



Structural, chemical, and electrochemical characteristics of LaSr₂Fe₂CrO_{9-δ}-based solid oxide fuel cell anodes

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ABSTRACT

Solid oxide fuel cells with LaSr₂Fe₂CrO_{9-δ}-Gd_{0.1}Ce_{0.9}O_{2-δ} composite anodes were tested in H₂, H₂S-contaminated H₂, and CH₄ fuels as well as under redox cycling conditions. The La_{0.9}Sr_{0.1}Ga_{0.8}Mg_{0.2}O_{3-δ} electrolyte supported cells had La_{0.4}Ce_{0.6}O_{2-δ} barrier layers to prevent cation diffusion between LaSr₂Fe₂CrO_{9-δ} and La_{0.9}Sr_{0.1}Ga_{0.8}Mg_{0.2}O_{3-δ}. After an initial break-in where the performance improved slightly, the cells were stable in humidified H₂ with a power density > 0.4 W cm⁻² and an anode polarization resistance as low as 0.22 Ω cm². Anode polarization resistance showed little or no change after 15 redox cycles at 800 °C. Cell performance was stable with 22 ppm H₂S, with only a slight performance decrease relative to pure H₂, but higher H₂S concentrations caused continuous degradation. Also, the performance in humidified CH₄ fuel was quite low.

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1. Introduction

The state-of-the-art solid oxide fuel cell (SOFC) anode is Ni-8-mole% yttria stabilized zirconia (YSZ), which performs very well with H₂ fuel. However, Ni-YSZ anodes have a few well-known drawbacks [1]. Ni-YSZ anodes are susceptible to damage by carbon deposition when operated in hydrocarbon-rich fuels. Although such coking can be eliminated by using relatively high steam to carbon ratios, this measure increases system complexity and decreases the efficiency of the SOFC [2]. Ni-YSZ anodes also tend to degrade in fuels containing relatively low levels of common impurities. For example, Ni-YSZ anodes have been reported to undergo irreversible degradation after being exposed to H₂S concentrations as low as 2 ppm at 800 °C [3]. Another issue with Ni-YSZ anodes is redox cycling. Redox cycles can occur when the fuel supply is interrupted, either intentionally or unintentionally [4]. The result can be oxidation of Ni to NiO. The large associated volume increase (69.9%) can lead to fracture or delamination [4], while the subsequent re-reduction can cause Ni to agglomerate, decreasing anode performance [5–8].

A number of doped chromite and titanite solid-solution perovskites have been reported to provide good SOFC anode performance, providing potential alternatives to Ni-YSZ. In some cases, oxide anodes have shown improved functionality compared to Ni-YSZ, including an ability to work stably in CH₄ fuel [6–10], to work without significant poisoning in H₂S-laden fuels [8–11], and to provide stable performance

after a number of redox cycles [12]. The La_{1-x}Sr_xCr_{1-y}Fe_yO_{3-δ} family of perovskites is one of the compositions that has been studied for anode applications. For example, Tao and Irvine reported that La_{0.75}Sr_{0.25}Cr_{0.5}Fe_{0.5}O_{3-δ} functions as a stable SOFC anode in H₂ fuel, and it is a complete CH₄ oxidation catalyst [9]. A more Fe-rich composition LaSr₂Fe₂CrO_{9-δ} (LSFeCr) in a composite anode with Gd_{0.1}Ce_{0.9}O_{2-δ} (GDC) was shown to be stable in H₂ fuel [10] with a polarization resistance of ~0.25 Ω cm² at 800 °C, comparable to other oxide anodes. It is also active towards CO oxidation [11].

The present paper discusses a more detailed study of the LSFeCr-GDC anodes. The stability of LSFeCr with La_{0.9}Sr_{0.1}Ga_{0.8}Mg_{0.2}O_{3-δ} (LSGM) electrolytes and La_{0.4}Ce_{0.6}O_{2-δ} (LDC) barrier layers was studied. Based on these results, an LDC layer was utilized in the LSGM-electrolyte supported cells to prevent interdiffusion between LSFeCr and LSGM. The electrochemical performance of the composite anodes in humidified H₂ is discussed. Results of electrochemical tests in H₂S-containing H₂ fuel, in CH₄ fuel, and after a number of redox cycles are also described.

2. Experimental

2.1. Synthesis

LSFeCr, LSGM and LDC were synthesized by traditional solid state synthesis from stoichiometric amounts of La₂O₃, SrCO₃, Fe₂O₃, Cr₂O₃, Ga₂O₃, MgO and CeO₂ (Alfa Aesar 99.99%). All hydroxides and carbonates were removed from La₂O₃, Ga₂O₃, and MgO by pre-calcining at 800 °C for 4 h. The LSFeCr synthesis was performed at 1250 °C for 24 h typically

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with two intermittent grindings. LSGM was calcined at 1250 °C for 6 h and LDC at 1400 °C for 6 h.

2.2. Materials characterization

Structural characterization was performed by powder X-ray diffraction (XRD) using a Scintag XDS 2000 diffractometer with Cu K α radiation and a nickel filter. Patterns were collected at room temperature in air in the range $20^\circ < 2\theta < 80^\circ$ with a 0.02° step size and 1 s dwell.

After verifying phase purity, the chemical compatibility of LSF_{0.8}Fe_{0.2}Cr with different electrolyte materials was studied. LSF_{0.8}Fe_{0.2}Cr was mixed with GDC, LDC and LSGM in a 50%:50% weight ratio and fired at 1000 °C, 1200 °C, and 1400 °C. The mixtures were characterized by powder XRD.

High resolution powder XRD was also performed at the Advanced Photon Source at Argonne National Labs, Beamline 11-BM for the chemical compatibility of LSF_{0.8}Fe_{0.2}Cr and LSGM. LSF_{0.8}Fe_{0.2}Cr and LSGM are similar sized perovskites so high resolution diffraction data was necessary to resolve the highly overlapped diffraction peaks.

2.3. SOFC fabrication

The SOFC testing was performed on LSGM electrolyte supported cells with cathodes consisting of a La_{0.6}Sr_{0.4}Fe_{0.8}Co_{0.2}O_{3- δ} (LSCF, Praxair)–GDC (Nextech) functional layer and an LSCF current collector and anodes comprised of an LSF_{0.8}Fe_{0.2}Cr–GDC functional layer. In most of the cells, an LDC barrier layer was deposited between the anode and electrolyte to prevent reactions between LSF_{0.8}Fe_{0.2}Cr and LSGM [13].

The LSGM powder was ball milled with poly(vinyl butyral-co-vinyl alcohol-co-vinyl acetate) and uniaxially pressed into a 19 mm diameter pellet. The pellets were bisque fired at 1250 °C for 6 h and then an LDC barrier layer was applied to one side of the pellets by either drop coating a colloidal LDC solution or screen printing an LDC ink. The LDC coated pellets were sintered at 1450 °C for 6 h, which resulted in ~400 μ m thick, fully dense LSGM pellets and a fully dense LDC layer.

Electrode inks were prepared by ball milling the powders in ethanol for 24 h, drying, and three roll milling with an organic vehicle (Heraeus V737). The anode ink consisted of 50 wt.% LSF_{0.8}Fe_{0.2}Cr and 50 wt.% GDC and was screen printed on the LDC side of the LSGM support. The LSF_{0.8}Fe_{0.2}Cr–GDC active anode layer was fired at 1200 °C for 1–3 h, which resulted in a circular anode active area of 0.28–0.5 cm² and a thickness of 30–40 μ m. A double layer cathode was used and fabricated by screen

printing a 50 wt.% LSCF and 50 wt.% GDC layer on the LSGM support followed by a single phase LSCF layer. The cathode layers were fired together at 1000 °C for 3 h (0.5 cm² active area, ~20–30 μ m thick). Gold ink (Heraeus, Inc) was then screen printed as current collector grids on both electrodes and contacted with silver wires for cell testing. Cross-sectional SEM images of the resulting cells showed the expected structures: dense LSGM with a ~5 μ m thick LDC anode layer and a porous anode ~20–30 μ m thick.

2.4. SOFC testing

For cell testing, SOFCs were mounted with their anode sides towards alumina support tubes with Ag ink (DAD-87, Shanghai Research Institute of Synthetic Resins). The silver provided both the gas seal and a convenient means for electrically connecting to the anode Au grid. The fuel was provided to the anode through a second, smaller-diameter alumina tube. The setup has been described in more detail elsewhere [14].

Electrochemical measurements were recorded with a four-probe single cell test setup for the current–voltage and electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS, BAS-Zahner IM-6). The electrochemical impedance spectra (EIS) were recorded at open circuit voltage (OCV) over a frequency range of 0.1 Hz to 1 MHz using a 20 mV potential amplitude. The time dependent performance was recorded with a 2420 Keithley Instruments source meter. The anode polarization resistance was estimated as the difference between the low and high frequency real axis intercepts. The cathode contribution to the polarization resistance was negligible based on the relatively low polarization resistances that have been reported for LSCF–GDC cathodes (0.01 Ω cm² at 750 °C on YSZ [15] and 0.07 Ω cm² at 750 °C on GDC [16] electrolytes).

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Chemical stability and structural characterization

The chemical compatibility of LSF_{0.8}Fe_{0.2}Cr with LSGM and LDC was studied by mixing the powders together and firing from 1000 to 1400 °C. Fig. 1 shows the X-ray powder diffraction patterns of LSF_{0.8}Fe_{0.2}Cr mixed with LSGM after firing at different temperatures. Based on the diffraction patterns, an interaction occurs that becomes more extensive with increasing firing temperature. The inset in Fig. 1 displays the (110) peaks of LSGM and LSF_{0.8}Fe_{0.2}Cr at ~32°. It can be seen that with increasing

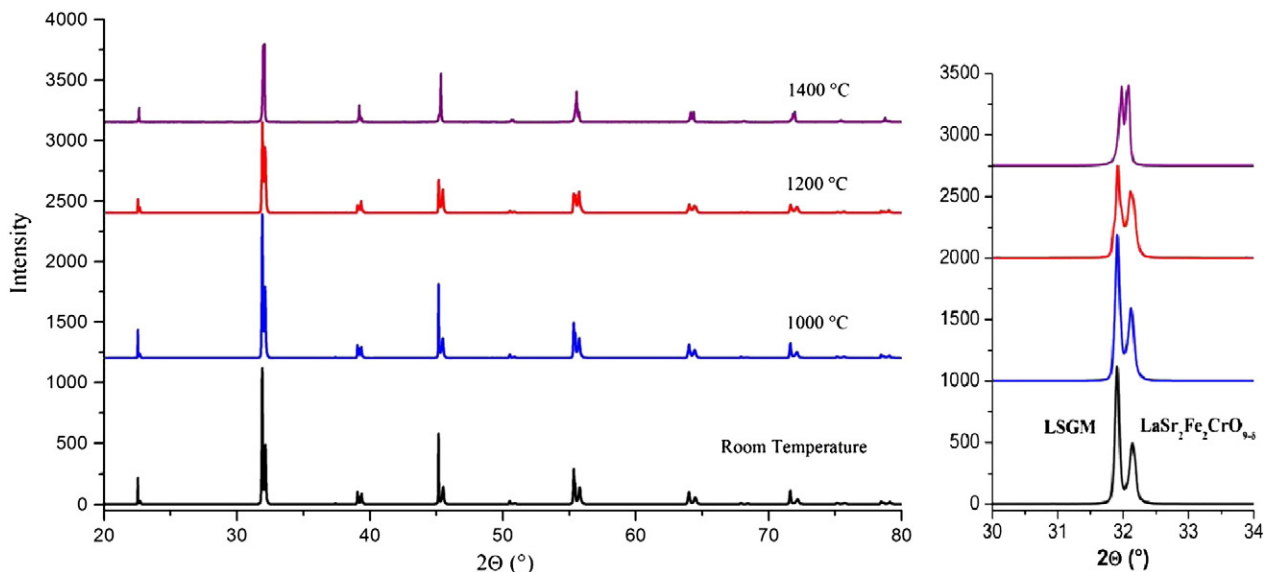


Fig. 1. (a) The XRD patterns of a mixture of LSF_{0.8}Fe_{0.2}Cr and LSGM at room temperature and fired at 1000, 1200, and 1400 °C and (b) an expanded plot of the region between 2θ 30.5° to 33.5° where the 110 peaks of LSF_{0.8}Fe_{0.2}Cr and LSGM occur.

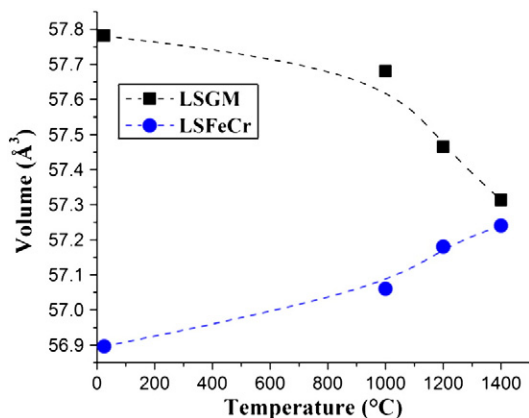


Fig. 2. The reduced unit cell volume of LSFerCr and LSGM at room temperature and after being fired together at 1000, 1200, and 1400 °C.

firing temperature, the (110) LSGM peak shifts to higher 2θ angles indicating a decrease in the volume, while the LSFerCr (110) peak shifts to lower angles signifying an increase in volume. The change in volume is likely caused by the interdiffusion of cations between the two perovskite phases. Fig. 2 shows that the reduced unit cell volumes obtained from the X-ray data converged with increasing firing temperature. This suggests that LSFerCr and LSGM increasingly interdiffused as temperature increased, and would likely form a single phase at sufficiently high temperatures and long times. This agrees with a prior report that a similar composition, $\text{La}_{0.75}\text{Sr}_{0.25}\text{Fe}_{0.5}\text{Cr}_{0.5}\text{O}_{3-\delta}$, intermixed with LSGM to form a single phase perovskite [17]. This explains why SOFCs with LSFerCr–GDC anodes fired directly on LSGM electrolytes yield low power densities [10]. That is, the mixed phase that forms at the anode/electrolyte interface presumably has inferior electronic or ionic conductivity, and hence has a deleterious effect on the electrode performance.

Fig. 3 shows the X-ray diffraction patterns obtained after firing LSFerCr with LDC. No reaction was observed between LSFerCr and LDC up to 1200 °C. However, after $\text{LaSr}_2\text{Fe}_2\text{CrO}_{9-\delta}$ and LDC were fired at 1400 °C, a significant reaction occurred and a third phase was identified and indexed as the layered perovskite, LaSrFeO_4 . Thus, LDC provides an effective barrier between LSFerCr and LSGM as long as the firing temperatures were <1400 °C.

LSFeCr is near its stability limit under SOFC anode operating conditions [18]. Detailed studies reported elsewhere showed no evidence of metallic Fe formation under SOFC anode conditions [18], although Fe has been observed when the compound is exposed to highly reducing conditions. In the present work, X-ray diffraction measurements carried out after >100 h SOFC life tests showed only the expected peaks, with no evidence of Fe metal formation.

3.2. Electrochemical testing: hydrogen

All of the SOFCs were initially heated to 800 °C in air and then operated with humidified H_2 (97% H_2 –3% H_2O) at the anode, air at the cathode, and a constant applied current until the cell performance stabilized. Cells without the LDC barrier layer exhibited performance that was inconsistent and inferior compared to those with the LDC barrier [10]. All results below were for cells with LDC barriers, which yielded consistent results.

The cells always showed a break-in during the initial 10–20 h of operation where the cell resistance decreased. Fig. 4a shows Nyquist and Bode plots of EIS data measured at open circuit at 800 °C at the beginning of testing (0 h) and after 24 h of operation. Previous impedance data showed that the LSCF–GDC cathodes have a resistance of $0.05 \Omega \text{ cm}^2$ at 800 °C [16], with their response centered at ~1000 Hz, a higher frequency than the main impedance response shown in Fig. 4a. Thus, the low frequency response centered at 10 Hz is due to the anode, whereas the small response at ~1000 Hz was due in part to the cathode.

During the initial 24 h of operation, the total resistance of the cell decreased from 0.62 to $0.50 \Omega \text{ cm}^2$. Fig. 4 shows that while the ohmic contribution and the high frequency features of the cell impedance were essentially unchanged, the resistance of the low frequency response centered at 1 Hz decreased. This decrease was attributed to changes in anode polarization resistance. $\text{La}_{0.8}\text{Sr}_{0.2}\text{CrO}_{3-\delta}$ –GDC anodes have been reported to undergo similar break-in behaviors [19], attributed to the reduction of $\text{La}_{0.8}\text{Sr}_{0.2}\text{CrO}_{3-\delta}$ and the corresponding increase in oxygen ion diffusivity. Therefore, it is possible that the reduction of LSFerCr and the resultant formation of oxygen vacancies [18] increase the ion diffusivity, thereby decreasing the polarization resistance. It is also possible that the surface composition of the LSFerCr is modified during the break-in period, affecting surface reaction kinetics analogous to changes reported for SOFC cathodes [20,21]. Finally, the results indicate that the stable anode polarization resistance was $\sim 0.22 \Omega \text{ cm}^2$.

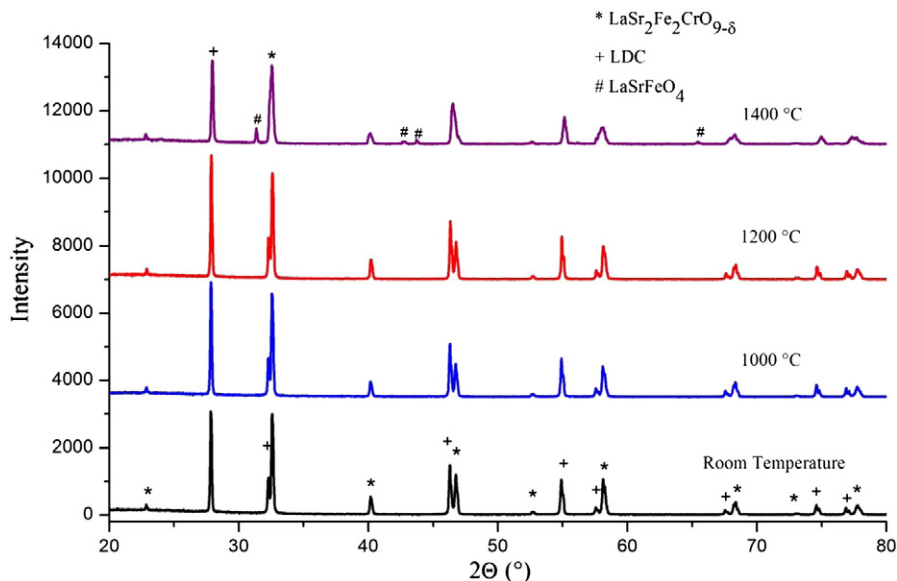


Fig. 3. The XRD patterns of LSFerCr and LDC at room temperature and fired at 1000, 1200, and 1400 °C.

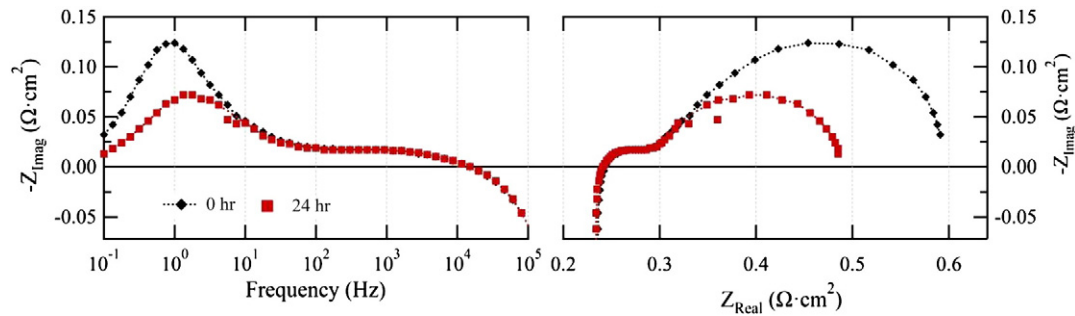


Fig. 4. Bode and Nyquist plots of electrochemical impedance spectra measured for a LSFer–GDC anode SOFC at 800 °C at open circuit at 0 h and 24 h of operation.

All measurements described below were done after the break-in period, where the cell performance was quite stable if the humidified H₂ fuel flow was continued. Fig. 5 shows typical current–voltage results, providing a baseline for the tests under different fuel conditions below. Power density at 0.7 V ranged from ~50 mW cm⁻² at 600 °C to ~400 mW cm⁻² at 800 °C. The current–voltage curves were approximately ohmic, although there was a slight activated character evident. As shown in Fig. 4, approximately half of the cell resistance was due to the LSGM electrolyte. The cell performance shown here is substantially better than reported previously [10] and is attributed to the LDC barrier layer, which was not used in the prior study.

3.3. Electrochemical testing: redox cycling

Fig. 6 shows the cell voltage versus time during 15 redox cycles, performed after the cell had reached steady state. Each redox cycle involved interrupting the applied current, flushing the fuel lines with Ar, flowing air to the anode for 1 h, and resuming the humidified H₂ flow after another Ar flush, and resuming cell operation at 500 mA cm⁻² for a minimum of 1 h. After each oxidation step, the reintroduction of H₂ fuel led to a rapid recovery in voltage to within ~2% of the initial value. The impedance spectrum at OCV after the 15 redox cycles was nearly identical to that before the cycling, with a ~1% increase in the ohmic resistance and a ~1% increase in the polarization resistance. The change was comparable to the slight changes in cell performance normally observed during the cell tests without cycling. Other redox cycles were carried out with oxidation times up to 24 h, but again no change in cell performance was detected. SEM cross sectional images comparing cycled and uncycled anodes showed no indication of microstructural changes or loss of adhesion with the LDC layer attributable to cycling.

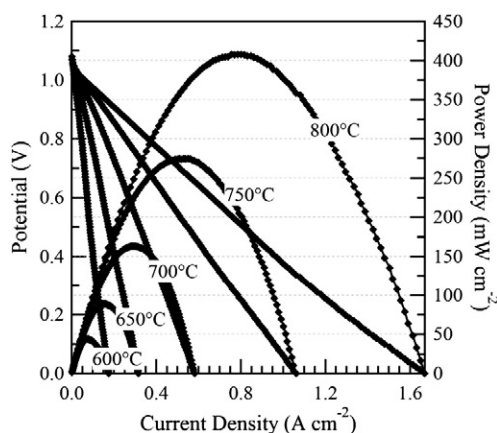


Fig. 5. Potential and power density versus current density, measured in air and humidified hydrogen from 600 to 800 °C, for a typical SOFC.

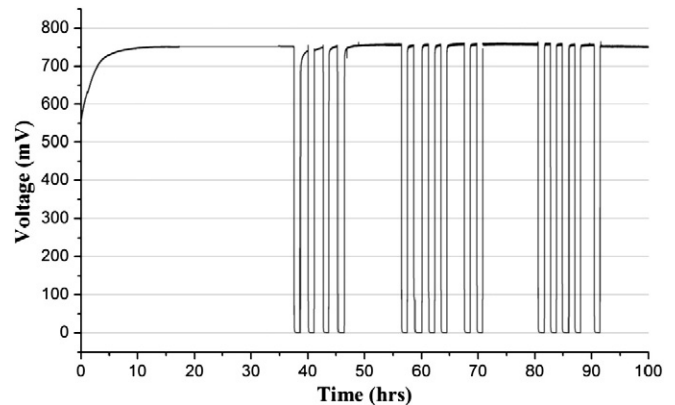


Fig. 6. Voltage versus time for a LSFer–GDC anode cell operated on humidified hydrogen at 800 °C. The breaks in the voltage indicate an oxidation cycle.

The redox cycling had no measurable effect on the present anodes, in contrast with results reported for Ni–YSZ anodes with similar thickness. For example, Iwanschitz et al. observed an increase in the polarization resistance of >100% for 25 μm thick Ni–YSZ anodes after eight 30 min redox cycles at 850 °C [5], and even greater degradation is observed in anode-supported cells due to the much thicker Ni–YSZ layer [6,22].

3.4. Electrochemical testing: sulfur

Fig. 7 shows the cell voltage versus time during operation at 700 mA cm⁻² and 800 °C with different levels of H₂S contaminant in the humidified H₂ fuel. On switching from pure H₂ to H₂ with

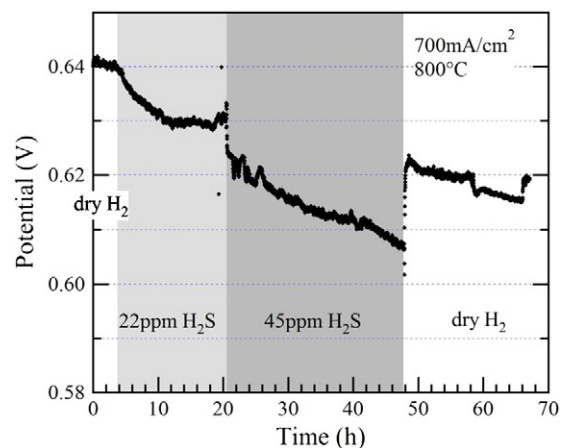


Fig. 7. Cell voltage versus time for an LSFer–GDC anode operated on dry H₂ with 22 ppm H₂S, dry H₂ with 45 ppm H₂S, and pure dry H₂.

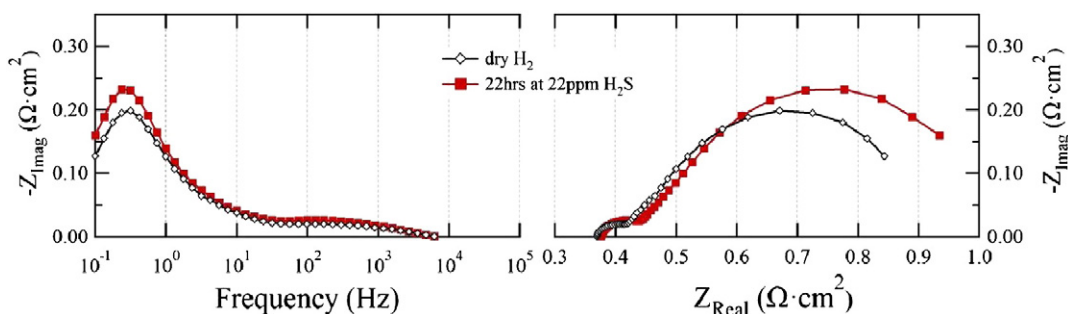


Fig. 8. Electrochemical impedance spectra measured at open circuit for a LFeCr–GDC anode SOFC at 800 °C expose to 22 ppm H₂S.

22 ppm H₂S, the voltage decreased gradually from 0.64 V to 0.63 V over ~10 h, and then became stable for the subsequent 10 h. That is, the anode was reasonably tolerant to 22 ppm H₂S, reaching a stable voltage only ~3% lower than in pure H₂. At a higher H₂S concentration of 45 ppm, however, there was a small but continuous decrease of 0.50 mV h⁻¹ in cell voltage over the entire 25 h exposure, indicating that the anode was not stable. Upon returning to pure H₂, the voltage partially recovered to 0.62 V, but then continued to decrease gradually. The EIS scans shown in Fig. 8, taken before and during operation in dry H₂ laden with 22 ppm H₂S, again indicate that the changes in cell performance were relatively minor. The Bode plots show that the main effect of H₂S was on the low-frequency response. Increasing the H₂S content to 90 ppm caused significant degradation—the anode polarization resistance increased from 0.4 Ω cm² to ~1.6 Ω cm² after 55 h of H₂S exposure. Only a fraction of the performance was recovered upon removing the H₂S. These results show better stability and retention of performance than Ni–YSZ anodes [3,23]. For example, for 1 ppm H₂S, there was a 50% increase in Ni–YSZ polarization resistance during operation at 800 °C, larger than that shown here for 22 ppm [23]. Ni–YSZ anodes have been reported to undergo irreversible degradation after being exposed to H₂S concentrations as low as 2 ppm at 800 °C [3]. The results appear to be similar to those reported for other oxide anodes. For instance, Sr₂–MgMoO₆ anodes showed a slow but continuous increase in polarization resistance when exposed to 50 ppm H₂S concentration and 800 °C, similar to the present results [24]. La_{0.75}Sr_{0.25}Cr_{0.5}Mn_{0.5}O_{3-δ} degraded when operated on 0.5% H₂S laden CH₄ at 850 °C [25].

3.5. Electrochemical testing: methane

Cell performance in humidified CH₄ fuel was poor. For example, the cell open circuit voltage dropped to <0.1 V at 800 °C, and the maximum current density that could be drawn was only 165 mA cm⁻². This suggests that the present anodes were non-reactive with CH₄–H₂O. That is, there was no reforming activity, because hydrogen produced by reforming would have yielded better cell performance. Hydrogen may also be produced by CH₄ cracking [26], but this did not occur here, as evidenced by the poor cell performance.

4. Summary and conclusions

LFeCr–GDC composite anodes were tested in LSGM electrolyte-supported cells with an LDC barrier layer to prevent cation diffusion between LFeCr and LSGM. During an initial break-in, the anode polarization resistance decreased, after which the cell performance was stable in humidified hydrogen with an anode polarization resistance as low as 0.22 Ω cm². Impedance spectra showed one main anode feature at relatively low frequency. The redox stability of the LFeCr–GDC anodes was excellent, with no change in anode resistance, within measurement accuracy, after 15 h oxidation cycles at 800 °C. Cell performance in hydrogen with 22 ppm H₂S showed a slight performance decrease

relative to pure H₂. Cells operated with 45 ppm degraded continuously at ~0.5 mV h⁻¹. The performance in humidified CH₄ fuel was poor, indicative a low level of reforming activity.

Overall, these anodes are a potential alternative to Ni–YSZ anodes, providing better sulfur tolerance and redox cycling stability, but with higher polarization resistance.

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