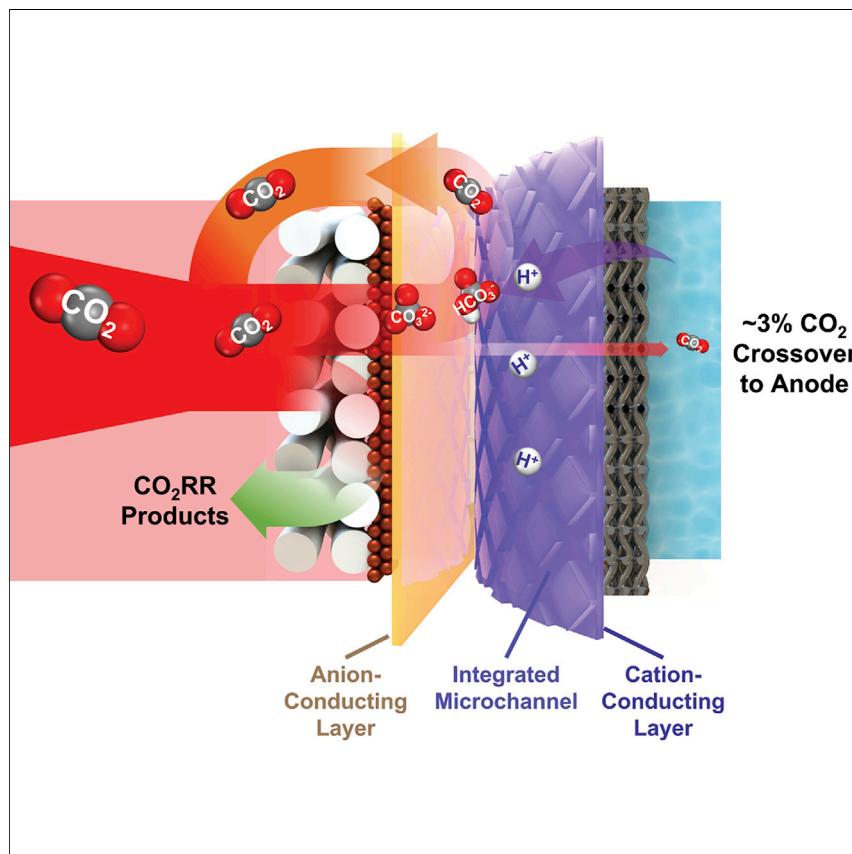


Article

A microchanneled solid electrolyte for carbon-efficient CO₂ electrolysis

CO₂ electrolysis is a promising technology that can utilize intermittent renewable electricity to mitigate CO₂ emissions. In conventional electrolyzers, most of the reactant CO₂ is lost to parasitic side reactions, limiting the electrochemical conversion of CO₂ into valuable products. Here, we present a microchanneled solid electrolyte that internally regenerates and recycles CO₂, thereby eliminating CO₂ loss. Implementing fixed cations in place of traditional alkali metal cations enables stable and selective CO₂ electrolysis to multi-carbon products.

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Highlights

MSE reduces CO₂RR reactant loss to near-zero (~3%)

Fixed cations in the MSE enable alkali metal cation free operation

Selective multi-carbon production (77%) at industrially relevant current densities

Stable continuous electrolysis for >200 h at a current density of 100 mA cm⁻²

Article

A microchanneled solid electrolyte for carbon-efficient CO₂ electrolysis

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SUMMARY

The electrochemical reduction of CO₂ is a promising route to convert carbon emissions into valuable chemicals and fuels. In electrolyzers producing multi-carbon products, 70%–95% of the supplied CO₂ is converted to (bi)carbonates, limiting the carbon efficiency of electrochemical CO₂ conversion. These (bi)carbonate anions can be lost to the aqueous electrolyte, converted back to gaseous CO₂ and diluted in the anode tail gas, and/or combined with alkali metal cations from the electrolyte to form solid salt precipitates. Here, we report a microchanneled solid electrolyte that allows for the recapture and recycling of (bi)carbonate ions before reaching the anode, reducing CO₂ loss to ~3%. We demonstrate CO₂ electroreduction to multi-carbon products with 77% selectivity without the use of alkali metal cations, by incorporating fixed quaternary ammonium cations. This system simultaneously achieves near-zero CO₂ loss, high selectivity toward multi-carbon products, and stable operation at an industrially relevant current density over 200 h.

INTRODUCTION

The electrochemical carbon dioxide reduction reaction (CO₂RR) enables utilization of intermittent renewable electricity and the mitigation of CO₂ emissions.^{1–3} Copper-based CO₂RR catalysts generate valuable multi-carbon chemicals (C₂₊) at industrially relevant reaction rates and selectivities.^{4–10} Performing CO₂RR at industrially relevant reaction rates generates alkaline conditions that are favorable for CO₂RR but promote the rapid chemical conversion of CO₂ to (bi)carbonates.^{11,12} In C₂₊ electrolyzers, 70%–95% of the supplied CO₂ is converted to (bi)carbonates and is lost to the electrolyte,^{13–15} anode tail gas,^{16–18} and cathode salt precipitation^{19–21} (Figure 1A). A small fraction of the remaining CO₂ is converted to products in conventional systems (supplemental information section 1).^{7,13–17,22}

Recovering lost CO₂ reactant incurs an economic penalty 0.7–5 times the ethylene (C₂H₄) market price (see supplemental information section 2).¹³ In addition to trapping CO₂, the accumulation of salt within the system limits CO₂RR performance and stability.^{19,20,23–25} The loss of CO₂ can be reduced by employing bipolar membranes^{26–28} and solid-state electrolyte packed beds^{29–33} and by surrounding the locally alkaline cathode with acidic electrolyte that regenerates gaseous CO₂ (Huang et al.³⁴); however, none of these approaches has produced C₂₊ with high stability (>12 h) and energy efficiency (EE, ~14%).³⁴ Eliminating alkali metal cations could avoid salt precipitation, but these are viewed as essential for efficient CO₂RR.^{21,34}

Here, we report a microchanneled solid electrolyte (MSE), enabling net carbon-efficient CO₂ electrolysis. By exploiting the pH swing caused by CO₂ electrolysis, we internally

Context & scale

CO₂ electrolysis is a promising technology to convert carbon emissions into valuable chemicals and fuels. In conventional CO₂ electrolyzers, the majority of the reactant CO₂ is lost to (bi)carbonate formation, limiting the carbon efficiency of electrochemical CO₂ conversion. Here, we report a microchanneled solid electrolyte that allows for the internal recapture and recycle of (bi)carbonate ions before they are lost to the anode, drastically reducing the CO₂ loss. By incorporating fixed quaternary ammonium cations, we demonstrate CO₂ electroreduction to multi-carbon products without the use of alkali metal cations, the latter of which cause destructive salt precipitation. This system simultaneously achieves near-zero CO₂ loss, high selectivity toward multi-carbon products, and stable operation at an industrially relevant current density.

regenerate high purity CO₂ (98% v/v) from (bi)carbonate ions, the latter of which causes CO₂ loss to anode tail gas and electrolyte. To prevent CO₂ loss to the salt formation while facilitating efficient CO₂RR, we employ fixed quaternary ammonium cations from poly(aryl piperidinium) instead of relying on mobile alkali metal cations in aqueous electrolytes. We report, as a result, peak C₂H₄ selectivity of 51% with only ~3% CO₂ loss. We achieve over 200 h of stable operation without signs of performance degradation. The C₂₊ EE is 27% at 100 mA cm⁻², comparable with the best reported CO₂ electrolyzers, yet with more than 20 times lower CO₂ loss.^{7–9}

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Internal capture to eliminate CO₂ crossover

To better understand CO₂ crossover within conventional anion-conducting solid electrolytes (Figure 1B), we began with numerical multi-physics simulations (supplemental information section 3). The anodic oxygen (O₂) evolution reaction makes the anode locally acidic and shifts the (bi)carbonate equilibria toward dissolved gaseous CO₂. The dissolved CO₂ then exceeds the solubility limit in the liquid anolyte and gaseous CO₂ comes out of the solution, mixing with the generated O₂ (Figures 1C and S1).^{16,18} Noting that it is the blending of CO₂ with anode-produced O₂ that results in costly downstream separation,³⁵ we postulated that capturing CO₂ en route to the anode—desorbing CO₂ in the absence of O₂—would enable direct recycling of the reactant in pure form while eliminating two primary sources of CO₂ loss: the anode tail gas and electrolyte.

To test this hypothesis, we sought to develop an MSE, wherein (bi)carbonate ions encounter acidic conditions and the regenerated CO₂ could be captured and recirculated to the cathode (Figure 1D). We envisioned integrated channels within a cation-conducting layer for CO₂ capture, assembled into a zero-gap electrolyzer configuration. The anion-conducting layer would achieve high pH conditions at the cathode favorable for CO₂RR and the cation-conducting layer would provide proton transport and an acidic pH for internal CO₂ regeneration (<4 pH).³⁶ We modeled the transport of (bi)carbonates and protons to the internal CO₂ regeneration domain at the interface of the anion- and cation-conducting layers. The simulations indicate that under operating conditions, the integrated channel layer would be sufficiently acidic to transform incoming (bi)carbonates to CO₂, exceeding the solubility limit and causing gas-phase CO₂ evolution (Figures 1E and S2).

To test internal CO₂ regeneration experimentally, we created a pH-swing CO₂ capture domain at the interface of anion- and cation-conducting layers with integrated channels for CO₂ extraction. Structuring the channels in the cation-conducting layer was preferable due to the better mechanical and thermal durability, and the higher conductivity when compared to the anion-conducting layer. The assembly was integrated into a zero-gap CO₂ electrolyzer making use of a copper catalyst on the cathode and iridium oxide catalyst on the anode. When we operated the system at current densities ranging from 40 to 240 mA cm⁻², the composition of the gas leaving the integrated channels was constant at 98% v/v CO₂ (Figure 1F; Table S1A). Also present were traces of hydrogen (H₂) and O₂, owing to diffusion from the cathode and anode, respectively. Analysis of the anodic tail gas indicated a CO₂ concentration of ~7% v/v, independent of current density (Figure 1G; Table S1A). This fraction of CO₂ diffuses to the anode in dissolved form, due to concentration gradients between the interface and the anode.³⁷ Based on the measured stream compositions, we quantified all CO₂ pathways (electroreduced, internally regenerated/recirculated, and released at the anode) over the range of current densities (Figure 1H; Table S1B; supplemental information section 4). In all cases, the

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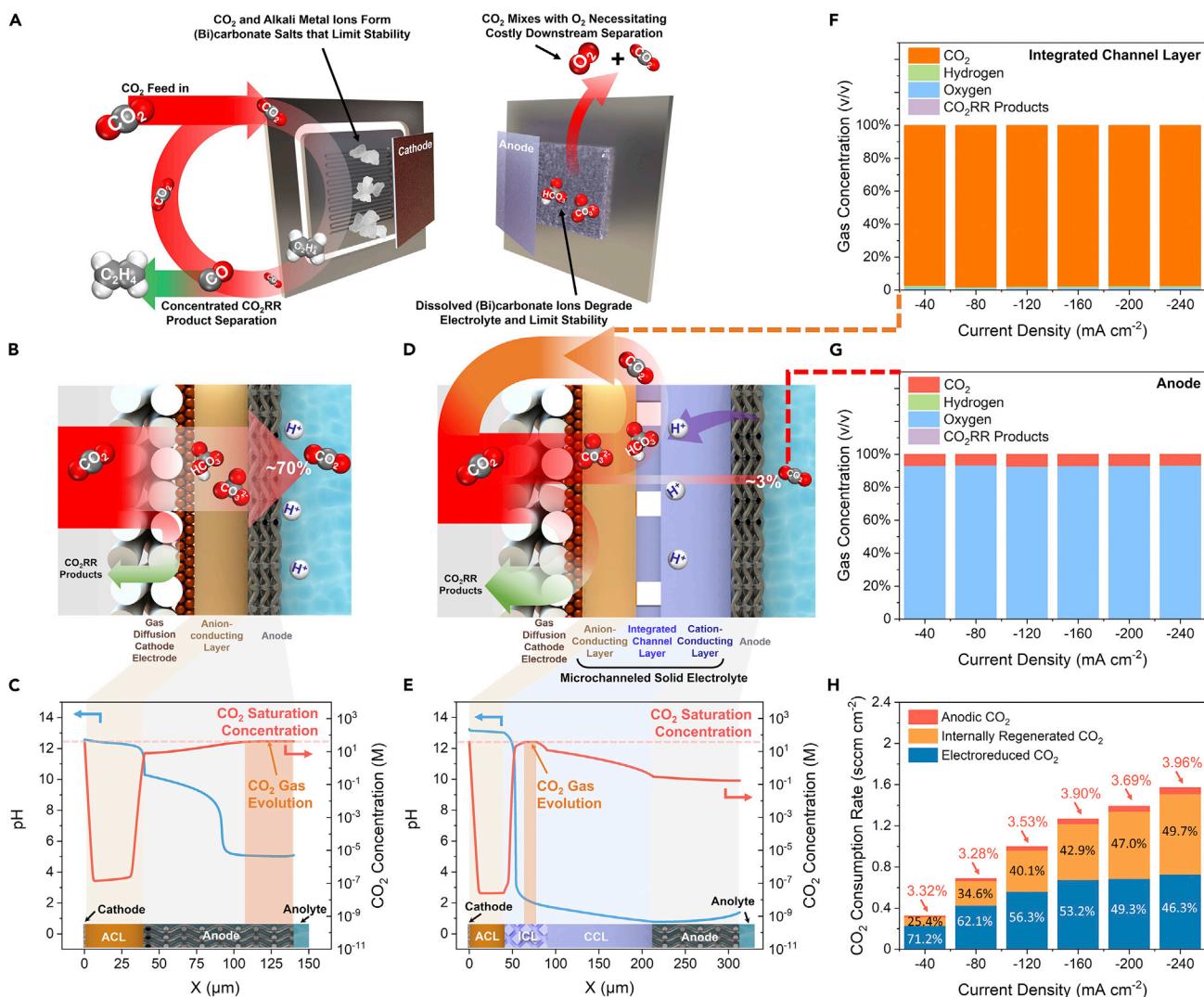


Figure 1. CO₂RR with near-zero CO₂ loss

(A) Schematic showing the sources of CO₂ loss and instability in conventional electrolyzers with anion-conducting solid electrolytes; CO₂ loss to (bi)carbonates results in salt formation that reduces stability, and gaseous CO₂ evolution at the anode results in a mixture from which CO₂ is costly to separate.

(B) Cross-sectional schematic of (bi)carbonate formation and anodic CO₂ loss with an anion-conducting solid electrolyte.

(C) COMSOL simulation of the dissolved CO₂ concentration and pH distribution with an anion-conducting solid electrolyte (0.1 M KHCO₃ anolyte).

(D) Schematic of (bi)carbonate formation and CO₂ recycling with a microchannelled solid electrolyte (MSE) for internal CO₂ regeneration.

(E) COMSOL simulation of the dissolved CO₂ concentration and pH distribution with an MSE for internal CO₂ regeneration.

(F) Composition of the gas collected from the integrated channel layer.

(G and H) Composition of the gas collected from the anode, and (H) CO₂ consumption rate.

The experimental data collected in (F), (G), and (H) were collected with a CO₂ feed rate of 20 sccm cm⁻² into the electrolyzer and 0.01 M H₂SO₄ anolyte. The error for (F), (G), and (H) is indicated in Table S1.

fraction of CO₂ converted (chemically and electrochemically) in the reactor that is lost to the anode tail gas is between 3% and 4%.

Design of MSE geometry

The integrated channel layer within the MSE needs to facilitate efficient mass and ion transfer in parallel, allowing for water transport, ion transport, and gaseous CO₂ evolution and collection (Figure 2A). The hydraulic diameter and interconnectedness of

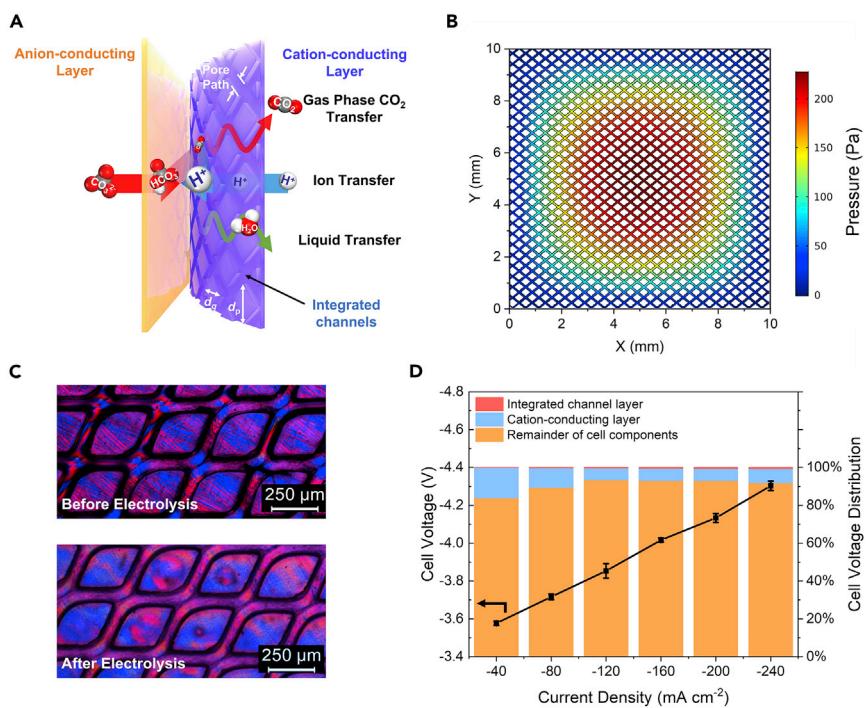


Figure 2. Design of microchanneled solid electrolyte for internal CO₂ regeneration

(A) Schematic demonstrating the parallel flows of gas-phase CO₂, liquids, and ions.
 (B) COMSOL simulation of the maximum channel pressure induced by the creation and flow of internally captured CO₂ for a pore path size of 75 μm (1 cm^2 , 100 mA cm^{-2}). The maximum pressure distribution of other pore path sizes is shown in [Table S2](#).
 (C) Integrated channel layer before and after electrolysis (total electrolyzer geometric area: 1 cm^2).
 (D) Experimental cell voltages of the electrolyzer with the microchanneled solid electrolyte ($0.01 \text{ M H}_2\text{SO}_4$ anolyte) and cell voltage distribution. The methodology for determining the voltage distribution is indicated in [supplemental information](#) section 6. Error bars represent the standard deviation of the voltage in three independent experiments.

the channels influence CO₂ removal, internal pressure build-up, and stability. The porosity of the layer influences ion transfer, ohmic losses, and EE. This coupled design challenge has been addressed by natural systems—leaves transport water, ions, and gaseous CO₂ through a series of microporous media^{38–40}—and the diamond pattern^{41,42} exhibits higher permeability than other microstructures of similar porosity ([Figure S3](#)).⁴³ Drawing inspiration from these natural systems, we fabricated an interconnected channel pattern (diamond pillars, $d_p = 350 \mu\text{m}$, $d_q = 250 \mu\text{m}$) in the cation-conducting layer via soft lithography and hot embossing. We analyzed the mass transfer resistance of a channel pore path size between 25 and 150 μm using computational fluid dynamics modeling ([Figure S4](#); [supplemental information](#) section 5): Pore paths over 75 μm resulted in acceptably low two-phase flow resistance and internal pressures: 0.23 kPa for a 1 cm^2 area ([Figure 2B](#)) and 44.1 kPa for an industrial-scale 100 cm^2 area ([Table S2](#)). Simulations of internal CO₂ regeneration in the limiting case of a large-area liquid-filled layer, resulted in maximum pressures well below the yield strength of commercial solid anion-conducting layers.^{37,44} Smaller microchannels led to repeated cycles of pressure build-up and release. These pressure oscillations are visible on the voltage response and could hamper long-term electrolyzer operation ([Figure S5](#)). There was no detectable change in the integrated channel layer, before and after CO₂ electrolysis ([Figures 2C and S6](#)). In addition to the active area,⁴⁵ another consideration in the

design of the microchannel network is the current density. At higher current density operation, more CO₂ and water will need to be removed by the integrated microchannels, and thus, the MSE could be designed with larger pores (e.g., >75 μm), and/or a nonuniform network to accommodate larger fluxes within the microchannels.

We operated the electrolyzer with the MSE at cell voltages of -3.6 and -4.3 V to reach current densities of 40 and 240 mA cm⁻², respectively (Figure 2D). The MSE had comparable cell voltages (e.g., within 100 mV at current densities >120 mA cm⁻²) with conventional anion-conducting solid electrolytes with near-neutral anolytes, but with much lower anodic CO₂ loss (Figure S7A). Removing the cation-conducting layer with integrated channels from the MSE lowered the cell voltage but substantially increased CO₂ loss (Figure S7B).

The resistance penalty due to narrowing the ionic transport path through the integrated channel layer was minimal, due to the thin channel geometry and the relatively high conductivity of the cation-conducting layer. At industrially relevant currents (e.g., >100 mA cm⁻²), we calculated the voltage drop within the integrated channel layer and the cation-conducting layer to be <1% and <10% of the full cell voltage, respectively (Figure 2D; supplemental information section 6). To verify the voltage drop of the integrated channel layer, we operated the electrolyzer using the same materials without integrated channels and found the cell voltages to be indistinguishable within measurement error, further confirming that the CO₂ capture channels do not present a significant resistive penalty (Figure S8D). However, without integrated capture channels, CO₂ formed at the junction of the cation and anion-conducting layers could not escape (Figure S8A). This trapped CO₂ caused the solid electrolyte to delaminate, resulting in <1 h of stable operation (Figures S8B and S8C), consistent with other literature reports using forward-bias bipolar configurations.^{26–28,46} Using solid-state electrolyte packed beds^{29–33} between the ion-conducting solid electrolyte layers allows CO₂ to escape (Figure S9A), but higher cell voltages (e.g., ~700 mV, or ~20%, more at 200 mA cm⁻²) were required due to higher electrolyte and interfacial losses in the cell (Figure S9B). The integrated channel layer enables the effective removal of CO₂ without stability or cell voltage penalty.

Fixed cations to prevent salt precipitation

We sought an alkali-metal-free approach to prevent the third primary form of CO₂ loss: salt precipitation. We recognized that in zero-gap systems, alkali metal cations in the anolyte can migrate through the anion-conducting solid electrolyte to the cathode—as evidenced by poor CO₂RR performance when alkali metal cations are added in the anolyte (Figure S10).²¹ We instead modulated the cathodic catalyst surface directly via a fixed cation in the poly(aryl piperidinium)⁴⁷ anion-conducting layer of the MSE (Figure 3A). The quaternary ammonium piperidinium cation has excellent stability in alkaline conditions and a high ionic conductivity of hydroxides and (bi)carbonates.^{44,47–49} Operating without alkali metal cations, the selectivity toward CO₂RR products using the MSE was maintained above 80% in the range of 40–240 mA cm⁻², reaching a maximum of 95% (Figure 3B; Table S3). The low H₂ FE demonstrates that the cathodic environment, modulated by the piperidinium cation, was sufficiently alkaline to suppress H₂ production. At low currents, carbon monoxide was the dominant product (60% at 40 mA cm⁻²). Selectivities toward C₂H₄ and ethanol increased with current and at 200 mA cm⁻² reached 35% and 21%, respectively (Figure 3B). To assess the validity of our alkali-metal-free claim, we performed a control test with a pure water anolyte. The selectivity was

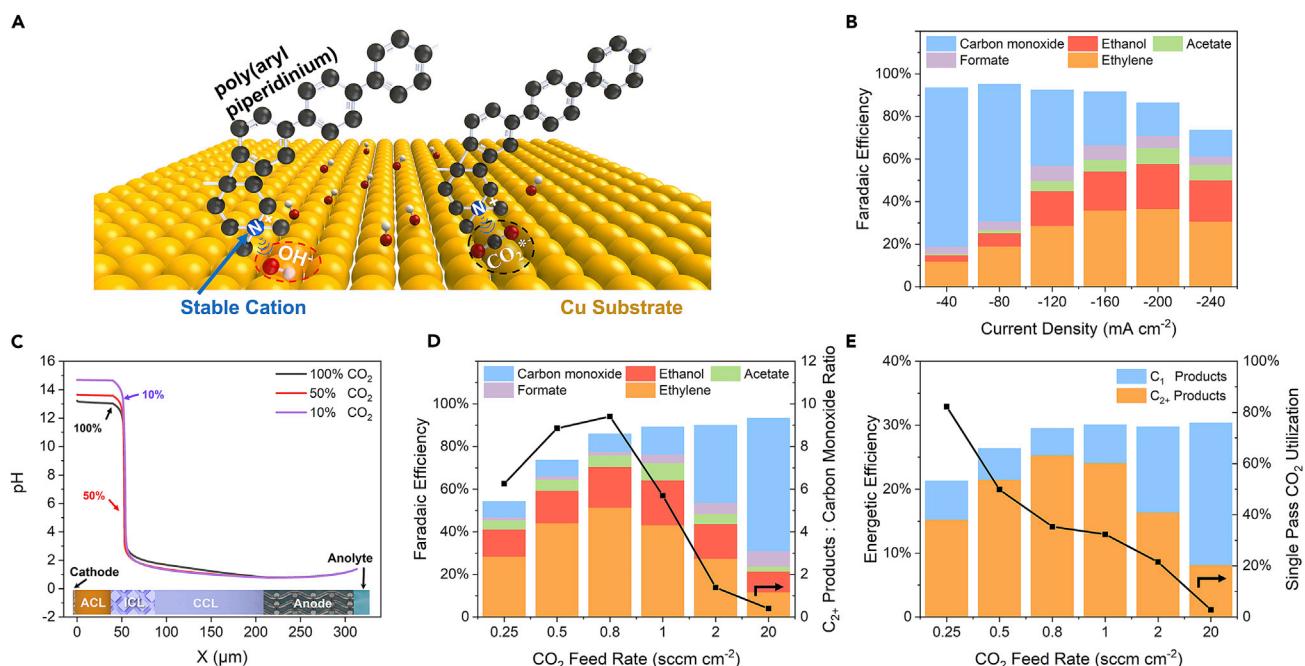


Figure 3. CO₂RR performance using microchanneled solid electrolyte for internal CO₂ regeneration (0.01 M H₂SO₄ anolyte)

(A) Schematic of poly(aryl piperidinium) functional group from the anion-conducting layer promoting CO₂RR.

(B) FE of major CO₂RR products at different current densities with a CO₂ feed rate of 20 sccm cm⁻².

(C) COMSOL simulation showing the pH distribution at different dissolved CO₂ content (100% is the ambient CO₂ solubility limit).

(D and E) (D) FE of major CO₂RR products and the ratio of C₂₊ products to carbon monoxide at different CO₂ feed rates, and (E) EE of C₁ and C₂₊ products and single-pass CO₂ utilization at different CO₂ feed rates.

The COMSOL simulation in (C) and the experiments in (D) and (E) were all performed at 100 mA cm⁻². The error of measurements indicated in Tables S3 and S5.

comparable with the case of 0.01 M sulfuric acid (H₂SO₄) anolyte (Figure S11). Analysis of the MSE outlet and anolyte outlet streams further confirmed a lack of alkali metal cations present (<2 ppm, Table S4). Alternative fixed cations provided by other anion-conducting layers, also resulted in successful CO₂RR without alkali metal cations (Figure S12). We recycled CO₂ captured from the integrated channel layer back to the cathode inlet during all experiments. Due to the high purity of the captured CO₂, there was no observable performance difference when the internally regenerated CO₂ stream was recycled, compared with an exclusively fresh CO₂ stream (Figure S13).

The rate-determining step for C₂₊ production,^{50,51} C–C coupling, can be achieved at lower overpotentials in highly alkaline conditions.^{6,52} We recognized that lowering the CO₂ concentration could lessen (bi)carbonate formation and increase the local pH. Our simulations indicated that lowering the CO₂ concentration from 100% to 10% would increase the cathode pH by 1.3 to ~14.7—the pH equivalent of 5 M potassium hydroxide (Figures 3C, S14, and S15). Beyond pH effects, previous reports suggest that lower partial pressures of CO₂ (or CO) reactant yield favorable reaction kinetics.^{53,54} We reduced the CO₂ supply to the reactor, enabling a greater fraction of CO₂ to be consumed and greater dilution of CO₂ with gas products (all while recirculating internally regenerated CO₂). Decreasing the flow rate resulted in a substantial increase in C₂H₄ production at the expense of carbon monoxide, from a C₂H₄ selectivity of 12% at 20 sccm cm⁻² to 51% at 0.8 sccm cm⁻² (Figure 3D; Table S5). Decreasing the flow rate further increased H₂ selectivity due to CO₂ mass

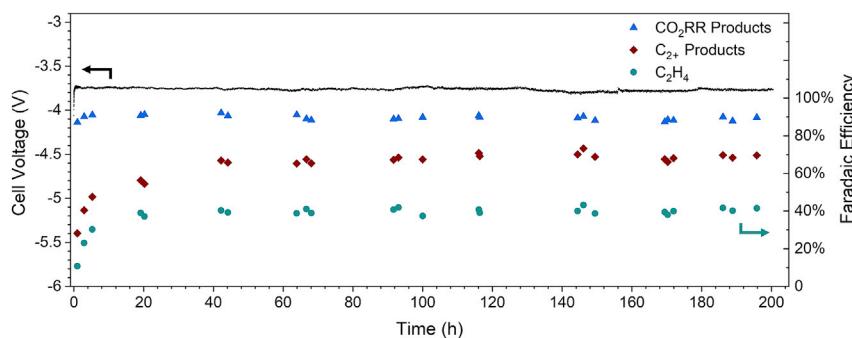


Figure 4. CO₂RR stability using microchannled solid electrolyte for internal CO₂ regeneration (0.01 M H₂SO₄ anolyte, 100 mA cm⁻², and 1 sccm cm⁻² CO₂ feed rate into the electrolyzer)

The CO₂ consumption rate for these conditions is quantified in Figure S19.

transport limitations. Single-pass CO₂ utilization, calculated using the fraction of the incoming CO₂ supply that is converted to CO₂RR products, increased monotonically with decreasing flow rate, up to 83% at 0.25 sccm cm⁻² and 100 mA cm⁻² (Figure 3E). The highest C₂₊ EEs of ~27% were obtained at 0.8 and 1.0 sccm cm⁻², but operation at 1.0 sccm cm⁻² yielded less H₂ and a higher CO₂RR EE (Figure 3E).

Pilot-scale MSE performance

To demonstrate the scalability of our MSE design, we performed experiments in a custom pilot-scale cell having an active area of 50 cm² (Figure S16). For these experiments, the cathode substrate was changed from polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE) to carbon paper (Sigracet 39 BB) to achieve through-plane electrode conductivity and minimize ohmic drop. The 50 cm² electrolyzer with the MSE exhibited slightly lower cell voltages and similar product selectivity as the smaller electrolyzer (Figure S17). Screening different flow rates for the 50 cm² yielded a maximum C₂₊ EE of 27% at 0.8 sccm cm⁻², the same flow rate as the smaller electrolyzer when both were operated at 100 mA cm⁻² (Figure S18). If the electrolyzer were to operate at a larger current density, the CO₂ supply would have to be increased proportionally to ensure consistent electrochemical performance.^{55,56} We quantified the CO₂ loss at the different CO₂ feed rates for the 50 cm² and demonstrated that the anodic CO₂ loss was <5% in all cases (Figure S18).

MSE stability

To demonstrate the stability of the electrolyzer with the MSE, we performed electrolysis galvanostatically at 100 mA cm⁻² at a feed rate of 1 sccm cm⁻² (Figure 4). Operating at this current density and flow rate limits CO₂ loss to ~3% (Figure S19). After an initial break-in period of 10 h, the FE toward C₂H₄ and all CO₂RR products remained constant for another 190 h at ~43% and >91%, respectively, with no indications of reduced performance at the end of the test period. While achieving minimal CO₂ loss, this work demonstrates the longest operating CO₂-to-C₂₊ electrolyzer at industrially relevant current densities (Table S6).

Conclusions

Overall, this work presents a strategy to minimize reactant CO₂ loss via an MSE, enabling net carbon-efficient CO₂ electrolysis. We implemented this strategy using CO₂ regeneration channels integrated within a solid electrolyte and poly(aryl piperidinium) as a fixed cation. Using this strategy, we achieved a C₂H₄ FE of 51% and a C₂₊ EE of 27%. This electrolyzer can also operate for 200 h of stable operation while maintaining ~3% CO₂ loss. With the achievement of these performance metrics, this

strategy removes significant barriers to the commercial adoption of CO₂RR, enabling CO₂ mitigation and the storage of renewable energy in the form of carbon-based products.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Resource availability

Lead contact

Further information and requests for resources should be directed to and will be fulfilled by the lead contact, David Sinton (sinton@mie.utoronto.ca).

Materials availability

This study did not generate new unique reagents.

Data and code availability

The data presented in this work are available from the corresponding authors upon reasonable request.

Electrode preparation

The PTFE based copper electrode used was prepared by plasma sputtering. Approximately 300 nm of copper catalyst was sputtered onto the PTFE substrate using an AJA International ATC Orion 5 Sputter Deposition System (Toronto Nanofabrication Centre, Canada). The anode electrode was prepared by spray-coating iridium chloride on platinized titanium felt (Fuel Cell Store, USA) followed by thermal decomposition. An 8 × 8 cm² area of titanium felt was etched in boiling 0.5 M oxalic acid for 30 min. The etched titanium felt was then spray coated on a hot plate held at 80°C with a solution consisting of 200 mg IrCl₃·xH₂O (99.8%, Alfa Aesar, USA) dissolved in 13 mL of ethanol. The titanium felt coated with IrCl₃ was then calcinated at 500°C for 10 min and cut to size to obtain the final anode electrode.

MSE preparation

The fabrication of the cation exchange membrane with internal microfluidic channels was performed as shown in [Figure S20](#). The master for the microfluidic channels was prepared by spin-coating positive photoresist SU-8 2050 (Microchem, USA) with a height of 50 ± 5 μm on a silicon wafer.⁵⁷ The master was patterned with designed high-resolution transparency masks (CAD/Art Services, Inc., USA) following standard photolithography procedures.^{58,59} The cation exchange membrane, Nafion 117 (Fuel Cell Store, USA), was hot embossed with the prepared master molds under a temperature of 220°F and pressure of 1.25 MPa for 5 min. The membrane was then soaked in a 3 wt % hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂) solution at 80°C for 60 min to remove any impurities. Then, the membrane was soaked in 1 M H₂SO₄ at 80°C for 60 min for activation. After each of the H₂O₂ and H₂SO₄ immersion steps, the membrane was soaked in deionized water (18 MΩ cm⁻¹) at 80°C for 60 min to remove residual H₂O₂ and H₂SO₄. PiperION (PiperION TP-85, 40 μm, Versogen, USA), Sustainion (Sustainion X37-50 Grade RT, Dioxide Materials, USA), and Aemion (AF1-HNN8-50-X, Ionomr Innovations, Canada) anion exchange membranes were used. Anion exchange membranes were soaked in 1 M potassium hydroxide for 5 h at room temperature for activation, and then rinsed three times with deionized water to remove residual potassium hydroxide.

Electrochemical reduction of CO₂

All CO₂RR experiments were performed using an electrolyzer with an active area of 1 cm² at room temperature (~20°C) ([Figures S21](#) and [S22](#)). During a CO₂RR experiment, the aqueous 0.01 M H₂SO₄ anolyte was circulated through the anode

flow channel at a flow rate of 25 mL min⁻¹ using a peristaltic pump. The CO₂ gas flow was bubbled through water at room temperature for humidification prior to entering the electrolyzer. All voltages reported are full cell voltages without iR compensation.

Product analysis

The CO₂RR gas products were analyzed in 1 mL volumes using a gas chromatograph (PerkinElmer Clarus 590) equipped with a thermal conductivity detector (TCD) and a flame ionization detector (FID). The liquid products were quantified using ¹H nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopy (NMR) on an Agilent DD2 500 spectrometer with dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) as an internal standard. For the stability tests, the electrolyzer was run uninterrupted with a fixed current density. The gas and liquid products were sampled periodically. Deionized water was added periodically to the electrolyte to compensate for water dragged through the cation-conducting layer. The products were manually collected periodically for analysis. The FE of CO₂RR gas products was calculated using the following equation:

$$FE_{\text{gas}} = x_i \times v \times \frac{z_i F P_0}{RT} \times \frac{1}{I_{\text{total}}} \times 100\%$$

where x_i is the volume fraction of gas product i ; v is the outlet gas flow rate in sccm; z_i is the number of electrons required to produce one molecule of product i ; F is the Faraday constant; P_0 is atmosphere pressure; R is the ideal gas constant; T is the temperature; and I_{total} is the total current.

The FE of CO₂RR liquid products was calculated using the following equation:

$$FE_{\text{liquid}} = n_i \times \frac{z_i F}{Q} \times 100\%$$

where n_i is the number of moles of liquid product i , and Q is the cumulative charge as the liquid products were collected.

The EE of CO₂RR products was calculated using the following equation:

$$EE_i = \frac{E_i^\circ}{E_{\text{cell}}} \times FE_i$$

where E_i° is the thermodynamic potential for each product,⁵⁰ and E_{cell} is the applied cell voltage without iR compensation.

SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION

Supplemental information can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.joule.2022.04.023>.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

D.S. and E.H.S. supervised the project. Y.X., R.K.M., and J.P.E. designed experiments and analyzed results. Y.X. and R.K.M. carried out all the experiments. Y.X.

and J.P.E. drafted the manuscript. S.L. performed COMSOL simulations. C.P.O. and C.M.G. performed large-scale experiments. Y.X., R.K.M., and M.F. synthesized catalysts. J.E.H. and A.R. performed product analysis. All authors discussed the results and assisted during manuscript preparation.

DECLARATION OF INTERESTS

The authors declare the following competing financial interest(s): there is a patent application pending, filed by the authors of this Letter and their institutions.

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