Modelling of Solid Oxide Fuel Cells with Internal Glycerol Steam Reforming

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Abstract

The direct application of glycerol in solid oxide fuel cell (SOFC) for power generation has been demonstrated experimentally but the detailed mechanisms are not well understood due to the lack of comprehensive modeling study. In this paper, a numerical model is developed to study the glycerol-fueled SOFC. After model validation, the simulated SOFC demonstrates a performance of 7827 A·m⁻² at 0.6 V, with a glycerol conversion rate of 49% at 1073 K. Then, parametric analyses are conducted to understand the effects of operation conditions on cell performance. It is found that the SOFC performance increases with decreasing operating voltage or increasing inlet temperature. However, increasing either the fuel flow rate or steam to glycerol ratio could decrease the cell performance. It is also interesting to find out that the contribution of H₂ and CO to the total current density is significantly different under various operating conditions, even sometimes CO dominates while H₂ plays a negative role. This is different from our conventional understanding that usually H₂ contributes more significantly to current generation. In addition, cooling measures are needed to ensure the long-term stability of the cell when operating at a high current density.

Keywords: Solid oxide fuel cell; Numerical modeling; Glycerol; Internal reforming; Thermal effect

1 Introduction

The development of clean and efficient power generation technologies is essential to address the global energy consumption issues and the associated environmental problems. Among numerous technologies, solid oxide fuel cell (SOFC) is very promising due to its high efficiency, high fuel flexibility, low pollution and stable operation [1]. One of the main advantages of SOFC is that it offers excellent fuel flexibility and can theoretically be operated on any combustible fuel [2], such as alkanes [2], ammonia [3], methanol [4], ethanol [5], as well as activated carbon [6] and biomass [7]. Among these, methanol and ethanol are regarded as hopeful candidates because they are both liquid and oxygen-rich, with a lower risk of being poisoned and carbon deposition [8].

In addition, glycerol, a byproduct of biodiesel, is an environmentally friendly and renewable chemical with the properties of non-volatility, non-toxicity and chemical stability. The last decade has witnessed a boom in glycerol production as a result of rapid growth in the biodiesel industry, as the weight of the produced glycerol accounts for approximately 10% of the weight of biodiesel. The global glycerol market size is expected to reach USD 3.5 billion by the year of 2027, growing at a compound annual growth rate of 4.0% [11]. Nonetheless, only a small portion of glycerol is purified for use in the food, tobacco, and cosmetic industries, this could further exacerbate the global glycerol oversupply and result in significant waste [12]. However, the high energy density of pure glycerol (6.260 kWh·L⁻¹) and its non-toxicity and non-volatility properties make it a very promising energy fuel to replace methanol and ethanol [13][14]. Therefore, the use of SOFC with glycerol internal reforming for power generation is attractive.

Typically, the Ni-based anode may be suffered from carbon deposition when using hydrocarbon fuels in SOFC (Eq. (1), (2) and (3)). The deposited carbon not only blocks the contact of the syngas with the active site and leads to a reduction in catalytic activity, but also

pushes away the nickel particles and causes great damage to the anode structure [2]. The mechanism and possible hazards of carbon deposition have been reported in detail in refs. [15]. As a multi-carbon compound, glycerol is oxygenated although it has C-C bonds, which reduces the possibility of carbon accumulation to some extent.

$$2CO(g) \leftrightarrow CO_2(g) + C(s)$$
, $\Delta H = -171 \text{kJ/mol}$ (1)

$$CH_4(g) \leftrightarrow 2H_2(g) + C(s) , \Delta H = +75 \text{kJ/mol}$$
 (2)

$$CO(g)+H_2(g) \leftrightarrow H_2O(g)+C(s)$$
, $\Delta H = -131 kJ/mol$ (3)

To avoid carbon deposition of glycerol in SOFC, using other metals (Cu [17], Ce [18] and Co [19]) to modify the nickel-based anode or adding basic oxides (La₂O₃ [20], MgO [21] and Al₂O₃ [22]) are good strategies. However, both the complicated process and higher cost impede the commercial application. Apart from developing new anodes, carbon formation can be inhibited by changing the working conditions since the carbon formation reactions (Eq. (1), (2) and (3)) are heavily dependent on the operating parameters. For example, increasing the reaction temperature (facilitating the reversed reactions of (1) and (3) [12,23] or providing sufficient oxygen carrier (e.g., steam) to the glycerol can both inhibit carbon formation. Both Adhikari [12] and Wang [23] found by thermodynamic calculations that carbon deposition of glycerol can be completely suppressed at 1000 K, while the possibility of carbon buildup can be significantly reduced by increasing the amount of inlet steam when the temperature is under 1000 K. Slinn et al. [24] tested the performance of pure glycerol in an electrolyte-supported SOFC with the addition of Pt/Al₂O₃ catalyst and reported steady operation for 30 h. Although a small amount of carbon deposition (0.4% of the feedstock) was observed, it did not cause any adverse effect. Won et al. [25] studied the behavior of a tubular glycerol-fueled SOFC and reported a maximum power density of 265 mW·cm⁻² at 800 °C, equivalent to 79% of the SOFC performance using hydrogen. Lo Faro et al. [26] used Ni-modified chalcocite and cerium oxide in the SOFC anode to convert glycerol to syngas and achieved 850 mW·cm⁻² at 0.6 V by using

dry glycerol and found no carbon buildup through long-term testing over 160 hours.

All the above studies demonstrate the feasibility of strategies to suppress the carbon deposition in nickel-based anode SOFC fueled by glycerol. However, the intensity of chemical/electrochemical reactions are highly temperature dependent and increasing the steam flow rate will inevitably dilute the reactant concentration, all of which will lead to complications in fluid-solid coupling, chemical/electrochemical reactions as well as heat transfer processes within the SOFC. Although several experimental studies have been reported on glycerol fueled SOFCs, no modeling approaches have been used to investigate the reforming process and thermodynamics of glycerol inside SOFC. Therefore, in this work, a 2D numerical model is developed to simulate the glycerol steam reforming and electrochemical reactions in a typical tubular SOFC. The output characteristics and temperature distribution under different operating parameters (fuel flow rate and steam to glycerol ratio) and working conditions (inlet temperature and operating voltage) are analyzed through the thermal coupling of the glycerol reforming with electrochemical reactions.

2 Model development

2.1 Physical model

Fig. 1 presents the schematic diagram of an anode-supported tubular SOFC with internal reforming of glycerol. A two-dimensional numerical model is developed to simulate the chemical/electrochemical reactions, electron/ion transfer, mass/momentum transport, and heat transfer processes inside the SOFC. The cell uses Ni-YSZ (yttria-stabilized zirconia) composite as the anode, YSZ as the electrolyte, and YSZ-LSM (lanthanum strontium manganite) composite as the cathode, with thicknesses of 600 μ m,10 μ m and 100 μ m for the anode, electrolyte, and cathode, respectively. The detailed material properties and geometric parameters are shown in Table 1.



Fig.1 Anode-Supported tubular SOFC

| Materials or Parameters | Expression or Value | Unit |
|-------------------------|--|------------------|
| Electronic conductivity | | |
| Ni | 3.27×10 ⁶ -1065.3×T | $S \cdot m^{-1}$ |
| LSM | $4.2 \times 10^7 / T \times e^{\frac{-1150}{T}}$ | $S \cdot m^{-1}$ |
| Ionic conductivity | | |
| YSZ | $3.34 \times 10^4 \times e^{\frac{-10300}{T}}$ | $S \cdot m^{-1}$ |
| Dimensions | | |
| Cell length | 60 | mm |
| Anode channel | 2 | mm |
| Cathode channel | 2 | mm |
| Anode | 600 | μm |
| Cathode | 100 | μm |
| Electrolyte | 10 | μm |
| Tortuosity | 3 | - |
| Porosity | | |
| Anode | 0.46 | - |

Table 1 Material properties and geometric parameters [40]

| Cat | thode | 0.46 | - |
|------------------|-------|------------------------|--------------------|
| Permeability | | | |
| Aı | node | 1.76×10 ⁻¹¹ | m^2 |
| Cat | thode | 1.76×10 ⁻¹¹ | m^2 |
| S _{TPB} | | | |
| Aı | node | 1.06×10 ⁵ | $m^2 \cdot m^{-3}$ |
| Cat | thode | 1.33×10 ⁵ | $m^2 \cdot m^{-3}$ |

During lab testing, glycerol and steam are supplied to the anode channel and a small amount of helium is used as the carrier gas, while air is supplied to the cathode channel. Glycerol and steam will undergo glycerol steam reforming reaction (GSR, Eq. (4)) catalyzed by Ni in the anode. This reaction can proceed in two steps, glycerol decomposition reaction (GDR, Eq. (5)) and water gas shifting reaction (WGSR, Eq. (6)). Although methane can be produced by glycerol decomposition, its formation requires high pressure and relatively low temperature [23], so methane generation and reaction are not favorable and not considered in this study. Although carbon can be formed by side reactions (Eq. (1), (2) and (3)), this can be completely suppressed by controlling the reaction conditions [27]. As no obvious carbon deposition was observed in the experimental studies [25][26], carbon deposition is also not considered. The H₂ and CO produced by GSR will electrochemically react with O²⁻ coming from the cathode at the triple phase boundary (TPB) of anode to form H₂O and CO₂ (Eq. (7), (8)), while the generated electrons are transmitted from anode to cathode through external circuit to react with oxygen to form O²⁻ (Eq. (9)).

$$C_3H_8O_3+3H_2O \rightarrow 3CO_2+7H_2$$
, $\Delta H = +128kJ/mol$ (4)

$$C_3H_8O_3 \rightarrow 3CO + 4H_2$$
, $\Delta H = +251kJ/mol$ (5)

$$CO+H_2O \leftrightarrow CO_2+H_2$$
, $\Delta H = -41kJ/mol$ (6)

$$CO+O^{2-} \to CO_2 \tag{7}$$

$$H_2 + O^{2-} \rightarrow H_2 O \tag{8}$$

$$0.5O_2 + 2e^- \rightarrow O^{2-} \tag{9}$$

Based on the above mechanisms, the following assumptions are used in this study:

- (1) Only considering electrochemical reactions of H₂ and CO.
- (2) Active sites for chemical/electrochemical reactions are uniformly distributed.
- (3) The ionic/electronic phase is continuous and homogeneous.
- (4) The gases are ideal and incompressible.
- (5) Carbon deposition and thermal radiation are not considered.

2.2 Governing equations

Based on the material transfer and reaction processes in SOFC, the 2D model includes the following five sub-models.

2.2.1 Chemical reaction model

The chemical reaction model is used to describe the glycerol steam reforming (GSR) reaction in the anode layer. The internal steam reforming process of glycerol in SOFC is composed of two steps, glycerol decomposition reaction (GDR) and water gas substitution reaction (WGSR). The reaction rates of GDR and WGSR can be obtained as:

GDR [28]:

$$R_{\rm GDR} = 0.036 e^{\frac{-63300}{RT}} p_{\rm C_3H_8O_3}^{0.253} p_{\rm H_2O}^{0.358} A_{\rm metal \ surface}$$
(10)

WGSR [29]:

$$R_{\rm WGSR} = 0.0171 e^{\frac{-103196}{RT}} (p_{\rm H_2O}^l p_{\rm CO}^l - \frac{p_{\rm H_2}^l p_{\rm CO_2}^l}{K_{ps}})$$
(11)

$$K_{ps} = \exp(-0.2935Z^3 + 0.6351Z^2 + 4.1788Z + 0.3169)$$
(12)

$$Z = \frac{1000}{T} - 1 \tag{13}$$

where *R* is the gas constant; *T* is temperature, K; $A_{\text{metal surface}}$ is the catalyst's metal surface area, m²; p_i^l is the partial pressure of specie *i*, Pa.

2.2.2 Electrochemical reaction model

In this study, H_2 and CO produced by the glycerol steam reforming reaction will participate in electrochemical reactions simultaneously for electron generation (Eq. (7), (8)). The operating potential (V) can be calculated as:

$$V = E - \eta_{\text{act,a}} - \eta_{\text{act,c}} - \eta_{\text{ohmic}}$$
(14)

where *E* represents the thermodynamic equilibrium potential; η_{act} is the activation overpotential; η_{ohmic} is the ohmic overpotential associated with ion/electron conduction.

Since H_2 and CO are both involved in the electrochemical reactions in this study, *E* can be obtained by [30]:

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

$$E_{\rm CO} = E_{\rm CO}^{T} + \frac{RT}{2F} \left(\frac{p_{\rm CO}^{l} \left(p_{\rm O_{2}}^{l} \right)^{0.5}}{p_{\rm CO_{2}}^{l}} \right)$$
(16)

$$E_{\rm H_2}^T = 1.253 - 0.00024516T \tag{17}$$

$$E_{\rm CO}^T = 1.46713 - 0.0004527T \tag{18}$$

Generally, the relationship between current density and activation overpotential can be described using the Butler-Volmer (BV) equation:

$$i = i_0 \left[\exp\left(\frac{\alpha n F \eta_{act}}{RT}\right) - \exp\left(\frac{-(1-\alpha) n F \eta_{act}}{RT}\right) \right]$$
(19)

where i_0 represents exchange current density, $A \cdot m^{-2}$; *n* is the number of electrons; α is the charge transfer coefficient; F is the Faraday constant.

The exchange current density is related to the fuel properties and reaction conditions, which can be further described as [30]:

$$i_0 = \gamma \exp\left(-\frac{E_{act}}{RT}\right) \tag{20}$$

where γ is pre-expontential factor; E_{act} is the activation energy, J·mol⁻¹. In this case, the preexpontential factor of H₂ is set to 2.2 times that of CO, and the detailed parameters are shown in [31].

Besides, the ohmic potential losses (η_{ohmic}) can be described according to Ohm's law:

$$i_l = -\sigma_{l,eff} \nabla(\mathcal{O}_l) \tag{21}$$

$$i_{s} = -\sigma_{s,eff} \nabla(\mathcal{O}_{s}) \tag{22}$$

where $Ø_l$ and $Ø_s$ represent the ionic and electronic conduction potentials; $\sigma_{l,eff}$ and $\sigma_{s,eff}$ represent the effective conductivities of ionic and electronic, which are associated with tortuosity and volume fractions of ionic (V_l) and electronic (V_s).

$$\sigma_{l,eff} = \sigma_l \frac{V_l}{\tau_l} \tag{23}$$

$$\sigma_{s,eff} = \sigma_s \frac{V_s}{\tau_s} \tag{24}$$

2.2.3 Fluid flow model

For fluid flow, the momentum transport is described using the classical Navier-Stokes (N-S) equation [32]. For gas channels, N-S equation is given by:

$$\rho \frac{\partial u}{\partial t} + \rho u \nabla u = -\nabla p + \nabla [\mu (\nabla u + (\nabla u)^T) - \frac{2}{3}\mu \nabla u]$$
(25)

For porous electrodes, N-S equation containing the Darcy's term is given by:

$$\rho \frac{\partial u}{\partial t} + \rho u \nabla u = -\nabla p + \nabla [\mu (\nabla u + (\nabla u)^T) - \frac{2}{3}\mu \nabla u] - \frac{\varepsilon \mu u}{k}$$
(26)

where ρ is density, kg·m⁻³; μ is dynamic viscosity, kg·m⁻¹·s⁻¹; u is velocity vector, m·s⁻¹; p is

pressure, Pa; ε is porosity; k is permeability of the porous material. And ρ and μ can be calculated by:

$$\rho = \sum_{i=1}^{N} y_i \rho_i \tag{27}$$

$$\mu = \sum_{j=1}^{n} y_j \mu_j \tag{28}$$

where y_i , ρ_i and μ_i are molar friction, density, and dynamic viscosity of specie *i*, respectively. The dynamic viscosity of each gas can be found in ref. [33].

2.2.4 Mass transfer model

Mass transfer model is used to describe the transfer of various components in SOFC. In this work, the diffusion rate in channels and porous electrodes is described using the general Fick model [35]:

$$N_{i} = -\frac{1}{RT} \left(\frac{ky_{i}P}{\mu} \frac{\partial P}{\partial z} - D_{ij,eff} \frac{\partial (y_{i}P)}{\partial z} \right)$$
(29)

where *k* is permeability; y_i is molar fraction; $D_{ij,eff}$ is the effective binary diffusion coefficient of species *i* and *j* by considering molecular diffusion and Knudsen diffusion in the porous electrodes, which can be calculated by [36]:

$$D_{ij,eff} = \frac{\varepsilon}{\tau} \left(\frac{1}{D_{ij}} + \frac{1}{D_{ik}} \right)^{-1}$$
(30)

$$D_{ij} = \frac{0.00143T^{1.75}}{2p\left(v_i^{1/3} + v_j^{1/3}\right)^2} \left(\frac{1}{M_i} + \frac{1}{M_j}\right)^{1/2}$$
(31)

$$D_{ik} = \frac{2}{3}r\sqrt{\frac{8RT}{\pi M_i}}$$
(32)

where D_{ij} is the binary diffusion coefficient species *i* and *j* [37]; D_{ik} is the effective Knudsen diffusion coefficient [38]; *v* represents the special molecule diffusion volume, which can be found in ref. [39]; *r* is the radius of electrode pores.

2.2.5 Heat transfer model

In SOFC, the electrochemical reactions at the active sites in TPB generate heat, while the glycerol steam reforming process is highly endothermic. The uneven temperature distribution can seriously affect the performance and stability of the cell. Therefore, the general heat balance equation is used to simulate the heat transfer process [40]:

In channels:

$$\rho c_p u \cdot \nabla T + \nabla \cdot (-\lambda_g \nabla T) = 0 \tag{33}$$

In electrodes and electrolyte:

$$\rho c_p u \cdot \nabla T + \nabla \cdot (-\lambda_{eff} \nabla T) = Q \tag{34}$$

$$\lambda_{eff} = (1 - \varepsilon)\lambda_s + \varepsilon\lambda_q \tag{35}$$

where c_p and λ_g represent the heat capacity and thermal conductivity of the gas, respectively; λ_s and λ_l are the solid and liquid phase thermal conductivity, respectively. Q is the heat source term indicating the heat generated or consumed due to chemical/electrochemical reactions and various overpotential losses. The heat sources in this work include heat generation from glycerol steam reforming process, CO and H₂ electrochemical reactions, ohmic losses, and activation losses. The thermodynamic properties of gases and solid materials can be found in ref. [33].

2.3 Model validation

The fuel flow rate, molar fraction, and temperature are specified at the inlet. Constant pressure condition is specified at the outlet. The ends and outer surfaces of the cell are set as adiabatic and insulated. The model is solved by using finite element method.

In order to ensure grid independence, a grid check is conducted (Fig. 2 (a)). It is found that when the number of degrees of freedom reaches 500,000, the relative errors of average current density and total heat are at 0.3% and 1.5% with that of 680,000, so a grid of 500,000 degrees of freedom is used for the subsequent calculation. Meanwhile, the model was validated by

using the experimental results in [25]. The operating conditions in this study can be found in Table 2.



Fig.2 Grid independence (a) and model validation (b)

| Parameter | Expression or Value | Unit |
|-------------------------------|---------------------------------|---------------------|
| Inlet temperature | 1023~1123 | К |
| Fuel flow rate* | 0.07~0.8 | $ml \cdot min^{-1}$ |
| Steam to glycerol ratio (S/G) | 1~10 | - |
| Helium flow rate | 20 | SCCM |
| Cathode flow rate | 500 | SCCM |
| Cathode inlet gas composition | O_2/N_2 (molar ratio 21%/79%) | - |
| Operating potential | 0.5~0.8 | V |
| Outlet pressure | 1 | atm |

Table 2 Operating conditions

* As the glycerol fuel is liquid at a room temperature, the unit of ml.min⁻¹ is used to quantify the flowrate of the fuel, which is convenient for understanding the consumption of the fuel.

3 Results and discussion

3.1 Effects of operating voltage

The simulation of SOFC with internal glycerol reforming is performed at different operating voltages with an inlet temperature of 1073 K, anode fuel flow rate of 0.139 ml \cdot min⁻¹ and steam to glycerol ratio of 3. As expected, the total current density increases from 1643

 $A \cdot m^{-2}$ to 12713 $A \cdot m^{-2}$ as the operating voltage decreases from 0.8V to 0.5V, as shown in Fig. 3(a). Besides, the higher electrochemical reaction rate at lower operating voltage results in a faster consumption of fuels (H₂ and CO) and an increase of products (H₂O and CO₂) as shown in Fig. 3(b). The fast consumption of H₂ and CO also facilitates the decomposition of glycerol, resulting in an enhanced glycerol conversion as shown in Fig. 3(b).

From Fig. 3(c) and Fig. 3(d), it is clear that the current density and Nernst potential are unevenly distributed along the flow direction, indicating that the electrochemical reactions inside the cell are highly uneven. It is also noted that when the operating voltage is 0.8V, the current density at the entrance of the cell is negative because the Nernst potential in this region is less than the operating voltage. It indicates that at a high operating voltage, although the cell outputs electrical energy to the outside, not all regions within it play a positive role. This is because the local Nernst potential is lower than the operating voltage in some regions, which consume part of the electrical energy for electrolysis. This phenomenon has also been reported in refs. [41-45].



Fig.3 The effects of operating voltage on: (a) current density; (b) molar fraction of gases and glycerol conversion; The distribution of: (c)current density; (d) electrolyte Nernst potential

Besides, the operating voltage plays a role in the internal temperature distribution. Due to the increasing heat production from electrochemical reactions and various overpotential losses, both net heat and average temperature increase with decreasing operating voltage, as shown in Fig. 4(a) and Fig. 4(b). Meanwhile, since the decomposition reaction of glycerol is highly heat-absorbing, the cell reaches thermal-neutrality between 0.6 V and 0.7 V, at which the total heat production of the cell is equivalent to the total heat absorption. However, despite the overall internal thermal balance of the cell, the temperature inside the cell is still unevenly distributed (Fig. 4(c)), with a cooling zone near the inlet and a higher temperature at the outlet. This is mainly due to the higher decomposition rate of glycerol and lower electrochemical reaction rate at the entrance (Fig. 4(d)), resulting in a lower temperature in this region, while the temperature at the outlet is higher due to the local higher electrochemical reaction. Moreover, the temperature unevenness is aggravated at other voltages (Fig. 4(c)), which will result in local performance degradation and large thermal stresses inside the cell [40].





Fig.4 The effects of operating voltage on: (a) heat source; (b) average temperature; (c) temperature distribution; (d) reaction rate

3.2 Effects of fuel flow rate

The simulation is conducted at different fuel flow rates with an inlet temperature of 1073 K, steam to glycerol ratio of 3 and operating voltage of 0.6 V. As shown in Fig. 5(a), increasing anode fuel flow rate decreases the cell performance. As the fuel flow rate increases from 0.07 ml·min⁻¹ to 0.8ml·min⁻¹, the total current density decreases from 8708 A·m⁻² to 5980 A·m⁻². This is mainly because the amount of steam will increase proportionally by increasing the fuel flow rate at a fixed steam to glycerol ratio, while the total decomposition of glycerol is not significantly improved (as shown in Fig. 5(b)), which leads to a dilution of H₂ and CO by H₂O in the SOFC, as shown in Fig. 5(c). From Fig. 5(d), it is clear that the current density at the entrance is almost the same under different flow rates, while the dilution effect of steam on the electrochemical reaction becomes more significant along the flow direction.





Fig.5 The effects of fuel flow rate on: (a) current density; (b) glycerol conversion and consumption; (c) molar fraction of H₂ and CO; and (d) The distribution of current density

It is also noted from Fig. 5(a) that with increasing fuel flow rate, the current density contributed by CO becomes larger, while that contributed by H_2 gradually decreases and even becomes negative at high flow rates. It indicates that the electrochemical reaction of H_2 becomes weaker while the electrochemical reaction of CO gradually appears to be dominant as the fuel flow rate increases. At high flow rate conditions (e.g., fuel flow rate=0.8ml·min⁻¹), although the cell as a whole generates electricity outward, internally, H₂ is not electrochemically oxidized for current production, instead, H₂O electrolysis consumes part of electricity generated by CO electrochemical oxidation. This is due to the fact that at high flow rates, the large amount of H₂O favors H₂O electrolysis instead of H₂ electrochemical oxidation reaction. For the CO reaction, as more H₂ and CO are produced by glycerol decomposition at high flow rates (Fig. 5(b)), although a large amount of H₂O may dilute CO concentration, more CO can be produced from the internal reforming reaction. Since H₂O electrolysis is favored (H₂ electrochemical oxidation is impeded), the CO electrochemical oxidation becomes a dominating reaction for current generation. As the fuel flow rate increases, more glycerol is consumed, which results in a decrease in the average temperature because the glycerol decomposition reaction is highly heat-absorbing, as shown in Fig. 6(a). Meanwhile, the overall electrochemical reaction is weakened with less electrochemical heat production due to the dilution effect, resulting in a more uniform temperature distribution, as shown in Fig. 6(b). From Fig. 6(c) and Fig. 6(d), it is clear that the composition of heat sources varies at different flow rates. At small flow rate conditions, the heat absorption of the glycerol decomposition reaction is not significant, and the electrochemical reactions of H₂ and CO are dominant. While at high flow rate conditions, the electrochemical reaction of H₂ is inhibited, whereas the decomposition of glycerol and the electrochemical reaction of CO play the main role.



Fig.6 The effects of fuel flow rate on: (a) average temperature; (b) temperature distribution; (c) heat source; (d) heat source composition

3.3 Effects of steam to glycerol ratio

To promote the steam reforming reaction of glycerol and to inhibit carbon deposition, steam is supplied together with glycerol. The simulation is performed at different steam to glycerol ratio (S/G) with an inlet temperature of 1073 K, fuel flow rate of 0.139 ml·min⁻¹ and operating voltage of 0.6 V. As shown in Fig. 7(a), the increase of S/G has a negative impact on the output

performance, as the total current density decreases from 9733 $A \cdot m^{-2}$ to 5598 $A \cdot m^{-2}$ when the S/G changes from 1 to 10. This is mainly due to the fact that increasing the steam flow rate at a fixed fuel flow rate will, on the one hand, dilutes the glycerol and reduces its decomposition (Fig. 7(b)), resulting in less H₂ and CO production. On the other hand, it also dilutes the H₂ and CO in the SOFC, leading to a decrease in the current density, as shown in Fig. 7(c). It is also noted from Fig. 7(a) that as S/G increases, the current density contributed by CO increases followed by a slight drop, while that for H₂ shows a decrease. This is due to the fact that increasing the steam flow rate inevitably reduces the production and causes dilution of H₂ and CO, and also inhibits the electrochemical reaction of H₂. While for CO, the strength of its electrochemical reaction is determined by the molar fraction of CO and CO₂, since increasing the steam flow rate dilutes both CO and CO₂. This combined factor determines the electrochemical reaction of CO. From Fig. 7(d), it is clear that the increasing of S/G reduces the current density from the entrance, and this dilution effect becomes more obvious along the main flow.



Fig.7 The effects of S/G on: (a) current density; (b) glycerol conversion and consumption; (c) molar fraction of H₂ and CO; and (d) The distribution of current density

Besides, S/G also plays a role in the internal temperature distribution of the cell. As S/G increases, both the net heat and average temperature of the cell decrease, as shown in Fig. 8(a) and Fig. 8(c). This is mainly because the steam dilutes all the substances inside the cell, weakening the decomposition of glycerol and the electrochemical reaction of H₂, both of which absorb/generate less heat. While the enhancement of CO electrochemical reaction is the result of the combined effect of CO and CO₂, making CO electrochemical reaction the main heating source at a larger S/G, as shown in Fig. 8(c) and Fig. 8(d). The smaller heat absorption/production at high S/G results in a more uniform temperature distribution inside the cell (Fig. 8(b)), which enhances the stability of the cell.

Fig.8 The effects of S/G on: (a) average temperature; (b) temperature distribution; (c) heat source; (d) heat source composition

3.4 Effects of inlet temperature

The inlet temperature affects not only the intensity of chemical/electrochemical reactions but also the thermal properties of the material and gases. The simulation is performed at different inlet temperatures at an operating voltage of 0.6 V, anode fuel flow rate of 0.139 ml·min⁻¹ and steam to glycerol ratio of 3. As expected, the inlet temperature has a significant positive effect on the electrochemical performance of the cell, with the total current density increasing from 4847 $A \cdot m^{-2}$ to 11618 $A \cdot m^{-2}$ as the inlet temperature changing from 1023 K to 1123 K. The current density contributed by CO increases from 4286 $A \cdot m^{-2}$ to 5560 $A \cdot m^{-2}$ and that by H₂ increases from 561 A·m⁻² to 6058 A·m⁻², as shown in Fig. 9(a). This is because at lower temperatures, the weak decomposition of glycerol (Fig. 9(b)) consumes only a small amount of H₂O (Fig. 9(c)), while the remaining excess H₂O not only dilutes the syngas inside the SOFC, but also significantly inhibits the electrochemical oxidation of H₂. Whereas under high temperature conditions, the rapid decomposition of glycerol produces more syngas on the one hand (Fig. 9(d)) and reduces the quantity of water inside the SOFC on the other hand, thus enhancing the electrochemical reaction of H_2 and CO. It can be seen that CO maintains a high current density over a wide temperature range, while the large increase in H₂ current density indicates that the electrochemical reaction of H₂ is more suitable for high temperature conditions. Therefore, from the fuel utilization point of view, the SOFC with internal reforming of glycerol is more suitable for operation at high temperature conditions.

Fig.9 The effects of inlet temperature on: (a) current density; (b) glycerol conversion and consumption; (c) molar fraction of H₂O and CO₂; (d) molar fraction of H₂ and CO

Besides, when the temperature increases, the decomposition reaction of glycerol is enhanced as it is highly heat-absorbing, and the high temperature has a remarkable promotion on the electrochemical reactions of H₂ and CO, causing more heat generation at high temperature, as shown in Fig. 10(a). Moreover, the electrochemical reactions of H₂ are significantly enhanced at high temperatures, thus the electrochemical oxidation of H₂ also becomes the main source of heat production at this time, as shown in Fig. 10(b).

Fig.10 The effects of inlet temperature on: (a) heat source; (b) heat source composition

4 Conclusion

A 2D multi-physics field model is developed to study the output performance and temperature distribution of SOFC with internal glycerol steam reforming. The model fully considers the chemical/electrochemical reactions, fluid-solid coupling, ion/electron transfer and heat transfer processes within the SOFC. The effects of different operating parameters, including operating voltage, fuel flow rate, steam to glycerol ratio as well as inlet temperature, on the output performance and temperature distribution are analyzed.

It is found that reducing the operating voltage or increasing the inlet temperature will promote the electrochemical reaction of H_2 and CO as well as increase the conversion of glycerol, resulting in a higher power output of the cell. Whereas increasing the fuel flow rate or steam to glycerol ratio will both dilute the glycerol and syngas and inhibit the electrochemical reaction of H_2 , bringing negative impact on the output performance. It is worth mentioning that the contribution of H_2 and CO to the total current density is significantly different under various operating conditions. The contribution of CO is not as small as expected, but rather under some conditions (high operating voltage or fuel flow rate), it is CO that dominates, while H_2 may consume part of the electrical energy for electrolysis and play a negative role. Finally, it is noted that the increased cell output performance is always accompanied by an extremely uneven temperature distribution. Therefore, for SOFC with internal glycerol reforming, appropriate cooling strategies are required to improve long-term stability if the cell keeps running in high performance mode.

Overall, this study offers insight into the SOFC with internal glycerol reforming, which is beneficial to promote the development and optimization of glycerol-fueled SOFC.

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