to changes in the charges and polarizations of the σ and π metal–CO hybrid

¹ The wavelength precision of an FTIR is determined by the stability of the reference HeNe laser. Virtually all FTIR spectrometers manufactured today are capable of 0.1 cm⁻¹ or better precision on the wavelength axis.

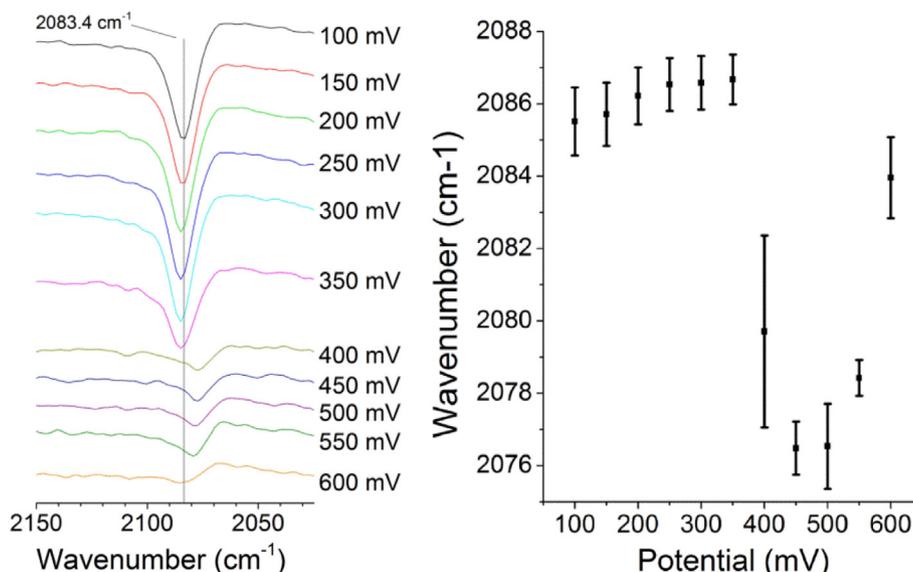


Fig. 2 – Stark tuning of CO adsorbed on a Pt membrane electrode of a fuel cell operating at 60 °C. Left: Potential-dependent IR spectra of CO_{ads} at the Nafion–Pt interface at 60 °C. Right: Stark tuning curve corresponding to potential dependent spectra.

orbitals. The Dimakis approach is consistent with observations of reduced CO_{ads} (atop on Pt) stretching frequencies as Pt is alloyed with Ru [31].

This primary Stark tuning effect explains the positive Stark tuning rate $d\bar{\nu}_{\text{CO}}/dE$ initiating at 100 mV (Fig. 2 right). The $d\bar{\nu}_{\text{CO}}/dE$ of $\sim 5.4 \text{ cm}^{-1}/\text{V}$ is typical for MEA incorporated Pt catalysts [26,27,33]. It is important to note that Stark tuning rates (STR) are not simply a property of the adsorbate-substrate identity. Liu et al. reported a comprehensive study of CO_{ads} STRs vs. coverage, Pt alloy composition, potential and temperature [31]. The STRs are strongly affected by secondary effects due to co-adsorbates, adsorbate coverage, and particle size [45]. Stamenkovic [32], followed by Kendrick [26] discussed a very subtle $\bar{\nu}_{\text{CO}}$ blue shift from the extrapolated linear region of tuning curves initiated at potentials negative of CO oxidation

[32]. The three $\bar{\nu}_{\text{CO}}$ points collected from 200 to 300 mV (Fig. 2 right) exemplify this blue shift, which we attribute, in this work, to CO_{ads} island compression due to repulsive dipole interactions with co-adsorbed Nafion sulfonate ion. CO_{ads} oxidation initiating at 0.35 V, induced by co-adsorption of OH⁻, diminishes dipole–dipole coupling [46] and thus precipitously decreases $\bar{\nu}_{\text{CO}}$. The upturn is attributed to increased adsorption of the Nafion sulfonate exchange sites relative to OH⁻, which reestablishes repulsive dipole interactions that compress CO_{ads} islands and increases $\bar{\nu}_{\text{CO}}$. The STR plot elucidates adsorption phenomena at the Nafion–Pt interface in the absence of mobile ions typical of dilute sulfuric acid solutions. A detailed model for self-assembly of Nafion onto Pt has been reported [26]. CO_{ads} STR curves are an excellent tool for study of Pt surfaces at low potentials, where CO_{ads} exists at

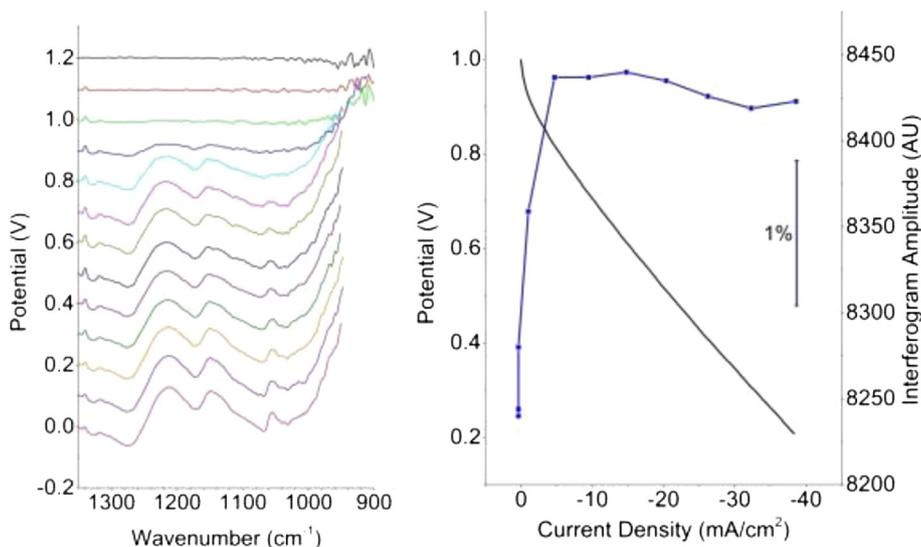


Fig. 3 – Left: Potential dependent spectra of Nafion on Pt under nitrogen. Right: The interferogram amplitude as a function of potential superimposed over a polarization curve obtained with the operando fuel cell under oxygen.

steady state. Higher potentials relevant to Nafion–Pt interfaces operating at the cathode require an alternate method of study because static CO_{ads} are not stable at high potentials. Fan et al. showed that in flowing streams of CO, CO_{ads} can be observed at potentials throughout the entire operating potential range of the fuel cell [23,33].

The operando spectra of the MEA Nafion–Pt interface from 1.2 V to 0 V vs. the hydrogen anode are shown (Fig. 3, left). The corresponding fuel cell current–potential curve, superimposed upon the potential dependent interferogram amplitudes, are shown (Fig. 3, right). An interferogram is an oscillatory series of constructive and destructive combinations of radiation generated by the recombination of light reflected from the moving and fixed mirror of the Michelson interferometer. This radiation is passed through the sample to the detector to generate an IR spectrum [47]. Because the IR technique employed in this study is diffuse reflection, an increase in the reflectivity of the surface would be associated with increased interferogram amplitude. At potentials where Pt is passivated with an oxide layer (1.2 V–1 V vs. hydrogen anode) there is no change in the spectra. At the oxygen reduction onset-current there is a 2% step-increase in Pt reflectivity coincident with the emergence of the full IR reflectance spectrum of Nafion. The step-change in reflectivity is coincident with exposure oxide-free Pt to reactant oxygen. The reflectivity is at maximum just after the current onset and then slightly diminishes with decreasing potential. It is noteworthy that only a 2% change in reflectivity is responsible for the emergence of the Nafion IR reflection spectra. The peak at $\sim 1060\text{ cm}^{-1}$ (Nafion side chain group mode) [48,49] and the broad envelope region ($1100\text{--}1300\text{ cm}^{-1}$) rapidly emerge and persist as the potential is reduced. Thus oxygen reduction initiates with the emergence of Nafion–Pt reflectance spectra concurrent with exposure of an oxide free, more reflective Pt surface.

4. Conclusions

The operando spectroscopy of the Nafion–Pt interface in a hydrogen–air fuel cell membrane electrode assembly was used to study Stark tuning rates of CO_{ads} . The Stark tuning of CO_{ads} , at 60°C , elucidate a complex sequence of co-adsorption as the potential is shifted for CO_{ads} stripping. Nafion co-adsorption is invoked since there are no mobile anions under operando conditions. At higher potentials an increase in the reflectivity of Pt and the emergence of the Nafion reflectance spectra were correlated to the onset of oxygen reduction catalysis. Oxygen reduction catalysis is coincident with the observance of a 2% step-increase in Pt reflectivity and the observance of the Nafion–Pt interface spectra initiating at 0.9 V and persisting down to the short circuit current.

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