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Overcoming Limitations for Pure-water Anion-exchange-membrane Electrolysis

by Grace A. Lindquist and Shannon W. Boettcher

any essential industrial processes rely on the input of high-purity H₂, such as fertilizer and steel production.¹ However, over 99% of H₂ is "gray" (produced using fossil fuels).^{2,3} Less than 1% is "green" H₂, produced through water electrolysis powered by renewable electricity.² While gray H₂ is currently cheaper to produce, green H₂ is expected to become cost-competitive within the next decade as electricity costs decrease and device scale increases.¹ Electrolyzer technology also addresses long-duration energy-storage limitations facing scaling renewable electricity sources like wind and solar.⁴ Pairing these systems with electrolysis stores excess energy as H₂, which can be compressed for long-term storage or transport.

The two dominant commercial low-temperature electrolysis technologies are liquid-alkaline and proton-exchange-membrane (PEM) electrolysis.⁵ Liquid-alkaline electrolyzers are a mature technology that operate by flowing hot, concentrated aqueous KOH to the anode and cathode separated by a porous diaphragm. They use inexpensive non-platinum-group-metal (non-PGM) catalysts and hardware but historically suffer from high crossover rates, resulting in O₂ contamination in the H₂ stream, which can be highly combustible. This approach is particularly ill-suited for pairing with renewable technology due to the inherent variability of the power load.⁶ PEM electrolyzers operate using a cation-selective, solid-polymer membrane which reduces gas crossover, resulting in high-purity H₂ output and enabling the variable-load operation for coupling with intermittent electrical sources. The membrane separator also enables the use of pure water rather than supporting electrolyte, improving system safety, simplifying system- and plant-level engineering, and eliminating efficiency losses from shunt currents.7 However, the locally acidic environment of the PEM necessitates more expensive catalysts (Ir, Pt, etc.) and hardware (Ti, etc.).

Anion-exchange-membrane (AEM) electrolysis is an emerging technology that, with further development, can combine the benefits of PEM and liquid-alkaline systems. AEM electrolyzers use an anion-selective hydroxide-conducting polymer membrane, which creates a locally alkaline environment that enables the use of non-PGM catalysts (Ni, Co, Fe, etc.) and flow fields (steel) while maintaining the ability to operate in pure water with low gas crossover (Fig. 1).⁸ However, currently AEM technology is immature, and does not meet the performance and stability needed to compete with PEM. This limitation is largely due to the lack of a high-performing, stable anion-exchange polymer. Further, while many high-performing,

4 H₂O H_2 O H_2

FIG. 1. *AEMWE schematic.* An anion-selective hydroxide conducting membrane is sandwiched between two gas diffusion electrodes (GDEs) coated with a HER or OER catalyst and anion exchange ionomer. Adapted from ref. 8.

stable non-PGM catalysts for the oxygen-evolution reaction (OER) have been identified in lab-scale testing in KOH, this behavior hasn't directly translated to industrially relevant device operation in pure water. 9,10

Degradation of Anion Exchange Polymers

For AEM electrolyzers and fuel cells, the stability-limiting component is the anion exchange polymer.⁵ This polymer is used as a membrane and mixed in the catalyst layer to transport hydroxide to the high-surface-area catalyst and improve contact between the catalyst layer and the membrane. Most polymer development has focused on improving polymer alkaline stability and prevention of OH⁻ nucleophilic attack.^{11, 12} The oxygen electrode in fuel cells, however, operates at much less-oxidizing potential than in electrolyzers, meaning the ionomers in electrolyzers must have much better oxidative stability. Polymer degradation experiments also often use model ex-situ studies, such as soaking materials in KOH solution or three-electrode studies mimicking oxidative environments.^{12, 13}

When operating in an AEM electrolyzer with pure-water feed, the ionomer in the anode catalyst layer sees substantial oxidative damage. When testing different anion exchange polymers, a similar degradation rate occurs for the initial ~20 h of operation, nearly independent of polymer chemistry across a wide range of materials.¹⁴ X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) shows an increase in oxidized carbon content and a loss of cation groups (Fig. 2).¹⁴ Kim and coworkers isolated phenyl oxidation to phenol in model studies,¹⁵ and supporting computational work from Hendon and coworkers suggests the aromatic regions of the polymer are weak sites for oxidation.¹⁶ The exact degradation mechanism is complicated, but likely includes both electrochemical reactivity by direct oxidation, perhaps coupled with OH⁻ attack, of the polymer and chemical reactivity with oxygen radical species and other reactive OER intermediates.

Earth-abundant Oxygen-evolving Anode Catalysts

The activity of earth-abundant (particularly Ni, Fe, and Cobased) catalysts for OER has been extensively studied in alkaline conditions.¹⁷⁻¹⁹ For all mixed-metal oxyhydroxides, and the oxides/

sulfides/phosphides etc. that serve as pre-catalysts to the oxyhydroxides,20-22 Fe is essential for high activity.23, 24 Fecontaining Ni oxyhydroxides are the most active catalysts in alkaline media,25 with turnover frequencies ten-fold higher than IrO_x.²⁶ Co oxides/oxyhydroxides have a lower activity but are more structurally stable under OER conditions. The active catalyst's phases in both cases are typically molecular-scale metal oxo-/hydroxo species that under OER conditions oxidize from a nominally layered double hydroxide to an oxyhydroxide structure. The transition metal oxidation (i.e., Ni2+ to Ni³⁺), is generally accompanied by a large increase in electrical conductivity, which contributes to the high performance.19

While structure-compositionperformance relationships have been



FIG. 2. Electrolyzer degradation. a) Pure-water fed AEM electrolyzer durability. The inset shows temperature-dependent initial performance. b) XPS comparison of polymer in a pristine and operated anode. Adapted from ref. 14.

identified in three-electrode studies with a supporting electrolyte, it is unclear how these translate to AEM devices fed with pure water. Despite their high OER activity, Ni-Fe-based catalysts tend to show poor activity and stability in a pure-water membraneelectrode assembly (MEA) environment.10 We found that NiFe2O4 nanoparticles failed rapidly during electrolyzer testing, but Co₃O₄ nanopowders performed the best out of all non-PGM catalysts tested and showed comparable performance and stability to high-surface area commercial IrO_x (Fig 3).⁹ XPS analysis showed that the leaststable catalysts undergo significant surface transformation during operation (Fig. 3d). The electrolyzer operating voltages trended with the dry powder electrical conductivity (Fig. 3c), indicating that the catalysts were limited by electronic conductivity and not fully restructuring to the conductive oxyhydroxide phase during operation. This observation is likely due to the use of an anion exchange ionomer to supply OH- ions rather than a supporting electrolyte. The hydroxide is confined to near the ionomer cationic backbone and it is not able to transport through the layered sheets, inhibiting the chemical transformation.

We attribute the better performance of Co_3O_4 to its high electrical conductivity and resistance to structural rearrangement during operation. Notably, others have shown Ni-Fe oxide catalysts perform well in AEM devices when fed with KOH^{27, 28} or in pure water when using a thin layer of NiFe catalyst on a conductive supporting substrate that compensates for the poor electronic conductivity of the material when not fully converted to the oxyhydroxide form.^{29, 30}

Perspective and Outlook

AEM electrolysis is positioned to play a key role in the predicted exponential growth of green hydrogen technology with essential R&D advances in the coming years. We revealed key design parameters essential to commercialization. First, stable alkaline OER catalysts with high electronic conductivity and minimal surface reconstruction during operation must be designed. Alkaline catalyst layers must also be applied to the MEA with scalable, industrially relevant techniques. Second, ionomer oxidation mitigation strategies must be developed. This approach could also target other creative catalyst layer design, such as phase-separation control to protect oxidation-prone organic components or catalyst engineering to direct selectivity for hydroxide over polymer oxidation. If competitive efficiency and durability can be achieved in pure water, AEM electrolysis has the potential to become a dominant electrolyzer technology.

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(continued on next page)



FIG. 3. Non-PGM catalyst operation. a) Polarization curves of anode catalysts tested. All experiments were conducted in pure water at 57 °C. A stainlesssteel woven substrate with the indicated catalyst was used as the anode GDL and Pt black catalyst on Toray carbon paper was used as the cathode GDL. b) Durability testing for each catalyst held at 500 mA·cm². c) Electrical conductivity of dry powders measured in a pressed pellet. d) The change in metal ratios of mixed-metal catalysts and changes to Co 2p in Co₃O₄ and Ni 2p in NiO determined by XPS. All catalysts were operated for 20 h at 500 mA·cm². Adapted from ref. 9.

Work Experience: Professor in the Department of Chemistry and Biochemistry at the University of Oregon. His research is at the intersection of materials science and electrochemistry, with a focus on fundamental aspects of energy conversion and storage. In 2019 he founded the Oregon Center for Electrochemistry and the first graduate program in Electrochemical Technology in the USA. **Research Interests:** Electrochemistry, Solar energy, Solid state materials chemistry, Catalysis

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