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Chemical stability of poly(phenylene oxide)-based ionomers in an anion exchange-membrane fuel cell environment†

Sapir Willdorf-Cohen,^{‡a} Abhishek N. Mondal,^{‡a} Dario R. Dekel^{‡*ac} and Charles E. Diesendruck^{‡*bc}

In recent years, intense research interest has been focused towards the development of anion exchange membrane fuel cells (AEMFCs) due to their potential to circumvent the need for expensive platinum catalysts, tackling the high cost that impedes mass commercialization of fuel cells. However, AEMFCs are not yet practical due to the low chemical stability of the quaternary ammonium (QA) cationic groups during cell operation. Several functionalized polymers for anion exchange membranes (AEMs), including substituted poly(phenylene oxide) (PPO), have been proposed as suitable ionomeric materials, as they present good stability in strong alkaline solutions. However, while they perform well in *ex situ* stability tests in aqueous solutions, they still present limited performance during AEMFC operation. As the current density in the fuel cell increases, more water is consumed at the cathode side, reducing the hydration level and, in turn, increasing the nucleophilicity of OH⁻ and its capability to attack the QA groups. Here, using our recently reported *ex situ* stability protocol that simulates the low-hydration environment of an AEMFC during operation, the alkaline stability of PPO-based anion exchange ionomers is measured and compared. Good agreement with previously studied QA molecules tested using the same protocol was found. Yet, the degradation processes in these ionomers are further accelerated compared to the small QA molecules as a consequence of the lower polarity of the polymer environment, which further increases the hydroxide reactivity. This study demonstrates the competence of this new *ex situ* stability protocol to test not only QA molecules, but also ionomers and membranes, showing alkaline stability results that are comparable to those obtained in real AEMFC tests.

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1. Introduction

Anion exchange membrane fuel cells (AEMFCs) have been attracting significant attention in the field of energy conversion and storage devices.^{1–5} AEMFCs, working in an alkaline environment, allow the use of metals outside the platinum group as electrocatalysts, significantly reducing cost.^{6–10} AEMFCs operate with a solid electrolyte, allowing much simpler operation and improved performance stability.¹¹ However, there are still a few challenges facing this technology including the development of high performance HOR catalysts,^{10,12,13} as well as the decrease in cell performance due to the carbonation process while using ambient air as a feed gas (containing CO₂).^{14–19} Yet, the most

important challenge in the development of high performance AEMFCs is the issue of chemical stability of anion exchange membranes (AEMs) in an alkaline environment. Given the potential for future commercialization of the technology, AEMs should be stable for several thousands of hours of operation at high current rates. Yet, to this day, AEMs undergo fast and continuous chemical degradation during cell operation.¹⁷ Although new cationic functional groups^{20–24} have been developed and show good stability in alkaline solutions, AEMFC stability has not yet been improved.² It was recently reported that a combination of a high pH environment and low hydration level could explain why anion conducting polymers degrade during cell operation.²⁵ In most *ex situ* studies, alkaline aqueous solutions at high temperatures have been used to simulate the AEMFC environment. In this case, 6 or more water molecules are present per hydroxide, enough to fill the first solvation sphere of the OH⁻ ion.²⁶ In many cases, quaternary ammonium (QA) salts show perfect stability in these tests, but in operational AEMFCs, where microsolvation is reduced, they fail rapidly.²⁷ In an operating AEMFC, water is quickly consumed at the cathode side, producing a significant water gradient through the membrane. As the operating current of the AEMFC increases, the water gradient through the cell increases, and the degradation around the cathode is accelerated.^{2,25,28–30}

^aThe Wolfson Department of Chemical Engineering, Technion-Israel Institute of Technology, Haifa 3200003, Israel. E-mail: dario@technion.ac.il

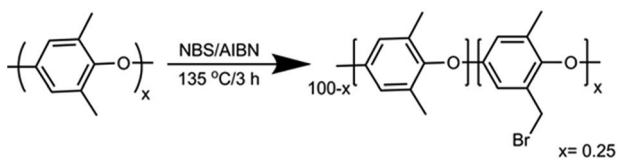
^bSchulich Faculty of Chemistry, Technion-Israel Institute of Technology, Haifa 3200008, Israel. E-mail: charles@technion.ac.il

^cThe Nancy & Stephan Grand Technion Energy Program (GTEP), Technion-Israel Institute of Technology, Haifa 3200003, Israel

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‡ Sapir Willdorf-Cohen and Abhishek N. Mondal contributed equally to this work.





Scheme 1 Synthesis of partially brominated PPO (Br-PPO).



Scheme 2 Preparation of PPO-TMA and PPO-TEA polymers.

2.4 Preparation of a water-free hydroxide solution

The dry potassium hydroxide solution was prepared as recently reported by Dekel *et al.*^{28,29} In a three-necked flask, 18-crown-6 (CE) was heated to 60 °C under argon. Potassium metal, after washing with hexane, was slowly added to the flask to produce a blue solution *via* an exothermic reaction. This solution was slowly titrated using precise additions of Milli-Q water, until the colour changed to brown. The dry potassium hydroxide in crown ether (CE-K)⁺ OH⁻ was cooled down to room temperature and transferred into the glovebox, where it was kept in a closed flask. The solution was prepared by weighing the (CE-K⁺) OH⁻ in the glovebox and dissolving it in dry DMSO-d₆ (500 μL) to form the stock solution (0.6 M).

2.5 Kinetic studies of the QA functionalized polymers

The QA functionalized polymers (0.035 mmol of QA) were dissolved in DMSO-d₆ (450 μL) in the glovebox and brought out in a closed syringe. For experiments under anhydrous conditions ($\lambda = 0$), the (CE-K⁺) OH⁻ stock solution (0.05 mL) was added to a screw cap NMR tube in the glovebox and then, the QA solution (0.45 mL) was injected just before starting the NMR measurements.

For experiments with $\lambda > 0$ ($\lambda = 4$ and 8), the amount of DMSO-d₆ used to dissolve the ionomer was slightly reduced according to the required water volume, which was placed into the screw-cap NMR tube together with the (CE-K⁺) OH⁻ stock solution (0.05 mL) before the addition of the ionomer solution, to achieve the desired λ . The aromatic signals were integrated over time to measure the conversion.

3. Results & discussion

In previous studies, we have shown that trimethylbenzyl ammonium (TMBA) and triethylbenzyl ammonium (TEBA) salts degrade rapidly in the presence of OH⁻ at room temperature as

the water content is reduced.²⁹ When the number of water molecules solvating the hydroxide increases, its nucleophilicity and basicity are reduced and the QA degradation is significantly hindered.²⁸ These results indicated that the currently used aqueous alkali *ex situ* tests to measure AEM stability may lead to false positive stability results where anion conducting polymers may appear to be alkali stable, but would not survive the unique conditions in an operating AEMFC. Here, our new *ex situ* test protocol that combines aggressive alkalinity and very low water content is used, for the first time, to test AEMs, in order to further clarify the importance of the combination of these effects on the chemical stability of QAs in ionomers. Two QA-grafted PPOs are tested: PPO-TMA and PPO-TEA. The degradation of PPO-TMA as a function of time (0.06 M OH⁻, room temperature) with different hydration numbers (λ) is shown in Fig. 1.

As expected, the decomposition rate of PPO-TMA increases as the water content is reduced. While this ionomer is completely stable when $\lambda = 8$, it degrades slowly at $\lambda = 4$ and rapidly in the absence of water ($\lambda = 0$). A pseudo first-order reaction is assumed since the hydroxide is in large excess. The experimental degradation data shown in Fig. 1 were fitted to the following linear equation: $\ln[QA] = \ln[QA]_0 + kt$, where k is the degradation rate constant, and $[QA]$ and $[QA]_0$ are the QA concentrations at a given time t and initial time. The corresponding half-lives were calculated using the relationship $t_{1/2} = \ln 2/k$. Table 2 summarizes the degradation rates and the calculated half-lives for 25% PPO-TMA in 0.06 M OH⁻. In order to obtain a meaningful comparison with TMBA (small molecule), the rate was multiplied by 10 (assuming first order in hydroxide) to obtain the rate in 0.6 M OH⁻, which was used in our previous study.²⁴

No degradation was observed at $\lambda = 8$ in the ionomer or QA with the same TMBA functional group. This again suggests that at adequate hydration levels, the QA can become completely stable at room temperature.^{25,29} The half-lives of PPO-TMA with $\lambda = 0$ and 4 are lower than the values measured previously for TMBA by approximately an order of magnitude at the same OH⁻



Fig. 1 Remaining PPO-TMA fractions as a function of time with hydration number $\lambda = 0, 4$ and 8, in 0.06 M OH⁻ DMSO-d₆ solutions. All tests were done at room temperature.



Table 2 Degradation rate constants and calculated half-lives. Results for TMBA are adopted from the literature^{28,29}

λ	PPO-TMA in 0.06 M OH ⁻		PPO-TMA in 0.6 M OH ⁻		TMBA in 0.6 M OH ⁻ (ref. 28 and 29)	
	$k \times 10^{-3}$ [h ⁻¹]	Half-life [h]	Estimated k [h ⁻¹]	Half-life [h]	$k \times 10^{-4}$ [h ⁻¹]	Half-life [h]
0	7.3	94.9	0.073	9.95	63.8	109
4	0.17	4077.3	0.0017	407.7	2.8	2460
8	~0	>34 000 ^a	~0	>67 000 ^a	~0	>34 000

^a Half-life estimated assuming a maximum degradation of 1% after 975 h.

concentration. This surprising acceleration in the decomposition rate can be rationalized considering the polar environment of the hydroxide. In both cases, both reactants are ionic in nature. In the small molecule QA study, both ions interacted with the DMSO environment, a solvent with a high dielectric constant.²⁸ In the macromolecule, the polymer chain takes up a large hydrodynamic volume around the QAs, and therefore, when the OH⁻ ionically interacts with the QA, its polar environment is reduced compared to the DMSO. Given that the reactants are charged and the product neutral, the reduction in polarity accelerates the reaction, hastening the degradation processes.⁵⁴

Finally, we also tested PPO-TEA in order to further support these observations. PPO-TEA contains QAs which can be compared with TEBA, which has been tested by the same protocol in previous studies.^{28,29} Although both PPO-TEA and PPO-TMA present the same PPO backbone, their QAs degrade differently: PPO-TMA undergoes an S_N2 hydroxide attack

whereas PPO-TEA decomposes by an E2 (Hofmann elimination) mechanism (Scheme 3). In the S_N2 mechanism, the carbon-nitrogen bond electrons move towards the nitrogen while the OH⁻ forms a new bond with the α carbon, producing benzyl alcohol and trimethylamine. Meanwhile, in the Hofmann degradation mechanism, the OH⁻ acts as a base and abstracts the β -hydrogen to the nitrogen. Fig. 2 summarizes the degradation of PPO-TEA measured in 0.06 M OH⁻ at room temperature using different λ values.

As expected, the decomposition rate of PPO-TEA increases as the water content is reduced, following the trend observed for PPO-TMA. In addition, PPO-TEA clearly decomposes much faster than PPO-TMA, by *ca.* an order of magnitude, following the same trend previously observed in TMBA and TEBA salts.^{28,29} In order to compare the decomposition rate of PPO-TEA with that of TEBA, a factor of 22.7 was used to correct for QA and OH⁻ concentrations, assuming first order in each of them. Table 3 summarizes the degradation rates and the calculated half-lives, including the results for TEBA from previous studies for comparison.^{28,29}

Looking initially at $\lambda = 0$, an estimated 50% decomposition is reached at *ca.* 1.9 h if PPO-TEA is at the same concentration as in our previous studies with TEBA. Meanwhile, in the small molecule, the first NMR measurement already showed full decomposition. Nevertheless, looking at $\lambda = 4$ and 8, the macromolecular PPO-TEA again decomposes faster compared



Scheme 3 (a) PPO-TMA degradation through the S_N2 mechanism, and (b) PPO-TEA degradation through the E2 (Hofmann elimination) mechanism.



Fig. 2 Remaining PPO-TEA fractions as a function of time with hydration number $\lambda = 0, 4$ and 8 , in 0.06 M OH⁻ DMSO-*d*₆ solutions. All tests were done at room temperature.



