



Recovering carbon losses in CO₂ electrolysis using a solid electrolyte reactor

Jung Yoon 'Timothy' Kim^{1,5}, Peng Zhu^{1,5}, Feng-Yang Chen¹, Zhen-Yu Wu¹, David A. Cullen² and Haotian Wang^{1,3,4}✉

The practical implementation of electrochemical CO₂ reduction technology is greatly challenged by notable CO₂ crossover to the anode side, where the crossed-over CO₂ is mixed with O₂, via interfacial carbonate formation in traditional CO₂ electrolyzers. Here we report a porous solid electrolyte reactor strategy to efficiently recover these carbon losses. By creating a permeable and ion-conducting sulfonated polymer electrolyte between cathode and anode as a buffer layer, the crossover carbonate can combine with protons generated from the anode to re-form CO₂ gas for reuse without mixing with anodic O₂. Using a silver nanowire catalyst for CO₂ reduction to CO, we demonstrated up to 90% recovery of the crossover CO₂ in an ultrahigh gas purity form (>99%), while delivering over 90% CO Faradaic efficiency under a 200 mA cm⁻² current. A high continuous CO₂ conversion efficiency of over 90% was achieved by recycling the recovered CO₂ to the CO₂ input stream.

As the facilitation and distribution of renewable electricity become the viable alternative to fossil fuels, electrochemically converting carbon dioxide back into basic chemical feedstocks has been perceived by numerous researchers as a promising method for storing and using this renewable electricity while mitigating climate change^{1–4}. Tremendous efforts and noticeable advancements were made in the CO₂ reduction reaction (CO₂RR) in the past few decades targeting high efficiency and selectivity towards desired products^{5–8}. Among these efforts, catalytic materials design and reactor engineering have been the two main ones in the field^{9–11}. While a wide range of catalysts have been developed to improve intrinsic CO₂RR selectivity and activity towards C₁ (CO, formate, methanol, methane)^{12–18}, C₂ (ethylene, ethanol, acetate)^{19–21} and even C₃ (n-propanol) products^{22,23}, the developments in CO₂ electrolyzers, especially the use of gas diffusion layer (GDL) electrodes in flow cell and membrane electrode assembly (MEA) cell reactors, play a central role in pushing the catalytic performance towards industrially relevant metrics^{24–27}. Using CO₂ reduction to CO in a MEA cell as a representative example, the current density and CO selectivity can now reach a few hundreds of mA cm⁻² and over 90% Faradaic efficiency (FE) on several selective catalysts (such as Ag nanoparticles (NPs)²⁸, transition metal single atom catalysts (SACs)^{12,29,30} and so on), setting up a solid foundation for possible industrialization in the future.

As promising as these advances in CO₂RR performance are, there is, however, a fundamental but often overlooked challenge that could dramatically limit the commercialization potential of CO₂RR technology: the substantial carbon loss due to carbonate crossover (Fig. 1). During CO₂RR electrolysis, especially under large current densities, large numbers of hydroxide ions (OH⁻) are generated at the cathode–electrolyte interface, which react rapidly with the CO₂ stream to form carbonate or bicarbonate ions^{25,31–42}. These carbonate ions, driven by the electrical field, then migrate across the cathode–anode interface (either aqueous solutions or anion exchange membranes) towards the anode side of the reactor, and are recombined with the locally generated protons (H⁺) from the oxygen evolution

reaction (OER) to form CO₂ gas again (Fig. 1). Unfortunately, these crossover CO₂ gas molecules cannot be directly reused for CO₂RR as they are in a mixture with the anode O₂, resulting in a notable carbon loss that dampens the overall energy efficiency of CO₂RR technology^{25,32–41}. The carbon loss problem is even more severe when strong alkaline solutions are used due to the continuous chemical reaction between the CO₂ stream and electrolyte^{31,32,34,36,39,40}.

Researchers started to realize and point out this CO₂ crossover challenge in CO₂RR technology in recent studies^{32–34,36,39,40,42–44}. However, only a few known studies were able to propose industrially and economically viable solutions to address this carbonate crossover issue. Using a strong acid electrolyte, a proton exchange membrane MEA (PEM, such as Nafion) or a bipolar membrane MEA (cation exchange side facing the CO₂RR cathode) could prevent the CO₂ crossover, but their applications are limited by low CO₂RR selectivity due to strong competition from the hydrogen evolution reaction (HER) or low operation stability, if without specific interfacial engineering^{11,43,44}. One representative example of this interfacial engineering was recently demonstrated by Sargent's group where the concentrated potassium ions at the catalyst–PEM interface can largely improve CO₂RR performance in PEM and mitigate the CO₂ crossover⁴³. Here we demonstrate a high-efficiency recovery of the crossover CO₂ during CO₂RR electrolysis using a porous solid electrolyte (PSE) reactor design. By introducing a sulfonated polymer electrolyte buffer layer between cathode and anode, crossover CO₃²⁻ could combine with protons (from anode OER) to form CO₂ gas again, which can be easily recaptured by continuously flushing the PSE layer with deionized (DI) water. Using Ag nanowire (NW) catalyst as a model study, we consistently recovered over 90% of the crossover CO₂ gas in an ultrahigh purity form (over 99% gas purity), while maintaining a decent CO₂RR catalytic performance of over 90% CO selectivity and high current density of 200 mA cm⁻². We also demonstrated that this PSE reactor design for crossover CO₂ recovery can be successfully extended to different CO₂RR catalysts and products. Furthermore, we were able to recycle this recovered CO₂ back to the input stream to obtain

¹Department of Chemical and Biomolecular Engineering, Rice University, Houston, TX, USA. ²Center for Nanophase Materials Science, Oak Ridge National Laboratory, Oak Ridge, TN, USA. ³Department of Materials Science and NanoEngineering, Rice University, Houston, TX, USA. ⁴Department of Chemistry, Rice University, Houston, TX, USA. ⁵These authors contributed equally: Jung Yoon 'Timothy' Kim, Peng Zhu. ✉e-mail: htwang@rice.edu

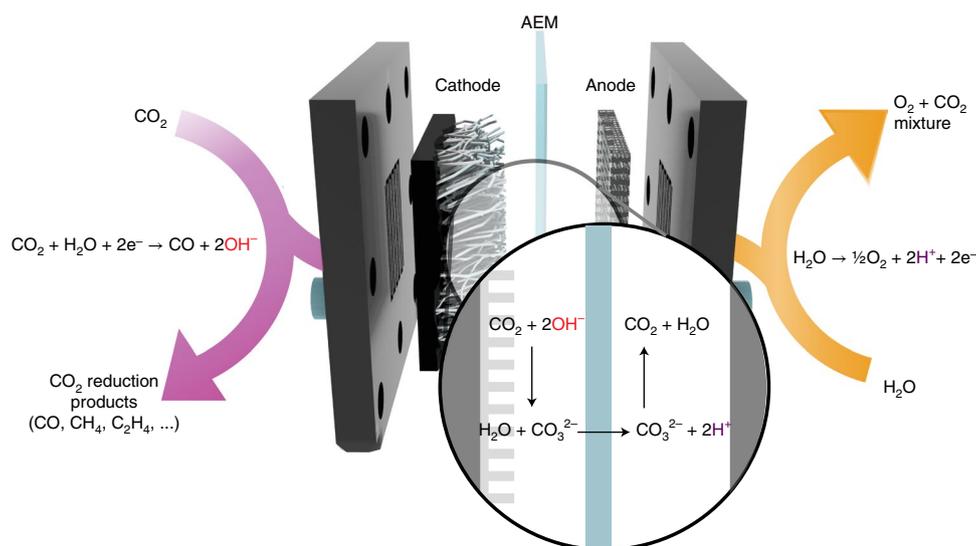


Fig. 1 | Schematic of CO₂ crossover phenomenon in anionic MEA cells. Schematic of CO₂RR MEA setup, showing how CO₂ from the cathode crosses past the anion exchange membrane into the anode via its reaction with hydroxide ions (in red) and protons (in purple).

a high continuous CO₂ conversion efficiency of over 90% under 100 mA cm⁻² current density.

Results

CO₂ crossover in traditional CO₂RR electrolyzers. Since the CO₂ crossover rates are typically at the same orders of magnitude with CO₂ reduction rates, which are usually much lower (under small currents) than the CO₂ stream flow rates used in CO₂RR experiments, this CO₂ crossover phenomenon would not introduce much error during the quantification of gas product FEs, and thus has often escaped researchers' notice. To validate and also systematically quantify the CO₂ crossover problem, here we used a commercial Ag NW catalyst in a standard anion MEA cell for 2e⁻ CO₂ reduction to CO (Fig. 2 and Methods). Ag NW was selected for its commercial availability, good selectivity and stability towards CO₂ electroreduction to CO. Other Ag-based catalysts such as Ag NPs showed similar catalytic performances to Ag NWs for both MEA and PSE reactors (Supplementary Fig. 1), suggesting that our choice of this NW catalyst did not have specific motives besides the NW's availability in our laboratory. The electrode geometric surface area we used is 2.5 cm² and the CO₂ upstream (input) flow rate was set at 20 standard cubic centimetres per minute (sccm) by a mass flow controller (MFC) across this work unless specifically noted. The current–voltage (*IV*) curves of the MEA cell and gas product FEs are included in Supplementary Fig. 2, with CO as the dominant product^{45–47}. The crossover CO₂ can be either directly measured by analysing the gas output flow on the anode side (O₂ + CO₂), or indirectly measured by analysing the CO₂ output rate and conversion rate (crossover = input – output – conversion). The corresponding experimental setups for gas analysis will be discussed in detail in Fig. 3b, Methods and Supplementary Fig. 3. First, the cathode-side CO₂ downstream gas analysis (Fig. 2a) shows that the actual CO₂ consumption rate (20 sccm minus downstream flow rate) will exceed the CO₂-to-CO conversion rate (calculated on the basis of CO partial current, Methods). In fact, the results showed that approximately the same amount of CO₂ was lost compared to the amount of CO₂ that gets reduced to form CO products under a wide range of cell currents, suggesting a substantial carbon loss issue with a low CO₂ use efficiency of roughly 50%. On the anode side, besides the expected O₂ gas produced from OER, there is a large amount of CO₂ flow detected (Fig. 2b). The natural diffusion of CO₂ gas

across the anion exchange membrane (AEM) can be ruled out since we did not observe any CO₂ gas flow on the anode side when no currents were applied on the cell. It is encouraging to find out that the CO₂ flow rate measured from the anode side, added together with the CO₂-to-CO conversion rate, matches well with the total CO₂ consumption rate measured from the cathode side (Fig. 2c). The agreement between these three independent measurements suggests a high accuracy of our experimental design in carbon balance analysis. With this, we have concluded that a large portion of CO₂ gas used in this system is crossed over to the other side and is mixed with oxygen gas, resulting in notable energy loss and cost increase in CO₂RR process. By taking a closer look at the CO₂ crossover rate (especially under larger currents where measurements are more accurate), we noticed that it is similar to the CO generation rate and is approximately double the O₂ generation rate. This correlation strongly indicates that the CO₂ crossover is mainly through the carbonate ions (CO₃²⁻) instead of bicarbonate (Fig. 1)^{25,32–34,36}; for every two electrons transferred in CO₂RR, there will be two OH⁻ groups generated to form one carbonate group (except for anionic products such as formate or acetate). The result agrees well with thermodynamics equilibria that show the hydroxide and CO₂ interaction at the catalyst–AEM interface mostly results in carbonate instead of bicarbonate ions due to strong alkaline local pH during CO₂RR electrolysis at the cathode^{25,34,36}. On the basis of this principle, the CO₂ crossover problem is exacerbated when higher-value products are targeted (Fig. 2d and Table 1). For example, for every two CO₂ molecules converted to a C₂ product of ethylene, there will be six CO₂ molecules crossing over to the anode side (crossover to conversion ratio of 3 to 1), which lowers the CO₂ use efficiency to only 25%. Even worse, this 25% efficiency is only a theoretical upper limit when the C₂H₄ FE is 100%. The competitive HER and other side products will further increase the CO₂ crossover rate and bring down the CO₂ use efficiency in CO₂RR electrolysis.

PSE reactor system design for crossover CO₂ recovery. As it is extremely difficult to prevent the formation and crossover of carbonate ions at the catalyst–AEM interface, the strategy we propose is to create a buffer layer between cathode and anode that could neutralize formed carbonate ions to regenerate CO₂ gas before they reach to the anode side. There are a few prerequisites of this buffer layer to serve the CO₂ recovery purpose. First, it must have high ionic conductivity

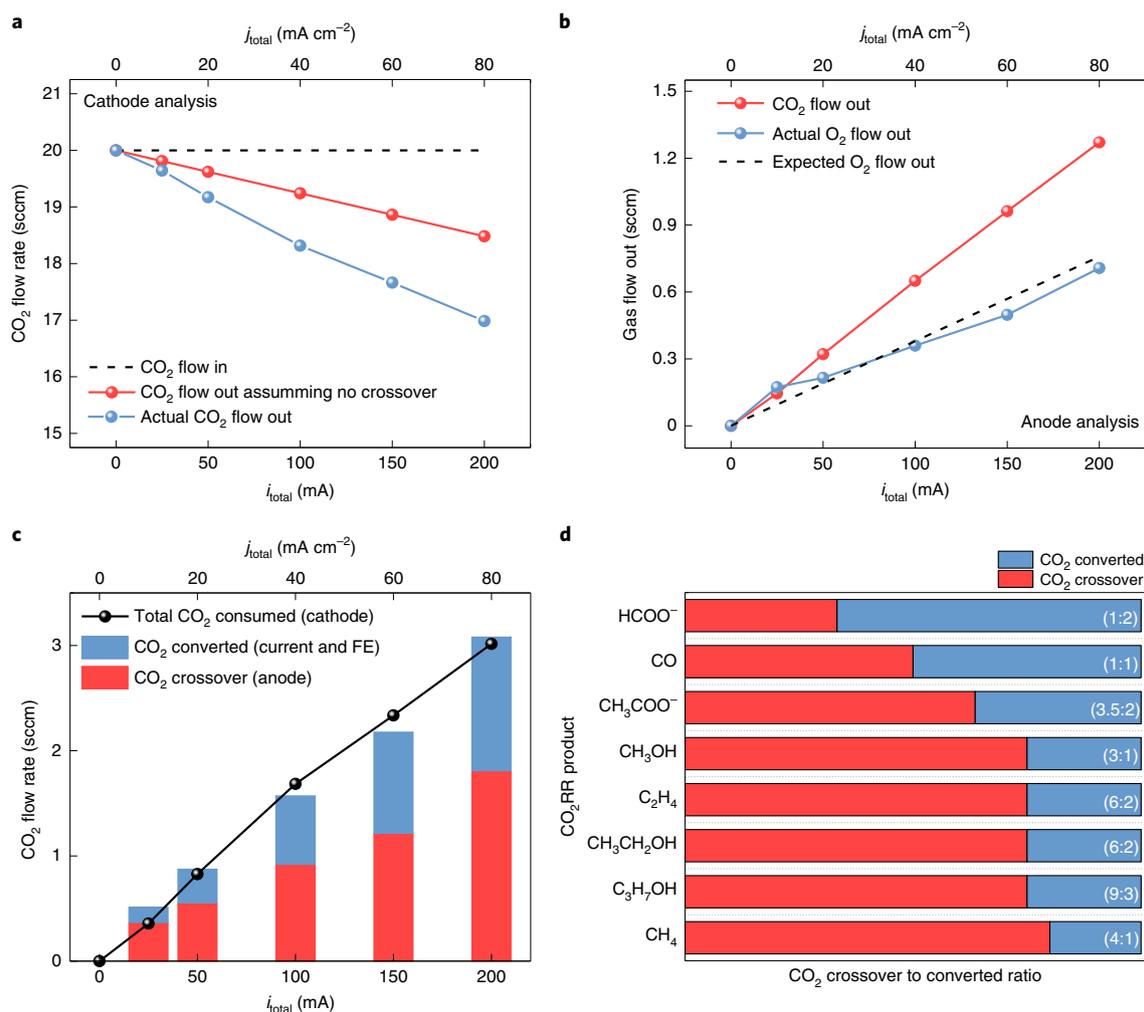


Fig. 2 | Substantial carbon loss in traditional CO₂ MEA electrolyzers. **a**, CO₂ flow analysis of the cathode side in which actual CO₂ flow out (blue) is much less than CO₂ flow, which considers only CO₂RR consumption (red). **b**, Total gas flow analysis of the anode side in which electrochemically calculated O₂ flow (dashed line) and measured O₂ flow out (blue) are far exceeded by the crossover CO₂ gas flow (red). **c**, CO₂ flow analysis that shows the crossover CO₂ (from anode gas analysis) and the CO₂ converted (from partial current of CO₂), which adds up to match the total CO₂ flow change well (the difference between the CO₂ inlet and the downstream CO₂) on the cathode side. **d**, Ratio of crossover CO₂ to converted CO₂ for different CO₂RR products. This ratio is calculated with the assumption of 100% FE towards the specific target product.

that can ensure a small ohmic drop between cathode and anode for high energy efficiencies. Second, its pH should be at around neutral range (such as CO₂ saturated water with pH 5), as high alkaline pH greatly increases the CO₂ crossover rate due to carbonate formation, and low acidic pH could damage the AEM and lower the CO₂RR catalytic performances. Third, it must not be continuously consumed by reacting with crossover CO₂, which makes the system unsustainable. At first glance, a specific liquid electrolyte such as NaHCO₃ or KHCO₃ solution seems to be able to serve the purpose. However, as the solubility of these bicarbonate salts is typically within a few moles per litre, and ion conduction is mainly conveyed by Na⁺ or K⁺ ions that are far slower compared to protons⁴⁸, their ion conductivity is dramatically limited. The liquid electrolyte is also mixed with the CO₂RR liquid products such as formic acid or ethanol during the operation, which adds another separation step to obtain high purity liquid products. More importantly, concentrated liquid electrolyte is known to negatively affect the stability of CO₂RR due to the salt precipitation on the cathode electrode that blocks CO₂ diffusions^{49,50}.

Our design of a PSE layer as the buffer layer could satisfy the above-mentioned requirements and avoid the challenges that liquid electrolytes are faced with. As shown in Fig. 3a, the solid electrolyte

layer contains dense but permeable ion-conducting polymers functionalized with sulfonate groups, which guarantees efficient proton conduction (like a Nafion membrane does) between cathode and anode with a voltage comparable to that of an MEA device (cell assembly in the Methods and Supplementary Fig. 4)^{51–55}. Taking notice of the aforementioned carbonate crossover phenomenon in MEA, we proposed that a similar process would be taking place at the cathode in our solid electrolyte reactor design. We speculated that the solid electrolyte device's cathode-side CO₂RR will result in the formation of hydroxide ions, which will then react with free CO₂ gas to form carbonate ions. These carbonate ions would be driven by the electrical field to migrate across the AEM into the solid electrolyte layer, where they are recombined with protons generated from the anodic OER to compensate for the charge. Therefore, our solid electrolyte buffer layer serves as a recombination site for carbonate and protons, while not sacrificing CO₂RR performances as demonstrated in our previous solid electrolyte reactor systems^{51–55}. The protonation of carbonate results in the formation of dissolved CO₂ and CO₂ gas, which are now completely separated from the anode O₂ stream. By recycling a DI water stream (saturated by CO₂) through this PSE layer to push out regenerated CO₂ gas, we can

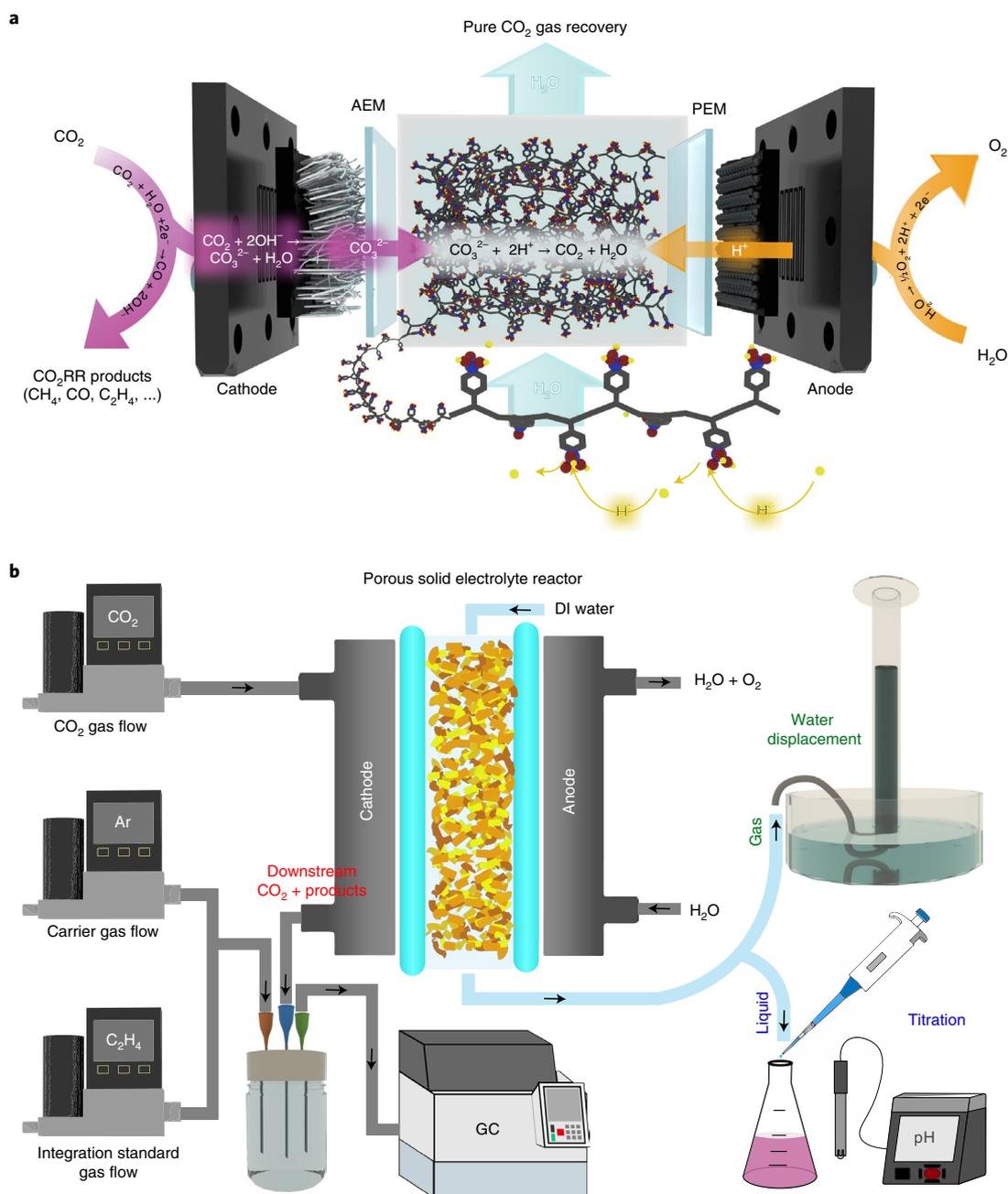


Fig. 3 | PSE reactor design for crossover CO₂ recovery and its gas analysis system. **a**, Schematic of CO₂RR in the PSE reactor and recovery process of crossover CO₃²⁻ ion by recombination with protons in the PSE buffer layer. The protons generated from the anode side move across the PEM then hop across the solid electrolyte efficiently via sulfonate functional groups as shown with the yellow arrows. **b**, Schematic of CO₂ recovery measurement during CO₂RR process in the PSE reactor. One independent GC measurement is conducted on the cathode-side downstream gas flow and two independent measurements, titration and water displacement, are conducted on the middle-layer downstream flow.

realize a continuous recovery of ultrahigh purity CO₂ gas that can be readily reused in CO₂RR.

To validate this idea and to evaluate the CO₂ recovery capability of our PSE reactor, an accurate measurement of CO₂ crossover rate and CO₂ recovery rate is of central importance. First, on the cathode side, the input 20 sccm CO₂ stream will be split into three components: converted CO₂ (to CO), crossover CO₂ (to solid electrolyte layer) and remaining downstream CO₂. To obtain the CO₂ crossover rates under different cell operation conditions, we will then need to measure the CO₂ conversion rates and downstream CO₂ flow rates. While the CO₂ conversion rates can be easily

calculated on the basis of the CO/H₂ quantification using gas chromatography (GC) and the cell current (Methods), the measurement of downstream CO₂ flow rates is challenging due to the small flow rate changes compared to its baseline, especially under low cell currents. One straightforward method is to directly connect the downstream to another MFC and translate its flow rate readings back to CO₂ flow rate by considering the generated CO and H₂ gas components, but when the measurement was compared with the titrated CO₂ quantity, we saw it deviated from its set point (Supplementary Fig. 5). Here we developed a more sophisticated and reliable gas analysis system, an internal gas standard strategy, for downstream CO₂

Table 1 | CO₂ reduction half-cell reactions and their corresponding CO₂ maximal use efficiency assuming 100% product selectivity

Electrochemical CO ₂ RR reactions	Maximal CO ₂ use efficiency
2H ₂ O(l) + 2e ⁻ → H ₂ (g) + 2OH ⁻	N/A
CO ₂ (g) + H ₂ O(l) + 2e ⁻ → HCOO ⁻ (aq) + OH ⁻	67%
CO ₂ (g) + H ₂ O(l) + 2e ⁻ → CO(g) + 2OH ⁻	50%
2CO ₂ (g) + 5H ₂ O(l) + 7e ⁻ → CH ₃ COO ⁻ (aq) + 7OH ⁻	36%
CO ₂ (g) + 5H ₂ O(l) + 6e ⁻ → CH ₃ OH(l) + 6OH ⁻	25%
2CO ₂ (g) + 8H ₂ O(l) + 12e ⁻ → C ₂ H ₄ (g) + 12OH ⁻	25%
2CO ₂ (g) + 9H ₂ O(l) + 12e ⁻ → CH ₃ CH ₂ OH(l) + 12OH ⁻	25%
CO ₂ (g) + 6H ₂ O(l) + 8e ⁻ → CH ₄ (g) + 8OH ⁻	20%

flow rate measurements as shown in Fig. 3b. Before cathode-side downstream gas flow is fed into the GC, it is mixed with 200 sccm of Ar as a carrier gas and 5 sccm of the internal integration standard gas. Ethylene (C₂H₄) is mostly used as the internal integration standard gas, while methane (CH₄) is used for the systems where CO₂RR products includes C₂H₄ such as the Cu catalyst (no CH₄ is produced in our case). The ratio between CO₂ GC peak area to internal standard GC peak area was precalibrated for accurate measurements of the downstream CO₂ flow rate independent of complicated gas components in it (Methods and Supplementary Fig. 6).

Second, the crossover CO₂ gas will be dissolved in DI water before it emits as gas bubbles when water starts to get saturated. To most accurately measure the CO₂ crossover rate into the solid electrolyte layer, we chose to measure dissolved CO₂ and CO₂ gas bubbles in the DI water flow stream separately using titration and water displacement method, respectively (Fig. 3b and Methods). Please note here that the CO₂ dissolution in DI water stream will be avoided in practical operations when we continuously circulate the saturated DI water in our PSE layer, therefore all crossover CO₂ can be collected in its gas phase (demonstrated in our following long-term stability test). A titration method was used to accurately detect the amount of dissolved crossover CO₂ of all forms (carbonic acid, carbonate, bicarbonate and dissolved CO₂ equilibriums) within the DI water flow through the middle layer (Methods and Supplementary Figs. 7 and 8)⁵⁶. Excessive crossover CO₂ was pushed out in its gas phase when the DI water stream got saturated, especially under large operation currents, and its volumetric flow rate was reliably measured using a water displacement method optimized for CO₂ gas (Methods and Supplementary Fig. 9)⁵⁷.

Characterizations of crossover CO₂ recovery. We used the same Ag NW CO₂-to-CO catalyst as in our MEA test on the cathode of our PSE reactor as a model case study of CO₂ recovery (Fig. 4a). An IrO₂ anode electrode was used on the other side to oxidize water to O₂ and to continuously supply protons to the solid electrolyte layer across the PEM (Methods). As shown from the scanning electron microscopy (SEM) and the high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM) images in Fig. 4a and Supplementary Fig. 10, the Ag NWs present a uniform diameter of roughly 70 nm. The lattice spacing and the structure in the HRTEM shows that the surface of the Ag NW is mainly covered by a (111) facet, which was identified as the active surface for CO₂RR to CO in previous studies⁴⁶. The IV curve of the solid electrolyte reactor, with an extra middle layer introduced, presents a similar CO₂RR activity compared to the MEA device (Fig. 4b and Supplementary Fig. 2). The CO₂RR selectivity of the solid electrolyte reactor was also comparable if not better than the MEA, with CO FE of roughly 90% under high currents

of up to 500 mA or 200 mA cm⁻² (Fig. 4c and Supplementary Fig. 2). No other CO₂RR products were observed. Figure 4d presents the capability of our solid electrolyte reactor design to recover crossover CO₂ in the middle chamber during the CO₂RR to CO electrolysis. The theoretical guideline was calculated on the basis of the assumption that every two electrons transferred on the cathode will result in the generation of two OH⁻ and thus absorb one CO₂ molecule to form one crossover CO₃²⁻, therefore it is only related to the operation current and is independent of CO₂RR or HER FEs except for the generation of formate or acetate as crossover anions (Table 1). It is encouraging to observe that the CO₂ crossover rates we measured on the cathode side, which equal the total CO₂ consumption rate (input–output) minus the CO₂ conversion rate (to CO in this case), are very close to the theoretical ones under a wide range of cell operation currents, suggesting a high accuracy of our gas analysis system specifically designed for this carbon balance study. Although the discrepancies are small between these two values, it is also interesting to find out that our measured CO₂ crossover rates are always slightly higher than the theoretical guideline. This is possibly due to the potential gas leakage in our cell assembly or tube connections, which results in an underestimated downstream CO₂ flow rate and thus an overestimated CO₂ crossover rate.

The CO₂ recovery rate measured in the middle solid electrolyte layer, which consists of both dissolved CO₂ and gas-phase CO₂, continuously increased with the cell current (Fig. 4d). Under small operation currents, we observed that the dissolved CO₂ measured by titration was higher than the CO₂ bubble collection as the DI water stream was not yet saturated. Under higher cell currents, while we observed continuous increase in collected CO₂ bubbles, the rate of dissolved CO₂ reached a plateau of roughly 1 sccm (Supplementary Fig. 8). Considering our DI water flow rate was fixed at 1.1 ml min⁻¹ through the solid electrolyte layer, this plateau suggested a CO₂-saturated DI water stream at roughly 0.91 ml_{CO₂}/ml_{H₂O} under our operation conditions, which agrees very well with theoretical CO₂ solubility in water^{56,58}. We want to emphasize here again that all the crossover CO₂ can be recovered in gas phase only in practical operations once we continue to recycle the saturated DI water stream (demonstrated below). The cell continuously recovered the total CO₂, both dissolved and gas bubbles, of up to 90% of the cathode-side measured crossover CO₂ quantity or roughly 100% of the theoretically calculated crossover CO₂ quantity across a wide range of operation currents (Fig. 4e). This small discrepancy in CO₂ recovery efficiencies can also be well explained by the above-discussed hypothesis that our measured CO₂ crossover rates could be slightly overestimated. The gas purity of our recovered CO₂ stream was above 99% as confirmed by GC measurements (Fig. 4f, Supplementary Fig. 11 and Methods), with only trace amounts of impurities including H₂ and O₂ that may come from electrolysis or air leakage.

A detailed comparison of the IV curves between our solid electrolyte reactor and the MEA cell, with most of the electrolyser components kept the same (Methods), is shown in Supplementary Figs. 12 and 13. The introduction of the extra solid electrolyte layer showed an impedance increase (roughly 1 Ω) compared to the MEA reactor, resulting in an additional 0.3 to 0.4 V cell voltage under the current density of 100 mA cm⁻². However, this voltage penalty can be reduced to only 0.15 V by thinning the solid electrolyte layer from 2.5 to 1.5 mm, which resulted in smaller resistance-caused voltage drops (also known as iR drops; Supplementary Fig. 13), suggesting that the cell voltage could be further improved when the thickness of the solid electrolyte layer is further reduced. Our techno-economic analysis suggests that the energy penalty we paid in adding an extra layer of solid electrolyte to MEA for CO₂ recovery during the Ag NW CO₂RR is smaller than the energy consumptions needed to have a downstream CO₂/O₂ gas separation in the case of MEA operation of the Ag NW CO₂RR (Supplementary Note 1). Furthermore, the comparison seen in Supplementary Figs. 12

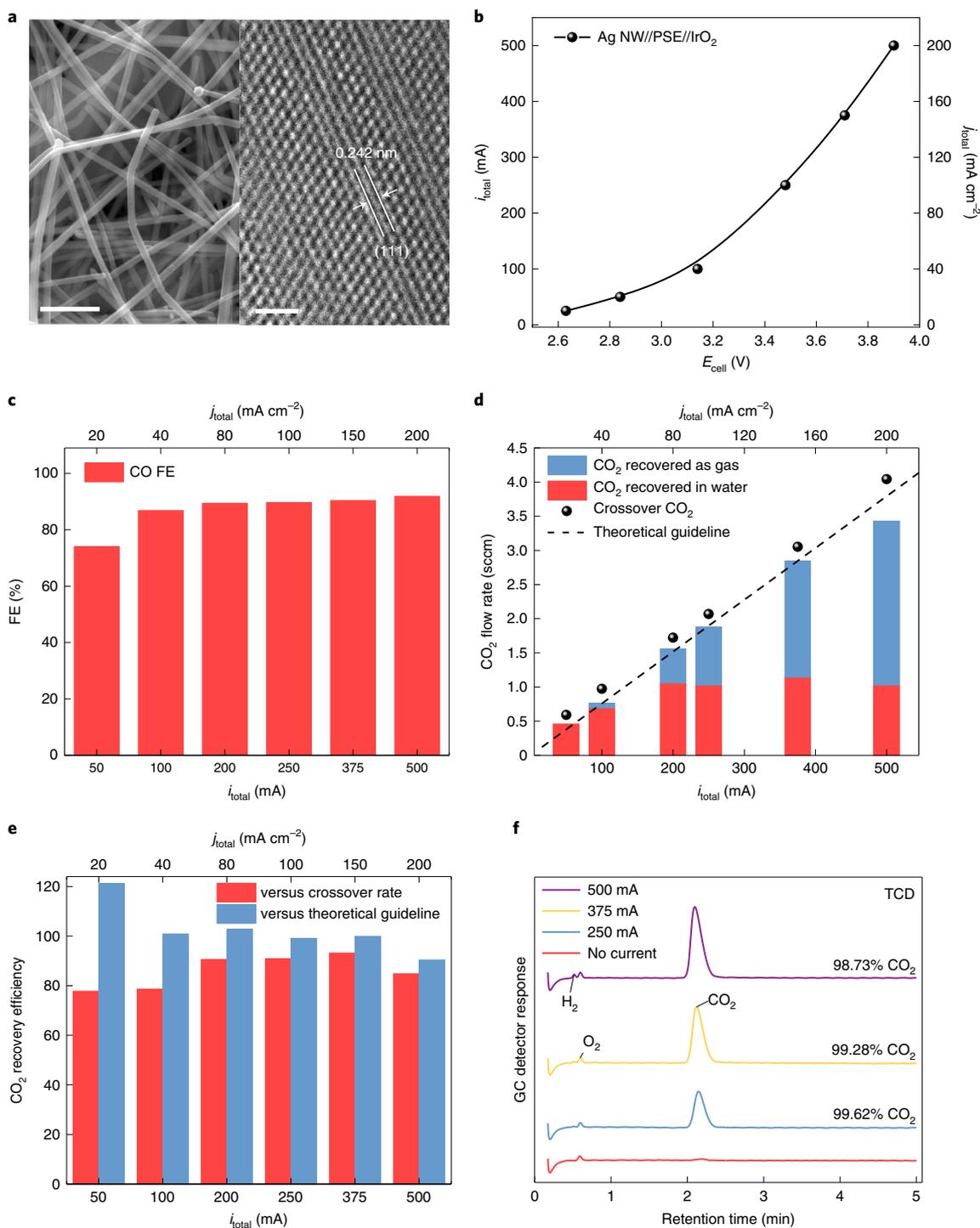


Fig. 4 | Crossover CO₂ recovery characterization in an Ag NW solid electrolyte reactor. a, SEM (left) and HRTEM (right) image of Ag NW. Lattice spacing of 0.242 nm and the lattice structure shows that the (111) facet is the most prominent lattice on the surface of the NWs. **b**, The IV curve of CO₂RR on Ag NW catalyst in our solid electrolyte reactor. **c**, CO FE of Ag NW under different operation currents in our solid electrolyte reactor. **d**, The CO₂ recovery performance of solid electrolyte reactor using Ag NW. Gas recovery, dissolved liquid, crossover CO₂ and theoretical values were measured/calculated by water displacement, titration, GC measurement and applied current, respectively. **e**, Proportion of CO₂ recovered in the middle layer compared to the GC measured crossover CO₂ or the theoretically calculated crossover CO₂. **f**, Thermal conductivity detector response from the GC showing H₂ peak (roughly 0.52 min), O₂ peak (roughly 0.6 min) and CO₂ peak (roughly 2.3 min) with CO₂ corresponding purity of recovered gas for a range of currents. Scale bars in **a**, 500 nm (left) and 1 nm (right).

and 13 shows that the MEA device needs to operate with a liquid electrolyte, whereas the PSE device can be operated entirely with water. The ultrahigh purity of recovered CO₂ stream, high recovery

efficiencies and similar CO₂RR selectivity compared to MEA suggest the great potential of our PSE reactor design in addressing the carbon loss challenge in practical CO₂ electrolysis.

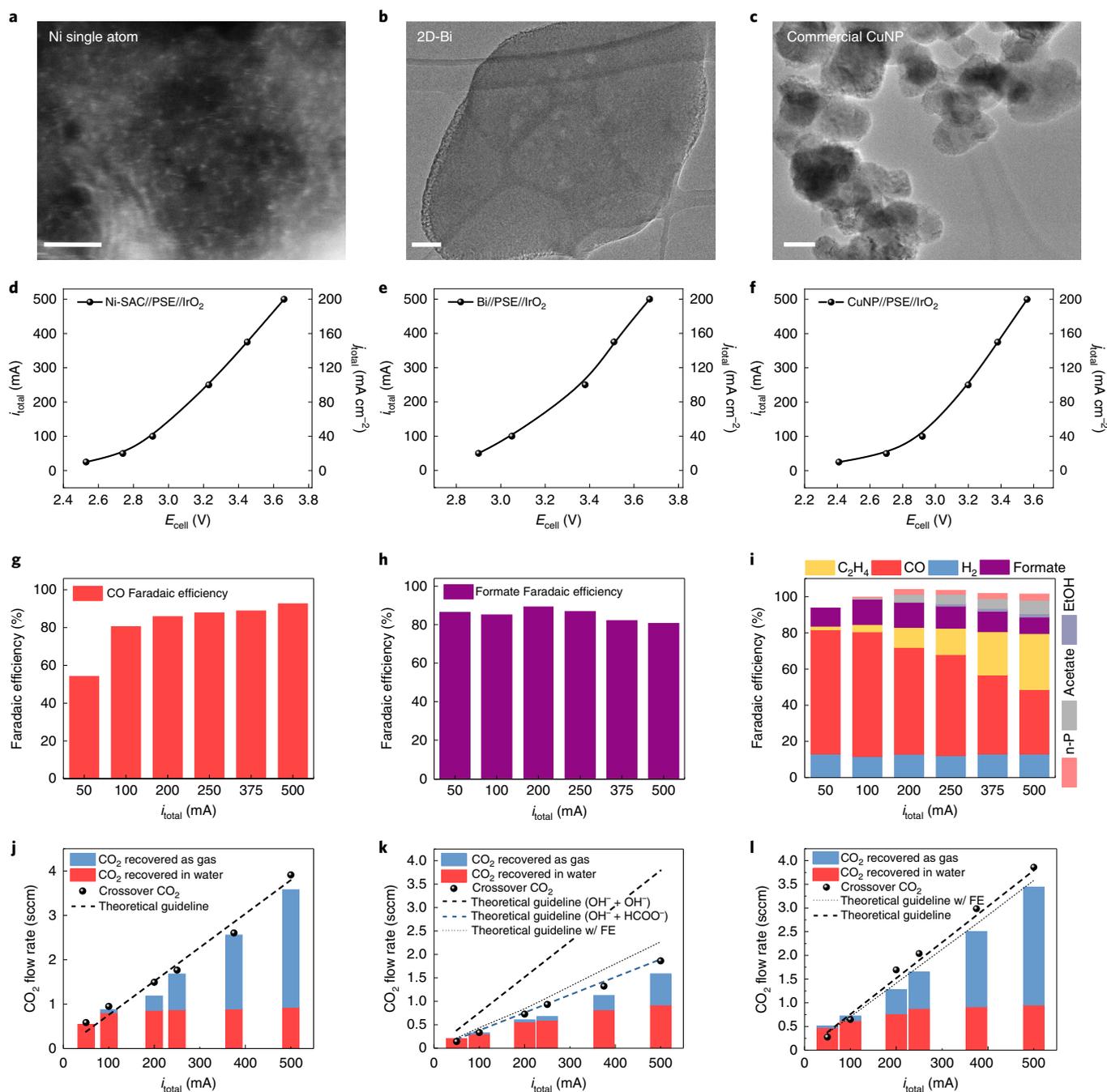


Fig. 5 | The wide applicability of crossover CO₂ recovery using PSE reactor. CO₂RR and CO₂ recovery performance of Ni-SAC, 2D-Bi and CuNP: three different catalysts with unique CO₂RR selectivity. **a–c**, TEM of Ni-SAC (**a**), 2D-Bi (**b**) and CuNPs (**c**). **d–f**, Currents and current densities versus cell voltage (*IV* curves) of our PSE reactor with Ni-SAC (**d**), 2D-Bi (**e**) and CuNPs (**f**). **g–i**, CO FE, formate FE and seven different CO₂RR products FE during electrochemical testing in a solid electrolyte reactor with Ni-SAC (**g**), 2D-Bi (**h**) and CuNPs (**i**), respectively. **j–l**, CO₂ recovery performance for PSE reactor with Ni-SAC (**j**), 2D-Bi (**k**) and CuNPs (**l**). In 2D-Bi recovery performance, the topmost theoretical guideline (OH⁻ + OH⁻) represents the same guideline shown for other CO catalysts, while the blue dashed theoretical guideline (OH⁻ + HCOO⁻) demonstrates the crossover expectation (assuming 100% formate FE) when one formate ion replaces one hydroxide ion formed at the interface. The dotted theoretical guideline represents the crossover value when considering the actual formate FE. Likewise, the dotted theoretical line in CuNP considers the formation and crossover of formate and acetate as anionic products. Scale bars in **a**, 2 nm; **b**, 100 nm and **c**, 50 nm.

CO₂ gas recovery for different catalysts and CO₂RR products. To demonstrate its general applicability, we further evaluated the CO₂ recovery performances of our PSE design with different CO₂RR catalysts and products. First, to investigate the possibility of using different CO₂ to CO catalysts for the same recovery design, a

Ni-SAC was used as it has been demonstrated to have high selectivity for CO in our and others' previous studies^{59–63}. The TEM and SEM characterizations in Fig. 5a and Supplementary Fig. 14 confirmed the well-dispersed Ni single atoms in a carbon matrix. The CO₂RR-to-CO performance of Ni-SACs demonstrated previously

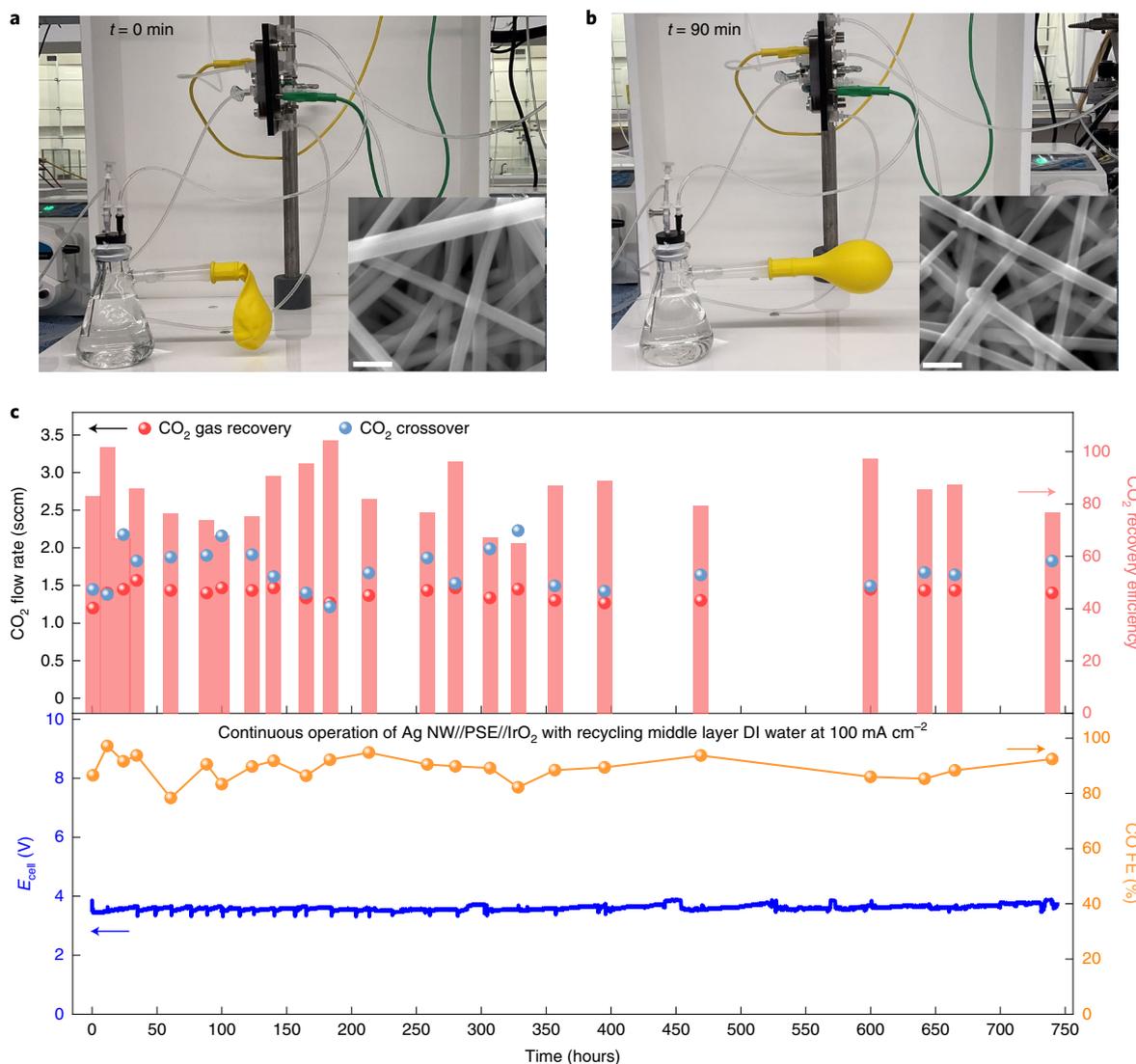


Fig. 6 | DI water recycling and stability test for continuous CO_2 gas recovery. **a**, Image of our solid electrolyte reactor system for CO_2 gas recovery and the SEM image of the Ag NW catalyst (inset) before cell operation. **b**, After 90 min of cell operation at 250 mA (100 mA cm^{-2}), a 100-ml balloon was filled up by recovered CO_2 . The Ag NW catalyst did not show any structure change after catalysis. **c**, CO_2 recovery stability test under 250 mA or 100 mA cm^{-2} for 750 h. The cell voltage (blue) was stable throughout the test. Also, the CO FE percentage (orange) shows the device's ability to maintain high CO FE for long-term operation. CO_2 crossover rate measured with GC (red data points) and CO_2 recovery rate measured with the water displacement method (blue data points) showed no decay, with an average of 80–90% recovery (magenta) of the crossover CO_2 during 750 h of operation of our solid electrolyte reactor. Scale bars in **a** and **b**, 200 nm.

in a traditional electrolyser was successfully translated in our solid electrolyte reactor, which delivered industrially relevant currents (up to 500 mA or 200 mA cm^{-2}) while maintaining over 90% CO FE (Fig. 5d,g). Similar CO_2 crossover and recovery rates were observed as shown in Fig. 5j compared to the case of Ag NW, confirming that the carbon loss and recovery mechanisms were not related to the type of catalyst we used in the case of CO generation.

The CO_2 crossover rates could be dramatically different in the case of producing anionic CO_2 RR products such as formate, since fewer OH^- groups are generated (Fig. 2d and Table 1). To validate this hypothesis and to test the CO_2 recovery capability under this scenario, we changed the cathode catalyst to a two-dimensional Bi (2D-Bi) nanosheet catalyst (Fig. 5b and Supplementary Fig. 15), which has been demonstrated in our previous study to be highly selective for formic acid^{53,64}. As expected, 2D-Bi showed high activity and selectivity for formic acid in our solid electrolyte cell design,

with consistently high FEs under a wide range of current densities (Fig. 5e,h). As shown in Table 1, CO_2 RR to formate is a two-electron transfer process (the same as CO), but it only produces one OH^- ion and the other charge is compensated by HCOO^- . As a result, the theoretical crossover CO_2 will be halved compared to the case of CO as seen from the theoretical guideline in Fig. 5k assuming a 100% formate FE. A slightly higher theoretical guideline was also included when taking into consideration our measured formate FEs with H_2 and CO as the byproducts. It is very interesting to observe that our measured CO_2 crossover rates, although very close, were consistently lower than the theoretical guideline with FE, which is different from the case of CO. This lower CO_2 crossover ratio could be due to the lower OH^- ion density generated at the catalyst–membrane interface, which results in lower local pH and less carbonate formation. The total CO_2 recovery remained very close to both the measured and theoretical crossover CO_2 , suggesting that the high

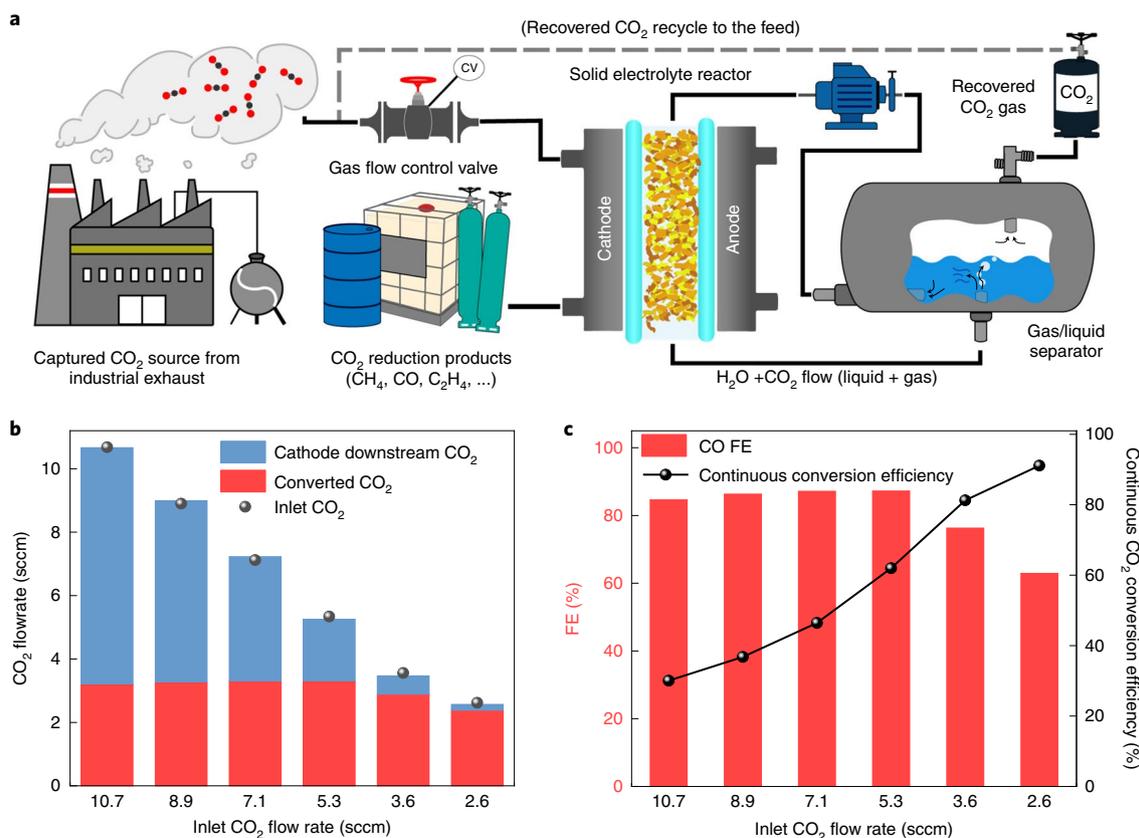


Fig. 7 | Improved CO₂ conversion via recycling crossover CO₂. **a**, Schematic of practical CO₂RR process using PSE reactor CO₂ recovery technology that ensures high carbon efficiency throughout the operation. This operation uses a three-port vessel to separate and collect headspace CO₂ gas while recycling saturated DI water back into the solid electrolyte layer. **b**, Carbon balance analysis on cathode side and middle layer of the solid electrolyte cell with changing inlet CO₂ flow rate. The electrolyser was operated at 100 mA cm⁻² with an electrode area of 5 cm². The inlet CO₂ flow rates were carefully calibrated (Methods). The cathode downstream CO₂ gas stream and the inlet was measured using the CO₂ meter while converted CO₂ was calculated using the FE. **c**, The FE and the continuous conversion of the Ag NW in a solid electrolyte with the CO₂ recycling system. FE was measured using the GC and continuous conversion efficiency was calculated by comparing CO₂ converted against the inlet CO₂ flow (Methods).

CO₂ recovery efficiency of our PSE reactor was not affected when anionic products were formed and transported across the AEM.

Last, CO₂ gas recovery during CO₂RR to multiple higher-value products was shown using commercial CuNPs as the catalyst that presents notable selectivity towards various multicarbon products^{65,66}. The commercial CuNPs consisted of 30–50 nm diameter nanocrystals with uniform morphology (Fig. 5c and Supplementary Fig. 16). In our PSE reactor, this CuNP catalyst showed notable CO₂RR activity and selectivity for C₂₊ products especially at higher currents, delivering roughly 40% C₂₊ FE under 200 mA cm⁻² (Fig. 5f,i). For this CuNP sample, C₂H₄, CO and H₂ make up most of the products while HCOO⁻ and CH₃COO⁻ together only have a FE of 10–14%, which results in Cu's CO₂ crossover rate not deviating too much from Ag NW or Ni-SAC, as shown by the theoretical guidelines (Fig. 5l). It is encouraging that our reactor still maintained a similarly high CO₂ recovery performance even under this more complicated scenario where the Cu catalyst produces up to seven different products including C₂₊ products, suggesting a wide applicability in CO₂RR fields in the future.

Water recycling system and long-term stability. In practical operations, a direct recovery of crossover CO₂ in its gas phase, instead of partially dissolved in water, is preferred and can be directly fed back to the main CO₂ stream. This can be achieved by continuously recycling the water stream through the PSE layer as shown in Supplementary Fig. 17. Continuous recycling of middle-layer

water can remove the need for dissolved CO₂ analysis since the liquid remains saturated with CO₂. Any further CO₂ gas crossover to the PSE layer after the first saturation will be extracted as pure gas. Using this setup, CO₂RR to CO on a Ag NW catalyst was continuously operated at 250 mA or 100 mA cm⁻² for practical CO₂ gas recovery demonstrations. As a visual demonstration, an empty balloon (roughly 100 ml in size) was filled with recovered CO₂ gas from the solid electrolyte layer after 90 minutes of operation, suggesting facile storage of recovered CO₂ gas (Fig. 6a,b and Supplementary Video 1). No visible change was seen in SEM images of Ag NW before and after this catalysis operation, indicating a good structure stability. To evaluate the long-term performance of gas recovery (Fig. 6c), the device was continuously operated for 750 hours without noticeable change in CO selectivity (roughly 90%) or cell voltage (roughly 3.5 V without iR compensation). During this stability test, the recovered CO₂ maintained relatively constant at around 1.4 to 1.5 sccm. Note here that this crossover rate is slightly lower than what we tested in Fig. 4 where we continuously flow in fresh DI water stream, which is because the CO₂ saturated DI water flow could backlash the CO₂/carbonate equilibrium and thus inhibit the carbonate formation at the catalyst–AEM interface. The gas crossover rate was also monitored during the long-term operation with noticeable measurement fluctuations, which may stem from the pressure fluctuations in the cathode and the solid electrolyte layer over the course of the stability test. For the entire duration, an average of roughly 80 to 90% crossover CO₂ measured from the cathode

side was recovered in the middle layer, showing consistent and efficient recovery potential of the device.

Recycling recovered CO₂ to improve CO₂ conversion efficiency.

The recovered crossover CO₂ gas in our solid electrolyte reactor, if recycled back to the CO₂ input stream (Fig. 7a), could dramatically improve the continuous CO₂ conversion efficiency compared to that of the MEA reactor, which is typically limited to less than 50% (Table 1)³². To achieve a high continuous conversion efficiency that is defined as a proportion of supplied CO₂ continuously converted to products (Methods), we have to eliminate the excess of CO₂ gas supplied to the system. Therefore, while a 100 mA cm⁻² cell current density (500 mA total current) was maintained, we gradually lowered the inlet CO₂ flow rate in our gas recycling system to monitor how it would affect the CO₂RR performance as well as the continuous conversion efficiency (Methods). Figure 7b presents the carbon balance analysis in this system, which includes how much CO₂ gas was converted to product and how much of it remained in the cathode-side outlet under different CO₂ gas supply flow rates. We observed that the CO FE was maintained at a relatively high level (roughly 85%) until the inlet CO₂ flow rate was decreased to 3.6 sccm, with the continuous conversion efficiency continuously increasing (Fig. 7c). This product selectivity decrease is mainly due to the lack of CO₂ reactant and thus water reduction to H₂ started to rise. By further reducing the CO₂ inlet flow rate, we obtained an impressive 91% continuous conversion efficiency while maintaining over 60% CO FE. The downstream remaining CO₂ flow rate was decreased to only 0.18 sccm, while the flow-out CO and H₂ was roughly 2.39 and 1.41 sccm, respectively, suggesting a low remaining CO₂ concentration of only 4.6%.

Conclusions

In this work, we demonstrated the use of PSE reactor design to successfully recover lost CO₂ gas during CO₂RR electrolysis while maintaining high catalytic performances. This work showed that traditional electrolyzers have poor CO₂ use efficiency, which makes the process unsustainable. Adding a porous and ion-conducting solid electrolyte buffer layer, however, demonstrated that we were able to efficiently recover these carbon losses to ensure high CO₂ use efficiencies. This strategy avoids using extra gas separation equipment or energy required to separate crossover CO₂ from impurities, especially oxygen. Future studies can be done to further improve each component in the PSE reactor to make it more viable for practical CO₂ recovery during CO₂RR electrolysis, including optimizing the thickness of solid electrolyte layer for minimized ohmic drop and improving ion conduction between cathode and anode by designing different solid ion conductors.

Methods

Preparation of catalysts. Ag NW-L70 (ACS Material Store) used in this work was purchased from the vendor and was stored suspended in water. CuNP (Sigma-Aldrich), described as commercial copper in this work, was purchased directly from the vendor. 2D-Bi nanosheet NP was synthesized following our previous study that showed this material's high selectivity towards formic acid³³. Ni-SAC was also prepared following the previous work to disperse Ni atoms onto a graphene nanosheets well³⁹. Ag NP (Sky-Spring Nanomaterials) was also directly purchased directly from the vendor. For the preparation of the cathode electrode, 40 mg of the target catalyst with 160 μl of Nafion 117 polymer binder solution (Sigma-Aldrich, 5%) was suspended in 4 ml of isopropyl alcohol to prepare roughly 10 mg ml⁻¹ catalyst ink. This ink was sonicated for about 30 min and then was spray coated on to the Sigracet 28BC GDL electrode (Fuel Cell Store) to obtain roughly 0.8 mg cm⁻² catalyst deposition on the GDL. An IrO₂ electrode (Dioxide Materials) and nickel foam were used for the anode electrode during the electrochemical process.

Electrochemical CO₂ reduction. Electrochemical measurements were all conducted using a Bio-Logic VMP3 workstation. The MEA cell consists of Ag NW catalyst loaded on 2.5 cm² GDL as the cathode. A 0.5-mm thick polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE) gasket with a 2.5 cm² window and the AEM membrane separates the cathode from the Ni foam (Supplementary Fig. 2) or

IrO₂ (Supplementary Fig. 12) anode. The components of the electrochemical cell were compressed together mechanically using eight pairs of nuts and bolts with hand tightening. In the MEA CO₂ recovery test, the cathode was supplied with 20 sccm of humidified CO₂ gas using a 50-sccm-range MFC (Alicat Scientific MFC) and the anode was supplied with recycled 0.5 M KHCO₃ solution (Supplementary Fig. 2) via a peristaltic pump (Huiyu peristaltic pump). The recycled anolyte was constantly bubbled with 50 sccm Ar carrier gas flow and the headspace gases were vented into the GC (SRI 8010C) for anode side gas analysis. For the MEA IV test for a direct comparison with the solid electrolyte reactor (Supplementary Fig. 12), an IrO₂ anode was recycled with DI water or 0.1 M K₂SO₄.

The PSE reactor used the catalysts Ag NW, Ag NP, Ni-SAC, 2D-Bi or CuNPs loaded on 2.5 cm² GDL as the cathode electrode. A 0.5-mm thick PTFE gasket with a 2.5 cm² window and AEM membrane was placed between the cathode electrode and the solid electrolyte layer. The middle layer solid electrolyte compartment was made of 2.5 mm Delrin plastic (1.5 mm for the thin plate solid electrolyte reactor in Supplementary Information and Supplementary Fig. 13). This plastic layer had a 2.5 × 2.5 cm window in which we 'packed' approximately 1 g of the proton conducting polymer electrolyte, Dowex 50W X8 hydrogen form (Sigma-Aldrich), as shown in Supplementary Fig. 4. Nafion 117 film (Fuel Cell Store) with a second PTFE gasket with 6.25 cm² window was used to separate the anode from the middle solid electrolyte layer. IrO₂ was used as the anode for the OER. All the above-mentioned components of the electrochemical cell were compressed together mechanically using eight pairs of nuts and bolts with hand tightening. During the operation of the solid electrolyte reactor without DI water recycling system (Figs. 3b–5), the cathode was supplied with 20 sccm humidified CO₂ for all tests. When the FE for the Cu sample was tested, the flow rate of inlet CO₂ was temporarily increased to 50 sccm to minimize the FE measurement error associated with CO₂ stream flow rate change. The middle solid electrolyte layer was continuously flowed with 1.1 ml min⁻¹ of a DI water stream to bring out dissolved CO₂ and CO₂ gas, and the anode side was circulated with 2.7 ml min⁻¹ of 0.5 M H₂SO₄. Before any of the selectivity or performance reading was tested, the cell was activated by running a low current through the device for roughly 20 min before measuring its cell voltage and its selectivity. In the case of solid electrolyte layer with a recycled DI water stream (Fig. 6), the anolyte was replaced with 2.7 ml min⁻¹ of DI water while everything else was conducted with the same parameters.

For CO₂ recycling and continuous conversion efficiency testing, some of the parameters were varied. A 5 cm² cathode electrode was used and 100 mA cm⁻² was used in the recycling system. The CO₂ gas inlet was not directly connected to the cathode, instead it was bubbled into the middle-layer liquid chamber first, where it combined with the recovered CO₂ before being inserted into the cathode inlet. Depending on the targeted flow rate, CO₂ gas flow rate was adjusted by MFC, however, the actual flow rate of the gas was further calibrated by a CO₂ meter (CO2Meter.com).

All cell resistance was measured by potentiostatic electrochemical impedance spectroscopy and all the whole cell voltages were reported without any iR compensation. The typical impedance of our solid electrolyte reactor was measured to be roughly 1 to 3 Ω including electrical connections to the instrument.

Output gas and liquid analysis. All the gas supply flow rates (CO₂, Ar, C₂H₄ and CH₄) were precisely controlled by MFCs (Alicat Scientific) with different ranges. For example, our 20-sccm inlet CO₂ was controlled by a 50-sccm range MFC. On the basis of the MFC product information, it had an accuracy of ±0.8% of reading + 0.2% of full scale, which gave us a small error range of ±0.26 sccm when supplying a 20 sccm CO₂ stream (roughly 1% error). Cathode-side downstream gas was mixed with 200 sccm of Ar carrier gas and 5 sccm of internal standard gas, which was CH₄ for copper testing and C₂H₄ for all other tests. This mixture was then fed to the GC (SRI 8010C) where a flame ionization detector with methanizer was used for CO₂ quantity analysis and a thermal conductivity detector was used for O₂ quantity analysis. The output signal contained CO₂ and an internal standard gas peak that were integrated for their areas. The ratio between these two areas gave the actual downstream CO₂ flow rate using the following equations:

$$R_{C_2H_4 \text{ or } CH_4} = \frac{(\text{CO}_2 \text{ peak area})}{(C_2H_4 \text{ or } CH_4 \text{ peak area})}, \quad (1)$$

$$M = 12.858705 (C_2H_4), 6.3941 (CH_4), b = 1.701189 (C_2H_4), -0.151 (CH_4) \quad (2)$$

where $R_{C_2H_4 \text{ or } CH_4}$ is the ratio between CO₂ peak area and the internal gas used, M is the slope of the calibration line and b is the intercept of the calibration line. As shown above, depending on the internal gas used, the calibration values are different (Supplementary Fig. 6). This downstream CO₂ flow rate measurement method was compared with the measurement done by directly placing a MFC on the outlet. For most of the cell current range, GC measurement is more sensitive to CO₂ 'lost' and more reliable than MFC measurement during the process comparatively (Supplementary Fig. 5).

For CO₂RR gas product analysis, we directly flowed the downstream gas, without mixing with carrier gas or internal standard gas, into the GC

(Shimadzu GC 2014). The partial current of the measured gas product is calculated by following equation:

$$j_i = x_i \times v \times \frac{n_i F p^0}{RT} \times A^{-1} \quad (3)$$

where x_i is the volume fraction of the product determined by online GC referenced to calibration curves from the standard gas sample, v is the flow rate of 20 sccm, n_i is the number of electrons involved, $p^0 = 101.3$ kPa, F is the Faradaic constant, $T = 298$ K and R is the gas constant. FE is then calculated using equation (4):

$$FE = \frac{j_i}{j_{\text{overall}}} \times 100\% \quad (4)$$

Since the downstream gas flow rate on the cathode side is changed due to the CO₂ gas conversion or crossover, selectivity of H₂ and CO in Ag NW, Ag NP and Ni-SAC we obtained from the GC (calculated under the assumption that total flow rate of downstream gas is still 20 sccm) was later normalized to 100% after carefully confirming the absence of other gas or liquid products. In the case of the CuNPs where multiple CO₂RR products were cogenerated, the selectivity was tested with increased input CO₂ flow rate to minimize the error arising from flow rate discrepancy in the GC instead of normalization.

One-dimensional ¹H nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectra measured using a Bruker AVIII 500 MHz NMR spectrometer was used to quantify the liquid product from the commercial CuNPs and 2D-Bi catalyst test. For the NMR test, 500 μl of the middle-layer output liquid was mixed with 100 μl of D₂O (Sigma-Aldrich, 99.9 at%D) and 0.05 μl of dimethyl sulfoxide (Sigma-Aldrich, 99.9 at%D) as the internal standard.

CO₂ saturated 0.05 M H₂SO₄ was used as the solvent during the water displacement measurement to measure the CO₂ bubble flow rate in the heterogenous middle-layer downstream flow. Acid was used because CO₂ gas has lower solubility in acidic solutions, and it was also presaturated with CO₂ to minimize gas dissolution during the bubble flow rate measuring process. This water displacement showed high measurement accuracy (Supplementary Fig. 9). The dissolved CO₂ in the liquid was measured using a titration method (Supplementary Fig. 7).

The middle-layer output stream containing dissolved CO₂ was collected directly in 200–500 μl of 1 M NaOH (volume of NaOH is changed to ensure the pH of the collected solution would be greater than ten). By collecting them into the alkaline solution, the loss of dissolved CO₂ to air was minimized and a full range of titrations could be conducted. Then 5 ml of this liquid was titrated using 0.1 M HCl and a pH meter (Orion Star A111). By recording and graphing the titration data, we can find amount of HCl liquid required to go from one equivalence point to the other. This determines how many moles of carbonate species exist inside the liquid samples and we can plug this value into equation (5) to retrieve the CO₂ flow rate equivalent of dissolved carbon concentration.

$$Q = \frac{\Delta V \times c \times 24.4 \frac{\text{l}}{\text{mol}}}{v} \times q \quad (5)$$

where Q is the CO₂ flow rate equivalent of dissolved carbon concentration, ΔV is the volume of HCl liquid used to change the titrant's pH from its first equivalence point to the next during titration, c is the concentration of the HCl solution used, v is the volume of the sample titrated and q is the flow rate of the collected liquid output.

For the CO₂ recycle and continuous conversion efficiency investigation, the CO₂ gas flow rate was measured using a CO₂ meter. The outlet of the cathode stream was diluted with 100 sccm of argon and was fed into the CO₂ meter for accurate concentration reading. The inlet flow and outlet during operation was measured to get the difference in the CO₂ flow rate. Also, CO₂ converted measurement was calculated using FE for CO.

Continuous conversion efficiency is defined as amount inlet CO₂ that is continuously converted to the desired product. The FE information from the GC was used to calculate this value following the equation below:

$$\text{Continuous conversion efficiency} = \frac{i_{\text{CO}}}{n_{\text{CO}} \times F \times \text{inlet gas flow rate (sccm)}} \times \frac{60 \text{ s}}{1 \text{ min}} \times 24,400 \frac{\text{cm}^3}{\text{mol}} \quad (6)$$

where i_{CO} is partial current of CO and n_{CO} is the electron transfer number for CO₂ reduction to CO.

Data availability

Source data for the stability test shown in Fig. 6c are provided with this paper. All other data supporting this work are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

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Author contributions

H.W. supervised the project. J.Y.T.K., P.Z. and H.W. designed the research. J.Y.T.K. and P.Z. performed the research. F.-Y.C., Z.-Y.W. and D.A.C. contributed new reagents/analytical tools. J.Y.T.K., P.Z., F.-Y.C., Z.-Y.W., D.A.C. and H.W. analysed the data. J.Y.T.K., P.Z. and H.W. wrote the paper.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Additional information

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Correspondence and requests for materials should be addressed to Haotian Wang.

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