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Combined micro-scale and macro-scale modeling of the composite electrode of a solid oxide fuel cell

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A R T I C L E I N F O

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ABSTRACT

The design of a cathode inter-layer is important to the high performance of a solid oxide fuel cell (SOFC). In this paper, the processes of electrochemical reactions, electronic and ionic conductions and gas transports in an SOFC are discussed in detail. An analysis shows that the current conduction and electrochemical processes can be replicated by an equivalent circuit model. A corresponding macro-scale model using the Butler–Volmer equation for electrochemical reactions, Ohm's law for current conduction and the Dusty-gas model for gas transport is described. A percolation theory based micro-model is used to obtain the effective electrode properties in the macro-model from the microstructure parameters of the porous electrode. Experimental *I–V* relations can be accurately accounted for by the proposed theory. The macro-and micro-models are then combined to systematically examine the effects of various parameters on the performance of a composite cathode inter-layer. The examined parameters include the thickness, effective electronic and ionic conductivities, exchange current density, operating temperature, output current density, electrode- and electrolyte-particle radii, composition and porosity of the cathode inter-layer. The comprehensive study shows conclusively that a cathode inter-layer.

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1. Introduction

To achieve high fuel cell performance, engineers are exploring increasingly sophisticated structures for solid oxide fuel cell (SOFC) electrodes. One common approach is to use functional graded porous composite electrodes, and extensive efforts have been devoted to examining the effects of various structural and material parameters on cell performance [1–5]. A typical composite electrode is a mixture of electrode-particles, such as Ni or lanthanum-doped strontium manganate (LSM), and electrolyteparticles, such as yttria-stabilized zirconia (YSZ) [1,6]. It provides parallel paths for oxygen ions (through YSZ), electrons (through Ni and LSM), and gaseous species (through the pores) [7,8].

Fig. 1 shows a typical anode-supported SOFC, which consists of five distinct layers: (a) a porous Ni+YSZ anode support layer with relatively large Ni- and YSZ-particles, (b) a porous Ni+YSZ anode inter-layer with fine Ni- and YSZ-particles, (c) a dense YSZ electrolyte layer, (d) a porous LSM+YSZ cathode inter-layer with fine LSM- and YSZ-particles, and (e) a porous LSM cathode current collector with relatively large LSM-particles. The composite nature of a porous electrode allows for a large number of triple-phaseboundaries (TPBs), in which three distinct transporting phases meet, i.e., LSM-YSZ-pores or Ni-YSZ-pores. On the cathode side, oxygen from a gas channel is transported through a porous cathode current collector to a cathode TPB (gas-LSM-YSZ). At the cathode TPB, an electrochemical reaction occurs between oxygen and electrons, which come from an external circuit through the electronic conducting phase of the cathode. The product (O^{2-}) is then transported to the anode TPB through an ionic conducting phase within the cathode inter-layer, electrolyte and anode inter-layer. At the anodic TPB, fuel (e.g., H₂) from the channel is transported through the porous anode to the anode TPB and reacts with the oxygen ions. The product H₂O is transported back to the fuel channel through the porous anode structure and e⁻ are conducted to the external circuit through the electronic conductive phase of the anode.

The above-described transports of gas species, electrons and ions and electrochemical reactions may cause various types of polarizations. Concentration overpotential is caused by the transporting resistance of gaseous species through a porous structure. Ohmic polarization is caused by conducting resistances of electrons and ions within the composite electrodes and a dense electrolyte [9,10]. Activation overpotential is caused by the energy barriers for the electrochemical reaction at TPBs [7,11,12]. As the state of the art of composite electrodes becomes increasingly sophisticated [13,14], there is an increasing need to understand the detailed chemical and physical processes within composite electrodes and develop a quantitative theory to predict the influence of microstructures on fuel cell performance. Applying this knowledge

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Nomen	ciature
<i>B</i> ₀	flow permeability, m ²
$D^{\rm eff}_{\alpha\beta}$	effective binary diffusivity, m ² s ⁻¹
$D_{\alpha K}^{eff}$	effective Knudsen diffusivity for gas species α ,
ακ	$m^2 s^{-1}$
$E_{\rm H_2}$	activation energy for H_2 oxidation, J mol ⁻¹
E_{O_2}	activation energy for O_2 reduction, J mol ⁻¹
E_0	Nernst potential, V
E ^{eq}	equilibrium electric potential difference at electro- chemical reaction interface, V
F	Faraday constant, C mol ⁻¹
ј трв	charge transfer rate per unit TPB length, A m^{-1}
İo	local exchange transfer current per unit TPB length, Am^{-1}
j _{0,ref}	parameter in the expression of j_0 , A m ⁻¹
<i>i</i> op	output current density, A m ⁻²
i _e	local electronic current density, A m ⁻²
i _i	local ionic current density, A m ⁻²
i ^V e, i	volumetric charge transfer rate, A ${ m m}^{-3}$
i ^S e, i	charge transfer rate per unit dense electrolyte sur-
	face, A m^{-2}
L ^c	cathode inter-layer thickness, m
M_{α}	molecular weight of gas species α , kg mol $^{-1}$
n_k^V	number of k-particles per unit volume
n_k^S	number of <i>k</i> -particles per unit dense electrolyte sur- face
Nα	molar flux of gas species α , mol m ⁻² s ⁻¹
р	total gas pressure in electrode, atm
p^0_{α}	partial pressure of gas species α in gas channel, atm
p_{lpha}	partial pressure of gas species α in electrode, atm
P_k	percolation probability of k-particle
r _g	hydraulic pore radius, m
r _k	radius of <i>k</i> -particle, m
R	universal gas constant, J mol ⁻¹ K ⁻¹
R _α T	reaction rate of species α , mol m ⁻³ s ⁻¹
-	operating temperature, K reference temperature, K
T_{ref}	diffusion volume for gas species α , m ³ mol ⁻¹
ν _α V _{op}	output voltage, V
ν _{ор} χ _α	molar fraction of gas species α
$Z_{k,\ell}$	average number of contacts between a k-particle
r,t	and ℓ -particles
Ī	overall average coordination number of all solid par-
	ticles
Greek	
$\alpha_{\rm f}$, $\beta_{\rm r}$	the forward and reverse reaction symmetric factors
η	polarization, V
$\lambda_{\text{TPB,eff}}^{V}$	percolated TPB length per unit volume, m $^{-2}$
λ ^S TPB,eff	percolated TPB length per δ dense electrolyte sur-
_,	face, m ⁻¹
μ	viscosity, kg m $^{-1}$ s $^{-1}$
μ_{α}	chemical potential of species α , J
$\phi_{ m g}$	porosity
Φe	local electronic electric potential in electrode- phase, V
$\hat{\varPhi}_{\mathrm{e}}^{\mathrm{a}}$	Φ_e in anode-phase shifted by a reference potential,
	V
$\hat{\Phi}^{c}_{a}$	Φ_{\bullet} in cathode-phase shifted by a reference poten-

- $\hat{\Phi}_{e}^{c}$ Φ_{e} in cathode-phase shifted by a reference potential, V
- $\Phi_{
 m i}$ local ionic electric potential in electrolyte-phase, V

$\hat{\varPhi}_{\mathrm{i}}$	Φ_i in electrolyte-phase shifted by a reference potential, V
ψ_k	volume fraction of <i>k</i> -particles in solid phase
ψ_k^{t}	threshold volume fraction of <i>k</i> -particles
$\sigma^{\rm eff}$	effective electronic conductivity, S m^{-1}
$\sigma_{\rm el}^{ m ed} \sigma_k^{ m eff}$	effective ionic conductivity, S m^{-1}
σ_{i}^{el}	electric conductivity of <i>k</i> -material in dense solid,
^o k	Sm^{-1}
τ	tortuosity of gas transport path
θ	contact angle between electrode- and electrolyte-
	particles
Supers	cripts and subscripts
a	anode
act	activation
с	cathode
con	concentration
cr	contact resistance
e	dense electrolyte
ed	electrode-particle
el	electrolyte-particle

is important to the design, optimization, and fabrication of certain microstructure architectures as a means to achieve high fuel cell performance.

The task of understanding the relationship between electrode properties and microstructure seems to rest naturally on microscale models [15–20]. As an electrochemical reaction can only occur at sites where electrons, ions and chemical species coexist simultaneously, only those TPBs in which each of the three transportation phases belong to a percolated network can support the transport of relevant reactant species. These TPBs are defined as percolated TPBs and are important factors in determining cell performance. Because the percolation micro-model is generally regarded to be accurate and convenient in relating electrode properties with electrode microstructure through a coordination number [21,22], this work adopts such a micro-model [4] for estimating from the microstruc-

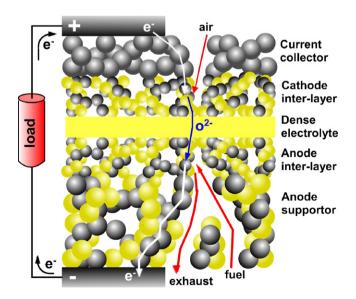


Fig. 1. Sketch of the physical processes in an anode-supported SOFC with functional graded electrodes. Dark particles represent electrode-particles and light particles represent electrolyte-particles.

ture the electrode properties, such as percolated TPB lengths per unit volume, percolated TPB lengths per unit dense electrolyte surface, effective electron and ion conductivities, hydraulic pore radius, and others. This micro-model not only satisfies the contact number conservation requirement [4,22], but also can be used to estimate the electrode properties in a multi-component system.

However, not all percolated TPBs are electrochemically active. Knowing the electrochemically active zone (EAZ) is useful for the design and optimization of an electrode's inter-layer structure. For example, using an inter-layer thickness that is smaller than the EAZ thickness will cause higher activation polarization. Using an interlayer thickness that is much larger than the EAZ thickness will cause high ohmic and concentration polarizations.

The electrochemical reaction is driven by the balance of local equilibrium potentials that are affected by the electronic and ionic conductivities of the composite electrodes, the gas transport in the electrodes as well as operational conditions, such as output current density and operating temperature. A quantitative determination of electrochemical activity requires careful consideration of both the electric potential profile and the electrochemical potential distribution within the composite electrode. This cannot be achieved by the percolation theory based micro-model alone and requires a combined approach of micro-scale and macro-scale modeling. The cell-level scale macro-model is required to simulate simultaneously the gas transport, the ionic and electronic conductions, and the electrochemical reactions in an SOFC with porous composite electrodes, while required effective material properties may be provided by the electrode micro-model.

The main objective of this work is to study the detailed electrochemical and physical processes in an SOFC, and comprehensively analyze the factors that affect the performance of cathode interlayer. For that purpose, an equivalent circuit model is proposed to represent the electrochemically active sites and the electron and ion conducting paths in an SOFC. With this model, the local electronic and ionic electric potential profiles in the electrodeand electrolyte-phases can be described based on local gas compositions and electrochemical kinetic analysis. Correspondingly, a cell-level scale macro-model, coupled with our particle-scale percolation micro-model [4], is developed to analyze the effects of thickness, material properties (such as exchange current density based on per TPB, electronic and ionic conductivities), operational conditions (such as temperature and output current density) and microstructure (such as the mean particle radius, electrode- and electrolyte-particle radial ratio, composition and porosity) on the performance of a cathode inter-layer, providing the theoretical basis for optimal design. The micro-scale and macro-scale coupled model is calibrated to the experimental data; however, the purpose of the combined modeling is not only to match the experimental data, but also to explore the parameter effects on cathode interlayer performance and provide guidelines for a manufacturer of electrode development.

2. Theory

Due to the low ionic conductivity of the electrolyte-material, electrochemical reactions may occur only in a small region around the interface between the dense electrolyte layer and the electrode layer. This is believed to occur exclusively within the composite electrode inter-layer. However, which part of the electrode inter-layer could be a percolated TPB zone and what percentage of this zone can be electrochemically active are determined by many factors. The main factors influencing the EAZ are discussed below. As the activation overpotential is dominated by the electrochemical reactions at the cathode side, we focus our discussion on the EAZ of the cathode inter-layer.

2.1. Effect of electrode composition on EAZ

To facilitate a discussion of the effects of electrode composition on the EAZ, Fig. 2 shows three different representative electrodeparticle loading scenarios for the cathode inter-layer.

- (a) Low electrode-particle loading: Low electrode-particle loading occurs when the composite electrode inter-layer consists of a small portion of electrode-particles mixed with a large portion of electrolyte-particles. As illustrated in Fig. 2a, most of the electrolyte-particles belong to percolated clusters, while the electrode-particles can only form some short connecting networks near a cathode current collector. In this case, the percolated TPBs (noted with a bracket on the left) are found only close to the cathode current collector surface. These percolated TPBs, however, are only potentially electrochemically active. What percentage of these can be cathode EAZ (noted with a bracket on the right) depends on the ability of ions to be transported from dense electrolytes to the percolated TPBs. This, in turn, depends on the cathode inter-layer thickness and ionic conductivity. In a very thin electrode inter-layer, where ions can propagate throughout structure with relatively little potential losses, most of the percolated TPBs in Fig. 2a are electrochemically active. This behavior is observed experimentally when the polarization resistance does not depend strongly on the volume fraction of electrode composition [22,23]. In a relatively thick electrode inter-layer, however, ions cannot propagate at a significant distance from the dense electrolyte surface because of the low ionic conductivity of the electrolyte-particles (e.g., YSZ). In this case, the percolated TPBs near the current collector are essentially inactive. Again, this behavior is observed experimentally. In relatively thick composite electrodes, polarization resistance increases sharply before the electrode-particles are percolated [22,24].
- (b) *Equivalent electrode-particle loading*: Equivalent electrodeparticle loading occurs when there are similar electrode- and electrolyte-particles loadings. As shown in Fig. 2b, most of the

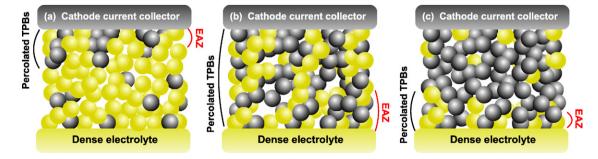


Fig. 2. Illustration of the cathode inter-layers with different loadings of electrode- (dark) and electrolyte- (light) particles: (a) low electrode-particle loading; (b) equivalent electrode-particle loading; (c) high electrode-particle loading. Brackets on the left indicate the regions of percolated TPBs. Brackets on the right indicate the electrochemically active zone (EAZ).

electrode- and electrolyte-particles are found to be percolated. In this case, the percolated TPBs are distributed throughout the structure. However, the cathode EAZ (noted with a bracket on the right) is concentrated near the dense electrolyte surface because of the relatively low ionic conductivity of the electrolyte-particles. As a result, there is an upper limited thickness, l_0 , such that the EAZ can spread from the dense electrolyte surface to the electrode inter-layer. The remaining portion of the thick cathode inter-layer is electrochemically inactive. Using an inter-layer thickness that is smaller than l_0 may cause higher activation overpotential for the electrode. However, using an inter-layer thickness that is larger than l_0 may not further reduce the activation polarization, instead, it may cause higher ohmic and concentration polarization for the composite electrode. Therefore, l_0 is a useful parameter for the electrode design.

(c) High electrode-particle loading: This occurs when a small fraction of electrolyte-particles are mixed with a large portion of electrode-particles. As shown in Fig. 2c, most electrodeparticles are percolated with increased electrode-particle loading, while the electrolyte-particles can only form short connecting paths near the dense electrolyte surface. In this case, the cathode percolated TPBs are concentrated near the dense electrolyte. High electrode-particle loading may come at the expense of too few electrolyte-particles and consequently too small percolated TPBs and EAZ. High activation polarization is often expected.

As discussed above, the electrode-particle loading determines the distribution of the percolated TPBs within the electrode interlayer. The percolated TPBs are potentially electrochemically active. However, whether these percolated TPBs are truly electrochemically active is determined by other factors such as the thickness and effective ionic conductivity of the cathode inter-layer. In the following discussion, we focus our attention on the electrode inter-layer with equivalent electrode-particle loading.

2.2. Equivalent circuit model for the electric process

For an SOFC with composite electrodes illustrated in Fig. 2b, the electric process, including the electron and ion transfer paths and electrochemical reactions, can be represented by an equivalent circuit model shown in Fig. 3. As illustrated in Fig. 3, the electronic current of an operating cell, i_{op} , flows from an anode interconnect to an anode support to an anode inter-layer. The electronic current (i_{e}^{a}) is then converted into an ionic current (i_{i}) by electrochemical reaction (by oxidizing hydrogen fuel) at different EAZ locations in the anode inter-layer. That is, there are parallel paths for the electronic and ionic current conductions in the anode EAZ. All of the electronic current is converted to ionic current before entering the dense electrolyte. Purely ionic current is transported through the dense electrolyte to the cathode inter-layer where the ionic current is converted back into electronic current by an electrochemical reaction (by reducing oxygen) inside the EAZ of the cathode interlayer. Purely electronic current is transported from the cathode inter-layer to the cathode current collector and then to the cathode interconnect. In Fig. 3, the local electrochemical reaction interfaces within the EAZ are represented by the parallel circuit within the dashed pane. The electromotive forces for the electrochemical reactions, E_a^{eq} and E_c^{eq} , are the differences of the local equilibrium electric potentials in the electrode- and electrolyte-phases.

As can be seen from the above discussion, the equivalent circuit model depicts an accurate picture of the electrical processes in an SOFC.

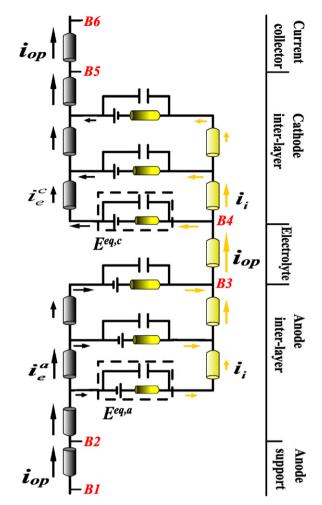


Fig. 3. Equivalent circuit model for the electrical process of an SOFC. Dark and light bricks indicate the electrode- and electrolyte-materials, respectively. B1, B2, B3, B4, B5 and B6 represent the interfaces between the anode interconnect, anode support, anode inter-layer, dense electrolyte, cathode inter-layer, cathode current collector and cathode interconnect, respectively. i_{op} , i_e and i_i are the output current density, local electronic and ionic current densities, respectively. The parallel circuit within the dashed pane represents the local electrochemical reaction interface, in which E_i^{eq} and E_i^{eq} are local equilibrium electric potential differences.

2.3. Mathematical description for the electrochemical process

The electrochemical reaction in the anode EAZ can be expressed as $H_2 + O^{2-} \rightleftharpoons H_2O + 2e^-$. At equilibrium (no net reaction), the electrochemical potentials of the reacting species should be balanced for the reaction, and we have [25],

$$\mu_{\rm H_2} + \mu_{\rm O^{2-}} - 2F\Phi_{\rm i}^{\rm eq} = \mu_{\rm H_2O} - 2F\Phi_{\rm e}^{\rm a,eq},\tag{1}$$

where μ_{α} is the chemical potential of species α , *F* is the Faraday constant. Φ_i^{eq} and $\Phi_e^{a,eq}$ are the local equilibrium electrical potentials of the electrolyte-phase and electrode-phase, respectively. The anode equilibrium electric potential difference between the two phases is as follows:

$$E_{\rm a}^{\rm eq} = \Phi_{\rm i}^{\rm eq} - \Phi_{\rm e}^{\rm a, eq} = \frac{1}{2F} (\mu_{\rm H_2} + \mu_{\rm 0^{2-}} - \mu_{\rm H_20}) \tag{2}$$

Similarly, oxygen reduction inside cathode EAZ can be written as $1/2O_2 + 2e^- \rightleftharpoons O^{2-}$ and the equilibrium electrochemical potentials are related as:

$$0.5\mu_{0_2} - 2F\Phi_e^{c,eq} = \mu_{0^{2-}} - 2F\Phi_i^{eq}$$
(3)

The cathode equilibrium electric potential difference between the electrode-phase and the electrolyte-phase can then be expressed as follows:

$$E_{\rm c}^{\rm eq} = \Phi_{\rm e}^{\rm c,eq} - \Phi_{\rm i}^{\rm eq} = \frac{1}{4F} (\mu_{\rm O_2} - 2\mu_{\rm O^{2-}}). \tag{4}$$

At working conditions when there is electric current flowing through the cell, the local electric potentials, Φ_i , Φ_e^a and Φ_e^c , are different from their equilibrium values. The local activation overpotential, η_{act} , can be expressed, respectively, for the anodic and cathodic electrochemical reactions as follows:

$$\eta_{act}^{a} = E_{a}^{eq} - (\Phi_{i} - \Phi_{e}^{a}); \quad \eta_{act}^{c} = E_{c}^{eq} - (\Phi_{e}^{c} - \Phi_{i}).$$
(5)

The charge transfer rate per unit TPB length between the electronic and ionic current, j_{TPB} (Am⁻¹), can be evaluated with the empirical Butler–Volmer equation as follows [26]:

$$j_{\text{TPB}} = j_0 \left[\exp\left(\frac{2\alpha_{\text{f}}F}{RT}\eta_{\text{act}}\right) - \exp\left(\frac{-2\beta_{\text{r}}F}{RT}\eta_{\text{act}}\right) \right]$$
(6)

where *R* is the universal gas constant, *T* is the absolute temperature and α_f and β_r are the forward and reverse reaction symmetric factors, respectively. In this equation, j_0 is the local exchange transfer current per unit TPB length (Am⁻¹) and is often estimated as follows [7,27]:

$$j_{0}^{c} = j_{0,ref}^{c} \exp\left(-\frac{E_{O_{2}}}{R} \left(\frac{1}{T} - \frac{1}{T_{ref}}\right)\right) \left(\frac{p_{O_{2}}}{p_{O_{2}}^{0}}\right)^{0.25}$$

$$j_{0}^{a} = j_{0,ref}^{a} \exp\left(-\frac{E_{H_{2}}}{R} \left(\frac{1}{T} - \frac{1}{T_{ref}}\right)\right) \left(\frac{p_{H_{2}}p_{H_{2}O}}{p_{H_{2}}^{0}p_{H_{2}O}^{0}}\right)$$

$$(7)$$

where E_{H_2} and E_{O_2} are the activation energies for the anode and cathode electrochemical reactions, respectively. Oftentimes $j_{0,ref}^a$ and $j_{0,ref}^c$ are deduced from experiments or assigned empirically at the reference temperature T_{ref} .

The charge transfer rate per unit volume $(A m^{-3})$ can then be expressed as $i_{e,i}^{V} = j_{TPB}\lambda_{TPB,eff}^{V}$, where $\lambda_{TPB,eff}^{V}$ is the percolated TPB length per unit volume (m^{-2}) . The charge transfer rate per unit of dense electrolyte surface $(A m^{-2})$ is calculated as $i_{e,i}^{S} = j_{TPB}\lambda_{TPB,eff}^{S}$, where $\lambda_{TPB,eff}^{S}$ is the percolated TPB length per unit of electrolyte surface (m^{-1}) .

To make solving the current conduction equations, which will be described later, more convenient, the local electric potentials are shifted by a reference amount as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{\Phi}_{e}^{a} &= \Phi_{e}^{a} + \frac{1}{2F} (\mu_{H_{2}}^{0} - \mu_{H_{2}O}^{0}), \quad \hat{\Phi}_{e}^{c} &= \Phi_{e}^{c} - \frac{1}{4F} \mu_{O_{2}}^{0}, \\ \hat{\Phi}_{i} &= \Phi_{i} - \frac{1}{2F} \mu_{O^{2-}}, \end{aligned}$$
(8)

where μ_{α}^{0} denotes the chemical potential of species α at the inlet of an anode or a cathode channel. The constant potential shift does not alter the electronic or ionic electric potential profiles within electrode- or electrolyte-phases of fuel cells, and different shifts may be adopted by different researchers [3,7,28]. Using Eq. (8) and the pressure dependence of the chemical potential of an ideal gas, Eq. (5) may be rewritten as follows:

$$\eta_{\rm act}^{\rm a} = \hat{\Phi}_{\rm e}^{\rm a} - \hat{\Phi}_{\rm i} - \frac{RT}{2F} \ln \frac{p_{\rm H_2}^0 p_{\rm H_20}}{p_{\rm H_2} p_{\rm H_20}^0}; \quad \eta_{\rm act}^{\rm c} = \hat{\Phi}_{\rm i} - \hat{\Phi}_{\rm e}^{\rm c} - \frac{RT}{4F} \ln \frac{p_{\rm O_2}^0}{p_{\rm O_2}}, (9)$$

where p_{α} and p_{α}^{0} are the partial pressure (atm) of species α at the local reacting site and the channel inlet, respectively. Eq. (9) shows that a local activation overpotential may be considered to be the corresponding difference between the local electronic potential,

 $\hat{\varPhi}_{\rm e}$, and the ionic potential, $\hat{\varPhi}_{\rm i}$, subtracted by the local concentration overpotential.

The cell output voltage, V_{op} , can be written as the difference between the electronic potentials at boundaries B1 and B6:

$$V_{\rm op} = \Phi_{\rm e}^{\rm c}|_{\rm B6} - \Phi_{\rm e}^{\rm a}|_{\rm B1}.$$
 (10)

Eq. (10) may be transformed in terms of Eq. (8) as,

$$\hat{\Phi}_{e}^{c}|_{B6} - \hat{\Phi}_{e}^{a}|_{B1} = V_{op} - E_{O}$$
(11)

where E_0 is the Nernst potential of the fuel and oxidant used and may be calculated as [28]:

$$E_{0} = \frac{1}{2F} (\mu_{H_{2}}^{0} + \frac{1}{2} \mu_{O_{2}}^{0} - \mu_{H_{2}O}^{0}) = -\frac{\Delta G^{0}}{2F} + \frac{RT}{2F} \ln \frac{p_{H_{2}O}^{0}(p_{O_{2}O}^{0})^{0.5}}{p_{H_{2}O}^{0}},$$
(12)

where ΔG^0 is the free energy change of the reaction $H_2 + 1/2O_2 \rightleftharpoons H_2O$ at the standard state.

2.4. Governing equations for electrical processes

The electrical processes are governed by electron conservation, ion conservation and Ohm's law. The volumetric charge transfer rate, $i_{e,i}^{V}$, at a local electrochemical reaction site can be viewed as a current source or leak. Consequently, the electric potentials obey the following charge conservation equations:

$$\nabla \cdot i_{e}^{c} = \nabla \cdot \left(-\sigma_{ed}^{eff} \nabla \hat{\Phi}_{e}^{c} \right) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{in cathode current collector} \\ i_{e, i}^{V,c} & \text{in cathode inter-layer} \end{cases}$$
(13)
$$\nabla \cdot i_{i} = \nabla \cdot \left(-\sigma_{el}^{eff} \nabla \hat{\Phi}_{i} \right) = \begin{cases} -i_{e,i}^{V,c} & \text{in cathode inter-layer} \\ 0 & \text{in dense electrolyte} \\ i^{V,a} & \text{in anede support and inter-layer} \end{cases}$$
(14)

$$\nabla \cdot i_{e}^{a} = \nabla \cdot \left(-\sigma_{ed}^{eff} \nabla \hat{\Phi}_{e}^{a} \right) = -i_{e,i}^{V,a} \quad \text{in anode support and inter-layer}$$
(15)

where σ_{ed}^{eff} and σ_{el}^{eff} are the effective electronic and ionic conductivities, respectively. Here σ_{ed}^{eff} and σ_{el}^{eff} are determined by the material composition and are different for each of the five different layers of the cell. Because the anode support is usually made of a mixture of anode-material (Ni) and electrolyte-material (YSZ) for thermal compatibility, Eqs. (14) and (15) have, in principle, allowed a charge transfer reaction in the anode support in case the anode EAZ spreads beyond the anode inter-layer.

2.5. Governing equations for gas transport

The gas transport processes are governed by the mass balance equation:

$$\nabla \cdot N_{\alpha} = R_{\alpha},\tag{16}$$

where N_{α} and R_{α} are the molar flux and reaction rate of species α , respectively. In this equation, R_{α} is calculated as $-i_{e,i}^{V,a}/2F$, $i_{e,i}^{V,a}/2F$, $-i_{e,i}^{V,c}/4F$ and zero for H₂, H₂O, O₂ and N₂, respectively. It is generally agreed that the dusty gas model is an accurate method for describing the gas transport in a porous media with small pore sizes [29]. For binary gas with species α and β , the dusty gas model may be expressed as [30–32],

$$\frac{N_{\alpha}}{D_{\alpha K}^{\text{eff}}} + \frac{x_{\alpha} N_{\beta} - x_{\beta} N_{\alpha}}{D_{\alpha \beta}^{\text{eff}}} = -\frac{1}{RT} (p \nabla x_{\alpha} + x_{\alpha} \nabla p + \frac{x_{\alpha} B_0 p}{\mu D_{\alpha K}^{\text{eff}}} \nabla p), \qquad (17)$$

where x_{α} is the molar fraction of species α , B_0 the permittivity, μ the viscosity, p the total gas pressure, $D_{\alpha K}^{\text{eff}}$ the effective Knudsen diffusion coefficients of species α and $D_{\alpha \beta}^{\text{eff}}$ the effective binary diffusion coefficients.

The effective binary diffusivity can be estimated as [33],

$$D_{\alpha\beta}^{\rm eff} = \frac{\phi_{\rm g}}{\tau} \frac{3.24 \times 10^{-8} T^{1.75}}{p \left(\nu_{\alpha}^{1/3} + \nu_{\beta}^{1/3} \right)^2} \left(\frac{1}{M_{\alpha}} + \frac{1}{M_{\beta}} \right)^{0.5},\tag{18}$$

where ϕ_g is the porosity, τ is the tortuosity, M_α is the molar mass, ν_α is the diffusion volume for species α ($\nu_\alpha = 6.12 \times 10^{-6}$, 13.1×10^{-6} , 16.3×10^{-6} and 18.5×10^{-6} m³ mol⁻¹ for H₂, H₂O, O₂ and N₂, respectively [33]).

The effective Knudsen diffusivity is calculated as [34],

$$D_{\alpha K}^{\rm eff} = \frac{\phi_{\rm g}}{\tau} \frac{2r_{\rm g}}{3} \sqrt{\frac{8RT}{\pi M_{\alpha}}},\tag{19}$$

where $r_{\rm g}$ is the mean hydraulic pore radius. The Knudsen diffusion is important when pore size is small in comparison with the mean free path of gas molecules. Gas molecules collide more frequently with the pore walls than with the other molecules.

2.6. Effective properties of porous composite electrode

Numerical modeling with the above governing equations requires a set of electrode property parameters to predict fuel cell performance. For a meaningful examination of the influences of the electrode microstructure and cell design on the fuel cell operations, the capability to provide effective electrode properties based on electrode microstructural characteristics is required. This is achieved by a coordination number based percolation micro-model that provides a convenient path for relating the effective electrode properties to the microstructure parameters [4,19,21,35].

Considering a binary system with a random packing of spheres corresponding to the electrode-particles (denoted as ed) and electrolyte-particles (denoted as el), the TPB length per unit volume can be estimated as,

$$\lambda_{\rm TPB}^{\rm V} = 2\pi \min(r_{\rm ed}, r_{\rm el}) \sin \theta \left(n_{\rm ed}^{\rm V} Z_{\rm ed, el} \right), \tag{20}$$

where θ is the angle of particle contact, assumed to be around 15° according to Costamagna et al. [22]. Here r_k (k = ed or el) is the radius of k-particle. Additionally, $n_k^V = 3(1 - \phi_g)\psi_k/4\pi r_k^3$ is the number of k-particles per unit volume in a composite electrode [3,4]. Finally, ψ_k is the volume fraction of k-particles in a solid structure.

For the λ_{TPB}^{V} to be potentially electrochemically active, the participating particles must be percolated through the entire structure. The percolated TPB lengths per unit volume can be estimated as,

$$\lambda_{\rm TPB,eff}^{\rm V} = \lambda_{\rm TPB}^{\rm V} P_{\rm ed} P_{\rm el} \tag{21}$$

where the probability of *k*-particles belonging to percolated clusters can be estimated as [22],

$$P_k = \left(1 - \left(\frac{3.764 - Z_{k,k}}{2}\right)^{2.5}\right)^{0.4}.$$
(22)

The average number of ℓ -particles in contact with a *k*-particle can be estimated as [4],

$$Z_{k,\ell} = 0.5 \left(1 + r_k^2 / r_\ell^2 \right) \bar{Z} \frac{\psi_\ell / r_\ell}{\sum_{k=1}^M \psi_k / r_k},$$
(23)

where \overline{Z} is the overall average coordination number of all solid particles and *M* is the number of particle types. Here \overline{Z} is set to six for a random packing of spheres [15,22,36] and *M* is two for binary systems. Eq. (23) satisfies the contact number conservation requirement for any ratio of r_k/r_l and is an important improvement over the previous theories [4].

Similarly, for the electrochemical reactions taking place at the electrolyte–electrode interface, the percolated TPB length per unit dense electrolyte surface area is calculated as,

$$\lambda_{\rm TPB,eff}^{\rm S} = 2\pi r_{\rm ed} \sin \theta n_{\rm ed}^{\rm S} P_{\rm ed}, \qquad (24)$$

where the number of *k*-particles per unit dense electrolyte surface is [3,4],

$$n_k^{\rm S} = \frac{(1 - \phi_g)\psi_k}{2\pi r_k^2/3} \tag{25}$$

Moreover, the effective electric conductivity of the *k*-phase is determined as [37],

$$\sigma_k^{\text{eff}} = \sigma_k^0 \left(\frac{\psi_k - \psi_k^t}{1 + \phi_g / (1 - \phi_g) - \psi_k^t} \right)^2, \tag{26}$$

where σ_k^0 is the electric conductivity of *k*-material in a dense solid. In this equation, ψ_k^t is the threshold volume fraction of *k*-particles, which is determined by [4,22],

$$\bar{Z} \frac{\psi_{ed}^{t}/r_{ed}}{\psi_{ed}^{t}/r_{ed} + (1 - \psi_{ed}^{t})/r_{el}} = 1.764;$$

$$\bar{Z} \frac{\psi_{el}^{t}/r_{el}}{(1 - \psi_{el}^{t})/r_{ed} + \psi_{el}^{t}/r_{el}} = 1.764.$$
(27)

 σ_{ν}^{0} for Ni, LSM and YSZ may be estimated as [3,10],

$$\sigma_{\rm Ni}^{0} = 3.27 \times 10^{6} - 1065.3T$$

$$\sigma_{\rm LSM}^{0} = \frac{4.2 \times 10^{7}}{T} \exp\left(\frac{-1150}{T}\right) .$$
(28)

$$\sigma_{\rm YSZ}^{0} = 6.25 \times 10^{4} \exp\left(\frac{-10300}{T}\right)$$

The parameters of σ_{YSZ}^0 are deduced from the experimental values of 4.2 S m⁻¹ at 800 °C and 1.6 S m⁻¹ at 700 °C [1,38].

The hydraulic pore radius in the Knudson diffusivity expression (Eq. (19)) is calculated as [4],

$$r_{\rm g} = \frac{2}{3} \frac{1}{1 - \phi_{\rm g}} \frac{1}{\psi_{\rm ed}/r_{\rm ed} + \psi_{\rm el}/r_{\rm el}}.$$
 (29)

To test the validity of the percolation micro-model, the model predictions were compared with the recent FIB-SEM data of Wilson et al. [39] and Iwai et al. [40]. Fig. 4 shows the comparison of the measured $\lambda_{\text{TPB}}^{\text{V}}$ and $\lambda_{\text{TPB,eff}}^{\text{V}}$ for ϕ_{g} = 0.5, average diameter of $0.56 \pm 0.4 \,\mu\text{m}$ for LSM-particles and $0.32 \pm 0.2 \,\mu\text{m}$ for YSZ-particles [39] and the calculated values by the percolation micro-model at the same parameter setting and θ = 19.5° as a function of the YSZ volumetric fraction in solid content, ψ_{el} . The average contact angle θ , reflecting the overlap between particles, is not measured experimentally, but should be approximately constant for different ψ_{el} due to the use of a similar experimental procedure. This constant θ is the only fitting parameter in the micro-model. As shown in Fig. 4, there was good agreement between the measured and calculated data for different ψ_{el} . Moreover, agreement between the experimental data reported by Iwai et al. [40] and the percolation micro-mode can also be obtained with a larger particle size, consistent with the SEM image of Ref. [40] (Fig. 2b). The above analysis demonstrates the capability of the percolation micro-model to relate microstructure parameters with effective electrode properties.

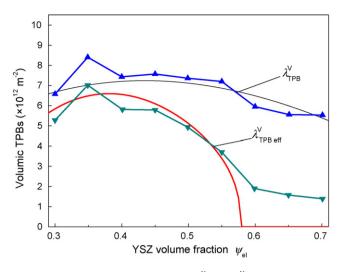


Fig. 4. Comparison of the FIB-SEM measured λ_{TPB}^{V} and $\lambda_{TPB,eff}^{V}$ and the calculated results by the percolation micro-model.

2.7. Numerical simulation

The finite element commercial software COMSOL MULTIPHSICS[®] Version 3.4 [41] was used in the present study to solve the coupled partial differential equations of electronic, ionic and gas transport macro-models described above in Sections 2.4 and 2.5. The effective properties for each material layer with different microstructures were calculated by the percolation micro-model described in Section 2.6. The boundary conditions required for all interfaces are shown in Table 1. Notice that boundary B1 for gas transport refers to the interface between the fuel

channel and the anode support instead of the interface between the interconnect and the anode support that is appropriate for current conduction. Similarly, boundary B6 for gas transport refers to the interface between the cathode current collector and the air channel. Moreover, depending on the problem, total current density, i_{op} , may be used to replace V_{op} for the electronic current conduction boundary condition at boundary B6.

2.8. Basic modeling parameters

Model parameters were chosen to correspond to experimental data as much as possible. Table 2 lists the basic model parameters with the experimental sources specified. Theoretical parameters are often set to be consistent with experimental observations. For example, the values of $r_{\rm ed}/r_{\rm el}$ in the cathode inter-layer and anode support were determined by the micro-model to reproduce the experimental conductivities of cathode inter-layer and anode support at 800 °C reported by Zhao and Virkar [1]. The values of $\sigma_{\rm ed}^{\rm eff}$ at 700 and 600 °C as well as most data for $\lambda_{\rm TPB,eff}^{\rm V}$, $\lambda_{\rm TPB,eff}^{\rm S}$ and other effective electrode properties were calculated from the microstructure data and shown in Table 2.

Based on the parameters in Table 2 and $p_{H_2}^0 = 0.97$ atm, $p_{H_2O}^0 = 0.03$ atm, and $p_{O_2}^0 = 0.21$ atm, theoretical *I*–*V* curves may fit the experimental results very well, as shown in Fig. 5a. The fitting used $j_{0,ref}^c$ (T_{ref} =800 °C) and α_f^c as the fitting parameters and the experimentally deduced contact resistances [1] were also used. The term β_f^c is chosen to be $1 - \alpha_f^c$. The terms α_f^a and β_r^a are inconsequential so long as $j_{0,ref}^a$ is sufficiently large ($j_{0,ref}^a$ is estimated to be a factor of 50–100 larger than $j_{0,ref}^c$ [26]). The good agreement between the theoretical and experimental *I*–*V* curves demonstrates the suitability of our proposed theoretical description.

Table 1

Boundary conditions for solving the coupled partial differential equations of current conduction and gas transport. "Insulation" means there is no flux through the boundary.

	B1	B2	B3	B4	B5	B6
Ionic charge balance	Insulation	Continuity	$-n \cdot i_i = i_{e,i}^{S,a}$	$-n \cdot i_i = -i_{e,i}^{S,c}$	Continuity	Insulation
Electronic charge balance	E ₀	Continuity	$-n \cdot i_{\mathrm{e}}^{\mathrm{a}} = -i_{\mathrm{e},\mathrm{i}}^{\mathrm{S},\mathrm{a}}$	$-n \cdot i_{\mathrm{e}}^{\mathrm{c}} = i_{\mathrm{e},\mathrm{i}}^{\mathrm{S},\mathrm{c}}$	Continuity	V_{op}
Mass balance	$p_{\rm H_2}^0 p_{\rm H_2O}^0$	Continuity	$\begin{split} -n\cdot N_{\mathrm{H_2}} &= -i_{\mathrm{e,i}}^{\mathrm{S,a}}/2F \\ -n\cdot N_{\mathrm{H_2O}} &= i_{\mathrm{e,i}}^{\mathrm{S,a}}/2F \end{split}$	$-n \cdot N_{O_2} = \frac{-i_{e,i}^{S,c}}{4F}$ $-n \cdot N_{N_2} = 0$	Continuity	$p_{O_2}^0 p_{N_2}^0$

Table 2

The structural parameters and material properties of fuel cell layers.

	Current collector	Cathode inter-layer	Electrolyte	Anode inter-layer	Anode support
Thickness (µm)	50[1]	20 [1]	8 [1]	20[1]	1000 [1]
$\phi_{ m g}$	45% [1]	26% [1]		23% [1]	48% [1]
$\psi_{\rm ed}$	100% [1]	47.5% [1]		55% [1]	55% [1]
$\sigma_{\rm ed}^{\rm eff}$ (S m ⁻¹)	$4.05\times10^3~800~^\circ\text{C}$	25.5 800 °C [1]		1413 800 °C	430 800 °C [1]
cu	4.00×10 ³ 700 °C	25.0 700 °C		1484 700 °C	451 700 °C
	3.90×10 ³ 600 °C	24.4 600 °C		1555 600 °C	473 600 °C
$\sigma_{\rm el}^{\rm eff}({\rm Sm^{-1}})$		0.36 800 °C	4.2 800 °C [1]	0.31 800 °C	
		0.14 700 °C	1.6 700 °C [1]	0.12 700 °C	
		0.04 600 ° C	0.47 600 °C	0.04 600 °C	
$r_{\rm ed}/r_{\rm el}$	1	1.85		2.71	2.71
<i>r</i> _{el} (μm)	0.6	0.2		0.2	0.3
r _g (μm)	0.72	0.23		0.27	0.53
$\lambda_{\text{TPB,eff}}^{V}(m^{-2})$		2.71×10^{12}		1.53×10^{12}	
$\lambda_{\text{TPB,eff}}^{\text{S}}(m^{-1})$		$4.16 imes 10^5$		2.61×10^{5}	
E_{0_2} (J mol ⁻¹)		130×10^3 [7]			
$\alpha_{\rm f}^{\rm c}, \tilde{\beta}_{\rm r}^{\rm c}$		0.65, 0.35			
$j_{0,ref}^{c}(A m^{-1})$		$1.25 imes 10^{-4}$			
$E_{\rm H_2} (\rm J mol^{-1})$				120×10^3 [7,27]	
$\alpha_{\rm f}^{\rm a}\beta_{\rm r}^{\rm a},$				1, 0.5 [7,27]	
$j_{0,ref}^{a}(A m^{-1})$				$8.0 imes 10^{-3}$	
τ	3	3		3	3

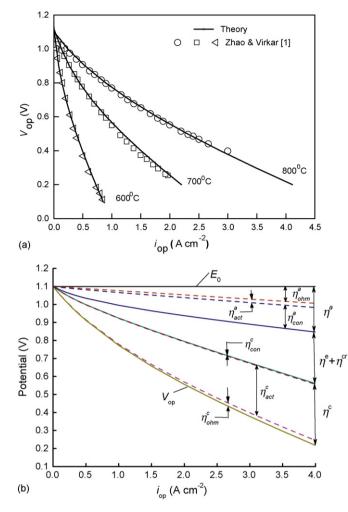


Fig. 5. (a) Comparison of theoretical and experimental *I–V* relationships at different temperatures. (b) The contribution of each polarization component to the total overpotential at 800 °C.

Fig. 5b shows the contribution of each polarization to the potential loss at 800 °C. Here η^a is the total polarization of the anode, i.e., the sum of the concentration polarization, η^a_{con} , ohmic polarization, η^a_{ohm} , and the activation polarization, η^a_{act} , of the anode. Both η^a_{con} and η^a_{ohm} are important due to the large thickness of anode support and its relatively low electric conductivity. The terms η^e and η^{cr} are the potential losses of dense electrolyte and interface contact resistance, respectively. The term η^c is the total polarization of the cathode, i.e., the sum of concentration polarization, η^c_{con} , ohmic polarization, η^c_{ohm} , and activation polarization, η^c_{act} , of the cathode. As shown in Fig. 5b, the relative importance of these polarization components is consistent with the conventional expectation, indicating that each of the electrode properties was described properly by the model.

Except for the cathode inter-layer thickness, the model parameters described above are used throughout the paper, unless specified otherwise. Unless stated otherwise, the operating temperature is $800 \,^{\circ}$ C and the operating current density is $10^4 \, \text{Am}^{-2}$.

3. Results and discussion

To examine the dependence of the performance of the cathode inter-layer on the material properties and microstructure parameters, we tried to vary only one basic model parameter at a time while keeping the others set at the standard values described in the last section.

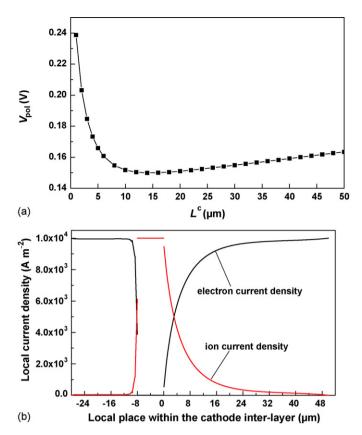


Fig. 6. (a) Variation of the overall polarization of the cathode inter-layer, V_{pol} , with the inter-layer thickness, L^c . (b) Distributions of electronic (black line) and ionic (red line) current densities within the assembly of anode inter-layer ($-28 \,\mu m < l < -8 \,\mu m$), electrolyte ($-8 \,\mu m < l < 0 \,\mu m$) and cathode inter-layer ($0 \,\mu m < l < 50 \,\mu m$). Discontinuities of the current density distribution at the electrode–electrolyte interfaces indicate the amount of current density conversion by electrochemical reactions at the interface TPBs. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of the article.)

3.1. Effect of the cathode inter-layer thickness

The dependence of the overall polarization of a cathode interlayer, V_{pol} , on its thickness, L^c , is shown in Fig. 6a. The term V_{pol} includes the activation overpotential for the electrochemical reaction, the ohmic polarization for electric current conduction and the concentration polarization for gas transport in the porous cathode inter-layer. When L^c is close to zero, the ohmic and concentration polarizations are also close to zero. However, all ionic current must be transferred at the interface of the dense electrolyte and the cathode inter-layer, i.e., at the surface TPBs. This is possible only with a large activation overpotential. With an increase of L^c, an increasing amount of the ionic current may be converted in the TPBs inside the inter-layer, resulting in a reduced activation overpotential. Furthermore, as the ohmic and concentration polarizations were relatively small in comparison with the activation polarization, the overall potential loss of the inter-layer decreased. Because all oxygen ions produced inside the inter-layer must be transported to the dense electrolyte through the inter-layer with low ionic conductivity, most ionic current is produced near the dense electrolyte interface, as shown in Fig. 6b. In other words, only a limited thickness of the cathode inter-layer can support the electrochemical reaction for a charge transfer between the electronic and ionic currents, and the rest remains electrochemically inactive. Consequently, further increases of the inter-layer thickness beyond a certain value have virtually no effect on reducing the activation overpotential. On the other hand, the ohmic and concentration overpotential increases with L^c , albeit only slightly. As a result, the overall polarization of the inter-layer decreased rapidly initially then increased gradually with L^c , as is evident in Fig. 6a. The minimal overall polarization was achieved with an inter-layer thickness of about 15 μ m. Notice, however, any L^c in the range of 8–30 μ m can be viewed as sufficiently optimal because the corresponding overall polarization is higher than the minimum by less than 5 mV.

3.2. Effect of material properties

Although YSZ and LSM are the most common electrolyte- and cathode-materials used in SOFC studies, there are also many other candidate materials. In fact, different experimental processing for the same material set can also result in very different effective properties. Examining the effects of material properties on the cell design is of practical importance. The effective material properties discussed here include the electronic and ionic conductivities and exchange current density based on per unit TPB length.

3.2.1. Effect of electronic conductivity

The overpotentials of a cathode inter-layer for a number of σ_{ed}^{eff} were calculated and the representative results are shown in Fig. 7. For a cathode inter-layer with low electronic conductivity ($\sigma_{ed}^{eff} = 5 \,\mathrm{S}\,\mathrm{m}^{-1}$), V_{pol} was sensitive to the inter-layer thickness and a minimum of 160 mV was found at $L^c = 10 \,\mu\mathrm{m}$. Allowing for a tolerance of 5 mV in minimizing V_{pol} , L^c should be in the range of (6, 16) $\mu\mathrm{m}$. For intermediate to high σ_{ed}^{eff} , e.g., $\sigma_{ed}^{eff} > 15 \,\mathrm{S}\,\mathrm{m}^{-1}$, V_{pol} was sensitive to thickness only for small L^c values. A minimum V_{pol} of 152 mV was found at $L^c=13 \,\mu\mathrm{m}$ for $\sigma_{ed}^{eff}=15 \,\mathrm{S}\,\mathrm{m}^{-1}$, and L^c in the range of (7, 24) $\mu\mathrm{m}$ was sufficiently optimal. For $\sigma_{ed}^{eff}=250 \,\mathrm{S}\,\mathrm{m}^{-1}$, a minimum V_{pol} of 146 mV was found at $L^c=20 \,\mu\mathrm{m}$ and any thickness of $L^c > 10 \,\mu\mathrm{m}$ was sufficiently close to the optimal design. Overall, the use of L^c in the range of 10–16 $\mu\mathrm{m}$ was suitable for a cathode inter-layer with any practical σ_{ed}^{eff} to achieve near optimal performance. Because the upper limit of L^c at 16 $\mu\mathrm{m}$ was due to $\sigma_{ed}^{eff} = 5 \,\mathrm{S}\,\mathrm{m}^{-1}$, which is improbably low for practical applications, it was safe to suggest a range of optimal L^c to be 10–20 $\mu\mathrm{m}$.

3.2.2. Effect of ionic conductivity

Fig. 8 shows the results of the variation of V_{pol} with L^c for different $\sigma_{\text{el}}^{\text{eff}}$. The range of $\sigma_{\text{el}}^{\text{eff}}$ examined was between 0.05 and 1.5 S m⁻¹. As shown in Table 2, $\sigma_{\text{el}}^{\text{eff}}$ may be only 0.04 S m⁻¹ when the working temperature is 600 °C. However, there are many other materials such as CeO₂ with much higher ionic conductivity and are more

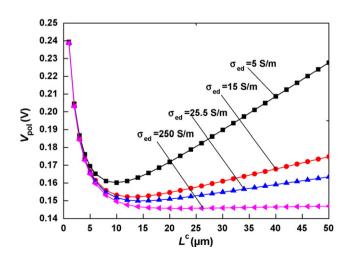


Fig. 7. Dependence of V_{pol} on L^c for cathode inter-layers with different effective electronic conductivities, $\sigma_{\text{eff}}^{\text{eff}}$.

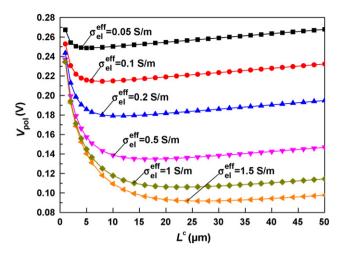


Fig. 8. Dependence of V_{pol} on L^c for cathode inter-layers with different effective ionic conductivities, σ_{el}^{eff} .

suitable than YSZ as the electrolyte-material when the working temperature is around 600 °C. Therefore, the chosen range of σ_{c1}^{eff} is representative in practice. As shown in Fig. 8, the minimal V_{pol} was sensitive to σ_{el}^{eff} , but was less sensitive to L^c unless L^c was substantially smaller than the optimal value. The optimal L^c values were 5, 8, 11, 17, 23 and 27 μ m for σ_{el}^{eff} = 0.05, 0.1, 0.2, 0.5, 1 and $1.5 \,\mathrm{S}\,\mathrm{m}^{-1}$, respectively. The corresponding optimal V_{pol} were 249, 215, 179, 135, 106 and 92 mV, respectively. The observed results can be attributed to the fact that a larger σ_{el}^{eff} allowed more oxygen ions to be produced further away from the dense electrolyte interface, substantially reducing the activation overpotential with a smaller cost of ohmic overpotential. For a tolerance of 5 mV in $V_{\rm pol}$ minimization, the corresponding ranges of $L^{\rm c}$ were 2–18, 3–21, 5–25, 9–33, 13–41 and 15–47 μm for σ_{el}^{eff} = 0.05, 0.1, 0.2, 0.5, 1 and 1.5 S m⁻¹, respectively. Overall, an *L*^c in the range of 15–18 µm was almost optimal for all examined σ_{el}^{eff} (0.05 S m⁻¹ < σ_{el}^{eff} < 1 S m⁻¹). The low limit was due to an improbably high σ_{el}^{eff} and the high limit is due to an improbably low $\sigma_{\rm el}^{\rm eff}$. For practical $\sigma_{\rm el}^{\rm eff}$, $L^{\rm c}$ in the range of $10-20 \,\mu\text{m}$ should be sufficiently optimal.

3.2.3. Effect of exchange current density

Fig. 9 shows the variation of $V_{\rm pol}$ with $L^{\rm c}$ for 3×10^{-5} A m⁻¹ < $j_{0,\rm ref}^{\rm c} < 10^{-3}$ A m⁻¹. A higher $j_{0,\rm ref}^{\rm c}$ means a lower activation over-

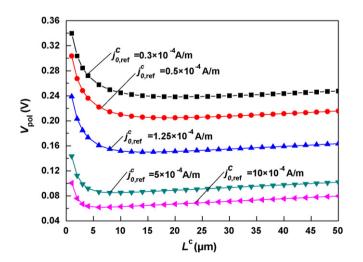


Fig. 9. Dependence of V_{pol} on L^c for cathode inter-layers with different exchange current density parameters, $j_{0,ref}^c$.

potential for the conversion of a given amount of electronic or ionic current. Naturally, V_{pol} decreases with the increase of $j_{0,\text{ref}}^{c}$. Moreover, a reduced activation overpotential with higher $j_{0,ref}^{c}$ also increases the relative importance of ohmic and concentration polarization. This causes an increased portion of the charge transfer reaction to take place at the dense electrolyte interface and the nearby inter-layer region. As a result, the minimum level of V_{pol} was found with a smaller L^{c} for higher $j_{0,ref}^{c}$, as shown in Fig. 9. The optimal thicknesses are 21, 19, 15, 9 and 6 μ m for $j_{0,ref}^c = 0.3 \times$ $10^{-4},~0.5\times 10^{-4},~1.25\times 10^{-4},~5\times 10^{-4}$ and $10^{-3}\,A\,m^{-1},$ respectively. tively. Considering the tolerance of 5 mV for minimizing V_{pol} , $10 \,\mu\text{m} < L^c < 20 \,\mu\text{m}$ satisfies the requirement for any $j_{0 \,\text{ref}}^c$ in the range of 0.3×10^{-4} and 1.0×10^{-3} A m⁻¹.

3.3. Effect of operating conditions

We assumed in our modeling that the fuel cell is isothermal at 800 °C with a fixed output current density of 10⁴ A m⁻². The output current density may vary due to different designs or load requirements. In fact, the current density generation in a working planar SOFC can vary substantially across the cell plate [42]. Similarly, SOFCs can be targeted for different working temperatures, and a working cell is not isothermal. The influences of these two common working parameters on cathode inter-layer performance are examined here.

3.3.1. Effect of output current density

Fig. 10 shows the influence of the output current density, i_{op} , on the variation of V_{pol} with L^c . Naturally, a higher i_{op} requires a larger $V_{\rm pol}$. As the ohmic and concentration overpotential increased approximately linearly with the current density, V_{pol} increased linearly with L^c when L^c was larger than the EAZ thickness, and the slope was larger for a larger i_{op} . As a result, the minimum level of V_{pol} was found at a smaller L^c for a larger i_{op} , as can be seen in Fig. 10. The optimal thicknesses were 19, 17, 15 and $12\,\mu m$ for $i_{\rm op}$ = 0.3 × 10⁴, 0.6 × 10⁴, 10⁴ and 1.5 × 10⁴ A m⁻², respectively. Assuming a tolerance of 5 mV for minimizing V_{pol} , the corresponding ranges of L^c are 8–60, 8–41, 7–31 and 6–24 μ m, respectively. The limited sensitivity of the desirable L^c range on the output current density was satisfactory as it meant an optimal design could be found for all practical working currents. Indeed, $8 \mu m < L^c < 24 \mu m$ satisfied the design requirement for all i_{op} examined.

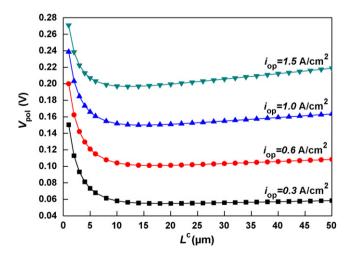


Fig. 10. Dependence of V_{pol} on L^c for different operating current densities, i_{op} .

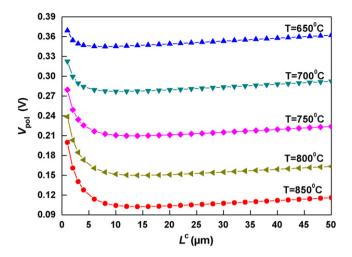


Fig. 11. Dependence of V_{pol} on L^c for different operating temperatures, T.

3.3.2. Effect of working temperature

Several material properties were strongly dependent on temperature. The ionic conductivity of the electrolyte-material increased with the temperature exponentially (Eqs. (28) and (26)). Here σ_{el}^{eff} varied from 0.076 to 0.55 S m⁻¹ when T is changed from 650 to $850 \,^{\circ}$ C. Additionally, j_0^c increased with T, resulting in a smaller activation overpotential for the same charge transfer rate (Eqs. (7) and (6)). In addition, σ_{ed}^{eff} changed moderately, varying from 24.8 to 25.5 S m⁻¹ when T varied from 650 °C to 850 °C. Overall, the change of σ_{el}^{eff} was the predominant temperature effect. Consequently, the temperature effect was qualitatively similar to the effect of ionic conductivity discussed in Section 3.2.2.

Fig. 11 shows the influence of T on the variation of V_{pol} with L^c . The optimal L^c was found at 8, 11, 13, 15 and 14 μ m for T=650, 700, 750, 800 and 850 °C, respectively. The corresponding ranges of L^c in µm are, respectively, 3-23, 4-27, 6-30, 8-31 and 8-30 when allowing for a tolerance of $5 \,\mathrm{mV}$ to minimize V_{pol} . Overall, 8 μ m < L^{c} < 23 μ m was the range of optimal cathode inter-layer thickness for all temperatures examined.

3.4. Effect of microstructure on cell performance

As can be seen from the discussions in Section 2, the microstructural parameters for the cathode inter-layer can be summarized as the size of the electrolyte-particle r_{el} , the ratio of the electrolyte- and electrode-particles radii $r_{\rm ed}/r_{\rm el}$, the volume fraction of electrode-particle ψ_{ed} and the porosity ϕ_{g} .

3.4.1. Effect of r_{el} The terms $\lambda_{\text{TPB,eff}}^V$, $\lambda_{\text{TPB,eff}}^S$ and r_g changed when r_{el} varied. Additionally, r_{ed} changed as r_{ed}/r_{el} was kept constant. As shown in Section 2.6, $\lambda_{\text{TPB,eff}}^{V}$ was proportional to the inverse square of r_{el} , and $\lambda_{\text{TPB.eff}}^{\text{S}}$ and r_{g} were proportional to the inverse of r_{el} . In addition, r_{g} only affected the gas transport in the inter-layer. Because the concentration polarization of the inter-layer was relatively small in all cases, variation of rg had very limited influence on the interlayer performance. The effects of changing $\lambda_{TPB,eff}^{V}$ and $\lambda_{TPB,eff}^{S}$ were significant as they influenced the activation overpotential directly.

The variations of V_{pol} with L^c for various r_{el} are shown in Fig. 12. Naturally, V_{pol} decreased with increases of $\lambda_{TPB,eff}^{V}$ and $\lambda_{TPB,eff}^{S}$ for smaller r_{el} . Reduced activation polarization increased the relative importance of the ohmic and concentration polarization, and the optimal L^{c} for minimizing V_{pol} was found at a smaller value for a smaller $r_{\rm el}$, as shown in Fig. 12. The optimal thicknesses were 9, 15, 21 and 23 μ m for $r_{\rm el}$ = 0.1, 0.2, 0.4 and 0.6 μ m, respectively. Assum-

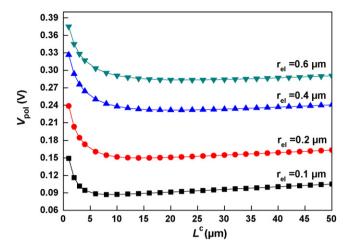


Fig. 12. Dependence of V_{pol} on L^c for different radii of electrolyte-particle, r_{el} .

ing a tolerance of 5 mV for minimizing V_{pol} , 12 μ m < L^c <22 μ m satisfied the optimal requirement for all r_{el} examined.

3.4.2. Effect of relative particle sizes, r_{ed}/r_{el}

As described in Section 2.6, σ_{el}^{eff} , σ_{ed}^{eff} , $\lambda_{TPB,eff}^V$, $\lambda_{TPB,eff}^S$ and r_g changed with a change of $r_{\rm ed}/r_{\rm el}$. Table 3 shows the variations of these property parameters on the values of $r_{\rm ed}/r_{\rm el}$ in a range of 0.5–2. For $r_{\rm ed}/r_{\rm el}$ = 0.5, there were many more electrode-particles than the electrolyte-particle in the cathode inter-layer for a fixed $\psi_{\rm ed}$ at 47.5%. The connectivity of the electrode-particle network was well above the percolation threshold, and σ_{ed}^{eff} was high. However, the connectivity of the electrolyte-particle network was only slightly above the percolation threshold, and $\sigma_{\rm el}^{\rm eff}$ was low. Along with an increase of $r_{\rm ed}/r_{\rm el}$, $\sigma_{\rm el}^{\rm eff}$ increased while $\sigma_{\rm ed}^{\rm eff}$ decreased as observed experimentally [2]. The factors $\lambda_{\rm TPB,eff}^{\rm V}$ and $\lambda_{\rm TPB,eff}^{\rm S}$ also decreased with an increase of $r_{\rm ed}/r_{\rm el}$ due to the reduced number of electrode-particles in a given volume of the inter-layer or the dense electrolyte surface, although this was compensated for in part by the improved connectivity of the network of the electrolyte-particles. The variation of $r_{\rm g}$ on $r_{\rm ed}/r_{\rm el}$ was simple and was determined by Eq. (29).

The variations of V_{pol} with L^c for various $r_{\text{ed}}/r_{\text{el}}$ are shown in Fig. 13. For $r_{\text{ed}}/r_{\text{el}} < 1$, the minimum level of V_{pol} decreased with an increase of $r_{\text{ed}}/r_{\text{el}}$ as the benefits of the rapid increase of $\sigma_{\text{el}}^{\text{eff}}$ outweighed the drawback of the decreased $\lambda_{\text{TPB,eff}}^V$ and $\lambda_{\text{TPB,eff}}^S$. For $r_{\text{ed}}/r_{\text{el}} > 1$, V_{pol} increased with an increase of $r_{\text{ed}}/r_{\text{el}}$ caused by the

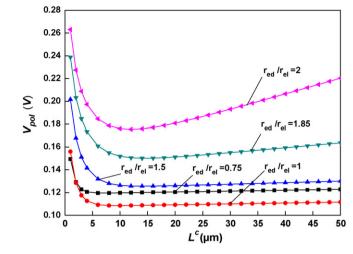


Fig. 13. Dependence of V_{pol} on L^c for different r_{ed}/r_{el} .

rapid decreases of σ_{ed}^{eff} , $\lambda_{TPB,eff}^V$ and $\lambda_{TPB,eff}^S$, while the increase of σ_{el}^{eff} was only moderate. The lowest V_{pol} was found when $r_{ed}/r_{el} = 1$, reflecting the best-balanced parameter set of σ_{el}^{eff} , σ_{ed}^{eff} , $\lambda_{TPB,eff}^V$ and $\lambda_{TPB,eff}^S$. The minimum level of V_{pol} was found at different L^c for different r_{ed}/r_{el} . However, if a tolerance of 5 mV for minimizing V_{pol} was assumed, 8 μ m < L^c < 20 μ m satisfied the optimal requirement for all r_{ed}/r_{el} examined.

3.4.3. Effect of inter-layer composition, ψ_{ed}

According to Eqs. (22) and (23), the percolation threshold for the inter-layer electrode- and electrolyte-particles can be calculated as $\psi_{ed}^t = 0.435$ and $1 - \psi_{el}^t = 0.816$ for $r_{ed}/r_{el} = 1.85$, respectively. Here $\psi_{ed} < 0.435$ corresponded to the cases illustrated in Fig. 2a, and the performance of cathode inter-layer is expected to be poor unless L^c is close to zero. Similarly, $\psi_{ed} > 0.816$ corresponded to the cases illustrated in Fig. 2c, and the performance of the cathode inter-layer was expected to decrease with an increase of L^c . However, the effect of L^c on the inter-layer's performance when $\psi_{ed} > 0.816$ was limited due to the high electronic conductivity and minimal gas transport resistance of the inter-layer. Therefore, we discussed cases where $\psi_{ed} > 0.435$. The values of ψ_{ed} discussed were 0.475, 0.55, 0.63, 0.7 and 1; $\psi_{ed} = 1$ corresponded to a purely electronic conducting cathode inter-layer.

Table 3

Dependences of σ_{el}^{eff} , σ_{ed}^{eff} , $\lambda_{\text{TPR eff}}^{\text{V}}$, $\lambda_{\text{TPR eff}}^{\text{S}}$ and r_{g} on r_{ed}/r_{el} for r_{el} = 0.2 µm, ψ_{ed} = 47.5% and ϕ_{g} = 26%.

$r_{\rm ed}/r_{\rm el}$	$\sigma_{ m ed}^{ m eff}$ (S ${ m m}^{-1}$)	$\sigma_{ m el}^{ m eff}$ (S ${ m m}^{-1}$)	$\lambda_{\text{TPB, eff}}^{\text{S}}\left(m^{-1} ight)$	$\lambda_{\text{TPB,eff}}^{V}\left(m^{-2} ight)$	<i>r</i> _g (m)
0.5	883	0.026	$2.73 imes 10^6$	1.26×10^{13}	0.12×10^{-6}
0.75	607	0.12	$1.8 imes 10^6$	1.17×10^{13}	0.16×10^{-6}
1	393	0.20	$1.28 imes 10^6$	$9.90 imes 10^{12}$	0.18×10^{-6}
1.5	117	0.31	$6.94 imes 10^5$	$4.69 imes 10^{12}$	$0.21 imes 10^{-6}$
1.85	25.3	0.36	$4.16 imes 10^5$	2.71×10^{12}	0.23×10^{-6}
2	7.06	0.38	2.98×10^5	1.92×10^{12}	0.24×10^{-6}

Table 4

Variations of σ_{el}^{eff} , σ_{ed}^{eff} , $\lambda_{TPB,eff}^V$, $\lambda_{TPB,eff}^S$ and r_g with ψ_{ed} for $r_{el} = 0.2 \,\mu\text{m}$, $r_{ed}/r_{el} = 1.85$ and $\phi_g = 26\%$.

$\psi_{ m ed}$	$\sigma_{ m ed}^{ m eff}$ (S ${ m m}^{-1}$)	$\sigma_{ m el}^{ m eff}$ (S ${ m m}^{-1}$)	$\lambda^{S}_{TPB,eff}$ (m ⁻¹)	$\lambda_{\text{TPB,eff}}^{V}\left(m^{-2} ight)$	<i>r</i> _g (m)
0.475	25.3	0.359	$4.16 imes10^5$	2.71×10^{12}	0.23×10^{-6}
0.55	210	0.218	$6.99 imes 10^5$	4.08×10^{12}	$0.24 imes 10^{-6}$
0.63	606	0.107	9.25×10^{5}	4.56×10^{12}	0.25×10^{-6}
0.7	1120	0.0416	$1.08 imes 10^6$	4.16×10^{12}	$0.27 imes 10^{-6}$
1	7339	0	$1.55 imes 10^6$	0	$0.33 imes 10^{-6}$

Table 5

Variations of σ_{el}^{eff} , σ_{ed}^{eff} , $\lambda_{TPB,eff}^V$, $\lambda_{TPB,eff}^S$ and r_g with ϕ_g for $r_{el} = 0.2 \ \mu m$, $r_{ed}/r_{el} = 1.85$ and $\psi_{ed} = 47.5\%$.

$\phi_{ m g}$	$\sigma_{ m ed}^{ m eff}$ (S ${ m m}^{-1}$)	$\sigma_{ m el}^{ m eff}$ (S ${ m m}^{-1}$)	$\lambda^{\rm S}_{{ m TPB, eff}}\left(m^{-1} ight)$	$\lambda_{\mathrm{TPB,eff}}^{\mathrm{V}}\left(m^{-2} ight)$	<i>r</i> _g (m)
0.10	46.57	0.56874	5.06×10^{5}	3.29×10^{12}	0.19×10^{-6}
0.20	32.047	0.43023	$4.50 imes 10^5$	2.93×10^{12}	$0.21 imes 10^{-6}$
0.26	25.349	0.35878	4.16×10^5	2.71×10^{12}	0.23×10^{-6}
0.36	16.743	0.2573	3.60×10^5	$2.34 imes 10^{12}$	0.27×10^{-6}
0.46	10.602	0.17578	$3.03 imes 10^5$	1.97×10^{12}	0.32×10^{-6}

As shown in Section 2.6, σ_{el}^{eff} , σ_{ed}^{eff} , $\lambda_{TPB,eff}^{V}$, $\lambda_{TPB,eff}^{S}$ and r_g changed with a change of ψ_{ed} . Table 4 shows the variations of these property parameters on the values of ψ_{ed} . The variations of V_{pol} with L^c for various ψ_{ed} are shown in Fig. 14. The lowest V_{pol} was found when $\psi_{ed} = 0.55$ at $L^c = 13 \,\mu$ m due to the best-balanced parameter set of σ_{el}^{eff} , σ_{edf}^{eff} , $\lambda_{TPB,eff}^{V}$ and $\lambda_{TPB,eff}^{S}$. However, the parameter set for the cathode inter-layer of Zhao and Virkar ($\psi_{ed} = 0.475$) was very close to being optimal given that V_{pol} at $L^c = 15 \,\mu$ m was only 2 mV above the global minimum. The minimum value of V_{pol} for $\psi_{ed} = 1$ was about twice the global minimum, agreeing with the widely reported experimental findings that a composite electrode exhibits lower activation overpotential than a single phase electrode made of pure electronic conducting material [35,43].

As shown in Fig. 14, the sensitivity of V_{pol} to L^c when L^c is small was quite different for different ψ_{ed} . However, in most cases, V_{pol} is insensitive to L^c when L^c was larger than the optimal value. Overall, 8 μ m < L^c < 30 μ m was the range of optimal inter-layer thickness for all ψ_{ed} examined, if we assumed a tolerance of 5 mV for minimizing V_{pol} .

3.4.4. Effect of porosity, ϕ_g

When there is a close packing of spherical particles, $\phi_g = 0.26$ was expected. A smaller ϕ_g was possible by using an advanced processing procedure, and $\phi_g = 0.2$ was the smallest ϕ_g reported for a working electrode inter-layer [6]. As shown in Table 5, all of the important property parameters, σ_{el}^{eff} , σ_{ed}^{eff} , $\lambda_{TPB,eff}^V$ and $\lambda_{TPB,eff}^S$ decreased with an increase of ϕ_g . Naturally, the performance of the cathode inter-layer was higher for smaller ϕ_g , as shown in Fig. 15. The cathode inter-layer performance could be improved with a further reduction of ϕ_g if the connectivity of the gas pores is maintained properly as assumed in our micro-model. However, maintaining gas pore connectivity might not be easy experimentally, and the guidelines provided here should be used with caution.

The minimum value of V_{pol} was found at $L^c = 17$, 16, 15, 12 and 9 µm for $\phi_g = 0.1$, 0.2, 0.26, 0.36 and 0.46, respectively. Overall, 9 µm < L^c < 18 µm was the range of optimal inter-layer thickness for

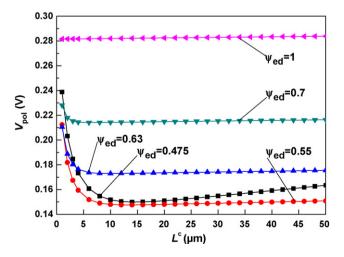


Fig. 14. Dependence of V_{pol} on L^{c} for different ψ_{ed} .

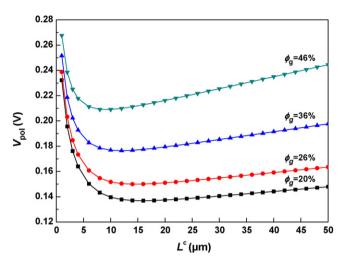


Fig. 15. Dependence of V_{pol} on L^c for different ϕ_{g} .

all ϕ_g examined when assuming a tolerance of 5 mV for minimizing V_{pol} . The upper limit of the optimal L^c was due to an unrealistically high ϕ_g and may be safely extended to 20 μ m in practice.

4. Summary

The processes of electrochemical reaction, electronic and ionic current conductions and gas transports in an SOFC were discussed and illustrated schematically. The schematic illustration provides a way for the broad SOFC community to easily understand the complicated multi-physics processes in SOFC.

We described in detail the mathematics required for the corresponding macro-model and a micro-model to deduce from the microstructure parameters what effective properties were required by the macro-model. The macro-model and micro-model were used to study the dependence of the performance of cathode inter-layer on its thickness, effective electronic and ionic conductivities, exchange current density, operating temperature, output current density, electrode- and electrolyte-particle radii, composition and porosity, with a focus on finding the optimal inter-layer thickness that minimizes the overall polarization of the cathode inter-layer. Assuming a tolerance of 5 mV for minimizing the polarization of the cathode inter-layer, an inter-layer thickness of 15 µm was found to be optimal for all parameter sets examined. Excluding unrealistic material parameters such as very high ionic conductivity or very low electronic conductivity of the cathode inter-layer, a cathode inter-layer thickness in the range of $10-20\,\mu m$ was optimal for all practical situations. The conclusions drawn by our comprehensive study are simple and robust and should be very useful to researchers in the field.

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