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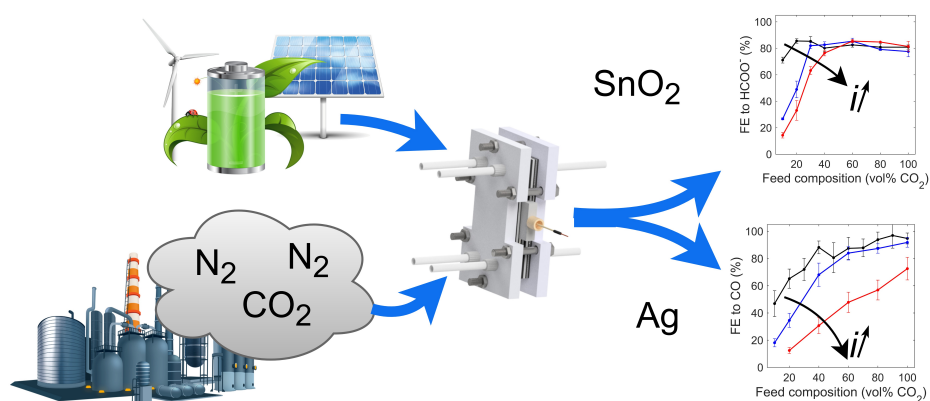
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# Graphical Abstract

## Influence of the target product on the electrochemical reduction of diluted $\text{CO}_2$ in a continuous flow cell

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## Highlights

### **Influence of the target product on the electrochemical reduction of diluted CO<sub>2</sub> in a continuous flow cell**

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- The importance of the target product and effect on the OH<sup>-</sup> balance is demonstrated
- >70% Faradaic efficiency to formate for 10% CO<sub>2</sub> feed streams at 100 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>
- Production of formate on SnO<sub>2</sub> is less sensitive than CO on Ag for diluted CO<sub>2</sub> feeds

# Influence of the target product on the electrochemical reduction of diluted CO<sub>2</sub> in a continuous flow cell

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## Abstract

To date, research on CO<sub>2</sub> reduction is almost exclusively performed with pure CO<sub>2</sub> while exhaust streams often contain low concentrations of CO<sub>2</sub>. Direct usage of flue gases avoids the energy intensive CO<sub>2</sub> capture step before utilization. This study compares the production of CO and formate on Ag and SnO<sub>2</sub> catalysts respectively in order to find the most suitable target product for N<sub>2</sub>-diluted feed streams. Initial product selectivity screening for different CO<sub>2</sub> feed stream compositions was performed at 100 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>. Excessive hydrogen evolution emerged below 40% CO<sub>2</sub> for the silver catalyst while SnO<sub>2</sub> maintained a Faradaic efficiency to formate >70% even at 10% CO<sub>2</sub>. Both catalysts were further tested at current densities up to 300 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> and show a shift of hydrogen evolution onset to more concentrated CO<sub>2</sub> streams. These results indicate that formate production is more suitable when utilizing N<sub>2</sub>-diluted CO<sub>2</sub> feed streams compared to CO production.

*Keywords:* Electrochemistry, CO<sub>2</sub> reduction, diluted feed, flow cell, formate, CO

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## 1. Introduction

Climate change and global warming are some of the biggest problems our society faces today. Carbon dioxide ( $\text{CO}_2$ ) is known as a substantial contributor to this issue, which surpassed the 400 ppm atmospheric concentration threshold in 2016. Current models even predict concentrations around 550 ppm by 2050 [1]. Different carbon capture technologies help to remove  $\text{CO}_2$  from air (Direct air capture) or avoid emissions by treating flue gases with  $\text{CO}_2$ -absorbing amines like monoethanolamine [2]. Captured  $\text{CO}_2$  can be used with appropriate catalysts for the conversion toward a variety of products like carbon monoxide (CO), formic acid/formate, ethylene, methane, methanol or ethanol [3–7]. Especially the electrochemical  $\text{CO}_2$  conversion to formate ( $\text{HCOO}^-$ ) or CO has gained lots of interests because it requires only two electrons per product [8–10].

CO and  $\text{HCOO}^-$  production are going toward large-scale industrialization knowing that pilot plants have been built that perform trial runs with a capacity up to 500 kg  $\text{CO}_2$ /day [11]. Long term stability of  $\text{CO}_2$  electrolyzers have also been demonstrated above 1000 h of operation by Yang and coworkers [12]. Additionally, the relevance of room temperature electrolysis is shown by a perspective from Masel and coworkers [13]. Still, these studies are almost exclusively based on the utilization of pure  $\text{CO}_2$  streams. Those pure  $\text{CO}_2$  sources are based on the future utilization of  $\text{CO}_2$  from energy intensive capture technologies [14, 15]. Therefore, direct  $\text{CO}_2$  usage from flue gas exhaust streams is interesting as it allows to bypass the capture step. These streams have a  $\text{CO}_2$  content typically around 15% but this

varies between 5-35% depending on its source [16–19]. It can even be as low as 3% for natural gas turbine exhaust or as high as 35% for blast furnace gas [20]. Furthermore, flue gases contain impurities such as  $O_2$ ,  $H_2O$ ,  $NO_x$ ,  $SO_x$  and consist of mainly  $N_2$ . Recent studies have investigated the influence of these contaminants: (i) Oxygen is prone to reduction at the cathode causing electron consumption, but adding hydrophilic nanopores with  $TiO_2$  on Cu catalysts helps to maintain good selectivity [15]. (ii) Water is needed for the  $CO_2$  reduction reaction and is considered to have very little effect on the performance. However, overabundance of  $H_2O$  can cause flooding of the gas diffusion electrode and limit  $CO_2$  transport [21]. (iii) Nitrogen oxides (of which  $NO$  is the most abundant) then again have a negligible effect at low concentrations and result in a loss of Faradaic efficiency that is less than 5% at 830 ppm on Cu, Ag or Sn catalysts [22]. (iv)  $SO_2$  has the ability to induce a selectivity change from  $C_{2+}$  chemicals to  $HCOO^-$  on Cu catalysts which is even detectable for concentrations as low as 100 ppm [23]. Nevertheless, Ag and Sn-based catalysts show no loss in Faradaic efficiencies at low 100 ppm concentrations [23]. The above mentioned studies indicate negligible effects or suggest solutions for impurity concentrations similar to those found in flue gases. However, the impact of diluted  $CO_2$  streams originating from flue gases remains partially unanswered.

Previous reports with  $N_2$ -diluted feed streams are mostly performed at low current densities ( $<100\text{ mA/cm}^2$ ) in small flow-cells ( $<5\text{ cm}^2$ ) or H-cells and exclusively based on the production of either  $CO$  or  $HCOO^-$  [24–28]. Only Kim D. and coworkers have reported  $>100\text{ mA/cm}^2$  toward  $CO$  in a

zero gap membrane electrode assembly. These zero gap electrolyzers operate without a supporting catholyte and offer great prospective to stack multiple cells but seem to need periodical water flushing to remove salts during operation [29]. Even without stacking, this configuration has downsides because of salt precipitation and needs direct-water injection as shown in our previous work [30]. The comparison of CO and  $\text{HCOO}^-$  production for diluted feed streams has - to the best of our knowledge - not been reported to date. It is important to design processes and reactors based on the intended feed stream and target product [31]. This work shows CO and  $\text{HCOO}^-$  production are not similarly compatible with diluted  $\text{CO}_2$  feed streams. Both products require a two electron transfer such that galvanostatic analysis and comparison may yield important information to identify the most suitable target product for direct usage of  $\text{N}_2$ -diluted feed streams. The authors hope to increase interest in studies with low  $\text{CO}_2$  feed concentrations with this manuscript as direct usage of flue gas streams can be immensely interesting from an economical perspective. The energy demand for carbon capture with monoethanolamine is approximately 3.7 GJ/ton  $\text{CO}_2$  [32]. Omitting this costly carbon capture step may be the solution to make the technology more economically viable. This work compares the performance of commercial Ag and  $\text{SnO}_2$  catalysts in a flow-by electrolyzer at industrially relevant current densities ( $>100 \text{ mA/cm}^2$ ) to study the influence of different  $\text{CO}_2$  feed concentrations and reveal the most suitable target product.

### *1.1. Theoretical considerations*

One of the major breakthroughs in  $\text{CO}_2$  electrolyzer research was the transition from liquid-phase  $\text{CO}_2$  electrolysis in batch cells to reactors with

gas diffusion electrodes (GDEs) [33]. The performance of liquid-phase  $\text{CO}_2$  electrolysis is limited due to the low solubility of  $\text{CO}_2$  in water ( $\approx 30$  mM) and slow diffusion of aqueous  $\text{CO}_2$  which translates to a limiting current density of  $\approx 60$  mA/cm<sup>2</sup> according to a semi-infinite diffusion model [34]. The use of a GDE overcomes these limitations by supplying gaseous  $\text{CO}_2$  to the electrode and allows electrolyzers to reach current densities above 100 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> [35]. Most GDEs consist of a carbon fibre support (CFS), microporous layer (MPL) and catalyst layer (CL) which is also schematically shown in Figure 1 [36]. For the Sigracet 39BB gas diffusion media, which is used in this study, the thicknesses of the CFS and MPL are 300  $\mu\text{m}$  and 25  $\mu\text{m}$  respectively [37].

Figure 1 illustrates the  $\text{CO}_2$  reduction dynamics for CO and  $\text{HCOO}^-$  production and schematically shows the side reactions that occur.  $\text{CO}_2$  enters the gas chamber where it diffuses through the CFS, MPL and eventually reaches the CL. Since the CL is in direct contact with the catholyte, its pores can either be dry, flooded or partially wetted. Dry pores are considered inactive due to lack of aqueous electrolyte and flooded pores result in high mass-transport resistances. Partially wetted pores with a thin liquid film maintain good ionic conductivity in the CL while minimizing  $\text{CO}_2$  transport resistance which is desirable [38]. When the feed stream becomes more diluted, the driving force for gas phase diffusion (i.e.  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration or partial  $\text{CO}_2$  pressure) decreases and molecules experience hindrance due to the presence of inert  $\text{N}_2$  that limits transport of reactants toward the electrode surface. Since this work only comprises catalysts that produce mainly CO or  $\text{HCOO}^-$ , the focus lies on the main and side reactions originating from

those products.

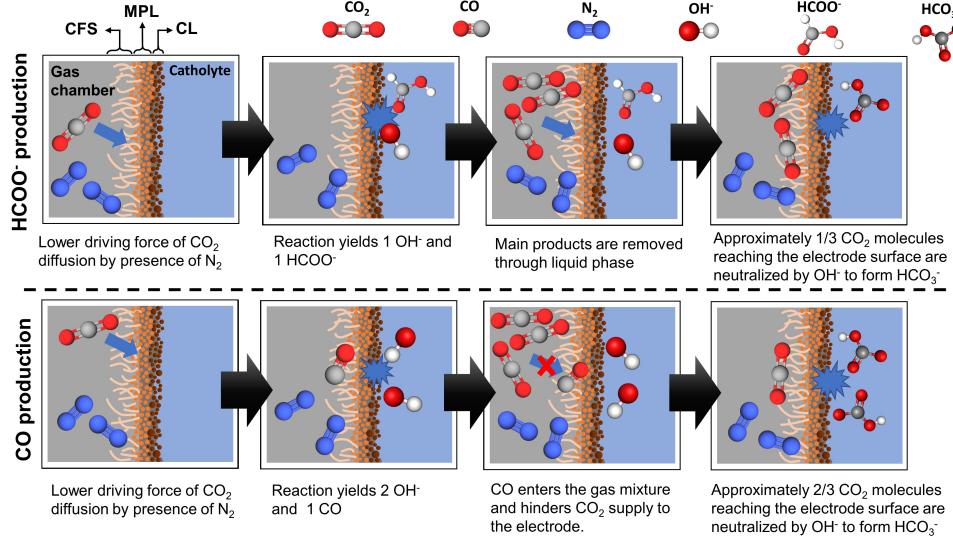
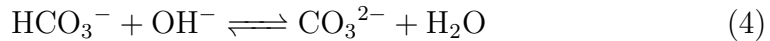
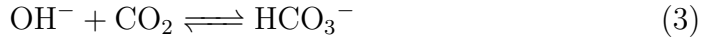
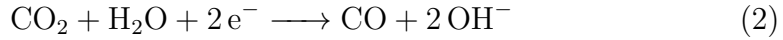


Figure 1: Reaction dynamics at the electrode interface for the electrochemical production of  $\text{HCOO}^-$  and  $\text{CO}$  from  $\text{CO}_2$ . It is important to note that  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  can potentially react with  $\text{OH}^-$  to form  $\text{CO}_3^{2-}$  without consuming additional  $\text{CO}_2$ , especially at a  $\text{pH} > 10.2$ .

The production of  $\text{HCOO}^-$  (Eq. 1) is accompanied by the formation of one  $\text{OH}^-$  ion compared to two for  $\text{CO}$  production (Eq. 2). High selectivity toward  $\text{CO}$  will result in higher local pH values as opposed to  $\text{HCOO}^-$  production. These locally generated hydroxides come in contact with  $\text{CO}_2$  which results in the unwanted side reaction toward  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  (Eq. 3) and inevitably consumes  $\text{CO}_2$  at the electrode interface. An additional reaction toward  $\text{CO}_3^{2-}$  (Eq. 4) is then possible and takes over the equilibrium starting from  $\text{pH} = 10.2$ . A full screening of the  $\text{CO}_2/\text{HCO}_3^-/\text{CO}_3^{2-}$  presence according to their equilibrium reactions for different pH values can be found in the supplementary information (A). The bulk pH value before and after  $\text{CO}_2$

reduction remains unchanged as suggested by models and the latter was validated experimentally by measuring the pH of liquid samples [38]. However, when examining the pH value in close proximity to the electrode, models show a local pH around 11 while this bulk pH remains neutral [38, 39]. The  $\text{OH}^-$  balance for both products at the electrode surface is therefore important to consider as it suggests superior  $\text{HCOO}^-$  production compared to CO for diluted feed streams. Furthermore, the  $\text{HCOO}^-$  production pathway shows that a  $\text{CO}_2$  molecule is removed from gas to liquid phase and makes sites available for  $\text{CO}_2$  supply.  $\text{CO}_2$  to CO conversion results in gaseous products, these products need to diffuse away from the CL to the gas chamber, resulting in interference with  $\text{CO}_2$  supply from the gas chamber to the CL.



Another important electrochemical reaction is the parasitic hydrogen evolution reaction (Eq. 5). Chronopotentiometry experiments force electrons through the electrochemical cell even when  $\text{CO}_2$  is depleted at the electrode resulting in hydrogen evolution. This reaction further supports the pH increase as it introduces one mole of  $\text{OH}^-$  per electron. The combination of

these effects agree with the increased tolerance for lower CO<sub>2</sub> feed stream fractions of SnO<sub>2</sub> compared to Ag since less OH<sup>-</sup> ions are formed when producing HCOO<sup>-</sup>. Especially at higher current densities, precipitation of salts due to these side reaction were observed by crystals on the carbon paper after an extended operation (Microscopic images in supplementary information B) and are in agreement with other literature reports [40]. An additional advantage of producing aqueous HCOO<sup>-</sup> compared to gaseous CO from diluted CO<sub>2</sub> is the straight-forward separation of the reaction product from the remaining N<sub>2</sub>-diluted CO<sub>2</sub> stream. CO needs additional costly separation steps to exclude mainly N<sub>2</sub> and unreacted CO<sub>2</sub> from the product stream.



According to these reactions, the main product selectivity of a given catalyst affects the amount of OH<sup>-</sup> formation and subsequently the consumption of CO<sub>2</sub> at the electrode. HCOO<sup>-</sup> production is accompanied by only one mole of OH<sup>-</sup> formation rather than two for CO production and hydrogen evolution. These considerations are crucial to understand and explain the results gathered in this work.

### *1.2. Situation of this work in literature*

An overview of various literature reports with diluted feed streams at 30% CO<sub>2</sub> or lower that produce CO or HCOO<sup>-</sup> are given in the supplementary information (C) [24–28, 41]. The partial current densities to HCOO<sup>-</sup> at 10-30% CO<sub>2</sub> in this work are - to the best of our knowledge - the highest values reported to date. For CO production, the zero gap membrane electrode assembly is the only report showing higher partial current densities

[41]. In the zero gap reactor, CO<sub>2</sub> gas is forced through the GDE by convection enhancing mass transfer compared to a flow-by electrolyzer where mass transfer is mainly governed by diffusion. Kim D. and coworkers suggest the most detrimental factor for Ag catalysts in a zero gap assembly is the water crossover rate through the membrane which results in hydrogen evolution at the cathode and were able to increase FE<sub>CO</sub> from 37% to 69% by optimization. However, the flow-by reactor in this work does not experience problems with water management [29, 30]. Recently, the first reports with diluted (5% and 15%) CO<sub>2</sub> streams for the photoelectrochemical CO<sub>2</sub> reduction to CO start to emerge but at current densities <20 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> [42]. Some studies also investigated the influence of different CO<sub>2</sub> feed concentrations on copper based catalysts [15, 43–46]. A better C-C coupling at moderate CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations can increase Faradaic efficiencies toward C<sub>2+</sub> products. The number of publications that do not utilize pure CO<sub>2</sub> streams to date is extremely low but seems to be in an increasing trend since most of these studies are published in or after 2020.

## 2. Materials and methods

**Solutions** were prepared by dissolving potassium bicarbonate (>99.5%, Chem-Lab, Belgium) or potassium hydroxide (>85%, Chem-Lab, Belgium) in ultrapure water (Milli-Q, resistivity 18.2 MΩ·cm, Millipore, USA).

**Catalyst inks** were obtained by mixing Ag (<100 nm, 99.5%, contains PVP as dispersant, Merck, Belgium) or SnO<sub>2</sub> (<100 nm average particle size, Merck, Belgium) nanopowder with a Nafion dispersion as binder (D520, 5%



w/w in water and 1-propanol, AlfaAesar, Belgium) such that a mass ratio of 7/1 is obtained, respectively, before adding ultrapure water and iso-propanol (99.8%, Chem-lab, Belgium) in a 50/50 volume ratio. Catalyst inks were sonicated (NexTgen Lab120) for 30 minutes using a 6 mm titanium probe at 34 kHz and an 84  $\mu\text{m}$  (60%) amplitude.

**Gas diffusion electrodes** (GDEs) with an active geometrical surface area of 10  $\text{cm}^2$  were made each time by spray coating the ink upon the microporous layer of a Sigracet GDL 39 BB carbon paper (Ion Power, Germany) using a Fengda FE-180K airbrush equipped with 0.2 mm nozzle utilizing argon (99.999%, Air Liquide, Belgium) as carrier gas whilst fixated on a hot plate at 80 °C. The GDE has been weighed before and after spray coating to make sure a loading of 2  $\text{mg}/\text{cm}^2$  was reached.

The **electrochemical reactor** used is a 3-electrode flow-by system at ambient conditions as described in previous work [47]. In short, the cathode consists of a titanium frame holding the GDE with a Ag/AgCl reference electrode inserted in the catholyte spaced 1 mm from the GDE catalyst layer. The anode consists of a platinized titanium electrode and both compartments are separated by a pretreated Nafion 117 (Ion Power, Germany) proton exchange membrane. The pretreatment consists of subsequently boiling the membrane in (i) 3%  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ , (ii) distilled water, (iii) 1 M  $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$  and (iv) distilled water for 1 hour each and eventually stored at 4 °C until use. Figure 2 illustrates the setup for this study.  $\text{CO}_2$  (99.998%, Air Liquide, Belgium) and  $\text{N}_2$  (99.998%, Air Liquide, Belgium) were controlled with Brooks GF-40 mass

flow controllers (MFC) to feed different stream compositions with a total flow rate of 300 mL/min to the reactor after sparging through water to humidify the gaseous stream. 0.5 M  $\text{KHCO}_3$  (catholyte) and 1 M KOH (anolyte) were pumped through the cell at 5 mL/min with peristaltic pumps in single-pass mode to ensure constant conditions and avoid conductivity change due to salt formation in the catholyte during operation which can be observed in various literature reports [30, 48]. Chronopotentiometry was carried out at current densities ranging from 100 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> to 300 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> with an Autolab PG-STAT302N potentiostat (Metrohm, Belgium) connected to a 10 A booster. Each measurement lasted 30 minutes and - unless noted otherwise - GDEs were not used longer than a total operation time of two hours. The stability of the catalyst was checked afterwards by an additional measurement with pure  $\text{CO}_2$  to ensure that the change in Faradaic efficiency was indeed due to dilution with  $\text{N}_2$ .

**Sample analyses** of gaseous products were performed with an in-line gas chromatograph (Shimadzu 2014, Japan) utilizing a Restek Shincarbon ST column (1 mm internal diameter, 2 m length, mesh 100/120) with a constant flow rate of 10 mL/min helium (99.999%, Air Liquide, Belgium) as carrier gas. Product analysis started at 40 °C for 3 minutes whereafter the column temperature was increased linearly at 40 °C/min until 250 °C. The thermal conductivity detector was kept at 280 °C. Gas flow rates were determined after sampling with an electronic flow meter (ProFLOW 6000, Restek) for Faradaic efficiency calculation.  $\text{HCOO}^-$  concentration was determined every experiment with an Alliance 2695 HPLC employing an IC-pak



according to Eq. 6 for gaseous products (CO and H<sub>2</sub>) or Eq. 7 for HCOO<sup>-</sup>:

$$FE_i = \frac{\phi_i \cdot Q \cdot p \cdot z_i \cdot F}{I \cdot R \cdot T} \quad (6)$$

$$FE_{\text{HCOO}^-} = \frac{c_{\text{HCOO}^-} \cdot Q \cdot F \cdot z_{\text{HCOO}^-}}{I \cdot M_{\text{HCOO}^-}} \quad (7)$$

With  $i$  any gaseous product formed,  $\phi$  [%] the volume fraction of  $i$  determined from GC analysis,  $Q$  [L/s] the total volumetric gas or liquid flow rate exiting the reactor,  $p$  [atm] the pressure,  $z_i$  the amount of electrons transferred for the reaction toward product  $i$ ,  $I$  [A] the current,  $R$  [L atm K<sup>-1</sup> mol<sup>-1</sup>] the gas constant,  $F$  [C/mol] Faraday's constant,  $T$  [K] the temperature,  $c_{\text{HCOO}^-}$  [g/L] the HCOO<sup>-</sup> concentration in the reactor outflow determined from HPLC analysis. CO, HCOO<sup>-</sup> and H<sub>2</sub> were the only reaction products detected. The average sum of Faradaic efficiencies over all measurements used in this study was 101.24±2.65% indicating accurate product analysis.

### 3. Results and discussion

Most literature reports with diluted streams apply a given potential and report their measured current densities [24, 41, 45]. In this way, higher Faradaic efficiencies can be obtained since lower current densities are achieved at limited CO<sub>2</sub> feed compositions in order to suppress the hydrogen evolution reaction. In this work, experiments are performed by applying a fixed current density (i.e. chronopotentiometry) in order to determine when a given reaction rate cannot be sustained by excessive feed dilution.

### 3.1. Screening of product selectivity for different CO<sub>2</sub> feed compositions

Initial screening of product selectivity was carried out at a constant current density of 100 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>. Since commercial Ag nanoparticles are considered to be stable at this current density (see supplementary information D), measurements were done by stepwise altering the CO<sub>2</sub> feed composition every 20 minutes. The experiments were repeated four times to check reproducibility. Faradaic efficiencies (Fig. 3) of the products above 60% CO<sub>2</sub> are similar as literature reports using 100% CO<sub>2</sub> streams with Ag nanoparticles [49]. The Faradaic efficiency remains high (FE<sub>CO</sub> >80%) for CO<sub>2</sub> streams with a feed composition of at least 40% CO<sub>2</sub>. Below this value, it is clear that electrons are consumed by the competitive hydrogen evolution reaction instead of the CO<sub>2</sub> reduction reaction. Although the FE<sub>CO</sub> decreases toward lower CO<sub>2</sub> feed compositions, it remains reasonable (FE<sub>CO</sub>=65%) at 20% CO<sub>2</sub> while the CO/H<sub>2</sub> ratio at 10% CO<sub>2</sub>, being 1.23, comes close to the industrial ratio of syngas [50]. At this low feed composition of 10% CO<sub>2</sub>, the required potential (-2.71 V vs Ag/AgCl) is more negative than measurements with pure CO<sub>2</sub> streams (-2.53 V vs Ag/AgCl). This can be explained by looking at the required energy for each reaction. CO production (20.26 kJ/mol) is energetically more favorable on Ag, but hydrogen evolution (45.06 kJ/mol) is forced to occur when CO<sub>2</sub> becomes depleted at the electrode such that more energy is needed [41].

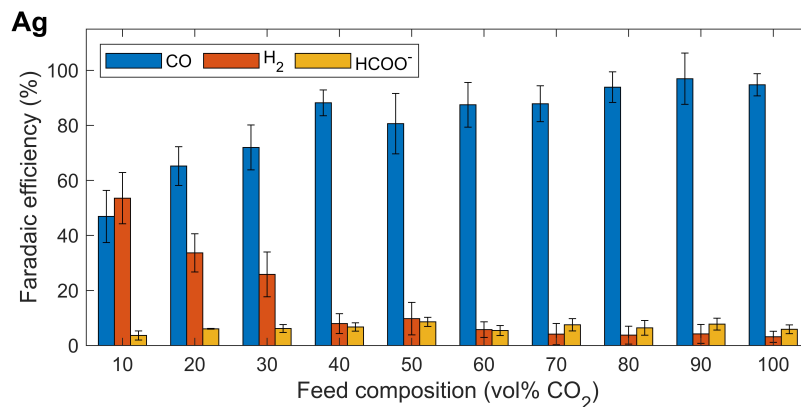


Figure 3: Product selectivities for different CO<sub>2</sub> compositions using Ag as catalyst at 100 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>.

Selectivity screening of SnO<sub>2</sub> (Fig. 4) was performed as described in the experimental section. The selectivity at 100% CO<sub>2</sub> is similar to reports with pure CO<sub>2</sub> streams on Sn-based catalysts [51]. Surprisingly, SnO<sub>2</sub> is remarkably less sensitive to variations in the feed stream maintaining an FE<sub>HCOO<sup>-</sup></sub> above 70% over the entire feed composition range which can be explained by the OH<sup>-</sup> balance (see section 3.2). The Faradaic efficiency toward H<sub>2</sub> was less than 3% for all feed compositions except at 10% CO<sub>2</sub>, where it was FE<sub>H<sub>2</sub></sub>=25%. The potential difference between 10% CO<sub>2</sub> (-2.41 V vs Ag/AgCl) and 100% CO<sub>2</sub> (-2.24 V vs Ag/AgCl) is similar compared to Ag nanoparticles. The decreased performance at 10% CO<sub>2</sub> for both catalysts is not a result of insufficient global CO<sub>2</sub> supply since there is still 30 mL/min of CO<sub>2</sub> while any flow rate above 21 mL/min is sufficient for the reactions at 100 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> (see supplementary information E for calculation details). Nevertheless, at a 10% CO<sub>2</sub> feed, the amount of reactant introduced is 10x lower than with pure CO<sub>2</sub> streams which alters the concentration gradient.

Accordingly, local  $\text{CO}_2$  supply at the electrode can certainly still be the limiting factor. To this end, we performed additional experiments to investigate the sensitivity of feed flow rate on the selectivity (supplementary information F). The  $\text{FE}_{\text{CO}}$  difference when changing the total flow rate from 200 mL/min to 400 mL/min is 9.36% at most which translates to a change of 0.047% per mL/min. These results indicate limited influence on electrolyzer performance when changing the total gas flow rate.

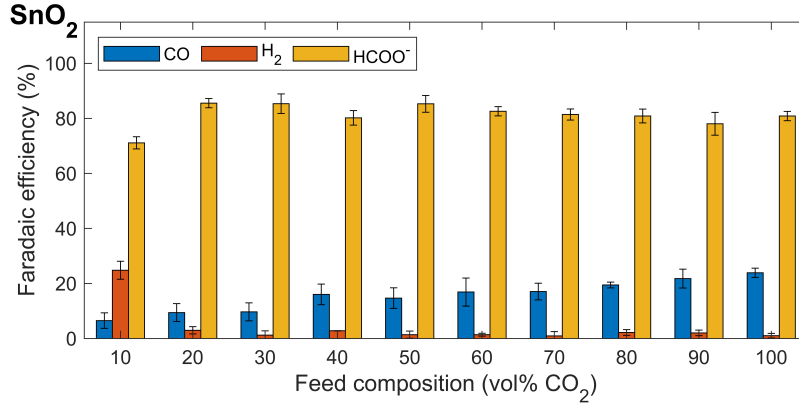


Figure 4: Product selectivities for different  $\text{CO}_2$  feed compositions using  $\text{SnO}_2$  as catalyst at 100  $\text{mA}/\text{cm}^2$ .

### 3.2. The effect of current density for different $\text{CO}_2$ feed compositions

Given high current densities toward  $\text{CO}_2$  reduction products are more desirable for industrial application, these commercial catalysts are tested at current densities up to 300  $\text{mA}/\text{cm}^2$  [13]. With higher current densities, the cell potential increases which reduces the GDE hydrophobicity due to the electrowetting effect [52]. Consequently, catholyte flow penetrating through

the GDE (perspiration) is strengthened [53]. This can lead to flooding of the GDE where CO<sub>2</sub> diffusion pathways are filled with catholyte, blocking mass transport toward the catalyst layer where the CO<sub>2</sub> reduction reaction occurs. However, at the used experimental conditions, the contact angle analysis before and after an extended operation showed a negligible 4° decrease in water contact angle (supplementary information G). From this result, it is clear that there was no significant permanent change in hydrophobicity.

Figs. 5 A-C show the Faradaic efficiencies of Ag at 100, 200 and 300 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> for different CO<sub>2</sub> feed compositions. The commercial Ag catalyst achieves a high selectivity (>90%) for pure CO<sub>2</sub> feed streams when increasing the current density to 200 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> but only achieves a 73% FE<sub>CO</sub> at 300 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> (Fig. 5 A). As there is no N<sub>2</sub> introduced, this lower performance must be the result of another effect such as flooding, salt precipitation or local CO<sub>2</sub> depletion that causes hydrogen evolution to arise due to lack of surface-adsorbed CO<sub>2</sub> on the active catalytic sites [53–56]. The higher potential for the Ag GDE at 300 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> (-3.4 vs Ag/AgCl) compared to SnO<sub>2</sub> (-3.0 vs Ag/AgCl) may indicate increased temporary electrowetting compared to lower current densities that can induce flooding. Early signs of flooding were observed toward the end of the 30 minutes measurements at 300 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> with Ag and SnO<sub>2</sub> by small droplets coming out of the gas effluent. A measurement was extended to 90 minutes to evidence possible salt formation during longer operating times (supplementary information B). Nonetheless, both catalysts actually showed similar perspiration phenomena, no salt formation after short measurements and SnO<sub>2</sub> was able to maintain its original prod-



uct selectivity (Fig. 5E), therefore the most dominant cause to the change in selectivity for a Ag GDE with pure CO<sub>2</sub> streams is attributed to local depletion of CO<sub>2</sub> at the electrode. This reasoning is in agreement with the loss in Faradaic efficiency to CO which is proportional to the fraction of N<sub>2</sub> introduced in the feed stream. Catalyst deactivation was excluded through an additional measurement with pure CO<sub>2</sub> as noted in the experimental section. This proportional relationship between CO<sub>2</sub>% and Faradaic efficiency to C-products below a specific onset feed composition depends on current density and catalyst type. Only Ag at 300 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> does not show this onset point as CO<sub>2</sub> availability is even at a 100% CO<sub>2</sub> composition not sufficient. It shows the trend already starts at 100% CO<sub>2</sub> and decreases proportional to composition hence less reactant is fed to the reactor. Faradaic efficiency curves at 100 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> and 200 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> for the same catalyst follow similar trends but the onset of hydrogen evolution shifts from 40% to 60% CO<sub>2</sub> for Ag (Fig. 5C) and from 20% to 30% CO<sub>2</sub> (Fig. 5F) when increasing the current density from 100 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> to 200 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>. This is reasonable as CO<sub>2</sub> is consumed faster at higher current densities and consequently mass transfer problems already occur at higher CO<sub>2</sub> feed compositions.

Fig. 5 D-F presents the Faradaic efficiencies of SnO<sub>2</sub> at 100, 200 and 300 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> for different CO<sub>2</sub> feed compositions. The catalyst preserves a FE<sub>HCOO<sup>-</sup></sub> >75% to all applied current densities for CO<sub>2</sub> feed composition Above 40% (Fig. 5E). Below 40%, the Faradaic efficiencies toward HCOO<sup>-</sup> show a clear onset of CO<sub>2</sub> shortage for each applied current density accompanied by the rise in selectivity toward H<sub>2</sub> (Fig. 5F). This increment in onset

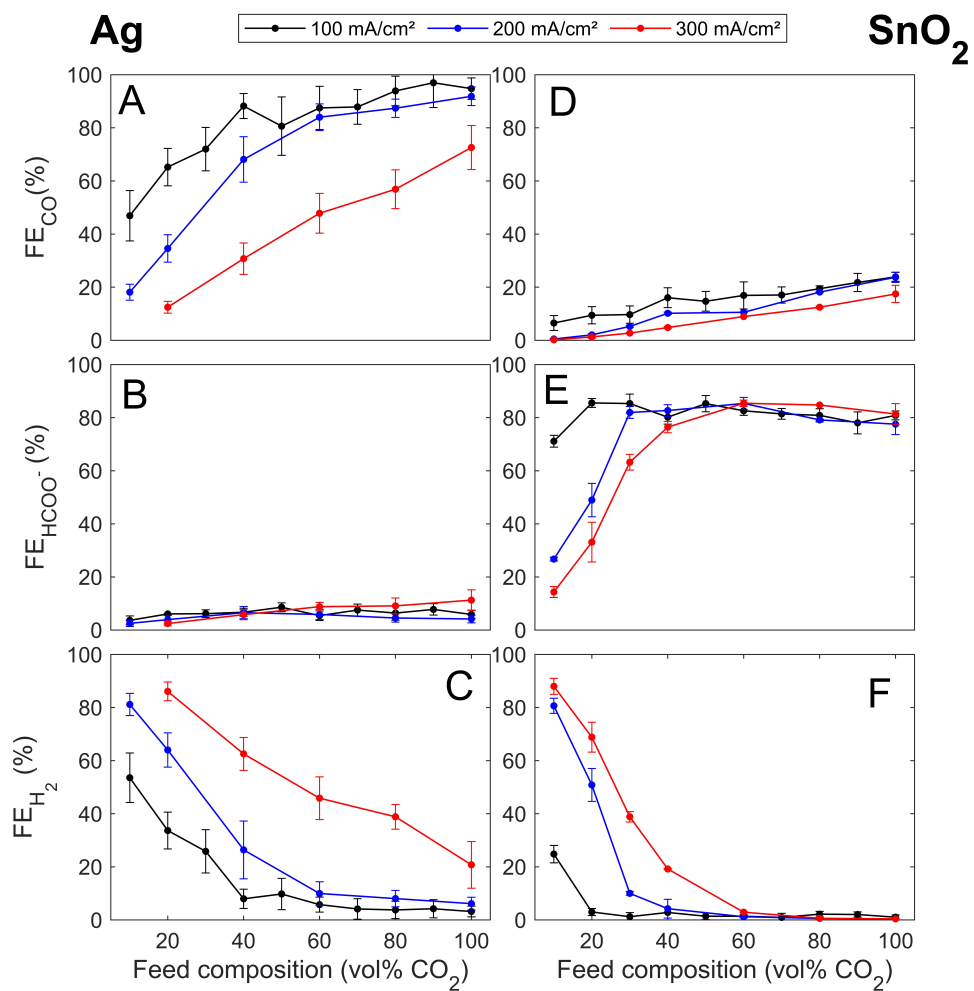


Figure 5: Comparison of Faradaic efficiencies between Ag (A-C) and SnO<sub>2</sub> (D-F) for different products at various CO<sub>2</sub> feed compositions and current densities.

CO<sub>2</sub> feed compositions for higher current densities is also observed in the results with Ag although having different magnitudes (Fig. 5C). The difference in magnitude can be explained by investigating the CO<sub>2</sub> reduction reactions (Eq. 1-4 in Section 1.1). From this, it can be seen that the CO<sub>2</sub> reduction toward CO (Eq. 2) produces twice as many OH<sup>-</sup> ions than the reaction toward HCOO<sup>-</sup> (Eq. 1). These OH<sup>-</sup> ions can neutralize CO<sub>2</sub> (Eq. 3) causing lower CO<sub>2</sub> availability for the desired reduction reaction. The reasoning of CO<sub>2</sub> consumption by OH<sup>-</sup> ions agrees with the greater tolerance for low CO<sub>2</sub> feed composition of SnO<sub>2</sub> compared to Ag.

The biggest difference in Faradaic efficiency between two different current densities (e.g. 200 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> vs 300 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>) is located at the onset point of hydrogen evolution for the lower current density (e.g. close to 60% CO<sub>2</sub> on Fig. 5C or 30% CO<sub>2</sub> on Fig. 5F). The biggest gap is not located at 0% or 100% CO<sub>2</sub> because at 0% CO<sub>2</sub>, all current will cause hydrogen evolution due to lack of CO<sub>2</sub> and at 100%, there is the most (usually excess) CO<sub>2</sub> available to facilitate the desired reaction such that similar Faradaic efficiencies are achieved (except for Ag at 300 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> where CO<sub>2</sub> already seems depleted at the electrode). More details on the gap sizes can be found in tabulated data (supplementary information H).

Additionally, to check if the presence of N<sub>2</sub> has any effect on stability, a longer measurement of 4 hours with continuous product monitoring was performed with a 20% CO<sub>2</sub> feed stream for both catalysts. The current density for Ag was kept at 100 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> and for SnO<sub>2</sub> at 200 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> such that

both measurements situate in the region below the onset point of hydrogen evolution. No decay in Faradaic efficiency was observed during the experiment which indicates that a stable performance with  $\text{N}_2$ -diluted feed streams is possible (supplementary information I) .

Fig. 6A-B illustrates the partial current densities toward  $\text{CO}$  and  $\text{HCOO}^-$  respectively. For  $\text{SnO}_2$  (Fig. 6B), Higher applied total current densities result in increased partial current densities toward the desired product for  $>20\%$   $\text{CO}_2$  feed streams. Surprisingly, at  $10\%$   $\text{CO}_2$ , measurements at 200 or 300  $\text{mA}/\text{cm}^2$  show a partial current density toward  $\text{HCOO}^-$  of 53.5 and 43.0  $\text{mA}/\text{cm}^2$  respectively, which is lower than 71.1  $\text{mA}/\text{cm}^2$  at 100  $\text{mA}/\text{cm}^2$ . Since a constant current is applied, hydrogen evolution is forced to occur. These  $\text{H}_2$  molecules (created from the liquid phase) dilute the already diluted incoming stream of  $10\%$   $\text{CO}_2$  even more and have to diffuse through the GDE to be removed with the other gaseous products. However, the diluting effect of  $\text{H}_2$  formation is often neglected in models for  $\text{CO}_2$  because of its limited influence [38]. A second and more dominant mechanism lies within the additional formation of  $\text{OH}^-$  ions during  $\text{CO}_2$  electrolysis that reacts with incoming  $\text{CO}_2$ . For example, Fig. 6B shows that at  $10\%$   $\text{CO}_2$ , increasing the total current density from 100  $\text{mA}/\text{cm}^2$  to 300  $\text{mA}/\text{cm}^2$  lowers the partial current density to  $\text{HCOO}^-$  by 28.1  $\text{mA}/\text{cm}^2$  while the partial current density to  $\text{H}_2$  increases tremendously by 239.2  $\text{mA}/\text{cm}^2$  (see tabulated data in supplementary information H for numerical values). As hydrogen evolution is accompanied by  $\text{OH}^-$  formation, the  $\text{CO}_2$  consumption at the electrode is strengthened at increased current densities worsening  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration

depletion. The effects with Ag (Fig. 6A) are even more worse since the partial current density response at 300 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> below a CO<sub>2</sub> feed composition of 80% drops below the 200 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> response. As there is already a shortage of CO<sub>2</sub> at the electrode when feeding 100% CO<sub>2</sub> at a current density of 300 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>, a significant fraction of electrons already result in hydrogen evolution. Because OH<sup>-</sup> ions are formed due to hydrogen evolution, CO<sub>2</sub> is prone to consumption by the side reaction to HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and less CO<sub>2</sub> is available for conversion to CO. Details on CO<sub>2</sub> conversion values for both catalysts and all current densities can be found in the supplementary information (J). Decreasing the feed composition below 80% CO<sub>2</sub> at 300 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> (Fig. 6A) results in a lower partial current density to CO than at 200 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>. Hence, the increase in current density from 200 to 300 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> has adverse effects on the production of CO for <80% CO<sub>2</sub> feed streams owing to OH<sup>-</sup> formation by hydrogen evolution that is forced to occur due to the increase in total current density.

### 3.3. Relation of feed composition to gas phase mass transport limitation

The system is most prone to mass transport problems at the highest current densities applied (300 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>) for both products. The limiting current density under mass transport limitation is given by Eq.8 [57]:

$$j_{lim} = \frac{z \cdot F \cdot D_{eff}}{\delta} \cdot c^* \quad (8)$$

With  $j_{lim}$  the limiting current density,  $z$  the amount of electrons transferred,  $F$  the Faraday constant,  $D_{eff}$  the effective diffusion coefficient,  $\delta$  the diffusion layer thickness and  $c^*$  the concentration of limiting reactant. For

an ideal gas,  $c^* = p_i/(R \cdot T)$  with  $T$  the temperature,  $R$  the ideal gas constant and  $p_i$  the partial pressure of the limiting reactant being  $\text{CO}_2$  in this case. Since all other parameters but  $p_i$  are negligibly influenced by pressure changes, the  $j_{lim}$  dependency to different partial pressures is given by Eq.9.

$$\frac{dj_{lim}}{dp_i} = \frac{z \cdot F \cdot D_{eff}}{\delta \cdot R \cdot T} \cdot dp_i \quad (9)$$

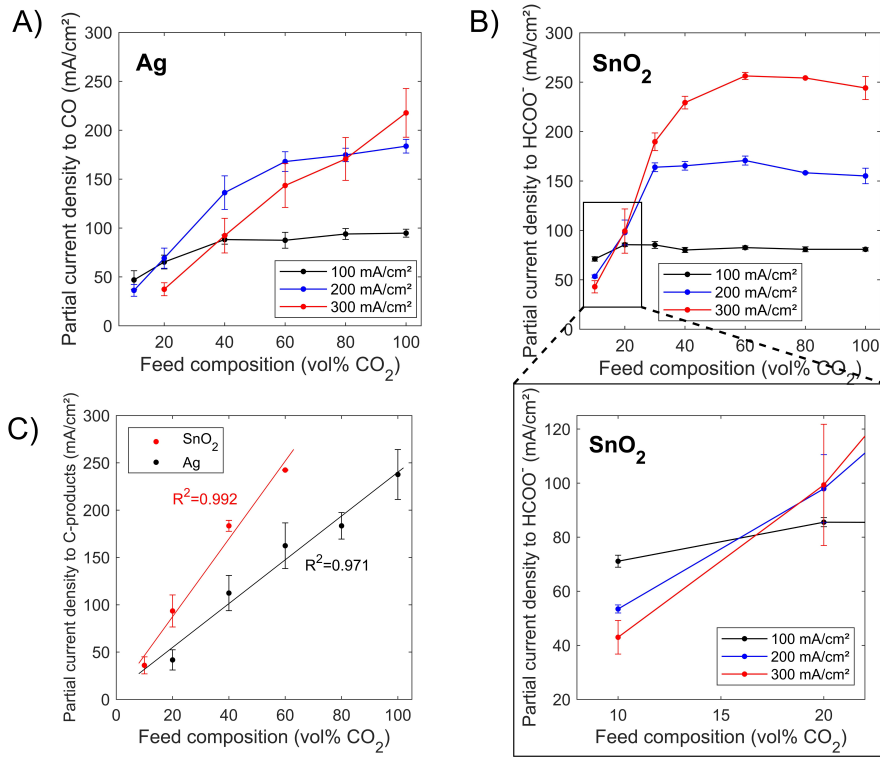


Figure 6: Partial current density toward  $\text{HCOO}^-$  on  $\text{SnO}_2$  (A) or  $\text{CO}$  on Ag (B) nanoparticles for different total current densities. C) Combined partial current densities toward  $\text{CO}$  and  $\text{HCOO}^-$  at 300 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> for a selected feed composition range with a linear fit correlating to mass transport limitation.

This result indicates a linear relationship to partial pressure under  $\text{CO}_2$

mass transport limitation conditions. Note that experiments were conducted at atmospheric pressure such that volume fraction corresponds to partial pressure when applying the ideal gas law (e.g. 20 vol% CO<sub>2</sub> corresponds to 0.2 atm CO<sub>2</sub>). In such a way, the linear relationship (9) is also demonstrated in Fig. 6 C. However, the above equations describe exclusively the electrochemical consumption of CO<sub>2</sub> and do not suggest different magnitudes in the slope for CO and HCOO<sup>-</sup> production as both reactions electrochemically consume equal amounts of CO<sub>2</sub> per electron transfer (Eq. 2, 1). The steeper slope for HCOO<sup>-</sup> production (411 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> /atm) compared to CO (232 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> /atm) is the result of a different OH<sup>-</sup> balance. Both CO production and H<sub>2</sub> evolution (Eq. 5 from Section 1.1) result in equal amounts of OH<sup>-</sup> formation while the shift from HCOO<sup>-</sup> production to H<sub>2</sub> evolution results in more OH<sup>-</sup> formation per electron transfer. This accelerates the CO<sub>2</sub> consumption by HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> formation even more in comparison to CO production and rapidly lowers CO<sub>2</sub> availability at the electrode for any CO<sub>2</sub> reduction reaction. It is noteworthy to mention that the CO<sub>2</sub> feed compositions during this study correspond to the narrow partial pressure range of 0.1-1 atm CO<sub>2</sub>.

#### 4. Conclusion

In summary, we have tested the performance of commercial Ag and SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles with N<sub>2</sub>-diluted CO<sub>2</sub> streams by screening their product selectivities and behavior at higher current densities. Faradaic efficiencies to CO on a Ag catalyst start decreasing significantly at 40% CO<sub>2</sub> feed compositions under galvanostatic conditions (100 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>) but remained reasonable

( $FE_{CO} > 60\%$ ) up to 20%  $CO_2$  streams.  $SnO_2$  mainly produces  $HCOO^-$  and sustained its high selectivity ( $FE_{HCOO^-} > 70\%$ ) over the entire feed composition range. The superior performance of  $SnO_2$  became more clear at higher current densities where the mainly CO producing commercial Ag catalyst suffered significantly more from lower  $CO_2$  feed compositions. The main reason for this difference in sensitivity for lower  $CO_2$  concentrations is postulated to be closely related to the local pH at the electrode surface. The production of CO is accompanied by the formation of two hydroxide ions in contrast to only one  $OH^-$  ion for  $HCOO^-$  production. This suggests more  $CO_2$  neutralization to  $HCO_3^-$  when forming CO. Moreover, for every  $CO_2$  molecule reduced to  $HCOO^-$  there is no gaseous product that needs to diffuse in adverse direction compared to  $CO_2$  transport from the bulk to the electrode thus hindering  $CO_2$  supply. The liquid state of the final product also discards the need for excessive compound separation from the diluted gas stream making  $HCOO^-$  production more suitable with these conditions. For direct utilization of industrial flue gases (5-35%  $CO_2$ ), operation of  $CO_2$  electrolyzers at ambient conditions with  $FE > 70\%$  and total current density  $\geq 100 \text{ mA/cm}^2$  is only possible for  $SnO_2$  with  $\geq 10\%$   $CO_2$  feed streams. For CO production on Ag, the latter can only be achieved for feed streams  $\geq 30\%$   $CO_2$ . These findings suggest that, when directly applying  $CO_2$  electrolysis on dilute feed streams such as industrial flue gases, targeting  $HCOO^-$  instead of CO is more beneficial.



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## Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

## Supplementary information

Supplementary data to this manuscript is provided in a separate document.

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