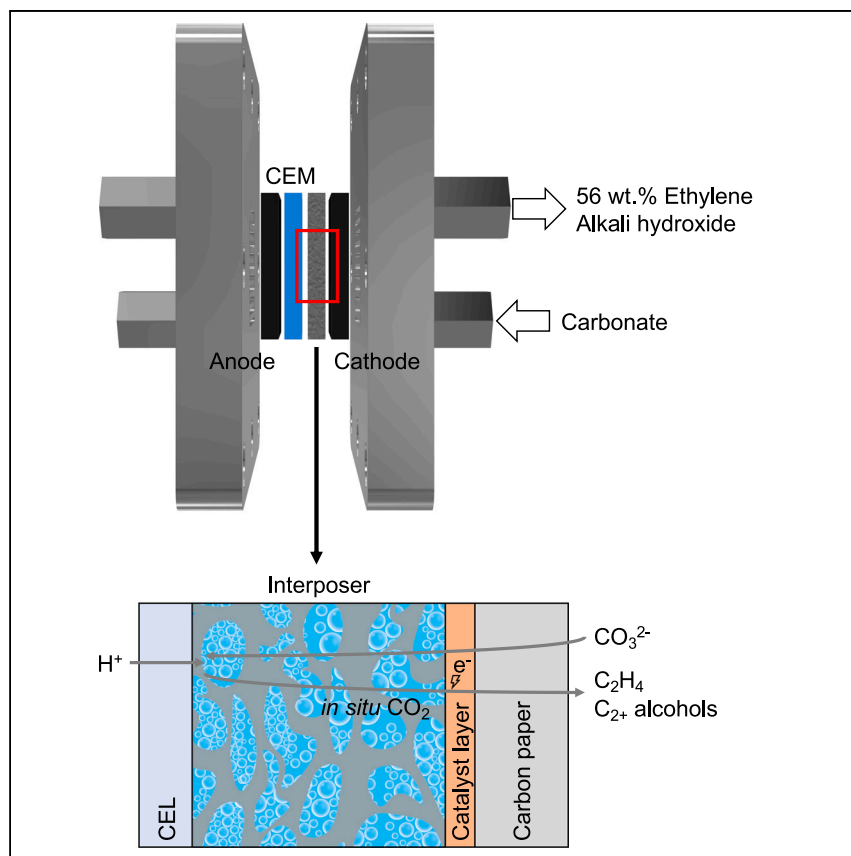


Article

CO₂ electroreduction to multicarbon products from carbonate capture liquid



Reactive capture systems unite CO₂ capture with CO₂ upgrade/utilization into more valuable chemicals. We, herein, present the direct electrochemical upgrade of carbonate, captured CO₂ in direct air capture, into C₂ and higher products (C₂₊). Interposer and catalyst joint design enables us to electroproduce 56 wt % C₂H₄ from a carbonate solution with no detected CO₂ in the gas stream. The carbonate electrolysis system produces a gas stream that is undiluted by CO₂ and accomplishes complete CO₂ utilization, reducing regeneration/separation costs.

Geonhui Lee, Armin Sedighian Rasouli, Byoung-Hoon Lee, ..., Zhu Chen, David Sinton, Edward Sargent

ted.sargent@northwestern.edu

Highlights

The electrochemical upgrade of CO₂ captured in the carbonate form to C₂₊ products

Studying key metrics (local pH and reactant concentration) in reactive capture

Interposer and catalyst joint design enables the electro-synthesis of 56 wt % C₂H₄

Reactive capture obviates the need for energy to regenerate lost/unreacted CO₂

Article

CO₂ electroreduction to multicarbon products from carbonate capture liquid

Geonhui Lee,^{1,6} Armin Sedighian Rasouli,^{1,6} Byoung-Hoon Lee,^{1,6} Jinqiang Zhang,¹ Da Hye Won,² Yuroo Celine Xiao,³ Jonathan P. Edwards,³ Mi Gyoungh Lee,¹ Eui Dae Jung,¹ Fatemeh Arabyarmohammadi,³ Hengzhou Liu,^{4,5} Ivan Grigioni,¹ Jehad Abed,¹ Tartela Alkayyali,³ Shijie Liu,³ Ke Xie,¹ Rui Kai Miao,³ Sungjin Park,¹ Roham Dorakhan,¹ Yong Zhao,³ Colin P. O'Brien,³ Zhu Chen,¹ David Sinton,³ and Edward Sargent^{1,4,5,7,*}

SUMMARY

Alkali hydroxide systems capture CO₂ as carbonate; however, generating a pure CO₂ stream requires significant energy input, typically from thermal cycling to 900°C. What is more, the subsequent valorization of gas-phase CO₂ into products presents additional energy requirements and system complexities, including managing the formation of (bi)carbonate in an electrolyte and separating unreacted CO₂ downstream. Here, we report the direct electrochemical conversion of CO₂, captured in the form of carbonate, into multicarbon (C₂₊) products. Using an interposer and a Cu/CoPc-CNTs electrocatalyst, we achieve 47% C₂₊ Faradaic efficiency at 300 mA cm⁻² and a full cell voltage of 4.1 V. We report 56 wt % of C₂H₄ and no detectable C₁ gas in the product gas stream: CO, CH₄, and CO₂ combined total below 0.9 wt % (0.1 vol %). This approach obviates the need for energy to regenerate lost CO₂, an issue seen in prior CO₂-to-C₂₊ reports.

INTRODUCTION

CO₂ capture from air and oceans, when combined with an upgrade into chemicals that serve as precursors to long-lived materials, offers to contribute carbon-negative (cradle-to-gate) solutions that offset difficult-to-abate emissions on the path to net-zero emissions.^{1–3} Reactive capture systems unite CO₂ capture with CO₂ upgrade/utilization into more valuable chemicals. Much progress has been made electrochemically generating CO from captured CO₂, on the path to fuels and chemicals via syngas processes.^{4–8} In thermochemistry, reactive capture has proceeded to methane, methanol, and formate.^{9–11}

C₂ and higher products (C₂₊) represent a large global market: ethylene and ethanol lie in the range of ~US\$230B and ~US\$160B, respectively,^{12,13} in contrast with the C₁ chemicals (CO and formic acid) generated by reactive capture to date, whose combined values are below US\$12B.^{14,15} Yet, to date, it is mainly C₁ products that have been produced in reactive capture systems of both electrochemical and thermochemical types.

Direct air capture (DAC) using alkali hydroxide captures CO₂ as carbonate and generates a pure/concentrated gas-phase CO₂ stream via thermal swing at ~900°C.¹⁶ The subsequent valorization of gas-phase CO₂ into value-added products

CONTEXT & SCALE

Cradle-to-gate carbon-negative technologies, including direct air capture (DAC), have shown promise in mitigating CO₂ emissions. However, these emerging technologies to capture CO₂ from the air rely on a thermal swing to release concentrated CO₂, and today this comes at a high energy cost. The ensuing step in gas-phase CO₂ electrolysis requires additional energy. Furthermore, this step suffers from incomplete CO₂ conversion. This leads to a high cost to regenerate/separate (otherwise-lost/unreacted) CO₂.

To tackle these challenges, a scheme known as reactive capture has been proposed: the integrated systems for capture-and-upgrade of CO₂ to valuable products. This approach is the direct conversion of chemisorbed CO₂ into value-added products. The benefits of reactive capture are (1) to avoid the energy-intensive and carbon-positive steps associated with concentrating CO₂ and (2) to enable ~0% reactant losses. This obviates the need for energy to regenerate/separate lost/unreacted reactants.

introduces further energy losses and system complexity. This approach involves introducing CO₂ in the gas phase for electrolysis.

In contradistinction, reactive capture takes the carbon source from carbonate species, bypassing CO₂ concentrating steps. In prior reports of reactive capture from carbonate, Li et al. demonstrated pure syngas production with Faradaic efficiency (FE) of ~30% CO and ~70% H₂, and with a Cu electrocatalyst, ~14% C₂ FE was observed.⁵ The authors reported no appreciable loss of CO₂ during carbonate electrolysis. Such prior studies offer a path to avoid the energy-intensive steps associated with concentrating CO₂ and regenerating lost CO₂; however, until now, the selectivity toward more valuable CO₂-derived products has been limited compared with the diversity of products available in electrochemical CO₂ reduction reaction (CO₂RR) systems.

Such electrochemical CO₂RR systems, although they have achieved impressive increases in performance,^{17,18} suffer—in the case of alkaline and neutral CO₂RR—from low CO₂ utilization (the fraction of input CO₂ converted into desired products) that is ≤25% in the case of C₂ production due to carbonate formation in locally alkaline conditions.¹⁹ The low CO₂ utilization leads to a high cost to regenerate (otherwise-lost/emitted) CO₂.^{19,20} Enticingly, recent studies have overcome this CO₂ utilization limit via local CO₂ regeneration^{21–23}; however, until now, the product gas stream has still been diluted by unreacted CO₂ and gas-phase CO₂-derived products such as carbon monoxide and methane.^{22,24,25} Even in systems that achieved >76% CO₂ utilization via local CO₂ regeneration, unreacted CO₂ remains >56 wt % (Table 1).

Since CO₂ separation is an energy-intensive process (2–4.4 GJ/tonne of CO₂),^{16,26,27} unreacted CO₂ significantly increases overall system energy requirements. Eliminating CO₂ at the downstream could lead to a lower cost of purification demand.^{20,28}

Here, we pursue C₂₊ products from carbonate solution—a liquid used in DAC—in an electrochemical reactive capture system. Among the striking results is a negligible presence (sub 1%) of CO₂ and C₁ gas products such as CO and CH₄ in the electrolyzer outlet, a finding promising for the minimization of product separation costs.

RESULTS

Modeling of carbonate electrolysis

In prior reports of reactive capture from carbonate,⁵ *in situ* CO₂ is regenerated via an acid/base reaction between carbonate and protons. Protons come from the cation-exchange layer (CEL) of a bipolar membrane (BPM) under reverse bias. The *in situ* CO₂ is converted to CO₂-derived products at the surface of a Cu electrocatalyst, with C₂ (e.g., to ethylene and ethanol) selectivity totaling below 14% (Figure S1).

We used modeling of chemical species generation, consumption, and diffusion to seek an explanation of why C₂₊ productivity is low in prior reactive capture studies and to identify system architectures to increase it (Figure 1B; Notes S1 and S2). The modeling results show that the spacing between the CEL of BPM and the electrocatalyst influences species concentrations in the reactive capture system (Figures S2–S6). The concentrations of CO₃²⁻, *in situ* CO₂(g), and CO₂(aq) vary in the spacing where the local pH changes, and the distance of spacing is the most significant descriptor for the concentration of reactant, *in situ* CO₂(g).

In a prior study,⁵ at a CEL:catalyst spacing of ~60 μm (Figures 1F, 1G, and S7), the volume fraction of CO₂(g) ([CO₂(g)]) at the plane of the catalyst was found to be

¹Department of Electrical and Computer Engineering, University of Toronto, 35 St George Street, Toronto, ON M5S 1A4, Canada

²Clean Energy Research Center, Korea Institute of Science and Technology (KIST), Seoul 02792, Republic of Korea

³Department of Mechanical and Industrial Engineering, University of Toronto, 5 King's College Road, Toronto, ON M5S 3G8, Canada

⁴Department of Chemistry, Northwestern University, Evanston, IL 60208, USA

⁵Department of Electrical and Computer Engineering, Northwestern University, Evanston, IL 60208, USA

⁶These authors contributed equally

⁷Lead contact

*Correspondence:
ted.sargent@northwestern.edu
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Table 1. Energy analysis of different systems: alkaline CO₂RR, neutral CO₂RR, acidic CO₂RR, and carbonate electrolysis

System	Alkaline CO ₂ RR	Neutral CO ₂ RR	Acidic CO ₂ RR	Carbonate electrolysis
Full cell voltage (V)	2.4	3.9	3.4	4.1
C ₂ H ₄ selectivity (%)	70	66	24	34
Current density (mA cm ⁻²)	150	315	200	300
Energy efficiency (%)	34	19	8	10
CO ₂ utilization (%)	5	11	76	100 ^a
C ₂ H ₄ concentration at the outlet (wt %)	4	8	19	56
CO ₂ concentration at the outlet (wt %)	93	88	56	0
Energy cost (GJ/tonne of C₂H₄)				
Upstream generation	28	28	28	3
Electrolysis	142	244	586	499
Product separation	115	55	18	2
Anode separation	0	57	0	0
Carbonate generation	198	0	0	0
Total	483	384	631	504

^aNo detectable CO₂ gas in the cathodic/anodic tail gas.

~2 vol % with balanced gases of H₂ and C₂H₄ at current densities of 200–350 mA cm⁻² (Figure 1C)—yet [CO₂(g)] is required to rise above 4 vol % at the catalyst to reach a meaningful conversion rate of C₂₊ partial current densities of 100+ mA cm⁻² (Notes S3 and S4; Figure S8).

We studied these effects further, noting that if the CEL and the catalyst are closely spaced (Figures 1D and 1E), the local pH at the CEL goes only as low as pH 10, and CO₃²⁻ and OH⁻ diffusion neutralize the acidic CEL surface,^{29,30} leading to no *in situ* CO₂(g) generation at applied current densities of 200–350 mA cm⁻² (Figure S9). By contrast, when we varied the CEL:catalyst spacing over the range 100–300 μm (Figures 1H–1K), we noted the opportunity to achieve the desired conditions of low pH (<4) at the CEL for *in situ* CO₂(g) generation and [CO₂(g)] > 4 vol % at the catalyst layer (CL) to trigger CO₂RR toward C₂₊ production. At the CL, the pH is above 13 since hydroxide ions are produced from CO₂RR. This high local pH accelerated the C–C coupling needed for C₂₊ to dominate over C₁.^{31,32} The pH gradient was measured using pH-sensitive dyes (Note S5). We observed a progressive pH increase from pH ~2 at the CEL surface to ~12 at the edge of the interposer in the system designed for the experimental study of pH.

For the spacing range of 130–270 μm, optimal conditions, including [CO₂(g)] > 4 vol % and the desired local pH, were achieved at the current density range 250–350 mA cm⁻², a regime of applied interest.^{33,34} In the case wherein the amount of carbonate is limited due to a small spacing, such as <130 μm, there is no increase in the *in situ* CO₂(g) concentration at higher current densities (Figure S3). However, the current density influences the rate of proton diffusion through the CEL: more protons diffuse at higher current densities and *in situ* CO₂(g) generally increases (Figure 1C). Increasing the spacing to >130 μm promotes carbonate-rich conditions, which provide more opportunities for protons to react with carbonate (Figures S4 and S5). However, [CO₂(g)] decreases at a spacing >540 μm due to an increased possibility of *in situ* CO₂ capture over long distances in the layer (Figure S6).

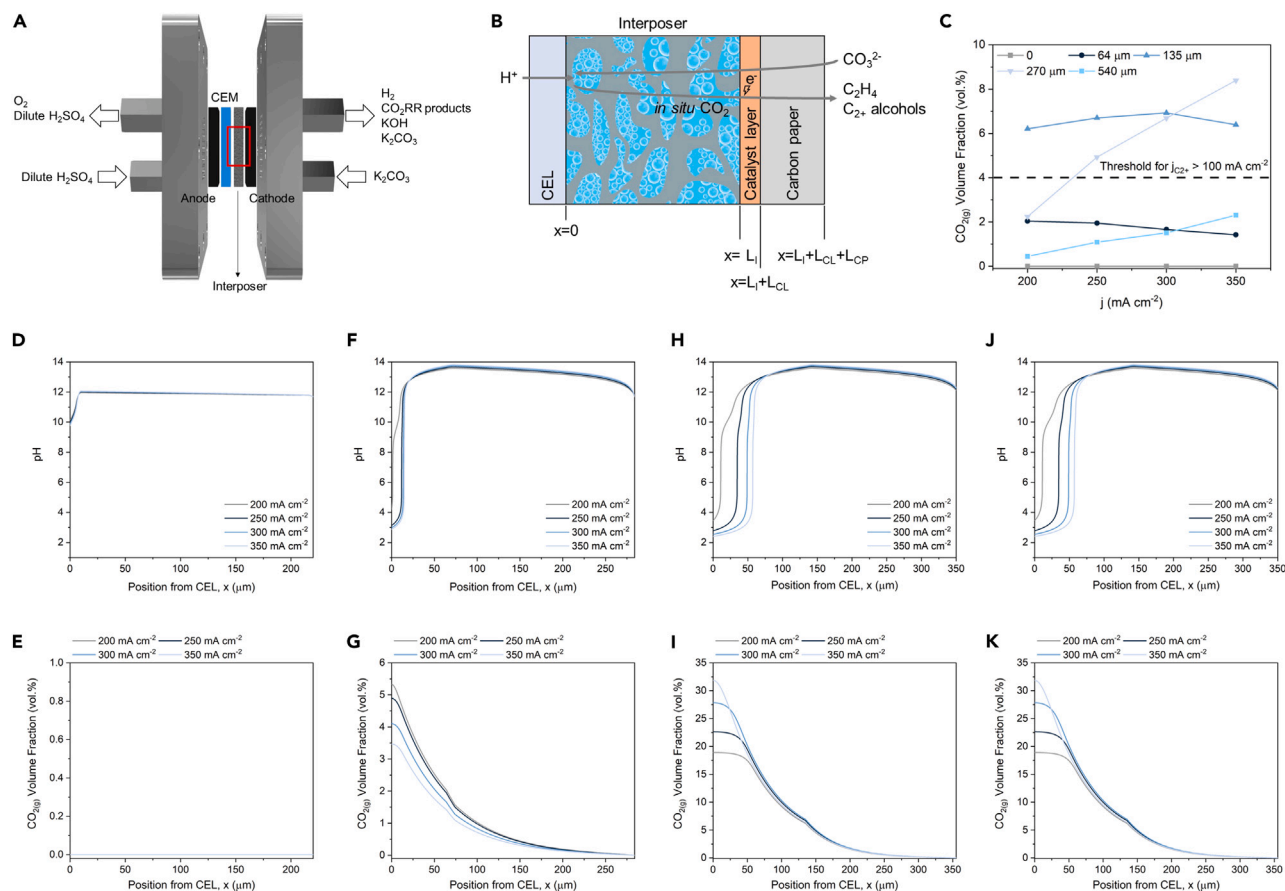


Figure 1. Carbonate electrolysis system employing an interposer

(A) System diagram of CO₃²⁻-fed electrolyzer. The cathode and anode are separated by the cation-exchange membrane (CEM) and the mixed cellulose ester (MCE) membrane as the interposer. K₂CO₃ is fed to the electrolyzer, and *in situ* CO₂ is converted into CO₂-derived products. KOH is generated at the cathode from *in situ* CO₂ reduction reaction (CO₂RR). 0.5 M H₂SO₄ is fed at the anode, and the anodic oxygen evolution reaction supplies protons. (B) Schematic of cation-exchange layer (CEL), the interposer, catalyst layer (CL), and carbon paper (CP). The MCE membrane has a pore where the carbonate liquid-phase and gas-phase *in situ* CO₂ are distributed. (C) CO₂(g) volume fraction for different spacing (L) conditions, 0, 64, 135, and 540 μm at current densities of 200, 250, 300, and 350 mA cm⁻² in 1.5 M of K₂CO₃ electrolyte. (D, F, H, and J) pH profile of 0, 64, 135, and 540 μm spacing, respectively, at the applied current densities from 200 to 350 mA cm⁻² in 1.5 M of K₂CO₃ electrolyte. (E, G, I, and K) *In situ* CO₂(g) volume fraction profile of 0, 64, 135, and 540 μm spacing, respectively, at the applied current densities from 200 to 350 mA cm⁻² in 1.5 M K₂CO₃ electrolyte.

Carbonate electrolysis system employing an interposer

We then turned to the experimental implementation of these concepts (Figure 1A). We needed an approach to construct a well-defined spacing—in effect, a stand-off—between the CEL and electrocatalyst. We used a hydrophilic membrane as an interposer and explored different interposer material compositions (Note S6; Figures S10–S12). We observed that C₂₊ FE was improved in a higher porosity system. We account for these observations via faster diffusion of species which enabled a higher concentration of CO₂(g) at the CL.

In light of these findings, we focused on a hydrophilic mixed cellulose ester (MCE) interposer, a highly porous medium (material porosity > 84%) with a selection of thicknesses ranging from 130 to 540 μm (Figure S13). We then moved to a cation-exchange membrane (CEM) in the system to transport protons from the anodic oxygen

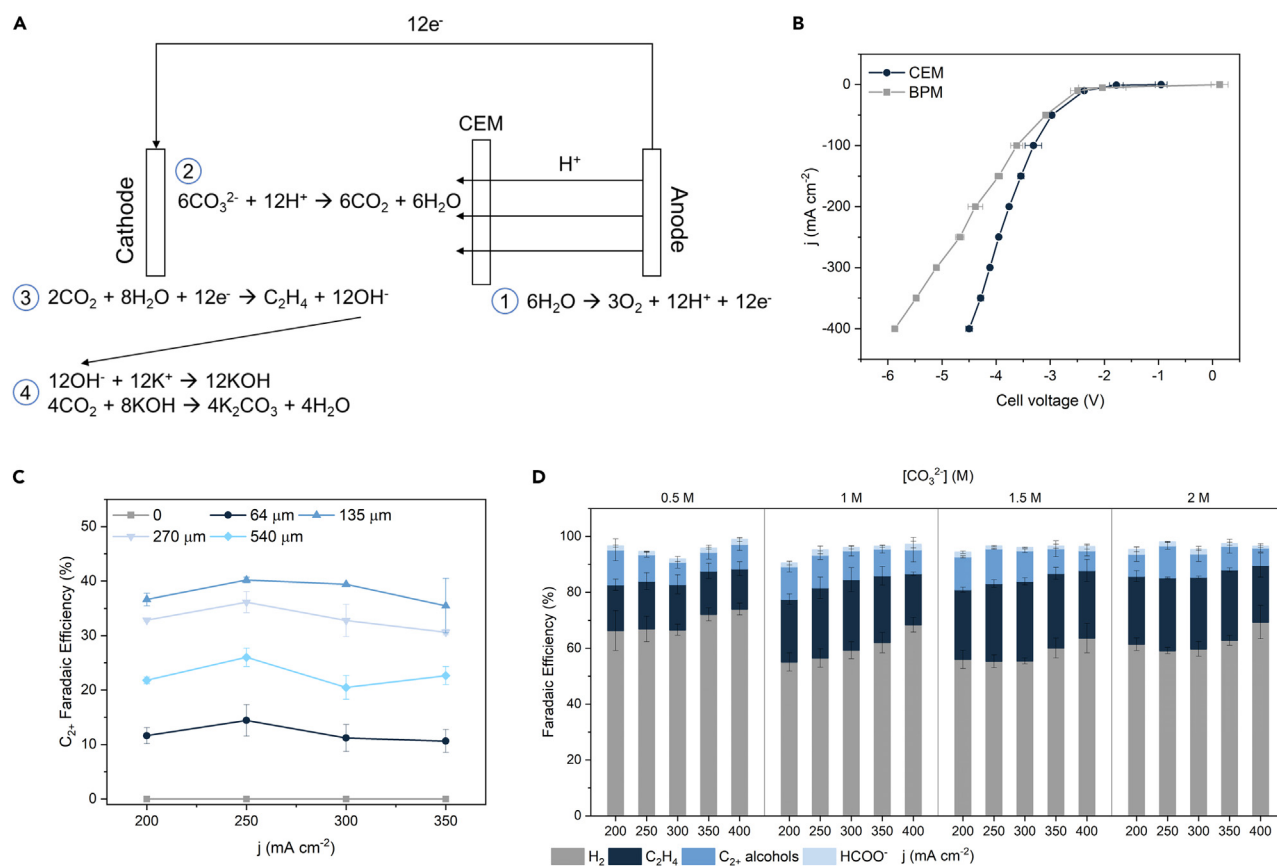


Figure 2. Carbonate electrolysis

(A) Chemical reactions of carbonate electrolysis with the cation-exchange membrane (CEM). OER at the anodic side supplies protons to the cathodic side. Carbonate is converted into *in situ* CO₂ via the carbonate/proton reactions. CO₂ reduction reaction (CO₂RR) occurs with a Cu electrocatalyst. CO₂-derived products are generated, and OH⁻ is produced during *in situ* CO₂RR. Unreacted CO₂ is captured by OH⁻.

(B) Full cell J-V curve with Cu electrocatalyst with a CEM and a bipolar membrane (BPM) in 1.5 M of K₂CO₃ electrolyte with 135 μm interposer. Higher voltage is observed in the case of the BPM system compared with the CEM system due to water dissociation overpotential. All experiments were repeated three times to enable reporting of the average and standard error.

(C) C₂₊ Faradaic efficiency (FE) of carbonate electrolysis with Cu electrocatalyst in 1.5 M of K₂CO₃ electrolyte with the different thickness of interposer from 0 to 540 μm. All experiments were repeated three times to enable reporting of the average and standard error.

(D) Product distribution for different concentrations of K₂CO₃ electrolyte from 0.5 to 2 M with a 135 μm interposer. C₂₊ alcohols Faradaic efficiency includes C₂H₅OH and C₃H₇OH. All experiments were repeated three times to enable reporting of the average and standard error.

evolution reaction (OER) (Figure 2A)—an improvement that enabled reduced full cell potential compared with a BPM system (Figure 2B). The CEM system may supply more protons to the cathodic side than the BPM system due to the concentration gradient, neutralizing the capture species (OH⁻). However, we observed a similar product distribution for both the BPM system and CEM system (Figure S14), indicating that excess proton diffusion in the CEM system is negligible when using 0.5 M H₂SO₄ as an anolyte (Note S7).

Experimentally, we first reconfirmed the findings of prior studies that, at ~60 μm spacing, FE to C₂₊ resides below 14% at 250 mA cm⁻². When we optimized interposer thickness of 130–270 μm, we achieved a much-increased C₂₊ FE of 40% at 250 mA cm⁻² (Figure 2C). When the distance is smaller than 135 μm or larger than 540 μm, a lower rate of C₂₊ product generation is seen, the result of the limited concentration of *in situ* CO₂(g) (Figure 1C). In all cases, the only C₁ product detected was HCOO⁻ with FE below 2%. No CO, CH₄, and CO₂ were detected for all applied

current densities and different concentrations of carbonate electrolyte in the interposer system (Figures 2D and S11). The product distribution, including high C₂₊ FE and negligible CO FE, was also observed in a simulated carbonate electrolysis system with CO₂-depleted conditions (Note S3). The experimental studies suggest that in the carbonate electrolysis system, low [CO₂(g)] and slow *in situ* CO₂ flux contribute to steering C–C coupling by achieving locally concentrated CO and the enhanced residence time of CO. In the outlet stream, gaseous C₁ products and CO₂ were <0.9 wt % (0.1 vol %) based on the detection limit of the gas chromatography (GC): CO for 24 ppm, CH₄ for 56 ppm, and CO₂ for 1,000 ppm, respectively (experimental procedures). To investigate whether carbonate was the source of carbon in electroreduction, we used ¹³C labeled CO₃²⁻, and the isotope experiment result ruled out any chemical reactions of interposer, cathode, and dissolved CO₂ (Figure S15). To test for the possibility of chemical reactions related to the MCE membrane or its possible decomposition products, we compared electrochemical performance in two conditions: (1) carbonate electrolyte and (2) carbonate electrolyte with a dispersed MCE membrane in a PVDF interposer system (Figure S16). In both cases, we observed a C₂₊ FE of ~15% at the applied current density of 200 and 300 mA cm⁻². We also conducted nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) analysis to examine the chemical decomposition of the MCE membrane after long-term electrolysis of carbonate. We only detected signals for CO₂-derived products, which supports that there is no chemical decomposition or reactions of MCE in the carbonate electrolysis system (Figure S17).

Improved catalyst for carbonate electrolysis

We turned to further system tuning toward increased C₂₊ FE. We posited that a portion of *in situ* CO₂ is converted into CO₃²⁻ at the catalyst surface due to the highly alkaline conditions.³¹ We, therefore, sought catalyst-design strategies to convert CO₂ to CO with faster kinetics at the catalyst surface to preserve the reactant. We used molecularly dispersed cobalt phthalocyanines on carbon nanotubes (CoPCs-CNTs) known to produce CO from CO₂ with high turnover frequencies (Figure 3A).^{35,36} We fabricated the layer-by-layer catalyst via airbrushing. The CoPC-CNTs layer is uniformly distributed on the Cu layer as shown in the scanning electron microscopy (SEM) image (Figure 3B). X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) and energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS) confirm the existence of cobalt at the surface (Figures S18 and S19).

The product distribution now showed a considerable further improvement: the C₂₊ total FE now rose to 47% at 300 mA cm⁻² (Figure 3C). The C₂H₄ FE is 34%, resulting in 56 wt % of C₂H₄ in the product gas stream due to the absence of gaseous C₁ products and unreacted CO₂. The C₂₊ alcohols FE is 13% including 12% C₂H₅OH FE and 1% C₃H₇OH FE. As shown in Figure 3D, we achieve 140+ mA cm⁻² of C₂₊ partial current density at -4.1 V.

Continuous operation of capture-and-electrolysis system

We then constructed a prototype that operates both CO₂ capture and electrolysis on a continuous basis (Figures 4A and S20). The KOH capture liquid is regenerated during carbonate electrolysis as shown in the chemical balance (Figure 2A; Note S7). We recycled the resultant KOH solution to continuously capture additional CO₂, converting it into K₂CO₃. There are two reservoirs: the absorber is for CO₂ capture and the electrolyte reservoir provides the carbonate to the liquid-fed electrolyzer. Two reservoirs and the electrolyzer are connected by peripheral pumps circulating the capture liquid. During the electrolysis of carbonate into C₂H₄ and C₂₊ alcohols, generated OH⁻ returns to the absorber. We demonstrated capture-and-electrolysis

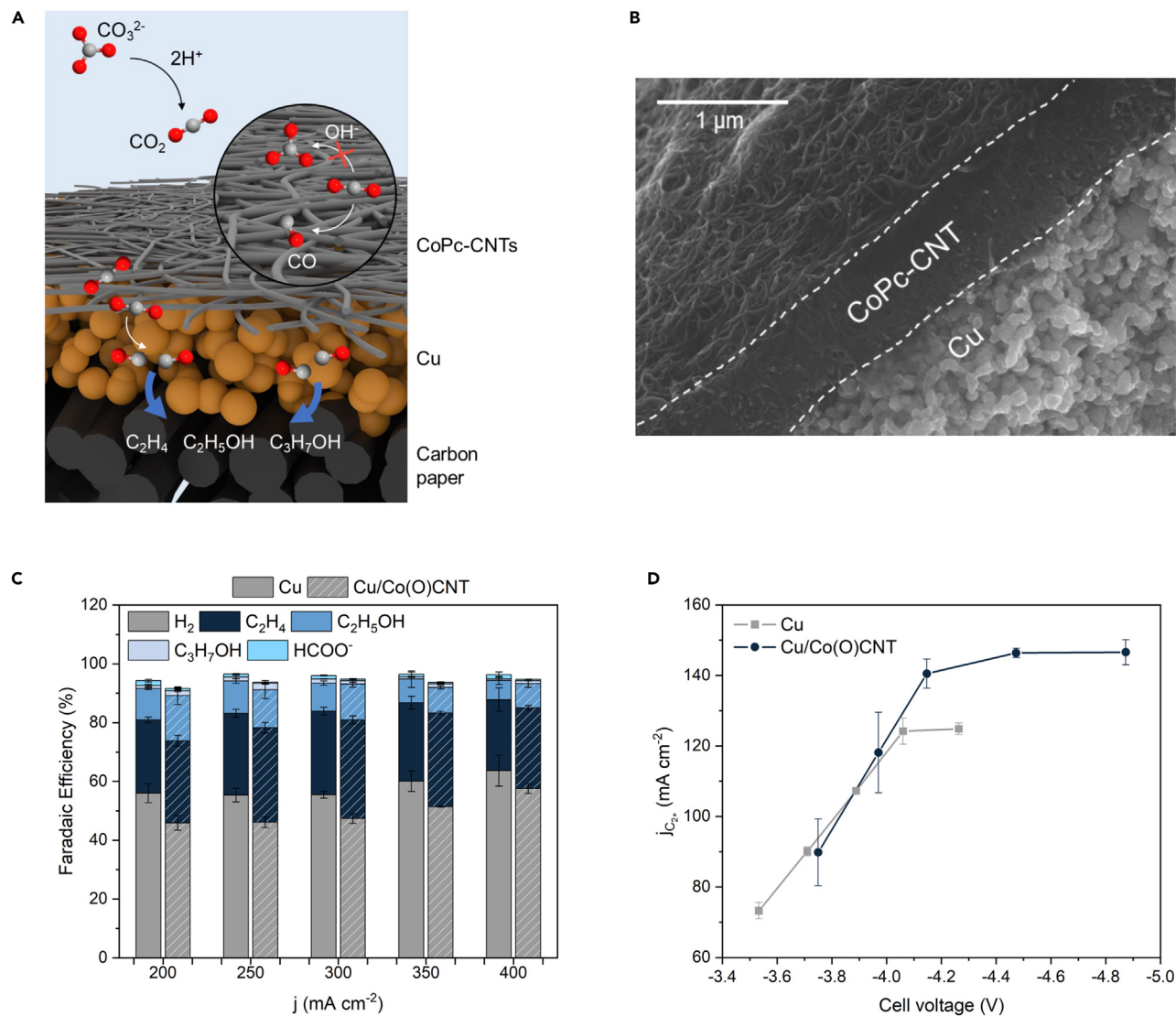


Figure 3. Electrochemical performance of improved catalyst for carbonate electrolysis

(A) Illustration of the improved catalyst depositing CoPc-CNTs layer onto Cu electrocatalyst.

(B) Scanning electron microscope image of Cu/CoPc-CNTs layer.

(C) Product distribution of control Cu electrocatalyst and Cu/CoPC-CNTs catalyst at applied current densities from 200 to 400 mA cm⁻². 1.5 M K₂CO₃ and 135 μm MCE membranes are used as the electrolyte and interposer, respectively. All experiments were repeated three times to enable reporting of the average and standard error.

(D) C₂₊ partial current density vs. full cell voltage for Cu electrocatalyst and Cu/CoPc-CNTs electrocatalyst. All experiments were repeated three times to enable reporting of the average and standard error.

sustained over 20 h (Figure 4B) at the current density of 200 mA cm⁻², with the C₂₊ FE consistently in the range of 36%–42%. The pH of reservoirs remains 11.8 for the absorber, 11.9 for the electrolyte, and 1.8 for the anolyte (Table S7). We found that after 10 h of operation, performance does show a decline (Figure 4B). We studied the cause, finding that the pore structure of the MCE membrane degrades in alkali solution, producing an increase of full cell voltage and hydrogen evolution reactions (HER). It will be important to seek interposer materials that are stable under relevant conditions.

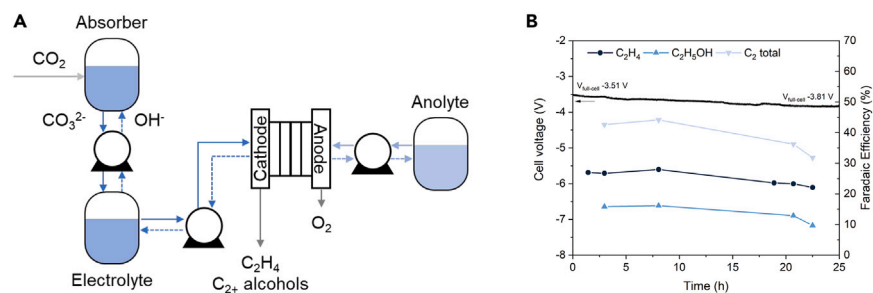


Figure 4. Extended operation with CO₂ capture liquid stream

(A) The schematic illustrates the process flow of the capture-and-electrolysis system. CO₂ is captured with 3 M KOH at the absorber until the pH of the solution reaches to ~12, and the capture liquid, K₂CO₃, is fed to the electrolyzer. The lean capture liquid, KOH, returns to the absorber.

(B) Long-term operation for the capture-and-electrolysis system. The experiment was performed with a Cu/CoPc-CNTs electrocatalyst and 135 μm interposer. Cell voltage and Faradaic efficiency of C₂H₄, C₂H₅OH, and C₂₊ products are noted during the operation.

Economic assessments of carbonate electrolysis

In Table 1, we offer an analysis that also estimates energy costs—associated with upstream generation for the gas-phase CO₂ and carbonate capture solutions, electrolysis, separation, and carbonate regeneration—in systems including alkaline CO₂ electrolysis,³¹ neutral CO₂ electrolysis in a membrane electrode assembly (MEA),³⁷ and acidic CO₂ electrolysis²³ vs. this present work (details in Note S8). Both the gaseous CO₂ approaches in alkaline and neutral conditions experience a CO₂ utilization limit (≤25%) since CO₂ gas is lost to carbonate formation, and carbonate crosses over to the anodic side during electrolysis.^{19,38} The product gas stream is diluted by unreacted CO₂ for all gas-phase CO₂ approaches. In comparison, the carbonate electrolysis system generates a product stream that does not contain CO₂.

As is now well-established, alkaline electrolysis leads to a high rate of CO₂ loss—typically 95% is lost to carbonate and unreacted form—leading to an estimated 310 GJ/tonne of C₂H₄ for regeneration/separation energy costs. This cost is equal to 7× the lower heating value (LHV) of C₂H₄.

Neutral CO₂RR still produces a high CO₂ stream in the cathodic outlet and this necessitates ~60 GJ/tonne of C₂H₄ investment in CO₂ separation from the cathode. Furthermore, CO₂ crossover mandates a separation of the O₂-containing stream in the anodic outlet contributing to ~60 GJ/tonne of C₂H₄ of separation energy cost. The total separation cost is equal to 2× the LHV of C₂H₄.

The acidic CO₂RR system enables an estimated decrease in product separation cost to ~18 GJ/tonne of C₂H₄ with a high CO₂ utilization efficiency of ~76%. Unlike alkaline and neutral CO₂RR, no CO₂ is lost as carbonate formation and crossover, eliminating the need for processes to regenerate the carbonate or crossover CO₂. However, there is a trade-off between FE and CO₂ utilization in presently available acidic CO₂RR systems,^{21,23} with these systems still requiring energy-intensive DAC to generate gaseous CO₂ costing roughly ~28 GJ/tonne of C₂H₄.

In contrast, the carbonate electrolysis to the C₂H₄ system produces a CO₂ concentration that is undetectable in the cathode stream. This obviates the energy needed to separate CO₂ and C₂H₄. What remains is 2 GJ/tonne of C₂H₄ to remove H₂ and H₂O from the cathodic outlet stream. The low separation cost originates from the high concentration of C₂H₄ and the absence of CO₂. Furthermore, the system lowers the upstream generation cost by a factor of ~10 by bypassing the thermal swing of DAC.

We note the need to improve further the energy efficiency of the reactive capture electrolyzer itself. We offer that further studies of *in situ* CO₂ diffusion in the interposer, and further advances in interposer/electrocatalyst design, may contribute toward this goal.

DISCUSSION

Interposer and catalyst joint design enabled us herein to electroproduce 56 wt % C₂H₄ from a carbonate solution with no detected CO₂ in the gas stream. To achieve this result, we focused on local pH and reactant concentration as metrics driving the performance of an electrochemical reactive capture system. The carbonate electrolysis system produces a gas stream that is undiluted by CO₂ and accomplishes complete CO₂ utilization, reducing regeneration/separation costs.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Resource availability

Lead contact

Further information and requests for resources should be directed to and will be fulfilled by the lead contact, Edward Sargent (ted.sargent@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.

Catalyst preparation

All reagents used in this work were purchased from suppliers without further purification. Cu catalysts (US Research Nanomaterials) were prepared by spray-coating Cu nanoparticle ink onto carbon paper (Freudenberg H23, Fuel Cell Store). Cu nanoparticles (80 mg) were dispersed in a mixture of 12 mL methanol and 160 μ L Nafion solution and then sonicated for 3 h. The Cu nanoparticle ink was spray-coated on the carbon paper with a loading of \sim 4 mg/cm² and dried under atmospheric conditions. The Cu catalysts were used for electrochemical characterization for carbonate electrolysis in a MEA cell.

For simulated carbonate electrolysis experiments in a flow cell, Cu catalysts were prepared by spray-coating Cu nanoparticles onto a polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE) substrate (450 nm pore size). Cu nanoparticles (80 mg) were dispersed in a mixture of 12 mL methanol and 160 μ L Nafion solution and then sonicated for 3 h. The Cu nanoparticle ink was spray-coated on the PTFE substrate with a loading of \sim 4 mg/cm² and dried under atmospheric conditions.

Cobalt phthalocyanines (CoPc), carboxylic acid-functionalized carbon nanotubes (CNTs), and dimethylformamide (DMF) were purchased from Sigma Aldrich and used without further treatment. CoPc-CNTs catalyst was synthesized with modification from the previous report.³⁵ 30 mg of carboxylic acid-functionalized CNTs were dispersed in DMF (20 mL, solution 1) and sonicated for 1 h. A calculated amount of CoPc was dispersed in DMF (20 mL, solution 2) and sonicated for 1 h. Solutions 1 and 2 were mixed and sonicated for 30 min. After sonication, the mixture solution was stirred for 24 h at room temperature. CoPc-CNTs were centrifuged and washed with DMF, ethanol, and H₂O, followed by freeze drying to obtain the final catalyst material.

CoPc-CNTs/Cu catalysts were prepared by spray-coating on the prepared Cu/carbon paper. CoPc-CNTs were dispersed in a mixture of 3 mL ethanol and 50 μ L Nafion solution and then sonicated for 1 h. The CoPc-CNTs nanoparticle ink was spray-coated on the Cu/carbon paper with a loading of ~ 0.3 mg/cm² and dried under atmospheric conditions.

Electrochemical performance

Electrochemical data were collected using an electrochemical station (PGSTAT204) in an MEA system and a flow cell system. All experiments were repeated three times to enable reporting of the average and standard error. Electrolysis was maintained for at least 30 min prior to collecting gas and liquid samples. For the MEA system with carbonate electrolysis, the as-prepared Cu/carbon paper catalyst was used as the cathode in varying the distances between the cathode and a CEM: 0, 135, 270, and 540 μ m with MCE membrane and varying catholyte: 0.5, 1, 1.5, and 2 M of K₂CO₃. The anolyte was a 0.5 M H₂SO₄ solution. Titanium foam-supported iridium oxide (IrO_x/Ti) was used as the anode OER catalyst. Nafion 117 membrane was used to separate the two electrodes. The catholyte and anolyte were circulated using a peristaltic pump.

For the simulated carbonate electrolysis in a flow cell, the as-prepared Cu/PTFE catalyst was used as the working electrode in the catholyte (1.5 M of K₂CO₃) in varying gas-phase CO₂ partial pressure in the N₂ stream, maintaining the total flow rate of 50 sccm and gas-phase CO₂ flow rate. The anolyte was always a 1 M KOH solution. Ni foam and 3 M Ag/AgCl were used as the anode and reference electrodes, respectively. An anion exchange membrane (Fumasep FAA-3-PK-130) was used to separate the cathode and the anode. The catholyte and anolyte were circulated using a peristaltic pump.

The gas-phase products were analyzed using GC (Shimadzu 2014, PerkinElmer Clarus 580) equipped with a thermal conductivity detector (TCD) and a flame ionization detector (FID). All measurements were repeated three times to report the average and standard error. The liquid phase products were analyzed with a 600 MHz Agilent DD2 ¹H NMR.

The detection limit of GC for gas-phase products (CO and CH₄) is measured by varying the concentration of gas in the CO₂ stream. The ppm level of the gas-phase product is injected three times. The area of a peak is linearly correlated to the concentration when the area value is plotted at the y axis, and the concentration is at the x axis. The intercept of the x axis represents the detection limits of gas concentration. The detection limit of CO₂ is measured by injecting a different air volume from 1 to 5 mL. The CO₂ concentration in the air is assumed at 400 ppm.

Material characterization

The Cu/CoPc-CNTs catalyst morphology was characterized by field emission SEM (Hitachi, SU5000). The surface composition was analyzed with ThermoFisher Scientific K-alpha XPS using Al K α X-ray radiation. XPS spectra were calibrated with the C 1s peak at 284.5 eV. SEM-EDS was conducted by JEOL JSM-7900FLV SEM at an accelerating voltage of 10 kV with backscattered electron detection, which is equipped with a light-element X-ray detector and an Oxford Aztec energy-dispersive X-ray analysis system.

Fluorescence measurements

For the simulated interposer system in a H-cell, a carbon paper, Pt mesh, and Ag/AgCl reference electrode were used as the working, counter, and reference electrodes, respectively. 0.2 M K₂CO₃ and 0.5 M H₂SO₄ electrolytes were used as a catholyte and an anolyte, respectively. Nafion 117 membrane was used to separate the cathode

part and the anode part. Molecular Probes LysoSensor Green DND 189 (LSG) was used to measure a pH range of 1–6, and 5(6)-carboxynaphthofluorescein (CNF) was used to measure neutral and alkaline pH from 6 to 14. Using 365 nm of UV light, the fluorescence emissions were collected with a spectrometer (Ocean Optics, QE Pro).

Stability test

Two reservoirs were connected by peristaltic pumps (Figure S17). CO₂ is purged into the absorber with 3 M KOH until the pH of the solution reaches to ~12, and an electrolyte reservoir provides the carbonate solution to the electrolyzer. The carbonate electrolyte is pumped to the MEA cell with no gas purging. The regenerated KOH solution returns to the absorber, where it captures CO₂ in the form of CO₃²⁻. The gas products from the electrolyte reservoir were monitored with GC injection.

SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION

Supplemental information can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.joule.2023.05.003>.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

E.S. supervised the work. G.L. contributed to the main idea and designed experiments. A.S.R. contributed to multiphysic modeling. B.-H.L. fabricated the electrocatalyst and contributed to material characterization. J.Z., D.H.W., and Y.C.X. contributed to the electrochemical experiments. J.P.E. and Y.Z. performed the energy analysis. M.G.L. conducted C13 labeling experiments. E.D.J. conducted local pH measurements. J.A., S.P., and H.L. conducted material characterization. F.A. performed voltage breakdown analysis. T.A. and S.L. assisted in the multiphysic modeling. I.G., R.K.M., R.D., C.P.O., Z.C., and D.S. contributed to data analysis and manuscript preparation.

DECLARATION OF INTERESTS

The authors declare no competing interests.

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