Analytical Methods

Accepted Manuscript



This is an *Accepted Manuscript*, which has been through the Royal Society of Chemistry peer review process and has been accepted for publication.

Accepted Manuscripts are published online shortly after acceptance, before technical editing, formatting and proof reading. Using this free service, authors can make their results available to the community, in citable form, before we publish the edited article. We will replace this Accepted Manuscript with the edited and formatted Advance Article as soon as it is available.

You can find more information about *Accepted Manuscripts* in the **Information for Authors**.

Please note that technical editing may introduce minor changes to the text and/or graphics, which may alter content. The journal's standard <u>Terms & Conditions</u> and the <u>Ethical guidelines</u> still apply. In no event shall the Royal Society of Chemistry be held responsible for any errors or omissions in this *Accepted Manuscript* or any consequences arising from the use of any information it contains.



www.rsc.org/methods

This paper presents and validates a novel hydrogen impurity enrichment method that can be used for concentrating the impurities in hydrogen to facilitate more routine and cost-effective purity analysis of fuel cell hydrogen



Analytical Methods Accepted Manuscript

Cite this: DOI: 10.1039/c0xx00000x

ARTICLE TYPE

Advancing the analysis of impurities in hydrogen by use of a novel tracer enrichment method

Arul Murugan* and Andrew S. Brown

Received (in XXX, XXX) Xth XXXXXXXX 20XX, Accepted Xth XXXXXXXX 20XX 5 DOI: 10.1039/b000000x

A novel tracer enrichment method for concentrating the impurities in hydrogen has been developed and validated. The method calculates the enrichment factor by spiking the gas mixture with krypton and measuring the change in amount fraction before and after enrichment. This method was compared against an existing non-ideal gas law enrichment method which calculates the enrichment factor by measuring the

¹⁰ change in pressure and temperature of the hydrogen gas mixture. The comparison was achieved by performing tests where both methods were successfully used to calculate the amount fractions of nitrogen, carbon monoxide and methane in a mixture of hydrogen with a known composition. An uncertainty budget for both methods was also developed showing that the new tracer enrichment method gives a lower uncertainty of measurement compared to the non-ideal gas law enrichment method. An additional

15 benefit to using the tracer enrichment method is that accurate measurements can be performed even during an air leak or membrane failure. It was concluded that a combination of both of the two enrichment techniques would form the ideal measurement tool for performing accurate measurement of impurities while being able to detect leaks and monitor the enrichment factor.

1. Introduction

²⁰ With increasing requirements to limit, control and reduce greenhouse gas emissions, hydrogen is globally recognised as a suitable energy vector for powering vehicles (and other small devices). Hydrogen can be employed to power vehicles either by using an internal combustion engine or fuel cell; both of these
²⁵ routes provide clean energy with no carbon emissions (if produced from a renewable source) by reacting the hydrogen with oxygen from the air. Whereas the internal combustion engine is relatively robust in terms of the proportion of impurities that can be present in the fuel, hydrogen fuel cells require very high purity
³⁰ grades of hydrogen in order to prevent deactivation of the

catalyst, which would lead to reduced fuel cell lifetime. Various studies^{1,2} have been performed that have specifically

various studies ¹ have been performed that have specifically investigated the effects of hydrogen impurities on fuel cell lifetime, and more recently the international standard ISO 14687-35 2:2012 has been published, which provides a list of the maximum levels of impurities that can be present in hydrogen for proton exchange membrane (PEM) fuel cell vehicles (Table 1).³ The proposed EC Directive on the deployment of an alternative fuels infrastructure⁴ sets out that "hydrogen refuelling points shall 40 comply with the relevant EN standard, to be adopted by 2014, and, pending publication of this standard, with the technical specifications included in the ISO 14687-2:2012 standard." If hydrogen is therefore to be used as an energy vector for commercial fuel cell vehicles, it is essential that reliable 45 measurements of the purity of hydrogen are available.

Table 1 Maximum impurity levels that should not be exceeded for Pl	EМ
fuel cell hydrogen as specified by ISO 14687-2:2012	

Impurity	Maximum amount fraction (µmol mol ⁻¹)
Water	5
Total hydrocarbons	2
Oxygen	5
Helium	300
Nitrogen	100
Argon	100
Carbon dioxide	2
Carbon monoxide	0.1
Total sulphur compounds	0.004
Formaldehyde	0.01
Formic acid	0.2
Ammonia	0.1
Total halogenated compounds	0.05

Although the standard does also include particulates (at a maximum level of 1 mg kg⁻¹), for the purpose of this paper Table 1 only lists the gaseous impurities specified by the standard. As some impurities such as the reactive components (e.g. sulphur ⁵⁵ compounds and formaldehyde) are much more detrimental to fuel cells compared to other inert components (e.g. helium and nitrogen), these impurities are specified with a challengingly low maximum allowable levels.

The requirement for having to measure several impurities at 60 very low amount fractions makes purity analysis a difficult task. Not only does this require several high performance gas

2

3

4

5

6

7

8

9

10

11

12

13

14

15

16

17

18

19

20

21

22

23

24

25

26

27

28

29

30

31

32

33

34 35

36

37

38

39

40

41 42

43

44

45

46

47

48

49

50

51

52

53

54

55

56

57

58

59 60 analysers,⁵ in some cases the amount fraction of an impurity that would need to be measured may be close to or below the limit of detection of the analyser. If the impurities in the gas were enriched by a known factor this would increase the 5 concentrations of the impurities to levels above the limits of detection, facilitating more routine and accurate analysis.

An enrichment method using a palladium-based membrane has previously been developed by Papadias *et al.* at the Argonne National Laboratory.⁶ In this system, a mixture of impure ¹⁰ hydrogen is contained in a vessel and pure hydrogen is extracted out through a palladium-based membrane leaving the impurities behind (Figure 1). By measuring the changes in pressure and temperature of the gas, the reduction in the amount of hydrogen can be calculated using the non-ideal gas law (equation 1) and ¹⁵ this is used to determine a calculated enrichment factor (CEF) as detailed in Section 2.

$$n = \frac{PV}{ZRT} \tag{1}$$

Where *n* is the amount of gas, *P* is pressure, *V* is volume, *Z* is ²⁰ compressibility factor, *R* is the gas constant and *T* is temperature.

The amount fractions of the impurities in the enriched gas mixture are then measured on a gas analyser and using the CEF the original amount fractions of the impurities can be determined. The methodology and principles behind this process are discussed ²⁵ in more detail in Section 2.



Fig. 1 Principle of the hydrogen impurity enrichment method.

Papadias *et al.* validated the impurity enrichment method by ³⁰ measuring a known gas standard of hydrogen containing a volume fractions of ~2 mL L⁻¹ nitrogen, methane, carbon monoxide and carbon dioxide, the results from which indicated a difference between calculated and measured enrichment factor of less than 3 %. In all of the tests the nitrogen amount fraction was ³⁵ always higher than expected, whereas for methane, carbon monoxide and carbon dioxide the amount fractions were lower than expected. In a further test the enrichment method was validated using a known gas standard containing hydrogen sulphide, nitrogen, methane, carbon monoxide and carbon ⁴⁰ dioxide in hydrogen. The results from this test indicated that there was a loss of hydrogen sulphide during the enrichment process, which lead to a lower enrichment factor compared to the CEF. It was suspected that the hydrogen sulphide had either reacted or adsorbed onto the membrane.

⁴⁵ A similar device called a hydrogen elimination mass spectrometer, has been developed by Bossard *et al.* who have integrated a palladium-based membrane directly into a mass spectrometer.⁷ In this system the impurities are measured by mass spectrometry in selected ion monitoring mode following ⁵⁰ enrichment. A feature that this system also incorporates is the ability to flow pure hydrogen (produced during the enrichment stage) back into the sampling vessel which can then be used to determine if any of the impurities remain in the vessel. This could be particularly important for adsorptive components such as ⁵⁵ hydrogen sulphide.

An aspect of both of the enrichment processes that needs to be investigated in more detail is the uncertainty of the measurements obtained. In order to properly assess this, all of the uncertainty contributions involved in calculating the enrichment factor (including any measurements of pressure, volume and temperature) must be determined and quantified. Determination of the total uncertainty would provide essential information regarding the comparability of the measurements.

Whereas the two enrichment methods discussed above have ⁶⁵ calculated the enrichment factor using the non-ideal gas law, this paper presents and validates a novel 'tracer enrichment method' where the enrichment factor is calculated by accurately measuring the change in the amount fraction of a spiked component (krypton) before and after enrichment, thus ⁷⁰ eliminating any uncertainties from physical measurements (such as pressure, temperature and volume from the calculation). The results from this enrichment method are compared to the nonideal gas law enrichment method devised by Papadias *et al.* A full assessment of the uncertainties for both enrichment methods is ⁷⁵ undertaken.

2. Theory

2.1 Principles of hydrogen impurity enrichment

2.1.1 Non-ideal gas law enrichment method

⁸⁰ The non-ideal gas law enrichment method utilises a palladiumcopper coated palladium-silver alloy membrane to enrich impurities in a sample of hydrogen. The experimental set-up for this method at NPL is shown in Figure 2. The hydrogen gas mixture is filled into two evacuated vessels (V1 and V2) where 85 the second vessel (V2) holds the palladium-based membrane and the valve separating the two vessels (NV2) is closed. The pressures and temperatures of both vessels are measured initially before enrichment. V2 is heated to above 300 °C to activate the membrane, allowing pure hydrogen to permeate out through the ⁹⁰ palladium membrane. Following a reduction in pressure in V2, NV2 is re-opened to introduce more hydrogen from V1. It is important to note that there must be no back-flow of hydrogen from V2 to V1 as this would invalidate the enrichment factor calculation. Also the pressure in V2 must not exceed 20 bar as 95 this can cause damage to the membrane. Following suitable enrichment of the impurities (to levels that can be measured repeatedly on the intended gas analyser), the pressures and temperatures of both vessels are measured again.

Journal Name

1 2 3

4

5

6 7 8

9

10

11

12

13 14

15

16 17 18

19

20

21

22 23

24 25

26

27

28

29

30 31

32

33

34

35

36

37

38

39

40

41

42

43

44

45

46

47

48

49

50

51

52

53

15

20

ARTICLE TYPE



Fig. 2 Schematic diagram of the hydrogen impurity enrichment device used at NPL

As described by Papadias *et al.*⁶ a molar balance of the impurities ⁵ in the system before and after enrichment can be performed to obtain the following equation:

$$y_{I,a}n_{1,a} + y_{I,a}n_{2,a} = y_{I,a}n_{1,b} + y_{I,b}n_{2,b}$$
(2)

where $y_{I,a}$ is the amount fraction of the impurity before ¹⁰ enrichment, $y_{I,b}$ is the amount fraction of the impurity after enrichment and *n* is the amount of gas in either of V1 and V2 in stage a (before enrichment) or stage b (after enrichment).

By rearranging this equation, the calculated enrichment factor (CEF) can be determined:

$$CEF = \frac{y_{I,b}}{y_{I,a}} = \frac{n_{1,a} + n_{2,a} - n_{1,b}}{n_{2,b}}$$
(3)

By substituting in the non-ideal gas law into equation (3), the following can be obtained:

$$CEF = \frac{\left(\frac{P_{1,a}V_1}{Z_{1,a}RT_{1,a}}\right) + \left(\frac{P_{2,a}V_2}{Z_{2,a}RT_{2,a}}\right) - (\frac{P_{1,b}V_1}{Z_{1,b}RT_{1,b}})}{(\frac{P_{2,b}V_2}{Z_{2,b}RT_{2,b}})}$$
(4)

Therefore by determining the pressures, volumes, compressibility factors and temperatures before and after enrichment, these values can be substituted into equation (4) to determine the CEF. Once the CEF is calculated, the amount fraction of the enriched ²⁵ impurity ($y_{l,b}$) can be measured by opening NV3 and NV5, and

analysing the outlet gas. This value along with the CEF can be substituted into equation (3) to solve for $y_{I,a}$ (the original amount fraction of the impurity). More detailed information on the nonideal gas law enrichment method can be found in the paper of ³⁰ Papadias *et al.*⁶

2.1.2 Tracer enrichment method

The non-ideal gas law enrichment method described in Section 35 2.1.1 uses the measurement of various physical properties such as pressure, temperature and volume to calculate the CEF, and because there are a number of variables (each with a contributing uncertainty), one might expect a large overall uncertainty for the CEF. One strategy for reducing this uncertainty would be to ⁴⁰ minimise the number of variables in equation (4) or to use a method with different variables that would contribute less uncertainty. The novel tracer enrichment method described in this paper eliminates the need for measurement of physical properties to determine the CEF by introducing an inert gas into the sample ⁴⁵ before enrichment. The amount fraction of tracer gas is analysed immediately before enrichment and again following enrichment to determine the CEF (Figure 3).

The component selected as a tracer must not be expected to be present in the sample and, most importantly, it must be an inert ⁵⁰ gas so as not to adsorb or react in the sampling vessel under high temperatures or in the presence of the palladium-based membrane. Krypton and neon are suitable tracers that meet these criteria.

4

5

6 7 8

9 10

11 12 13

14 15 16

17 18

19

20

21 22

23 24

25

26

27 28 29

30 31

32

33

34

35 36

37

38

39

40

41

42

43

44

45

46

47

48

49

50

51

52

53

54

55

56

57

58

59 60



www.rsc.org/xxxxxx





Fig. 3 Schematic diagram of the tracer enrichment method

air leak.

The equation for determining CEF using the tracer enrichment ⁵ method can be expressed by:

$$CEF = \frac{y_{Kr,b}}{y_{Kr,a}} = \frac{1}{y_{Kr,a}} \frac{A_{Kr,b}}{A_{Kr,st}} b y_{Kr,st}$$
(5)

where $y_{Kr,a}$ is the amount fraction of krypton in the unenriched gas mixture, $y_{Kr,b}$ is the amount fraction of krypton in the ¹⁰ enriched gas mixture, $y_{Kr,st}$ is the amount fraction of krypton in the calibration standard (used to calibrate the analyser), $A_{Kr,b}$ is the response measured on the analyser for krypton after enrichment, $A_{Kr,st}$ is the response measured on the analyser for the krypton in the calibration standard and *b* is a correction factor ¹⁵ for the linearity of the detector. In this work *b* was set to 1 but the term has been included in equation (5) to allow a component of uncertainty for this term to be included in the uncertainty budget.

Using this alternative approach to determine the CEF, each term in equation (5) may have a small associated uncertainty if ²⁰ the calibration standard is prepared to a high accuracy and the analyser can provide repeatable results. National Measurement Institutes such as the National Physical Laboratory can provide highly accurate and traceable primary reference gas standards using gravimetric preparation techniques which ensure that the ²⁵ relative uncertainty of the amount fractions of the components in the calibration gas standard are often less than 0.2%.⁸ Gas analysers such as gas chromatography with pulsed discharge helium ionisation (GC-PDHID) or mass spectrometry (GC-MS) detectors can be used to measure multiple impurities in one

30 method with low standard deviations for the measurements.

When using membranes to perform impurity enrichment, there are certain unavoidable circumstances that would affect the enrichment measurement. This could include:

- 1) failure of the membrane producing a leak,
 - 2) air leaks into the enrichment vessels,
 - 3) back-flow of gas from V2 into V1.

Membrane failure can be a common occurrence when operating 40 systems at high temperatures and pressures due to the applied stress that is subjected to the membrane as it expands and contracts. Air leaks may also occur due to expansion of the vessel connections at high temperatures.

All three of the issues listed would affect the CEF calculated 45 by the non-ideal gas law enrichment method and, importantly, there would be no indication that any of these issues had occurred simply by examining the experimental data. However, for the tracer enrichment method, none of these issues would affect the CEF calculation because the amount fraction of tracer in the gas 50 mixture will be affected in an identical way to the impurities (covariance). This essentially means that any external effects that are applied to the impurities (such as loss of impurities through membrane cracks or dilution of impurities by air) would also be subjected to the tracer compounds in the same manner, allowing 55 the CEF to still be calculated. The only components that would not be accurately determined are nitrogen and oxygen during an In addition to not being affected by leaks, the CEF for the tracer enrichment method is based on a change in amount fraction of the tracer compound and therefore it is also not affected if gas s accidentally flows back from V2 into V1.

3. Material and methods

3.1 Equipment

10

1

2

3

4

5

6

7

8

9

10

11

12

13

14

15

16

17

18

19

20

21

22

23

24

25

26

27

28

29

30

31

32

33

34

35

36

37

38

39

40

41

42

43

44

45

46

47

48

49

50

51

52

3.1.1 Hydrogen impurity enrichment device

The experimental set-up for performing hydrogen impurity enrichment is based on the work performed by Papadias et al.⁶ and a schematic is shown in Figure 2. The set-up comprises of two Sulfinert®-treated sampling vessels (Thames Restek, UK) 15 with nominal volumes of 1000 cm³ (V1) and 300 cm³ (V2). A palladium-silver alloy coated with palladium-copper (REB Research & Consulting, USA) was selected as a suitable membrane for performing enrichment of impurities in hydrogen whilst preventing adsorption of reactive components. The 20 membrane was attached inside V2 so that the majority of the membrane sat inside the vessel and one end was connected to a flow meter to allow the flowrate of the permeated hydrogen to be monitored and vented. Heating tape and a controller (Omega Engineering Limited, UK) was used to heat the outside of V2 to 25 allow the membrane inside to reach 300 °C. Two thermocouples placed inside the membrane and outside of the vessel (underneath

the heating tape), were used to monitor the temperatures and determine the temperature gradient within V2. Pressure transducers (Omega Engineering Limited, UK) were connected to 30 both vessels to monitor the pressures. All tubing and parts were

Sulfinert®-treated wherever possible to prevent adsorption of impurities to surfaces.

Before commencing the enrichment experiment evacuation of the vessels were performed using a combination of scroll vacuum ³⁵ pump followed by turbomolecular pump with penning gauge (Oerlikon Leybold, UK) and residual gas analyser (Kurt J. Lesker, UK) to monitor pressure and the moisture and air within

the vessel. The vessels were evacuated down to 1 x 10⁻⁶ mbar and then pressurised with the gas mixture, this was repeated at least 40 three times before starting the enrichment process to fully purge the system.

3.1.2 Gas analysis techniques

⁴⁵ The enrichment device can be used in conjunction with any analytical method that can be used to perform hydrogen purity analysis. ISO 14687-2:2012 lists several instruments that could be used which includes gas chromatography with various detectors, cavity ringdown spectrometry and Fourier-transform ⁵⁰ infrared spectroscopy.³ For the studies performed in this paper an

Agilent 7890A GC-PDHID (Agilent, UK) was used to perform

accurate measurements of nitrogen, methane, carbon monoxide and krypton in hydrogen at the range of 1-200 μmol mol⁻¹. The GC contained HayeSep A, Molsieve 5A PLOT and Rt®-Q-Bond ⁵⁵ columns (Restek, UK). A single method was developed to measure all four components in one run and a heart-cutting technique was applied to split and divert the majority of the hydrogen matrix away from the detector to improve resolution in order to effectively measure the other analytes.⁹ A typical ⁶⁰ chromatogram for a mixture containing ~2 µmol mol⁻¹ of oxygen, nitrogen, methane and carbon monoxide in hydrogen is shown in Figure 4.



Fig. 4 Example GC-PDHID chromatogram from the measurement of a calibration gas standard containing $\sim 2 \ \mu mol \ mol^{-1}$ of oxygen, nitrogen, methane and carbon monoxide in hydrogen

Alternate injection of the standard and enriched gas mixture was performed to incorporate any effects of detector drift and the 70 standard uncertainties were determined using the

3.1.3 Hydrogen gas mixtures and calibration gas standards

Gas standards of hydrogen were prepared gravimetrically in 10 ⁷⁵ litre cylinders (BOC, UK) in accordance with ISO 6142:2001¹⁰ from pure hydrogen (Air Products), nitrogen (Air Products, UK), carbon monoxide (Scott Speciality Gases, UK), methane (CK Gases, UK) and krypton (BOC, UK). Any impurities that were detected in these pure gases were quantified and these values ⁸⁰ were then incorporated into the final determination of the gas mixture compositions and uncertainties. For the purpose of this paper the gas standards that were used to perform the enrichment experiments will be referred to as gas mixtures, and the gas standards that were used to calibrate the analytical instruments ⁸⁵ will be referred to as calibration gas standards. Before use, the gas mixtures were verified against traceable primary reference gas standards. A list of the gas mixtures used is shown in Table 2.

ARTICLE TYPE

Cite this: DOI: 10.1039/c0xx00000x

www.rsc.org/xxxxxx

Table 2 Hydrogen gas mixtures used in the enrichment tests

Ν		Aixture A	Mix	Mixture B	
Component	Amount fraction	Gravimetric uncertainty ^a	Amount fraction	Gravimetric uncertainty ^a	
Carbon monoxide / µmol mol-1	1.8962	0.0074	1.4225	0.0044	
Krypton / µmol mol ⁻¹	1.8747	0.0054	1.4064	0.0022	
Methane / µmol mol ⁻¹	2.0077	0.0080	1.5063	0.0048	
Nitrogen / µmol mol ⁻¹	2.0234	0.0734	1.5371	0.0880	

^a Expanded uncertainties based on standard uncertainties multiplied by a coverage factor k = 2, providing a coverage probability of approximately 95 %

5 3.2 Enrichment methods

3.2.1 Non-ideal gas law enrichment method

The hydrogen impurity enrichment device was set up as shown in Figure 2 and leak tested. The cylinder containing the gas mixture to be enriched was connected to the device inlet and the entire system including sampling inlet was evacuated through NV6 down to 1 x 10⁻⁶ mbar (with NV1, NV2 and NV3 open). NV3 was then closed and the vessels were left to reach room temperature. The gas cylinder containing the hydrogen mixture the pressure would reach 20 bar) after which NV2 was closed to allow V1 to fill to approximately 100 bar.

Once the vessels were filled, NV1 was closed and the system was again left to reach room temperature. The pressures and 20 temperatures of the vessels were checked to ensure that the system had reached equilibrium and then these values were recorded. The heater for V2 was activated to allow the membrane to reach 300 °C. This allowed hydrogen from V2 to pass through the membrane and by opening NV4 the outlet flowrate was 25 measured, this was usually above 100 ml min⁻¹ at standard temperature and pressure (STP). Once the pressure in V2 had dropped close to 5 bar, NV2 was temporarily opened to allow the pressure to increase to 20 bar. This was repeated until the pressures in both vessels had reached a suitable pressure (~9 bar) ³⁰ for providing a high enrichment factor whilst leaving enough gas for performing analysis. NV2 and NV4 were then closed and the heater was turned off. The final pressure and temperatures were recorded once the system had cooled down to room temperature and reached equilibrium. This process typically required 4-5 35 hours but further optimisation of the system could by performed, for example by selecting a membrane with higher permeation rates, which would reduce this time.

To calculate the CEF, the recorded measurements of the pressure and temperature (along with volumes and 40 compressibility factors) were substituted into equation (4) and the composition of the enriched gas mixture (V2) was measured by

flowing gas from NV5 (with NV6 closed and NV3 open) directly into the GC-PDHID.

45 3.2.2 Tracer enrichment method

The tracer enrichment method used the same system and procedure as the non-ideal gas law enrichment method (as described in Section 3.2.1).

For the purpose of validating the tracer enrichment method, the amount fractions of krypton in the hydrogen mixtures are known from their gravimetric preparation, whereas in practice the krypton would be added to the hydrogen sample obtained by the laboratory. The krypton amount fraction (before enrichment) ⁵⁵ would then by measured using the analyser. A contribution has been included into the uncertainty budget to account for this (Section 4.2).

4. Results and discussion

4.1 Tracer enrichment method validation

60 Validation of the tracer enrichment method was performed using gravimetrically prepared gas mixtures containing nominally 1.5 -2 μ mol mol⁻¹ of carbon monoxide, methane and nitrogen. The gravimetric amount fractions and uncertainties of the two mixtures used are listed in Table 2. In addition to measuring the 65 krypton amount fraction after enrichment, the pressures and temperatures of both vessels before and after enrichment were recorded in order to also enable the non-ideal gas law enrichment method to also be used. These measurements were additionally used as a simple way of monitoring the CEF during the 70 experiment to ensure an enrichment factor of approximately 60 had been obtained. The CEFs calculated from both enrichment methods are shown in Table 3. Table 4 shows the gravimetric amount fractions of the impurities in mixtures A and B and the calculated amount fractions using both of the enrichment 75 methods.

_ ז	
1	
4	
5	
6	
7	
8	
à	
10	
10	
11	
12	
13	
14	
15	
16	
47	
17	
18	
19	
20	
21	
22	
22	
23	
24	
25	
26	
27	
28	
20	
29	
30	
31	
32	
33	
34	
35	
20	
30	
37	
38	
39	
40	
41	
12	
-ד∠ ⁄\?	
43	
44	
45	
46	
47	
48	
<u>4</u> 0	
50	
50	
51	
52	
53	
54	
55	
56	
50	
ວ/ ເດ	
58	
59	

^a k

12

Table 3 CEFs calculated by the non-ideal gas law and tracer enrichment method	Table 3	CEFs calculated h	v the non-ideal	gas law and tra	cer enrichment method
--	---------	-------------------	-----------------	-----------------	-----------------------

	Mixture A		Mixture B	
Measurement	Before enrichment	After enrichment	Before enrichment	After enrichment
V1 Pressure / bar	79.55	10.57	92.48	11.38
V1 Temperature / °C	21.2	19.0	17.5	18.9
V1 Volume / cm ³	1065	1065	1065	1065
V2 Pressure / bar	10.50	3.91	21.63	4.31
V2 Temperature / °C	21.2	19.0	17.5	18.9
V2 Volume / cm ³	310	310	310	310
CEF (non-ideal gas law)	58.	69	65.	73
Krypton amount fraction / µmol mol ⁻¹	1.87^{a}	106.72 ^{<i>b</i>}	1.41 ^{<i>a</i>}	56.04 ^{<i>b</i>}
CEF (tracer)	56.	92	39.	84
Krypton amount fraction calcu	lated gravimetrically ^b Krypt	on amount fraction calculated	from analysis	

|--|

	Calculate	d amount fraction of M	Aixture A	Calculate	d amount fraction of M	Aixture B
	Gravimetric amount fraction	Non-ideal gas law enrichment method	Tracer enrichment method	Gravimetric amount fraction	Non-ideal gas law enrichment method	Tracer enrichment method
Carbon Monoxide / µmol mol ⁻¹	1.896	1.697 (-10.5 %)	1.749 (-7.8 %)	1.423	0.949 (-33.3 %)	1.565 (+10.0 %)
Methane / µmol mol ⁻¹	2.008	2.027 (+1.0 %)	2.090 (+3.1 %)	1.506	0.972 (-35.5 %)	1.603 (+6.4 %)
Nitrogen / µmol mol ⁻¹	2.023	2.123 (+4.9 %)	2.189 (+8.2 %)	1.537	1.576 (+2.5 %)	2.599 (+69.1 %)

^a Values in brackets represent the percentage difference from the gravimetric amount fractions.



Fig. 5 Calculated amount fractions of carbon monoxide, methane 10 and nitrogen in Mixture A using the non-ideal gas law and tracer enrichment methods

Figure 5 shows the calculated amount fractions from the enrichment test using mixture A. This indicates that both of the ¹⁵ enrichment methods obtained results that were close to the gravimetric amount fractions for all three impurities with a maximum variance of 0.199 μmol mol⁻¹ (a relative difference of 10.5 %) for the non-ideal gas law enrichment method when

measuring carbon monoxide. In comparison to the non-ideal gas 20 law enrichment method, the tracer enrichment method gave results with slightly lower variance from the gravimetric amount fractions (a maximum difference of 8.2 % for the measurement of nitrogen). However, comparatively there appears to be little difference to the results obtained using both methods. One 25 important point to note is that the measurements obtained for the non-ideal gas law enrichment method have a much larger uncertainty compared to the tracer enrichment method (this will be discussed in more detail in Section 4.2). Because of this, the measurements for methane and nitrogen using the non-ideal gas 30 law agreed with the gravimetric amount fractions within the assigned uncertainty. In the case of carbon monoxide, it is apparent that neither enrichment method produced results that agreed with the gravimetric amount fraction within the uncertainty of the measurement.

The reasons for this may not be entirely due to errors in the CEF calculation. An increase in nitrogen amount fraction was observed during the experiments performed by Papadias *et al.* and although it was not explained in the paper this could have been caused by an air leak. This may not be unexpected 40 considering that the high temperatures applied to V2 could have caused expansion and contraction of the connecting pipework and connections. However, this factor alone is not likely to explain the lower amount fraction calculated for carbon monoxide (also experienced by Papadias *et al.*). The reason for this could be due

2

3

4

5

6

7

8

9

10

11

12

13

14

15

16

17

18

19

20

21

22

23

24

25

26

27

28

29

30

31

32

33

34

35

36

37

38

39

40

41

42

43

44

45

46

47

48

49

50

51

52

53

54

55

56

57

58

59 60 3.0

to carbon monoxide adsorption onto the palladium membrane.¹¹ Another explanation could be that reactions had occurred between the impurities, this is entirely possible considering that the impurities are subjected to temperatures as high as 300 °C in 5 the presence of catalytic metals. The Boudouard reaction¹² is viable at temperatures below 700°C, which could explain the under-measurement in carbon monoxide:

$$2CO_{(g)} \to CO_{2(g)} + C_{(s)} \tag{6}$$

Another possible explanation is the production of other ¹⁰ components, for example methanol, which could occur *via* the following reaction¹³:

$$CO_{(g)} + 2H_{2(g)} \rightarrow CH_3OH_{(g)} \tag{7}$$

Papadias *et al.* also listed several other reactions that were possible which would change the composition of the impurities in ¹⁵ the gas mixture resulting in a loss of carbon monoxide.⁶ Although it was noted that these reactions may have occurred, this was not confirmed during the tests because the analytical method used did not measure the products of these proposed reactions such as carbon dioxide, water or methanol.

²⁰ Whereas the tracer enrichment test with mixture A gave a carbon monoxide amount fraction lower than the gravimetric value, during the test using mixture B (see Figure 6), the measurement of carbon monoxide using the tracer enrichment method was shown to be slightly higher than the gravimetric ²⁵ amount fraction.



Fig. 6 Calculated amount fractions of carbon monoxide, methane and nitrogen in Mixture B using the non-ideal gas law and tracer enrichment methods

As the amount fraction of carbon monoxide in mixture B is lower than in mixture A, it is possible that carbon monoxide may have adsorbed onto the vessel or membrane during the enrichment test ³⁵ using mixture A and subsequently desorbed in the presence of mixture B. Alternatively there could have been an additional component of uncertainty that was not considered and incorporated into the uncertainty calculation.

40 4.2 Uncertainties

Even if the hydrogen impurity enrichment device does succeed at correctly determining an impurity amount fraction, the result alone is meaningless unless it is associated with a determination of the uncertainty. Ideally the uncertainty will be suitably low but

⁴⁵ in the case of impurity enrichment even a measured value with a relatively large uncertainty is favoured over using an analyser that is not able to detect the impurity at all (a value associated with the limit-of-detection would be provided instead). The uncertainties for both of the enrichment methods discussed in

⁵⁰ Section 2.1 can be calculated from the uncertainties in each of the parameters that form the CEF measurement equation by use of an uncertainty budget. Full details regarding determination of measurement uncertainty are given in the Guide to Uncertainty in Measurement.¹⁴

⁵⁵ Uncertainty budgets have been developed to calculate the overall expanded uncertainty for both methods based on a 60-fold enrichment of 2 µmol mol⁻¹ of nitrogen, methane, carbon monoxide and krypton in hydrogen at 120 bar. The data used for the uncertainty budget were those obtained from the enrichment ⁶⁰ test performed in Section 4.1 using mixture A. The results of the uncertainty budget are shown in Table 5, and Figures 7 and 8a show the main contributors to the uncertainty for both enrichment methods. Figure 8b shows a summary of the individual uncertainties that were combined to calculate the overall ⁶⁵ uncertainty for $n_{2,a}$ in Figure 8a.

For the tracer enrichment method the CEF is calculated using equation (5). As the purpose of the enrichment tests was to validate the tracer enrichment method, the krypton amount fraction in the gas mixture $(y_{Kr,a})$ was determined ⁷⁰ gravimetrically instead of by analysis (which would be done in practice), therefore a 0.5 % relative uncertainty was assigned to $y_{Kr,a}$ as a reasonable estimation for GC-PDHID repeatability. A relative uncertainty of 0.2 % was assigned to *b* to account for non-linearity of the GC-PDHID system. As Figure 7 shows, the ⁷⁵ main contributors to the uncertainty are $A_{Kr,b}$, $A_{Kr,st}$ and $y_{Kr,a}$ and this is due to the repeatability of the GC-PDHID. The uncertainty of $y_{Kr,st}$ is low as this is associated with the gravimetric uncertainty of the krypton amount fraction in the calibration gas standard.

The uncertainty contributions for the non-ideal gas law enrichment method shown in Figure 8b were generally determined using information provided by the suppliers of the equipment used to construct the enrichment device. For measurement of the pressure and temperature, the main 85 uncertainties were a result of instrument calibration and resolution. For the thermocouples an uncertainty in temperature of ±5 K was assigned to account for temperature gradients within the sampling vessel. For the volume measurements of V1 and V2 (where a large uncertainty of 10 cm³ was provided by the 90 supplier) the uncertainties were determined by filling the evacuated vessels with 100 bar of pure nitrogen gas and measuring the change in mass. The volume could then be determined using the non-ideal gas law as shown by equation (1). Compressibility was calculated using the Soave-Redlick-Kwong 95 equation¹⁵ and the obtained compressibility factors were validated against chemical reference data.16,17 The overall uncertainty for the compressibility factor was high because the Soave-Redlick-Kwong equation involved components of the pressure and temperature, both of which possessed a significant uncertainty.

 s Table 5 CEFs and uncertainties determined for the enrichment tests performed with mixture A

Enrichment method	CEF	Uncertainty ^a
Non-ideal gas law	58.69	2.6
Tracer	56.92	1.0

^a Expanded uncertainties based on standard uncertainties multiplied by a coverage factor k=2 (providing a coverage probability of approximately 95%).



Fig. 7 Contributing factors to the overall uncertainty for the tracer enrichment method (represented by equation (5))







Although both enrichment methods have performed successful ²⁵ measurements, the uncertainty budgets presented in this section indicate that the tracer enrichment method performs a more accurate analysis by providing a ~60 % lower relative uncertainty for CEF compared to the non-ideal gas law enrichment method.

30 4.3 Air leak and membrane failure

Figure 5 shows that both enrichment methods performed sufficiently well to quantify the three impurities in mixture A. The results from using mixture B (Figure 6), however, indicated that this test had not occurred as expected, with an amount ³⁵ fraction much lower than the gravimetric value being measured for carbon monoxide and methane using the non-ideal gas law enrichment method. A higher amount fraction for nitrogen than the gravimetric value was measured using the tracer enrichment method. A reason for these results could be that an air leak had ⁴⁰ occurred during enrichment - this was confirmed by observing a response on the GC-PDHID chromatogram corresponding to an amount fraction of oxygen at around 5 μmol mol⁻¹ in the enriched gas mixture.

A high pressure leak test was performed at room temperature 45 before using the enrichment device and this indicated that all of the connections were sufficiently leak free, however when V2 was subjected to a higher temperature it is possible for a small air leak to have occurred at one of the connections. This could have allowed some of the hydrogen (including impurities) to escape 50 and air to enter the system, which in turn would increase the amount fraction of nitrogen in the gas mixture (as confirmed by the tracer enrichment method calculation). For the non-ideal gas law enrichment method this would reduce the actual enrichment factor (hence the under-estimation of the amount fractions of 55 carbon monoxide and methane). A molar balance of the enrichment system was performed by calculating amount of gas lost during enrichment (obtained from the non-ideal gas law enrichment method results) and the amount of air added to the system (obtained from the tracer enrichment method results). The $_{60}$ molar balance indicated that 9.2 x 10^{-3} moles of hydrogen were lost through a leak and 2.1×10^{-6} moles of air entered the system during enrichment, thus confirming the air leak.

Even though the results indicate that an air leak had occurred, it is evident that the measurements of carbon monoxide and 65 methane by the tracer enrichment method were still accurate,

58 59 60 which is explained by the co-variance phenomenon as detailed in Section 2.1.2: the loss of hydrogen through the leak would also allow a small loss of impurities, but it would be expected that the ratio of carbon monoxide and methane to krypton would remain 5 the same. As the tracer enrichment method calculates the CEF by measuring the difference in krypton amount fraction before and after enrichment, this value is still valid for determining the amount fractions of carbon monoxide and methane. However, this would not apply for measurement of nitrogen (or oxygen) as 10 the addition of air from the atmosphere into the system would not be accounted for during calculation of the tracer enrichment method CEF. For the non-ideal gas law enrichment method, the loss of gas mixture through the leak would result in an erroneously high CEF for all components (except for nitrogen 15 and oxygen if measured). This is because it would assume that the gas that was lost by the leak was actually permeation of hydrogen out of the vascel through the palladium membrane. The

- erroneously high CEF for all components (except for nitrogen 15 and oxygen if measured). This is because it would assume that the gas that was lost by the leak was actually permeation of hydrogen out of the vessel through the palladium membrane. The results also indicate that during an air leak the measurement obtained for nitrogen as calculated by the non-ideal gas law 20 enrichment method agreed well with the gravimetric value. However, the molar balance indicates that the change in CEF during an air leak was predominantly influenced by the loss of hydrogen rather than the influx or air, so the matching result is most probably a co-incidence.
- The results therefore show that a major difference between the 25 two enrichment methods is that whereas the non-ideal gas law enrichment method may not be able to accurately quantify measurements of impurities during an air leak, the tracer enrichment method would be able to do so due to the co-variance 30 phenomenon. However, during an air leak use of the tracer enrichment method alone would not allow accurate quantification of nitrogen and air (because the leak would not be detected), so the ideal solution would be to perform enrichment using both methods, where quantification of the impurities are performed 35 using the tracer enrichment method and the non-ideal gas law enrichment method is used to identify any possible air leak and monitor the CEF during enrichment. If an air leak did occur, the tracer enrichment method could still be used to measure the amount fraction of all of the impurities apart from nitrogen and 40 oxygen.

This approach would also work well in the case of a membrane failure, which is shown by the results in Figure 9 where a second experiment was performed using mixture A. During this experiment, the pressure in the vessels dropped at a similar rate as ⁴⁵ in the previous experiments, but as Figure 9 shows the results from the non-ideal gas law enrichment method were very different to both the tracer enrichment method results and the gravimetric amount fractions of the impurities in the gas mixture.

According to the tracer enrichment method the CEF was less ⁵⁰ than 3 even though the non-ideal gas law enrichment method gave a CEF of around 57. This is evidence that a major leak had occurred, and is more likely to have been a leak through the membrane rather than at the vessel connections as a molar balance suggests that the influx of air into the system was ⁵⁵ negligible (2.33 x 10⁻⁶ moles) compared to the amount of gas mixture lost (0.0915 moles). As the enrichment factor was very low the amount fractions measured after enrichment were also low (therefore the signals were noisier) leading to larger uncertainties for the tracer enrichment method during analysis ⁶⁰ compared to the previous tests (as shown by the large error bars for the tracer enrichment method results in Figure 9).

Following this test, the palladium membrane was removed from V2 and was found to have deformed. Figure 10(a) shows an image of the membrane before use where it was straight with a ⁶⁵ very smooth surface. Following the second enrichment test using mixture A, the membrane had changed shape and the surface had become corrugated (Figure 10(b)). Although part of the membrane was damaged during the removal of the membrane from V2 (as the membrane had become fragile and coiled so 70 would no longer slide out easily), there was no clear evidence of membrane cracking which would only be expected to be observed using advanced optical techniques such as scanning electron microscopy. However, as Figure 10(b) shows it is clear that the membrane had experienced buckling collapse.



Fig. 9 Calculated amount fractions of carbon monoxide, methane and nitrogen from the second experiment with mixture A using the non-ideal gas law and tracer enrichment methods

Analytical Methods Accepted Manuscript



Fig. 10 Membrane used in enrichment device (a) before use and (b) following suspected membrane failure

Membranes such as the one used in this enrichment device are 5 not usually required to be replaced on a frequent basis and theoretically would only be damaged if the conditions applied to the membranes were not in compliance with their operating specifications. However, even when using the standard operating conditions there is no guarantee that the membrane would not 10 fail. Membrane failure could occur if the user accidentally exceeds the maximum pressure, another part of the device becomes faulty or if the membrane itself was damaged before placing into the device. If the tracer enrichment method is not used in parallel with the non-ideal gas law enrichment method, 15 there would be no way of identifying when there is membrane failure. This confirms the importance of using both enrichment methods simultaneously as this allows the membrane to be replaced as soon as failure is detected and before erroneous results are produced.

4.4 Enhancing enrichment

The novel tracer enrichment method presented in this paper has significantly advanced existing hydrogen enrichment techniques, but there are additional modifications that could lead 25 to further improvement. As an example, the enrichment factors achieved in this paper did not exceed 60. The enrichment factor is limited by the amount of the gas mixture that is contained in the device, which is dictated by the starting pressures of the gas mixture and the volumes of the vessels. As an example, the 30 pressure of the gas in V1 could theoretically be increased to maximise enrichment as long as the safe working pressure of the vessels is not exceeded. Another solution would be to reduce the volume and final pressure (following enrichment) of V2 but this could lead to problems during measurement of the enriched 35 impurities as there would be a very small amount of gas mixture left to perform analysis of the enriched gas mixture. One viable solution may be to increase the volume of V1. For example, replacing V1 with a 10 litre gas cylinder (containing the hydrogen sample at the same initial pressure) would lead to a ~9-fold 40 increase in enrichment. Indeed even a 50 L gas cylinder could be used instead which would allow a theoretical enrichment factor of above 2000. The feasibility of using higher volumes or pressures

would be dependent on whether it would be possible to attain such samples from a hydrogen refueller every time a purity ⁴⁵ analysis is required. Bossard *et al.* installed the hydrogen enrichment chamber within a mass spectrometer, which allowed measurement of the impurities within the chamber at very low pressures (less than 1 x 10⁻⁷ mbar). Enabling the vessel pressure to drop this low during enrichment is a very effective way of ⁵⁰ increasing the enrichment factor. Using this set-up, high enrichment factors could be achieved using small samples of hydrogen that can be easily taken from hydrogen refuellers (e.g. 15 bar sample in a 1 L vessel).

Another aspect of the hydrogen enrichment device worthy of ⁵⁵ further investigation is the behaviour of the impurities during enrichment, which may include adsorption of components (e.g. sulphur compounds) onto the vessel or membrane and sidereactions that may occur between the impurities. These effects may ultimately be avoided by selection of an appropriate ⁶⁰ membrane. For the tests performed in this paper a palladiumsilver alloy coated with palladium-copper membrane was used but it could be possible to utilise other types of membranes which may prevent adsorption of components such as sulphur compounds or speed up the enrichment process by providing ⁶⁵ faster permeation rates. It may also be possible to avoid using membranes entirely by utilising alternative separation techniques such as pressure swing adsorption.¹⁸

The work in this paper has focused on performing enrichment of impurities in hydrogen, but the same method could be applied 70 to other gases simply by selecting a different membrane. As an example, perovskite membranes such as $La_{0.7}Sr_{0.3}FeO_{3-\delta}$ or $La_{0.6}Sr_{0.4}CO_{0.2}Fe_{0.8}O_{3-\delta}$ can be used to selectively remove oxygen out of a sample, thereby enriching the remaining impurities.¹⁹

5. Conclusions

75 A novel tracer enrichment method for enriching the impurities in hydrogen has been presented and validated. The method, which calculates the enrichment factor by measuring the change in concentration of an added tracer component (krypton), was compared against the non-ideal gas law enrichment method 80 proposed by Papadias *et al.* where the enrichment factor was

20

1

2

3

7.

9

60

75

calculated by monitoring changes in pressure and temperature.⁶ Both enrichment methods were validated by determining the composition of a hydrogen mixture containing ~2 µmol mol⁻¹ of nitrogen, methane and carbon monoxide after applying an ⁵ enrichment factor of ~60. The results indicated that both enrichment methods were able to determine calculated from analysis of the enriched mixture. Uncertainty budgets were developed which indicated that the results from the tracer method ¹⁰ had ~60% less relative uncertainty than the non-ideal gas law enrichment method. Another advantage of the tracer enrichment fraction of all impurities (other than nitrogen and oxygen) during an air leak or membrane failure; this currently cannot be achieved ¹⁵ using the non-ideal gas law enrichment method.

It was also concluded that a combination of both enrichment methods would constitute the ideal method for performing accurate measurements of trace level impurities in hydrogen whilst being able to monitor the enrichment factor and identifying ²⁰ problems such as membrane failure or air leaks. Further investigations however need to be performed to assess the effects of adsorption or reactions of impurities and also to make improvements to the system so that it can be easily used to perform enrichment measurements from a small volume sample ²⁵ taken from a hydrogen refueller.

Acknowledgements

The authors would like to acknowledge the kind support and funding of the work by the European Commission's Seventh ³⁰ Framework Programme (H2FC European Infrastructure Project) and the UK Government's Chemistry and Biology Knowledge Base Programme. Arul Murugan would like to personally thank Robert E. Bauxhaum for the advice and support provided with regards to the palladium membranes.

References

35

- X. Cheng, Z. Shi, N. Glass, L. Zhang, J. Zhang, D. Song, Z.-S. Liu, H. Wang, and J. Shen, *Journal of Power Sources*, 2007, 165, 739–756.
- 40 2. R. K. Ahluwalia and X. Wang, *Journal of Power Sources*, 2008, 180, 122–131.
- International Standard ISO 14687-2:2012, Hydrogen fuel Product specification - Part 2: Proton exchange membranes (PEM) fuel cell applications for road vehicles, 2012.
- 45 4. Proposal for a Directive of the European Parliament and of the Council on the deployment of alternative fuels infrastructure - COM(2013)18 final2013/0012(COD), European Commission, Brussels, 2013.
- A. S. Brown, G. M. Vargha, M. L. Downey, N. J. Hart, G. F. Ferrier, and K. L. Hall, NPL report AS 64 - Methods for the analysis of trace-level impurities in hydrogen for fuel cell applications, National Physical Laboratory, Teddington, UK, 2011.
- S. Ahmed, S. H. D. Lee, and D. D. Papadias, *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*, 2010, 35, 12480–12490.

- P. R. Bossard, "New Sensor for Measuring Trace Impurities in Ultra Pure Hydrogen", GAS2013 conference, Rotterdam, Holland, 2013.
- M. J. T. Milton, G. M. Vargha, and A. S. Brown, *Metrologia*, 2011, 48, R1–R9.
 - D. R. Deans, Journal of Chromatography A, 1981, 203, 19-28.
- 10. International Standard ISO 6142:2001, Gas analysis Preparation of calibration gas mixtures Gravimetric method, 2001.
- 11. S. Yun and S. Ted Oyama, *Journal of Membrane Science*, 2011, **375**, 28–45.
- S. J. Gasior, Production of Synthesis Gas and hydrogen by the Steam-Iron Process: Pilot Plant Study of Fluidized and Free-Falling Beds, Bureau of Mines, Washington, 1961.
 - K. Li and D. Jiang, Journal of Molecular Catalysis A: Chemical, 1999, 147, 125–130.
 - Guide to the expression of uncertainty in measurement, BIPM, IEC, IFCC, ISO, IUPAC, IUPAP and OIML, ISO, Geneva, Switzerland, 1995.
- L. Zhou and Y. Zhou, International Journal of Hydrogen Energy, 2001, 26, 597–601.
 - M. J. Moran and H. N. Shapiro, *Fundamentals of Engineering Thermodynamics*, Wiley, 7th edn., 2009.
 - 17. D. W. Green and R. H. Perry, *Perry's Chemical Engineers' Handbook*, McGraw-Hill Professional, 2007.
 - D. D. Papadias, S. H. D. Lee, and S. Ahmed, *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*, 2012, 37, 14413–14426.
 - A. Thursfield, A. Murugan, R. Franca, and I. S. Metcalfe, *Energy & Environmental Science*, 2012, 5, 7421–7459.