

Enhanced selectivity of carbonaceous products from electrochemical reduction of CO₂ in aqueous media

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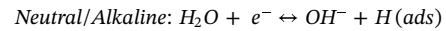
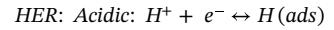
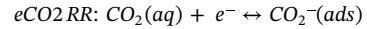
ABSTRACT

This study highlights the importance of CO₂ supply method and impact of electrolyte alkalinity in aqueous electrochemical CO₂ reduction using Cu_xO catalyst. Two different CO₂ supply methods using a two-chamber (2C) cell with CO₂ purging into catholyte and a CO₂ gas diffusion electrode (GDE) cell were compared. Faradaic efficiency (FE) of carbonaceous products in GDE cell was more than 3-folds higher than the 2C cell due to improved CO₂ mass transfer. From the investigation of alkaline catholyte in GDE cell, the higher catholyte alkalinity led to higher current density and higher FE of carbonaceous products with a better selectivity of C₂ (ethanol and ethylene). The reason lies in the OH groups around catalyst surface which improve the reaction kinetics and moreover stabilize the catalyst surface oxygen during the reduction process. With the potential of -1.17 V (RHE) in 2.0 M KOH, C₂ FE of 40% and current density of -234 mA cm⁻² were achieved. The production rate of ethylene and ethanol was respectively 0.105 mg min⁻¹ and 0.035 mg min⁻¹ on 2 cm² electrode with CO₂ flow rate 15 ml min⁻¹, which are promising for further development and scale-up.

1. Introduction

The increasing demand for energy and challenges from environmental issues and climate change has led to numerous researches on sustainability and carbon recycling. CO₂ concentration in the atmosphere has reached 427 ppm causing environmental concerns and climate change [1]. Increasing production of renewable energy results in demands on energy storage materials and devices. Effectively utilising and directly converting carbon dioxide (CO₂) into fuels as energy storage media and other valuable chemicals could provide a solution. Among the approaches of CO₂ conversion, electrochemical CO₂ reduction reaction (eCO₂RR) attracted large interests as it only consumes water and electricity as the inputs to build hydrocarbons and oxygenates (i.e., alcohols and carboxylic acids) and to release pure O₂ as a by-product on the anodic side. However, hydrogen evolution reaction (HER) shares similar reaction potential (0.0 V vs. RHE) with eCO₂RR and takes place simultaneously. Due to the big energy barrier of CO₂ activation [2], H₂ is theoretically much easier to be produced than carbonaceous products under aqueous eCO₂RR conditions [3,4].

The rate-determining steps for eCO₂RR and HER in the competitive charge transfer are both one-electron reversible process as illustrated in Equation (1) and Equation (2 or 3) respectively [2–4].



The reaction rate of the one-electron reversible electrode process is generally defined as Equation (4) [5].

$$R = \frac{j}{nF} = \frac{j_0 \left[\frac{C_O(0,t)}{C_O^*} e^{-\alpha f \eta} - \frac{C_R(0,t)}{C_R^*} e^{(1-\alpha)f \eta} \right]}{nF} \quad (4)$$

Where: j : local current density (A m⁻²)

n : number of electron transfer, here it is 1

F : faradaic constant (96,485 C mol⁻¹)

j_0 : exchange current density (A m⁻²)

$C_O(0,t)/C_R(0,t)$: the surface concentration of oxidant/reduced product at time t

C_O^*/C_R^* : the bulk concentration of oxidant/reduced product

α : transfer coefficient ($= 0.1$)

f : a constant ($= F/RT$)

η : overpotential (V)

The initial rate of either eCO₂RR or HER accords with Equation (4) which is mainly co-determined by the exchange current density j_0 , the surface concentration of reactant, and overpotential. The j_0 is primarily

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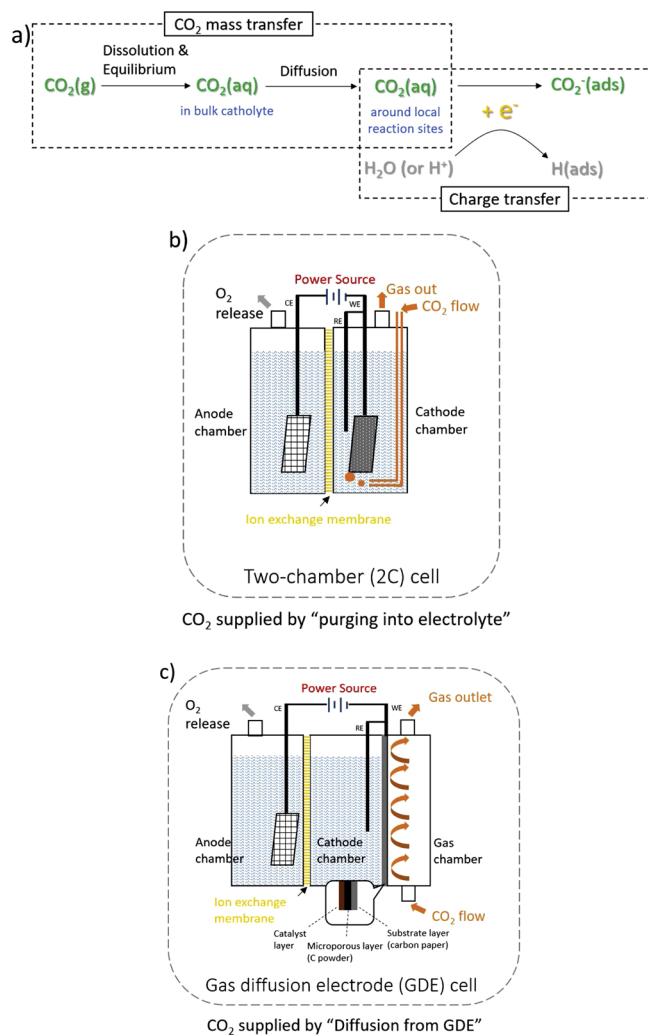


Fig. 1. a) Mass transfer and charge transfer in aqueous eCO₂RR system. Schematic diagrams of aqueous eCO₂RR system using b) 2C cell and c) GDE cell.

related to the adsorption energy of the active species (CO₂[−](ads) and H(ads)) on the electrode material [6]. A suitable catalyst [7] can change the adsorption energy to those species, intending to control the selectivity between carbonaceous products and H₂. In the aqueous eCO₂RR system, the inherent competitive advantage for HER is mass transfer, in another word, the surface concentration of H₂O (or H⁺) is always sufficient. However, the mass transfer of heterogeneous CO₂ gas is a more complicated process as illustrated in Fig. 1a.

Table 1
Summary of eCO₂RR performance with GDE working electrode from literature.

Cathode	Anode	Electrolyte	Cell voltage/cathode potential (V)	j (mA cm ^{−2})	FE for main products
Sn-GDE [19]	Pt/C coated membrane pressed GDE	0.1 M KHCO ₃ (C) 1 M KOH (A)	Cell: -2.75 V	-26	65% Formate
Ag-GDE [20]	Pt/C-GDE	1 M KCl	Cell: -3 V	-90	92% CO
Ag-GDE [21]	Pt/C-GDE	1 M CsOH	Cathode: -1.62 V (vs. Ag/AgCl)	-80	89.8% CO
Cu _x O-GDE [22]	IrO ₂ -GDE	1 M KOH	Cathode: -0.8 V (vs. RHE)	-400	> 50% C ₂
N-doped graphene quantum dots-GDE [23]	IrO ₂ -GDE	1 M KOH	-1.0 V (vs. RHE)	-240	60% C ₂ 5% C ₃
Pb-GDE [24]	PtRu-GDE	0.5 M K ₂ SO ₄ + 0.5 M H ₂ SO ₄ (C) 1 M KOH (A)	-2 V (vs. SHE)	-330	90% Formate

C: catholyte; A: anolyte.

Majority of publications [8,9] applied a traditional two-chamber (2C) cell where the reactant CO₂ gas was supplied by “purging into electrolyte”, as shown in Fig. 1b. CO₂ mass transport is determined by CO₂ solubility. Different approaches have been carried out to increase CO₂ solubility in the electrolytes, such as altering the reaction environment with high pressure [10–12] and low temperature [13], and using alcoholic base [14,15] or ionic liquid [16] as the electrolyte. However, comparing with the ambient pressure, room temperature and aqueous electrolytes, those approaches carry their own set of cost and sustainability issues.

The use of a gas diffusion electrode (GDE) changes the CO₂ supply way from “purging into electrolyte” to “diffusion from GDE” as shown in Fig. 1c, which can directly feed CO₂ gas flow to the reaction interface which has been used by fuel cells for a long time [17]. An increasing number of GDE-based studies in aqueous eCO₂RR were published in recent years, commonly achieving a remarkable current density (j) and reasonable faradaic efficiency (FE) towards C-products at ambient temperature and pressure, as summarised in Table 1. In the aqueous system with 2C cells, satisfying FE (> 50%) of carbonaceous products have also been reported but the current densities were averagely low (< 10 mA cm^{−2} at moderate potentials around -1.0 V (vs. RHE) [18]) which is about 10-folds less than GDE cells. The application of GDE should be a reliable approach to transition this bench-scale research to industry. For the further optimisation, the real effect of GDE on eCO₂RR and the factors for the high current density achieved in GDE-related studies still need to be explicit.

J. Albo et al. [25] compared the GDE performances with Cu₂O catalyst when CO₂ supplied as gas and when CO₂ supplied in saturated aqueous catholyte. The direct CO₂ gas feeding showed ~ 3 mA cm^{−2} higher current density and ~ 9% FE increase in methanol production. However, the reactor dimensions, electrolytes, membrane, applied potential, supply rate of reactants, etc. all have impacts on eCO₂RR performances, an univariate comparison is needed to examine the effect of CO₂ supply method on eCO₂RR. In this work, a 2C cell and a GDE cell were designed in the same dimension and fabricated by 3D printing. Their eCO₂RR performances were compared using the same Cu_xO catalyst, KHCO₃ catholyte with various concentrations at a wide range of potentials. The big difference of product distribution disclosed the crucial role of CO₂ mass transfer in the selectivity of carbonaceous products. Compared to the 2C cell, GDE cell with efficient CO₂ mass transfer showed more than 3-folds improvement of FE for carbonaceous products. eCO₂RR performances in GDE cell with KHCO₃ and KOH with various concentrations were also investigated.

2. Experimental

2.1. Cell fabrication and set up

The CO₂ supply methods of “purging into electrolyte” and “diffusion

from GDE" were carried out by two different electrochemical cells respectively: a 2C cell and a GDE cell were designed with the same dimension of the cathodic and anodic chambers, and fabricated by 3D printer (Form 2, Formlabs) using the photoreactive resin (Form 2 Clear Resin, Formlabs). Cell parts were screwed together using metal bolts. The cathodic and anodic chambers were separated by a cation exchange membrane (CEM) (F-950, Fumapem). The cathode used in both cells was Cu_xO painted GDE with the geometric surface area 2 cm² and the anode was Platinum plated Titanium mesh with a dimension of 4 cm². The schematics of the two cells are as described in Fig. 1b and c. Figure S1 shows the 3D drawings of the two cells set-up, with the design information given below in the Supplementary Data.

2.2. Catalyst synthesis and working electrode preparation

Cu_xO catalyst was synthesized using the hydrothermal method by reduction of Cu acetate (Sigma-Aldrich, 98%) in the solvent of water and ethanol (Sigma-Aldrich, > 99.8%) mixture reported previously [26]. The volume ratio of water and ethanol was controlled as 1:7, i.e., 10 ml water and 70 ml ethanol. The catalyst was dried at 60 °C in an oven (Oven-30S, SciQuip) in air for 8 h.

15 mg catalyst (Cu_xO) was weighed and dispersed in 200 µl isopropanol and 33 µl Nafion suspension (Sigma-Aldrich, 5 wt.%) to prepare the catalyst ink. The ink was sonicated for 20 min before painting onto the surface of carbon paper with gas diffusion layer (GDL) (H2315 I2 C6, Freudenberg). Drying (45 °C, 1~3 min) was applied between each layer. Painting and drying were repeated until the desired Cu_xO catalyst loading of 4~5 mg cm⁻² was achieved.

2.3. eCO₂RR electrochemical analysis

All the electrochemical reactions and measurements were carried out at ambient temperature and pressure using a potentiostat (Metrohm Autolab PGSTAT128 N). The flow rate of CO₂ (BOC 99.99%) was controlled at 15 ml min⁻¹ by a flow meter (Cole-Parmer TMR1-010462). 5 M KOH solution was employed as the anolyte in all the tests. KHCO₃ (Alfa Aesar, 99%) and KOH (Emsure®, 85%) solution with different concentrations of 0.1, 0.5, 1.0, and 2.0 M (only in KOH) were used as the catholyte, and the comparison was carried out. Ag/AgCl (RE-5B, BASI, 3 M NaCl, 0.197 V vs. SHE) was used as the reference electrode, and a luggin capillary was applied to prevent it from being damaged in alkaline electrolyte. The applied potentials (vs. Ag/AgCl) in the three-electrode system were all converted to the reversible hydrogen electrode (RHE), thus the potentials stated in this study are referred to RHE unless otherwise stated.

In the 2C cell, CO₂ was purged into catholyte 1 h before electrochemical tests.

In the GDE cell, a peristaltic pump (120U/DM2, Watson Marlow) was used to supply fresh catholyte to maintain the local pH and to remove liquid product for reaction equilibrium. The flow rate was controlled at 0.25 ml min⁻¹ under the applied potential -0.17~0.77 V and at 0.5 ml min⁻¹ under the applied potential -0.77~1.17 V.

Electrochemical characterisations were made by cyclic voltammetry (CV) and electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS). CV was carried out three cycles between 1.4 to -1.0 V with the scan rate 50 mV s⁻¹ to initially explore the cathode electrochemical behaviour. The FRA32 M module on the Autolab potentiostat was operated for EIS measurement, which was recorded with an ac-amplitude of 10 mV over the frequency range from 10k Hz to 0.1 Hz either at open circuit voltage (OCV) or at -0.77 V cathodic potential. The impedance spectra were analysed and fitted using NOVA 2.0 software.

eCO₂RR was carried out by chronoamperometry (CA) recording the current at a particular applied potential for 30 min. The current density (*j*) was calculated based on the geometric surface area 2 cm² of the working electrode.

2.4. Product analysis

A gas chromatography (Shimazu Tracera GC-2010) equipped with Barrier Discharge Ionization (BID) detector was used to analyse gas products and alcoholic liquid products. The ShinCarbon ST micro-packed column 80/100 (Restek) was used to quantitatively analyse permanent gases and light hydrocarbons, while the Zebron ZB-WAXplus capillary column (Phenomenex) was used for alcoholic liquids. An ion chromatography (Eco IC, Metrohm) equipped with the "METROHM 6.1005.200" column was used for quantifying volatile fatty acids (VFA) including formic acid. The faradaic efficiency (FE) for each product was calculated based on Faraday's law (5)³, where *z* is the number of electrons transferred for per mole of reactant (e.g., *z* = 2 for reduction of CO₂ to CO), *n* is mass of the product from the electrode in moles, *F* is Faraday's constant (96,500 C mol⁻¹), *Q* represents the total charge passed.

$$FE = \frac{z n F}{Q} \quad (5)$$

2.5. Material characterisation of Cu_xO catalyst

X-ray diffraction (XRD) spectrum which showing the crystal structure of the catalyst were obtained by a Philips X-ray diffractometer PW 1730 diffractometer equipped with a Cu X-ray tube (Cu-K α ; $\lambda = 0.154$ nm) operated at 40 kV and 40 mA. To determine the elemental compositions and valence states of the electrode surface (~10 nm depth), X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) was performed on a Kratos Axis Nova XPS spectrometer using a K-Alpha line X-Ray source (225 W) over an area of approximately 300 × 700 µm. Microstructural characterisation of the catalyst was performed by scanning electron microscopy (SEM, Hitachi SU-70) coupled with an energy dispersive X-ray detector (EDX, Bruker Quantax 400).

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Effect of CO₂ supply method

The two CO₂ supply methods of "purging into electrolyte" and "diffusion from GDE" implemented by 2C cell and GDE cell respectively, were compared through eCO₂RR using the same Cu_xO-painted GDE as the cathode and same KHCO₃ catholyte. The catalyst morphology before and after 3 h eCO₂RR in 1.0 M KHCO₃ was analysed by SEM and EDX as shown in Figure S2. The fresh catalyst consisted of spherical particles (100 ~ 1000 nm) which became finer after reaction. The EDX analysis (Figure S2) indicated that Cu_xO catalyst was reduced during eCO₂RR since the atomic ratio of copper to oxygen (Cu/O) was increased from 2.81 (before reaction) to 8.13 (after reaction). Since the substance composition and morphology of Cu_xO catalyst changed over the eCO₂RR duration, fresh Cu_xO catalyst was used in each eCO₂RR, with CV measurements in N₂ and CO₂ atmosphere respectively at the beginning. CV results which preliminarily evaluated the reaction behaviour are shown in Figure S3. After CV, eCO₂RRs were carried out by CA at specific fixed potentials (30 min for each potential), the raw data of CAs are given in Figure S4. The normalized FEs for carbonaceous products and H₂, and the average current density of eCO₂RRs in the 2C and GDE cell were calculated and are shown in Table S1. FE sum of all the carbonaceous products and current density (*j*) taken from Table S1 are presented in Fig. 2.

It can be observed from the comparison between Fig. 2a and b that:

Within the potential range from -0.17 to -1.17 V, the GDE cell produced carbonaceous products with higher FE than the 2C cell. Although the current densities of the two cells were similar at the same catholyte and potential, the current in the 2C cell was mostly associated with HER. Only a small amount of formate and CO were produced when potentials were more negative than -0.37 V in the 2C cell, whereas CO

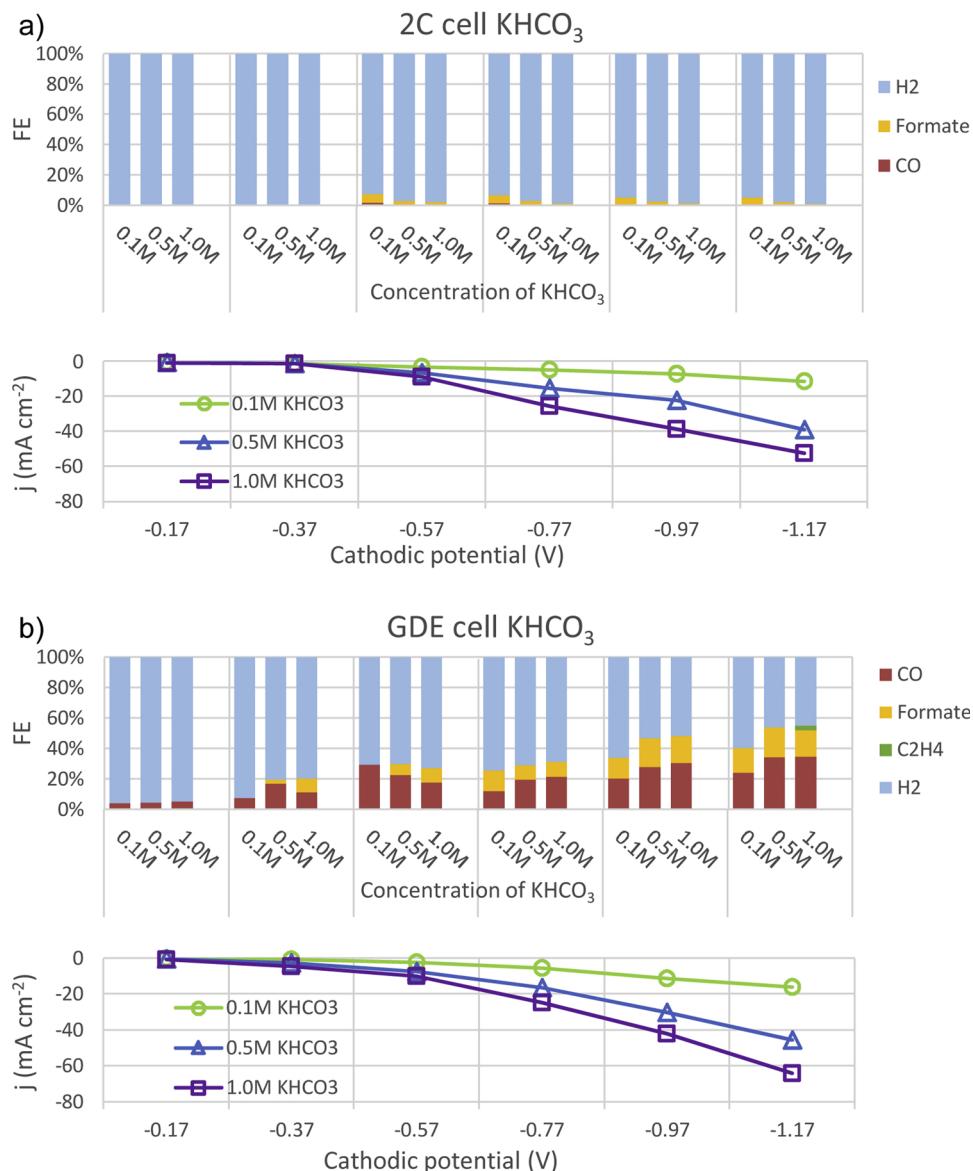


Fig. 2. eCO₂RRs catalysed by Cu_xO at a wide range of applied potentials in a) 2C cell with different concentrations of KHCO₃ and b) GDE cell with different concentrations of KHCO₃.

was observed from -0.17 V in all KHCO₃ electrolytes from GDE cell. The FE of carbonaceous products in GDE cell increased with more negative potential, 5% at -0.17 V to 54% at -1.17 V.

The relationship between total FE of carbonaceous products and KHCO₃ catholyte concentration in 2C cell and GDE cell were opposite. In the 2C cell, FE of carbonaceous products decreased with an increase in KHCO₃ concentration (a similar result was reported by Hori [27]). However, the GDE cell showed the carbonaceous FE increased with the increasing KHCO₃ concentration.

This can be caused by different reaction species from different CO₂ supply method. In the 2C cell, it has been widely accepted that the real reactant in the eCO₂RR system is the dissolved CO₂ (generally written as CO₂ (aq) or H₂CO₃^{*}), rather than ionic HCO₃⁻ and CO₃ [2–27,1–29]. Although H₂CO₃^{*} concentration increased from higher CO₂ solubility in higher concentration of KHCO₃, the CO₂ reduction was determined by the ratio of H₂CO₃^{*}/Total carbonate, which is higher in lower concentrations of KHCO₃ according to Heng et al. [29] leading to higher selectivity in 0.1 M KHCO₃ than in 1.0 M KHCO₃.

In aqueous medium, the process of CO₂ mass transfer is composed of two major steps: Step 1. CO₂ gas dissolution and equilibrium to produce

the reactant CO₂(aq), Step 2. CO₂(aq) diffusion from bulk catholyte to local reaction sites. The rate of each step and the corresponding influence factors are summarized in Table S2. A brief review related to CO₂ mass transfer process given below Table S2 indicates that KHCO₃ with higher concentration can balance slightly more CO₂(aq) in the bulk electrolyte [29] in Step 1, but constrains CO₂(aq) diffusion [30] in Step 2. Moreover, under reduction potential, the K⁺ of catholyte would be adsorbed around the double layer that further hinders CO₂(aq) diffusion [31], in favour of hydrogen evolution.

In the GDE cell, the reactant was more likely activated CO₂ species, CO₂^{*}, which the adsorption mechanism as shown in Equation (6) where gaseous CO₂ or CO₂^{*} can be directly reacting at the catalyst interface. The gas adsorption mechanism in GDE was also reported in oxygen reduction reaction (ORR) related studies [32]. With this mass transfer mechanism in GDE cell, sufficient CO₂ reactant could be provided around reaction sites, which develops the competitiveness of eCO₂RR against HER, reflected in a significantly enhanced carbonaceous selectivity than 2C cell.



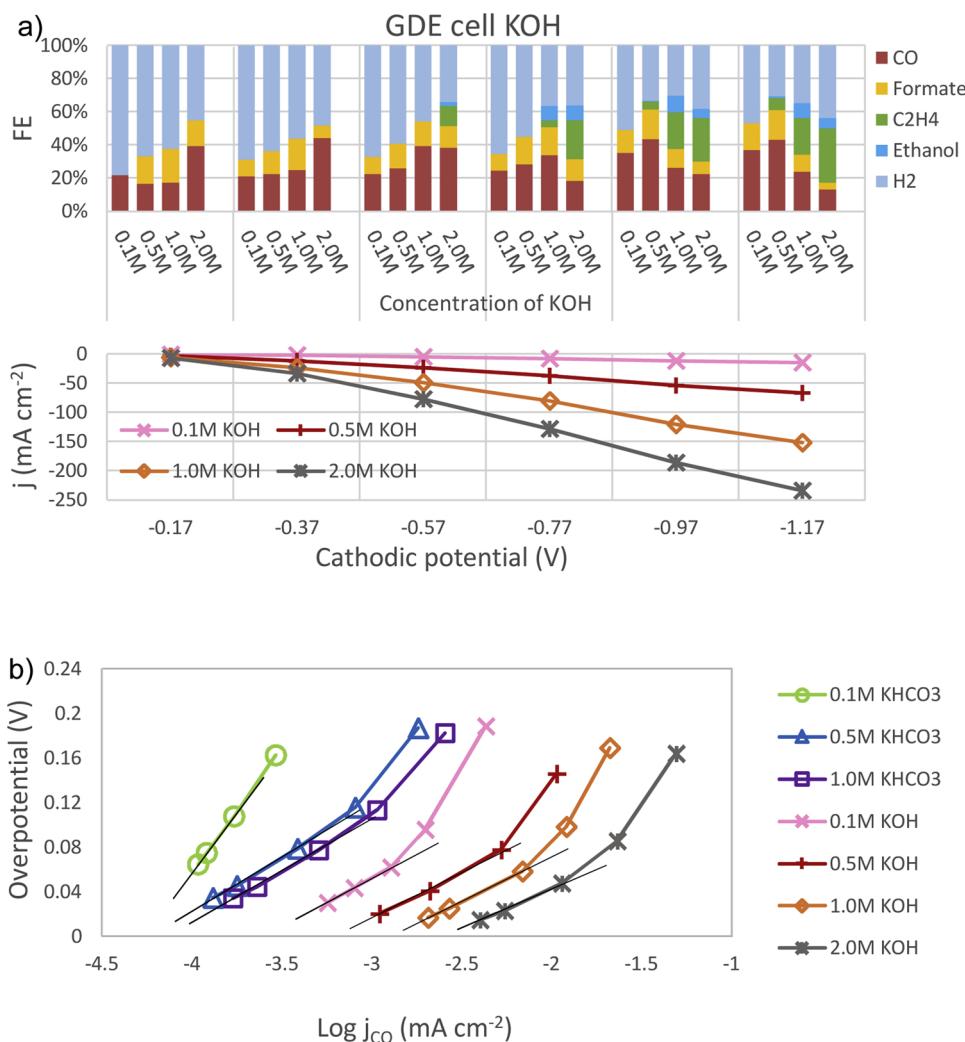


Fig. 3. a) eCO₂RRs catalysed by Cu_xO at a wide range of applied potentials in GDE cell with different concentrations of KOH. b) Tafel plots of the partial current density of CO₂ reduced to CO versus overpotential for CO formation in GDE cell with different catholytes.

In GDE cell, FE of carbonaceous products and current density both increased with the KHCO₃ concentration which was probably related to the alkalinity of catholyte. KOH with different concentrations were applied to further study the effect of alkaline catholyte in GDE cell, shown below (Fig. 3a).

3.2. Effect of alkaline catholyte in GDE cell

Fig. 3a shows the eCO₂RR results in GDE cell by applying different concentrations of KOH as the catholyte. Cu_xO was the catalyst. Tafel plots of CO production from eCO₂RR are displayed in Fig. 3b to assess the mechanistic pathway of eCO₂RR in GDE cell with different catholyte since CO was the common product for all the situations and the easiest to be generated at low overpotential. The Tafel slopes show the relationship of IR-corrected overpotential, to eliminate the effect from resistance of the solution, and the log of the partial current density using the actual electrode surface area 108.6 cm², which was determined by measuring the double layer capacitance in 0.1 M HClO₄ [33] (Figure S5 and Table S3).

Table 2 shows the Tafel parameters of different catholytes in GDE cell obtained from Fig. 3b. With the increasing catholyte pH, the Tafel slope decreased, and the exchange current density j₀(eCO₂RR) for CO production increased, indicating faster kinetics and higher activity of eCO₂RR with more alkaline catholyte. Apart from 0.1 M KHCO₃ with lowest [OH⁻], the difference between other Tafel slope values were

Table 2

Tafel parameters obtained from the Tafel plots (Fig. 3b), b represents the Tafel slope for the lower overpotential region.

	KHCO ₃			KOH			
	0.1 M	0.5 M	1.0 M	0.1 M	0.5 M	1.0 M	2.0 M
pH	8.55	9.04	9.67	13.02	13.56	13.96	14.30
b /mV dec ⁻¹	213	95	92	90	86	81	74
j ₀ /mA cm ⁻²	5.41	5.76	7.30	2.61	5.77	1.30	2.60
	$\times 10^{-5}$	$\times 10^{-5}$	$\times 10^{-5}$	$\times 10^{-4}$	$\times 10^{-4}$	$\times 10^{-3}$	$\times 10^{-3}$

small, decreased from 95 mV dec⁻¹ in 0.5 M KHCO₃ to 74 mV dec⁻¹ in 2.0 M KOH. This suggests the same mechanism for CO₂ reduction to CO despite different [OH⁻] in the catholyte.

Comparing eCO₂RR in GDE cell with KHCO₃ catholyte (Fig. 2b) and KOH catholyte (Fig. 3a), the selectivity of the carbonaceous products is greater with KOH solution than with KHCO₃ solutions shown by higher FE in KOH at the same potentials. Also in both KOH and KHCO₃ electrolytes, the carbonaceous FE was enhanced with increasing electrolyte concentrations. 1.0 and 2.0 M KOH at -0.17 V had similar FE of carbonaceous products to KHCO₃ at -1.17 V. This 1 V shift suggests lower energy required in catholyte with higher alkalinity.

C₂ products (ethylene and ethanol) were notably produced in KOH catholyte with the concentration higher than 0.5 M. At -1.17 V, the C₂

FE reached almost 40% in 2.0 M KOH. Within the potential range in this study, C₂ selectivity was increased with more negative potentials and higher KOH concentration. Although the highest FE for C₂ was obtained in 2.0 M KOH, the differences between 1.0 and 2.0 M were insignificant indicating the applied potential related to the energy level of the reaction interface at higher pH more critical.

The current density (j) increased with increasing the overpotential and catholyte concentration. Under the same potential, the current density of KOH was much higher than KHCO₃ with the same concentration. EIS measurement with the CO₂ atmosphere was used to survey the effect of KOH concentration on resistances. The results displayed in Figure S7 and Table S4 indicate that KOH with higher concentration has smaller resistances of solution and charge transfer. The charge transfer resistance decreased with [OH[−]], corresponding to the increasing exchange current density j_0 shown in Table 2. −234 mA cm^{−2} current density was achieved at −1.17 V in 2.0 M KOH, with 40% FE of C₂. The production rate of ethylene and ethanol was respectively 0.105 mg min^{−1} and 0.035 mg min^{−1} on 2 cm² electrode with CO₂ flow rate 15 ml min^{−1}, implying the industrialisation potential for C₂ production.

The high alkalinity catholyte showing improved eCO₂RR kinetics and C₂ selectivity could be due to the adsorbed OH on catalyst surface. Zhang et al. [34] compared eCO₂RRs on three different local oxygen-induced surfaces: 1. fully oxidized Cu₂O surface, 2. partially oxidized Cu(110)−(2×1)O surface, 3. presence of OH spectators. The existence of OH groups as spectators on Cu⁰ surface could flip the selectivity between CH₄ and CH₃OH, playing the similar role with the oxidized Cu surface. It has been widely accepted that oxide-derived electrocatalysts applied in eCO₂RR can reduce the energy barrier of CO₂ activation through enhancing the adsorption strength³⁵ and stability of the active species CO^{*} on reaction sites [3,36,37]. The CO^{*} dimerization is the rate determining step of C₂ products formation [38–42], which occurs at high local pH(≥12) [43], and easier to take place on an oxygen-induced Cu surface than bare metallic Cu [44,45].

The use of oxide-derived Cu as the catalyst for CO₂ reduction has been recognized for the purpose of C₂ production in some studies [22,37,44,46,47]. However, J. Albo et al. [48–50] used Cu₂O with 0.5 M KHCO₃ catholyte in a two-chamber cell and found methanol to be the major product, which was not detected in this work. Analyzing the methanol absence in this study compared to their work is hard as different type of Cu oxide catalyst applied. Also, the results above indicate, even with the same Cu_xO catalyst, the distribution of carbonaceous products varied by CO₂ supply method, catholyte, and applied potential. XRD and XPS were applied to investigate the status of Cu_xO catalyst and reaction interfaces, as shown in Fig. 4.

Cu_xO applied as the catalyst in this study is a mixture of Cu₂O (main), CuO and Cu as observed in its XRD pattern (Fig. 4a). The reduction of Cu_xO to Cu⁰ has much less negative potential than eCO₂RR as found in the CV results in Figure S3. Thus, under the reaction potential of eCO₂RR, the Cu_xO catalyst should be reduced to Cu⁰ rapidly. The XRD patterns of the two “after reaction” samples indicate the main component in the bulk catalyst after reaction either in 1.0 M KHCO₃ or 1.0 M KOH was metallic Cu. However, even though the bulk Cu_xO catalyst reduced to Cu⁰, the catalytic activity maintained over 4 h with stable C₂ FE between 30–40%, as shown in Figure S6, suggesting the catalytic activity of Cu based catalyst may still be from Cu and OH or oxygen groups from oxide-derived catalyst could further reduce the activation energy and be favourable to carbonaceous products formation. XPS which was used to characterise the catalyst surface further proved this. Fig. 4b displays the XPS spectra on Cu_xO-GDE before eCO₂RR and after 3 h eCO₂RR in GDE cell with 1.0 M KOH and 1.0 M KHCO₃. The reduction of the catalyst after reaction is also observed since the satellite peaks of Cu 2p_{3/2} and Cu 2p_{1/2} on the fresh catalyst are both largely attenuated after reaction [51]. These peaks are stronger mitigated in the “after reaction (KHCO₃)” catalyst than those of “after reaction (KOH)”, indicating the catalyst surface after reaction remains

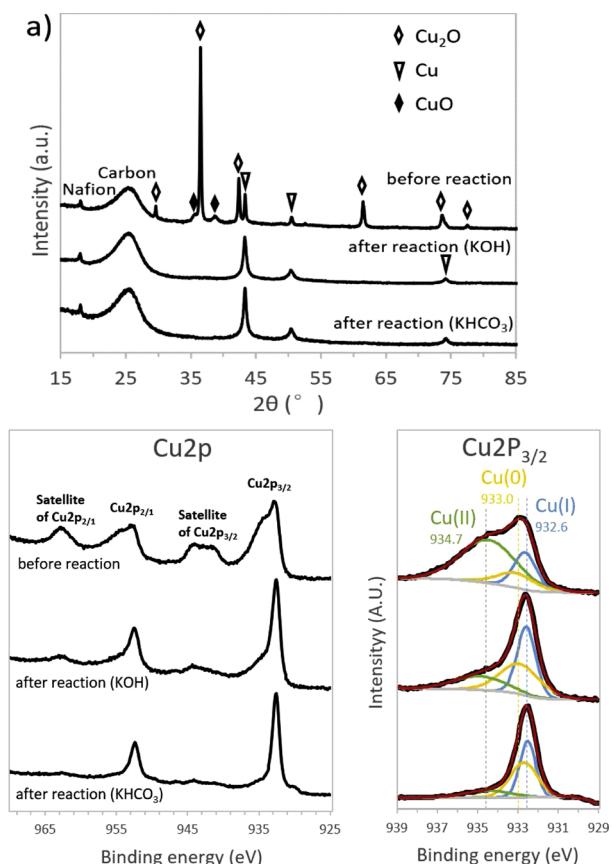


Fig. 4. a) XRD patterns and b) XPS spectra of Cu2P and the peak-differentiating of Cu2P_{3/2} for the Cu_xO-GDE before eCO₂RR and after 3 h eCO₂RR in 1.0 M KOH and 1.0 M KHCO₃.

higher oxidation degree in KOH than in KHCO₃. The Cu2P_{3/2} photoelectric peak was fitted to quantitatively analysis Cu species [52,53]. The fresh catalyst surface contains 14.65% Cu(0), 21.99% Cu(I), and 63.36% Cu(II). After eCO₂RR, the catalyst surface of “after reaction (KOH)” contains 37.82% Cu(0), 39.92% Cu(I) and 22.26% Cu(II), showing higher oxidation degree than that of “after reaction (KHCO₃)” containing 44.31% Cu(0), 41.15% Cu(I) and 14.54% Cu(II). Although the bulk Cu_xO catalyst was substantially reduced to metallic Cu after eCO₂RR, oxidized Cu partially remained on the catalyst surface.

In summary, the OH groups adsorbed on the catalyst surface may partially prevent the oxidised Cu surface from being reduced to metal and reduce the energy barrier of CO₂ activation through enhancing the adsorption strength [35] and stability of the active species CO^{*} on reaction sites [3,36,37]. Also, the high concentration of OH[−] on Cu catalyst surface showed reduced CO–CO coupling energy barrier [47], resulting in enhanced selectivity of C₂ products.

4. Conclusions

In this study, the effects of CO₂ supply method and alkalinity on the selectivity of carbonaceous products, and C₂ products were investigated in aqueous electrolyte using Cu_xO catalyst. The results suggested that GDE cell with CO₂ supplied through gas diffusion has higher selectivity for carbonaceous products and suppression of HER compared to two-chamber cell with CO₂ purging into electrolyte. Faradaic Efficiency of carbonaceous products increased from < 10% in 2C cell to 55% in GDE cell at −1.17 V in 1.0 M KHCO₃. This was primarily due to different reactants for CO₂ electrochemical reduction in GDE and in reaction solution, being CO₂^{*} and hydrated H₂CO₃^{*}, respectively. The alkalinity of catholyte also had a significant influence on the selectivity of

carbonaceous products leading to higher FE from KOH than KHCO₃. Higher FE of C₂ products, ethanol and ethylene, were observed from KOH with higher concentration (≥ 0.5 M) and at higher overpotentials (-0.97 and -1.17 V), suggesting C–C coupling process occurring with high concentration of OH at catalyst interface with high energy input. XRD and XPS proved the effect of OH groups on the catalysts surface could be favourable to carbonaceous products formation. At -1.17 V with 2 M KOH, C₂ FE achieved at 40% with current density -234 mA cm⁻², producing 0.105 mg min⁻¹ ethylene and 0.035 mg min⁻¹ ethanol on 2 cm² electrode with CO₂ flow rate 15 ml min⁻¹. This is promising for further development and scale-up.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary material related to this article can be found, in the online version, at doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jcou.2019.02.007>.

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