Solid oxide fuel cells (SOFCs) offer great promise for the most efficient and cost-effective conversion to electricity of a wide variety of fuels such as hydrocarbons, coal gas, and gasified carbonaceous solids. However, the conventional Ni-YSZ (yttria-stabilized zirconia) anode is highly susceptible to deactivation (poisoning) by contaminants commonly encountered in readily available fuels, especially sulfur-containing compounds. Thus, one of the critical challenges facing the realization of fuel-flexible and cost-effective SOFC systems is the development of sulfur-tolerant anode materials. This perspective article aims at providing a comprehensive review of materials that have been studied as anodes for SOFCs, the electrochemical behavior of various anode materials in H₂S-contaminated fuels, experimental methods for ex situ and in situ characterizations of species and phases formed on anode surfaces upon exposure to H₂S-containing fuels, mechanisms for the interactions between H₂S and anode surfaces as predicted from density functional theory (DFT) calculations, and possible strategies of minimizing or eliminating the effect of sulfur poisoning. While significant progress has been made in developing alternative anode materials with better sulfur tolerance, in probing and mapping electrode surface species relevant to sulfur poisoning, and in unraveling the mechanisms of H₂S-anode interactions using both computational and experimental approaches, many challenges still remain to bridge the gaps between models at different scales or between theoretical predictions and experimental observations. An important new direction for future research is to develop a predictive multi-scale (from DFT to continuum) computational framework, through a rigorous validation at each scale by carefully-designed experiments performed under in situ conditions, for rational design of better sulfur-tolerant anode materials and structures for a new generation of SOFCs to be powered by readily available fuels.

Broader context

Solid oxide fuel cells (SOFCs) offer great prospects for the most efficient utilization of a wide variety of chemical fuels, from hydrocarbon fuels to carbonaceous solid fuels (such as coal, biomass, and municipal solid waste). For example, combined-heat-and-power systems based on SOFCs are twice as efficient as today’s coal-fired power plants, potentially reducing CO₂ emission by 50%. Before SOFCs can be widely adopted, however, several hurdles must be overcome: high cost, poor durability, and anode deactivation or degradation by contaminants, especially sulfur in a variety of readily available fuels. Even renewable hydrocarbon sources like biogas also contain sulfur contaminants. Thus, the development of sulfur-tolerant anode materials and structures represents a grand challenge facing the commercialization of economically competitive SOFCs. To date, extensive efforts have been devoted to gaining a profound understanding of the sulfur–anode interactions using both experimental and theoretical approaches and have led to discoveries of some promising alternative anode materials that display superior sulfur tolerance while maintaining high performance and ease of fabrication. These findings would not only advance the SOFC technology but also benefit research in other related areas like desulfurization catalysts for fuel processing and materials for corrosion inhibition in sulfur-containing environments.
1 Introduction

The demand for clean, secure, and sustainable energy sources has stimulated great interests in fuel cells, electrochemical devices that directly convert the energy of a chemical fuel to electricity. Among all types of fuel cells, solid oxide fuel cells (SOFCs) offer great prospects for the most efficient utilization of various readily available carbon-containing fuels\(^1\)\(^–\)\(^5\) such as natural gas,\(^6\)\(^–\)\(^9\) gasified coal,\(^10\)\(^–\)\(^14\) and other solid carbonaceous fuels including municipal solid waste and biomass.\(^15\)\(^–\)\(^17\) For example, simulations have shown that SOFC systems run on natural gas or gasified coal can be much more efficient than today’s combustion-based power generation systems, considerably reducing CO\(_2\) emission.\(^5\)\(^,\)\(^18\)\(^–\)\(^24\)

Schematically shown in Fig. 1 is a single SOFC based on a solid oxide electrolyte that conducts oxygen ions and/or protons. The three key components of each individual cell include a gas impermeable layer of ceramic electrolyte, a porous anode where the fuel is electrochemically oxidized, and a porous cathode where the oxidant (usually oxygen from the air) is electrochemically reduced. The state-of-the-art SOFCs are based on yttria-stabilized zirconia (YSZ) electrolyte and Ni-YSZ cermet anodes. The prevailing cathodes for commercial use are strontium-doped lanthanum manganese oxide.
anode materials and H$_2$S as well as some new insights into the fundamental understandings are vital to revealing the atomistic surface phases resulted from the poisoning process. These are applied to rationalize the conditions that favor sulfur electrolyte. Further, *ab initio* calculations based on density functional theory 

In the past few decades, extensive efforts have been devoted to characterizing sulfur poisoning behavior of conventional Ni-YSZ cermet anodes, unraveling the mechanism of sulfur poisoning, and developing alternative anode materials with enhanced sulfur tolerance. This *perspective* article aims to provide a comprehensive review of the current understanding of sulfur–anode interactions under typical SOFC operating conditions. In Section 2, we start with a brief discussion of the general requirements for SOFC anode materials, the characteristics of the conventional Ni-YSZ cermet anodes, and the sulfur poisoning behavior of Ni-YSZ anodes. In Section 3, we then present the behavior of various alternative anode materials that have been explored for sulfur tolerance. In Section 4, we focus on *in situ* and *ex situ* characterizations of the interactions between anode materials and H$_2$S as well as some new insights into the interpretation of the results. In Section 5, we summarize the current status in calculations based on density functional theory (DFT) for prediction of energetics, reaction sequence, and intermediates of the interactions between H$_2$S and anode/electrolyte. Further, *ab initio* atomistic thermodynamics calculations are applied to rationalize the conditions that favor sulfur poisoning and/or regeneration and to identify the bulk and surface phases resulted from the poisoning process. These fundamental understandings are vital to revealing the atomistic mechanism for sulfur–anode interactions and have provided us with useful insights into the design of new sulfur-tolerant anode materials. In Section 6, we focus on a new approach to achieving sulfur tolerance using Ba(Ce$_{1-x}$Zr$_x$)O$_2$-based materials as the electrolyte phase in the cermet anode while keeping Ni as the primary electronic conductor and electro-catalyst. The hypotheses regarding sulfur removal reactions for such anodes are also provided. Finally, we provide in Section 7 some concluding remarks and future perspectives in the design of better anode materials for a new generation of SOFCs to be powered by readily available and renewable fuels.

### 2 Electrochemical behavior of the Ni-YSZ anode in sulfur-containing fuels

#### 2.1 General requirements for SOFC anodes and properties of Ni-YSZ cermet anode

As discussed earlier in various review articles, the general requirements for SOFC anode materials include high electronic conductivity, excellent catalytic activity towards electro-oxidation of fuels, sufficient ionic conductivity to extend the active sites beyond the anode-electrolyte interfaces, and a porosity to allow the fuel molecules to flow towards and reaction products away from the active sites, adequate durability and compatibility with other SOFC components during cell fabrication and operation, robust mechanical and thermal stability, easy fabrication, and low cost. In addition, other desirable (but may not yet be fully achieved) properties include tolerances to carbon deposition, sulfur poisoning, and re-oxidation.

For SOFCs based on the YSZ electrolyte, porous metal-ceramic composites or cerments, especially Ni-YSZ cerments, are the most widely used anodes among many materials explored. The electrical conductivities of nickel metal, YSZ (in particular, 8 mol\%-yttria stabilized zirconia or 8YSZ), and a typical Ni-YSZ cermet (with a volume ratio of 8YSZ to Ni of 40:60 and a porosity of 30\%) at elevated temperatures (e.g., 700–1000 \degree C) are on the order of $10^{-4}$ S cm$^{-1}$, $10^{-3}$ to $10^{-1}$ S cm$^{-1}$, and $10^{2}$ to $10^{4}$ S cm$^{-1}$, respectively.

In cell fabrication, the precursor of nickel, nickel oxide (NiO), is often co-fired with the YSZ electrolyte. The relatively low solubility of NiO in YSZ (~2 to 5\%) allows co-firing of the NiO-YSZ anode supported thin YSZ electrolyte at high temperatures (~1450 \degree C). The catalytic activity of the Ni-YSZ anode toward oxidation of clean H$_2$ is excellent, and at temperatures <~800 \degree C, anode polarization resistance decreases dramatically with increasing current density. YSZ, NiO, and Ni have *average* coefficients of thermal...
The mechanical strength of Ni-YSZ cermet is on the order of 100 MPa,\(^{34,44}\) which is about one half of that for dense YSZ.\(^{44}\) It is a reasonable value considering that the Ni-YSZ cermet anode in the reduced state usually has a porosity of \(\sim 30\%\) and a Ni to YSZ volume ratio from approximately 30 : 70 to 60 : 40.\(^{34}\) While the coarsening of Ni grains and associated performance degradation have been reported in the literature,\(^{42,45}\) commercial SOFC stacks based on Ni-YSZ cermet anodes, especially those with tubular structures, have successfully demonstrated stable operation for tens of thousands of hours with very little degradation at temperatures as high as 900–1000 °C,\(^{38,46–49}\) indicating that the stability for the Ni-YSZ cermet anode is adequate under SOFC operating conditions when the composition and microstructures are optimized.

2.2. Sulfur poisoning behavior of Ni-YSZ cermet anodes

Schematically illustrated in Fig. 3 is a typical experimental arrangement for electrochemical measurements of an electrolyte-supported SOFC button cell, which is commonly used for detailed investigation into the sulfur poisoning behavior of anode materials under different conditions. With properly positioned reference electrodes, the anodic polarization resistance and the degree of anode poisoning (or the increase in anode polarization resistance due to sulfur poisoning) can be determined from 3 (or 4)-electrode measurements using different electrochemical techniques like impedance spectroscopy. Alternative cell designs for proper positioning of reference electrodes are available elsewhere.\(^ {50,51}\)

Schematically shown in Fig. 4 are different sulfur poisoning behaviors observed for SOFCs with Ni-YSZ anodes upon exposure to hydrogen contaminated with low concentration (ppm level) \(\text{H}_2\text{S}\). In all cases, there is a rapid initial drop in power output upon exposure to ppm-level \(\text{H}_2\text{S}\), which is associated with a large and rapid increase in anode polarization resistance and has been the focus of most studies in the literature.\(^ {27,35,52–54}\) In this section, we will provide a review of the sulfur poisoning behavior of conventional Ni-YSZ anodes with a focus on clarifying the effects of various factors on the observed initial rapid sulfur poisoning, including operating conditions (e.g., temperature and gas concentration), cell structures, and materials used. The mechanism for the initial rapid degradation due to sulfur poisoning will also be discussed based on observed electrochemical behavior and theoretical modeling. In addition, different behaviors have been observed for Ni-YSZ anodes after exposure to a sulfur-containing fuel for a long period of time, as schematically shown in Fig. 4. The behavior during long-term exposure, together with the regeneration process for Ni-YSZ anodes, will also be discussed at the end of this section.

2.2.1. Effects of operating temperature

- **Normal operating temperatures (\(\geq 650 \, \degree C\)).** Operating temperature significantly influences the observed sulfur poisoning behavior of a Ni-YSZ anode. Typically, the observed relative drop in power output due to sulfur poisoning, \(\Delta P_r = (P - P^p)/P\) (in which \(P\) and \(P^p\) are power output before and after initial quick sulfur poisoning, respectively), increases with decreasing temperature (except when the cells operated at a temperature \(\leq 650 \, \degree C\) as to be discussed later). For example, Singhal et al. observed that at a current density of 160 mA cm\(^{-2}\), 2 ppm \(\text{H}_2\text{S}\) in the fuel led to a drop in cell voltage by 2% and 9% at 1000 °C and 900 °C, respectively.\(^{52}\) This is corroborated later by Matsuzaki and Yasuda’s study on the anode interfacial resistance: under open circuit conditions, the anodic interfacial resistance increased by 18% and 72% at 1000 °C and 900 °C, respectively, upon exposure to 2 ppm \(\text{H}_2\text{S}\), while at 750 °C, 0.7 ppm \(\text{H}_2\text{S}\) resulted in an increase in anode interfacial resistance by as much as 105%.\(^ {27}\) Presented in Fig. 5 are the effects of temperature as well as \(\text{H}_2\text{S}/\text{H}_2\) on the relative power output drop \(\Delta P_r\) due to sulfur poisoning for SOFC button cells reported by Zha et al.\(^ {54}\)

- **Complications at very low temperatures.** As the cell operating temperature is reduced to \(\sim 650 \, \degree C\) or lower, the observed apparent trend in relative power output drop due to sulfur poisoning \(\Delta P_r\) could change. For example, Zha et al. found that \(\Delta P_r\) actually became smaller with decreasing temperature for an electrolyte-supported button cell in a fuel with \(\text{H}_2\text{S}/\text{H}_2 = 1\) ppm: 12% at 700 °C, 8% at 650 °C, and 6% at 600 °C.\(^ {62}\) This appears opposite to the trend observed at 700 °C and above, as shown in Fig. 5: 4% at 900 °C, 8% at 800 °C, and 12% at 700 °C. Unfortunately, no additional information regarding anode/electrolyte interfacial impedance or polarization was available to pinpoint the exact cause of these trends.

The change in observed poisoning behavior with temperature at \(\sim 650 \, \degree C\) and below is due most likely to the change in relative contribution of the anode to the total resistance of the cell. At higher temperatures, the relative increase in anode polarization resistance due to sulfur poisoning \(\Delta R_{\text{pa,r}} = (R_{\text{pa}} - R_{\text{pa}})/R_{\text{pa}}\) (in which \(R_{\text{pa}}\) and \(R_{\text{pa}}\) are anode polarization resistances before and after initial quick sulfur poisoning, respectively) has a greater impact on the total cell resistance\(^ {54}\) and, thus, on the observed \(\Delta P_r\). In contrast, at lower temperatures (e.g., \(\sim 650 \, \degree C\) and...
(below), although $\Delta R_{\text{ps,s}}$ might be larger due to (slightly) higher sulfur coverage on nickel,63–66 (see Section 5) the relative impact of anode sulfur poisoning on total cell resistance becomes less significant as cathode polarization contributes more to the total cell resistance,51,67 leading to the observed decrease in $\Delta P_I$.

### 2.2.2. Effects of H$_2$S, H$_2$, H$_2$O, CO, and CO$_2$ concentrations

- **H$_2$S.** Since the equilibrium coverage of adsorbed sulfur on the nickel surface increases with the H$_2$S concentration in the fuel at a given temperature,63–66 (see Section 5.2.1) the relative change in anode polarization resistance due to sulfur poisoning $\Delta R_{\text{ps,s}}$, increases with H$_2$S concentration. Fig. 6 shows the data reported by Matsuzaki: at 900 °C, $\Delta R_{\text{ps,s}}$ increased first rapidly and then gradually as the $p_{\text{H}_2}\text{S}/p_{\text{H}_2}$ increased from 0.5 ppm to 8 ppm.27 Similar behavior was also observed in the relative drop in power output $\Delta P_I$, as seen in Fig. 5.

A striking feature with H$_2$S poisoning is the sensitivity of the Ni-YSZ anode towards the minuscule (sub ppm-level) concentration of H$_2$S at intermediate to low temperatures. For example, Matsuzaki and Yasuda found that, at 750 °C, the polarization resistance for the Ni-YSZ cermet anode increased by ~28% when the $p_{\text{H}_2}\text{S}/p_{\text{H}_2}$ was only 0.05 ppm, as shown in Fig. 6.27 Such high sensitivity at intermediate temperatures had also been observed by others under similar conditions. For example, at 750 °C with only 0.1 ppm H$_2$S, Waldbilling $et al.$ reported that the cell voltage dropped ~10% at a constant current density of 500 mA cm$^{-2}$,61 while Sprenkle $et al.$ reported that the cell current density dropped by ~30% at a constant voltage of 0.7 V.57,68

It should be noted that the apparent influence of H$_2$S concentration on sulfur poisoning depends also on temperature. For example, at 900 °C, changing the sulfur concentration from 0.5 to 8 ppm led to an increase of $\Delta R_{\text{ps,s}}$, from 37% to 108%, as seen in Fig. 6.27 In contrast, our study shows that at 600 °C the change in $\Delta P_I$ or total cell interfacial resistance was almost negligible when the $p_{\text{H}_2}\text{S}/p_{\text{H}_2}$ increased from 1 to 10 ppm.62 As discussed earlier in Section 2.2.1, such behavior is related to the relative contribution of the anode to the total resistance of the cell at different temperatures. It is also related to the intrinsic

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**Fig. 4**  Schematic for power output versus time for SOFCs with Ni-YSZ cermet anode showing sulfur poisoning with rapid initial degradation followed by different 2nd stage behaviors: (solid line) no 2nd stage slow degradation; power output saturates right after initial rapid degradation; (dotted line) a slow 2nd stage degradation followed by a steady state; (dashed line) a slow 2nd stage degradation showing no steady state after very long time (e.g., thousands of hours).

**Fig. 5**  Relative power output drop due to sulfur poisoning, $\Delta P_I$, versus $p_{\text{H}_2}\text{S}/p_{\text{H}_2}$ at different temperatures for the electrolyte-supported SOFC button cell operated at a constant voltage of 0.7 V. Adopted from Zha $et al.$ with modifications.

**Fig. 6**  Relative increase in anode interfacial resistance, $\Delta R_{\text{ps,s}}$, versus $p_{\text{H}_2}\text{S}/p_{\text{H}_2}$ for Ni-YSZ cermet anodes at 750 and 900 °C. Data from Matsuzaki and Yasuda.27
adsorption behavior of sulfur on nickel, as to be discussed later in Section 5.2.1.

- **H₂ and H₂O.** The effect of H₂ concentration on sulfur poisoning behavior is not pronounced under typical operating conditions. For example, Li et al. found that increasing the H₂ concentration from 27% to 53% has no observable effect on the sulfur poisoning behavior.⁶⁹ On the other hand, at a low temperature of 600 °C, Lohsoonthorn et al. observed that cells with the Ni-gadolinia doped ceria (GDC) anode underwent an obvious increase in anodic interfacial resistance when the H₂ concentration was decreased from 97% to 9.7% and the poisoning became less reversible.⁷⁰

Similarly, the effect of water vapor concentration on sulfur poisoning appears insignificant under typical operating conditions.⁶⁴ On the other hand, Li et al. found that using a fuel with very high H₂S concentration (pH₂S/pH₂ of 0.2% or 2000 ppm), higher water vapor concentration in the fuel seems to slow down the poisoning process and reduce the observed relative drop in power output due to sulfur poisoning (ΔPᵣ; at 800 °C under a constant current density of 0.5 A cm⁻², the cell voltage drop was 180 mV, 161 mV, and 108 mV when the fuel water vapor content was 0%, 3%, and 10%, respectively).⁷¹ It is also noted that in an experiment using Ni-YSZ as the catalyst for reforming (not under SOFC conditions), the presence of H₂O in the fuel stream leads to enhanced SO₂ desorption.⁷²

- **CO and CO₂.** CO may exert dramatic influence on the extent of sulfur poisoning only when the molar ratio of H₂ to CO is very low.¹¹,⁵³,⁶⁰,⁷³ For example, Sasaki et al. found that for fuel mixtures of H₂ and CO, the effect of CO concentration on ΔPᵣ was relatively small until the H₂ to CO ratio was 1 to 9 or lower and the shift reaction became ineffective due to sulfur poisoning, thus limiting the hydrogen supply.⁵³ In addition, Li et al. found that the effect of CO was more significant in the regeneration process: cell performance recovered much slower in a H₂–CO fuel mixture than in hydrogen upon removal of H₂S.⁶⁹

In contrast, CO₂ concentration has no observable effect on sulfur poisoning. For example, the behavior of a Ni-YSZ anode running in a spent fuel consisting of 85% CO₂, 10% CO, and 5% H₂ at 1000 °C upon exposure to 50 ppm H₂S⁷¹ appears similar to that observed in CO₂-free fuels.

- **Hydrocarbons.** According to the study by Rasmussen and Hagen, in the presence of low concentration of light hydrocarbons like methane, the sulfur poisoning behavior for the Ni-YSZ anode is not significantly influenced, but the internal reforming activity is dramatically reduced.⁷⁹ High concentration of hydrocarbon or heavy hydrocarbons (e.g., butane, octane, diesel, or kerosene) would make the reaction process much more complicated due to the complex natures of reforming and other associated reactions like thermal cracking and carbon deposition, and they are beyond the scope of this paper.

To summarize, of common gas species in the fuel, the H₂S concentration, in particular pH₂S/pH₂, has the greatest impact on the observed sulfur poisoning behavior, while the concentration of other gaseous species only matters under certain, sometimes extreme, conditions.

### 2.2.3. Effects of anodic polarization (current density or voltage)

- **Observed effects on ΔPᵣ and ΔRₓₛₑₐₗₑₙₑ and related hypothesis.** As to the influence of anodic polarization or current density/voltage on the observed sulfur poisoning behavior, the following are some common observations. First, the relationship between observed relative drop in cell power output due to sulfur poisoning ΔPᵣ and cell current density/voltage depends on the operating conditions: under constant voltage (potentiostatic) conditions, ΔPᵣ tends to decrease with increasing polarization (i.e., higher current density),⁵⁴,⁵⁵,⁵⁷ while under constant current (galvanostatic) conditions, ΔPᵣ tends to increase with increasing polarization (i.e., higher current density).⁵²,⁵⁵,⁵⁷,⁶¹ The different trends in ΔPᵣ with respect to anodic polarization observed under constant voltage versus constant current conditions have been explained by Cheng et al. using circuit analysis⁶⁵ and by Sprenkle et al. via comparing the changes in I–V curves before and after sulfur poisoning.⁷⁶ Second, the observed relative increase in total cell resistance due to sulfur poisoning, ΔRₓₛₑₐₙₑₙₑ = (Rₓₛₑₐₙₑ – Rₓₑₐₙₑ) / Rₓₑₐₙₑ (in which Rxₑₐₙₑ and Rₓₛₑₐₙₑ are the total cell resistance before and after sulfur poisoning, respectively), tends to decrease with increasing polarization (i.e., higher cell current density or lower cell terminal voltage) no matter whether the measurement is carried out under constant voltage or constant current conditions.⁷⁵

The above observation leads to the hypothesis that larger oxygen ion flux induced by higher current density may lead to increased electrochemical oxidation of sulfur species on the anode via the following reaction⁵³–⁵⁵

\[
\text{S}^* + 2\text{O}^2- = \text{SO}_2(g) + 4\text{e}^-, \tag{1}
\]

or

\[
\text{S}^* + 2\text{O}_2^+ = \text{SO}_2(g) + 2\text{V}_o^+ + 4\text{e}^-.
\]

where S* represents an adsorbed sulfur atom on the anode surface. The electrochemical oxidation of sulfur may diminish the degree of sulfur poisoning via reducing the sulfur surface coverage on the anode.

- **Other different observations on ΔRₓₛₑₐₙₑₙₑ.** However, it is noted that the observations made above are based on single cell tests using a two-electrode configuration so that the anodic interfacial resistance cannot be separated from the total cell resistance. For studies that actually separate anode polarization from cathode, the result seems to be quite different. For example, Primdahl and Mogensen found that at 1000 °C the relative increase in anode polarization resistance upon exposure to 35 ppm H₂S, ΔRxₛₑₐₙₑₙₑ, did not change as the anodic current density was increased from zero (i.e., open circuit conditions) to 100 mA cm⁻².⁷⁵ One possibility is that the higher anodic current density did not impact the extent of sulfur poisoning under the conditions they investigated. Another speculation is that there may be some decrease in the degree of sulfur poisoning due to surface sulfur removal by the oxygen ions, but that was countered by a small increase in mass transfer resistance under the testing conditions. More careful electrochemical measurements or direct chemical identification are required to fully understand the implications.
Non-linear behavior of interfacial polarization. It is well known that the polarization resistance of an electrode depends on the current or overpotential (\( \eta \)) except in the linear region near equilibrium, where the polarization resistance approaches the “charge transfer resistance” defined as \( j \rightarrow 0 \) or \( \eta \rightarrow 0 \). Clearly when the cell current density \( j \) is sufficiently small, it is linearly related to the anode overpotential \( \eta_a \) as follows:76

\[
\eta_a = jR_{pa}
\]

where the anode polarization resistance \( R_{pa} \) is related to the anode exchange current density \( j_0 \) and the anodic and cathodic transference numbers \( (\alpha_a \text{ and } \alpha_c) \) by

\[
R_{pa} = \frac{RT}{(\alpha_a + \alpha_c)Fj_0}
\]

Then, the anode polarization resistance before poisoning \( R_{pa}^{\text{br}} \) and after sulfur poisoning \( R_{pa}^{\text{po}} \) should have the following relationship:

\[
\frac{R_{pa}^{\text{po}}}{R_{pa}^{\text{br}}} = \frac{j}{j_0}
\]

if the anodic and cathodic transference numbers remain the same after sulfur poisoning. Under this assumption, the relative increase in anode polarization resistance due to sulfur poisoning, \( \Delta R_{pa}^S \), will be

\[
\Delta R_{pa}^S = \frac{R_{pa}^S}{R_{pa}^{\text{br}}} - 1 = \frac{j}{j_0} - 1
\]

Therefore, \( \Delta R_{pa}^S \) would be independent of anode polarization (current density or anode overpotential).

Similarly, the observed difference in cell terminal voltage before sulfur poisoning, \( U \), and after sulfur poisoning, \( U^S \), at the same current density should depend linearly on current as follows:

\[
\Delta U = U - U^S = \eta_a^S - \eta_a = jR_{pa}^S - jR_{pa} = j(R_{pa}^S - R_{pa})
\]

because the resistances of the cathode and the electrolyte are expected to remain constant. This has also been confirmed by experimental observation: Fig. 7 shows the current–voltage curves as well \( \Delta U \) for cells before and after poisoning by \( \text{H}_2\text{S} \) (\( p\text{H}_2\text{S}/p\text{H}_2 = 11.8 \text{ ppm} \)) at 750 °C for an anode-supported button cell, and \( \Delta U \) has good linear dependence on the current density with a linear correlation coefficient better than 0.999 when \( j < \sim 78 \text{ mA cm}^{-2} \).

In contrast, in the Tafel region (without mass transfer limitation), the relationship between the anode overpotential \( \eta_a \) and anodic current density \( j \) can be described as follows,

\[
\eta_a = a \ln \frac{j}{j_0}
\]

where \( a \) is a constant that can be determined from experiments. Thus, the anode polarization resistance \( R_{pa} \) can be estimated as

\[
R_{pa} = \frac{\eta_a}{j} = \frac{a(\ln j - \ln j_0)}{j}
\]

After sulfur poisoning, we have

\[
\eta_a^S = a^S \ln \frac{j}{j_0^S}
\]

\[
R_{pa}^S = \frac{\eta_a^S}{j} = \frac{a^S(\ln j - \ln j_0^S)}{j}
\]

Although \( a \) and \( a^S \) are unknown, the following relationship holds for the anode polarization resistance before and after sulfur poisoning at a given current density:

\[
R_{pa}^S = \frac{a^S}{a} \left( \frac{\ln j_0^S - \ln j}{\ln j - \ln j_0} \right)
\]

The relative change in anode polarization resistance is then given by,

\[
\Delta R_{pa}^S = \frac{R_{pa}^S}{R_{pa}^{\text{br}}} - 1 = \frac{a^S}{a} \left( 1 + \frac{\ln j_0 - \ln j}{\ln j - \ln j_0} \right) - 1.
\]

This expression implies that, in the Tafel region, \( \Delta R_{pa}^S \) decreases with current density regardless of the ratio of \( a^S \) to \( a \) because \( \beta^S < j_0 \). This is the nature of Tafel polarization; suggesting that a decrease in \( \Delta R_{pa}^S \) with increasing current density does not necessarily mean that it is due to reduced degree of sulfur poisoning via reduced sulfur coverage.

In conclusion, these electrochemical measurements alone may not be able to provide critical insights into the effect of cell operating conditions (current or voltage) on the degree of sulfur poisoning. More careful electrochemical measurements on well-designed test cells alongside with direct chemical identification of surface species are required to gain insight into the mechanism of sulfur poisoning processes.

For simple electrochemical measurements, the anode polarization resistance under open circuit conditions (as determined from impedance spectroscopy) or anode exchange current density is the most direct representation of the degree of sulfur poisoning. Marina et al. reported that exchange current densities for \( \text{Sr}_x\text{La}_{1-x}\text{TiO}_3 \) (LST)-based anodes obtained from impedance analysis under close to equilibrium conditions do match those extrapolated from polarization curves in the Tafel regions for different concentrations of \( \text{H}_2\text{S} \).77

![Fig. 7 Plots of cell voltage and the difference in anode overpotential \( \Delta U = \eta^S_a - \eta_a \) versus cell current density for an anode-supported SOFC button cell before and after \( \text{H}_2\text{S} \) (\( p\text{H}_2\text{S}/p\text{H}_2 = 11.8 \text{ ppm} \)) was introduced into the fuel stream of 50% \( \text{H}_2/1.5% \text{H}_2\text{O}/48.5% \text{N}_2 \) at 750 °C.](https://pubs.rsc.org/en/content/articlelanding/ee/2011/44380-4409emporary)
2.2.4. Effects of anode structure. The anode structure or the content of Ni in the Ni-YSZ cermet anode also influence the time it takes for the cell to reach a steady state after exposure to H₂S. For example, for electrolyte-supported or cathode-supported cells with relatively thin anodes, the initial quick poisoning process completes in a relatively short period of time, sometimes just a few minutes. In contrast, for anode-supported cells with relatively thick anodes, the initial quick poisoning process may last for hours or even days, depending on the H₂S concentration, the amount of available anode, and even the fuel flow rate and utilization. For example, in the study by Sprenkle et al. on anode-supported button cells as shown in Table 1, the time for the initial quick poisoning process to complete is 120 h, 20 h, and 2 h when the H₂S concentration was 0.1 ppm, 1 ppm, and 10 ppm, respectively. Similar observation was also made by other researchers. The reason is easy to understand: the adsorption of sulfur on Ni (see Section 5) will propagate from the outer layer to the inner active layer of anode. Therefore, for a cell with a thick anode (~500 μm) as in an anode-supported cell, it would take a longer time for all Ni surfaces to reach a steady state of sulfur coverage; in contrast, for a cell with a thin anode (~30 μm), it would take less time for the Ni surfaces to reach a similar level of sulfur coverage.

2.2.5. Effects of other cell components (i.e., electrolyte and cathode). Although only the polarization resistance of the anode is influenced by sulfur in the fuel, the electrolyte and cathode will have an indirect impact on the observed relative changes in cell power output ΔPᵣ or in total cell resistance ΔRₑₓ due to sulfur poisoning. For example, an anode-supported cell (with a thicker anode) shows a more severe drop in power output upon exposure to a sulfur-containing fuel than an electrolyte-supported cell (with a thinner anode). As the electrolyte or cathode resistances decrease (so that the total cell resistance is more dominated by the anode), ΔRₑₓ would increase more due to the higher contribution of the anode polarization resistance, leading to larger ΔPᵣ. An example of this is shown in Table 2 for anode-supported cells with the same anode and electrolyte, but with different cathode materials. As the cathode material is changed from LSM-based material to LSCF-based material, both ΔPᵣ and ΔRₑₓ usually increase due to the higher contribution of the anode to the total cell resistance as the LSCF cathode normally shows lower polarization resistance than LSM, especially under small bias conditions.

2.2.6. Mechanism of the initial quick sulfur poisoning. We would like to pause here and discuss briefly about the sulfur poisoning mechanism for the Ni-YSZ cermet anode based on results from electrochemical measurements. As stated, sulfur poisoning of the Ni-YSZ cermet anode is characterized by a rapid initial drop in power output upon exposure to sulfur-containing fuels. The subsequent slower degradation as observed in some studies is discussed in the next section. Thermodynamic analysis indicates that bulk sulfides (nickel sulfides in particular) would not form under the typical SOFC operating conditions when the H₂S concentration is in the low ppm range. For example, at 750 °C, nickel sulfides like Ni₃S₂ do not form until ρH₂S/ρH₂ is higher than ~3600 ppm, and the YSZ anode has been shown to be stable against H₂S for up to the percentage level. In contrast, it is observed that the performance of a Ni-YSZ anode drops dramatically when the ρH₂S/ρH₂ is only 0.05 ppm at that temperature. This indicates that the degradation in performance (i.e., sulfur poisoning) in low concentrations of H₂S under typical SOFC operating conditions is due not to formation of nickel sulfides but to adsorption of sulfur on the anode surface. This is also consistent with the observation that the rapid initial drops in performance come to completion within just a few minutes for thin anodes (~30 μm).

### Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cell structure</th>
<th>References</th>
<th>Conditions</th>
<th>0.1 ppm</th>
<th>1 ppm</th>
<th>10 ppm</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Anode-supported cell</td>
<td>Cheng</td>
<td>750 °C, 0.2 A cm⁻²</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Waldbllig et al.</td>
<td>750 °C, 0.5 A cm⁻²</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sprenkle et al.</td>
<td>750 °C, 0.7 V</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yang et al.</td>
<td>750 °C, 0.4 A cm⁻²</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electrolyte-supported cell</td>
<td>Zha</td>
<td>800 °C, 0.7 V</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>0.05</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cathode material and cell current density</th>
<th>Relative power output drop ΔPᵣ</th>
<th>Relative increase in total cell resistance ΔRₑₓ</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LSM, 200 mA cm⁻²</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LSCF, 200 mA cm⁻²</td>
<td>7.9%</td>
<td>60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LSCF, 400 mA cm⁻²</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>27%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LSCF, 400 mA cm⁻²</td>
<td>8.5%</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LSCF, 400 mA cm⁻²</td>
<td>13.0%</td>
<td>34%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Various analysis approaches have been explored to fit the experimental data into existing adsorption models. For example, Marina et al. measured exchange current density from polarization curves before ($j_0$) and after sulfur poisoning ($\bar{j}_0$), and calculated the equilibrium surface coverage ratio of sulfur on anode $\theta_s$ assuming $\theta_s = 1 - \frac{\bar{j}_0}{j_0}$. However, the data fitting for the Ni-YSZ anode to the Langmuir isotherm is inconclusive due to limited amount of data.

On the other hand, Hansen and Rostrup-Nielsen used a Temkin-like isotherm for describing sulfur adsorption:

$$pH_2S \over pH_2 = \exp \left( \frac{\Delta H^0 \left(1 - a\theta_s\right) - \Delta S^0}{RT} \right),$$

with a $\Delta H^0_s$ of 289 kJ mol$^{-1}$, a $\Delta S^0$ of $-19$ J mol$^{-1}$ K$^{-1}$, and a $a$ of 0.69. The equilibrium surface coverage could be calculated as

$$\theta_s = 1.45 - 9.53 \times 10^{-5}T + 4.17 \times 10^{-3} \ln \frac{pH_2S}{pH_2}.\tag{15}$$

Hansen fitted the relative drop in power output $\Delta P_i$ data by Zha et al. and Cheng et al. with respect to calculated sulfur surface coverage $\theta_s$ and obtained a linear relationship. The intercept for zero $\Delta P_i$ on the $\theta_s$ axis is $\sim$0.55 to 0.60 instead of zero.

Because $\Delta P_i$ is influenced by other factors such as electrolyte and cathode, an even more straightforward fitting is obtained by plotting the relative anode exchange current density $pH_2S/pH_2$ versus sulfur surface coverage $\theta_s$ (calculated from the Temkin-like isotherm in eqn (15)), and the result is shown in Fig. 8 using data available in the literature. (Note $pH_2S/pH_2$ is calculated from relative change in anode polarization resistance under open circuit conditions mentioned in ref. 27 and 54.) This time, the relative exchange current density $\bar{j}_0/j_0$ decreases linearly from unity towards zero as the sulfur surface coverage $\theta_s$ increases from 0.5 towards 1. The deviation at high surface coverage may be attributed to the limitation of the Temkin model under that condition. It is interesting to note that, according to the fitting, the exchange current density is not impacted until the sulfur surface coverage is higher than $\sim$0.5.

### 2.2.7. Long-term sulfur poisoning behavior.

Table 3 summarizes different long-term sulfur poisoning behaviors reported for SOFCs with the Ni-YSZ anode over extended periods of time (i.e., hundreds of hours or even longer). As illustrated in Fig. 4, some studies show the cell power output reaches a steady state right after the initial quick poisoning stage. For example, in the study of Feduska and Isenberg, even though the initial $pH_2S/pH_2$ value was as high as 1000 ppm, no further performance degradation was observed in the next 800 h after the initial response reached a steady state in a few hours. A similar phenomenon (i.e., quick saturation of sulfur poisoning) was also observed by other researchers with much lower H$_2$S concentration (e.g., 0.1 to 1 ppm).

However, some other studies show that, in addition to the initial quick poisoning effect, the cell power output continues to degrade with a much slower but still significant rate (usually in an almost linear way) for a long period of time. Zha et al., Sprenkle et al., and Ishikura et al. named this continued degradation 2nd stage slower poisoning. Within this category, there are also two different scenarios. Some studies show that the 2nd stage slower poisoning reaches saturation after some time, while others show continued degradation that lasts for hundreds or even thousands of hours without showing any signs of reaching saturation.

It is not clear what causes such 2nd stage slower poisoning that lasts for a very long time. It would certainly be difficult to explain from the sulfur adsorption point of view. Bulk sulfidation of either Ni or YSZ also seems unlikely as they are thermodynamically unfavorable, especially for those studies using only low ppm of H$_2$S. It is unlikely due to the degradation of other cell components since the drop in performance usually appears to be much more severe than those observed in fuels without sulfur. On the other hand, studies by Hagen and co-workers suggest that the loss of the Ni-percolation network near the anode–electrolyte interface was observed for the Ni-YSZ anode in H$_2$S-containing fuels under large polarization conditions, which also display 2nd stage degradation for hundreds of hours.

Recently, the study by Yang et al. shined some light upon the possible origins for the 2nd stage slower poisoning. Using anode-supported button cells with Ni-YSZ anode and LSCF cathode, Yang observed that button cells sealed with different sealants showed different 2nd stage behavior: for example, at 750 °C in a fuel with 1 ppm $pH_2S/pH_2$ under a constant current density of 200 mA cm$^{-2}$, cells sealed with the Ceramabond® 552 (C552) sealant showed 2nd stage slow degradation that lasted for $\sim$1000 h without any signs of saturation. In contrast, cells sealed with the G-18 (from Pacific Northwest National Lab, PNNL) sealant reached saturation right after the quick poisoning stage and showed no 2nd stage slow degradation. This indicates that the previously reported 2nd stage slow degradation is unlikely the inherent behavior of a Ni-YSZ anode but rather associated with other complications. Two possible explanations are as follows. First, it is possible that the anodes were contaminated by some detrimental elements in the C552 sealant, which interact

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**Fig. 8** Change of calculated relative exchange current density $\bar{j}_0/j_0$ versus calculated sulfur surface coverage on Ni surface $\theta_s$ using data in the literature. 

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unfavorably with H₂S, leading to continuous poisoning of the anode, while the G18 sealant does not have such detrimental elements. Second, the cathode performance may be adversely affected by a small leakage of H₂S from the anode side through the C522 sealant while there was no leakage of H₂S through the G18 sealant.

2.2.8. Reversibility of sulfur poisoning. Upon removal of H₂S from the fuel, both complete recovery²⁷,³²–³⁴,⁵⁸,⁷³,⁷⁹,⁸⁰,⁸⁶ and partial recovery of power outputs³¹,⁵⁴,⁵⁸,⁶¹,⁸¹,⁸⁷,⁸⁸ have been observed. Cell failure is rare, but still observed sometimes.⁵³,⁸⁰ From a thermodynamic point of view, sulfur poisoning should be reversible when the concentration of sulfur in the fuel is sufficiently low. In reality, however, other factors such as contamination from other cell components (e.g., sealant) and microstructural changes (due to coarsening of porous electrodes) may also influence the observed electrochemical behavior. For example, it has been reported that terracing increases on nickel surface upon exposure to H₂S-containing fuels.⁵⁹ It is still not clear, however, how these microstructural changes influence the electrochemical poisoning behavior. Nevertheless, the general trend is that sulfur poisoning tends to be more reversible at a higher operating temperature, in a lower H₂S concentration, and for a shorter period of exposure to H₂S.

3 Behaviors of alternative anode materials in sulfur-containing fuels

Because of the vulnerability of Ni-YSZ cermet anodes to sulfur contaminants, various alternative materials or material combinations have been studied as potential SOFC anodes for improved sulfur tolerance. In this section, the alternative anode materials are summarized with a particular focus on their electrochemical behavior upon exposure to sulfur-containing fuels. Since a number of previous publications have described the detailed behavior of many individual materials,³³–³⁵,⁹⁵ the focus of this section will be on the general features for different types of materials and our perspectives on these materials.

### 3.1. Ni-YSZ cermet anodes with incorporation of other materials

Because of the superior electrochemical performance of Ni-YSZ cermet anodes in sulfur-free fuels, various approaches have been explored to modify Ni-YSZ cermet anodes via incorporation of other materials in an effort to achieve improved sulfur tolerance while maintaining excellent performance. For example, Singhal et al. reported impregnation of Ni-YSZ cermists with various oxides including doped ceria and B-site doped strontium titanate oxide (SrTi₁₋ₓMₓO₃), as well as high surface area nickel and cobalt metal precursors.⁵² Later, Sasaki et al. studied the behavior of Ni-YSZ anodes in sulfur-containing fuels modified with different materials including CeO₂, Y₂O₃, La₂O₃, MgO, Nb₂O₅, Sc₂O₃, ZrO₂, TiO₂, Ru, CaO, Co, and Al₂O₃ prepared by impregnation.⁵³ Kurokawa et al.⁴⁹ and Yun et al.⁵² also decorated Ni-YSZ cermet with CeO₂ and/or samaria doped ceria (SDC) via an infiltration process, while Smith and McEvoy infiltrated pre-reduced porous Ni-YSZ cermet anode with ammonium metatungstate.⁹³,⁹⁴ Very recently, Marina et al. incorporated Sn and Sb into the Ni-YSZ anode through in situ vapor phase deposition.⁹⁵

Unfortunately, except for a few selected cases, most of the modified Ni-YSZ anodes via incorporation of foreign materials still display the typical poisoning behavior when ppm-level H₂S is introduced into the fuel stream.⁵²,⁵³,⁸⁷,⁹² Although many of such modified Ni-YSZ anodes are claimed to have improved sulfur poisoning...
tolerance over the conventional Ni-YSZ anode (based on observation of a smaller relative drop in power output due to sulfur poisoning $\Delta P_r$), the rapid initial degradation seems to be still unavoidable. It appears that the insufficient sulfur tolerance for most of these modified Ni-YSZ anodes originates from the difficulties in depositing uniform coatings with proper coverage of the porous anode surfaces. On the other hand, electron pathways may be blocked when these materials form a continuous dense film on Ni. The challenge is how to enhance sulfur tolerance without affecting other useful properties of Ni-YSZ anodes by some innovative surface modification, as was done for enhancing tolerance to coking of Ni-YSZ anodes. In addition, alternative sulfur-tolerant anode materials like Sr$_{0.8}$La$_{0.2}$TiO$_3$ (SLT) have also been used to replace the outer layer of a Ni-YSZ support for anode-supported cells. In a fuel with $p_{H_2S}/p_{H_2}$ of 100 ppm, such a modified cell still experienced a rapid initial voltage drop, but the 2nd stage slower poisoning as observed in the control cell with the Ni-YSZ anode support seems to be prevented. The rapid initial degradation indicates that the SLT anode support over the thin Ni-YSZ anode could not remove the sulfur in the fuel as an outer catalyst nor eliminate the sulfur adsorption on Ni, and the mechanism for preventing the long-term slow degradation is not clear.

3.2. Ni-based cermet anodes with YSZ replaced by other oxygen ion conductors

The YSZ phase in Ni-YSZ cermet anodes has been replaced by other oxygen ion conductors in an effort to enhance sulfur tolerance. For example, Sasaki and co-workers studied Ni-scandia stabilized zirconia (Ni-ScSZ) anode while others studied Ni-gadolinia doped ceria (Ni-GDC) anode. While the relative drops in power output $\Delta P_r$ for SOFCs with Ni-SSZ or Ni-GDC anodes were reported less than those with Ni-YSZ anodes, the sulfur poisoning characteristics remain similar in many cases.

First, both Ni-SSZ and Ni-GDC anodes were still sensitive to the same low level of H$_2$S as Ni-YSZ, as evidenced by the rapid drop in cell power output upon exposure to low ppm-level H$_2$S contaminants. The anode polarization resistance also increased dramatically: for example, the interfacial resistance of a Ni-GDC anode increased from 0.55 to 0.75 Ohm cm$^2$ (36% increase) upon exposure to 5 ppm H$_2$S at 800 °C. Similarly, the polarization resistance of a Ni-GDC anode increased dramatically upon exposure to 0.5 ppm H$_2$S at 715 °C. However, it was reported by Ouwentjes et al. that, at 900 °C, the Ni-GDC anode showed no poisoning effect by H$_2$S of up to 9 ppm, although it is not clear what caused the difference in behavior.

Second, the observed $\Delta P_r$ is still too large to be negligible although it maybe smaller than that for Ni-YSZ. In the study by Sasaki et al., 100 ppm H$_2$S led to a $\Delta P_r$ of ~25% at 800 °C for the Ni-ScSZ anode at a current density of 200 mA cm$^{-2}$. In fact, the observed difference in $\Delta P_r$ for those anodes versus Ni-YSZ may have more correlations with cell fabrication and electrochemical testing conditions than intrinsic sulfur poisoning behavior.

Third, in terms of the poisoning mechanism, sulfur is still expected to adsorb at the nickel surface and along the triple phase boundary (TPB), which blocks the active sites for fuel oxidation (see Section 5). Faster oxygen ion conduction might enhance sulfur removal, but there is no viable mechanism for such anodes to significantly reduce or fully eliminate the sulfur poisoning process, given that it has been shown in Section 2.2.3 that increasing the cell current density under small bias conditions does not have much impact on the real extent of sulfur poisoning.

3.3. Cermet anodes with Ni replaced by other metals

Similarly, the Ni phase in Ni-YSZ cermet anodes can also be replaced by other metals that have lower affinity for sulfur. However, it is not trivial to find metals or alloys that have adequate catalytic activity and less affinity towards sulfur adsorption. For example, Singhal and others discussed the potential for cobalt and platinum as the metal phase in the cermet anode, and concluded that they are still subject to sulfur poisoning due to the high affinity of those metals for adsorbed sulfur.

On the other hand, it is well known that copper and silver have much less affinity for sulfur adsorption: the free energy change for sulfur adsorption on copper and silver is significantly more positive than those for sulfur adsorption on nickel and cobalt. (See the summary in references like ref. 65.) For example, the heat of sulfur adsorption (enthalpy) at a surface coverage of 0.5 (number of adsorbed sulfurs/number of saturated sulfurs per unit area = 0.5) is about $-160$ kJ mol$^{-1}$ for Ni, while it is only about $-80$ kJ mol$^{-1}$ for Cu. As a result, at a temperature of ~750 °C the equilibrium $p_{H_2S}/p_{H_2}$ value for the same level of the sulfur surface coverage is $-10^4$ times higher for sulfur on Cu than on Ni. (Assuming comparable entropy change for the dissociative adsorption process, then,

$$p_{H_2S_{Cu}}/p_{H_2} = \exp \left( \frac{\Delta H_{Cu} - \Delta H_{Ni}}{RT} \right)$$

$$= \exp \left( \frac{(160 - 80) \times 10^3 J mol^{-1}}{8.314 \times 1023 J K^{-1} mol^{-1}} \right) = 1.2 \times 10^4.$$"

Since the Ni-YSZ anode interfacial resistance starts to degrade when $p_{H_2S}/p_{H_2}$ is 0.05 ppm at 750 °C, the above calculation suggests that to reach a similar surface coverage of sulfur on Cu would require $p_{H_2S}/p_{H_2}$ of $1.05 \times 10^4 = 500$ ppm. This estimation correlates well with the experimental data reported by He et al. for a Cu-ceria-YSZ cermet anode prepared by infiltration of a YSZ anode skeleton first by Cu and then by CeO$_2$ precursor solutions: the cell maintained stable power output until the $p_{H_2S}/p_{H_2}$ was increased to ~450 ppm and above. It is interesting to note that He et al. also showed that cerium oxide starts to react with H$_2$S at a concentration of 450 ppm H$_2$S and above. The incorporation of ceria into the Cu-based anode is also reported to solve the problem of low catalytic activity for Cu. Unfortunately, some practical issues still remain for such Ce-ceria-YSZ cermet anodes with superior sulfur tolerance: the low melting point of Cu and copper oxides makes it difficult to fabricate anode-supported cells using conventional co-firing methods, and the relatively low cell performance and limited long-term stability hinder its practical application.
Another example in this category is the Ni–Mo alloy-based anode explored by Choi et al.106 Ni–Mo and Ni–Mo–CeO₂ were infiltrated into YSZ scaffolds via wet-impregnation of Ni, Mo, and CeO₂ precursors. Although the cells based on these anodes suffered from initial quick poisoning when 50 ppm H₂S was introduced into the fuel stream, they showed an interesting feature: the cell power output actually increased gradually to the level before poisoning upon continued exposure to fuels with 50 ppm H₂S for ~6 days under a constant cell voltage of 0.5 V.

3.4. Conductive oxide anode materials

Anodes based on nickel-free conductive metal oxides are perceived to hold potential for solving the problems associated with Ni-based cermet anodes: susceptibility to deactivation by impurities like sulfur and destruction by re-oxidation and carbon deposition in hydrocarbon fuels. Accordingly, many metal oxides of different structures and compositions have been studied as potential SOFC anode materials for improved sulfur tolerance.34–38 For example, Marina et al. and Mukundan et al. studied perovskite-structured Sr₁–xLaxTiO₃ (LST, in particular, x = 0.3–0.4),77,106–108 and Kurokawa et al. studied Y-doped SrTiO₃.111 Winnick and co-workers112–116 and Cooper et al.117 studied perovskite-structured La₁–xSrxVO₃ (LSV, in particular, x = 0.3), while Danilovic et al. studied Ce₀.₃Sr₀.₇VO₃ (Ce₃S₇V₃O₁₄, in particular, x = 3, 4) and its doped variations.118,119 Zha et al. studied perovskite-structured La₁–xSrxCr₁–xMnxO₃ (LSCM, in particular, x = 0.25, y = 0.5)120 and pyrochlore-structured Gd₂Ti₂O₇ (in particular, x = 0.6).121–122 Huang et al. studied double-perovskite-structured Sr₂Mg₂–xMo₂O₉ (SMMO, in particular, x = 1).123,124 Xiao et al. studied SrFe₂/₃Mo₂O₉ (LSMG, in particular, x = 0.2, y = 0.17, δ = 0.185) electrolyte, all other studies are based on the YSZ electrolyte. Lu et al. studied combination of conductive oxide anode with imregnation of metal catalyst like Pd.126 Buffer layers (also referred to as interlayer) are commonly applied between anode and electrolyte because of their limited chemical and thermal compatibilities. For example, La₀.₃Sr₀.₇O₂–δ and Ce₀.₃Gd₀.₇O₂–δ interlayers are used for SMMO124 and LSCM127 anodes, respectively.

However, the number of studies on any single material is usually very limited and the conditions under which the materials are investigated (e.g., in terms of temperature, pH₂S/pH₂, and polarization) are very narrow, which make the evaluation of their true potential difficult. Because individual properties and behavior upon exposure to sulfur-containing fuels have been enumerated in earlier publications,34,35 they will not be repeated here. Instead, we would like to discuss some features that are commonly observed in these studies.

- Improved sulfur tolerance. It seems fair to state that many of those conductive oxide materials do display improved sulfur tolerance: the critical pH₂S/pH₂ ratio above which sulfur poisoning becomes significant is usually higher than for the Ni-YSZ anode. For example, La₀.₃Sr₀.₇TiO₃–Ce₁–xLaₓO₂ composite anode shows no increase in anode polarization resistance when the pH₂S/pH₂ is 7.8 ppm at 750 °C,108 compared to ~0.02 ppm for the Ni-YSZ anode.27 For La₀.₃Sr₀.₇Ce₀.₃Mo₀.₃O₃ (LSCM) anode, at 1000 °C, 10 ppm H₂S also does not cause noticeable sulfur poisoning110 while 2 ppm H₂S leads to poisoning for the Ni-YSZ anode.27 However, oxide anodes usually experience sulfur poisoning when higher concentration of H₂S is present in the fuels. For the La₀.₃Sr₀.₇TiO₃–Ce₁–xLaₓO₂ composite anode, at higher pH₂S/pH₂ concentrations like 30.9 ppm at 800 °C or 1055 ppm at 850 °C, it does show the typical sulfur poisoning behavior with a sharp drop in the cell power output and increase in the anode overpotential once H₂S is introduced into the fuel.77,106–109 A similar case happens to the La₀.₃Sr₀.₇Ce₀.₃Mo₀.₃O₃ (LSCM) and Sr₂Fe₂/₃Mo₂/₃O₉ anode: 100 ppm and higher H₂S leads to dramatic increase in anode overpotential.110,120,125,126 Even for the highly promising Sr₂MgMoO₆–δ (SMMO) anode, the increase in anode overpotential is much more obvious when the H₂S concentration is 50 ppm than 5 ppm.124

It is hypothesized that reduction of sulfur adsorption on oxide anode materials contributes to the enhanced sulfur tolerance. For example, Marina et al. showed that for La₀.₃Sr₀.₇TiO₃–Ce₁–xLaₓO₂ anode at 850 °C, the calculated surface coverage by absorbed sulfur is only 0.5 at 75 ppm and 0.9 at 750 ppm.77 In comparison, for the Ni-YSZ anode, the sulfur surface coverage is already close to saturation at below 10 ppm.66 (Also see Section 5.)

- Sulfur-enhancement effect. As opposed to sulfur poisoning, studies also show some oxide anode materials actually display sulfur enhancement effect: i.e., cell electrochemical performance would increase upon exposure to very high concentration of H₂S (in the percentage range) at high temperatures (e.g., 850–1000 °C). For example, Mukundan et al. reported that the cell power output increases for the La₀.₃Sr₀.₇TiO₃–YSZ composite anode when 5000 ppm (0.5%) H₂S was introduced into the fuel with a composition of 86.4% H₂/3.6% H₂O balanced by Ar at 1000 °C. Similarly, La₀.₃Sr₀.₇VO₃ anode displays lower interfacial resistance in 3–10 vol.% H₂S balanced by H₂ than in pure H₂.114–115 and Gd₂Ti₂O₇ (GTMO) displays a maximum powder density of 340 mW cm⁻² in a fuel mixture of 10% H₂S/90% H₂, while P_max in pure H₂ is only 225 mW cm⁻².122 The fundamental reason for such sulfur enhancement is not clear at this moment, but we hypothesize that the transition of the material’s surface from oxide to a very thin (2D) layer of conductive sulfides upon exposure to the high concentration of H₂S might contribute to the enhancement. Such hypothesis is consistent with the limited experimental evidence: for example, the presence of Raman peaks corresponding to MoS₂ has been identified on the surface of GTMO anode after exposure to 10% H₂S/90% H₂, even though the bulk GTMO material remains intact according to X-ray diffraction (XRD).

- Seemingly conflicting data. There are also some seemingly conflicting results in the literature regarding the behavior of certain conductive oxide materials as alternative SOFC anodes in sulfur-containing fuels. For example, Marina et al. reported that the La₀.₃Sr₀.₇TiO₃–CeLaO₂ composite anode displays large drop in cell power output upon exposure to a fuel with pH₂S/pH₂ of 1055 ppm at 850 °C, while Mukundan et al. reported that a similar La₀.₃Sr₀.₇TiO₃–YSZ composite anode did not show an increase in overpotential when pH₂S/pH₂ was 1000 ppm at 1000 °C; they reported an enhancement in performance when
although sulfur enhancement was observed in 10% H2S/90% H2 at 950 °C by Aguilar et al.,114 the study by Peng et al. shows the addition of 0.5% H2S to H2 fuel causes the total cell interfacial resistance to increase dramatically at 800 °C.129 It is not clear whether such discrepancies are due to the nature of the sulfur–anode interactions in different regimes (in terms of H2S concentration and temperature) or due to some other unidentified difference in experiments.

### Drawbacks of conductive oxide anodes

The limitations of conductive oxide anodes include low electrical conductivity (compared with Ni), poor catalytic activity toward fuel oxidation, and inadequate compatibility with the electrolyte (or other cell components) at high temperatures during fabrication. These disadvantages severely hinder their applicability to practical applications.

The electrical conductivity for most of these conductive oxide anode materials is invariably lower than that of the Ni-YSZ anode, leading to high anode resistance and poor performance.110 For example, at 800 °C in fuel atmosphere (pO2 of ~10−11 to 10−22 atm), anode bulk conductivity (i.e., with low porosity) is ~1 S cm−1 for La0.75Sr0.25CrO3−δMnO1−δO120,127 and Gd2Ti1−xMo0.6O7,122 ~10 S cm−1 for Sr2MgMoO6−δ (SMMO),124 ~100 S cm−1 for La0.33Sr0.66TiO3 and ~100 S cm−1 for La0.7Sr0.3VO3.114 In lab experiments, such low conductivity still allows high power density since a metal mesh and paste (usually platinum or nickel) are normally applied above the anode as current collectors.38 In some cases, in fact, the platinum or nickel may penetrate into the porous anode, making it difficult to figure out the actual role of the platinum or nickel used as a current collector. In search for new alternative anode materials to replace Ni-YSZ, therefore, it is vital to ensure that the metal paste used as a current collector does not penetrate into the porous anode and come in close contact with the electrolyte. Otherwise, such current collectors may serve as part of the functional anode, thus complicating the observed sulfur–anode interactions. In real fuel cell stacks, the nickel mesh/paste may be used as current collectors; however, the reliability of this current collector is still questionable since the susceptibility of Ni to sulfur and other contaminants (like carbon) still remains. In particular, the low electrical conductivity of oxide anodes may pose an even greater problem if the anode-supported cell structure is to be adopted.

In addition, it is difficult for most of the ceramic anode materials to be adopted in the state-of-the-art SOFC fabrication processes based on the YSZ electrolyte, especially for anode-supported cell structure that has the best performance and long-term stability. The difficulties originate usually from alternative anodes’ limited physical, chemical, and/or thermal compatibility with the YSZ electrolyte during fabrication at high temperatures. For example, both La0.7Sr0.3VO3 and Gd2Ti1−xMo0.6O7 anodes were processed in reducing atmosphere at elevated temperatures,115,122 which is not very compatible with current processes and pose challenges for the preparation of cathode materials.

### 3.5. Metal sulfide anode materials

Various metal sulfides have been studied as potential anode materials for SOFCs, particularly those targeted towards direct utilization of high concentration (e.g., on the percentage level or higher) of the H2S fuel.13−35,78,112−145 Although some of them seem to show decent performance in those high sulfur concentration fuels, there is little information on long-term stability of these materials, due partially to the highly poisonous and corrosive nature of H2S at high concentrations. Also, metal sulfides tend to decompose back to metals when the relative H2S concentration is low: For example, at 1000 K, Ni3S2 will decompose when pH2S/pH2 < ~3 × 103 ppm (0.3%), while MoS2 with a higher melting point will decompose when pH2S/pH2 < ~3 × 105 ppm. Such instability in fuels with low concentration of sulfur suggests that they may not be suitable for typical SOFCs to be powered by fuels with low concentration (tens of ppm or lower) of sulfur. Thus, metal sulfide anodes will not be discussed here in detail. Interested readers are referred to previous reviews and the cited references.

### 3.6. Electrochemical characterizations of sulfur–anode interactions

To conclude the sections on the behaviors for alternative sulfur tolerant anodes as well as conventional Ni-YSZ cermet anodes, we present our perspectives about cell configuration and techniques for electrochemical characterizations of SOFC button cells.

#### 3.6.1. Cell configuration

The best cell configuration for evaluating sulfur–anode interactions is electrolyte-supported button cells with relatively thick electrolytes and properly positioned reference electrodes, as schematically shown in Fig. 3, which enables separation of the anode process from that of the cathode and real time monitoring of the anode performance. In contrast, it is very difficult to do the same on an anode-supported cell with an electrolyte thickness of only ~10 μm.148,149 Attempts to do 3-electrode measurements on such a cell may result in substantial errors in estimation of half-cell overpotential unless the reference is placed in a very special way.51 Accordingly, for anode-supported cells, the relative changes in cell voltage or current density were measured to characterize indirectly the electrochemical behavior of the Ni-YSZ anode in H2S-containing fuels.

Symmetrical cells with two identical anodes are also employed in some studies.78 However, the interpretation of the data would be more complicated as cathodic reduction of water is involved in one of the electrodes. Without a reliable reference electrode, it would be difficult to correctly interpret the data and to gain insight into fuel cell operation.

#### 3.6.2. Preferred electrochemical measurements

For mechanistic investigation of the anode–sulfur interactions or characterization of alternative anode materials, in our opinion, the most important measurement is impedance spectroscopy (IS), which can be acquired before and after exposure to sulfur poisoning. Preferably, the impedance spectra of the anode/electrolyte interface would be directly measured if the anode and the cathode could be separated via proper placement of a reference electrode using three- or four-electrode configuration. Even under a two-electrode configuration, impedance spectra are still informative. The change in impedance spectra provides valuable
information about the impact of sulfur poisoning on both bulk resistance and anode (or cell) polarization resistance, which influence how sulfur–anode interactions are interpreted. Taking the Ni-YSZ cermet anode as an example, the initial quick poisoning by low concentration (ppm-level) H₂S leads to large increase in anode interfacial resistance but not bulk resistance.²⁷⁻⁵⁴,⁵⁵,⁵⁸,¹⁰⁰,¹⁵⁰ This is in good agreement with the mechanism of sulfur adsorption on the nickel metal surface as the bulk resistance is determined by the electrolyte and the electrode ohmic resistance, which are not expected to change by a surface adsorption process. However, as stated, some researchers have also observed 2nd stage slow degradation after the rapid initial poisoning. In that case, cells tend to show small gradual increase in bulk resistance together with continued increase in anode (cell) interfacial resistance.⁵⁸,⁸⁴ A step further in sulfur poisoning is cell failure, which is accompanied by a very large increase in bulk resistance as well as interfacial resistance.⁵⁸ Such information would help clarify the interaction process, and is less straightforward to obtain from other measurements like anode polarization curves (overpotential versus current density) even with a properly positioned reference electrode. Other benefits for impedance spectra include (i) the anode polarization resistance under open circuit conditions could be used to extract anode exchange current density, jₒ, which reflects the intrinsic change in electrode kinetics caused by sulfur poisoning as discussed before, and (ii) the frequency information embedded in impedance spectra could be used to shine light on the impact of sulfur on the individual processes like charge transfer and mass transfer.

In addition to impedance spectroscopy, other valuable cell performance measurements include measuring current–voltage (I–V) curves and continuous monitoring of cell power output versus time, preferably under constant current conditions (P–I). The I–V curves provide direct representation of cell performance and information about the impact of polarization on the observed powder output drop due to sulfur poisoning ΔP,²⁵,⁵⁷ while continuous monitoring of cell power output provides information about the overall stability of the cell and real-time change in cell power output as H₂S is introduced or removed from the fuel. Both the magnitude and the rate for the change in ΔP would be of interest from a theoretical point of view. For example, the rate of degradation due to sulfur adsorption would, in principle, be much faster than that due to formation of bulk sulfides.

It is recognized that many new materials used as anodes have not yet been optimized for cell stability, and cells with those materials degrade in sulfur-free fuels. However, even in those cases, continuous monitoring of cell power output versus time is still valuable if the experiment could be kept short to within a few hours or tens of hours.

It is noted that neither I–V nor power output versus time (P–I) measurements should be used to replace impedance data and vice versa. This is because both I–V and P–I may be influenced by many factors other than the anode process. An extreme example is that even the Ni-YSZ anode would display a very small power output drop of 1% when it is tested under a small constant current density of ~20 mA cm⁻² exposed to 11 ppm H₂S at 750 °C (see Fig. 7) while we know that 11 ppm H₂S will cause the anode polarization resistance to more than double.²⁷,⁵⁴ Therefore, the authors would encourage future research to provide all above measurements (IS, I–V, and P–I), which would help clarify the reaction mechanism and compare data from different sources. Other electrochemical measurements that may appear in the literature for characterizing sulfur–anode interactions include anode polarization curves and monitoring of anode overpotential versus time, which also provide some useful information.

3.6.3. Proper representation of sulfur–anode interactions. In the SOFC literature, definitions such as sulfur poisoning or extent of sulfur poisoning are used and even compared often without being defined clearly. To avoid confusion, we recommend using the relative change in anode exchange current density or the relative change in anode polarization resistance under open circuit conditions as the most direct representation of the extent of sulfur poisoning due to their (relatively) intrinsic nature and independence of testing conditions.

Other measured quantities, such as relative voltage drop at a constant current or relative current drop at a constant voltage, may reflect in a certain way the changes in anode performance upon exposure to sulfur, but should be clearly stated and treated with care: although they do reflect sulfur poisoning, their values depend on other factors like cathode and electrolyte contributions and how the electrochemical measurements are conducted. Thus, it is not recommended to determine which anode is more or less sulfur tolerant based on the numbers like ΔP due to sulfur poisoning for different anodes under different operating conditions.

Another important factor in terms of evaluating sulfur tolerance is the critical sulfur concentration at which sulfur poisoning obviously starts. It is realized that the critical value might be difficult to be determined in experiments. Therefore, reporting the sulfur poisoning behavior under the lowest sulfur concentration available is also desirable.

4 Chemical and microscopic characterizations

Various ex situ and in situ experimental techniques have been employed for characterization of chemical composition (surface species and new phases), morphology, and microstructure of anodes exposed to sulfur-containing fuels. This section will provide an overview of the techniques employed, the observations made, and the implications.

4.1. Ex situ and in situ characterizations

In a typical ex situ measurement, the sample is characterized after it has been exposed to a sulfur-containing fuel at elevated temperatures or tested in a fuel cell under practical operating conditions. After exposure to H₂S, the sample has to be cooled down to room temperature, taken out from the testing apparatus, and transferred into a characterization chamber for analyses. Typical characterization methods include X-ray diffraction (RXD) and X-ray adsorption spectroscopy (XAS), electron microscopy (SEM, TEM, and STEM), electron spectroscopy (EDX, XPS, AES, and EELS), low energy electron diffraction (LEED), mass spectrometry (MS), and vibrational spectroscopy (IR and Raman). For surface characterization, careful preservation of the sample surface in the process of transferring
For in situ characterization, in contrast, the sample is placed in a temperature- and atmosphere-controllable chamber accessible to probing stimulus and signal detector of the characterization equipment. At elevated temperatures in a designated atmosphere, signals from a sample under electrochemical operation can be collected in real time. While electron microscopy and spectroscopy offer the highest spatial resolution and sensitivity in identification of structure, morphology, and composition of materials, it is very difficult, if not impossible, to apply these techniques for in situ characterization of the sulfur poisoning processes. The main challenge is the degree of vacuum required for electron-based techniques. Thus, the most powerful in situ techniques for the study of the sulfur poisoning process are vibrational spectroscopy (especially Raman) and X-ray analyses (XRD and XAS). Schematically shown in Fig. 9 is the arrangement used for the in situ Raman spectroscopy study of anode materials.\textsuperscript{56,62} The readers are also referred to the review by Pomfret et al.\textsuperscript{151} about other in situ characterization techniques used for SOFC anode studies.

The advantages of in situ over ex situ characterization are obvious: it can provide first hand information on the interactions of sulfur species with anode materials under conditions similar to real SOFC operation, thus avoiding complications associated with sample transfer. Further and in particular, the most unique advantage of in situ characterization is the possibility for direct correlation between different measurements performed at the same time. For instance, surface species (e.g., reaction intermediates) or new phases identified by Raman spectroscopy may be linked directly to electrode polarization as determined from electrochemical measurements (e.g., impedance spectroscopy) and to the chemical environment the sample is experiencing by probing mass spectrometry, thus providing valuable information vital to unraveling the mechanism of electrode reactions.

### 4.2. Microstructural and chemical changes during sulfur–anode interactions

#### 4.2.1. Ni-YSZ cermet anodes

Table 4 summarizes studies on the characterization of Ni-YSZ cermet anodes upon exposure to H₂S-containing fuels. The following observations are made. First, the interactions between H₂S and Ni-YSZ anodes at typical SOFC operating temperatures (~550 °C and above) in fuels with low ppm-level H₂S do not lead to bulk nickel sulfide formation or morphology changes. By using in situ Raman microspectroscopy, Cheng and Liu found that at ~570 °C in a fuel with pH₂S/pH₂ of 100 ppm, no bulk nickel sulfides were identified on the Ni-YSZ surface, and no changes in surface morphology were observed even after a prolonged exposure.\textsuperscript{46} Such observation is consistent with the several carefully controlled ex situ experiments in which no bulk sulfides nor morphology changes have been detected.\textsuperscript{52,61,152} It is concluded that the nickel-YSZ cermet anode poisoning by low concentration H₂S at elevated temperature (e.g., ≥~550 °C) is not caused by bulk nickel sulfide formation. Instead, it is caused by rapid adsorption of elemental sulfur on the Ni surface, as evidenced from the observed fast poisoning process, the sensitivity to sub-ppm-level H₂S (see Section 2.2.6),\textsuperscript{27} and from theoretical calculations, as to be discussed later in Section 5.\textsuperscript{66}

It has been reported that bulk nickel sulfides (e.g., Ni₃S₂) and/or dramatic morphology changes for the post-sulfur exposure samples were observed even though the sulfur concentration (pH₂S/pH₂) was on the order of hundreds of ppm or even lower.\textsuperscript{11,86,153,154} For example, Dong et al. identified bulk Ni₃S₂ and NiS₄ on the Ni-YSZ cermet after exposure to the fuel with pH₂S/pH₂ of 100 ppm at 727 °C for 5 days and cooled down with the furnace in the same fuel.\textsuperscript{153,154} Similarly, Tremblay et al. identified sulfur in the percentage level in the anode after testing in a fuel with pH₂S/pH₂ of 590 ppm at 750 °C.\textsuperscript{11}

The discrepancy between the first two observations stems from the complications that occurred when the samples went through the changes in temperature and atmosphere during the sample transfer process, as has been clearly illustrated in the study by Cheng and Liu.\textsuperscript{46} In that study, for the ex situ characterization, Ni-YSZ cermet was exposed to a fuel with pH₂S/pH₂ = 100 ppm at 800 °C for different durations (2 to 48 h). Afterwards, the samples were then cooled down slowly (~3 °C min⁻¹) to room temperature with the samples being exposed to the same fuel (i.e., with pH₂S/pH₂ = 100 ppm during cooling), and various nickel
and Hagen85

Ni-GDC SEM/EDX, XPS

750
590

Ex situ

After cell testing for 580 h in the fuel with H2S

Table 4 Summary of ex situ and in situ characterizations of anode materials after interactions with sulfur-containing fuels under various conditions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>References</th>
<th>Anode</th>
<th>Technique</th>
<th>T°C</th>
<th>pH2S/pH2 (ppm)</th>
<th>In situ or ex situ</th>
<th>Sample details</th>
<th>Observations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Singhal et al.52</td>
<td>Ni-YSZ</td>
<td>SEM/EDX, photometric</td>
<td>900–1000</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Ex situ</td>
<td>After poisoning and regeneration</td>
<td>No sulfur observed after regeneration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Waldbllig et al.54</td>
<td>Ni-YSZ</td>
<td>SEM/EDX, EM/EDX</td>
<td>750</td>
<td>0.1–10</td>
<td>Ex situ</td>
<td>Cells fully poisoned and fully regenerated</td>
<td>No sulfur or additional bulk phases (other than Ni and YSZ) detected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sasaki et al.53</td>
<td>Ni-YSZ, Ni-SSZ</td>
<td>XPS, SEM/EDX</td>
<td>800</td>
<td>5–100</td>
<td>Ex situ</td>
<td>After poisoning, the sample was rapidly cooled in N2</td>
<td>The presence of sulfur was identified by XPS, Ni oxidized to NiO for cells that suffered irreversible voltage drop</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trembly et al.54</td>
<td>Ni-GDC</td>
<td>SEM/EDX, XPS</td>
<td>750</td>
<td>590</td>
<td>Ex situ</td>
<td>After cell testing for 580 h in the fuel with H2S</td>
<td>Morphology change observed, the significant presence of sulfur (percentage level) was identified using EDX, 5–7% loss in Ni and 1–2% gain in sulfur as indicated by XPS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dong et al.55,154</td>
<td>Ni-YSZ</td>
<td>Raman, SEM, XRD</td>
<td>727</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>Ex situ</td>
<td>After exposure for 120 h, the sample cooled with the furnace in the fuel with 100 ppm H2S</td>
<td>Bulk nickel sulfide phases identified using Raman spectroscopy and XRD and morphology associated with melted particles identified using SEM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cheng et al.56,152</td>
<td>Ni-YSZ</td>
<td>SEM/EDX, XRD, Raman</td>
<td>800</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>Ex situ</td>
<td>After exposure for 2–48 h, the sample cooled in the fuel with 100 ppm H2S</td>
<td>NiS2, NiS, Ni3S4 identified by Raman spectroscopy, dramatic morphology change on Ni</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ishikura et al.58</td>
<td>Ni-YSZ</td>
<td>SEM/EDX, Raman</td>
<td>900</td>
<td>5–20</td>
<td>Ex situ</td>
<td>Cell failed after sulfur poisoning, then sulfur was removed so that cell recovered partially</td>
<td>No bulk nickel sulfide formation at ~500 °C and above; bulk sulfides (e.g., Ni3S2) started to form at ~430 °C and below accompanied with dramatic morphology changes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lussier et al.86</td>
<td>Ni-YSZ</td>
<td>XAS, XPS</td>
<td>750</td>
<td>100–1500</td>
<td>Ex situ</td>
<td>Not clear</td>
<td>The significant sulfur presence was identified via EDX, local products appear melted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rasmussen and Hagen85</td>
<td>Ni-YSZ</td>
<td>SEM/EDX</td>
<td>850</td>
<td>2–100</td>
<td>Ex situ</td>
<td>Not clear</td>
<td>Ni chemical state of Ni, NiO, and nickel sulfide mixture, for failed sample, the insulating ring in center is depleted of Ni</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Li et al.71,88</td>
<td>Ni-YSZ</td>
<td>SEM/EDX, XRD</td>
<td>800</td>
<td>2000</td>
<td>Ex situ</td>
<td>After poisoning</td>
<td>Short term exposure did not change nickel distribution, no nickel compounds found in post-test EDS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zhang and Ni-GDC</td>
<td>Ni-YSZ and Ni-GDC</td>
<td>SEM/EDX</td>
<td>800</td>
<td>5–700</td>
<td>Ex situ</td>
<td>After poisoning and recovery, cooled with the furnace in N2</td>
<td>Bulk nickel sulfides (NiS, Ni3S4) were detected</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Nickel sulfides (NiS2, NiS, Ni3S4, etc.) were identified on the sample surface accompanied with dramatic morphology changes. In contrast, if the sample, after exposure to the same H2S gas mixture at elevated temperature, was quenched down (at a cooling rate of ~70 °C min−1 or faster) in the same fuel, no nickel sulfides could be detected.

This is expected from the bulk phase diagram for the Ni–H2S–H2 system. Taking the same example above, the equilibrium pH2S/pH2 concentration for NiS2 formation is ~4.7 × 10−3 at 4700 ppm at 800 °C, implying that bulk NiS2 will not form at 800 °C in a fuel with pH2S/pH2 = 100 ppm (note that other sulfides like NiS and Ni3S4 have even higher equilibrium pH2S/pH2 value). However, after exposure at 800 °C, when the sample is cooled down slowly (e.g., ~3 °C min−1) in the same fuel mixture (pH2S/pH2 = 100 ppm), the formation of NiS2 becomes energetically favorable when the temperature drops below ~420 °C because the equilibrium pH2S/pH2 for NiS2 to form drops by orders of magnitude as the temperature is lowered: it is only ~100 ppm at 420 °C, and further decreases rapidly to ~10 ppm at 323 °C, and ~0.3 ppm at 223 °C. The slow cooling makes sulfide formation possible when the reaction is thermodynamically favorable, which is accompanied by a dramatic morphology change.66 In comparison, if the sample is quenched, although the bulk sulfidation reaction is still energetically favorable, the extent of reaction could be small in a short period of time, which explains the absence of bulk sulfides in the other studies. In addition, if the sample is cooled down in a slightly
reducing atmosphere or a truly inert atmosphere (e.g., N₂ with pO₂ < ~10 ppm atm), extensive bulk sulfidation/oxidation may also be avoided.

It is advised that cooling the sample slowly in an “inert” atmosphere should be dealt with care because even the commercial ultra-high-purity (UHP) grade N₂ or Ar still contains oxygen content on the ~1 ppm level, and small leaking from air could easily cause the actual oxygen content to be orders of magnitude higher. When using UHP N₂ in the anode chamber and air on the cathode side, an open circuit voltage of ~0.06 to 0.07 V was recorded at 750 °C, corresponding to a pO₂ value of ~0.01 atm in the anode chamber. Therefore, when the anode chamber gas flow is switched from fuel gas to inert gas (e.g., UHP N₂) and the sample cools down slowly, non-hermetic sealing makes the oxidation of Ni a clear possibility as the critical pO₂ for NiO formation is as low as ~1 × 10⁻¹⁶ atm at 1000 K and drops to ~7 × 10⁻²² atm at 700 K. We believe that this may also explain the surface roughening but the absence of sulfur on Ni surface in the study by Zhang et al. for samples exposed to 5–700 ppm H₂S at 800 °C and then recovered in H₂ and cooled in N₂.

To date, only a few studies have successfully detected adsorbed sulfur species on the anode surface following sulfur poisoning using ex situ techniques. Direct in situ identification of adsorbed sulfur species on a Ni-YSZ anode surface exposed in a fuel with ppm-level H₂S at elevated temperatures has not been successful. The characterization of sulfur-anode interactions at the TPB appears to be even more challenging given the complexity of the reaction and many species involved (Ni, YSZ, H₂, H₂O, H₂S, and various adsorbed species and lattice defects like oxygen vacancies).

Finally, among various characterization techniques, Raman microspectroscopy is unique since it is highly sensitive to a wide range of nickel sulfides (e.g., NiS₂, NiS, Ni₃S₄, and NiS₂) with good spatial resolution down to ~1 μm. As mentioned above, Raman spectroscopy can also be conveniently configured for in situ characterization and provides valuable information from monitoring sulfide phase formation and phase transformation at elevated temperatures in different atmospheres to probing and mapping species or reaction intermediates adsorbed on electrode surfaces. Fig. 10 shows the optical micrographs collected during the in situ Raman microspectroscopy experiment of a same region on the polished surface of a dense Ni-YSZ cermet before (a) and after (b) the formation of the bulk Ni₃S₂ phase when the cermet was exposed to a fuel of 100 ppm H₂S/H₂ at ~440 °C for 12 h (Reprinted with permission from J. Phys. Chem. C, 111, 17997. Copyright (2007) American Chemical Society).

4.2.2. Alternative anodes. The microstructural and chemical studies on the interactions between sulfur and alternative anode materials are rather limited. In particular, Gd₂Ti₁.₄Mo₀.₆O₇ (GTMO) has been shown to display higher power output in 10% H₂S/90% H₂ than in pure H₂. Although no bulk sulfide phase was identified from the GTMO powder after exposure to 10% H₂S/90% H₂ for 5 days at 950 °C using XRD, the presence of Raman peaks corresponding to MoS₂ was identified on the surface of the GTMO anode after H₂S exposure, indicating that transition of the material's surface from an oxide phase to a thin sulfide phase might occur that contributes to the enhanced electrochemical performance as described before. However, the explanation still needs to be verified by further studies. Synchrotron-based XRD and XAS would be ideally suited for probing the crystal structure, local atomistic arrangement, and electronic structure of conductive oxide electrodes under in situ conditions for fuel cell applications.

5 Understanding H₂S-anode interaction mechanism using DFT-based calculations

With continuing advances in the development of algorithms and rapid reduction in CPU costs, computational chemistry plays...
a more and more important role in materials research. For rational design of SOFC electrode materials, first-principle-based calculations employing different modeling techniques have provided useful information that may not be readily obtained from experimental measurements. Among different computational techniques, DFT calculation is an effective approach for prediction of fundamental properties of materials and has offered important insights into sequences, mechanisms, and kinetics of electrode reactions on different crystallographic surfaces, with or without surface or bulk defects. This information is imperative to gaining a deeper understanding of the mechanism of elementary processes on the surfaces of SOFC electrodes.

While the conventional thermodynamics provides some useful insight into bulk phase stability, it is inadequate for the processes occurring on electrode surfaces and interfaces relevant to sulfur poisoning. Applications of advanced computational tools, as illustrated in Fig. 12, can effectively guide us to rationally design sulfur-tolerant SOFC materials over a wide range of scales, from molecular to macroscopic levels.

In this section, we will first review the study of Ni and H₂S interactions using DFT-based calculations and the application of the same technique to exploring the sulfur tolerance of various alternative anode materials. Then we will consider the effects of temperature and pressure (using *ab initio* atomistic thermodynamics) in order to gain an in-depth understanding of the sulfur poisoning processes under ordinary SOFC operating conditions. These computations, along with the experimental observations discussed earlier, provided direct evidence to support the hypothesis that sulfur poisoning of a conventional Ni-YSZ anode exposed to low ppm H₂S at elevated temperatures is due to adsorption of elemental sulfur on the Ni surface, not due to formation of nickel sulfide(s) as previously thought. They also helped us to understand many of the experimental observations presented in Sections 2, 3, 4, and 6. Finally, computational analysis of vibrational modes of surface species or new phases will be presented, which forms the scientific basis for peak assignment and for identification of reaction intermediates in spectroscopic experiments described in Section 4.

5.1. Understanding the sulfur-poisoning behavior in experiments

5.1.1. Reaction sequence and energetics for H₂S–anode interactions. Fig. 13 illustrates the interaction between H₂S and the Ni-YSZ anode at the macroscopic and molecular levels near the TPB (i.e., H₂S-Ni-YSZ). To save computational time, the study was usually simplified as H₂S interaction with a metallic anode surface or an electrolyte surface at the two-phase boundary (2PB) (i.e., H₂S-Ni or H₂S-YSZ). Earlier theoretical studies pointed out that sulfur poisoning observed in low concentration H₂S at elevated temperatures is originated from the dissociation of sulfur-containing species and the adsorption of atomic sulfur (designated as S* here) on the anode surface.
The strongly adsorbed S* species block active sites on the anode surface and thus increase the resistance to electrochemical oxidation of the fuel. In particular, Fig. 14 illustrates how a Ni-based anode surface can be constructed as an infinite slab with a proper vacuum space (~15 Å) (Fig. 14(a)) using periodic DFT calculations, while having four types of active sites (i.e., atop, bridge, and three-fold fcc- and hcp-hollow sites) (Fig. 14(b)). As schematically illustrated in Fig. 14(c), the mechanism of S* formation can be ascribed to an interfacial reaction of adsorbed H2S* with the Ni surface via two elementary steps of S–H bond cleavages (i.e., H2S* → HS* + H* and HS* → H* + S*).

In addition, dissociative adsorption of H2S on other metals (Fe, Pt, Pd, and Rh), Ni–Cu alloys,172 and oxides such as CeO2 was also examined.173,174 The associated energetic parameters (i.e., reaction energies (ΔE) and reaction barriers (Ea)) for the interaction between H2S and those materials have been obtained by DFT calculations, as summarized in Table 5.

Apart from ΔE and Ea for the individual reaction steps, another important parameter that can be obtained from DFT calculations is the adsorption energies (Eads) of adspecies. Eads is closely related to ΔE: higher exothermicity of an adsorption process is related to a smaller Eads of the reactant and a greater Eads of the product, as detailed in a previous work.175 Table 6 summarizes calculated values for Eads of reactants, intermediates, and products from H2S interactions on selected metal and oxide surfaces.66,166,168–171 S* is strongly bound to the surfaces (Eads in the range of 5.14–6.60 eV), while HS* is less strongly bound (Eads in the range of 1.36–3.80 eV). H2S* is even more weakly bound (Eads in the range of 0.09–1.20 eV) than S* and HS* with values being less than half that of HS*. The result also shows that Eads’s of H* are ranged from 2.70 to 3.20 eV. Thus, the high exothermicities of the two elementary steps of H2S dissociative adsorption on the surface are attributable to the stronger adsorption energies of the products (H* + HS* and H* + S*) and the relatively weak adsorption energies of the reactants (H2S* and HS*, respectively). Eads is also related to Ea; a strong adsorption reaction, H2S(g) → S* + 2H*, involves only the S–H bond breaking steps, the lower Ea in Table 5 can be attributed to the stronger adsorptions of HS*, S*, and H*.

The above calculations clearly suggest that elemental sulfur strongly adsorbs on Ni surfaces with a large exothermic ΔE and a small barrier Ea. The adsorbed sulfur blocks the access of hydrogen to active reaction sites (e.g., TPBs), leading to a large drop in electrochemical activity, as described earlier in Section 2.2. The calculations also suggest that the adsorbed sulfur species exist primarily in the form of atomic sulfur instead of molecular H2S. The large exothermic ΔE and very small Ea further imply fast kinetics for sulfur adsorption and sluggish kinetics for sulfur removal, consistent with the experimental observation of the instant drop in performance upon exposure to H2S and a very slow recovery in performance after clean hydrogen is switched back, as described earlier. In addition, the similarity in ΔE and Ea for many alternative metals (e.g., Pt and Fe) explains why replacing Ni with these metals does not solve the problems of sulfur poisoning, which is also consistent with experimental observations as described in Section 3.3.

### Table 6 Adsorption energies (Eads) of H2S*, HS*, S*, and H* in the units of eV

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>H2S*</th>
<th>HS*</th>
<th>S*</th>
<th>H*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pt(111)166</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>5.14</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pd(111)168</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>3.02</td>
<td>5.15</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rh(211)169</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>6.00</td>
<td>2.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fe(100)170</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>6.00</td>
<td>2.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fe(110)171</td>
<td>1.20</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>5.80</td>
<td>3.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ni(100)166</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td>5.96</td>
<td>2.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ni(111)166</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>2.95</td>
<td>5.14</td>
<td>2.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CeO2(111)174</td>
<td>0.09–0.15</td>
<td>1.36–1.46</td>
<td>6.60</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig. 14 (a) Schematic representation of a slab model with a proper vacuum space for periodic DFT calculations. (b) Four active sites on a (111) plane. (c) Schematic energy profile of gas-phase H2S dissociation on the Ni(111) forming atomic S* and H*. ‘*’ denotes surface species. TS1 and TS2 are the transition states.

Table 5 Activation barriers (Ea) and reaction energies (ΔE) in the units of eV for the two elementary steps of H2S* → HS* + H* and HS* → H* + S* in a H2S dissociative adsorption process

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>H2S* → HS* + H*</th>
<th>HS* → H* + S*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Eads</td>
<td>ΔE</td>
<td>Eads</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pt(111)166</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>–0.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pd(111)168</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>–1.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rh(211)169</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>–1.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fe(100)170</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>–1.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fe(110)171</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>–1.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ni(100)166</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>–1.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ni(111)166</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>–0.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CeO2(111)174</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>–0.13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.1.2. Physical and chemical effects on sulfur adsorption.

Furthermore, we can analyze adsorption energies based on the intrinsic effect of surface morphology and electronic structures that are related, respectively, to the physical and chemical properties of materials. According to the adsorption-energy calculations of S* on Pt(111),166 Ni(111),66,172,176 and Cu(111),172 the strength of sulfur–metal bonds normally follows this order: three-fold-coordinated Eads (fcc and hcp sites) > two-fold-coordinated Eads (bridge sites) > one-fold-coordinated Eads (atom sites), as shown in Table 7. In addition, sulfur adsorption is stronger on surface defects like steps, kinks, or terraces with higher coordination numbers than those on the corresponding
perfect surfaces. Based on the results, we conclude that the higher the coordination of an adsorption site, the stronger its sulfur adsorption energy. Such physical effect (or coordination effect) from the surface geometric configuration is independent of materials. Nevertheless, the results indicate that sulfur poisoning is not expected to be alleviated by changing physical features like surface morphology or grain orientations of metal catalysts in the anode.

On the other hand, the chemical effect of a certain adsorption process depends on materials, which is examined using density of states (DOS) analyses, as detailed in the d-band theory. For example, Fig. 15(a) shows a DOS comparison of S* on Ni(111) and Cu(111) surfaces. The antibonding state of S* on Ni (111) with a higher energy relative to the Fermi level results in stronger adsorption, meaning that it is harder to excite electrons to the antibonding state with higher energy above the Fermi level for bond cleavage. In addition, the energy of the antibonding state corresponds to the DOS of metal surfaces. A downward shifted antibonding state relative to the Fermi level corresponds to the downward shifted and broader DOS of metals, as schematically illustrated in Fig. 15(b). Accordingly, the DOS of a metal with low energy and a broad distribution such as Cu(111) leads to a low antibonding state and weaker sulfur adsorption. The \( E_{\text{ads}} \) prediction from the DOS analysis agrees well with the experimental observation \( n^{\text{exp}} \) that the adsorption enthalpy of S* on Ni surfaces is twice that on Cu surfaces, suggesting that Cu-based anodes would have much better tolerance to sulfur than Ni-based anodes for SOFCs, which is consistent with the experimental observation discussed in Section 3.3.

### Table 7 \( E_{\text{ads}} \) of S* on Pt(111), Pd(111), Ni(111), and Cu(111) surfaces in the units of eV

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Pt(111) ( ^{166} )</th>
<th>Pd(111) ( ^{168} )</th>
<th>Ni(111) ( ^{172},^{176} )</th>
<th>Cu(111) ( ^{172} )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FCC</td>
<td>5.14</td>
<td>5.15</td>
<td>5.44, 5.16, 5.14</td>
<td>4.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HCP</td>
<td>4.97</td>
<td>5.42, 5.06</td>
<td>4.32</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bridge</td>
<td>4.47</td>
<td>5.21, 5.02</td>
<td>4.21</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Atop</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>3.92, 3.62, 3.62</td>
<td>3.22</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**5.1.3. Sulfur poisoning and approaches to achieve improved sulfur tolerance**

- **Alternative metals and Ni-M alloys.** Based on the above analyses, the problem of sulfur poisoning for the Ni-YSZ anode can be attributed to the strong sulfur adsorption that blocks surface active sites, reduces the catalytic activity of neighboring sites, and results in the highly exothermic and low-barrier poisoning reaction. Therefore, minimizing the bond strength of S* by adjusting the DOS of metallic or alloy anodes seems one logical approach to enhancing sulfur tolerance, and the design rule for sulfur-tolerant anodes corresponds to the searching for a metal or alloy that has weak S* adsorption (low \( E_{\text{ads}} \)) with low-energy and broad-distribution DOS. As stated in Section 3.3, this is not trivial. Many common alternative metal catalysts such as Fe, Rh, and Pt have strong sulfur adsorption (see Section 5.1.1) and are expected to be poisoned readily. The studies that show promises are those focusing on completely replacing (e.g., by Cu) or partially introducing relatively inert metals or alloys (e.g., Ni–Cu and Ni–Sn alloys) into anodes to weaken the interaction for S* and thus enhance their sulfur tolerance. However, a problem with these studies lies in the materials’ inertness for sulfur adsorption, which usually also lowers their catalytic activities towards \( H_2 \) fuel oxidation represented by hydrogen adsorption energies since the catalytic activities of materials towards the hydrogen oxidation reaction (HOR) and \( H_2S \) dissociative adsorption usually have similar trends, indicating that cell performance is sacrificed to achieve sulfur tolerance.

In light of these limitations, theoretical studies on metal alloys have been carried out to find metal and alloy materials that do not compromise performance for sulfur tolerance. To construct a Ni-M alloy, one of the Ni atoms on the top-most layer was removed and replaced with three alloying metals such as 3d and 4d transition metals, as in (a) and (b) of Fig. 16. The defective structure may provide a more practical model than the perfect ones with one Ni and three transition metals. According to the comparison of Ni and Cu, the initial adsorption of \( H_2S \) is correlated with sulfur tolerance, and weaker \( E_{\text{ads}} \) for S* corresponds to better sulfur tolerance. Thus to evaluate sulfur...
tolerance of bimetallic Ni-M alloys, H₂S adsorption energies on various metals were calculated and normalized relative to that on pure Ni(111). As shown in Fig. 16(c), the comparative study demonstrates that metals like V, Cr, Cu, Mo, Ru, Rh, Pd, and Ag have significantly lower sulfur adsorption energy, E_ads, and their alloys with Ni are expected to be more sulfur-tolerant than pure Ni, while metals like Mn, Fe, Nb, and Tc have comparable E_ads and Co has slightly higher E_ads for sulfur adsorption, indicating comparable or even worse sulfur tolerance than Ni.

In addition to sulfur tolerance, a successful SOFC anode must also have high catalytic activity for fuel oxidation. Thus, we also calculated the dissociative adsorption energies of H₂ as a descriptor of catalytic activity for HOR following the method in the literature. As displayed in Fig. 16(c), among the metals, Mo, Ru, and Rh have adsorption energy for H₂ (i.e., catalytic activities) similar to Ni, while H₂ adsorption energy on Ag and Cu is much less indicating lower activity towards H₂ oxidation for those two metals. These results highlight the promise of applying DFT calculations for screening sulfur-tolerant anode materials. They also suggest that, among the metals and alloys studied, Ni–Mo alloy seems to be a good candidate because it exhibits lower sulfur adsorption energy (better sulfur tolerance) than the pure Ni yet comparable hydrogen adsorption energy (good catalytic activity towards H₂ oxidation). This is confirmed by the experiment: as stated in Section 3.3, Ni-Mo-alloy based anodes showed improved sulfur tolerance over Ni-YSZ anodes.

**Electrolyte modification.** Hypothetically, a second approach to enhance sulfur tolerance is to increase the activity of the electrolyte phase in the cermet anode for electrochemical oxidation of sulfur, as described by reaction (2) in Section 2. For the Ni-YSZ anode, S* on YSZ may be electrochemically oxidized to SO₂, and release electrons. However, this reaction could be kinetically slow in the middle of a YSZ region due to limited electronic conductivity of YSZ; it should be more active at or near the TPBs. The rate of the electrochemical oxidation of S* on the surface of the ceramic phase in a Ni-ceramic anode may increase with the ionic and electronic conductivities of the ceramic phase. This may explain (at least in part) why the substitution of YSZ by other ceramic phases (e.g., GDC) showed different sulfur tolerances. Furthermore, when the oxygen conducting ceramic phase in the anode becomes more active in promoting the electrochemical oxidation of S* to SO₂ (thus removes S* on the surface of the ceramic phase), S* on the metal surface may migrate (spill over) to the clean TPB region (due to a concentration gradient) and get oxidized and removed there, as schematically illustrated in Fig. 17. Then the overall poisoning might then be alleviated.

The activity of the oxygen conducting ceramic phases, different from that of metallic Ni, depends on the formation energy of oxygen defects (vacancies) while the sulfur adsorption energy E_ads(S*) on the defects of most oxides seems to be similar (>6.50 eV). For example, the energies for forming defects in GDC, SSZ, and YSZ are 3.80, 5.80, and 7.80 eV, respectively, suggesting the activity of the electrolytes is in the order of GDC > SSZ > YSZ. On the experimental side, as stated in Section 3.2, cermet anodes like Ni-SSZ³³ and Ni-GDC¹¹,⁹⁹,¹⁰⁰ have been reported to have slightly better sulfur tolerance than Ni-YSZ (with less drop in power output as sulfur contaminants are introduced). However, the effect of the electrolyte phase on sulfur poisoning has not been carefully studied.

In addition to oxygen ion conductors like YSZ, proton conductors such as BaCeO₃ are also considered. Table 8 compares energy for water dissociation and incorporation for proton ion (HO)O (if applicable) formation on Ni, ZrO₂, CeO₂, and BaCeO₃. The results reveal that the energy for water adsorption and subsequent incorporation to BaCeO₃ and the formation of proton ions is significantly more favorable compared to those for ZrO₂ and CeO₂. How this will impact the sulfur tolerance and lead to the discovery of a new approach for improving anode sulfur tolerance are explained in Section 6.

### 5.2. **Ab initio** atomistic thermodynamics calculations: sulfur-tolerance under ordinary SOFC operating conditions

From the discussion above, DFT calculations have been applied to elucidate the mechanism for sulfur adsorption processes and related energetics for Ni as well as alternative metals, alloys, and oxides, and the energies for defects formation in electrolyte phases. However, DFT prediction is only valid in vacuum at 0 K. For practical purposes, external effects from the environment such as operational temperatures and pressures should be taken into consideration to make the calculation more relevant to practical operation. This is achieved by applying the thermodynamic correction to DFT results, as described in this section.

#### 5.2.1. A modified Ni–S phase diagram that captures sulfur surface adsorption

Temperature and pressure effects can be taken into consideration in the DFT results by applying the thermodynamic correction (in Gibbs free energy calculation), i.e., **ab initio** atomistic thermodynamics.¹⁸²,¹⁸³ The DFT-computed energy (E_DFT) represents the Gibbs free energy at zero temperature in vacuum, or Helmholtz free energy (F(T)) at zero
temperature, \( E^{DFT} = G(0, 0) = F(0) \). Specifically, the relation between Gibbs free energy and an internal energy from DFT calculations can be expressed as follows.

\[
G(T, p) = G(0, 0) + G(0 \rightarrow T, 0 \rightarrow p^0) + G(T, p^0 \rightarrow p) = E^{DFT} + H(T, p^0) + RT \ln (p/p^0),
\]

where \( E^{DFT} \) is directly computed from DFT, \( H(T, p^0) \), which can be obtained from the thermodynamics database,\(^{185} \) is the standard enthalpy contributing from rotations, vibrations, and entropy at \( p^0 = 1 \) atm, \( R \) is the ideal gas constant, and \( p/p^0 \) is a pressure-dependent function from the Maxwell relation. At a given pressure and temperature, the Gibbs free energy can be obtained by adding the last two terms of thermodynamic corrections to the DFT internal energy.

This method has successfully delineated the environmental effects on sulfur poisoning\(^{66} \) and surface regeneration.\(^{186} \) For example, Fig. 18 shows the expanded phase diagram from the theoretical prediction for the Ni-S system to explain the poisoning behavior on the Ni-based anode. This diagram represents the most stable phases with the lowest Gibbs free energy as a function of temperature and pressure (\( \rho \text{H}_2\text{S}/\rho \text{H}_2 \)). Compared with the traditional Ni-S phase diagram that includes only bulk phases like Ni and nickel sulfides (e.g., Ni₃S₂),\(^{187,188} \) this new phase diagram also includes a transition region between those two phases that represent sulfur adsorption on the nickel surface when exposed to a trace amount of H₂S. The calculated phase diagram also agrees well with both experiments of sulfur adsorption on Ni catalysts\(^{65} \) and anode poisoning for SOFCs.\(^{27} \)

The importance of this calculated Ni–S phase diagram is that it specifies the stability region for the surface phase of \( \text{S}^* \) on Ni, which plays a key role in sulfur poisoning, and it makes up for the limitation of experimental techniques that are having difficulty in observing the adsorbed \( \text{S}^* \) species under real SOFC operating conditions (see Section 4.2). Most sulfur poisoning behaviors for the Ni–YSZ cermet anode as described above in Sections 2 and 4 can be well explained from this modified Ni–S phase diagram. For example, the \( \rho \text{H}_2\text{S}/\rho \text{H}_2 \) concentration at which sulfur poisoning occurs is significantly lower than that for bulk Ni₃S₂ phase formation. In electrochemical characterizations, sulfur poisoning becomes more severe when the ratio of \( \rho \text{H}_2\text{S}/\rho \text{H}_2 \) increases or the temperature decreases, and this is due to increased sulfur surface coverage. Furthermore, the calculated diagram also helps predict sulfur tolerance or critical sulfur concentration beyond which sulfur poisoning will become significant, which corresponds to the boundary between clean Ni and \( \text{S}^* \) phases (the blue curve) in the diagram. At typical planar SOFC operating temperatures of 650–800 °C, the critical \( \rho \text{H}_2\text{S}/\rho \text{H}_2 \) that avoids poisoning is in the range of 0.7–35.7 ppb, which is difficult and/or costly to reach in H₂ production. However, the diagram indicates that sulfur tolerance improves with increasing temperature: the required temperature for 1 ppm H₂S tolerance is \( \sim 950 \) °C, which is considered very high for SOFC operations, but is consistent with experimental observations.\(^{27} \)

Sulfur tolerance could, in principle, be improved if the blue curve between clean Ni and \( \text{S}^* \) on Ni surface could be lowered. According to Gibbs free energy calculations, this boundary corresponds to the three energetic parameters in the Ni–S system: \( E^{DFT} \), \( H(T, p^0) \), and \( RT \ln (p/p^0) \) which then correspond to \( E_{\text{ads}}(\text{S}) \), \( H(\text{H}_2(\text{g})) – H(\text{H}_2\text{S}(\text{g})) \), and the partial pressure of sulfur contaminants (or \( \rho \text{H}_2\text{S}/\rho \text{H}_2 \)), respectively. Since the latter two terms are related to the intrinsic properties of H₂S (g), they cannot be adjusted. Therefore, the tolerance line can be lowered by reducing \( E_{\text{ads}}(\text{S}) \). Quantitatively, a drop of 0.1 eV (or 9.6 kJ mol⁻¹) of \( E_{\text{ads}}(\text{S}) \) lowers the tolerance boundary by \( \sim 50 \) K. For example, \( E_{\text{ads}}(\text{S}) \) on Cu(111) is about 1.3 eV (124.8 kJ mol⁻¹) less than that on Ni(111), hence, the tolerance boundary on Cu(111) would be lowered by \( \sim 650 \) K. This is consistent with the experimental observation, as detailed in Section 3.3: He et al.

---

**Table 8** \( \Delta E \) and \( E_{\text{ads}} \) in parentheses, in the units of eV of water dissociation on perfect and defective surfaces

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Ni(111)</th>
<th>ZrO₂(111)</th>
<th>CeO₂(111)</th>
<th>BaCeO₄(100)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Perfect surface</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \text{H}_2\text{O}(g) \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O}^* )</td>
<td>−0.33</td>
<td>−0.41</td>
<td>−0.31</td>
<td>−0.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \text{H}_2\text{O}^* \rightarrow \text{H}^* + \text{HO}^* )</td>
<td>−0.11 (0.79)</td>
<td>−0.57 (0.51)</td>
<td>−0.06 (0.50)</td>
<td>−1.14 (0.11)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \text{HO}^* \rightarrow \text{H}^* + \text{O}^* )</td>
<td>1.22 (1.45)</td>
<td>0.64 (0.40)</td>
<td>0.52 (0.71)</td>
<td>2.18 (0.39)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Defective surface</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \text{H}<em>2\text{O} + \text{V}</em>\Theta \rightarrow (\text{H}<em>2\text{O})</em>\Theta )</td>
<td>−0.82</td>
<td>−0.64</td>
<td>−0.58</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( (\text{H}<em>2\text{O})</em>\Theta + \text{O}<em>\Theta \rightarrow 2(\text{HO})</em>\Theta )</td>
<td>−0.32 (0.72)</td>
<td>−0.19 (0.71)</td>
<td>−1.29 (0.29)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig. 18  S–Ni phase diagram calculated using *ab initio* atomistic thermodynamics. The three regions correspond to the phases of clean Ni, adsorbed sulfur \( \text{S}^* \) on the nickel surface, and bulk Ni₃S₂. The experimental data are displayed in the black line, from Rosenqvist’s bulk phase diagram,\(^{188} \) the open squares, from the experimental result of \( \text{S}^* \) with different area coverages,\(^{63} \) and the purple squares, from the sulfur-tolerant experiment.\(^{27} \)
observed that at 973 K, the Cu-based anode displays sulfur tolerance in fuels with a H₂S concentration of up to ~450 ppm. In comparison, for the Ni-YSZ anode, to reach the sulfur tolerance of 500 ppm (log (pH₂S/pH₂)) = 3.3) would correspond to a temperature of ~1650 K as in Fig. 18, which is almost exactly ~650 K higher than Cu.

5.2.2. Considerations for oxide materials. Another application of ab initio atomistic thermodynamics is for predicting the bulk phase stability of complex oxides in sulfur-containing fuels. For example, Fig. 19 plots the phase diagram of H₂S(g) interacting with proton conducting oxides of BaCeO₃ (BC, red line), BaCe₀.₈Y₀.₂O₃₋₄ (BCY, blue line), and BaZr₀.₁Ce₀.₇Y₀.₂O₃₋₄ (BZY, black line). The region below the phase boundary corresponds to the clean ABO₃-type oxide phase, while the region above the phase boundary corresponds to the situation when the ABO₃-type structure is disrupted by the formation of sulfides like BaS and binary oxides. The results show that Zr doping dramatically stabilizes the oxide, and improves sulfur tolerance up to 100 ppm at 800 °C. It is comparable to the experimental result wherein the Ni–BaZr₀.₁Ce₀.₇Y₀.₂₋ₓYbₓO₃₋₄ oxide sustained H₂S exposure for up to 20 ppm at 750 °C. The slight over-estimation of H₂S concentration compared to the experimental value might reflect the fact that Yb doping slightly increases the activity of the oxide, while sacrificing its stability. These computational results agree well with the description in Section 6 for the Ba(Ce₁₋ₓZrx)O₃-based materials.

To improve the bulk stability of oxide anodes (i.e., move up the boundary in the sulfide-oxide phase diagram in Fig. 19), the endothermcity of the transformation reaction from an oxide to a sulfide must be increased, i.e., the oxide phase should be less likely to react with sulfur contaminants forming sulfides. On the other hand, the oxide phase may need to attract sulfur contaminants to reduce the S⁺ presence on metallic anodes, suggesting that the oxide should be highly active. Similar to the behavior in the design of heterogeneous catalysts, these two criteria may yield a volcano-shaped curve in searching for the best sulfur-tolerant metal/oxide cermet. Specifically, the catalytic activity and stability of suitable oxides correspond to E_{ad}(S⁺) and ΔE of oxide to sulfide transformation, respectively. The high exothermcity of E_{ad}(S⁺) indicates that S⁺ can quickly form oxides, while the high endothermcity of ΔE corresponds to better bulk phase stability of oxides. Thus, the wider the range between E_{ad}(S⁺) and ΔE is, the better is the sulfur tolerance of oxides.

This range between E_{ad}(S⁺) and ΔE may be expanded further by incorporating the regeneration process of S⁺ removal. This is plausible via adding a small amount of oxidants in the fuel to support the regeneration. However, aggressive oxidants like O₂ are likely to react with the H₂ fuel and form H₂O. This redox reaction cannot release electrons to the outside circuit and it will diminish the cell’s performance. Another problem in the regeneration is the overdosing with oxidants that causes oxide formation on metallic anodes, which degrades the anode structure and electrochemical performance. Therefore, a mild oxidant such as H₂O₂ is seen to be more feasible. While the processes of poisoning and regeneration occur simultaneously on the anode, S⁺ may be removed by the co-existing oxidant of water immediately after its formation. Although S⁺ still can be formed on a surface, it requires a relatively high concentration of sulfur contaminants as the adsorbed water consumes part of them. We can consider this phenomenon as one wherein the E_{ad}(S⁺) is virtually reduced from the statistical viewpoint. Therefore, the boundary of clean Ni and S⁺ in Fig. 18 is expected to pull down while that for oxide–sulfide in Fig. 19 is expected to move up so their sulfur tolerance can be improved. This constitutes one of the explanations why the sulfur tolerance can be dramatically enhanced by incorporating Ba(Ce₁₋ₓZrx)O₃-based materials, with high water activity, which is detailed in Section 6.

5.3. Vibrational mode analysis

DFT-based calculations have also been applied to classify the vibrational modes at the Γ point from the crystal symmetry and calculate the corresponding vibrational frequencies from optimized crystal structures. This information is vital to understanding the results of in situ and ex situ vibrational spectroscopy characterizations, which are powerful experimental tools for the study of sulfur–anode interactions. As detailed in Section 4.2.1, spectroscopic techniques like in situ Raman spectroscopy are sensitive to a wide range of reaction species including various bulk nickel sulfides under cell operational conditions. However, the corresponding spectra of these species may be hard to find in the available database. Such much-needed spectroscopic information can be obtained from DFT calculations: the computationally analyzed vibrations can assist for the peak assignment and phase identification from the experimentally acquired spectra to better understand the fundamentals of sulfur–anode interactions.

A successful example of this approach has been shown in the identification of Ni₃S, which is an important bulk phase in sulfur–anode interactions and observed from the in situ (as well as ex situ) Raman spectroscopy (Section 4.1). This nickel-rich sulfide has not been clearly identified from previous
spectroscopic works.\textsuperscript{590,191} On the other hand, our DFT calculation\textsuperscript{155} clearly classifies that the crystal phonons have 6 Raman active modes, 2A\textsubscript{1} + 4E and helps identify the spectra obtained in our \textit{in situ} sulfur-poisoning experiments.\textsuperscript{66,62,152} In addition, spectroscopic information of other important products related to the irreversible sulfur poisoning, such as NiS, Ni,S\textsubscript{4}, and NiS\textsubscript{2}, has also been extensively examined from the DFT calculations.\textsuperscript{155} These results clarify the experimental observations\textsuperscript{192–195} and provide valuable information to further understand sulfur–anode interactions.

6 Incorporation of Ba(\textit{Ce}_{1–\textit{x}} \textit{Zr}_{\textit{x}})O\textsubscript{3}–based materials in Ni-based cermet anode—a new approach to sulfur tolerance

It becomes clear from earlier discussions that most candidate sulfur-tolerant anode materials, which still exhibit some sensitivity even to low concentration (ppm level) of H\textsubscript{2}S, have essentially the same reaction pathway: hydrogen combines with oxygen ion (from the electrolyte) at the triple phase boundary (TPB) to form water at the same geometrical location. This is the case not only for a Ni-YSZ cermet anode but also for the cermet anodes with Ni being replaced by other metals (e.g., Cu) or YSZ being replaced by other oxygen ion conductors (e.g., GDC). The situation remains similar when the whole Ni-YSZ anode is replaced by an electronically conducting oxide (e.g., LST for up to 26 ppm H\textsubscript{2}S or SMMO for 5 ppm). However, the active reaction sites may broaden to zones near the TPB as the oxygen ion conductivity of the conducting metal oxide increases; the wider the reaction zone the higher the oxygen ion conductivity.

The presence of adsorbed sulfur on anode surface would not only block the adsorption and transport of hydrogen on the nickel surface but also impede the formation and evolution of water molecules from the active sites.\textsuperscript{182} Sulfur tolerance is achieved probably through reduced adsorption of sulfur on anode surfaces, especially the metal surface for cermet anodes (e.g., Cu in Cu-ceria-YSZ anode) or the oxide surface for the anodes based on LST or SMMO.

Recently, a very different approach was adopted to achieve better sulfur tolerance: replacing the oxygen ion conductor YSZ in a Ni-YSZ cermet anode by a mixed ion conductor like Ba\textsubscript{1–\textit{y}}Zr\textsubscript{\textit{y}}\textsubscript{1–\textit{z}}Y\textsubscript{\textit{z}}\textsubscript{2–\textit{y}}Y\textsubscript{\textit{y}}\textsubscript{3}O\textsubscript{3} (BZCYYb),\textsuperscript{1} which allows transport of both proton and oxygen vacancy (or ion). This Ni-BZCYYb cermet anode showed superior sulfur tolerance at 750 °C for up to ~20 ppm using a cell based on a BZCYYB electrolyte and up to ~50 ppm using a cell based on samaria doped ceria (SDC) electrolyte. The high performance suggests that the nickel metal in the cermet anode functions as the catalyst and the primary electronic conductor, such high critical \textit{pH}\textsubscript{2}S/\textit{pH}_{2} value is \textit{two to three orders of magnitude higher} than that for a conventional Ni-YSZ cermet anode under similar conditions.\textsuperscript{27} The displayed sulfur tolerance is also significantly better than the cermet anodes with YSZ replaced by other oxygen ion conductors of higher conductivity such as GDC and ScSZ,\textsuperscript{53,106} as described earlier in Section 3.2.

It is also interesting to note that the cell impedance for the Ni-BZCYYb/SDC/LSCF cell shows sulfur poisoning (i.e., increase in total cell interfacial resistance) under open circuit voltage conditions in dry H\textsubscript{2} (i.e., without water vapor) but not in humidified H\textsubscript{2}. While the detailed mechanism for the enhanced sulfur tolerance of the Ni-BZCYYb anode is yet to be determined, it is hypothesized that dissociative adsorption of water on the surface of BZCYYb facilitates the oxidation of the adsorbed sulfur or H\textsubscript{2}S to SO\textsubscript{2} at or near the active sites. As evident from many experimental observations and as stated earlier in Section 5.1.3, water adsorption on the surfaces of BaCeO\textsubscript{3}-based materials (e.g., BZCY or BZCYYb) appears much more energetically favorable than on the surface of ZrO\textsubscript{2} or CeO\textsubscript{2}-based materials. To date, however, it is still not clear how water vapor would facilitate sulfur oxidation on the anode surface under fuel cell conditions. One possibility is the oxidation of adsorbed sulfur (S*) through combination with adsorbed water (H\textsubscript{2}O*) and lattice oxygen to form SO\textsubscript{2} and proton ions (HO\textsubscript{2}–):

\begin{equation}
S^{*} + 2H_{2}O^{*} = SO_{2(g)} + 4(HO)_{o} + 4e^{-}
\end{equation}

This reaction is expected to be slow due to the large number of electrons and reaction species involved. Another simpler hypothetical reaction pathway is the direct reaction between adsorbed water (or related species like dissociated OH) and adsorbed sulfur to form SO\textsubscript{2}:

\begin{equation}
S^{*} + 2H_{2}O^{*} = SO_{2(g)} + 2H_{2(g)}
\end{equation}

As the surface coverage of S* can be relatively high (the S* is firmly adsorbed on the surface) while the concentration of SO\textsubscript{2} is relatively low (it readily desorbed from the surface), the probability for SO\textsubscript{2} and H\textsubscript{2} to react and form H\textsubscript{2}S is relatively low. Finally, a third possibility is related to hydrogen incorporation into the BZCYYb phase, as schematically illustrated in Fig. 20. For the cell structure with Ni-BZCYYb anode and BZCYYb electrolyte, two anodic reaction pathways are at play. The first, designated as R1 here, is the anodic process leading to water generation,

\begin{equation}
H_{2(g)} + O^{*} \rightarrow H_{2}O_{(g)} + V_{o} + 2e'.
\end{equation}

Fig. 20 Schematic showing the two anodic reaction pathways for the Ni-BZCYYb/BZCYYb anode structure under SOFC operating conditions. R1 represents the water generation reaction of H\textsubscript{2} + O\textsubscript{*} \rightarrow H\textsubscript{2}O + V\textsubscript{o} + 2e', which is significantly hindered by the adsorbed sulfur on the electrode surface because of the large size of water molecule that has to be released from the TPB; R2 represents the hydrogen incorporation reaction of H\textsubscript{2} + 2O\textsubscript{*} \rightarrow 2(OH)\textsubscript{0} + 2e' , which may not be affected much by the adsorbed sulfur on the surface because of the small size of hydrogen that is incorporated into the lattice.
This reaction is identical to the dominating anodic reaction at the TPB for a Ni-YSZ cermet anode. The second reaction pathway, designated as R2 here, is the anodic process with hydrogen incorporation:

\[ \text{H}_2(\text{g}) + 2\text{O}_3^+ \rightarrow 2(\text{OH})_3 + 2e^- \]  

(19)

It is hypothesized that for the Ni-BZCYYb anode, water generation reaction R1 may be slowed down significantly due to the geometrical blockage of adsorbed sulfur on the Ni surface and near the TPBs: because the water molecule has relatively large size, the blockage effect of adsorbed sulfur will be large. On the other hand, hydrogen incorporation reaction R2 may not be impeded by the adsorbed sulfur because the size of hydrogen is very small; it might find its way to incorporate into the BZCYYb electrolyte near the TPB.

In contrast, reaction R1 is the only possible pathway for a Ni-YSZ anode since YSZ does not have proton conductivity and, as a result, the sulfur poisoning will be much more significant compared with the Ni-BZCYYb anode. Further experimental and theoretical studies are needed to clarify the exact mechanism for enhanced sulfur tolerance.

It is noted that similar sulfur tolerance has been observed in the dense Ni-BZCY composite membrane for hydrogen separation. The hydrogen permeation flux remained stable at 900 °C when the \( \text{H}_2\text{S} \) concentration was 30 ppm. Thus, Ni cermet anodes with BZCY-based materials may also have similar sulfur tolerance. As reported elsewhere, a small amount of BaO spread to the surface of Ni grains in a Ni-BZCYYb cermet anode during processing at high temperatures may play a vital role in achieving the observed sulfur tolerance. In fact, when nano-sized BaO islands were created on the surface of the Ni grains in a Ni-YSZ cermet anode using a vapor phase deposition, the resistance to coking was dramatically enhanced. The nanostructured BaO/Ni interfaces seem to be very efficient for the water-mediated carbon removal; they also showed good sulfur tolerance while maintaining high performance.

One limitation of BZCY or BZCYYb-based materials is the possible chemical reaction with \( \text{H}_2\text{S} \). For example, BaS was formed when BZCY was exposed to \( \text{H}_2 \) with 60 ppm \( \text{H}_2\text{S} \). Consistent with the prediction shown in Fig. 19. Indeed, the Ni-BZCYYb anode experienced rapid deterioration upon exposure to 100 ppm \( \text{H}_2\text{S}/\text{H}_2 \). Finally, as discussed above, the sulfur tolerance of the BZCY or BZCYYb materials is associated with their ability to adsorb or absorb water. In addition, it is expected that increasing the Zr/Ce ratio may enhance the stability of the Ni-BZCYYb anode toward sulfur poisoning due to the reduced susceptibility towards reaction with \( \text{H}_2\text{S} \).

### 7 Concluding remarks and future prospects

**Sulfur poisoning of Ni-YSZ anode**

The detrimental effect of hydrogen sulfide in the fuel stream for SOFCs is well known and the sulfur poisoning behavior of Ni-YSZ anodes has been extensively studied. Under typical SOFC operating conditions (with low concentration of sulfur contaminants), \( \text{H}_2\text{S} \) quickly dissociates into hydrogen and elemental sulfur. It is the elemental sulfur that strongly adsorbs on the nickel surface and blocks the active sites for electrochemical oxidation of the fuel, leading to increased anode polarization or sulfur poisoning effect. This is supported by the experimental observation of an instant drop in fuel cell performance (or increase in anode polarization resistance) upon exposure of Ni-YSZ anodes to fuels containing \( \text{H}_2\text{S} \) of concentrations well below those predicted for bulk nickel sulfides formation. It is also corroborated by the absence of bulk nickel sulfides on Ni-YSZ anodes in well-designed in situ and ex situ experiments under similar conditions.

The degree or extent of sulfur poisoning is best described by the change in exchange current density or the change in anode polarization resistance (under open circuit conditions) upon exposure to \( \text{H}_2\text{S} \) because they are independent of bias conditions (i.e., current density or cell voltage). The factors that critically influence the degree of sulfur poisoning are \( \text{H}_2\text{S} \) concentration (or the \( \rho\text{H}_2\text{S}/\rho\text{H}_2 \) ratio) and fuel cell operating temperature. Other factors that also influence the observed poisoning behavior include current density, cell voltage, the amount of nickel in the anode, test cell configuration, concentration of other gases (such as \( \text{H}_2\text{O}, \text{CO}_2, \) and \( \text{CO} \)), and the time of exposure, as revealed from various experiments and theoretical analysis.

The poisoning effect is reversible when the \( \text{H}_2\text{S} \) concentration is below the critical value for formation of bulk nickel sulfides. Within this limit, the degradation in performance (or the change in anode polarization resistance) can be completely recovered when \( \text{H}_2\text{S} \) is removed from the fuel, suggesting that the elemental sulfur on the Ni surface can be completely removed. It is noted, however, that the adsorption of sulfur on Ni is much faster than the removal of adsorbed sulfur (S*) from Ni surface. The rate of recovery (or sulfur removal) is faster at a higher operating temperature, in a lower \( \text{H}_2\text{S} \) concentration, and for a shorter period of exposure to \( \text{H}_2\text{S} \). Once nickel sulfides are formed, however, it appears that the degradation in performance can no longer be completely recovered, even long after the removal of \( \text{H}_2\text{S} \) from the fuel, and even though the nickel sulfides may be completely converted back to nickel metal, suggesting that the formation of nickel sulfides may have an irreparable effect on anode performance. Further, other factors like contamination from other cell components (e.g., sealant) and microstructural changes (due to coarsening of porous electrodes) may also induce irreversible effects on anode behavior.

**Alternative anode materials for sulfur tolerance**

Various alternative anode materials and different combinations of them have been examined as sulfur-tolerant anodes for SOFCs. Among them, one prominent group is nickel-free conductive metal oxides, which are perceived to have the potential for solving the problems associated with Ni-based cermet anodes: susceptibility to poisoning by impurities like sulfur, destruction by re-oxidation, and deactivation by carbon deposition in hydrocarbon fuels. While many of them have showed excellent sulfur tolerance with electrolyte-supported cells, their applicability to practical high-performance cells is severely hindered by their low electrical conductivity, poor catalytic activity toward fuel oxidation, and limited compatibility with electrolyte (or other cell components) at high temperatures required for fabrication.
For anodes with Ni replaced by other metals, the main concern is poor performance due to low catalytic activity unless precious metals (e.g., Pt and Pd) are introduced by infiltration. The use of precious metals, however, may not be economically feasible for practical applications. For most metal sulfide based anodes, the main concern is their instability in clean hydrogen fuel.

Ni-BZCYYb cermet anode is unique in the sense that Ni is still active as the catalyst for efficient hydrogen oxidation and as electronic conductor in the anode for current collection. Its excellent sulfur tolerance may be associated with the ability of the BZCYYb material for dissociative adsorption of water, which effectively promotes the removal of adsorbed sulfur from the TPB and enhances the sulfur tolerance. BaO nano-islands are also found on the surfaces of Ni that is co-fired with BZCYYb, which may further facilitate dissociative adsorption of water at the BaO/Ni interfaces and thus promote sulfur removal from the surface of Ni.  

Finally, it is worth mentioning that for all sulfur tolerant anode materials (except probably bulk metal sulfides), there usually appears to be a critical sulfur concentration above which the degradation in cell performance becomes significant.

Achieving sulfur tolerance through surface modification

Although many new anode materials with better sulfur tolerance have been developed, the adoption of these materials in fuel cells is often hindered by their limited compatibility with other cell components (especially at high temperatures required for fabrication), inadequate catalytic activity toward fuel oxidation, and/or insufficient conductivity for current collection. Accordingly, surface modification of Ni-YSZ cermet anodes with proper catalytic coatings remains an attractive option for dramatic enhancement of tolerance to contaminants without compromising performance. It is proven that Ni-YSZ offers the highest performance in clean hydrogen among all materials ever studied for SOFC anodes in addition to its excellent compatibility with the YSZ electrolyte for cost-effective fabrication of anode-supported cells. The best approach is to minimize its sensitivity to sulfur using a very thin catalytic coating that does not significantly affect its activity for hydrogen oxidation and excellent electronic conductivity. In particular, modification of the Ni-YSZ cermet anode by incorporation of oxides via infiltration is a promising route to achieving sulfur tolerance while maintaining high performance. It is important to note, however, that the performance of the infiltrated Ni-YSZ anodes depends critically on the detailed microstructure, composition, morphology, and distribution/dispersion of the catalytic coating on the surface of Ni/YSZ.

**Ex situ and in situ characterizations**

The interactions between sulfur compounds and anode materials for SOFCs have been characterized using various ex situ and in situ characterization techniques. Ex situ characterizations should be performed with great care to avoid complications introduced during sample preparation and transfer because samples may undergo undesirable changes when they are transferred from the actual testing conditions to the analysis chamber for characterization (due to changes in temperature and atmosphere). In contrast, in situ characterizations may be used to directly probe and map surface species or new phases on electrode surface under practical operating conditions, offering valuable information about electrode surface processes in real time. In particular, in situ Raman microspectroscopy is proven unique because it has demonstrated high sensitivity to various bulk and surface species and phases (including sulfides) relevant to sulfur poisoning with reasonable spatial resolution. It can be used to probe and map surface molecular processes or incipient new phase formation relevant to electrode kinetics under practical fuel cell operating conditions. It has been successfully applied to study the (bulk) sulfides formation and related phase transformations, providing valuable information about fundamental mechanisms for the sulfur–anode interactions in SOFCs. Further, when combined with simultaneous electrochemical measurements (e.g., impedance spectroscopy), the surface species or phases identified using Raman spectroscopy can be directly correlated with electrochemical behavior and performance of the electrodes.

In addition, Raman measurements can also be used to validate DFT-based calculations. The vibrational mode frequencies can be calculated from the interaction forces between atoms when displacements are introduced. Comparison of the calculated frequencies with the measured ones from Raman spectroscopy enables the confirmation of the models used for DFT calculations.

**Theoretical calculations**

While significant progress has been made in gaining insights into the mechanisms of the atomistic or molecular processes relevant to the interactions between H₂S and anode surfaces, major challenges still remain to bridge the gaps between models at different scales or between theoretical predictions and experiments. One of the difficulties in application of DFT calculations to prediction of materials properties is related to the errors from the delocalization of electron density and static correlation, especially for materials containing metal ions with open shell d or f electrons. This may affect the calculations of reaction sequence and adsorption energy, but can be corrected by introducing fractional charges or spins to the system. In addition, DOS analysis of some oxides or sulfides with mixed electron distribution might produce fictitious band structures. This problem can be corrected using DFT + U theory with...
suitable intra-atomic parameters of Coulomb and exchange energies.\textsuperscript{203,204}

Furthermore, to assure practically useful results from DFT-based predictions, design factors for the highly complicated electrochemical systems must be examined. One possible way is to apply the quantum mechanics/molecular mechanics (QM/MM) methodology\textsuperscript{205} to model practical sizes with the TPBs; it consists of two input regions, chemically active and non-active ones, treated by the QM and MM approaches, respectively. Fig. 21 schematically illustrates the TPB divided into the two regions. The most active part of the TPB can be modeled using high-accuracy quantum chemical calculations, while the vicinity can be treated with low-cost MM approaches. The QM/MM approach will allow modeling and simulation of larger-scale models over longer times. After clarifying the mechanisms of the H\textsubscript{2}S interaction with anode surfaces at the TPB to design more sulfur-tolerant materials with high catalytic activity and durability, micro-kinetic modeling\textsuperscript{206} or kinetic Monte Carlo (KMC)\textsuperscript{207–209} simulations can be applied to explore the most probable reaction pathway. A prerequisite for making the most of kinetic simulations for these complex systems is to have a reliable prediction of the rate constant for each elementary step involved.\textsuperscript{210,211}

Finally, an atomic force field approach may use parameters derived from DFT calculations and may be combined with molecular dynamics (MD) simulations to study the time-dependent evolution and temperature-dependent properties of anode systems. These atomistic simulations may also provide input phenomenological parameters needed for larger-scale continuum modeling for electrochemical measurements such as impedance spectroscopy. Considerable efforts are still required to develop proper continuum (phenomenological kinetics and transport) models to directly link the predictions from DFT/MD calculations with material performance, to validate model structures, and to estimate material parameters from macroscopic measurements (e.g., catalytic and electrochemical properties). If successful, the local electrochemical response of an anode (governed by the thermodynamics and kinetics of the electrochemical reactions at the interfaces) may be linked to their global behavior by incorporating the effects of the nano- and microstructural geometry of the anode across length scales through a computational framework. These multi-scale modeling and simulation tools are imperative to achieving rational design of anode materials and structures with better sulfur tolerance and higher performance.

\begin{itemize}
  \item **Progress in desulfurization and anticipated sulfur content in typical fuels**

Development in desulfurization of hydrocarbon fuels is important for SOFC research since most current SOFCs still use desulfurizer as a solution to sulfur poisoning. Recent progress in desulfurization is also very encouraging. For example, Toyota Motor Corporation and Asis Seiki have announced successful demonstration of desulfurization unit capable of maintenance-free operation for up to 10 years.\textsuperscript{212} Thus, a review of the state-of-the-art desulfurization technology and related materials would be very useful to researchers in the area of SOFC anode research. Another question is the anticipated level of H\textsubscript{2}S that an SOFC anode should be able to tolerate. Realistically, it may be less practical to push the H\textsubscript{2}S tolerance level far beyond tens of ppm\textsuperscript{213–217} because today's clean natural gas for power generation usually contains sulfur of only up to ~30 ppm and sulfur concentration in diesel and gasoline also drops to the low ppm level. In addition, high sulfur concentration poses severe corrosion and environmental concerns; even if new anode materials can tolerate higher concentration of H\textsubscript{2}S, the fuel cell exhaust containing sulfur compounds (SO\textsubscript{2}, H\textsubscript{2}S, etc.) still needs to be cleaned before being emitted to the air.

\end{itemize}

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