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Compressive Creep of Polymer Electrolyte Membranes: A Case Study for Electrolyzers

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Abstract

For proton-exchange membrane (PEM) water electrolyzers to be commercially fea-3 sible, PEMs must perform over long lifetimes in liquid environments under compression 4 while maintaining mechanical stability. Hydrated environment, while inherent for op-5 eration and conductivity, undermines PEM stability. Mechanical stability of PEMs is 6 commonly characterized in tension, which is not applicable to electrolyzers, wherein 7 PEMs could undergo high pressures. In this study, a compression creep procedure is 8 developed using a custom-designed setup to monitor creep response of hydrated PEMs. 9 Our results show PEMs exhibit continuous creep response under compression over 24 10 hours, with a dependence on the applied pressure and hydration state. 11

Keywords: compression, electrolyzer, creep, ionomer, mechanics, hydration
Proton-exchange membrane (PEM) water electrolyzers (PEMWEs) are a promising clean
energy technology for electrochemical generation of hydrogen by splitting water. PEMWEs
use an ion-conductive polymer, or ionomer, membrane to conduct protons from the anode
to cathode while inhibiting crossover of electrons and product gases (O₂, H₂). PEMWEs

¹⁷ offer a variety of end-uses in industry and power generation because hydrogen is essential to ¹⁸ many industrial applications, such as turbine blanketing gas, semiconductors, heat treating, ¹⁹ and submarines for O₂, and industrial gas applications. Hydrogen's energy capacity can be ²⁰ directly used in PEM fuel cells (PEMFCs).

Electrolyzers provide decarbonized hydrogen unlike methane reforming, currently the 21 most common method of industrial hydrogen gas production.¹ For electrolyzers to compete 22 with methane reforming, capital cost of these devices must be reduced.^{1,2} To achieve cost 23 reduction, thinner, more durable membranes are needed.^{2–5} Improved durability of thinner 24 PEMs is important for cost reduction of PEM electrolyzers^{3,4,6} because PEMs must perform 25 over 80,000 hours in electrolyzers in liquid environments according to the Department of 26 Energy's hydrogen program goals.⁷ Currently, most PEMWEs are operated at 1.5 - 3.0 MPa 27 (15 - 30 bar) differential pressure and 30 - 50 °C.³ However, higher pressure (> 35 MPa or 28 350 bar) and high temperature (>50 °C) operation is desirable for PEM electrolysis.^{2,4,5,8} 29 Higher pressure allows electrolyzers to deliver hydrogen at a high pressure to the end user 30 thus reducing the additional compressor cost and energy needed to compress and store the 31 gas.^{2,4,8} High pressure operation also allows for design flexibility for optimizing product gas 32 removal.^{2,4,9} However, operating at high differential pressure across the active area increases 33 the required sealing pressures to prevent off-board leaks, thus further increasing the internal 34 compressive stresses experienced by the active area of the electrolyte.⁸ High pressure acting 35 on the active area in PEMWE makes compressive creep a great concern which could im-36 pact the interfacial resistance between the membrane and the electrodes.^{2,10} From a PEM 37 perspective, high pressure deteriorates efficiency by increasing gas crossover (product loss) 38 and induces larger stresses in the membrane which may compromise their mechanical sta-39 bility.^{2,4,5,9} For this reason, industry has favored thicker membranes in PEMWEs, however, 40 this increases the capital and operating cost since the electrical expense increases due to 41 higher voltages resulting from the increase in ohmic resistance. Therefore, to overcome the 42 challenges of improving PEMWE performance and durability, one must develop an accurate 43

⁴⁴ way of assessing PEM mechanical stability by accounting for the effect of compression.

The prototypical PEM in acid-based low-temperature electrolyzers is perfluorosulfonic 45 acid (PFSA) due to its mechanical and chemical stability and high ionic conductivity.¹¹ 46 Most previous studies on the mechanical stability of PFSAs investigated its mechanical 47 properties only in tension.¹¹ However, in electrochemical devices, membranes undergo com-48 pression loads arising from a combination of assembly loads (pressures) and hydration-driven 49 expansion within the constraints of the device geometry and edge effects, as discussed to a 50 large extent in the fuel-cell literature.^{12,13} Compression behavior, however, is even more crit-51 ical for understanding membrane behavior and durability in electrolyzers, where the PEM 52 experiences a high-pressure, hot liquid environment during longer operating times. Fur-53 thermore, creep failure has been observed in Nafion-type membranes, especially at elevated 54 temperature such as 80 °C.^{2,10} Thus, for electrolyzers, it is even more imperative that creep 55 be studied in a compressive mode, especially in water, as this is more relevant to device 56 operation and will inform device lifetime. 57

The tensile stress-strain response of PFSA membranes is widely-studied and known to 58 be highly sensitive to the surrounding environment, particularly, temperature and hydra-59 tion.^{11,14–19} However, as shown in Figure 1b, the monotonic stress-strain response of PFSA 60 is very different between tension and compression. In tension, the membrane exhibits a 61 stress-strain response typical of semi-crystalline polymers; a linear elastic region followed by 62 strain hardening after the onset of yielding, ending with failure. In compression, a mono-63 tonic, nonlinear increase in stress is observed. For a given strain, the membrane experiences 64 much higher stress under compression than in tension. These findings indicate that creep 65 behavior will also be disparate between the two stress-states. 66

It should be noted that this comparison between tension and compression is performed on Nafion 212, a dispersion-cast membrane, which is more commonly used in fuel-cell studies, whereas electrolyzer studies predominantly use the thicker Nafion membranes (N11x series, where x=5, 7, 10).^{2,3,11} Extruded membranes exhibit anisotropy in their mechani-

cal properties, primarily between the extruded "machine" direction and the transverse di-71 rection.^{11,14,18,20,21} This anisotropy in mechanical properties could be linked to the intrin-72 sic structural anisotropy in membranes observed via x-ray scattering studies.^{12,13,21} Cast 73 membranes, on the other hand, have been shown to be less anisotropic in the plane, both 74 structurally and mechanically.^{12,21,22} Moreover, morphological domain-alignment occurring 75 in Nafion membranes, whether induced intrinsically through manufacturing (cast vs. ex-76 truded) or externally through (pre/post)stretching, is related to anisotropy observed for 77 transport properties, such as diffusion and conductivity.^{11–13,22–24} However, it was also shown 78 that, any intrinsic morphological anisotropy in Nafion membranes, especially in an extruded 79 one, can be reduced upon boiling in water, which serves as part of a pretreatment procedure 80 commonly employed in Nafion membrane studies.^{11,12,21} Therefore, a dispersion-cast Nafion 81 is selected to clearly demonstrate the disparity between tension and compression, but in the 82 following, for the purposes of investigating the compression creep relevant to electrolyzer 83 conditions, extruded Nafion 11x series will be employed in pretreated form (see supporting 84 information (SI) for details on sample preparation). 85

In this study, we have developed a novel technique to study the creep compression of PEMs *in-situ* with controlled temperature and hydration, from ambient (referred to as dry, 40-55% RH, 25-30 °C) to hydrated fully with liquid water (referred to as wet). The set-up, inspired from a design by Budinski et al.²⁵ and prior works of Kusoglu et al.,^{12,13,26} is shown in Figure 1a and the experimental procedure explained in the SI.

Creep occurs when a material held under a constant stress over time generates a strain response. For a perfectly elastic material with no time-dependent response, no creep would occur. Creep deformation in polymers is governed by the time-dependent changes in their morphology due to segmental mobility of polymer chains or relaxation of the network in response to constant load. In ionomers, creep response is also dependent on the hydration-driven dynamic changes in the structure, as previously shown for PFSAs under tension.^{11,15,27-29}

^{*}During a wet compression test, the membrane is in a bath of liquid DI water whereas in wet tension, the membrane was fully hydrated just prior to the experiment



Figure 1: (a) Custom experimental compression setup with liquid water chamber. (b) Monotonic compression and tension of Nafion 212 in dry (ambient RH) and wet (fully hydrated) states. In tension, dry Nafion 212 exhibits a characteristic elastic-plastic response with an onset of non-linearity at 10 MPa, followed by strain hardening. In compression, however, the response is stiffer and nonlinear without a discernible yield point. Hydration of the membrane reduces its stiffness in both compression and tension mode while still preserving the characteristic response for each mode.*



Figure 2: Compressive creep response of Nafion 117 PB for 24 hours at 35 MPa (350 bar). (a) The applied stress over time as the controlled input into the system. A quick ramp is applied followed by a constant load at 35 MPa (held for creep). (b) The measured output as the reduced membrane thickness over time due to compression (ramp) and then creep (hold). (c) The resulting compressive strain in the sample, which is defined positive. The ramp generates an initial strain, and then as the load is held, the thickness reduces over time corresponding to a positive increase in the strain, which is the creep strain.

While it has not been measured previously, creep is expected to occur in a compressed 97 PFSA as well.^{2,10} PFSA ionomers have a phase-separated nanostructure resulting from the 98 molecular hydration of their ionic groups forming hydrophilic nano-domains separated by 99 the hydrophobic fluorocarbon backbone. While the hydrophilic domains impact PEM's ion 100 and water transport functionality across time and length-scales, the overall phase-separated 101 structure governs mechanical properties.¹¹ This dynamic, chemically-heterogeneous struc-102 ture of PFSA also makes its mechanical behavior dependent on time, temperature, and 103 hydration.^{11,14–19,28,29} Thus, to better mimic the environment an ionomer undergoes in an 104 electrolyzer, creep response of PFSA is monitored under compression, as shown in Figure 2. 105 Under a compression-type load, a compressive strain, or initial strain ($\varepsilon_{initial}$), develops in 106 the membrane. When the applied stress is held constant, the membrane thickness decreases 107 further over time, indicating creep response. The change in strain over time represents the 108 creep strain (ε_{creep}). The total strain can therefore be decomposed into the initial and the 109 creep strain as: 110

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$$\varepsilon_{total} = \varepsilon_{initial} + \varepsilon_{creep}.$$
 (1)

Building upon the compelling evidence for compressive creep in PFSA, in the following, we investigate the effect of hydration, applied pressure, and thickness.

Figure 3a shows compression creep of Nafion 117 at two pressure levels in dry and wet 114 states at 25 °C. It is relevant to note that strain is normalized with respect to initial thickness 115 of the membrane in the equilibrium condition (either wet or at ambient conditions). In 116 the wet state, there is a highly transient primary creep stage for the first hour, where 117 approximately 80% of the creep strain develops (Figure 3b). Then, a period of slower creep 118 ensues. Whereas, for the dry case, creep strain develops more linearly over time. Table 119 1 shows the creep strain and displacement rate over the whole length of the experiments. 120 By splitting the creep into two stages, 0-1 hr and 1-24 hr, additional comparison can be 121 made. In the secondary state, the dry membrane under 35 MPa exhibits the highest creep 122 strain rate, $\dot{\varepsilon}_{creep} = 1.30 \times 10^{-3} \text{ hr}^{-1}$, whereas the wet membrane at 35 MPa exhibits the 123

lowest creep strain rate, $\dot{\varepsilon}_{creep} = 0.484 \times 10^{-3} \text{ hr}^{-1}$. At the high and low creep strain rate, 124 this corresponds to approximately a 7.4 and 2.2 μ m change in thickness over 23 hours, 125 respectively. Therefore, a wet membrane exhibits a higher creep resistance, after the first 126 hour, than the dry membrane. Additionally, the total creep decreases with increasing stress 127 when the membrane is wet. Thus, increasing hydration reduces the magnitude of creep 128 occurring in PFSAs under compression: the higher the pressure, the lower the thickness 129 change due to creep. This is an important outcome for PEM mechanical stability in high-130 pressure electrolyzers as the membranes undergo higher stresses in hydrated conditions. 131

Hydration	Applied	Length of	Creep Strain Rate	Creep Displacement
State	Pressure [MPa]	Experiment [hr]	$ imes 10^3 \; [(\mu \mathrm{m}/\mu \mathrm{m})/\mathrm{hr}]$	Rate $[\mu m/hr]$
Dry	5	120	0.634	0.096
Dry	5	24	0.979	0.148
Dry	35	24	1.72	0.219
Wet	5	24	2.81	0.473
Wet	10	24	3.83	0.646
Wet	15	24	3.20	0.402
Wet	35	24	2.32	0.257

Table 1: Creep strain and displacement rates for the experiments on Nafion 117.

Figure 4a shows the effect of the applied compression load (pressure level) on the creep 132 response of hydrated Nafion membranes at 25 °C. With increasing stress, the initial and 133 total strain increase monotonically, as expected (Figure 4b). However, the creep strain de-134 creases with increasing stress. This could be attributed to the hindered mobility of ionomer 135 aggregates and backbone chains under higher pressures in a phase-separated morphology 136 wherein less compressible water domains are trapped. When the hydrated ionomer is held 137 compressed, the ability of the polymer chains to accommodate the deformation by changing 138 their conformation is suppressed. It has been observed that membrane domain spacing be-139 comes smaller in the direction of applied pressure and elongate in the plane of the membrane 140 to accommodate the nanostructural orientation effects.¹² In addition, resistance to nanoscale 141 deformation caused by the load-bearing hydrophobic domains is exacerbated further by the 142 additional restrictions imposed by the hydrophilic domains filled with incompressible water. 143



Figure 3: (a) Compression creep of pretreated Nafion 117 at 5 and 35 MPa and in dry and wet conditions. (b) Creep strain of these tests with the creep strain of the first hour in blue and the creep strain after the first hour in orange.

These hydrophilic domains act, mechanically, as occlusions, thereby increasing the creep stiffness of the structure, and reducing creep strain.



Figure 4: (a) Compression creep of wet preboiled Nafion 117 at 5, 10, 15, and 35 MPa of applied stress. The 5 MPa and 35 MPa curves are also shown in Figure 3. (b) The total strain decomposed into creep strain and initial strain as a function of applied stress. With increasing stress, the initial strain increases, but the creep strain decreases. The tan and gray color for creep and initial strain correspond to the colors used in Figure 2.

¹⁴⁶ Membrane thickness is a key design parameter that directly contributes to the Ohmic ¹⁴⁷ resistance in the cell. Thus, it is of interest to understand how reducing thickness for im-¹⁴⁸ proved ohmic losses would impact creep behavior. Table 2 shows the results from the creep ¹⁴⁹ compression on three hydrated membranes with different thicknesses: Nafion 1110 (250 μ m), ¹⁵⁰ 117 (175 μ m), and 115 (125 μ m). Thickness should not affect intrinsic response of a polymer ¹⁵¹ but it could affect the creep compliance because of geometric factors. In a hydrated state, ¹⁵² the thinnest membrane creeps the least with 5.58% creep strain over 24 hours.

¹⁵³ The findings in this study demonstrate that mechanical response of PEM during mono-

Table 2: Creep strain, creep strain rates, and creep displacement rates for preboiled Nafion 1110, 117, and 115. The conditions of the experiments are wet, 35 MPa, at 25 °C, and held for 24 hours

Material	Nominal	Creep Strain	Creep Strain Rate	Creep Displacement
Name	Thickness $[\mu m]$	[%]	$ imes 10^3 \; [(\mu { m m}/\mu { m m})/{ m hr}]$	Rate $[\mu m/hr]$
Nafion 1110	250	5.67	2.36	0.392
Nafion 117	175	5.60	2.32	0.257
Nation 115	125	5.58	2.22	0.127

tonic loading changes dramatically from tension to compression, a mode that is not widely 154 studied despite its relevance to energy devices. Using a custom-designed *in situ* compression 155 setup, creep response of PEMs is demonstrated using PFSA membranes in both dry and 156 hydrated states. Creep is observed to occur over 24 hours and beyond (at least five days as 157 shown in Table 1) and exhibits dependence on hydration, membrane thickness, and applied 158 pressure levels. In hydrated state, Nafion membranes exhibit a creep strain rate of 0.2-0.3%159 change in thickness per hour, depending on the pressure level. During creep compression, 160 a hydrated PFSA is more resistant to creep but exhibits a stronger dependence on stress 161 level. These findings translate into suppressed thickness reduction in the membrane under 162 high-compression regions, and possibly a non-uniform thickness change over time during cell 163 operation. Considering that membranes in electrolyzers must be optimized for thickness, 164 cost, performance, and mechanical stability over long times, these results show operating 165 parameters, such as pressure and hydration, could have significant impact on membrane 166 durability, with key implications also for membrane conductive resistance. 167

For example, Kaddouri et al.³⁰ have studied the effects of static compressive stress on an extruded Nafion membrane's water self-diffusion and have demonstrated a reduced diffusion in the direction of applied compression (up to 10 MPa), particularly at higher humidities $(\geq 95\%$ RH). This anisotropy in diffusion is attributed to the structural changes within the membrane, which is expected to increase further at higher pressures accessed in this study. At higher pressures, the deformation may be irreversible and thus, a plastic deformation of the membrane would exhibit a permanent reduction in water sorption. Kusoglu et al.¹² have demonstrated that as the membrane is compressed, its water content decreased and its hydrophilic domain spacing inferred from SAXS studies decreases in the direction of the applied load, thereby affecting the proton conductivity within the membrane. The conductivity decreases with increasing pressure especially at higher humidities and in liquid water, in agreement with the nanostructural orientation observed under those conditions.

In summary, mechanical compression creates a unique environment for PEMs, espe-180 cially under high-compression loads and in hydrated state, as is the case in electrolyzer 181 devices. On one hand, continuous creep reported in this work reduces the membrane thick-182 ness, thereby possibly altering the membrane-electrode interface and overall Ohmic resistance 183 over time. On the other hand, based on prior studies denoting a strong morphological link 184 between transport properties and morphological changes, such as intrinsic orientation and 185 domain-alignment due to deformation, one would also anticipate changes in water content 186 and transport properties under compression load. These affects altogether impact membrane 187 performance and stability in an electrolyzer device. Hence, this study has shown that me-188 chanical stability for electrolyzer membranes could be characterized using compression loads 189 and creep, which would have implications not only for longevity of PEMs, but also for their 190 properties relevant to operation. 191

This work demonstrates that characterizing the mechanical response of polymer-electrolyte 192 membranes under conditions relevant to device operation, such as compressive creep rate, 193 is important and must be accounted for in material research for energy and environmental 194 devices. Also, state-of-the-art PEMs are being challenged to operate at higher temperatures 195 and stresses in an effort to further improve device efficiency and reduce operating costs to 196 address the needs of emerging energy challenges. Therefore, future investigations could ex-197 plore the effects of various operating environments on the creep response and mechanical 198 stability of electrolyte membranes, and factors related to cell assembly conditions and device 199 design. 200

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²⁰⁸ Supporting Information Available

Associated Content: Full experimental methods are provided in detail in Supporting Infor mation.

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²⁹⁷ Graphical TOC Entry

