

## Electrocatalytic Membranes for Tunable Syngas Production and High-Efficiency Delivery to Biocompatible Electrolytes

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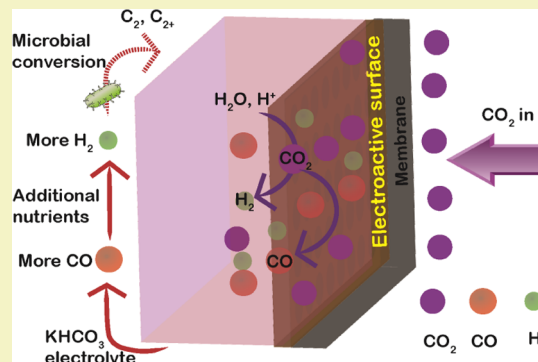
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Supporting Information

**ABSTRACT:** The integration of electrochemical and biological CO<sub>2</sub> reduction in artificial photosynthetic processes holds great promise to alleviate the current environmental stress of carbon-intensive industries and enable a circular carbon economy. The advancement of these devices hinges on the development of highly stable and selective CO<sub>2</sub> reduction catalysts that can operate in an array of biocompatible conditions. Here, we fabricated a porous silver gas diffusion electrode (GDE) on the carbon nanotube (CNT)-supported hydrophobic membrane for tunable electrochemical syngas production. We then tested its performance under the direct gas delivery mode, different chamber thicknesses, and different microbial–electrolyte compositions. Distinct from traditional flow-by delivery, CO<sub>2</sub> was directly flowed through the GDE and electrochemically converted to syngas and delivered into the electrolyte. The optimized reactor with the narrower chamber enabled higher CO faradic efficiencies (FEs) (~92 vs ~42%) and larger tunable CO/H<sub>2</sub> ratios (35:65 to 91:9 vs 12:88 to 41:59). The impact of complex microbial growth media on electrocatalysis was also investigated, and it was found that the systems achieved consistent >90% FE for syngas production, but nutrient ingredients such as NH<sub>4</sub>Cl and yeast extract led to much higher H<sub>2</sub> production due to the significant increase in proton availability from these species. The culmination of these findings helps address key limitations at the microbial–electrode interface that aid in the development of practical artificial photosynthetic technologies toward the sustainable production of green fuels and chemicals.

**KEYWORDS:** electroactive membrane, CO<sub>2</sub> electrolysis, tunable syngas, biocompatible



## INTRODUCTION

Anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> emissions disrupts the natural carbon cycle, leading to rising global temperatures and increased occurrences of extreme weather events.<sup>1,2</sup> Carbon capture, storage, and utilization have been implemented to mitigate the impacts of such emissions while in the meantime utilizing CO<sub>2</sub> as a potential feedstock for beneficial reuse.<sup>3–6</sup> Waste CO<sub>2</sub> can be converted to value-added products using electro-, photo-, and biocatalytic pathways, and a wide range of products ranging from synthesis gas to organic carbonates, carboxylic acids, and alcohols have been generated to balance the carbon cycle and replace fuels and chemicals currently produced from fossil fuel sources.<sup>4</sup>

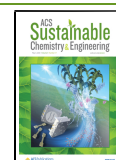
Electrochemical CO<sub>2</sub> reduction reaction (CO<sub>2</sub>RR) carries a distinct advantage to utilize the increasingly abundant and low-cost renewable electricity for carbon recycling.<sup>5,6</sup> In a CO<sub>2</sub> electrolyzer, catalytic components (e.g., metals, carbon-based materials, and molecular catalysts) on the electrode surface convert adsorbed CO<sub>2</sub> into chemical products under applied electrochemical potentials.<sup>7–11</sup> To date, large environmental impact and high selectivity have been demonstrated for C1–C2 carbon products (e.g., CO, formate, ethylene, ethanol).<sup>5</sup> For example, electrochemical CO<sub>2</sub> reduction to syngas is a

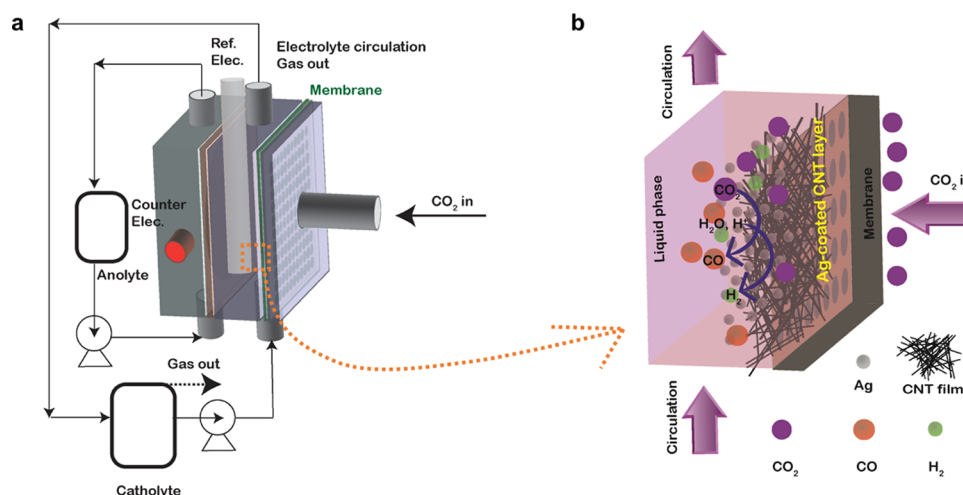
technologically favored process and brings a large environmental benefit. Recent life cycle assessment identified syngas as one of the most promising products with a substantial CO<sub>2</sub> reduction.<sup>12</sup> Assuming all global syngas production volume (150 Mtonne) is generated from the electrochemical process coupled with renewable electricity, this would lead to an annual CO<sub>2</sub> reduction of 12 Mtonne when comparing to the existing industrial process of steam methane reforming and coal gasification. Additionally, this electrochemical syngas generation route could reduce 39 Mtonne CO<sub>2</sub> emission with respect to the thermochemical CO<sub>2</sub> conversion route. The state of electrochemical CO<sub>2</sub> reduction to CO can reach up to >90% faradic efficiency (FE), and partial current density of 5–20 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> (at 0.4–0.6 V vs reversible hydrogen electrode (RHE)), which is equivalent to 549–2195 L-CO/(m<sup>2</sup> day).<sup>5</sup> However, these shorter chain carbons have low

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**Figure 1.** Overview of direct CO<sub>2</sub> delivery and conversion using electrocatalytic membranes. (a) Configuration of a CO<sub>2</sub> electrolyzer is used in this study. CO<sub>2</sub> is continuously purged into the electrolyzer, passing from the backside of the membrane to the electrolyte and the electroactive membrane interface. (b) Illustration of direct CO<sub>2</sub> delivery and conversion through the membrane. The Ag-coated CNT layer is utilized as active sites at the membrane–electrolyte interface for syngas production. CO<sub>2</sub> is converted into CO, accompanied by a H<sub>2</sub> evolution reaction.

economic value. Meanwhile, electrochemical generation of longer-chain products has been limited to very small quantities and the corresponding FEs are low.<sup>13,14</sup> Another challenge is that most research has been centered on material innovation and reactor optimization, using ideal aqueous electrolytes (e.g., KHCO<sub>3</sub>, KOH) and organic solvents,<sup>15,16</sup> while a limited focus has been placed on practical considerations such as long-term material performance or the role of various ion species in nonideal CO<sub>2</sub>R electrolytes that can fit into biological chain elongation.

In this context, the hybrid approach of integrating electrolysis with bioconversion presents a new pathway for generating long chain and more valuable carbon products with higher efficiencies. For instance, biocatalysis utilizes electroactive bacteria for CO<sub>2</sub> fixation, which generates C1–C6 carbons in a set of metabolic pathways (e.g., reductive acetyl-CoA, reductive tricarboxylic acid cycle).<sup>17,18</sup> It could achieve a higher FE of 21.8% for isopropanol generation in the hybrid system, far exceeding the highest reported 5.1% FE for the electrochemical production of 1-propanol.<sup>13,14,19</sup> However, there is still an inherent mismatch in electron supply rates from electrochemical reactions and microbial uptake rates for CO<sub>2</sub> upgrading. The microbial CO<sub>2</sub> conversion rates in microbial electrosynthesis (MES) are reported with values of 0.3–186 mg CO<sub>2</sub>/(cm<sup>2</sup> day) (equivalent to 0.01–4.3 mM e<sup>−</sup>/(cm<sup>2</sup> day)),<sup>20</sup> which are orders of magnitude slower than the electrochemical syngas production rates (5–500 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> for CO generation at ≥90% FE, equivalent to 2–220 mM e<sup>−</sup>/(cm<sup>2</sup> day)).

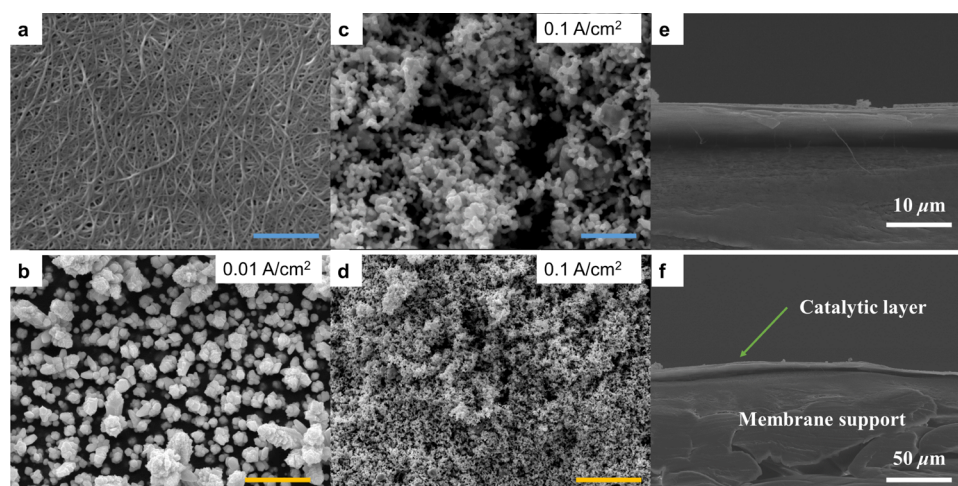
This study presents a new integrated system that uses a novel catalytic membrane electrode to enable simultaneous electro-tuning of syngas ratio (CO/H<sub>2</sub>) and in situ direct delivery in the aqueous biocompatible electrolyte. The produced syngas can then be utilized as a gaseous feedstock for microbial upgrading,<sup>21</sup> which allows faster electron transfer than rate-limited direct extracellular transfer as well as producing more diverse products.<sup>22</sup> We aim to enable efficient hybrid CO<sub>2</sub> upgrading with CO generation toward artificial photosynthesis rather than outperforming state-of-the-art electrochemical syngas productions. Certain microbial communities can uptake H<sub>2</sub> as the electron donor to reduce CO<sub>2</sub>

and thus produce organic chemicals.<sup>23</sup> CO itself can also be utilized as the electron donor and carbon source for upgrading (Supporting Information, theoretical equations). There are several advantages of microbial CO utilization over H<sub>2</sub> utilization. First, CO has a higher mass-transfer coefficient than H<sub>2</sub> in the media, which would allow easier utilization.<sup>24</sup> Second, as the electron donor, CO is more thermodynamically favorable than H<sub>2</sub> for contributing electrons to microbes.<sup>25</sup> Third, a higher CO concentration in the syngas may lead to more reduced products, such as ethanol over acetate.<sup>26</sup> Different from the traditional CO<sub>2</sub> gas feeding, which flows along the backside of the gas diffusion electrode (GDE) to achieve high current densities,<sup>27</sup> CO<sub>2</sub> gas was directly fed through the membrane to minimize syngas losses and match for slower microbial uptake rates. In addition to the ideal KHCO<sub>3</sub> electrolyte used in most CO<sub>2</sub>RR systems, we also evaluated the impacts of more realistic electrolytes containing cell growth nutrients (e.g., NH<sub>4</sub>Cl, yeast extract, and other ingredients) on syngas production. The results showed that such nutrient species could be influential in H<sub>2</sub> production and led to syngas composition change. The increasing nutrient concentration promotes H<sub>2</sub> evolution by offering significant amounts of proton sources.

## EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

**Preparation of Electrolytes.** Initial electrolysis experiments were carried out using ideal 0.1 M KHCO<sub>3</sub> (99.7%, Sigma-Aldrich) electrolyte. To assess the electrocatalytic performance under a biocompatible electrolyte, PETC bacterial media was used as the electrolyte in anode and cathode chambers.<sup>28</sup> General salts and ingredients used for preparing PETC mineral media were 0.1 g of KCl (99–100.5%, Sigma-Aldrich), 0.2 g of MgSO<sub>4</sub>·7H<sub>2</sub>O (100%, Fisher Chemical), 0.8 g of NaCl (99.8%, Fisher Chemical), 0.1 g of KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> (≥98%, Sigma-Aldrich), 0.02 g of CaCl<sub>2</sub>·2H<sub>2</sub>O (≥99%, Fisher Chemical), 2 g of NaHCO<sub>3</sub> (99.5%, ACROS Organics), and 980 mL of DI water. NH<sub>4</sub>Cl (≥99.0%, Fisher Chemical) and yeast extract (Molecular Genetics) were tested at various concentrations within a relevant range for bacterial growth.

**Preparation of Electrocatalytic Membranes.** Electrocatalytic membranes were fabricated in three steps: First, a hydrophobic poly(tetrafluoroethylene) membrane (PTFE, 90 mm in diameter, laminated, 0.1 μm, Sterlitech) was placed on the filter holder and wet



**Figure 2.** Microscopic view of electrocatalytic membranes. (a) Electroconductive CNT membrane with uniformly distributed CNT. (b) Ag–CNT membrane fabricated under the low current density (0.01 A/cm<sup>2</sup>). (c, d) Ag–CNT membrane prepared under the high current density (0.1 A/cm<sup>2</sup>) at different scales. Blue and yellow scale bars represent 1 and 5 μm, respectively. (e, f) Cross-sectional view of the fabricated electrocatalytic membrane.

by ethanol (99.5%, ACROS Organics) prior to vacuum filtration. Second, to obtain a uniform and porous CNT network, carbon nanotube (CNT) suspension was prepared by sonicating single-double-walled CNTs (Outer diameter: 1–4 nm, length 3–30 μm, >99%, Cheap Tubes Inc.) with surfactant sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS, ≥99%, Fisher Chemical, for dispersing CNT effectively) in water, followed by centrifugation to minimize impurities and less conductive aggregates (30 min sonication, 0.1 g/L CNT, 10 g/L SDS, centrifuged at 13 000 g for 15 min twice; Branson Sonifier SFX250), and then 50 mL of suspension was filtrated to form a conductive layer on the membrane's surface. The as-prepared conductive membrane was then cleaned by filtrating deionized water (1 L) to remove the excess amount of SDS surfactant. CNT network is mainly used to provide high electrical conductivity for the current flow. At last, the membrane and a porous titanium mesh were used as the cathode and anode and placed in the electrolyte comprising of 2 M NH<sub>4</sub>Cl, 1.5 M KSCN (≥99%, Arcos Organics), and 0.01 M AgNO<sub>3</sub> (0.0141 N, Ricca Chemical). Ag, as the core catalyst that drives the electrochemical syngas generation through CO<sub>2</sub> reduction and water/proton reduction, was electrodeposited on the membrane's surface at a specified current density under different reaction times.

**Physical Characterization.** The microscopic view of fabricated electrocatalytic membranes was obtained using scanning electron microscopy (SEM, XL30 FEG, Philips/FEI). The images were taken under 15 kV accelerating energy and 10 mm working distance. The average membrane pore size was obtained from top-view SEM images using ImageJ.<sup>29</sup> Surface elemental information was obtained using a K-α X-ray photoelectron spectrometer (XPS, Thermo Fisher) with Al Kα source. The scan size was controlled at 400 μm. The membrane's hydrophobicity was characterized by a contact angle goniometer (Model 250, ramé-hart) before and after modification.

**Electrochemical Measurements and Gas Analysis in the Flow Cell.** A potentiostat (PC4/3000, Gamry Instruments) was used to perform electrochemical characterizations (cyclic voltammetry, CV, chronoamperometry). Electrocatalytic membranes were placed in the custom-made flow cell (Figure 1a) as the cathode; Ag/AgCl (3 M KCl, CHI instrument) and Pt wire (0.25 mm in diameter, 50 cm in length) were used as the reference electrode and the anode, respectively. Cathode and anode chambers were separated using the anion-exchange membrane (AMI-7001, Membrane International). Electrical potentials were converted to the reversible hydrogen electrode using eq 1

$$E \text{ (vs RHE)} = E \text{ (vs Ag/AgCl)} + 0.210 \text{ V} + 0.0592 \text{ V} \times \text{pH} \quad (1)$$

Humidified CO<sub>2</sub> gas was purged through the backside of the membrane, transport across the membrane, and into the catholyte. The resulting gases were then collected using gas bags (Calibrated Instruments, Inc.) connected to the headspace of the catholyte bottle. Catholyte and anolyte were circulated at a flow rate of 80 mL/min using a peristaltic pump (Masterflex, Model: 7528-10). H<sub>2</sub> and CO were analyzed by manually injecting collected gases into gas chromatography (GC). Specifically, SRI 8610C was used for H<sub>2</sub> detection (SRI Instrument, injection volume: 0.1 mL, carrier gas: N<sub>2</sub>),<sup>11</sup> and an Agilent 8890 GC system was used for CO analysis (Agilent Technology, injection volume: 0.05 mL, carrier gas: He). Faradic efficiency for each gas was calculated based on their partial current density with respect to the overall current density. All experimental results were done in triplicate, and error bars reflect the standard deviation among three measurements.

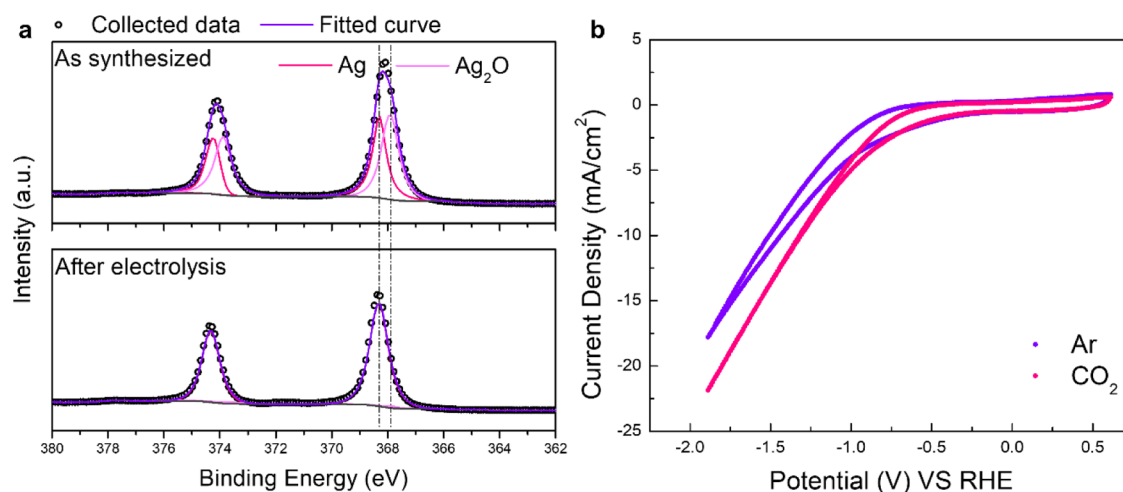
**Quantification of Enhanced Hydrogen Evolution Reaction in Bioelectrolytes.** The additional component NH<sub>4</sub>Cl and yeast extract used in bioelectrolytes may serve as additional proton donors for H<sub>2</sub> evolution reaction. Equation 2 was expressed to represent the partial current density for the H<sub>2</sub> evolution,<sup>30</sup>  $j_{\text{HER}}$ , where  $k_1$ ,  $k_2$ , and  $k_3$  are reaction rate constants.  $\beta$ ,  $\beta'$ , and  $\beta''$  are symmetry factors.  $E$ ,  $F$ ,  $R$ , and  $T$  are applied potential, faradaic constant, gas constant, and temperature, respectively. [HM] represents [NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>] or potential proton donor sources from the yeast extract.

$$j_{\text{HER}} = k_1[\text{HM}]_e^{(-E)\beta F/RT} + k_2[\text{H}_2\text{O}]_e^{(-E)\beta' F/RT} + k_3[\text{H}^+]_e^{(-E)\beta'' F/RT} \quad (2)$$

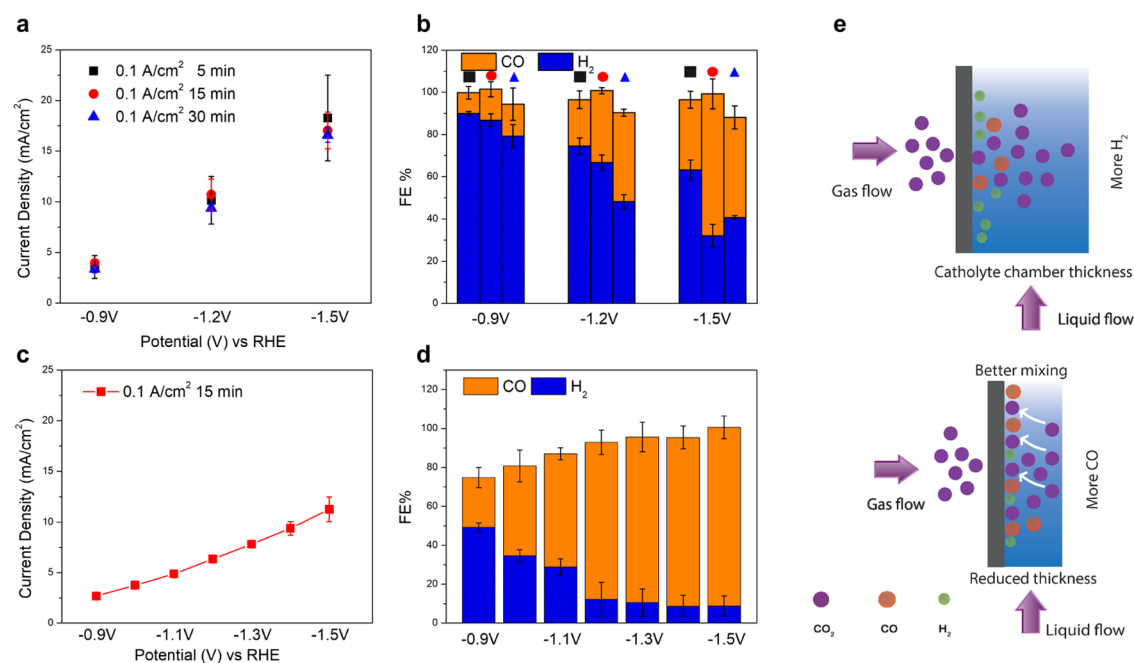
## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

**Electrocatalytic Membrane Fabrication.** A thin film of CNT was first deposited on PTFE membranes through vacuum filtration to create a conductive substrate for subsequent Ag electrodeposition. The uniformity, porosity, and conductivity of the CNT layer are essential properties for consequent Ag electrodeposition and for facilitating gas conversion during CO<sub>2</sub> electrolysis. Prior to vacuum filtrating the CNT suspension, it was crucial to prewet the PTFE membrane to avoid hydrophobic portions that may result in a nonuniform CNT coating layer. As shown in Figure 2a, the as-formed CNT layer was relatively uniform and dense, showing a porous structure with an average pore size of  $32 \pm 6$  nm (in diameter, characterized by ImageJ).<sup>29</sup> A cross-sectional view





**Figure 3.** Structural and performance characterization. (a) XPS analysis shows the chemical state of the Ag peak. A dramatic decrease of the  $\text{Ag}_2\text{O}$  peak (light magenta) was observed before and after electrolysis, which was converted to the Ag peak (pink). (b) Cyclic voltammetry analysis of the prepared membrane in 0.1 M  $\text{KHCO}_3$  electrolyte. The electrolyte was purged with Ar (violet) and  $\text{CO}_2$  (pink) before electrolysis and was still under continuous purging during electrolysis.



**Figure 4.** Electrochemical  $\text{CO}_2$  reduction to tunable syngas mixes in two  $\text{CO}_2$  electrolyzers with different catholyte chamber thickness. (a, b) Current density, faradic efficiency, and  $\text{CO}/\text{H}_2$  ratios of different electrocatalytic membranes using the  $\text{CO}_2$  electrolyzer with 2 cm catholyte chamber thickness. Black square, red circle, and blue triangle correspond to membranes fabricated under different electrodeposition times of 5, 15, and 30 min, respectively. (c, d) Current density and faradic efficiency, and  $\text{CO}/\text{H}_2$  ratios of the electrocatalytic membrane (15 min) using the  $\text{CO}_2$  electrolyzer with 1 cm catholyte chamber thickness. (e) Illustration of reduced catholyte chamber thickness resulted in  $\text{CO}_2$  gas bubbles redistributed back to the electrode surface under better mixing and thus promoted the  $\text{CO}_2$  reduction to CO while lowered  $\text{H}_2$  evolution in this direct gas delivery system. The gas delivery rate was controlled at 2.5 sccm, and 0.1 M  $\text{KHCO}_3$  was used as the electrolyte.

(Figure 2e,f) of the CNT layer showed a thickness of 3–5  $\mu\text{m}$ , which contributed to a low resistance of  $12.9 \pm 2.9 \Omega$  at a 3 cm distance.

Previous studies reported that Ag foam can be deposited on metal surfaces under high current densities,<sup>31,32</sup> so in this study, we used a similar approach for Ag deposition on the porous CNT layer. When the electrolyte containing highly concentrated  $\text{NH}_4\text{Cl}$ , the Ag reduction process involves a  $\text{H}_2$  reaction, promoting the formation of a foamlike structure.<sup>31</sup> As such, current density plays an essential role in determining the

morphology of the Ag layer as it directly controls the rate of  $\text{H}_2$  formation. At a low current density of 0.01  $\text{A}/\text{cm}^2$ , micron-sized Ag particles were formed on the surface (Figure 2b), indicating insignificant  $\text{H}_2$  evolution. In contrast, a higher current density of 0.1  $\text{A}/\text{cm}^2$  created nanoporous Ag on the surface (Figure 2c,d), likely due to increased  $\text{H}_2$  bubble formation during deposition. It has been noted that polycrystalline (micron-sized) Ag is much less effective for  $\text{CO}_2$ RR than nanoporous Ag, due to its less curved surface, lower activity, and smaller surface area.<sup>33</sup> Therefore, the

nanoporous Ag layer formed under the higher current density was preferred for subsequent CO<sub>2</sub>RR experiments. Further catalyst morphology optimization was made via deposition time variation. The formation of the Ag layer was characterized under deposition times of 5, 15, and 30 min, respectively, and SEM images showed that all surfaces were covered with the porous Ag layer, but the surface coverage and the size of Ag particles varied with time (Figure S1). In general, the 15 min deposition time could provide slightly better surface coverage than 5 min, but a longer deposition time of 30 min led to the formation of submicron-sized Ag particles. As confirmed by contact angle measurement, the membrane's surface also turned to be more hydrophilic after electrodeposition ( $113 \pm 8$  to  $49 \pm 7^\circ$ , Figure S2).

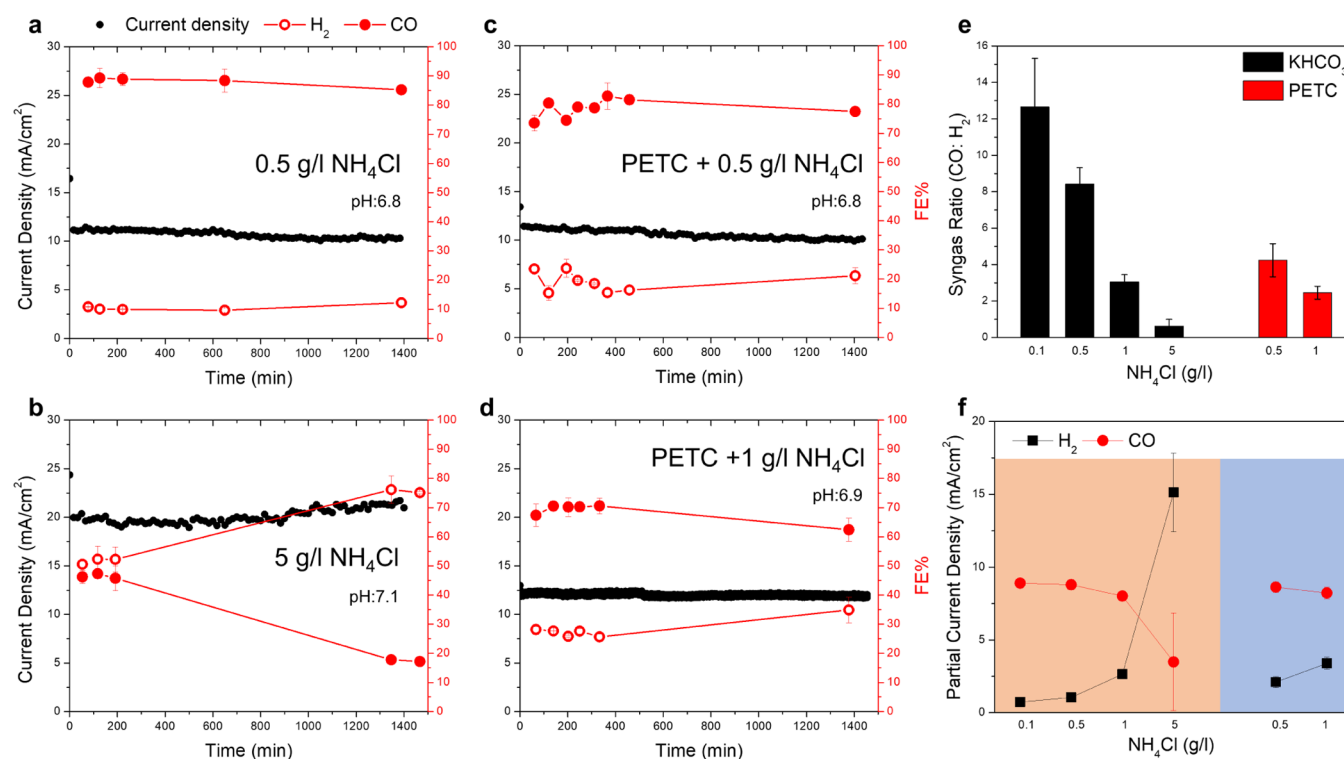
**Nanoporous Ag Membrane CO<sub>2</sub>RR Performance and Tunable Syngas Production.** The existence of Ag catalysts on the electrocatalytic membrane surface was verified by XPS analysis before and after CO<sub>2</sub>RR. Figure 3a shows two distinctive Ag peaks (black dots) in both the as-synthesized membrane and the membrane after electrolysis. The fitting result (violet line) demonstrated the coexistence of elemental Ag (pink line) and Ag<sub>2</sub>O (light magenta line) on the as-synthesized membrane surface, whose binding energy was at 368.3 (Ag 3d<sub>s</sub>) and 367.9 eV (Ag<sub>2</sub>O 3d<sub>s</sub>), respectively. After 10 h electrolysis, the two peaks were shifted slightly and the Ag<sub>2</sub>O peak in the fitted data was diminished, which was attributed to the electrochemical reduction of Ag<sub>2</sub>O to Ag on the surface during electrolysis,<sup>32</sup> benefiting subsequent CO<sub>2</sub>RR.

CV was first conducted to examine the membrane's efficacy for the CO<sub>2</sub>RR. An aqueous electrolyte of 0.1 M KHCO<sub>3</sub> was presaturated with Ar and CO<sub>2</sub> under continuous purging. The CV curve for the CO<sub>2</sub> saturated electrolyte (Figure 3b, pink line) showed a sharp enhancement of current density at potentials lower than  $-0.7$  V (vs RHE) when comparing to the Ar-saturated electrolyte (Figure 3b, violet line), indicating that the additional surface adsorbed CO<sub>2</sub> (aq) was electrochemically converted to reduced products. Overall, the enhancement of current density confirms that the CO<sub>2</sub>RR process started at  $-0.7$  V (vs RHE), with lower potentials contributing more CO<sub>2</sub>RR.

The performance of the as-prepared membranes for tunable syngas (CO/H<sub>2</sub>) production was examined in 0.1 M KHCO<sub>3</sub> using a custom-built CO<sub>2</sub> electrolyzer with a 2 cm thick catholyte chamber. All membranes exhibited increased current density with decreasing potential, with reported values of 3, 10, 17 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> at potentials ranging from  $-0.9$ ,  $-1.2$ , and  $-1.5$  V, respectively (Figure 4a). Additionally, regardless of the electrodeposition times used to prepare the Ag foams, similar current densities were observed. In contrast, the longer Ag deposition time led to higher CO production when comparing 5 min case (black squares) to 15 and 30 min cases (red circles and blue triangles) under each applied potential. This is possibly due to the higher Ag loading and coverage on the membrane surface allows for better CO<sub>2</sub>RR. In addition, reducing the electrical potential showed a direct correlation with increased CO/H<sub>2</sub> ratio, which indicates that the syngas mix composition can be tuned using this process (Figure 4b). For example, the CO/H<sub>2</sub> ratio for the 15 min case increased from 12:88 to 41:59 when the potential was reduced from  $-0.9$  to  $-1.5$  V, and the trend was consistent under different current densities and deposition times.

During the direct CO<sub>2</sub> delivery process, gases pass through the membrane unevenly due to the nonuniform pore size distributions. To increase local CO<sub>2</sub> availability for improved CO<sub>2</sub>RR and obtain higher efficiency, lower channel thickness was tested by reducing the space from 2 to 1 cm with one deposition condition of 0.1 A/cm<sup>2</sup> for 15 min. Slightly lower current densities were observed, with reported values of 3, 6, and 11 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> at potentials of  $-0.9$ ,  $-1.2$ , and  $-1.5$  V (vs RHE), respectively (Figure 4c). However, much higher FEs for CO were obtained in the narrower chambers across the potential range tested. For example, higher values of 25% (vs 22%) and 92% (vs 42%) were shown at both the higher ( $-0.9$  V vs RHE) and the lower ( $-1.5$  V vs RHE) limit potentials compared to the 2 cm setup (Figure 4d).

More interestingly, the thinner chamber expanded the range tunability of the syngas mix between H<sub>2</sub> and CO. In the thicker CO<sub>2</sub> electrolyzer ( $\sim 2$  cm), as potentials decreased from  $-0.9$  to  $-1.5$  V for membranes fabricated under 15 min deposition time, production rates increased from 0.03 to 0.07 mL/(min cm<sup>2</sup>) for H<sub>2</sub>, and 0.004–0.05 mL/(min cm<sup>2</sup>) for CO, respectively (Figure S3). Correspondingly, the produced gas ratios increased from 1 to 4% for H<sub>2</sub> and 0.2 to 3% per cm<sup>2</sup> for CO, which represented an increasing syngas ratio (CO/H<sub>2</sub>) from 12:88 to 41:59 (Figure 4b). When using a thinner CO<sub>2</sub> electrolyzer ( $\sim 1$  cm), H<sub>2</sub> production rates ( $\sim 0.01$  mL/(min cm<sup>2</sup>)) remained relatively consistent among the tested potential range ( $-0.9$  to  $-1.5$  V), while the CO production rate was consistently increasing from 0.005 to 0.08 mL/(min cm<sup>2</sup>) with decreasing potentials from  $-0.9$  to  $-1.5$  V. As a result, the gas ratio in the gas permeate for H<sub>2</sub> was remained  $\sim 0.5\%$  per cm<sup>2</sup>, while CO had an increasing ratio from 0.3 to 5% per cm<sup>2</sup>. This led to an increasing syngas ratio from 35:65 to almost 91:9, respectively (Figure 4d). Overall, the lower potentials promoted both higher syngas ratios and the thinner chamber electrolyzer produced more CO and its syngas mixtures were more CO-weighted ( $>50\%$ ), while the thicker chamber electrolyzer generated more H<sub>2</sub>-weighted mixture with syngas ratio  $<50\%$ , making the two designed complementary to each other yet both were responsive to electrochemical tuning. As summarized in Table S1, most Ag-based electrochemical CO<sub>2</sub> reduction to CO studies are operated in the standard H-cell configuration or flow cells with CO<sub>2</sub> gas flow-by on the backside of the electrode, making them difficult for direct comparison. For example, different types of Ag were tested in the H-cells using the pure KHCO<sub>3</sub> electrolyte, which achieved maximum faradic efficiencies of 78–92% and current densities of 4–18 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> under optimal potentials ( $-0.6$ – $-1.1$  V vs RHE).<sup>33–35</sup> However, those processes are not ideal for long-term operations. Thus, flow cells with catalysts immobilized on the gas diffusion electrodes were also used to achieve high current densities (85–100 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>), stable long-term performance (10–24 h), and high FEs (75–94%).<sup>36–38</sup> Some flow cell systems use alkaline solution (10 M KOH) or operate in the gas-phase CO<sub>2</sub> electrolysis setup,<sup>36,37</sup> making them impossible for microbial integration. Similar to this study, previous research also investigated the direct delivery of CO<sub>2</sub> through Ag net for direct electrochemical CO generation, which achieved a maximum FE of 90% at the potential of  $-1.6$  V vs RHE, followed by a gradual decline of CO FE to 50% in 5 h.<sup>39</sup> In contrast, this system offers much longer long-term stability (144 h) at 92% FE and 1.5 V vs RHE potential, making it applicable for long-term MES studies.



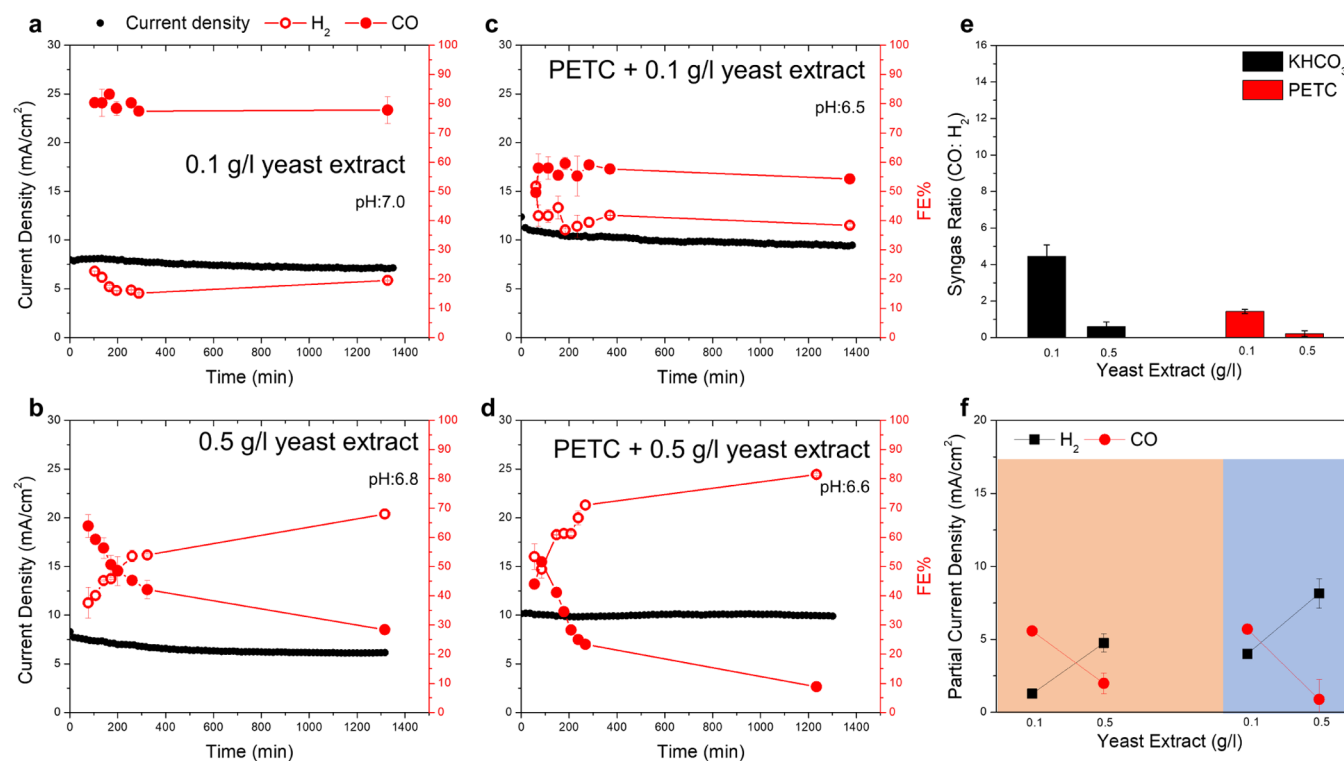
**Figure 5.**  $\text{NH}_4\text{Cl}$  concentration impacts on the long-term  $\text{CO}_2$  electrolysis performance. (a–d) Electrolysis performance of the electrocatalytic membrane using 0.1 M (10 g/L)  $\text{KHCO}_3$  and simulated microbial dilute media (PETC) under different  $\text{NH}_4\text{Cl}$  concentrations. Black dots, red open dots, and red solid dots represent current density,  $\text{H}_2$ , and CO faradic efficiencies. (e) Effect of  $\text{NH}_4\text{Cl}$  concentration on generated syngas ratio during long-term electrolysis. Black and red bars represent the bulk electrolytes are 0.1 M  $\text{KHCO}_3$  and PETC. (f) Partial current densities of  $\text{H}_2$  and CO during long-term electrolysis. Orange and blue zones represent the major electrolytes 0.1 M  $\text{KHCO}_3$  and PETC minerals. Black dots and red dots represent  $\text{H}_2$  and CO partial current densities.

The increase in CO FE in the thinner chamber ( $\sim 1$  cm) was believed to be attributed to the increased local  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration along the membrane surface. During the  $\text{CO}_2$  gas delivery process,  $\text{CO}_2$  gas was fed on the backside of the membrane, which then preferentially passed through a particular region rather than the whole membrane due to the nonuniform pore size distribution, leading to the noneven distribution of adsorbed  $\text{CO}_2$  gas on the electrode surface. Although the  $\text{CO}_2$  feeding was on the backside of the membrane, and its transport across the membrane was not directly influenced by the chamber thickness, the smaller chamber thickness promoted stronger hydraulic shearing created by the liquid circulation (larger Reynolds number), which facilitated the more even distribution of  $\text{CO}_2$  gases along the membrane active surface. Therefore, it is likely that the reduced thickness helped  $\text{CO}_2$  that already transported across the membrane pores to redistribute more evenly on the active membrane (electrode) surface, thus overcoming the local  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration deficiency and allowing for much higher CO FEs (Figure 4e). This mechanism is further supported by a previous study conducting electrochemical  $\text{CO}_2$  reduction to formate. It demonstrated that reduced channel thickness increased the Reynolds number of the liquid electrolyte crossing the channel, which created more mixing and resulted in increased faradic efficiency.<sup>40</sup>

Different gas delivery rates of 1 and 5 standard cubic centimeters per minute (sccm) were tested to further optimize syngas production on the electrocatalytic membranes using the 1 cm thick chamber electrolyzer (Figure S4). The FE and gas production rates for CO and  $\text{H}_2$  of both 1 and 5 sccm cases

were similar when comparing to 2.5 sccm. At 1 sccm, FE for CO increased from 31 to 83%, while  $\text{H}_2$  FE decreased from 67 to 14% when the potential decreased from  $-0.9$  to  $-1.5$  V. At the elevated 5 sccm, FE for CO increased from 29 to 82%, while FE for  $\text{H}_2$  decreased from 56 to 11% at the same tested potential range. However, gas ratios in the permeate were higher at lower delivery rates due to a greater dilution from excess  $\text{CO}_2$ . At the fastest delivery rate of 5 sccm, the system operated at  $-0.9$  to  $-1.5$  V only generated  $\text{H}_2$  and CO at 0.2–0.4 and 0.2–2.3% per  $\text{cm}^2$ , respectively, while at the lowest rate of 1 sccm, higher  $\text{H}_2$  and CO contents of 1.1–1.5 and 0.7–8% per  $\text{cm}^2$  were observed. Therefore, the gas delivery rates tested in the system did not have a significant impact on the electrochemical reactions, which only affected the gas ratio in the permeate due to the excess amount of  $\text{CO}_2$ .

The current density numbers using this flow-through mode were lower than studies using traditional flow-by gas delivery for  $\text{CO}_2\text{RR}$ . This is likely due to the direct purging of  $\text{CO}_2$  through the membrane created surface bubbles that reduced the contact area and ion flow between the electrode surface and liquid electrolyte. This likely leads to increased overpotentials and the observed lower current densities.<sup>41</sup> In line with these findings, a ca. 80% drop in current density (18 vs 3  $\text{mA}/\text{cm}^2$  at  $-0.9$  V) was observed when there was a small pressure built up on the backside of the membrane ( $\sim 0.5$  psi, Figure S5). However, achieving high current density was not the goal of this study, rather we hoped to develop an electrochemical  $\text{CO}_2\text{RR}$  system that can generate tunable syngas product with a current density suitable for the downstream biological upgrading process. With this in mind,



**Figure 6.** Yeast extract concentration impacts on the long-term electrolysis performance. (a, b) Electrolysis performance of the electrocatalytic membrane using 0.1 M (10 g/L)  $\text{KHCO}_3$  and varied yeast extract concentrations. (c, d) Electrolysis performance in simulated microbial dilute media (PETC) with varied yeast extract concentrations. Black dots, red open dots, and red solid dots represent current density,  $\text{H}_2$ , and CO faradic efficiencies, respectively. (e) Effect of yeast extract concentration on the generated syngas ratio during long-term electrolysis. Black and red bars represent the bulk electrolytes are 0.1 M  $\text{KHCO}_3$  and PETC. (f) Partial current densities of  $\text{H}_2$  and CO during long-term electrolysis. Orange and blue zones represent the major electrolytes 0.1 M  $\text{KHCO}_3$  and PETC minerals. Black dots and red dots represent  $\text{H}_2$  and CO partial current densities.

considering the reported current densities in biocatalytic  $\text{CO}_2$ RR systems are much lower at  $\sim 1 \text{ mA/cm}^2$ ,<sup>19,42,43</sup> the current density observed in this direct flow-through mode already exceeds these limits and may be efficient for the downstream biological reactions.

**Impacts of Key Microbial Growth Ingredients on  $\text{CO}_2$  Reduction to Syngas.** Most electrocatalytic  $\text{CO}_2$  reduction studies used pure bicarbonate and hydroxide electrolytes, which are not compatible with the bioconversion process due to deficiency of necessary nutrients and extreme pHs.<sup>44,45</sup> To connect electrocatalysis with bioupgrading, some nutrients such as  $\text{NH}_4\text{Cl}$  and yeast extract are important for cell growth, but few studies tested how such ingredients affect the electroreduction.<sup>46</sup> Therefore, as a critical step of integration, we first tested  $\text{CO}_2$ RR conducted in ideal 0.1 M  $\text{KHCO}_3$  electrolyte with increasing  $\text{NH}_4\text{Cl}$  concentrations (Figures S5a,b and S6). As expected, the current density increased with increasing  $\text{NH}_4\text{Cl}$  concentration due to higher ionic strengths, and the overall CO and  $\text{H}_2$  FE was  $>90\%$ , indicating high efficiency for syngas production. However, higher  $\text{NH}_4\text{Cl}$  concentrations promoted  $\text{H}_2$  evolution. When the  $\text{NH}_4\text{Cl}$  concentration was under 0.5 g/L, FEs for CO and  $\text{H}_2$  were relatively stable (Figures S5a and S6a). Accordingly, FE for CO remained  $\sim 85$  to  $90\%$  and the FE for  $\text{H}_2$  was steadily below  $15\%$ , representing syngas ratios  $\text{CO}/\text{H}_2$  of 93:7 and 89:11, respectively (Figure S5e). When  $\text{NH}_4\text{Cl}$  concentration was increased to 1 g/L (Figure S6b), FE for  $\text{H}_2$  was increased to 20–30%, while the FE for CO dropped to 70–80%, resulting in a decrease in syngas ratio of  $\text{CO}/\text{H}_2$  of 75:25 (Figure S5e).

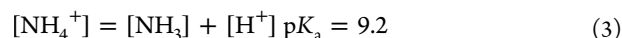
When  $\text{NH}_4\text{Cl}$  concentration was further increased to 5 g/L (Figure S5b), FE for  $\text{H}_2$  surpassed the case for CO, starting at  $\sim 50$  to  $55\%$  and gradually increasing to  $\sim 75\%$ . In contrast, FE for CO decreased slowly from  $\sim 50$  to  $\sim 20\%$  within 24 h, resulting in a lower syngas ratio of  $\text{CO}/\text{H}_2$  (39:61) (Figure S5e). The current of  $\text{H}_2$  evolution can be considered as the summation of current contributed by three major proton donors of  $\text{NH}_4^+$ ,  $\text{H}^+$ , and  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  (eq 2).<sup>30</sup>

Furthering this characterization, a widely used and more complex microbial growth medium PETC was tested for  $\text{CO}_2$ RR. PETC is commonly used for culturing acetogens that are capable of utilizing syngas ( $\text{H}_2/\text{CO}/\text{CO}_2$ ) for growth via the Wood–Ljungdhal pathway and produce carboxylic acids.<sup>26,47</sup> The minimum PETC media contains salts such as KCl,  $\text{MgSO}_4$ , NaCl,  $\text{KH}_2\text{PO}_4$ ,  $\text{CaCl}_2$ , and  $\text{NaHCO}_3$  and nutrient elements such as  $\text{NH}_4\text{Cl}$  ( $\sim 1 \text{ g/L}$ ) and yeast extract ( $\sim 1 \text{ g/L}$ ). Figure S5c,d shows the  $\text{CO}_2$  electrolysis in PETC media (excluding yeast extract) at different  $\text{NH}_4\text{Cl}$  concentrations. It shows electrolysis was less effective for CO production in PETC than ideal 0.1 M  $\text{KHCO}_3$ , while a similar trend of reduced CO but increased  $\text{H}_2$  was observed in increasing  $\text{NH}_4\text{Cl}$  concentration in PETC. From 0.5 to 1 g/L  $\text{NH}_4\text{Cl}$ , FE for  $\text{H}_2$  increased by  $\sim 15\%$ , while FE for CO dropped by  $\sim 15\%$ , which caused the decreased  $\text{CO}/\text{H}_2$  ratio from 81:19 to 71:29 (Figure S5e).

The dynamic change of FE on CO and  $\text{H}_2$  in PETC is believed attributed to the availability of proton donors (e.g.,  $\text{NH}_4^+$ ,  $\text{H}^+$ ,  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ). Typically,  $\text{H}^+$  itself and  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  served as proton donors for  $\text{H}_2$  evolution in the ideal bicarbonate-based



aqueous CO<sub>2</sub>RR process, and water, in particular, was the primary proton donor as H<sup>+</sup> reduction was diffusion-limited and highly dependent on the concentration, even at the low pH of 2.5.<sup>48</sup> Adding NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> into the CO<sub>2</sub>RR process generated more H<sub>2</sub> because NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> itself was also a proton donor. It undergoes dissociation at high pHs and is easier than water to be utilized as the proton donor source (eq 3).



As the concentrations of NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> increased from 2 to 93 mM (equivalent to 0.1–5 g/L NH<sub>4</sub>Cl), it provided far higher availability of protons for H<sub>2</sub> evolution than the readily available H<sup>+</sup> from the electrolyte pH ((~8 to 16) × 10<sup>−5</sup> mM). In addition, the electrochemical reduction happening on the electrode surface may drive pH exceeding the pK<sub>a</sub> value of 9.2, which promoted the release of [H<sup>+</sup>] for subsequent H<sub>2</sub> evolution. Similar to H<sup>+</sup>, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> was less efficient for enhancing H<sub>2</sub> evolution at the low concentration range (2–9 mM) because of local concentration deficiency. However, higher NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> concentrations (19–93 mM) reduced mass-transfer limitation and better served as the proton donor, facilitating H<sub>2</sub> evolution (higher FE for H<sub>2</sub>). Therefore, we can conclude from the expression that the partial current density for H<sub>2</sub> evolution is highly dependent on the NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> concentration (Figure 5f), while the latter two terms in eq 2 are quite constant because of the same water concentration and the relatively stable pH in Figures 5a,b and S6. Additionally, the electrode surface is inevitably poisoned by trace metal ions from the PETC electrolyte during long-term operations. XPS analysis demonstrated that both Zn and Cu were appeared on the surface after electrolysis (Figure S7). Those poisoning effects could also lead to more H<sub>2</sub> evolution during electrolysis.

Yeast extract is a key ingredient in the PETC and many cell growth media, but its impacts on CO<sub>2</sub> electrolysis also remain unknown.<sup>49,50</sup> Yeast extract is a complex mixture of many micronutrient species, including acidic species such as nucleic acids and amino acids with low pK<sub>a</sub> values, which could benefit H<sub>2</sub> evolution. We assessed the yeast extract impact on the electrolysis process both in the ideal 0.1 M KHCO<sub>3</sub> and PETC electrolytes. Overall, yeast extract behaved similarly to NH<sub>4</sub>Cl, as increasing its concentration led to higher H<sub>2</sub> evolution than CO production. In general, its current densities were lower than the case of NH<sub>4</sub>Cl, which may be caused by electrode surface fouling. In KHCO<sub>3</sub> electrolyte, CO and H<sub>2</sub> were consistently produced at ~80 and ~20% FE, respectively, under 0.1 g/L yeast extract concentration, yielding a CO/H<sub>2</sub> ratio of 82:18 (Figure 6e) with no significant fluctuations (Figure 6a). At the elevated concentration of 0.5 g/L, H<sub>2</sub> evolved quickly from accounting for ~30 to ~70% FE in ~24 h operation. In the meantime, the FE for CO was also dropped from ~70 to ~30% accordingly (Figure 6b). This led to the CO/H<sub>2</sub> ratio dropped from 82:18 to 37:63 (Figure 6e). As a comparison to the KHCO<sub>3</sub> electrolyte, adding yeast extract into the PETC electrolyte led to an essentially identical trend. A low-range concentration of 0.1 g/L resulted in stable FEs of CO and H<sub>2</sub> at ~55 and ~40%, respectively (Figure 6c). The high concentration of 0.5 g/L, likewise, brought on a dynamic change of FE for H<sub>2</sub> from ~50 to 80%, and FE for CO from ~50 to 10% (Figure 6d). This overall led to a decreased CO/H<sub>2</sub> ratio from 59:41 to 18:82 (Figure 6e). Similar to NH<sub>4</sub>Cl, yeast extract contains a variety of amino acids that can serve as efficient proton donors with low pK<sub>a</sub> values, thus promoting H<sub>2</sub> evolution. Moreover, due to its complex composition, the

electrode surface poisoning was more severe than the NH<sub>4</sub>Cl case and resulted in Zn deposition (Figure S7). As confirmed by partial current densities (Figure 6f), the electrolysis was shifted more significantly to promote H<sub>2</sub> evolution over CO production with increasing yeast concentrations.

To further examine other possible mechanisms that resulted in such a dramatic drop, XPS analysis was conducted to examine possible surface contaminations. Different elemental peaks including N, Cu, and Zn were comparatively scanned among different samples and shown in Figure S7. Prolonged electrolysis demonstrated a dramatic increase of the N peak (Figure S7a), particularly in the yeast extract electrolyte, while the NH<sub>4</sub>Cl case had a smaller and insignificant peak. This suggested that more N-rich components (e.g., amino acids, proteins) in yeast extract were irreversibly adsorbed on the membrane surface, in a larger amount than NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>. This is because the adsorbed NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> from NH<sub>4</sub>Cl may dissociate into NH<sub>3</sub> and H<sup>+</sup> under high local pHs, where NH<sub>3</sub> can be easily discharged from the membrane surface.<sup>51</sup> Both trace metal elements Cu and Zn were detected in the electrolyte. Figure S7b shows the Cu peak and suggested Cu existence in both electrolytes, which originated from the impurities of the chemical or yeast extract itself used. Moreover, Figure S7c shows Zn accumulation in the yeast extract electrolyte, indicating a relatively considerable amount of Zn was contained in the yeast extract, where the NH<sub>4</sub>Cl case has a negligible amount of Zn deposition. Previous studies have shown that, even in the highest purity KHCO<sub>3</sub> (99.9999%) electrolyte, the existing trace metal ion impurities (Zn<sup>2+</sup> and Cu<sup>2+</sup>) were deposited on the Ag surface during electrolysis, leading to the loss of CO<sub>2</sub>RR selectivity, benefiting H<sub>2</sub> evolution on the poisoned surfaces.<sup>52</sup> It may suggest that the surface poisoning effect would happen at higher concentrations as the CO production gradually dropped for the prolonged electrolysis (Figures 5b,d and 6b,d). However, the trace metal poisoning that resulted in the higher H<sub>2</sub> reaction seems less likely because the membrane's high selectivity toward CO could be recovered back when the electrolyte was switched back to the pure KHCO<sub>3</sub> electrolyte (Figure S8).

## CONCLUSIONS

The integrated electrocatalytic membrane electrode could provide flexible syngas feedstock from CO<sub>2</sub> with tunable CO/H<sub>2</sub> ratios, which greatly expands the adaptability to downstream syngas bioconversion to value-added chemicals. The nontraditional flow-through feeding reduced loss matched for slower microbial uptake rates, and it could deliver syngas mix with CO/H<sub>2</sub> ratio ranging from 35:65 to 91:9 in the common KHCO<sub>3</sub> electrolyte. The biocompatible electrolytes containing multiple proton donors such as NH<sub>4</sub>Cl and yeast extract favored more H<sub>2</sub> evolution, revealing the need of developing electrocatalytic processes that are resilient to actual electrolytes used in bioconversions. However, Ag is commonly used as an antimicrobial agent for disinfection primarily due to the Ag<sup>+</sup> release and the generation of reactive oxygen species under aerobic conditions. The study has shown that Ag NP exhibits minimal antibacterial activity under the anaerobic condition, which minimized Ag oxidation and the subsequent Ag<sup>+</sup> release under acidic conditions.<sup>53</sup> In our electrochemical system, the cathode chamber is controlled under an anaerobic condition with continuous CO<sub>2</sub> purging because the target syngas oxidizing bacteria (*Clostridium* strains) are anaerobic. Additionally, the cathodic reduction condition would also minimize



the Ag<sup>+</sup> release from the electrode surface. Thus, our system can provide benign media for microbial growth with negligible antibacterial activity. This study brings possibilities for integrating electrochemical and biological processes to enable CO<sub>2</sub> upgrading and chain elongation. Further studies should include microbial conversion linking the electrocatalysis for in situ CO<sub>2</sub> reductions and syngas to chemical conversion.

## ■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

### ■ Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acssuschemeng.1c01150>.

Microscopic view of the electrocatalytic membrane fabricated under different reaction times; hydrophobicity of the membrane before and after modification; comparative table of Ag-based CO<sub>2</sub> electrolyzers for CO generation; electrocatalytic production of syngas using different electrolyzers; electrocatalytic performance of syngas production under different gas delivery rates; effect of operational mode on current density during chronoamperometry study; additional NH<sub>4</sub>Cl concentration impacts on the long-term CO<sub>2</sub> electrolysis performance; XPS analysis of surface elemental contamination; continuous long-term testing with periodic KHCO<sub>3</sub> cleaning; and theoretical equations of syngas conversion to organic chemicals (PDF)

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### Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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