

High-Performance Electrochemical CO₂ Reduction Cells Based on Non-noble Metal Catalysts

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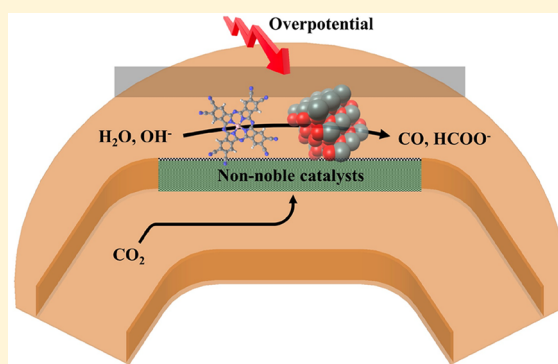
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S Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: The promise and challenge of electrochemical mitigation of CO₂ calls for innovations on both catalyst and reactor levels. In this work, enabled by our high-performance and earth-abundant CO₂ electroreduction catalyst materials, we developed alkaline microflow electrolytic cells for energy-efficient, selective, fast, and durable CO₂ conversion to CO and HCOO[−]. With a cobalt phthalocyanine-based cathode catalyst, the CO-selective cell starts to operate at a 0.26 V overpotential and reaches a Faradaic efficiency of 94% and a partial current density of 31 mA/cm² at a 0.56 V overpotential. With a SnO₂-based cathode catalyst, the HCOO[−]-selective cell starts to operate at a 0.76 V overpotential and reaches a Faradaic efficiency of 82% and a partial current density of 113 mA/cm² at a 1.36 V overpotential. In contrast to previous studies, we found that the overpotential reduction from using the alkaline electrolyte is mostly contributed by a pH gradient near the cathode surface.



Electrochemical conversion of CO₂ offers a promising solution to offset the greenhouse gas and ocean acidification issues. This process is particularly appealing when the transformation of concentrated carbon emissions into fuels or chemical feedstocks is driven by excess electricity generated from renewable sources.^{1–3} Among various CO₂ reduction reaction (CO₂RR) options, formate (HCOO[−]) synthesis is one of the most viable technology pathways as the cost could be leveled to \$0.46/kg, below the commercial formic acid price threshold.⁴ CO production, if coupled with the Fischer–Tropsch process, is also plausible with the potential to produce diesel fuel at the cost of \$4.4/gallon per gas equivalent.^{1,4} More reduced products, such as ethanol, are limited by a minimum cost of \$8.2/gallon per gas equivalent, lacking technoeconomic feasibility.⁴ However, HCOO[−] synthesis and CO production are still hindered by inefficient kinetics. From this perspective, designing active, selective, durable and low-cost CO₂RR catalysts is the key. Meanwhile,

to push CO₂RR toward a higher level of industrial relevance, it is important to improve the full-cell performance by developing reactors with enhanced mass transport and reduced internal resistance.

Extensive effort has been devoted to the search for efficient CO₂RR catalyst materials. Some noble metals are both active and selective, such as Au for CO₂-to-CO conversion^{5–7} and Pd for HCOOH generation.^{8,9} However, their high cost and low catalytic stability are less suitable for practical electrochemical reactors. Cu-based catalysts have displayed a wide product spectrum covering CO,¹⁰ CH₄,^{11,12} C₂H₄,^{13,14} HCOO[−],¹⁵ and multicarbon species.^{11,16} Yet, high selectivity and long-term stability are still not easy to achieve.¹⁷ SnO_x is able to reduce CO₂ to HCOO[−] with high Faradaic efficiency (FE) and good

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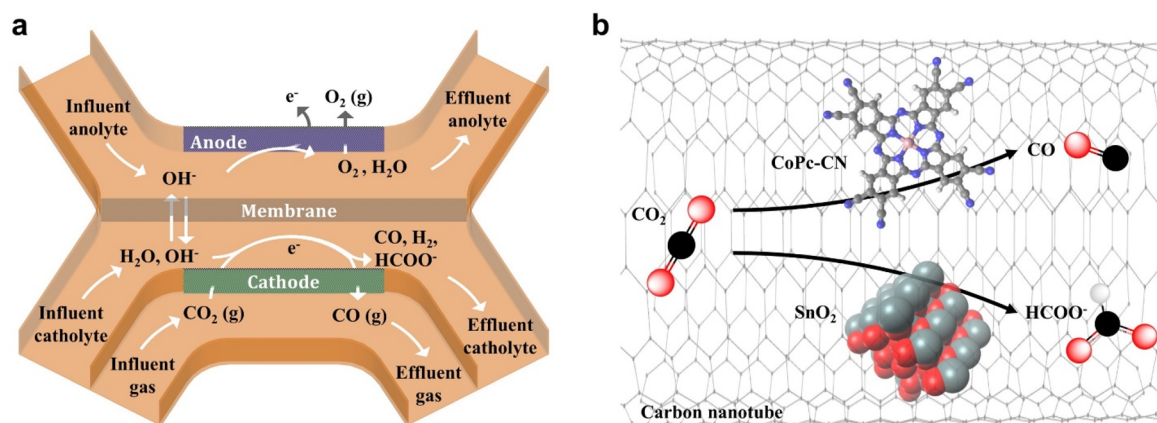


Figure 1. (a) Gas and liquid flows and electrochemical reactions in the flow cell. (b) CoPc-CN molecules and SnO₂ nanoparticles supported on CNTs as cathode electrocatalysts for CO₂ conversion to CO and HCOO[−], respectively.

stability,¹⁸ and it has been reported that its catalytic performance can be improved by hybridizing with a Cu^{19,20} or Ag²¹ component. For CO₂-to-CO conversion, we have recently developed a hybrid material with molecularly structured catalytic sites, namely, cyano-substituted cobalt phthalocyanine molecules (CoPc-CN) anchored on carbon nanotubes (CNTs), which demonstrates high selectivity, large geometric current density, and high turnover frequency at a relatively low overpotential.²²

In the pursuit of electrochemical reactors for CO₂ reduction, the majority of reported studies have been based on two-compartment H-shape cells.^{23,24} A cell voltage above 3 V is typically required to reach a moderate current density of 6 mA/cm².^{23,24} Typical H cells are also subject to low maximum reaction rates limited by mass transport because of the relatively large thickness of boundary layers.²⁵ Introducing a membrane electrode assembly was effective in reducing the distance between the two electrodes, but at the cost of either a high catalyst loading or a low product yield.^{26,27} The effects of ionomers in MEA cells remain to be fully understood.²⁸ Adopting flow cells with gas diffusion electrodes (GDEs) was able to further improve the device performance^{29–33} and should also in theory be able to separate more clearly the effects of electrolyte composition on mass transport versus reaction kinetics in comparison to the H-cell design,^{34–36} although researchers have not fully understood the three-phase interface. In particular, Kenis et al. achieved a current density of 135 mA/cm² and a FE_{CO} of 95% at a cell voltage of 2.5 V in spite of the voltage loss caused by the relatively large interelectrode distance, based on Ag nanoparticles as the cathode catalyst and a 1 M KOH aqueous solution as the electrolyte. This strategy²⁹ was also extended to other noble metal catalysts.^{30–32} The onset cell voltage reduction from using the alkaline electrolyte was first explained by destabilization of the CO₂^{•−} intermediate by specific anions adsorbed on the Ag surface²⁹ and in a later study attributed to the non-proton-coupled rate-determining electron-transfer step on Au surface.³³ The latter explanation would make sense if CO₂ does not react with KOH on the cathode and alter the pH near the catalyst surface, which remains to be verified by experimentally probing the local pH.

Here we report electrochemical flow cells equipped with catalysts based on earth-abundant elements that can perform selective and efficient CO₂ reduction to CO or HCOO[−]. With CoPc-CN/CNT as the cathode catalyst and CoO_x/CNT as the anode catalyst, our cell starts to split CO₂ into CO and

O₂ at a full-cell voltage of 1.6 V, corresponding to a nominal cell overpotential (i.e., η_{cell}) of 0.26 V. The peak FE_{CO} of 94% is reached at $\eta_{\text{cell}} = 0.56$ V and a partial current density (i.e., j_{CO}) of 31 mA/cm². j_{CO} exceeds 80 mA/cm² at $\eta_{\text{cell}} = 0.96$ V. With SnO₂/CNT as the cathode catalyst, conversion of CO₂ and H₂O to HCOO[−] and O₂ occurs at a full-cell voltage of 1.9 V, corresponding to a η_{cell} of 0.76 V. The FE_{HCOO[−]} reaches 82% at $\eta_{\text{cell}} = 1.36$ V and $j_{\text{HCOO[−]}} = 113$ mA/cm². The $j_{\text{HCOO[−]}}$ approaches 200 mA/cm² at $\eta_{\text{cell}} = 1.76$ V. Our devices represent the most efficient non-noble metal catalyst-based electrolytic cells that have been reported to date for reducing CO₂ to CO or HCOO[−]. Further analysis attributes the high electrochemical performance to our active, selective, and durable CO₂RR catalysts; to the low internal resistance and enhanced mass transport of the microflow cell; and importantly, to a pH gradient created by the neutralization of OH[−] by CO₂ near the cathode surface.

The core component of our CO₂ electroreduction system (Figure S1) is a microflow cell that facilitates two laminar electrolyte fluids (i.e., anolyte and catholyte) and a CO₂ gas stream to flow in parallel along microscale channels (Figure 1). We note that gaseous products (CO or H₂) could be mixed in either the CO₂ gas stream or the liquid catholyte, which was not explicitly discussed in the previous studies on similar cells. To ensure accurate product quantification, we invented a gas-tight collector, into which both the gas and electrolyte effluents were driven (Figure S1). All the gaseous products could therefore be collected for online gas chromatograph sampling. The effectiveness of this design was vindicated by near-unity total FEs. The functionality of the microflow cell was first verified by using Au nanoparticles (Figure S2) as the cathode catalyst for CO₂RR, CoO_x/CNT (Figure S3) as the anode catalyst for the O₂ evolution reaction (OER), and a 0.5 M KHCO₃ aqueous solution as the electrolyte. The Au cathode demonstrated electrocatalytic performance in the flow cell (Figure S4) comparable with that in a prevalent three-electrode H cell (Figure S2) over a wide cathode potential range.

Our CO-producing cell employs CoPc-CN/CNT (Figure S5) as the cathode catalyst and CoO_x/CNT as the anode catalyst in a 1 M KOH aqueous electrolyte. Significant CO generation could be observed at a full-cell voltage as low as 1.6 V (Figure 2a), which corresponds to a η_{cell} of 0.26 V and represents one of the lowest that have been reported for electrochemical CO₂ conversion to CO (Table S1). As the cell voltage was increased, CO production became more substantial. At a cell voltage of

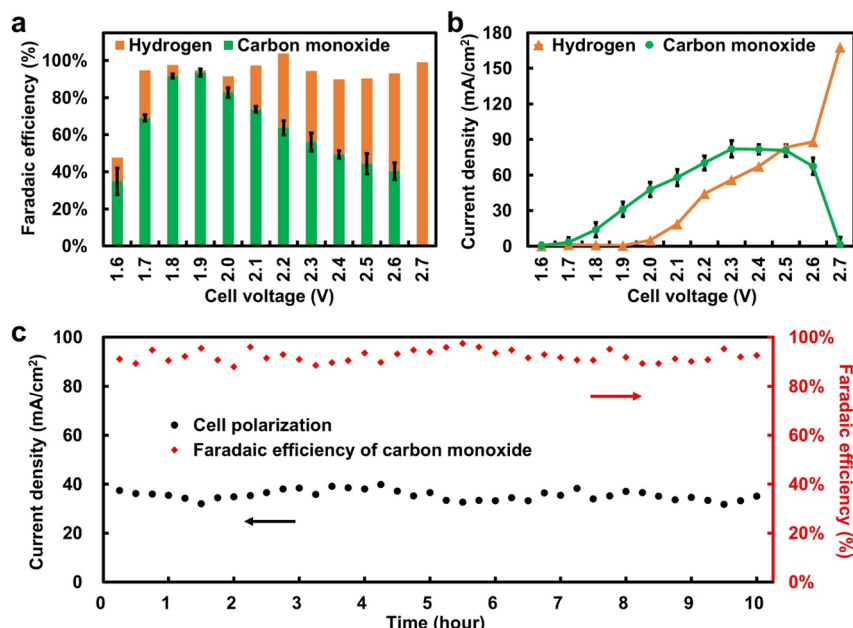


Figure 2. (a) Faradaic efficiencies and (b) partial current densities for CO and H₂ vs the voltage of the electrolytic cell with CoPc-CN/CNT as the cathode catalyst, CoO_x/CNT as the anode catalyst, and 1 M KOH as the electrolyte. (c) Total current density and Faradaic efficiency for CO production during a 10 h operation at a constant cell voltage of 2.0 V. Error bars represent the standard deviations from multiple measurements.

1.9 V (i.e., $\eta_{\text{cell}} = 0.56$ V), FE_{CO} reached 94% with $j_{\text{CO}} = 31 \text{ mA/cm}^2$ (Figure 2b). As the cell voltage was further elevated, CO selectivity decreased, whereas j_{CO} continued to increase, reaching a maximum of 82 mA/cm^2 at a cell voltage of 2.3 V. j_{H_2} also increased with the cell voltage. At 2.7 V, H₂ became the dominant product with $j_{\text{H}_2} = 168 \text{ mA/cm}^2$ while FE_{CO} dramatically dropped to 0.9% with $j_{\text{CO}} = 1.5 \text{ mA/cm}^2$. The general dependence of product distribution on potential is consistent with that measured for the same cathode catalyst in a three-electrode H cell (Figure S5). A long-term operation was carried out for 10 h at a constant cell voltage of 2.0 V (i.e., $\eta_{\text{cell}} = 0.66$ V), with the catholyte and anolyte being circulated separately. In spite of fluctuations due to gaseous bubble invasion and microflow disturbance, j_{total} stayed between 35 and 40 mA/cm^2 and FE_{CO} was stable around 90% throughout the entire period (Figure 2c). Stability at high performance as such has been reported only for an alkaline flow cell operating with a noble Au catalyst.³³

We then steered the system to HCOO^- production by switching the cathode catalyst to SnO_2/CNT (Figure S6). Significant HCOO^- production could be detected at a cell voltage of 1.9 V (Figure 3a), corresponding to a η_{cell} of 0.76 V. $\text{FE}_{\text{HCOO}^-}$ increased with the applied cell voltage, reaching a maximum of 82% at a j_{HCOO^-} of 113 mA/cm^2 and a cell voltage of 2.5 V (i.e., $\eta_{\text{cell}} = 1.36$ V). The high $\text{FE}_{\text{HCOO}^-}$ of 80% was retained until the cell voltage was increased to 2.9 V, where j_{HCOO^-} approached 200 mA/cm^2 (Figure 3b). This performance is close to industry-relevant levels³⁷ and outperforms some of the most efficient CO₂-to-HCOO⁻ electrolytic devices reported to date (Table S1).^{38–40} Under the electrolyte circulation mode, the cell was operated at a constant cell voltage of 2.3 V (i.e., $\eta_{\text{cell}} = 1.16$ V) for 35 h (Figure 3c). The entire electrolysis yielded 0.7 M of HCOO^- in the 12 mL electrolyte, with $\text{FE}_{\text{HCOO}^-}$ between 60% and 70% and the total current density between 30 and 50 mA/cm^2 . The decay in selectivity and current density during the long-term electrolysis

could be attributed to the consumption of OH⁻ on the anode side and hence the gradual decrease in the pH of the anolyte. A lower pH on the anode side could worsen the OER kinetics and decrease the full-cell performance. While the pH of the catholyte is also expected to change, the local pH near the cathode catalyst surface is likely held stable by the chemical reaction between CO₂ and KOH, which will be discussed below.

The high electrochemical performance is due to both the catalysts and the cell design. The CoPc-CN/CNT and SnO_2/CNT , with high catalytic selectivity, activity, and durability, ensure the efficient conversion of CO₂ to CO and HCOO^- , respectively. The microflow cell architecture effectively minimizes the distance between the cathode and anode and thus reduces the internal resistance (estimated to be $0.153 \Omega/\text{cm}^2$). The GDE provides a three-phase interface for the electrochemical reactions to occur. The effective slip velocities at the GDE–CO₂ and GDE–electrolyte interfaces, in association with the parallel drift velocity profile near the electrode surface, reduce the diffusion boundary layer thickness and enhance the convective/diffusive mass transport. More essentially, the KOH electrolyte plays an indispensable role. In a control experiment using Au as the cathode catalyst and CoO_x/CNT as the anode catalyst, we found that the cell requires a 470 mV higher overpotential to reach a current density of 20 mA/cm^2 when operating in a neutral 0.5 M KHCO₃ electrolyte compared to that in the basic 1 M KOH electrolyte (Figures 4, S4, and S7). The same situation occurs when using CoPc-CN/CNT (Figures 2, 4, and S8) or SnO_2/CNT (Figure 3, 4, and S9) as the cathode catalyst. While the voltage gain for the KOH cell can be partially explained by the presumption that the OER is more efficient in alkaline than in neutral electrolyte,^{41,42} there may be other important contributors to the observed performance improvement.

In another Au-based control experiment, we compared the KOH cell with a KHCO₃ (catholyte)–KOH (anolyte) dual-electrolyte cell. These two cells exhibited very similar

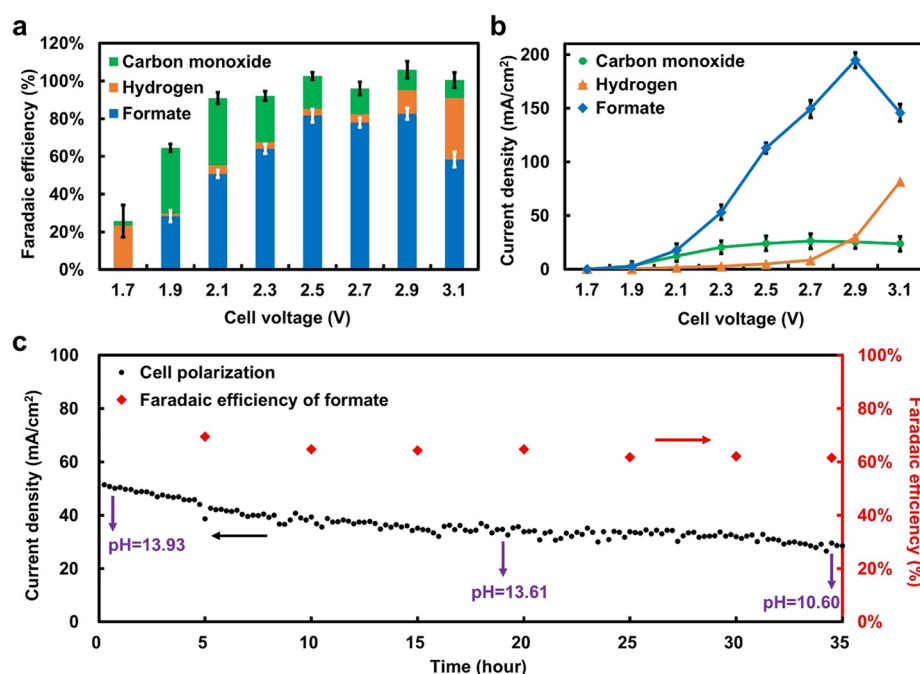


Figure 3. (a) Faradaic efficiencies and (b) partial current densities for HCOO^- , CO, and H_2 vs the voltage of the electrolytic cell with SnO_2/CNT as the cathode catalyst, CoO_x/CNT as the anode catalyst, and 1 M KOH as the electrolyte. (c) Total current density and Faradaic efficiency for HCOO^- production during a 35 h operation at a constant cell voltage of 2.3 V. The catholyte was sampled for pH measurements at the 0th, 18th, and 35th hour. Error bars represent the standard deviations from multiple measurements.

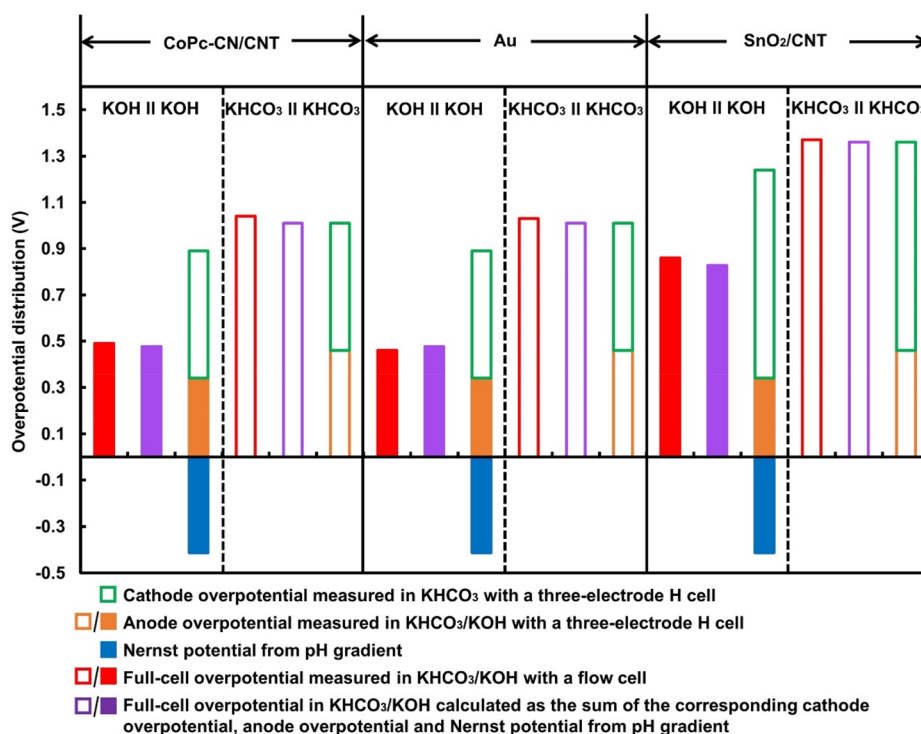


Figure 4. Contributions from cathode overpotential, anode overpotential, and pH gradient to full-cell overpotential for microflow electrolytic cells operating at 20 mA/cm^2 in alkaline or neutral electrolyte with three different cathode catalysts. Good match between the measured and calculated full-cell overpotentials supports our attribution of the overpotential reduction in alkaline electrolyte to the pH gradient and improvement of OER kinetics.

performances with respect to cell voltage, current density, and FE_{CO} (Figures 4, S7, S10, and S11). It should be noted that the dual-electrolyte cell benefits from the Nernst potential between the neutral catholyte and the basic anolyte. Therefore, the

KOH cell has at least one more factor other than the OER kinetics that contributes to the overpotential reduction. It could be because of a more efficient CO_2RR in KOH than in KHCO_3 or a pH gradient similar to that in the dual-electrolyte cell.

A previous study explained the cell performance improvement from using KOH electrolyte by assuming a proton-free rate-determining electron-transfer step for the CO₂-to-CO pathway on Au surface,³³ which implies that the CO₂ electroreduction kinetics is faster in more basic electrolyte. This rationale could be consistent with our results on the cells with Au or CoPc-CN/CNT as the cathode catalyst (an overpotential reduction of ~60 mV per pH unit when switching from KOH to KHCO₃ electrolyte), for which the rate-determining step is likely to be non-proton-coupled electron transfer.^{43,44} However, it cannot justify the performance of the SnO₂/CNT-based cell, because CO₂ conversion to HCOO[−] is a two-electron/one-proton process, for which an assumption of a proton-free rate-determining electron-transfer step would result in a voltage gain of ~30 mV per pH unit, contradicting our experimental observation. We propose that the existence of a pH gradient is a more suitable explanation to the universal performance improvement of all our KOH cells. Near the cathode surface, a near-neutral layer originates from the chemical reaction between the penetrating CO₂ through the GDE and the KOH electrolyte. Deeper into the bulk where OH[−] dominates, the species balance shifts toward a more alkaline environment, creating a pH gradient and introducing a Nernst potential which reduces the overall cell voltage. In combination with the aforementioned pH-dependent OER overpotential which is a relatively minor effect, this can readily explain the overpotential dependence on electrolyte configuration for all our electrolytic cells based on three different cathode catalysts (Figure 4). To verify that CO₂ indeed reacts with KOH at a considerable rate, we monitored the catholyte pH under the electrolyte circulation mode. While electrochemical CO₂RR continues to consume protons, the OH[−] was nearly depleted after a 35 h operation (Figure 3c).

In conclusion, we have developed unprecedented electrochemical CO₂RR cells based on non-noble metal catalysts for selective CO and HCOO[−] production at low voltages. Electrocatalytic conversion of CO₂ and H₂O to CO or HCOO[−] and O₂ onsets at 0.26 and 0.76 V, respectively. High product selectivity, large current density, and good durability are achieved at moderate overpotentials, rivaling the most up-to-date electrolytic CO₂RR devices and approaching technological viability. The superior device performance is a combined result of good catalysts and cell design. This device is potentially suitable for a wide spectrum of catalysts, for instance Cu, which can produce higher-order products such as ethylene and ethanol.

■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge on the ACS Publications website at DOI: 10.1021/acsenergylett.8b01681.

Experimental methods and additional structural and electrochemical characterization results (PDF)

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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