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Insights into the CO₂ Stability-Performance Trade-off of Antimony-Doped SrFeO_{3-δ} Perovskite Cathode for Solid Oxide Fuel Cells

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Abstract

One major challenge for the further development of solid oxide fuel cells is to obtain high performance cathode materials with sufficient stability against reactions with CO₂ present in the ambient atmosphere. However, the enhanced stability is often achieved by using material systems exhibiting decreased performance metrics. The phenomena underlying the performance and stability trade-off has not been well understood. This paper uses antimony-doped SrFeO_{3- δ} as a model material to shed light on the relationship between structure, stability, and performance of perovskite structured oxides which are commonly used as cathode materials. X-ray absorption revealed that partial substitution of Fe by Sb leads to a series of changes in the local environment of the iron atom, such as a decrease in the iron oxidation state and an increase in the oxygen coordination number. Theoretical calculations show that the structural changes are associated with an increase in both the oxygen vacancy formation energy and the metal-oxygen bond energy. The area specific resistance of the perovskite oxide increases with Sb doping, indicating a deterioration of the oxygen reduction activity. Exposure of the materials to CO_2 leads to depressed oxygen desorption and an increased area specific resistance, which becomes less pronounced at higher Sb doping levels. Origin of the stability-performance trade-off is discussed based on the structural parameters.

KEYWORDS: solid oxide fuel cells, cathode, CO2 tolerance, ORR, XAFS

1. INTRODUCTION

Solid oxide fuel cells (SOFC) are a promising alternative energy device that converts the chemical energy of a fuel (such as hydrogen or methane) directly into electricity. Due to their excellent fuel flexibility, SOFCs can also serve as an economic bridge for a potential transition from a fossil-fuel-based economy to a renewable hydrogen-fuel-based economy.¹ Currently, there are still a number of inherent challenges for the development of SOFC technology, such as understanding and mitigating performance degradation, management of mechanical stresses and high temperature gas-tight sealing. During SOFC operation, cathode materials may be poisoned by aggressive gases present in the ambient air, such as CO₂, which lead to a significant degradation of performance^{2,3}. The sensitivity of the cathode materials to CO₂ poisoning is due to the adsorption of CO₂ or the formation of carbonate species on the material surface, which may alter the original phase structure and result in a significant impact on the surface oxygen exchange. A cathode material with good CO₂ tolerance would be of immense practical value for the application of SOFCs.

State-of-the-art cathode materials are predominantly based on mixed ionic-electronic conducting (MIEC) perovskite oxides due to their excellent activity towards the oxygen reduction reaction (ORR). Numerous studies have shown that the ORR activity of these materials is susceptible to even small amounts of CO_2 ^{4,5,6}, which have been ascribed to the basic nature of the contained alkaline-earth elements.^{7,8} The CO₂ resistance of the MIEC perovskite oxides can be improved by partial substitution of the A- and/or B-site cations with higher valent cations. Examples include partial substitution of the B-site transition metal cations with Ti^{4+} , Zr^{4+} , Ta^{5+} , and Sb^{5+} for $SrCo_{0.8}Fe_{0.2}O_{3-\delta}^{8}$, $SrFeO_{3-\delta}^{9,10}$, $BaCo_{1-x}Fe_{x}O_{3-\delta}^{11}$, $SrSc_{0.1}Fe_{0.9}O_{3-\delta}^{12}$ and $La_{0.6}Sr_{0.4}FeO_{3-\delta}^{13}$, and of the A-site alkaline-earth cations with La^{3+} for SrCo_{0.8}Fe_{0.2}O_{3-b}¹⁴, Ca²⁺ for LaFeO_{3-b}¹⁵. An increase in the acidity and the thermodynamic stability of the perovskite oxides have been proposed to account for the enhanced CO_2 resistance^{16,10}. Unfortunately, the doping of higher valent cations often leads to deterioration of the oxygen transport properties. Schulze-Kuppers et al.¹⁷ found that the oxygen permeation property dropped by partial substitution of Fe by Ti in strontium ferrite. Chen et al.¹⁸ found that Ta^{5+} doping in B-site of SrCo_{0.8}Fe_{0.2}O_{3- δ} enhanced the phase stability but also resulted in the degradation of the oxygen permeation flux. Han et al.¹⁹ improved the CO₂ resistance of $SrFeO_{3-\delta}$ with Nb doping which may be related to the increased metal-oxygen bonding. Similar tuning of the materials property via cation doping has also been studied for various applications^{20, 21}.

Insight into the stability-performance trade-off relationship is vital to rational design of new electrode materials with both high ORR activity and CO₂ tolerance. Some efforts have been devoted to exploring the governing factors for these properties. Zhu et al²² investigated the CO₂ resistance of SrNb_{0.1}Co_{0.9-x}Fe_xO_{3-δ} and found that oxygen vacancies can promote the formation of carbonates. The oxygen reduction activity is related to the oxygen vacancy concentration (nonstiochiometry)²³, energies for oxygen migration and oxygen vacancy formation²⁴. Zhang et al²⁵ found that the CO₂ tolerance of SrSc_{0.175}Nb_{0.025}Co_{0.8}O_{3-δ} cathode could be related to the higher average metal-oxygen bond energy (ABE) and higher acidity of Nb⁵⁺ cations. Huang et al²⁶ found that CO₂ competes with O₂ for binding to vacancy sites on Ba_{0.5}Sr_{0.5}Co_{0.8}Fe_{0.2}O_{3-δ} (BSCF), thus inhibiting the interaction between O₂ and the solid surface.

Nevertheless, a clear understanding how both properties can be tuned in perovskite structured cathodes is still missing. It is worth noting that, both the CO₂ resistance and oxygen reduction activity are strongly correlated to the intrinsic structural parameters (such as oxygen vacancy concentration) and the chemical identity of dopant elements.

Herein, we report on a systematic investigation of the structure, ORR, and CO₂ resistance of a model material, Sb-doped SrFeO_{3- δ}. Changes in the local structure around the Fe atoms in the perovskites were probed by synchrotron radiation X-ray absorption spectroscopy (XAS) combined with density functional theory (DFT) calculations. The effect of CO₂ on the structure and oxygen transport properties was studied with a number of techniques including temperature programmed desorption (TPD), electrical conductivity relaxation (ECR), and impedance spectroscopy. The structural origin of the trade-off between stability and performance is discussed. This work aims to provide fundamental insights into the ORR activity and CO₂ tolerance for perovskite oxides, and results obtained can be applied to the design of SOFC cathode materials.

2. EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

 $SrFe_{1-x}Sb_xO_{3-\delta}$ (x=0, 0.05, 0.10, 0.15, 0.20, denoted as $SrFeO_3$, SFS05, SFS10, SFS15, SFS20) powders were synthesized by solid state reaction. Stoichiometric amounts of $SrCO_3$ (AR, Sinopharm Chemical Reagent Co., China), Fe_2O_3 (AR, Sinopharm Chemical Reagent Co., China), Sb_2O_5 (AR, Sinopharm Chemical Reagent Co., China) were ball-milled, calcined in air at 1200 °C for 10 h, and furnace-cooled to room temperature. In addition, in order to investigate the oxygen nonstoichiometry under different atmospheres, SFS20 powder samples were annealed under nitrogen and quenched in air from 900 °C, respectively.

The phase structure of the as-prepared and CO₂-treated powders were analyzed by X-ray diffraction (XRD). The data were collected at room temperature and in ambient air with a diffractometer (X'Pert Pro, Phillips, Netherlands) using Cu/k α radiation ($\lambda = 1.54108$ Å), with a scan range of 20-80° and a step size of 0.02°. *In-situ* high-temperature XRD was conducted in air with a heating rate of 5 °C min⁻¹. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) was conducted on an ESCALAB 250 spectrometer (Thermo-VG Scientific).

Fe K-edge XAS spectra of SFS powders were recorded at room temperature in the transition mode at the beamline BL14W1 of the Shanghai Synchrotron Radiation Facility (SSRF). The beamline provides a focused monochromatic X-ray source of 2.5 GeV with a Si $\langle 111 \rangle$ monochromator. The X-ray energy was calibrated by using an Fe foil. The acquired data were processed according to standard procedures using the ATHENA module²⁷. Extended x-ray absorption fine structure (EXAFS) was analyzed using the ARTEMIS module implemented in the IFEFFIT software packages²⁸. Commercial powders of FeO, (99.7%, Alfa Aesar), Fe₂O₃ (99.9%, Alfa Aesar) and Fe₃O₄ (99.6%, Sinopharm Chemical Reagent Co., China) were used as reference oxides.

Density functional theory calculations were carried out using the Vienna ab initio simulation package (VASP)^{29, 30}. The kinetic energy cut-off was 700 eV, and the energy convergence criterion was 10^{-5} eV. The Hellmann-Feynman force on each atom was smaller than 0.03 eV/Å. In addition, the DFT+U method was applied to the Fe cations with U_{eff} of 5.3 eV. A $2 \times 2 \times 2$ supercell with *k*-point grid $5 \times 5 \times 5$ was adopted for calculation of the oxygen vacancy formation energy. The oxygen vacancy formation energy was calculated based on the

formula $E_{\text{vac}} = E[\text{defect}] + 1/2E[\text{O}_2] - E[\text{perfect}]$, where E[defect] and E[perfect] are the total energies of defective and ideal SrFeO₃. $E[\text{O}_2]$ is the total energy of O₂ in the triplet state.

TPD measurements were conducted on 100 mg powders in a U-shaped quartz tube. Prior to the measurements, the powders were pre-treated in CO₂ at 800 °C for 5 h, and subsequently annealed in air at 450 °C for 40 min, followed by 30 min annealing in an Ar stream. The samples were then heated in an Ar carrier gas stream to 1000 °C with a heating rate of 10 °C min⁻¹, and held at that temperature until desorption/release was complete. The O₂ and CO₂ signals were monitored with a mass spectrometer (QIC20, Hiden). O₂-TPD measurements were conducted on fresh samples of SFS05 and SFS20. These samples were pretreated in Helium for 30 mins at room temperature, which were heated directly to 1000 °C in Ar or CO₂ carrier gas streams, without the CO₂ pre-treatment.

The ECR method was applied to determine the oxygen surface exchange rate in the presence of CO₂. The SFS powders were pressed into rectangular bars at 300 MPa and sintered in air to form dense pellets. The relative density is over 94% of the theoretical density. The sintered bars had dimensions of approximately $15.0 \times 6.0 \times 1.2$ mm³. The conductivity was measured using the four-probe method with a digital multimeter (Keithley, 2001 multimeter). Changes in gas compositions were realized in less than 1 s at a gas flow rate of 300 ml min⁻¹ using the O₂-N₂ mixture with oxygen partial pressure (pO_2) range from 0.005 to 0.1 atm. The electrical conductivity changed continuously with time and reached a new equilibrium point when the atmosphere was abruptly changed.

For the fabrication of symmetrical cells, $Ce_{0.8}Gd_{0.2}O_{1.9}$ (GDC20) pellets were prepared by uniaxially pressing GDC20 powders (Fuelcell Materials, US) followed by sintering at 1450 °C for 5 h. The SFS slurry was prepared by mixing the electrode powder with organics (20 wt.% solsperse 28000 (Lubrizol) dissolved in terpinol), and binder (5 wt.% V-006 (Heraeus) dissolved in terpinol). The cathode slurry was printed on both sides of GDC20 pellet, then fired at 1000 °C for 2 h. For the single cell fabrication, a NiO/GDC20 anode support was first fabricated and pre-fired at 1000 °C for 2 h. A GDC electrolyte layer was deposited on the anode support by a particle suspension coating process followed by co-firing at 1450 °C for 5 h. The SFS slurry was screen-printed onto the surface of GDC20 electrolyte, and then co-fired at 1000 °C for 2 h to form a porous cathode (with an area of 0.385 cm²). The area specific resistance (ASR) of the cathodes was measured in a two-electrode symmetrical cell configuration with Ag paste as current collector on both sides. The Impedance spectra were measured using a Solartron 1260 electrochemical workstation with an AC amplitude of 10 mV in the frequency range from 1 M Hz to 0.01 Hz. The single cells were tested under wet H₂ for anode and ambient air for cathode.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1 Structure

The X-ray diffraction patterns of the as-prepared SFS powders are displayed in Figure 1. Rietveld refinements of the patterns reveal that the diffraction peaks obtained for each sample can be indexed on the basis of a cubic perovskite structure (space group Pm-3m). No evidence of impurity phases is observed. The lattice parameters extracted from the Rietveld refinements are found to increase linearly with the Sb content, indicative of formation of SrFe_{1-x}Sb_xO₃₋₈ solid solutions according to Vegard's law³¹. *In-situ* high-temperature XRD on SFS10 shows

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that the perovskite structure is maintained upon heating to 1000 °C in ambient air (Figure S1). The dilatometric analysis shows a variation in the slope for all the compositions at ~582 °C (Figure S2), which could be related to the oxygen losses after heating³². The TEC values decrease with an increase of the Sb content (Table S1), which are 34.5×10^{-6} K⁻¹ and 17.8×10^{-6} K⁻¹ for SFS05 and SFS20 above 582 °C, respectively.

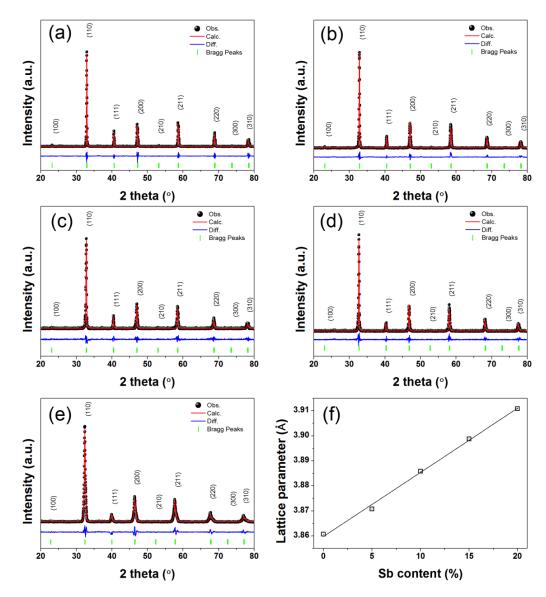
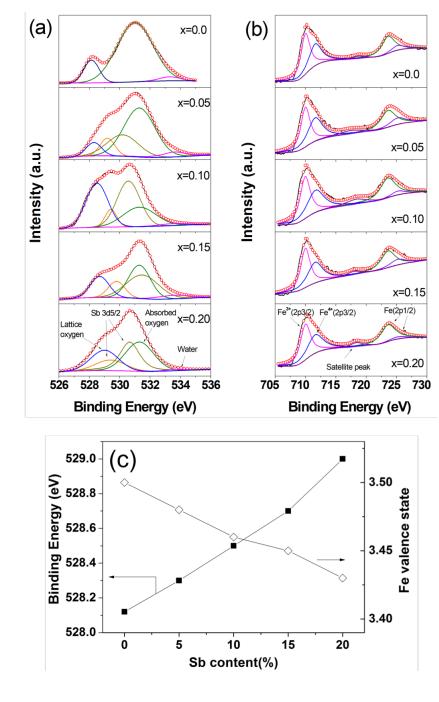


Figure 1. X-ray powder diffraction patterns and Rietveld refinements (red line) of (a) SrFeO₃, (b) SFS05, (c) SFS10, (d) SFS15, and (e) SFS20, and (f) lattice parameter as a function of Sb content.

The O1s and Fe2p XPS spectra for the SFS series are shown in Figure 2a and 2b, respectively. The O1s peak for the undoped material (x = 0) can be de-convoluted into three Gaussian peaks. Peak centered at 533.6 eV is assigned to absorbed water, whereas peaks centered at 531.3 eV and 528.1 eV are assigned to absorbed oxygen⁸ and lattice oxygen, respectively. The O1s peaks overlap with the two Sb 3d peaks in the spectra for the Sb-doped

samples. Deconvolution of the spectra shows that the lattice oxygen peak shifts to higher BE with increasing Sb content (Figure 2c), suggesting a decrease of the surface basicity with increasing Sb doping³³. The Fe2p XPS spectra for the series (Figure 2b) consist of $2p_{3/2}$ and 2p1/2 doublets and a satellite peak at 717.9 eV. The $2p_{3/2}$ doublet can be deconvoluted into two peaks at 710.1 eV and 711.6 eV, corresponding to Fe³⁺ and Fe⁴⁺, respectively. Similar behavior is observed for the $2p_{1/2}$ doublet, indicating that iron in the SFS perovskites is present as a mixture of Fe³⁺ and Fe⁴⁺. The average valence of the iron cations was estimated from the area ratio of the Fe³⁺ and Fe⁴⁺ peaks, and the average valence was found to decrease slightly from 3.5 to 3.4 with increasing Sb content (Figure 2c).



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Figure 2. (a) O1s and (b) Fe 2p XPS spectra for the series $SrFe_{1-x}Sb_xO_{3-\delta}$ (x=0, 0.05, 0.10, 0.15, 0.20), and (c) binding energy of lattice oxygen and Fe valence state as a function of Sb content.

X-ray absorption measurements were performed to probe the local structure around the iron cations in the SFS perovskite series. Figure 3a shows the X-ray absorption near edge structure (XANES) spectra at the Fe K-edge for the SFS perovskites and reference oxides (FeO, Fe₂O₃ and Fe₃O₄) recorded at room temperature. All spectra consist of a small pre-edge peak at around 7112 eV, corresponding to the transition from the deep 1s core level to the 3d quasi-bound state³⁴. The intensity of the pre-edge peak is an indication of the crystal symmetry.^{35,36,37} The pre-edge peaks can be deconvoluted into two peaks (Figure S3), which can be assigned to FeO₆ octahedra (O_h) at the higher energy and FeO₅ pyramid at the lower energy.³⁸ With increasing Sb content, the relative intensity of the O_h peak increases while the FeO₅ peak decreases (Table 1), indicating that more iron cations adopt an octahedral coordination. Note that for the SFS20 samples subjected to quenching after high temperature annealing in air or to annealing in N₂, a significantly smaller O_h intensity was obtained as compared with the SFS20 sample annealed in air. This observation indicates that the distribution of iron cations over FeO₅ sites and FeO₆ octahedral sites is strongly influenced by the heat-treatment history, which may result from a change of oxygen nonstoichiometry.

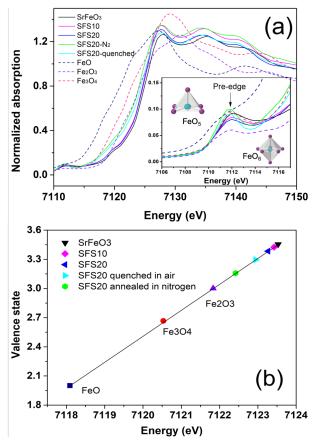


Figure 3. (a) Normalized room temperature Fe K-edge XANES spectra of SFS samples and reference oxides. Inset shows a magnified view of the Fe pre-edge peaks. (b) Average valence

states of iron cation in $SrFe_{1-x}Sb_xO_{3-\delta}$ (x=0, 0.10, 0.20) powders and reference oxides FeO, Fe₃O₄, and Fe₂O₃.

Sample	SrFeO ₃	SFS10	SFS20	SFS20-N ₂	SFS20-quenched
FeO ₅	0.346	0.308	0.289	0.561	0.512
FeO ₆	0.654	0.692	0.711	0.439	0.488

Table 1. Peak intensity of the different Fe configurations for $SrFe_{1-x}Sb_xO_{3-\delta}(x=0, 0.10, 0.20)$.

The absorption edge positions were determined as the energy at half the step height of the normalized curves. The K-edge energies for the SFS samples are larger than that for Fe₂O₃, indicating that iron cations in SFS adopt an average oxidation state higher than 3+ due to the coexistence Fe³⁺ and Fe⁴⁺. The average Fe oxidation states of SFS were estimated by linear extrapolation of those for the reference oxides (Figure 3b). The oxidation states were found to decrease slightly with increasing Sb content, in agreement with the XPS results (Figure 2). Assuming an oxidation state of 5+ for Sb, the oxygen nonstoichiometry was then estimated and found to decrease from 0.25 for x=0 to 0.13 for x = 0.2 (SFS20). A significantly lower iron oxidation state and thus larger oxygen nonstoichiometry was observed for the quenched (δ =0.18) or N₂-annealed (δ =0.24) SFS20 samples. These results agree well with the observed change of O_h intensity in Figure 3a.

The room-temperature Fe K-edge EXAFS spectra (k range 2.68 - 13.2 Å⁻¹) were Fourier-transformed to the radial distribution function (RDF), as shown in Figure 4. The FT magnitude in the range of 1.0-1.8 Å corresponds to the Fe-O bond, while the other two FT magnitudes in the range of 2.6-3.8 Å can be assigned to Fe-Sr and Fe-Fe/Fe-Sb bonds. The simulated Fourier-transformed EXAFS spectra fit very well to the experimental data (Figure S5). Structural parameters for SrFe_{1-x}Sb_xO_{3- $\delta}$ (x=0, 0.10, 0.20) extracted from analysis are} presented in Table 2. The number of oxygen anions in the first coordination shell of the Fe cations was found to increase with Sb doping, which is consistent with the increase of δ with Sb doping (shown in XANES results). The Fe-O and Fe-Sr interatomic distances increase with Sb doping, which is in line with the lattice expansion found by XRD (Figure 1). The increase of the interatomic distances is associated with an increase of the Debye-Waller (DW) factor³⁹, which is indicative of enhanced thermal and structural disorder. The Fe-Sb distances in both SFS10 and SFS20 are found slightly larger than the corresponding Fe-Fe distances, suggesting presence of some local structural distortion in both materials. This slight change was not observed from the XRD patterns in Figure 1, which may suggest that the EXAFS is more sensitive to changes of cation local structures.

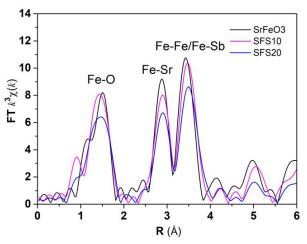


Figure 4. Fourier transform (FT) magnitudes of the Fe-edge EXAFS oscillations for SrFe_{1-x}Sb_xO_{3-δ} (x=0, 0.10, 0.20).

Table 2. Structural parameters from EXAFS spectra analyses for $SrFe_{1-x}Sb_xO_{3-\delta}$ (x=0, 0.10, 0.20). Coordination number *N*, amplitude reduction factor S_0^2 , interatomic distance *R*, Debye-Waller factor σ^2 , and goodness-of-fit R-factor.

Sb	Path	N	S_{0}^{2}	R (Å)	σ ² (×10 ⁻³ Å ²)	R-factor
fraction						
0.00	Fe-O	5.1	0.7	1.92	5.87	0.013
	Fe-Sr	8.0		3.30	6.98	
	Fe-Fe	6.0		3.84	6.20	
0.10	Fe-O	5.3	0.7	1.94	5.97	0.015
	Fe-Sr	8.0		3.34	7.31	
	Fe-Fe	5.4		3.88	8.43	
	Fe-Sb	0.6		4.01	11.56	
0.20	Fe-O	5.8	0.7	1.95	8.37	0.009
	Fe-Sr	8.0		3.35	10.36	
	Fe-Fe	4.8		3.89	8.80	
	Fe-Sb	1.2		4.01	11.30	

First-principle calculations were performed to assess the influence of Sb doping on the oxygen vacancy formation energy in $SrFe_{1-x}Sb_xO_{3-\delta}$. Possible sites are depicted in Figure 5, wherein *a*1 denotes oxygen in Fe-O-Fe bonds of undoped $SrFeO_3$, and *b*1 and *b*2 denote oxygen in Fe-O-Fe and Fe-O-Sb bonds in Sb-doped $SrFeO_3$, respectively. The energy required for the formation of oxygen vacancies at *b*1 sites in the doped material equals 0.98 eV, which is close to 0.96 eV found for *a*1 sites in the undoped material, but distinctly lower than 1.68 eV for *b*2 sites. These results clearly indicate that oxygen bound to Sb cations are more stable than those bound to Fe, and oxygen vacancies would prefer to be formed between two adjacent Fe cations.

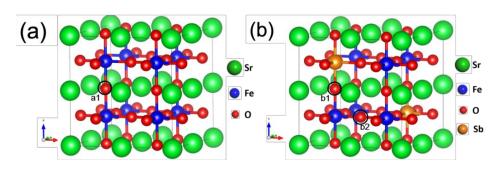


Figure 5. Schematic representation of oxygen vacancy formation in (a) SrFeO₃ and (b) Sb-doped SrFeO₃.

To further evaluate the influence of Sb doping on the perovskite structure stability, the average metal-oxygen bond energy (ABE) was calculated for SrFe_{1-x}Sb_xO_{3-δ} according to¹⁹

$$ABE = \frac{1}{12} \left(\Delta H_{\rm Sr0} - \Delta H_{\rm Sr} - \frac{1}{2} D_{0_2} \right) + \frac{1 - x}{12} \left(\Delta H_{\rm Fe_2O_3} - 2\Delta H_{\rm Fe} - \frac{3}{2} D_{0_2} \right) + \frac{x}{12} \left(\Delta H_{\rm Sb_2O_3} - 2\Delta H_{\rm Fe} - \frac{3}{2} D_{0_2} \right)$$

where ΔH_{SrO} , $\Delta H_{Fe_2O_3}$ and $\Delta H_{Sb_2O_5}$ are the heats of formation of SrO, Fe₂O₃ and Sb₂O₅, respectively; ΔH_{Sr} , ΔH_{Fe} , ΔH_{Sb} are the heats of sublimation of metals Sr, Fe, and Sb, respectively, and D_{O_2} is the dissociation energy of gaseous oxygen. As shown in Figure 6, the ABE becomes larger (more negative) with Sb substitution for Fe, indicating enhanced stability of the perovskite structure.

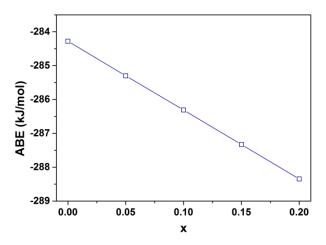


Figure 6. Average metal-oxygen bond energy (ABE) as a function of Sb content.

3.2 CO₂ tolerance and oxygen transport property

Figure 7 shows diffraction patterns of the SFS powders annealed in 1 bar CO₂ at 800 °C for 5 h. Presence of SrCO₃ was observed for SFS samples with x = 0 - 0.10, but not for samples x = 0.15 and x = 0.20. Isothermal TG measurements in CO₂ for x = 0.20 (SFS20) sample reveals that the sample weight remained almost constant at 900 °C within the experimental period (20 h), but slowly increased with time at 800 °C (Figure S6). These results indicate that

carbonation reaction still took place at 800 °C for SFS20 but occurred at a relatively slow rate. The absence of carbonate in Figure 7 was probably due to the small amount formed after 5 h.

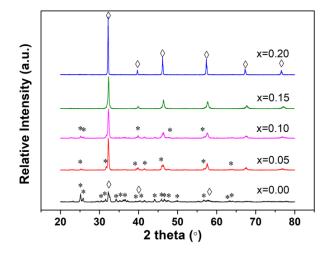


Figure 7. Room temperature X-ray powder diffraction patterns of $SrFe_{1-x}Sb_xO_{3-\delta}$ (x=0, 0.05, 0.10, 0.15, 0.20) after treatment in pure CO₂ at 800 °C for 5 h. Reflections of the perovskite (\diamond) and $SrCO_3$ (*) phases are marked.

TPD spectra for the SFS powders pre-treated in CO₂ at 800 °C for 5 h are shown in Figure 8. CO₂ desorption (Figure 8a), indicative of the decomposition of SrCO₃ carbonate, occurred in the range of 500 – 880 °C. Oxygen release occurred over a much broader temperature range starting from ~370 °C (Figure 8b). This broad O₂ peak can be ascribed to the α -O₂ peak⁴⁰, which results from desorption of the chemisorbed oxygen on the surface and reduction of Fe⁴⁺ to Fe³⁺. The O₂-peak intensity decreases with the increases of Sb doping level, agrees well with the decreased valence state of iron, as revealed by XPS and XANES. Both CO₂ and O₂ desorption became less pronounced with increasing Sb content, suggesting that Sb doping not only enhances the CO₂ resistance, but also reduces oxygen nonstoichiometry. According to Figure 8c, the O₂/CO₂ peak area ratio increases distinctly with Sb doping.

In order to examine the impact of CO_2 on the oxygen desorption, pristine SFS05 and SFS20 powder samples were studied with TPD in Ar or CO_2 carrier gas (Figure 8d), without being subjected to a CO_2 pre-treatment. Similar to Figure 8b, large O_2 desorption peaks were observed in Ar starting from ~360-400 °C. In contrast, as the carrier gas was changed to CO_2 , the onset temperature for oxygen desorption was significantly shifted to 650 °C for SFS05 and 500 °C for SFS20. Moreover, both oxygen desorption peaks became smaller in CO_2 , corresponding to 62.0% and 35.7% reduction of the peak area for SFS05 and SFS20, respectively. Apparently, the presence of CO_2 markedly inhibits the desorption of oxygen for both SFS05 and SFS20, with the reduction being more pronounced for the former. These findings are in good agreement with recent results of isotopic exchange experiments²⁶, which showed that CO_2 preferably adsorbs on BSCF perovskite surface and inhibits oxygen surface exchange.

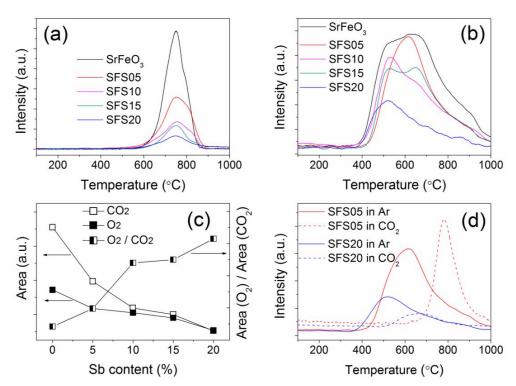


Figure 8. (a) CO₂-TPD curves, (b) O₂-TPD curves, and (c) the desorption peak areas of SFS powders treated in 1 atm CO₂ at 800 °C for 5h; (d) O₂-TPD of SFS05 and SFS20 using Ar or CO₂ as carrier gas.

The oxygen transport property was characterized by oxygen permeation experiments and impedance spectroscopy. For the oxygen permeation measurements, dense SFS ceramic membranes (Figure S8) were used, with one side exposed to air and the other side to He. As shown in Figure S9 and Table S2, the oxygen fluxes decrease while the associated activation energies increase with increasing Sb content. The area-specific resistance (ASR) was determined from the diameter of the impedance semicircle for the SFS symmetrical cells. The ASR of SFS cathode is larger than that of undoped SrFeO₃ (~0.044 Ω cm²)⁴¹, and increases from 0.11 Ω cm² to 0.13 Ω cm² as the Sb content increases at 800 °C in air (Figure 9). Clearly, Sb doping is detrimental to both the oxygen permeation and ORR activity of the SrFeO_{3-δ} perovskite.

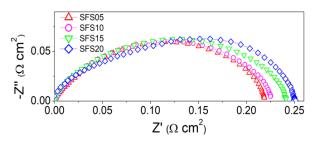


Figure 9. Impedance spectra of SFS symmetric cells measured at 800 °C in air. The ohmic resistance has been subtracted for the sake of simplicity.

The impact of CO_2 presence on the oxygen transport property was studied by monitoring the variation of the ASR of the SFS symmetrical cells upon exposure to CO_2 at 800 °C. Figure

10a shows that all the samples are susceptible to CO_2 presence and exhibit increased ASR. The time-dependent ASR plots agree well with a power law relationship, reflecting more pronounced degradation at the beginning of the CO₂ exposure but a much slower degradation rate at later times. Samples with higher Sb contents show significantly slower ASR degradation. For instance, the ASR of SFS05 increases rapidly by 4.2 times from 0.11 Ω cm² to 0.46 Ω cm² within 50 h. In contrast, the ASR of SFS20 electrode increases by only 40% within the same duration, and 64% of the ASR increase by 1000 h occurred within the initial 150 h. For comparison, we also measure the ASR of La_{0.6}Sr_{0.4}Co_{0.2}Fe_{0.8}O_{3-δ} (LSCF), a well-studied cathode material. It can be seen that although LSCF exhibits a smaller starting ASR (measured in air) than SFS20, it is more susceptible to CO_2 and the ASR exceeds that of SFS20 within 20 h. Figure 10b shows that the ASR of SFS20 increased gradually from 0.13 Ω cm^2 to 0.18 Ω cm² as the CO₂ concentration increases to 52%. Similar behavior was also observed for the oxygen surface exchange coefficient, K_{chem} . As evidenced by the ECR experiments in Figure S7, the $K_{\rm chem}$ value for SFS05 decreases from 4.3×10^{-4} cm s⁻¹ in air to 3.7×10^{-4} cm s⁻¹, 2.3×10^{-4} cm s⁻¹, and 2.0×10^{-4} cm s⁻¹ in 5%, 25%, and 52% CO₂, respectively. These results suggest that when the SFS samples are operated in realistic SOFC atmosphere (ambient air), less degradation was observed due to the lower CO_2 concentration (0.04%) as compared to the levels used in the present work.

Considering that SFS20 has excellent CO₂ tolerance, we constructed a single cell as a simple demonstration of the performance of SFS20 as the cathode. The 20 µm-thick cathode exhibits uniform porosity and adheres well with the 15 µm-thick GDC20 electrolyte (Figure S10). Figure 11 displays the *IVP* curves of the single cells tested at 650-800 °C using humidified H₂ (~3% H₂O) as fuel and ambient air as an oxidant. At 650 °C, a peak powder density of ~245 mW cm⁻² was achieved, which is comparable to that of a single cell with a Sm_{0.5}Sr_{0.5}CoO₃₋₈ cathode⁴². Note that the cell performance can in principle be substantially enhanced by optimizing the materials and microstructure, e.g., using cathode of higher ORR activity and/or thinner electrolyte.

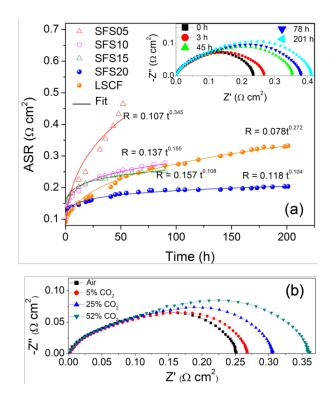


Figure 10. (a) Durability of SFS and LSCF symmetric cells in air with 1% CO₂ at 800 °C, inset is the EIS of the SFS20 symmetric cell. (b) Impedance spectra of SFS20 symmetric cell measured at 800 °C with different CO₂ concentration. PO_2 was kept at 0.21 atm.

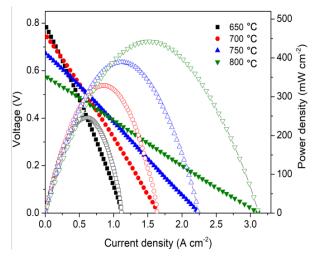


Figure 11. Current-voltage characteristics and corresponding power density of the single cell.

3.3 Structure-property relationship

The enhanced CO₂ resistance of SrFeO₃ by Sb doping is believed to originate from the structural changes of perovskite. The ionic potential, i.e., electric charge (*Z*) divided by the ionic radius (*r* in Å), is a measure of bond strength in the network.⁴³ Sb⁵⁺ (8.33) (ionic radius (*N*=6) is 0.6 Å⁴⁴) has a much larger ionic potential than that of Fe³⁺ (4.65, hs) and Fe⁴⁺ (6.84), which would lead to stronger Sb-O bonds. This is in agreement with the calculated levels of oxygen vacancy formation energy for Fe-O-Sb and increased ABE by Sb doping. Since the

reaction of CO₂ with the oxide requires an extra oxygen atom from the oxide for carbonate formation, the stabilization of the lattice oxygen by Sb⁵⁺ would be expected to improve the CO₂ resistance of the material. Moreover, the increased O1s binding energy observed by XPS, i.e., reduced electron cloud density for oxygen, may also be ascribed to the stronger attraction of Sb⁵⁺ than Fe³⁺/Fe⁴⁺. It is noteworthy that Sb doping also leads to some changes in the local structure around Fe cations. The decreased Fe oxidation state and larger Fe-O inter-atomic distance are generally unfavorable for the metal-oxygen bonding. Since these changes are minor, they may only partly counteract the positive effect of enhanced Sb-O bonding on the materials stability.

Likewise, the reduced oxygen reduction activity observed with Sb doping can be attributed to changes in the structural parameters. Oxygen transport in ionic solids is usually favoured by high concentration and high mobility of oxygen vacancies⁴⁵, which prefer a low energy barrier pathway. Sb-doped SrFeO₃ is associated with reduced oxygen vacancy concentration, with the oxygen vacancies preferring to be associated with Fe atoms due to the stronger bonding of Sb-O as compared to Fe-O. The lower oxygen mobility would result from the pinning of oxygen by Sb, which increases the energy barrier for oxygen transport and results in a longer and more tortuous transport pathway.

The above analyses show that the trade-off between the CO_2 resistance and ORR activity in $SrFe_{1-x}Sb_xO_3$ is, in fact, a result of their contradictory requirements for structural parameters. Strong B-O bonding favors high CO_2 stability, but inevitably reduces the concentration and mobility of oxygen vacancies resulting in decreased ORR activity, and vice versa. Therefore, to meet the demands of versatile applications, one needs to balance the stability and performance of perovskite-structured oxides. Since the perovskite structure allows for flexible compositions, this can in principle be achieved by fine tuning the materials' composition through appropriate choice of dopants.

4. Conclusions

In summary, a systematic experimental investigation of the stability-performance trade-off of antimony-doped SrFeO₃ cathode was performed. The resistance of the SrFe_{1-x}Sb_xO_{3- δ} oxides toward acidic CO₂ can be effectively increased by antimony doping which reduces secondary phase formation at the surface. On the other hand, stability-performance trade-off depends enormously on the structural changes of the perovskite oxides. Iron substitution by Sb results in a decrease of the oxygen vacancy concentration and iron oxidation state and a concomitant increase of the Fe-O atomic distance. Sb doping increases the bond strength due to its larger ionic potential and increases the energy barrier for oxygen migration. The enhanced stability of oxygen around Sb gives rise to enhanced CO₂ tolerance, while the suppressed oxygen mobility results in decreased levels of oxygen transport. The effect of CO₂ concentration on the oxygen surface exchange rate is also investigated. This work provides evidence and a path forward for the field to tailor the performance of perovskite-type cathodes of SOFCs through compositional modifications.

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Supporting Information Available: In situ XRD patterns, Thermal expansion coefficient, Deconvolution of pre-edge XANES spectra, k^3 -weighted EXAFS signals, Fourier-transformed and fitted EXAFS spectra, TGA for SFS20 in CO₂, Conductivity relaxation of SFS05, SEM, Oxygen permeation fluxes, Activation energies data are provided.

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