

RESEARCH ARTICLE

Tailoring cobalt-free $\text{La}_{0.5}\text{Sr}_{0.5}\text{FeO}_{3-\delta}$ cathode with a nonmetal cation-doping strategy for high-performance proton-conducting solid oxide fuel cells

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Abstract

A nonmetal doping strategy was exploited for the conventional $\text{La}_{0.5}\text{Sr}_{0.5}\text{FeO}_{3-\delta}$ (LSF) cathode, allowing high performance for proton-conducting solid oxide fuel cells (H-SOFCs). Unlike previous studies focusing on the utilization of metal oxides as dopants, phosphorus, which is a nonmetal element, was used as the cation dopant for LSF by partially replacing Fe ions to form the new $\text{La}_{0.5}\text{Sr}_{0.5}\text{Fe}_{0.9}\text{P}_{0.1}\text{O}_{3-\delta}$ (LSFP) compound. The H-SOFC using the LSFP cathode showed a two-fold peak power density as compared to that using the LSF cathode. Both experimental studies and first-principle calculations were used to unveil the mechanisms for the high performance of the LSFP cells.

KEYWORDS

cathode, high performance, nonmetal doping, proton conductor, solid oxide fuel cell

1 | INTRODUCTION

Energy and environmental problems in the current world call for the development of new technologies that can use fuels in a green and efficient way.^{1–3} Therefore, different

strategies have been proposed,^{4,5} and fuel cells that can directly convert chemical energy into electricity have attracted worldwide attention.^{6,7} Among the different types of fuel cells, solid oxide fuel cells (SOFCs) have an all-solid-state structure and work at high temperatures

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showing unique advantages.⁸ The all-solid-state structure avoids the electrolyte leakage problems for other fuel cells, and the high working temperatures make the use of metal oxides instead of noble metals as electrodes feasible, reducing the cost of the fuel cell.^{9,10} However, the traditional SOFCs work at very high temperatures (above 800°C), leading to problems in the cell's lifetime.¹¹ As a result, the development of SOFCs working at intermediate temperatures has become the trend in the past decade in the SOFC community,^{12,13} and proton-conducting SOFCs (H-SOFCs) answer this call.^{14–16} H-SOFCs can work at intermediate temperatures, as proton-conducting electrolytes have good ionic conductivity and low activation energy.^{17–19} However, the decreased working temperature also leads to sluggish cathode reactions, making the development of cathode materials for H-SOFCs necessary.²⁰ In addition, previous studies have demonstrated that the direct utilization of the cathodes for conventional oxygen-ion conducting SOFCs (O-SOFCs) for H-SOFCs is not a rational choice, and some high-performing cathodes for traditional SOFCs did not show similar encouraging performance for H-SOFCs,²¹ suggesting that the design for H-SOFC cathodes needs further improvement.²²

Some high-performing cathode materials have been developed in recent years.^{23–25} These cathode materials have one common feature: cobalt is one of the major elements in the cathode. This is the same for O-SOFCs as cobalt-containing cathodes show good catalytic activities, boosting the cell performance. However, it is recognized that cobalt-containing cathodes suffer from a few problems, such as thermal mismatch and cobalt evaporation,²⁶ which need to be addressed for practical applications. In contrast, ferrite-based cathodes have been proposed for H-SOFCs due to their good thermal and chemical compatibility with proton-conducting electrolytes.²⁷ However, the low fuel cell performance compared with other cathodes makes the application of ferrites not so popular for H-SOFCs. Recently, several studies showed that the performance of ferrite cathodes can be enhanced with proper cation tailoring.^{28,29} Therefore, it is reasonable to assume that the performance of traditional ferrite cathodes may challenge the existing high-performing cathodes if suitable dopants are exploited. It has been noted that the doping strategy is the most employed strategy to tailor the cathode materials, allowing it to show desirable performance for SOFCs. Up until now, the current doping strategy for H-SOFC cathodes mainly relies on the use of metal cations, particularly with the transition metal elements.³⁰ The features of the d-orbital in transition metals allow enhanced properties by doping. To the best of our knowledge, nonmetal cation dopant has not been used for H-SOFC cathodes. However, some nonmetal dopants have been used for O-SOFCs. The boron element can improve the

catalytic activity and stability of $\text{La}_{0.6}\text{Sr}_{0.4}\text{Co}_{0.8}\text{Fe}_{0.2}\text{O}_3$.³¹ The P-doping method can boost the performance of bismuth ferrite-based cathode for O-SOFCs.³² These results imply that the performance of nonmetal-doped cathodes may work well for H-SOFCs, despite the cathode reaction mechanism for O-SOFCs and H-SOFCs are not entirely the same. To demonstrate this hypothesis, $\text{La}_{0.5}\text{Sr}_{0.5}\text{FeO}_{3-\delta}$ (LSF), which is a first-generation cathode for SOFCs and reported to show only moderate performance for H-SOFCs, is used as a case study. The nonmetal element phosphorus was used as the dopant to partially replace Fe ions in LSF to form the $\text{La}_{0.5}\text{Sr}_{0.5}\text{Fe}_{0.9}\text{P}_{0.1}\text{O}_{3-\delta}$ (LSFP) material. The SOFC performance using LSF with and without P-doping was compared, and the mechanism for the performance enhancement of the LSFP cathode was revealed.

2 | RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The LSFP material was synthesized using a wet chemical route. Figure 1A shows the X-ray diffraction (XRD) pattern for the LSFP powder. A single phase was obtained for LSFP without any detectable impurities. Compared with the P-free LSF sample, the peaks for LSFP shifted to higher angles due to the smaller ionic radius of P ions (44 pm for P^{3+} and 38 pm for P^{5+}) compared with that for Fe ions (78 pm for Fe^{2+} and 64.5 pm for Fe^{3+}), suggesting the incorporation of P into the LSF lattice. In addition, no phase change could be observed for the LSFP powder from room temperature to 700°C, as detected by the high-temperature in situ XRD (Figure S1), suggesting a good thermal stability for the LSFP material. The reduction in the d-spacing value for the (110) plane observed in Figure 1B,C by using the high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HR-TEM) for LSF after P-doping also indicates a lattice shrinkage, in agreement with the XRD results. The scanning TEM (STEM) mapping results shown in Figure 1E indicate that the doping of P into LSF did not lead to any elemental segregation, and there is a homogenous distribution of each element, including La, Sr, Fe, and P. All these findings suggest the successful incorporation of P in the LSF lattice. The elemental analysis by scanning electron microscope energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (SEM-EDS) shown in Figure S2 indicates that the atomic ratio of P element to the total cation ions is about 5.3%, which is close to the nominal ratio of P to the total cations (5%), suggesting there is no significant P evaporation for LSFP during the synthesis procedure. Considering EDS is a semi-quantitative method, the inductive coupled plasma emission spectrometer (ICP) method is further used to investigate the P content after firing. The result indicates that the P ratio to the total cation ions is

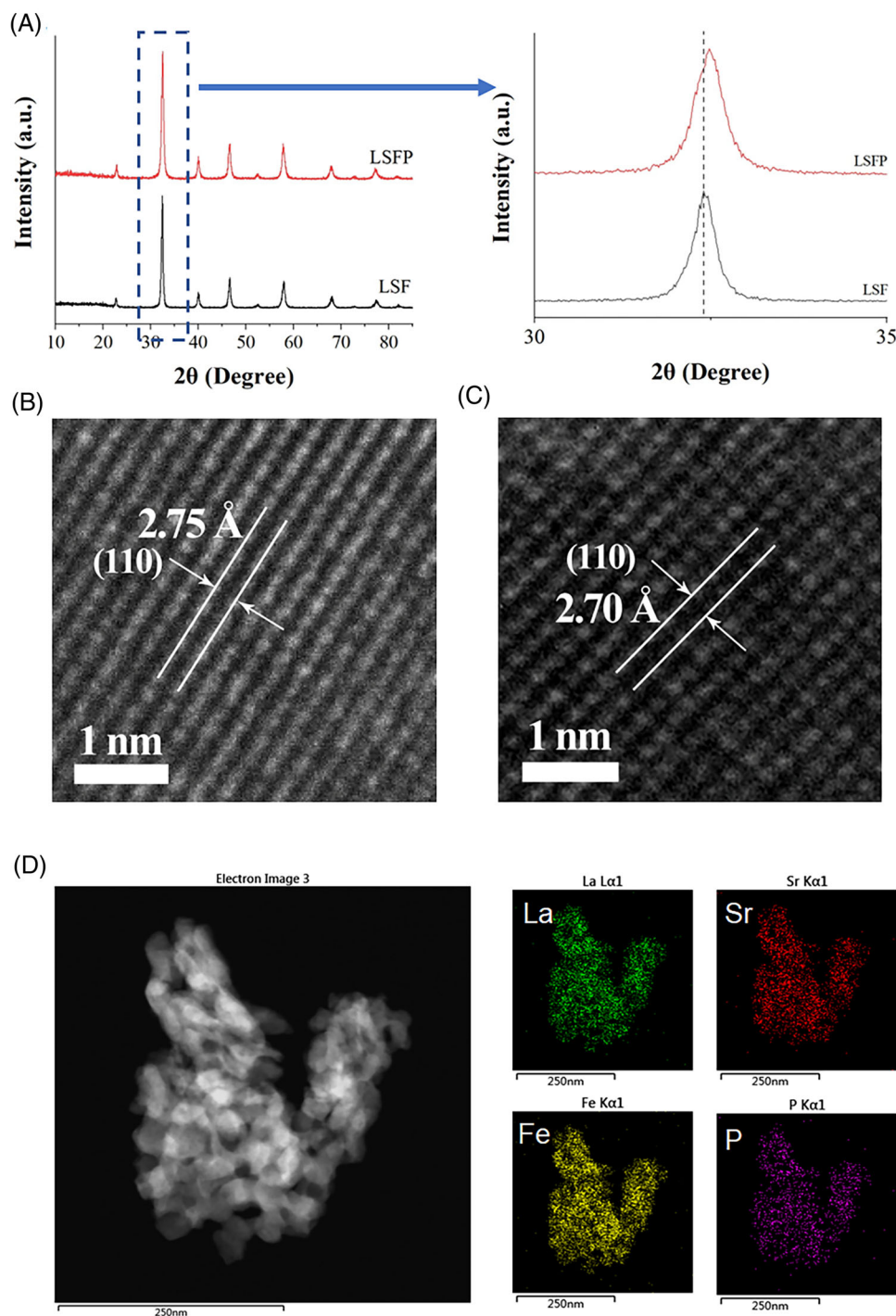


FIGURE 1 (A) X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns for the synthesized $\text{La}_{0.5}\text{Sr}_{0.5}\text{FeO}_{3-\delta}$ (LSF) and $\text{La}_{0.5}\text{Sr}_{0.5}\text{Fe}_{0.9}\text{P}_{0.1}\text{O}_{3-\delta}$ (LSFP) powders. High-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HR-TEM) for (B) LSF and (C) LSFP. (D) Elemental mapping of the LSFP powder by scanning TEM (STEM)

about 4.45%, which is close to the nominal value (5%), with only a slight deviation. All this evidence indicates that the evaporation of P could be minor, if there is any. The relatively low calcination temperature of 800°C used in this study could be a reason for retaining the P element in the oxide. This calcination temperature is much lower than that used for the synthesis of other P-containing oxides in

the literature,^{4,32} and no obvious P evaporation has been reported in those previous studies. Comparing the morphologies of LSF before and after P-doping, there is not much difference in the overall morphology for the powders, as shown in Figure S3A,B. However, the TEM images (Figure S3C,D) of the powders indicate that the average particle size for LSF and LSFP is around 90 and 50 nm,

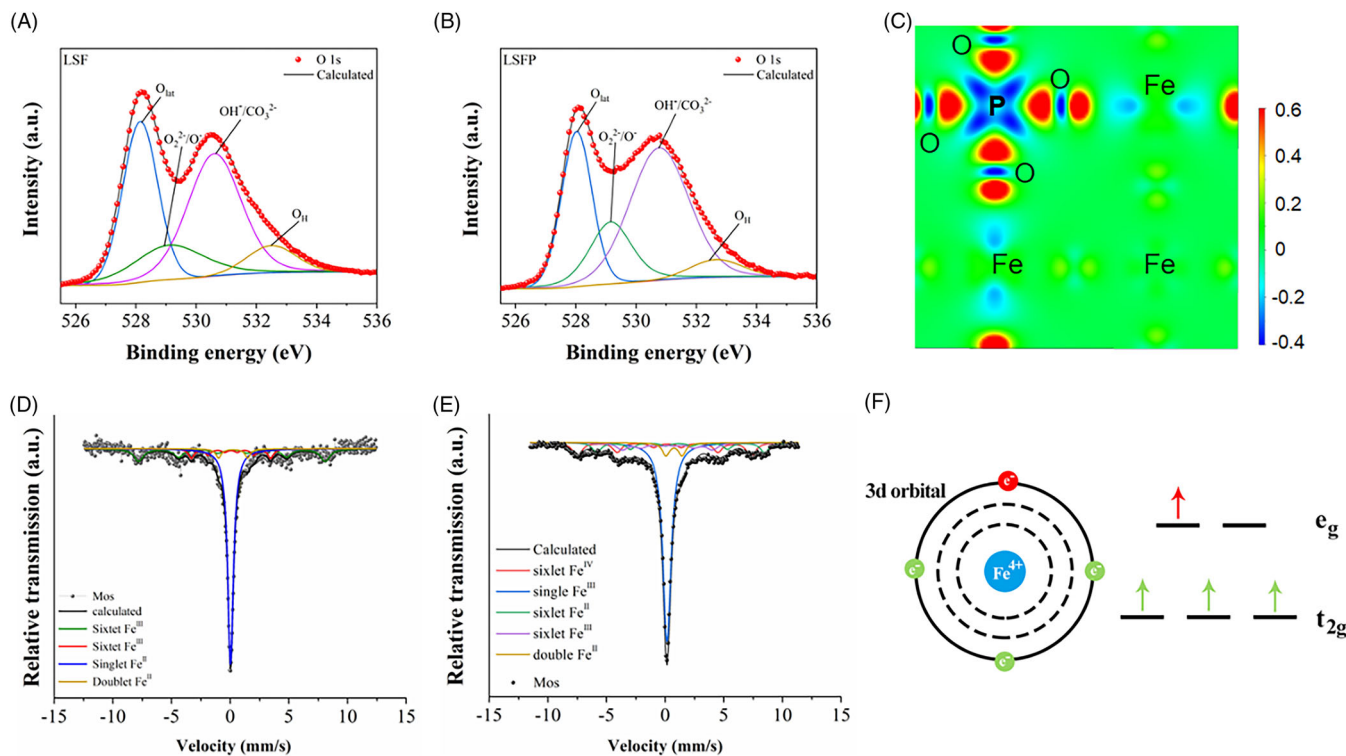


FIGURE 2 X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) O 1s curves for (A) $\text{La}_{0.5}\text{Sr}_{0.5}\text{FeO}_{3-\delta}$ (LSF), and (B) $\text{La}_{0.5}\text{Sr}_{0.5}\text{Fe}_{0.9}\text{P}_{0.1}\text{O}_{3-\delta}$ (LSFP). (C) Charge density difference for LSF after P-doping. ^{57}Fe Mössbauer spectra for (D) LSF and (E) LSFP. (F) Scheme for the degeneration of the Fe 3d orbital

respectively, suggesting the doping of P restricts the growth of the particle size.

The limitation of traditional LSF for H-SOFCs is due to its moderate catalytic activity at intermediate temperatures.²⁷ The moderate activity of LSF as a cathode can be anticipated from the atomic level analysis by density functional theory (DFT) calculations, as LSF has a high oxygen vacancy formation energy (E_{Vo}), reaching 1.68 eV. In contrast, the E_{Vo} for LSFP is lowered to 1.02 eV, suggesting that the formation of oxygen vacancies (Vo) become easier with the P-doping, and Vo might be more abundant for LSFP compared with LSF. The calculation of E_{Vo} was achieved by using the equation: $E_{\text{Vo}} = E_{\text{defect}} + \frac{1}{2}E_{\text{O}_2} - E_{\text{bulk}}$, in which E_{defect} means the energy of a defective bulk, E_{bulk} means the energy of a perfect bulk. The increase in Vo concentration was also demonstrated using X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) analysis, as shown in Figure 2A,B. The ratio between the oxygen species related to the surface oxygen vacancies (O_2^{2-} or O^-) and the lattice O (O_{lat}) reflects the oxygen vacancy content of the material,^{33–35} and this ratio increased from 0.48 for LSF to 0.63 for LSFP, suggesting the increased surface Vo amount for LSF after P-doping. Vo is important not only for protonation³⁶ but also for oxygen migration.³⁷ In addition, it was reported that the Vo-rich surface could be beneficial for the improve-

ment of the catalytic activity,^{38–41} which is critical for cathode performance. On the contrary, the hydration energy (E_{hydra}), which is calculated according to the equation: $E_{\text{hydra}} = E_{2\text{OH}} - E_{\text{defect}} - E_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$ ($E_{2\text{OH}}$ represents the energy of a perfect structure with two additional H atoms), followed an opposite trend: the E_{hydra} increased from -0.68 eV for LSF to 1.01 eV for LSFP, suggesting that hydration is more favorable in LSF. However, a relatively poor proton migration behavior was detected for LSF, 1.52 eV. In contrast, the barrier is reduced to 1.19 eV for LSFP, suggesting that proton migration in LSFP encounters a lower barrier compared with that in LSF, and thus in principle, improved proton transportation could be achieved for LSFP. The lower E_{hydra} for LSF might be counterbalanced by its larger E_{Vo} and higher proton migration barrier, making it less advantageous compared with LSFP. Further to the improvement in bulk properties, the surface catalytic activity toward O_2 would be another important parameter as the oxygen reduction reaction (ORR) ability is a critical parameter for the cathode performance.^{42,43} Before studying the surface properties, the selection of proper surface terminals is carried out. There are two surface terminals: one is the Fe–O–P terminal and the other is the Fe–O–Fe terminal. It has been calculated that the Fe–O–P terminal has lower surface energy than the Fe–O–Fe terminal, which means it is more stable and has a higher

possibility of exposing at the surface. Therefore, the Fe–O–P terminal is selected for the surface calculations. There are two different sites for the O₂ adsorption at the LSFP surface. One is at the Fe site next to the P cation (Fe–P site), and the other is at the Fe site far from the P cation (Fe–Fe site), as shown in Figure S4. The O₂ adsorption energies were calculated at 0.27 and 0.52 eV on the Fe–P and Fe–Fe sites, respectively, implying O₂ adsorption on the Fe–P site is more favorable at the LSFP surface due to the lower energy.^{44–46} The analysis of the charge density difference (Figure 2C) revealed that the P-doping into LSF evidently changes the electronic structure of the Fe ions next to the P cation (Fe–P site), leading to a charge depletion for the Fe ions. The charge depletion could result in the increase of the Fe valence (loss of electrons). In contrast, the Fe ion far from the P cation (Fe–Fe site) receives much less evident influence on the electronic charge. The change in the electronic structure could be the key to the lower O₂ adsorption energy at the Fe–P site. The Mössbauer spectroscopy was utilized to analyze the valence of the Fe ions in both LSF and LSFP. Although Fe²⁺ and Fe³⁺ can be observed in LSF and LSFP, Fe⁴⁺ is absent from LSF and can only be detected in LSFP, as shown in Figure 2D,E. However, it should be mentioned that although Fe⁴⁺ can only be detected in LSFP at the Mössbauer spectroscopy, this evidence cannot exclude the existence of the Fe⁴⁺ in LSF due to high-vacuum testing condition for the Mössbauer spectroscopy, especially considering the high Sr content that possibly leads to the formation of Fe⁴⁺.⁷ However, the results of the Mössbauer spectroscopy implies the increase in Fe⁴⁺ content for LSFP as the signal of Fe⁴⁺ is more evident compared with LSF, which agrees with the previous report that P can induce the formation of Fe⁴⁺ in LaFeO₃.⁴⁷ To further investigate the charge change after P-doping, Bader charge analysis with the DFT method is employed to study the effective charge of Fe cations in LSF and LSFP. It is found that the effective charge of Fe ions in LSF is ~1.69 e. In contrast, the effective charge of Fe ions in LSFP is between ~1.71 e and ~1.67 e, in which some Fe ions have higher valence and some have lower valence than that in LSF. Therefore, it is reasonable to have increased Fe⁴⁺ content in LSFP. In addition, the ICP measurement suggests that there is probably a minor P evaporation, which may also cause the increased Fe⁴⁺ content due to charge compensation. The Fe⁴⁺ is reported to be important for the ORR activity of the catalyst, as there is one electron at the e_g orbital as schemed in Figure 2F that tends to give the electron to break the O–O bond.⁴⁷ It has been reported that the high e_g orbital filling would lead to a weak interaction between the Fe–O₂, and the best electrocatalytic activity is achieved with e_g filling around one.⁴⁸ The formation of Fe⁴⁺ induced by P-doping could be crucial for the catalytic activity of the cathode. The better catalytic activity

of LSFP is demonstrated by the improved interaction between the catalyst and O₂. In contrast to the relatively high O₂ adsorption energy of 1.9 eV at the LSF surface, the O₂ adsorption energy at the LSFP surface is reduced to 0.27 eV, which means that O₂ adsorption has to overcome a lower energy barrier on the LSFP surface as compared with LSF. In addition, the adsorbed O₂ has a larger O–O bond length on LSFP surface (125.5 pm) than that on LSF surface (125.1 pm). Both values are larger than that for O₂ before adsorption (123.2 pm).²⁸ The enlarged O–O bond length suggests a weaker O–O bond, which could facilitate the ORR. The lower O₂ adsorption energy and enlarged O–O bond length for the adsorbed molecular O₂ indicate an improved interaction between the LSFP catalyst with O₂ as compared with LSF. Therefore, it is reasonable to assume that the LSFP cathode would deliver improved fuel cell performance in the H-SOFC application.

The LSFP and LSF were evaluated as the cathode for H-SOFCs, using BaCe_{0.7}Zr_{0.1}Y_{0.2}O_{3-δ} (BCZY) as the electrolyte and NiO-BCZY as the anode. The LSF (or LSFP) was mixed with BaZr_{0.8}Y_{0.2}O_{3-δ} (BZY) proton-conducting oxide to form a composite cathode. BZY instead of BCZY was used as the proton-conducting phase in the composite cathode as the poor sinterability of BZY could restrict the grain growth of the whole composite cathode, leading to higher porosity cathode and smaller particle sizes.¹⁴ Figure 3A indicates that the LSFP cell shows peak power densities of 634, 978, and 1322 mW cm⁻² at 600°C, 650°C, and 700°C, respectively, which are significantly larger than that for LSF cell (Figure 3B), being 310, 473, and 613 mW cm⁻² at 600°C, 650°C, and 700°C, respectively. The improvement at each testing temperature is above 100%, as shown in Figure 3C. As both LSFP and LSF cells use identical BCZY/NiO-BCZY half cells, the considerable difference in the fuel cell performance should primarily come from the different cathode catalysts used. The microstructure shown in Figure 3D,E further indicates that both cells have a similar cell structure, with a similar electrolyte thickness of 12.9 μm for the LSFP cell and 13.2 μm for the LSF cell. Therefore, the improved fuel cell performance is due to the material's properties rather than the microstructure.

The electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) plots for LSF and LSFP cells shown in Figure 3F indicate an obvious reduction in the polarization from the LSF cell to LSFP cell. The EIS plots can be fitted with the equivalent circuit, and three depressed semicircles, which present three different electrochemical reactions, can be found. The high-frequency resistance (R_{HF}), attributable to the charge-transfer process,²² is similar for both cells, being 0.0155 and 0.0165 Ω cm² for the LSF and LSFP cells, respectively. The close R_{HF} values for both cells are expected as the lower proton migration barrier in LSFP might be

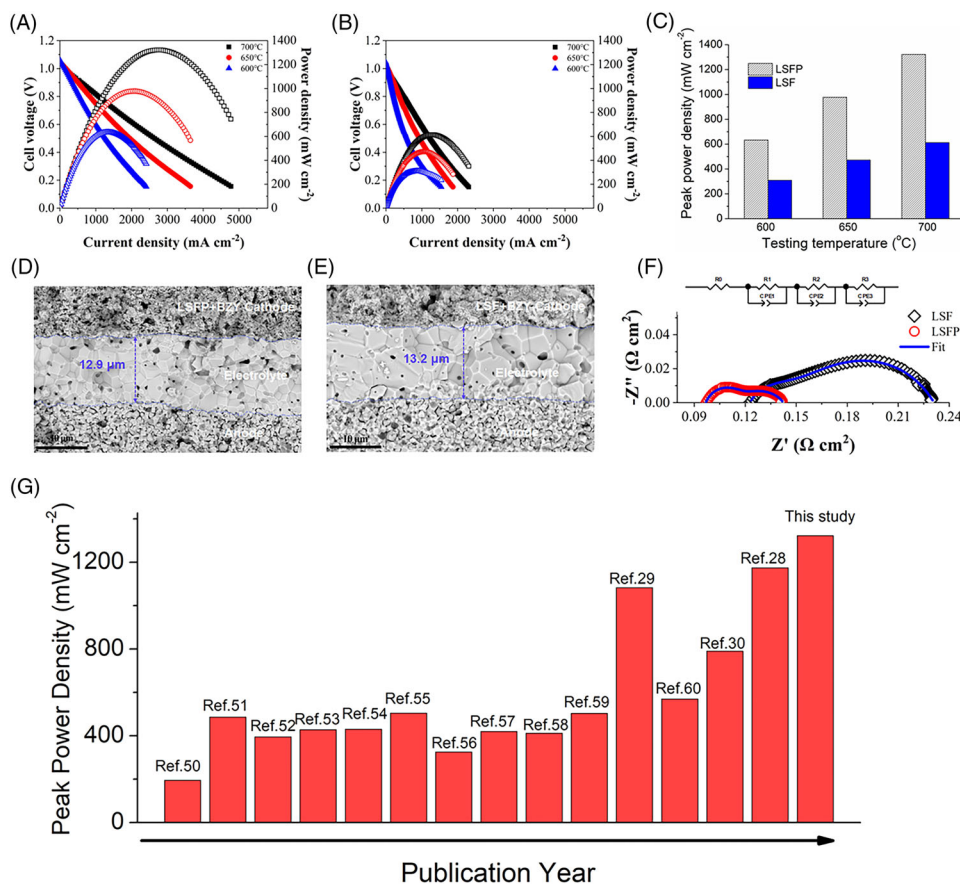


FIGURE 3 IV and power density curves for the cell using (A) LSPF-BZY cathode, and (B) LSF-BZY cathode. (C) Comparison of peak power densities for the $\text{La}_{0.5}\text{Sr}_{0.5}\text{FeO}_{3-\delta}$ (LSF) and $\text{La}_{0.5}\text{Sr}_{0.5}\text{Fe}_{0.9}\text{P}_{0.1}\text{O}_{3-\delta}$ (LSPF) cells measured at different temperatures. Cross-sectional views for the (D) LSPF cell, and (E) LSF cell. (F) Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) plots for LSF and LSPF cells. The hollow symbols are the measured data and the solid lines are the fitted results. The equivalent circuit used to fit the EIS plots is also shown. (G) The comparison of fuel cell performance of the H-SOFCs using ferrite-based cathodes tested at 700°C. Ref.50: $\text{La}_{0.7}\text{Sr}_{0.3}\text{FeO}_3$; Ref.51: $\text{Ba}_{0.5}\text{Sr}_{0.5}\text{Zn}_{0.2}\text{Fe}_{0.8}\text{O}_3$; Ref.52: $\text{BaCe}_{0.5}\text{Fe}_{0.5}\text{O}_3$; Ref.53: $\text{SrFe}_{0.9}\text{Sb}_{0.1}\text{O}_3$; Ref.54: $\text{Ba}_{0.5}\text{Sr}_{0.5}\text{Fe}_{0.8}\text{Cu}_{0.2}\text{O}_3$; Ref.55: $\text{Sm}_{0.5}\text{Sr}_{0.5}\text{Fe}_{0.8}\text{Cu}_{0.2}\text{O}_3$; Ref.56: $\text{Ba}_{0.95}\text{La}_{0.05}\text{FeO}_3$; Ref.57: $\text{Ba}_{0.5}\text{Sr}_{0.5}\text{Fe}_{0.9}\text{Mo}_{0.1}\text{O}_3$; Ref.58: $\text{La}_{0.6}\text{Sr}_{0.4}\text{Fe}_{0.9}\text{Cr}_{0.1}\text{O}_3$; Ref.59: $\text{La}_{0.6}\text{Sr}_{0.4}\text{Fe}_{0.9}\text{Nb}_{0.1}\text{O}_3$; Ref.29: $\text{La}_{0.35}\text{Pr}_{0.15}\text{Sr}_{0.5}\text{FeO}_3$; Ref.60: $\text{Pr}_{0.5}\text{Sr}_{0.5}\text{FeO}_3$; Ref.30: $\text{Sr}_2\text{Fe}_{1.5}\text{Mo}_{0.4}\text{Zr}_{0.1}\text{O}_6$; Ref.28: $\text{La}_{0.5}\text{Sr}_{0.5}\text{Fe}_{0.9}\text{Mo}_{0.1}\text{O}_3$

balanced by the relatively higher hydration energy compared with LSF, leading to a similar charge-transfer process. Compared with the similar R_{HF} , the middle-frequency (R_{MF}) and low-frequency resistance (R_{LF}) showed huge differences. The R_{MF} and R_{LF} for the LSF cell were 0.0182 and 0.0735 $\Omega \text{ cm}^2$, respectively. In contrast, R_{MF} and R_{LF} for the LSPF cell were 0.005 and 0.0233 $\Omega \text{ cm}^2$, respectively, which are significantly reduced when compared with those for the LSF cell. It has been reported that the R_{MF} and R_{LF} represent the oxygen-ion diffusion and O_2 transportation process,^{22,49} respectively. The reduction in R_{MF} and R_{LF} in LSPF agrees with the DFT calculations, which showed that lower oxygen vacancy formation energy and improved O_2 adsorption are obtained with LSPF. Compared with the big difference in R_{p} , ohmic resistance (R_{o}) of these two cells are close, although some difference can still be observed. As both cells have a similar electrolyte thickness and anode composition, the slightly

reduced R_{o} for the LSPF cell is probably from the improved contact between the cathode and electrolyte due to the smaller particle size of LSPF. Further to the much higher performance than the LSF cell in this study, to the best of our knowledge, the current LSPF cell shows the highest performance compared with other ferrite-based cathodes for H-SOFCs,^{28–30,50–60} as indicated in Figure 3G. In a broad context, cobalt-free materials instead of only ferrites are proposed in recent years, aiming to find alternatives for traditional high-performing cathodes containing cobalt element. To achieve high performance, new cobalt-free materials and microstructure optimization strategies are proposed.^{61,62} It is noted that even compared with these high-performing cobalt-free cathodes,^{63–65} the current LSPF cell shows one of the largest fuel cell outputs, despite the LSPF material being directly used without further microstructure optimizations. Further comparing the performance with other H-SOFCs using cobalt-containing

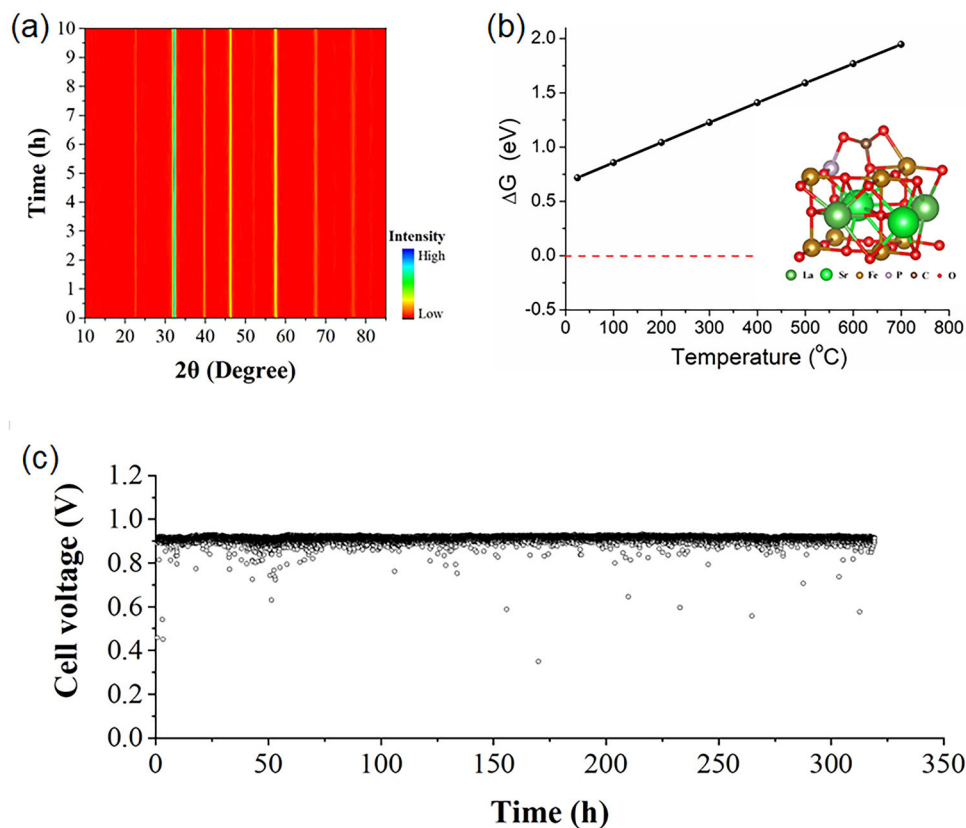


FIGURE 4 (A) Time course of the X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns for the $\text{La}_{0.5}\text{Sr}_{0.5}\text{Fe}_{0.9}\text{P}_{0.1}\text{O}_{3-\delta}$ (LSFP) powder measured at 700°C in the CO_2 -containing atmosphere. (B) The calculated Gibbs free energy for the possible reaction between LSFP and CO_2 as a function of temperature. The calculated configuration of the CO_2 -adsorbed LSFP surface is also shown. (C) Long-term stability of the LSFP cell tested at 600°C with an applied current density of 200 mA cm^{-2}

cathodes, the current LSFP shows higher performance than many of the H-SOFCs reported in the literature and is only inferior to a few reports.^{25,66} However, the absence of cobalt element in the cathode avoids the problems in thermal expansion mismatch and cobalt evaporation, making LSFP a promising cathode candidate for H-SOFCs.

In addition to the electrochemical performance, LSFP possesses good chemical stability that can be demonstrated in both experimental studies and first-principle calculations. The LSFP powder was put in a CO_2 -containing atmosphere ($10\text{ CO}_2 + 90\%$ air), and the in situ high-temperature XRD was used to record the phase of the powder as a function of time, as shown in Figure 4A. It is observed that no detectable secondary phases could be found during the whole testing period, suggesting good chemical stability of LSFP against CO_2 . First-principle calculations indicate that the Gibbs free energy for the reaction between CO_2 and LSFP is above zero even at room temperature and ΔG increases as a function of the temperature, as shown in Figure 4B. This result indicates that the interaction between CO_2 and LSFP is unfavorable, and LSFP is thermodynamically stable against CO_2 at the fuel cell working temperatures. The excellent stability of LSFP

is further demonstrated in the fuel cell working condition, as shown in Figure 4C. The H-SOFC using the LSFP cathode works stably for more than 300 h without noticeable degradations, suggesting good chemical stability and material compatibility of LSFP.

3 | CONCLUSIONS

A nonmetal cation-doping strategy was utilized for the first time to tailor the traditional LSF cathode for H-SOFCs. P cations can partially occupy the Fe site at LSF to form the LSFP material, leading to an apparent electronic change for the neighboring ions. The high catalytic activity of the LSFP catalyst, which doubled the performance of the H-SOFC compared with the one with the traditional LSF. The performance of the LSFP cell is also one of the highest ever reported for the cobalt-free cathodes for H-SOFCs. In addition, the high performance integrates well with excellent chemical stability, suggesting that the nonmetal cation-doping strategy could be an interesting direction for the design of high-performing cathodes for H-SOFCs, although no such attempt was made before this study.

4 | EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

LSFP was prepared by a traditional wet chemical method and the preparation details can be found in our previous reports.⁶⁷ It should be noted that ammonium phosphate dibasic was used as the P source in the synthesis. The LSFP precursor was calcined at 800°C for 3 h to reach a single phase. For comparison, the traditional LSF without P-doping was prepared in the same way. The phase purity of the powders was examined by XRD. HR-TEM (JEM-2100F) coupled with EDS was used to analyze morphologies of the samples as well as the elemental distributions. XPS analysis for LSFP and LSF samples was carried out by using a Thermo Fisher ESCALAB 250Xi spectrometer. Mössbauer spectroscopy measurements of LSFP and LSF were performed using a Mössbauer spectroscope (Wissel MS-500). The stability test for LSFP was carried out by putting the LSFP powder in a high-temperature XRD chamber under a flowing 10% CO₂ atmosphere. The flowing rate was set at 30 ml min⁻¹. XRD patterns for the LSFP powder at 600°C under such a condition were recorded as a function of time.

Half-cells using the BCZY electrolyte and NiO-BCZY anode were prepared, and the fabrication details can be found elsewhere.⁶⁸ LSFP (or LSF) powder was mixed with BZY powder in a weight ratio of 7:3, forming the composite cathode powder. Then the composite cathode was deposited on the sintered BCZY electrolyte surface, followed by a co-sintering procedure in a microwave furnace at 800°C for 10 min, forming the complete cell. Complete cells were tested in the fuel cell working condition using H₂ as the fuel. The electrochemical performance of the cells was recorded with an electrochemical workstation (Squidstat Plus, Admiral Instrument). The RelaxIS software was used to fit the impedance plot of the cell.

Theoretical calculations were carried out by using the DFT method⁶⁹ with the VASP (Vienna ab initio simulation package)⁷⁰ software with the Perdew, Burke, and Ernzerhof (PBE)⁷¹ exchange correlation potential within the generalized gradient approximation (GGA).⁷² All calculations were performed with a cutoff energy for the valence electrons of 500 eV, in a (4 × 4 × 4) gamma-centered K-point mesh. The calculation details can be found in our previous studies.^{23,73}

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CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

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SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Additional supporting information can be found online in the Supporting Information section at the end of this article.

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