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Modeling of high temperature direct methanol solid oxide fuel cells

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Summary:

Methanol is a promising fuel for solid oxide fuel cells (SOFCs). A 2D numerical model is developed to study a tubular direct methanol SOFC. The model fully considers the methanol decomposition reaction (MDR) and water gas shift reaction (WGSR) in the anode, the electrochemical oxidations of H₂ and CO, fluid flow and mass transfer in the cell. The model is validated by the direct methanol SOFC experiment, which achieved a peak power density of 1.3 W cm⁻² at 1073 K. Subsequent parameters is simulations are conducted to understand the effects of operating and structural parameters on the SOFC performance, such as temperature, potential, anode thickness and cell length. It is found that the performance of direct methanol SOFC increases with increasing inlet temperature because of the enhanced chemical reaction rates, electrochemical reaction rates, as well as ionic conduction at a higher temperature. In addition, higher methanol conversion can be achieved by increasing the anode thickness and cell length. The current density is found to increase with slight increase in anode thickness but decrease with increasing SOFC length. The results form a basis for subsequent performance enhancement of direct methanol SOFC by optimization of the cell structure and operating parameters.

Keywords: solid oxide fuel cell; Methanol fuel; Modeling; Water gas shift reaction (WGSR); Direct internal reforming (DIR).

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Nomano	Nomenclature					
inductional						
Abbreviation			Greek letters			
YSZ	Yttrium-stabilized zirconium	α	Charge transfer coefficient			
LSM	Lanthanum strontium manganate	ε	Porosity			
SOFC	Solid oxide fuel cell	κ	Permeability, m ²			
SCCM	Standard cubic centimeters per	μ	Dynamic viscosity of gas mixture,			
2001.1	minute	μ.	Pa s			
TPB	Triple-phase boundary	μ_i	Dynamic viscosity of species i, Pa			
MDR	Methanol decomposition reaction	, .	S			
WGSR	Water gas shift reaction	η	Polarization, V			
		$\stackrel{\cdot}{ ho}$	Mass concentration of the mixture,			
Roman		•	kg m ⁻³			
c	Total concentration of the gas	σ	Electrical conductivity, S m ⁻¹			
	mixture, mol m ⁻³	τ	Tortuosity			
D_{ij}	Binary diffusion coefficient of <i>i</i> and	ω_i	Mass fraction of species <i>i</i>			
	$j, \text{ cm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$		-			
D_{ik}	Knudsen diffusion coefficient of i,	Subscripts				
	$\mathrm{cm}^2 \mathrm{s}^{-1}$	a	Anode			
D_{ij}^{eff}	Effective binary diffusion	act	Activation			
l)	coefficient of i and j , cm ² s ⁻¹	c	Cathode			
E	Equilibrium Nernst potential, V	i	Species i			
F	Faraday constant, 96,485 C mol ⁻¹	l	Ionic phase			
i	Current density, A m ⁻²	S	Electronic phase			
i_0	Exchange current density, A m ⁻²					
j_i	Mass diffusion flux of species i, kg	Supers	-			
	$m^{-2} s^{-1}$	$e\!f\!f$	Effective			
J_i	Molar diffusion flux of species i ,	l	Local			
	$mol m^{-2} s^{-1}$					
L_{cell}	Cell length, mm					
M_i	Molecular weight of species i, kg					
	mol ⁻¹					
n	Number of electrons transferred per					
	electrochemical reaction					
N_i	Molar flux of species i , mol m ⁻² s ⁻¹					
p	(partial) Pressure, Pa					
Q_m	Mass source, kg					
r	Mean pore radius, m					
R	Gas constant, 8.3145 J mol ⁻¹ K ⁻¹					
R_r	Rate of chemical reaction, mol m ⁻³ s ⁻¹					
R_i	Rate of generation or consumption of species i , mol m ⁻³ s ⁻¹					
S	Specific surface area, m ² m ⁻³					
T	Temperature, K					
U	Mass-averaged velocity, m s ⁻¹					
и	Molar-averaged velocity, m s ⁻¹					
V	Volume fraction					
y_i	Molar fraction of species i					

1 Introduction

Solid Oxide Fuel Cells (SOFCs) are environmentally-friendly and efficient devices for converting the chemical energy of the reactants into the electric power via the electrochemical reactions.¹ As the ceramic electrolyte materials like YSZ (yttrium-stabilized zirconia) require a high temperature for fast O²⁻ conduction, SOFCs normally operate at 600 ° to 1000 °C. The high operating temperature offers SOFCs various advantages over low temperature fuel cells like PEMFCs (proton exchange membrane fuel cells), such as the use of low-cost catalyst. In addition, CO is a poisonous gas for PEMFCs but could be considered as the fuel for electricity generation by an SOFC.² Although hydrogen is an ideal fuel for SOFC due to the fast oxidation kinetics, it is still challenging to produce and store hydrogen efficiently and economically. Compared with PEMFC, a distinct feature of SOFC is fuel flexibility. Various gaseous fuels, such as methane,^{3,4} methanol,^{5,6} ammonia,^{7,8} etc., can be used as fuels by SOFCs for power generation due to the internal reforming of hydrocarbons or ammonia thermal decomposition in the SOFC anode. In addition, solid carbon even biomass can be used as fuel in SOFC^{9,10}.

Among various carbonaceous fuels, methanol is a promising fuel for SOFC due to a number of reasons. Methanol is the simplest alcohol and has a relatively higher H/C ratio of 4:1, which is same as methane. 9 Compared with methane fuel, the carbon deposition is not a big concern for SOFC since the oxygen atom in methanol does not favour the carbon deposition reaction. In addition, the transportation and storage of liquid methanol at ambient pressure and temperature is more convenient than those of gaseous fuels such as methane. Besides, the volumetric energy density of methanol is almost up to 1.6×10⁴ kJ m⁻³, which is about half to that of gasoline, but much higher than that of liquid hydrogen. ^{10,11} Moreover, unlike other heavier alcohols like ethanol (C₂H₅OH) with the C-C bond in the molecular structures, the cleavage of C-H bonds is much easier for methanol through methanol thermal decomposition $(CH_3OH \rightarrow CO + 2H_2)$ or steam reforming of methanol $(CH_3OH + H_2O \rightarrow CO_2 + 3H_2)$. Actually, methanol has been extensively studied as a promising fuel in other types of fuel cells such as the DMFC (Direct Methanol Fuel cell with a polymer electrolyte). However, lower current density (typically less than 100 mW cm⁻², ^{13,14} because of the sluggish anode kinetics) and lower efficiency (due to the crossover of methanol from the anode side to the cathode side) limit the wide application of DMFC. 15,16 In addition to the polymer electrolyte based DMFC, the use of methanol in SOFC has been experimentally studied. Jiang et al.¹⁷ fabricated an anode-supported SOFC with YSZ as the thin film electrolyte, and achieved high power densities of 0.6 W cm⁻² at 923 K and 1.3 W cm⁻² at 1073 K using pure methanol as a fuel.

Although there are no details of the long-term test for the carbon resistance, no noticeable carbon deposition was observed in the anode after experiments, which demonstrated the feasibility of the direct methanol SOFC without the coking issues. Liu et al.¹⁸ developed an SOFC assembled by Ni/SDC-SDC-SSC/SDC (anode-electrolyte-cathode, SDC: Sm-doped ceria; SSC: Sm_{0.5}Sr_{0.5}CoO₃.). Using methanol fuel, the SOFC achieved the maximum power densities of 0.223, 0.43 and 0. 698 W cm⁻² at 550, 600 and 650 °C, respectively, which were only slightly lower than those using hydrogen fuel. After 160 h operation stability test, there is no degradation observed in the performance of the cell. Meng et al. 19 developed an anodesupported SOFC with the porous Ni/SDC anode, the SDC thin film electrolyte and the composite LSCF/SDC (LSCF: La_{0.6}Sr_{0.4}Co_{0.2}Fe_{0.8}O₃) cathode and achieved a peak power density of 0.82 W cm⁻² at 600 °C. EDX analysis showed that no coke formation in the cermet anode layer after the durability test over 60 h. Sasaki et al.²⁰ showed comparable performances of SOFC with Ni/YSZ composite anode using CH₃OH fuel and the H₂/CO mixture (with molar ratio of 2:1). Saunders et al. also demonstrated that the CH₃OH fueled SOFC performed comparably with the H₂ fueled SOFC.²¹ According to the analyses of the above experimental researches, carbon deposition is thermodynamically unfavored due to the methanol's high oxygen to carbon ratio in the molecular structure. Therefore, coking issue could be partially or fully inhibited in the direct methanol SOFC under some operating conditions such as the higher temperature (thermodynamically), higher current density (more flux of the oxygen ions) and higher ion conductivity of the ceramic phase in the cermet anode.

The above-mentioned experimental studies demonstrated the feasibility of the high-performance direct methanol SOFC with the state-of-the-art Ni-based anode configuration. However, the present literature is lacking a detailed numerical modeling study on the complicated chemical and physical processes in the SOFC as the chemical reactions, electrochemical reactions, and transport processes are highly coupled. For example, the operating temperature may significantly affect the chemical reaction rates, which in turn may influence the gas composition of the cell and subsequently affect the fuel cell power output. A comprehensive understanding of these phenomena is essential for optimizing the operating conditions and the fuel cell micro- and macro-structures for performance enhancement. Therefore, in order to fill this research gap, a 2D comprehensive model for direct methanol SOFC is developed and parametric simulations are performed.

The 2D mathematic model fully considers the chemical reactions (methanol reforming reaction and water gas shift reaction), electrochemical reactions and mass transfer in a tubular SOFC running on CH₃OH fuel. The typical SOFC configuration of Ni/YSZ-YSZ/LSM

is used. The modeling results are compared with the experimental results of Jiang et al.¹⁷ for model validation. Detailed parametric simulations are conducted to investigate the mass transfer, fluid flow and internal reforming reaction with considering the electrochemical oxidations of both CO and H₂ in the anode. The effects of the operating conditions (inlet temperature and operating potential) and the structural parameters (length of the cell and thickness of the anode) on the performance of CH₃OH fueled SOFC are also investigated in detail.

2 Model development

2.1 Working mechanism and simulation assumptions

In the present study, a 2D numerical model is developed for the methanol fueled SOFC. The schematics of the anode-supported SOFC and the working mechanism are shown in Figure 1. According to the experimental set-up of Jiang et al.'s study,¹⁷ the computational domain of the SOFC includes anode channel (fuel channel), Ni/YSZ porous anode, YSZ dense electrolyte, YSZ/LSM porous cathode, and cathode channel (air channel). In addition to gas transport through the porous electrodes, the chemical reactions also take place in the porous anode. The dense electrolyte is a gas-tight, oxygen-ion conducting layer which separates the gases of cathode and anode. The values of materials and specific dimensions of the SOFC are set to be consistent with the experimental set-up, as summarized in Table 1.

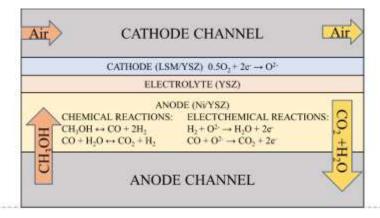


Figure 1 Schematic of the anode-supported SOFC operating on the pure methanol. Table 1 Model parameters. 17,22,23

Parameter	Value or expression	Unit
Ionic conductivity		
YSZ	$3.34 \times 10^4 \times e^{\frac{-10300}{T}}$	S m ⁻¹
Electronic conductivity		
Ni	$3.27 \times 10^6 - 1065.3 \times T$	S m ⁻¹
LSM	$4.2 \times 10^7 / T \times e^{\frac{-1150}{T}}$	$S m^{-1}$
Porosity	·	

Cathode	0.46	
Anode	0.46	
S_{TPB}		
Cathode layer	3.33×10^{5}	$\mathrm{m}^2~\mathrm{m}^{-3}$
Anode layer	2.66×10^{5}	$\mathrm{m}^2~\mathrm{m}^{-3}$
Tortuosity	3	
Anode-supported SOFC		
Cell length	9	mm
Ni-YSZ porous anode	1.02	mm
YSZ electrolyte	0.01	mm
LSM-YSZ cathode	0.1	mm

In operation, CH₃OH and air are supplied to the anode channel and cathode channel, respectively. CH₃OH is diffused from the anode channel into the porous anode, where with the Ni metal catalyst CH₃OH fuel is converted to CO and H₂ through the methanol decomposition reaction (MDR, Equation 1).^{9,24} Due to the generation of the steam by the electrochemical oxidation of the hydrogen (Equation 3), water gas shift reaction (WGSR, Equation 2) will take place to produce CO₂ and more H₂ in the anode catalyst layer.

$$CH_3OH \leftrightarrow CO + 2H_2 \tag{1}$$

$$CO + H_2O \leftrightarrow CO_2 + H_2 \tag{2}$$

At the triple phase boundary (TPB) of the porous anode, both H_2 and CO can be electrochemically oxidized by O^{2-} to produce electrons and H_2O or CO_2 (Equations 3 and 4). The electrons are subsequently collected by the current collector and transported via the external circuit to the cathode, where electrons react with O_2 molecules to form O^{2-} (Equation 5), followed by O^{2-} transport from the cathode to the anode via the dense electrolyte. Therefore, as long as the fuel and air are supplied to the anode and cathode, the electrical power can be generated continuously.

$$H_2 + 0^{2-} \rightarrow H_2 0 + 2e^-$$
 (3)

$$CO + O^{2-} \rightarrow CO_2 + 2e^-$$
 (4)

$$0.50_2 + 2e^- \to 0^{2-} \tag{5}$$

In this study, only MDR and WGSR reactions are considered to be the possible chemical reactions in the porous anode. The methanation reaction (CO + $3H_2 \leftrightarrow CH_4 + H_2O$) requires a high pressure and a relatively lower temperature, which is not favoured under the fuel cell operation condition.²⁴ Although the Boudouard reaction ($2CO \leftrightarrow CO_2 + C$) is also thermodynamically unfavoured in the SOFC because of the exothermic nature of the reaction,²⁴ it should be noticed that the carbon may deposit on the anode catalyst surface due to the faster kinetics of the Boudouard reaction caused by the high temperature in the cell, and the carbon

deposition is detrimental to the performance of SOFCs by blocking the pores, covering the TPB, and even destroying the anode structure (under extreme conditions).²⁵ Boudouard reaction is assumed to be negligible in the present work as the O atom in CH₃OH does not favour the formation of C, in comparison with the CH₄ fuel. This assumption is also consistent with experimental results without any noticeable carbon deposition.¹⁷⁻²¹ However, it should be noted that the other chemical reactions may become significant under certain conditions. For example, carbon deposition may happen under certain temperature and current densities. They can be considered in the subsequent studies when more reliable data are available.

Based on the principles of the SOFC running on the pure methanol, the main assumptions used in simulations are presented below.

- (1) Only H₂ and CO can be electrochemically oxidized due to their relatively high reaction kinetics;
- (2) The catalyst sites for electrochemical oxidations of H_2 as well as CO and the electrochemical reduction of the O_2 are uniformly distributed in the porous anode and cathode, respectively;
- (3) In addition, the electron conduction in the electrodes and the oxygen ion (O²⁻) transport in the anode-electrolyte-cathode are assumed to be homogeneous and continuous;
- (4) All gases are treated as ideal gases, which obey the ideal gas law (PV = nRT), and the dynamic viscosity of the ideal gas species is independent of the pressure;
- (5) The temperature distribution is considered to be uniform within the whole cell due to the small cell size, and all parameters are calculated at the given constant temperature;
- (6) The fluid flow in the SOFC is considered as the laminar flow due to relatively lower Reynolds number.

2.2 Governing equations

The mathematic model mainly includes the following sub-models: chemical reaction model, electrochemical reaction model, and computational fluid dynamics (CFD) model as well as the mass transfer model.

2.2.1 Chemical reaction model

The chemical reaction model is developed to compute the chemical reactions rates and the species source terms for the mass transfer model involved in processes of the cell. Both MDR (Equation 1) and the reversible WGSR (Equation 2) are considered for the SOFC anode. The reaction rates for MDR (R_{MDR} , mol m⁻³ s⁻¹) and reversible WGSR (R_{WGSR} , mol m⁻³ s⁻¹) can be calculated below:

The MDR^{26} :

$$R_{MDR} = k_D P_{CH_3OH} E_{qD} (6)$$

$$E_{qD} = 1 - \frac{P_{CO}p_{H_2}^2}{K_{eq,D}P_{CH_3OH}} \tag{7}$$

$$K_{eq,D} = 1.718 \times 10^{14} \exp\left(-\frac{95419}{RT}\right)$$
 (8)

The WGSR²⁷:

$$R_{WGSR} = k_{sf} (P_{H_2O} P_{CO} - \frac{P_{H_2} P_{CO_2}}{K_{DS}})$$
 (9)

$$k_{sf} = 0.0171 \exp\left(-\frac{103191}{RT}\right)$$
 (10)

$$K_{ps} = \exp(-0.2935Z^3 + 0.6351Z^2 + 4.1788Z + 0.3169)$$
 (11)

$$Z = \frac{1000}{T(K)} - 1\tag{12}$$

where the k_D is the tuning parameter for the model validation. It should be noted that these reactions are considered negligible in the fuel channel because of the lack of the catalyst.²⁸

2.2.2 Electrochemical reaction model

The output current density (i, A m⁻²) can be calculated at the specific operating potential by the electrochemical reaction model. It is known that current density is related to the electrochemical reaction rate, and in electrochemistry, the Butler-Volmer (BV) equation is a fundamental function for linking the current density with the activation overpotential (η_{act} , V). In this study, the current density generated from the electrochemical reactions (Equations 3, 4 and 5) can be calculated from:

$$i = i_0 \left\{ \exp\left(\frac{\alpha n F \eta_{act}}{RT}\right) - \exp\left(\frac{-(1-\alpha)n F \eta_{act}}{RT}\right) \right\}$$
 (13)

where i_0 is the exchange current density. From the literature, the i_0 for H₂ and O₂ are set to be 5300 A m⁻² and 2000 A m⁻², respectively.²⁸ Besides, the electrochemical oxidation reaction rate of the CO is about 0.32-0.52 times that of the H₂ at about 800 °C,²⁹ and considering the advancement of the electrode activity for the CO oxidation. Therefore, i_0 for CO in the present work is set to be 3000 A m⁻².²⁸ n is the number of the electrons released from the per electrochemical reaction; F is the Faraday constant (96,485 C mol⁻¹); R is the universal gas constant (8.3145 J mol⁻¹ K⁻¹); T (K) is the temperature. The activation overpotential (η_{act}) can be calculated as:

$$V = E - \eta_{act.a} - \eta_{act.c} - \eta_{ohmic} \tag{14}$$

Here η_{ohmic} (V) is the ohmic loss caused by the transport of the electrons and the ions; E (V) is thermodynamic equilibrium potential (Nernst potential), and equilibrium potentials for H₂ and CO can be expressed respectively by the Nernst equations²⁸:

$$E_{H_2} = E_{H_2}^T + \frac{RT}{2F} \left[\frac{p_{H_2}^l (p_{O_2}^l)^{0.5}}{p_{H_2O}^l} \right]$$
 (15)

$$E_{CO} = E_{CO}^{T} + \frac{RT}{2F} \left[\frac{p_{CO}^{l} (p_{O_2}^{l})^{0.5}}{p_{CO_2}^{l}} \right]$$
 (16)

where p_i^l (Pa) is the local partial pressure of species i; $E_{H_2}^T$ and E_{CO}^T are the equilibrium potentials at the pressure of 1 atm (101,325 Pa), which follow a linear relationship with the temperature²⁸:

$$E_{H_2}^T = 1.253 - 0.00024516T (17)$$

$$E_{CO}^T = 1.46713 - 0.0004527T (18)$$

It should be noticed that the calculation of equilibrium potentials in the Nernst equations (Equations 15 and 16) is based on the local gas partial pressures at the triple phase boundary, so the concentration potential losses are theoretically included in the equilibrium potentials calculation.

The ohmic overpotential (η_{ohmic}) can be described by the Ohm's law, from which, the electronic/ionic phase potential can be calculated as:

$$i_l = -\sigma_l^{eff} \nabla(\emptyset_l) \tag{19}$$

$$i_{S} = -\sigma_{S}^{eff} \nabla(\emptyset_{S}) \tag{20}$$

where \mathcal{O}_l and \mathcal{O}_s (V) are the potentials of ion-conducting phase and electron-conducting phase, respectively; σ_l^{eff} and σ_s^{eff} (S m⁻¹) are the effective ionic conductivity and electronic conductivity of the electrodes. The effective conductivities can be calculated by the material intrinsic conductivity with the correction of microstructures of the porous electrodes:

$$\sigma_l^{eff} = \sigma_l \cdot \frac{V_l}{\tau_l} \tag{21}$$

$$\sigma_s^{eff} = \sigma_s \cdot \frac{v_s}{\tau_s} \tag{22}$$

here V represents the volume fraction in the electrodes and the τ is the tortuosity.²³

2.2.3 CFD model

The CFD model is developed to simulate the fluid flow in the electrodes and the channels. Fluid flow is governed by the conservations of the mass and the momentum. In the gas channels, the typical Navier–Stokes equations of the steady state are applied:

Mass conservation:

$$\rho \nabla \cdot U = 0 \tag{23}$$

Momentum conservation:

$$\rho(U \cdot \nabla) \cdot U = -\nabla p + \nabla \cdot \left[\mu(\nabla U + \nabla U^T) \right] \tag{24}$$

Since the mass and momentum in the electrodes will change because of the electrochemical reactions, the extension of the Navier–Stokes equations, the Brinkman equations, are employed to describe the fluid velocity and the pressure field in the porous media, which extend Darcy' law to account for the dissipation of the kinetic energy by the viscous shear, as shown below:

Mass conservation:

$$\rho \nabla \cdot U = Q_m \tag{25}$$

Momentum conservation:

$$\frac{1}{\varepsilon}\rho(U\cdot\nabla)\cdot U\frac{1}{\varepsilon} = -\nabla p + \nabla\cdot\left[\mu\frac{1}{\varepsilon}(\nabla U + \nabla U^T) - \frac{2}{3}\mu\frac{1}{\varepsilon}(\nabla\cdot U)\right] - \left(\mu\kappa^{-1} + \frac{Q_m}{\varepsilon^2}\right)U \quad (26)$$

where ε and κ (m²) are the porosity and the permeability of the electrodes; p and U (m s⁻¹) represent the pressure and velocity, respectively; Q_m (kg) is the amount of the mass change due to the electrochemical reactions; μ (Pa s) is the dynamic viscosity of the gas mixture, which can be expressed by:

$$\mu = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{y_i \mu_i}{\sum_{j=1}^{n} (y_i \sqrt{\frac{M_j}{M_i}})}$$
 (27)

where y_i , μ_i and M_i (kg mol⁻¹) are the molar fraction, dynamic viscosity and molecular weight of species i, respectively. The dynamic viscosities for the gases are summarized in Table 2. Table 2 Dynamic viscosities of the gases.³⁰

μ_i	Value	Unit
CO	$(23.811 + 0.53944 \times T - 1.5411 \times 10^{-4} \times T^2) \times 10^{-7}$	Pa s
CO_2	$(11.811 + 0.49838 \times T - 1.0851 \times 10^{-4} \times T^2) \times 10^{-7}$	Pa s
H_2	$(27.758 + 0.212 \times T - 3.28 \times 10^{-5} \times T^2) \times 10^{-7}$	Pa s
H_2O	$(-36.826 + 0.429 \times T - 1.62 \times 10^{-5} \times T^2) \times 10^{-7}$	Pa s
CH₃OH	$(-14236 + 038935 \times T - 62762 \times 10^{-5} \times T^2) \times 10^{-7}$	Pa s

2.2.4 Mass transfer model

The SOFC is a multicomponent system, and the concentrations of different species (uncharged species) in different regions are in general different. In order to determine the gas composition within the whole SOFC (except the dense electrolyte), the mass transfer model is used since it deals with the situations involving electrochemical/chemical reactions, fluid convection and diffusion or mixing phenomena. Therefore, the differential molar balance equations of component i are given by:

In the gas channels:

$$c\frac{\partial y_i}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot J_i + c(u \cdot \nabla)y_i = 0$$
 (28)

In the electrodes:

$$\varepsilon \cdot c \frac{\partial y_i}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot J_i + c(u \cdot \nabla) y_i = R_i$$
 (29)

where J_i (mol m⁻² s⁻¹) is the molar diffusion flux of species i; c (mol m⁻³) is the total concentration of the gas mixture, and R_i (mol m⁻³ s⁻¹) represents the rate of generation or consumption of species i due to the homogeneous chemical reactions or the electrochemical reactions inside the porous electrodes; u (m s⁻¹) denotes the molar average velocity of the mixture, which is different from the mass average velocity U dealt with in Navier–Stokes equations. For the steady state system, the first terms on the left-hand sides of the Equations 28 and 29 equal 0.

Stefan-Maxwell model is used to calculate the diffusion flux of species i.³¹ In the free channel, the molecular diffusion or continuum diffusion dominates,³² while in the porous media, diffusion is an intermediate state between molecular diffusion and Knudsen diffusion.³³ Therefore, the diffusion model of the steady state is given by:

In the gas channels:

$$\sum_{j=1, j \neq i}^{n} \frac{y_{j} N_{i} - y_{i} N_{j}}{D_{ij}} = -c \frac{dy_{i}}{dx}$$
 (30)

In the electrodes:

$$\sum_{j=1, j \neq i}^{n} \frac{y_{j} N_{i} - y_{i} N_{j}}{D_{ij}^{eff}} = -c \frac{dy_{i}}{dx}$$
 (31)

here N_i (mol m⁻² s⁻¹) is the molar flux of species i; D_{ij} (m² s⁻¹) denotes the binary diffusion coefficient of species i and j; D_{ij}^{eff} (m² s⁻¹) is the effective binary diffusion coefficient of species i and j, which is determined by the molecular diffusion coefficient and the Knudsen diffusion coefficient as well as the microstructures of the porous electrodes³⁴:

$$D_{ij}^{eff} = \frac{\varepsilon}{\tau} \left(\frac{1}{D_{ij}} + \frac{1}{D_{ik}} \right)^{-1} \tag{32}$$

From the kinetic theory, 35 the Knudsen diffusion coefficient (D_{ik}) is govern by:

$$D_{ik} = \frac{2}{3} r \sqrt{\frac{8RT}{\pi M_i}} \tag{33}$$

where r (m) is the mean pore radius.

2.3 Numerical methods and validation

The governing equations of the model are solved by the Finite Element Method using the commercial software COMSOL 5.4. The computation domain is discretized into 52,000 elements to ensure the grid-independence of the results. The preliminary simulation results are compared with the experimental data with good as shown in Figure 2, and the average error in terms of the deviation between simulation and experimental data at 1073 K is 6.05%, which

validates the present model. The operating conditions and tuning parameter for the validation are summarized in Table 3. Same parameters (except typical operating conditions and structural dimensions) are used for the subsequent parametric simulations.

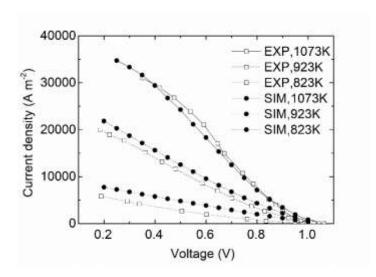


Figure 2 Model validation for the methanol-fueled SOFC at 1073 K, 923 K and 823 K. Table 3 Operation parameters for model validation.

Parameters	Value	Unit
Anode inlet fuel flow rate (liquid)	0.2	ml min ⁻¹ (std)
Cathode inlet gas flow	600/1.13(1073 K)	SCCM/m s ⁻¹
rate/velocity		
Anode inlet gas composition	CH ₃ OH (100%)	
Cathode inlet gas composition	$O_2(21\%) + N_2(79\%)$	
Operating temperature	1073, 923, 873	K
Operating pressure	1	atm
Operating potential	0.2 - 1.0	V
H ₂ exchange current density	5300	$A m^{-2}$
CO exchange current density	3000	$A m^{-2}$
O ₂ exchange current density	2000	$A m^{-2}$
Equilibrium constant of methanol	0.004	
decomposition reaction, $k_{\rm D}$	0.004	

3 Results and discussion

3.1 Base case

Figure 3 shows the distributions of rates of chemical reactions and the molar fractions of species at an inlet temperature of 1073 K, and operating potential of 0.6 V. It is found that the rate of MDR is the highest (405 mol m⁻³ s⁻¹) at the inlet near the gas channel and decreases significantly along the anode layer (Figure 3a), which is mainly caused by the lower concentration of CH₃OH in the downstream of the anode (Figure 3b). Because of the high MDR rate, the molar fraction of CH₃OH decreases considerably along the gas channel. Besides, the rate distribution of WGSR is totally different from that of MDR. For the WGSR, the rate is

highest (15.2 mol m⁻³ s⁻¹) at the outlet near the electrolyte and increases along the anode (Figure 3c), which is because of the high concentration of the reactant (H₂O) near the interface of electrolyte and anode in the downstream (Figure 3d). High molar fraction of the water near the outlet in the porous anode is mainly due to the gas transport and the electrochemical reaction:

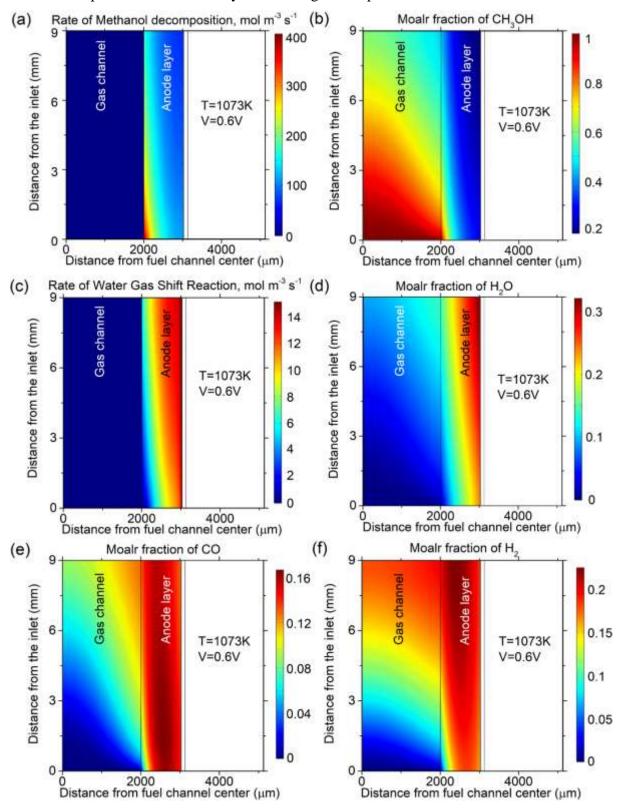


Figure 3 Reaction rate distributions and species molar fractions at 1073 K, 0.6 V: (a) MDR;

high electrochemical reaction rate (high current density) at TPB consuming more H_2 and producing more H_2O , and slow diffusion leading to the accumulation of the H_2O in the anode layer, thus cause huge concentration gradient between the gas channel and the porous anode.

It can be observed that the higher molar fraction of CO near the inlet (Figure 3e) is mainly due to the locally higher rate of MDR (producing more CO) and lower rate of WGSR (consuming less CO), as shown in Figure 3a and Figure 3c. For comparison, the molar fraction of H₂ shows an opposite trend and H₂ almost accumulates near the outlet (Figure 3f), which is due to the locally higher rate of WGSR (producing more H₂), as evidenced by the species fraction distribution in Figure 4.

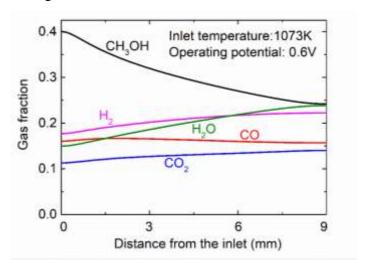


Figure 4 Gas composition at the center of porous anode at 1073 K, 0.6 V.

3.2 The effect of the temperature

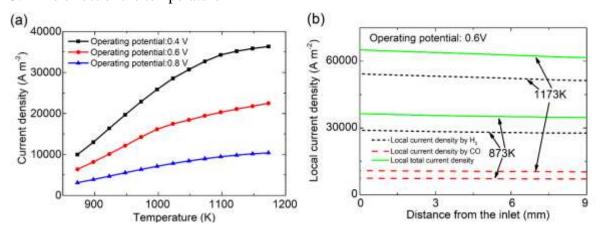


Figure 5 (a) The effect of temperature on the output current density at different operating potentials; (b) The current source distribution at the anode-electrolyte interface.

It is known that the temperature of inlet has a great positive effect on the both chemical reactions (MDR and WGSR) and electrochemical oxidations of the fuels (CO and H₂).

Simulations are conducted to explore the power output of the SOFC with the increase of temperatures from 873 K to 1173 K. The output current density of the SOFC fueled by pure methanol is shown in Figure 5a. As expected, the current densities are increased considerably with operating temperatures increasing. This phenomenon is mainly caused by the higher rate of methanol decomposition reaction (generating more CO and H₂) and faster water gas shift reaction kinetics (producing more H₂) at a higher operating temperature. Besides, a higher temperature can also benefit the ionic conduction of the electrolyte significantly and the rates of electrochemical reactions (generating more electrons per unit time), which can be proved by the current sources of the SOFC at the anode-electrolyte interface (Figure 5b).

In addition, the rates of MDR and WGSR are all increased with the increase of the temperature. Although the peak rates for MDR remain same for both two temperatures, the average rate of MDR in porous anode is increased from about 104 mol m⁻³ s⁻¹ at 873 K to approximate 129 mol m⁻³ s⁻¹ at 1173 K (Figure 6a,b). Moreover, for the WGSR, the rate is increased considerably as the temperature rises (Figure 6c,d), and the peak rate at 1173 K (60.4 mol m⁻³ s⁻¹) is much higher than that at 873 K (0.17 mol m⁻³ s⁻¹). The higher rates of MDR and WGSR at 1173 K tend to consume more CH₃OH and produce more H₂ and CO, which will increase the Nernst potentials caused by H₂ and CO fuels. Besides the higher temperature is likely to lower the ohmic overpotential losses because the oxygen ion conductivity of the electrolyte is sensitive to the temperature.³⁶ Therefore, a higher output current density can be obtained at a higher temperature because of the temperature effects on the Nernst potentials and the ohmic overpotential losses. Increased chemical reactions (MDR and WGSR) produce more hydrogen. On the other hand, the higher output current density definitely consumes more hydrogen. As a result, these combined effects cause the average molar fraction of hydrogen in the porous anode at 1173 K only slightly lower than that at 873 K (Figure 7a,b). However, more methanol is consumed due to the increased rate of MDR, causing larger drop in the average CH₃OH molar fraction in the anode when the temperature is increased to 1173 K (Figure 7c,d).

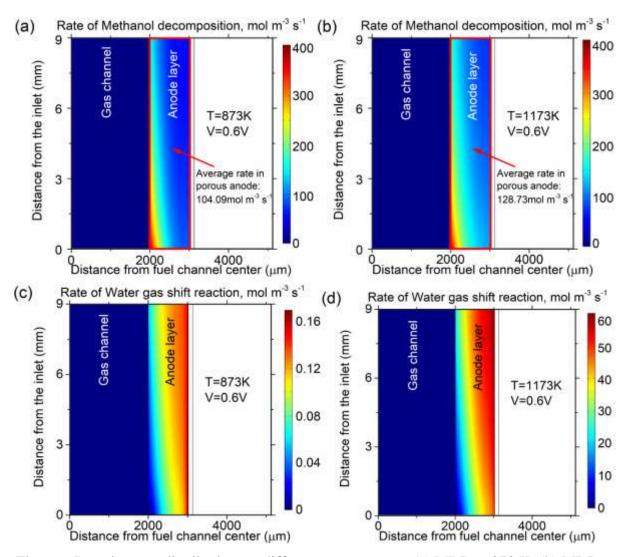


Figure 6 Reaction rate distributions at different temperatures: (a) MDR at 873 K; (b) MDR at 1173 K; (c) WGSR at 873 K; (d) WGSR at 1173 K.

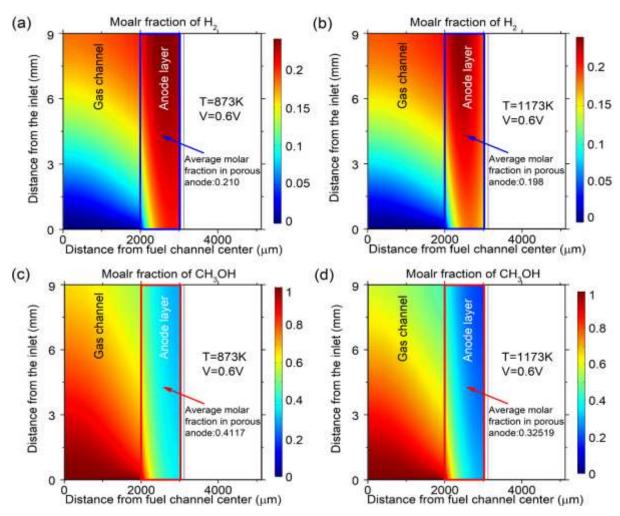


Figure 7 Species molar fractions at different temperatures: (a) H₂ at 873 K; (b) H₂ at 1173 K; (a) CH₃OH at 873 K; (b) CH₃OH at 1173 K.

3.3 The effect of the operating potential

Simulations are conducted at typical operating potentials (0.4 V, 0.6 V and 0.8 V), since the performance of an SOFC can be profoundly influenced by the operating potential. Output current densities are presented in Figure 5a. As expected, the output current density is increased significantly with the decrease of the operating potential, especially at higher temperature. In addition, current sources by both H₂ and CO fuels are highly enhanced at lower voltage, so does the total current source (Figure 8). Highly increased consumptions of H₂ and CO fuels by the electrochemical reactions lead to the more generations of the water and carbon dioxide at lower operating potential, which can be proved by the differences of molar fractions of water and carbon dioxide at different operating potentials. The peak molar fractions for CO₂ and H₂O are increased considerably from 0.0504 to 0.265 and from 0.116 to 0.498, respectively (Figure 9).

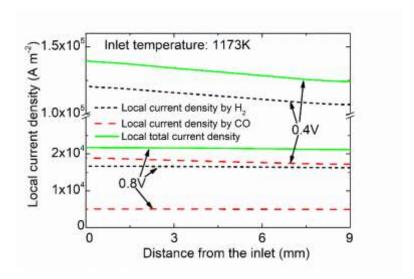


Figure 8 The current source distributions at the anode-electrolyte interface.

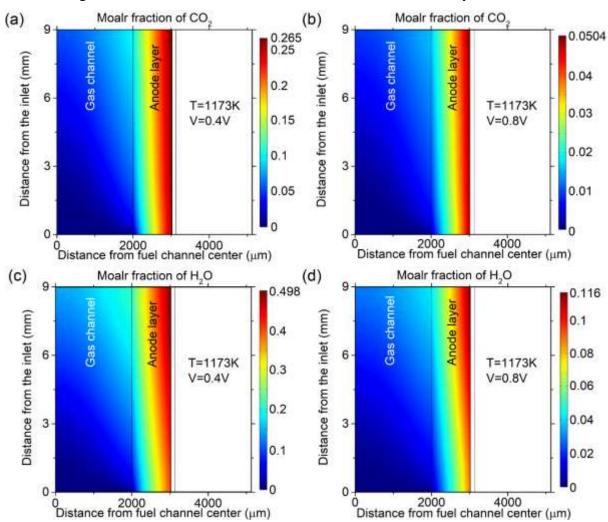


Figure 9 Molar fractions of CO_2 at: (a) 0.4 V; (b) 0.8 V; molar fractions of H_2O at: (c) 0.4 V; (d) 0.8 V.

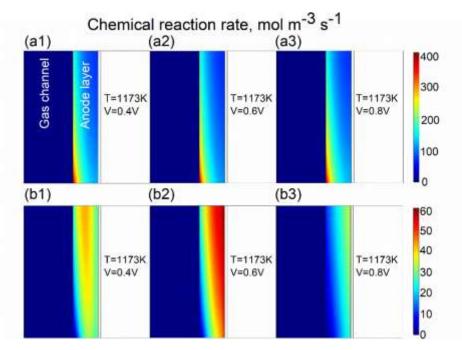


Figure 10 The reaction rate distributions at different potentials: (a1-a3) MDR; (b1-b3) WGSR.

The rate distributions of MDR and WGSR at three typical operating potentials (0.4 V 0.6 V 0.8 V) are also shown in Figure 10. It is obvious that the peak rates and rate distributions for MDR in these three situations almost remain same. For comparison, the WGSR rates are quite different as the operating potential increases from 0.4 V to 0.8 V, which is mainly caused by the gas composition variation in the cell (Figure 11). When the operating potential is 0.4 V, the higher output current density at lower potential tends to consume more CO and H₂ fuels, which favours the water gas shift reaction to generate H₂ but consume more CO as the hydrogen electrochemical oxidation is faster. When the potential increases to 0.6 V, molar fraction of carbon monoxide is increased due to decreased current density. Besides, the consumption of the H₂ still benefits the water gas shift reaction despite lower current density. Therefore, the higher molar fraction of carbon monoxide at 0.6 V makes the rate of WGSR higher than the rate at 0.4 V. As the potential rises to 0.8 V, higher molar fraction of carbon monoxide, lower consumption of hydrogen and lower generation of water because of the lower current density cause the lower rate of WGSR.

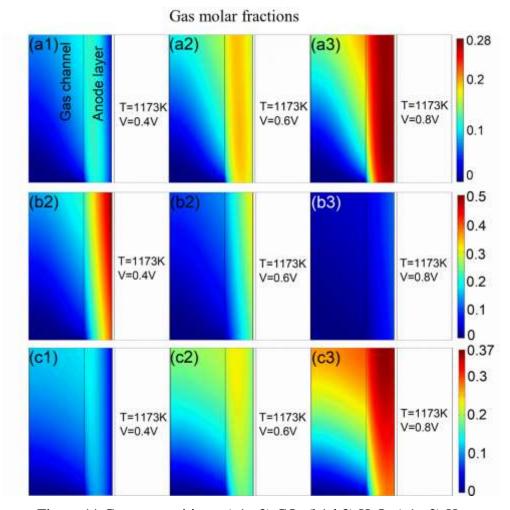


Figure 11 Gas compositions: (a1-a3) CO; (b1-b3) H_2O ; (c1-c3) H_2 .

3.4 The effect of the structural dimensions of the SOFC

In the SOFC, the length of the cell and the thickness of the anode are important structural parameters, because the longer length and thicker anode can provide more space for electrochemical/chemical reactions, which will affect the gas composition in the porous anode and the power output of the SOFC. Therefore, the simulation is conducted to investigate the effects of the cell length and the anode thickness on the SOFC performance and the methanol conversion at temperature of 1073 K and operating potential of 0.6 V.

The calculated output current density based on the different lengths is shown in Figure 12a. It can be observed that the current density is decreased slightly when the length of the cell is increased from 9 mm to 90 mm, which is mainly caused by the combined effects of the decreasing of CO and H_2 and the increasing of H_2O and CO_2 (Figure 12b). Figure 12b shows the methanol conversion and the molar fraction variations of the gases at the outlet of the fuel channel while the length varies. It obviously indicates that the conversion of the methanol is increased considerably at the beginning of the length increase and varies slightly when the length of SOFC exceeds 50 mm (reaches > 0.9 when the length is longer than 54 mm). Different

from the effect of the cell length on the current density, the thickness of the anode tends to benefit the performance of the SOFC. Figure 13a shows that the current density is increased with increasing anode thickness. However, as the anode thickness is over $800~\mu m$, a further increase in anode thickness causes the SOFC performance to decrease slightly. This is because a thicker anode benefits methanol conversion for H_2 and CO production (Figure 13b) but a too thick anode will cause a high gas diffusion resistance. As a result, an optimal anode thickness between $600~\mu m$ and $800~\mu m$ is suggested for the present direct methanol SOFC model. The length of the cell and the thickness of the anode both benefit the methanol conversion, while they have different influences on the performance of the SOFC. The increasing of methanol conversion is due to more catalyst reaction sites, and the different effects on the current density are because of the different fuel concentrations.

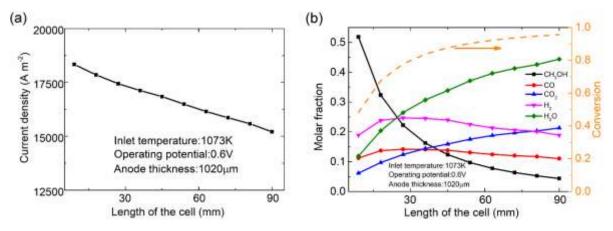


Figure 12 The effects of cell length on: (a) the output current density; (b) the CH₃OH conversion and gas composition at the outlet of the fuel channel.

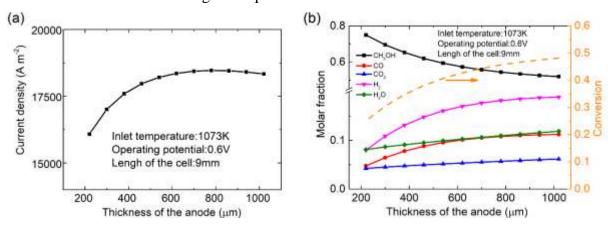


Figure 13 The effects of anode thickness on: (a) the output current density; (b) the CH₃OH conversion and gas composition at the outlet of the fuel channel.

4 Conclusions

A 2D mathematic model is developed to investigate the current-potential characteristic of the pure methanol-fueled SOFC with considering the MDR and WGSR in the catalytic anode layer.

Electrochemical/chemical reactions, electron/ion charge transports and fluid flow as well as the mass transfer in the cell are fully considered. Parametric simulations are conducted after model validation.

It is found that the rate of the MDR is the highest (405 mol m⁻³ s⁻¹) near the inlet and decreases along the anode, leading to the decrease of the methanol concentration along the fuel channel, while the WGSR rate is the highest (15.2 mol m⁻³ s⁻¹) in the downstream of the anode due to the reactant accumulation, which cause locally different distributions of the hydrogen and the carbon monoxide. The temperature of inlet can considerably affect the SOFC performance by facilitating the chemical and electrochemical reactions as well as the ion conduction. Because of the higher current density, more methanol is consumed at higher temperature. Current density and gas composition are all significantly influenced by the operating potential. Current density is decreased with increasing potential, and the fuels (hydrogen and carbon monoxide) tend to accumulate at the anode at high operating potential due to the low current density. Although thicker anode benefits the methanol conversion, the anode thickness should not be too high in order to avoid significant resistance for gas diffusion (600 μm - 800 μm is suggested for the present model). In addition, the current density of SOFC is found to decrease with increasing cell length. It is worth noting that because of the small cell size, the whole cell is considered as an isothermal domain in the present study. Due to the fact that the simultaneous endothermic methanol decomposition and the exothermic chemical/electrochemical reactions indeed complicate the temperature distribution of the cell, and the temperature gradient caused is an important factor for evaluating whether the SOFC could maintain a stable operation for a long period of time. Based on these considerations the heat transfer sub-model can be employed in the subsequent research.

The present study provides useful information to understand the mechanisms of the SOFC running on the pure methanol. Specific operating conditions and structural dimensions are found to improve the efficiency and the performance of SOFC.

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