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Enabling technologies for the continuous electrically driven conversion of CO₂ and water to multi-carbon products at high current densities†

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Herein, we demonstrate greatly improved conversion of CO₂ using a gas diffusion electrode (GDE) with flowing electrolyte configuration for CO₂ gas delivery in combination with a high surface area nickel phosphide electrocatalyst. This configuration achieves 40–50% selectivity for total carbon products over H₂ formation (HER) at total current densities ranging from 50 to 300 mA cm⁻². We developed a soft-templating method using CTAB detergent micelles for synthesis of phase-pure Ni₂P, achieving a 260-fold larger surface area (BET) and porous sponge-like morphology that produces stable currents. This catalyst produces mainly one C-product, methylglyoxal (MG, C₃H₄O₂) with 38–47% overall selectivity, the highest reported selectivity for a 12-electron reduction product. The versatile soft-templating method for electrocatalyst synthesis uses low-temperature (185 °C) that is permissive for incorporation of co-catalysts that are otherwise destroyed by the high temperatures used in traditional solid-state synthesis (SSS). The non-porous Ni₂P-SSS catalyst produces mainly H₂ at these current densities. Achieving these high currents and C/H selectivity benefits from use of hydrophobic polymers as co-catalyst binders (cationic = Nafion, anionic = PFAEM and neutral = PTFE) to improve CO₂ conversion. PFAEM is the better ionomer for the CO₂RR at high current density, postulated as due to suppressing CO₂ conversion to inactive bicarbonate. Precipitation of the carbon products as a polycarbonate polymer occurs at high currents.

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Introduction

Electrocatalytic reduction of carbon dioxide (CO₂RR) can currently produce simple C₁, C₂, C₃ and C₄ carbon products in small scale research reactors under benign reaction conditions. Scaling up of this technology to produce multi-carbon products is widely sought as it would help mitigate environmental and climate problems posed by steadily increasing atmospheric CO₂ caused by the use of petrochemicals and fossil fuels. The CO₂RR is a scalable carbon-negative technology when coupled with renewable electricity as the power source and abundant water as the hydrogen source.¹ However, these reactions occur in competition with the electroreduction of water to hydrogen (HER) in aqueous solutions and remains an open challenge. For

many simple metal catalysts, the dominant carbon products are C₁ mixtures (*e.g.*, CO, CH₄, and CH₃OH) with electrical conversion efficiency, termed faradaic efficiency (FE), approaching 90%. These catalysts require the use of scarce noble metals: Au, Ag, Pd, *etc.*^{2–5} Other noble-metal-free catalysts, *e.g.*, Cu, Ni, Sn, Bi, Co, or carbon-based materials, are important alternatives, but suffer from high overpotentials, producing a mixture of products at low current densities and with low FEs.^{4,6–9} In contrast to simple elements, binary and higher-stoichiometry compounds are emerging that show major improvements in overall CO₂RR performance to multi-carbon products.^{10–13} Such compounds potentially allow greater flexibility to control both the electronic degrees of freedom and the acid/base groups essential for catalysis of the various bond rearrangement steps needed to produce complex products. For example, Koper *et al.* investigated PdAu alloys for CO₂ reduction to C₁ to C₅ hydrocarbons, albeit the highest faradaic efficiency toward C₅ product was only 0.07%.¹⁴ Sargent *et al.* also demonstrated that introducing positive valence sites in a Cu electrocatalyst *via* boron doping allowed FE for C₂ products up to 80% at current densities <100 mA cm⁻².¹⁵ In an alternative approach, a FE of 62% towards various C₂ and C₃ products at a total current density of 300 mA cm⁻² was achieved but required two-step cascade operation with the Ag catalyst first converting CO₂ to

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CO followed by the Cu catalyst reducing CO to multi-carbon products.¹⁶ Though such advances are continuously overcoming the present limitations, controlling the reaction selectivity to a high molecular-weight product at high current density in a single-step remains a major unsolved challenge for commercial applications.

Influenced by nature's exclusive use of Ni and group 15 conjugated ligands in the active sites of the exergonic class of CO₂-fixing enzymes found in acetogenic and methanogenic bacteria, our group adapted this chemistry to examine the nickel phosphide compounds (Ni_xP_y) as HER and CO₂RR electrocatalysts.^{17–20} Among the five Ni_xP_y crystalline phases investigated so far, all react with CO₂ in water to form identical products but with different amounts: C₁ (formic acid), C₃ (methylglyoxal) or C₄ (2,3-furandiol). The relative amounts of the C₁, C₃ and C₄ products have been previously shown to form on Ni₂P and Fe₂P exclusively by the formate pathway (no CO as the intermediate).^{17,18} The proposed mechanism involves two successive hydride transfers to produce formate then formaldehyde, followed by two successive aldol couplings with formaldehyde and dehydration to form methylglyoxal, followed by enolization and another aldol coupling to form 2,3-furandiol.¹⁸ The Ni₂P and NiP₂ catalysts exhibit unprecedented FEs approaching 99% for total C-products. Although, this performance was observed at applied potentials close to the reversible hydrogen electrode (RHE) where current densities are intrinsically low, and the reactions reach a steady-state distribution of products.

The formation of surface hydrides (*H⁻) on transition metal phosphides in water is essential to favor the formate pathway. Their chemistry has been studied both experimentally and theoretically.^{17–23} Grand Canonical-DFT (GC-DFT) calculations and experiments have revealed that *formate, not *CO, is the initial intermediate that is formed from surface phosphino-hydrides on Fe₂P, analogous to the mechanism on isostructural Ni₂P.¹⁷ Additional reports have predicted surface hydride transfer steps, along with surface-mediated C–C coupling to be essential for the selectivity towards multi-carbon products on Ni₂P catalysts.^{21–23}

Here we examine two strategies to increase the overall CO₂RR performance by increasing the surface density of catalytic sites (surface area) and adoption of a flow design that circulates CO₂ to the catalyst surface. We report a soft-templating (-ST) synthesis to produce high surface area Ni₂P and demonstrate its significantly improved CO₂RR performance *vs.* H₂ production, improved methylglyoxal selectivity and stable operation at commercially relevant current densities in a gas/liquid flow cell design. We compare this to a non-porous Ni₂P catalyst synthesized *via* solid state synthesis (-SSS) and demonstrate that its C/H selectivity becomes strongly limited by CO₂ mass transport with increasing current densities. We illustrate the influence on C/H product selectivity of using three distinct hydrophobic polymers to bind the Ni₂P catalyst to the cathode of a gas diffusion electrode (GDE) in a flow cell. The combination of the high surface area Ni₂P catalyst operating in a flow-cell with a GDE enables continuous production of CO₂RR products with FE up to 47% and total current densities ranging from 50 to 300 mA cm⁻². The selectivity on Ni₂P at these high

current densities shifts to methylglyoxal as the main carbon product, offering even greater value for production of this major chemical feedstock. This 12-electron reduction product and ~24 mA cm⁻² partial current density is, to the best of our knowledge, the highest electrochemical conversion efficiency to a C₃ product in the literature.

Experimental

Soft-templating synthesis procedure

In a typical synthesis, cetyltrimethylammonium bromide (CTAB = 1.5 g) or sodium monododecyl phosphate (SMDP = 1.5 g) was stirred (700 RPM) in a water (100 mL) and cyclohexane (100 mL) mixture. After 15 min of stirring, 1-hexanol (10 mL) was added dropwise. The resulting solution was further stirred for 30 min at room temperature followed by addition of nickel(II) chloride hexahydrate salt (10 g) and red phosphorus (12 g). The resulting solution was transferred into a Teflon-sealed autoclave reactor and was heated to 185 °C for 24 h. After completion of the reaction, the mixture was allowed to cool down to room temperature. The black solid product formed was isolated by centrifugation and unreacted species including surfactant molecules were removed by washing with water (until the supernatant is a clear solution). The isolated product was further washed with 3% HCl to remove the surface phosphate/oxide species, followed by ethanol wash in the end. The as-synthesized materials were dried at 60 °C for 6 h and termed Ni₂P-CTAB and Ni₂P-SMDP.

Solid state synthesis procedure

Nickel (Ni) metal powder was mixed with red phosphorus (P) in a mortar and pestle for 15 min and transferred to a quartz tube, then flushed with argon and evacuated to less than 100 mTorr three times. The evacuated quartz tube contained 5 grams of sample, which was sealed and heated at a rate of 0.5 °C min⁻¹ stepwise (350 °C, 450 °C, and 550 °C) to 750 °C. The temperature was maintained for 6 h at each intermediate step, and 24 h at the final temperature. The as-synthesized material was termed Ni₂P-SSS.

HER measurements

All solutions were prepared using Millipore water. A three-electrode setup, with a porous glass frit separating the working and counter compartments, was used for the HER measurements. To avoid the possibility of Pt contamination during stability measurements, a B-doped diamond electrode was used as a counter electrode. Hg/HgSO₄ was used as the reference electrode. The working compartment was purged with 1 atm. H₂ prior to and during the measurements. All electrochemical potentials are reported *vs.* the reversible hydrogen electrode (RHE) by measuring the open circuit potential of a clean Pt electrode under 1 atm. H₂ in 0.5 M H₂SO₄.

Flow cell setup for the CO₂RR

A custom-built cathode with 25 cm² active area was used to evaluate the performance and durability of the electrochemical

reduction of CO₂.²⁴ A commercial bipolar membrane (BPM) (FBM, Fumatech GmbH, FuelCellStore) was placed right next to the Ni foam in reverse-bias mode with the cation exchange layer (CEL) and the anion exchange layer (AEL) facing the cathode and anode, respectively. A catholyte flow channel was created within the PTFE gasket measuring 1.27 mm right next to the CEL of the BPM. A cathode GDE with 25 cm² active area was placed against the cathode flow field sealed with PTFE gaskets and was compressed to 18% once the cell was tightened to 40 inch-pound. The endplates of the cell were heated to 60 °C and kept constant for all experiments. The flow plates for the cathode and anode were made from Ti and had a 25 cm² area of triple serpentine flow channels. CO₂ heated to 60 °C was delivered to the cathode GDE through the cathode flow plate at a constant flow rate of 2 NLPM. 1 M potassium hydroxide (KOH) electrolyte made by dissolving KOH pellets (certified ACS, VWR) in deionized water was heated to 60 °C and fed to the anode flow plate at 50 mL min⁻¹. 0.4 M potassium sulfate (K₂SO₄) made by dissolving K₂SO₄ (ACS reagent 99.7% Sigma Aldrich) powder in deionized water was fed to the catholyte layer at 40 mL min⁻¹.

Results and discussion

We chose the Ni₂P phase of nickel phosphides as the catalyst for this investigation as we previously found that Ni₂P-SSS exhibits a FE of 99% for the CO₂RR with the highest for methylglyoxal and 2,3-furandiol (26% and 71% at 0 V vs. RHE, respectively).¹⁸ In order to produce a high surface area catalyst and a small crystallite size, we used a liquid-phase soft-templating strategy that uses surfactant molecules to control the reaction volume and morphology. These variables are controlled by selection of the surfactant packing parameter, which in turn depends upon the volume and length of the non-polar template chains and the effective area of the polar head.²⁵ Two -ST catalysts were prepared hydrothermally by heating nickel chloride (NiCl₂·6H₂O) and red phosphorus to 185 °C for 24 hours in the microemulsion formed using either cetyltrimethylammonium bromide (CTAB) or sodium monododecyl phosphate (SMDP) as surfactant molecules, cyclohexane, 1-hexanol and water. The ratio between the surfactant and solvents was optimized such that micelles adopted the inverted structure known as the L₂ phase in the Gibb's phase diagram of CTAB/1-hexanol/water systems.²⁶ Formation of a lamellar micelle structure under our chosen conditions of temperature and pressure has been proposed by Monson *et al.* from molecular dynamics simulations.²⁷ Upon heating, nucleation of precursors occurs in the aqueous compartment of the lamellar micelle structure, and growth is confined to this space.

Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) analysis of both catalysts indicates that CTAB results in a material with interconnected pores of variable pore size from 50 nm to 150 nm, and variable pore separation from 30 nm to 200 nm (Fig. 1a). By contrast, SMDP forms irregular shaped particles with size ranging from 50 to 300 nm and a distinctive rough surface morphology (Fig. 1b). For comparison to our previous benchmark, we also synthesized Ni₂P-SSS by reacting stoichiometric amounts of red phosphorus with Ni powder at 750 °C in

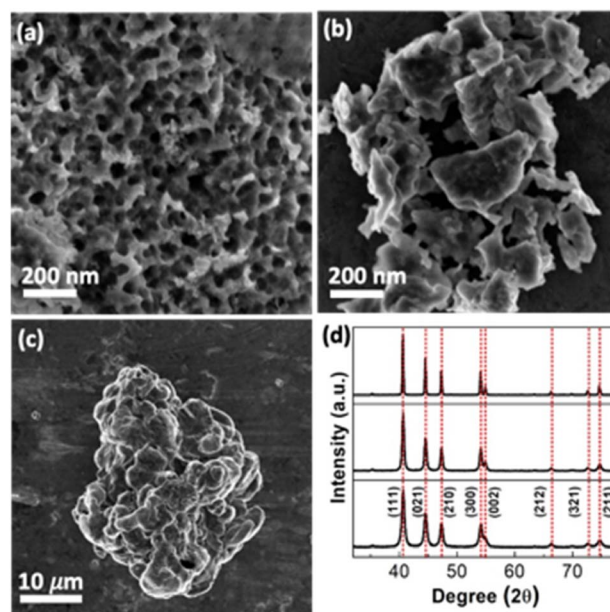


Fig. 1 (a) SEM image of Ni₂P-CTAB, (b) Ni₂P-SMDP, and (c) Ni₂P-SSS catalysts. (d) PXRD pattern of these three Ni₂P catalysts, ordered bottom to top, respectively.

a vacuum (Fig. 1c). Careful control of this ratio and mixing is critical to achieving single phase purity and elimination of the unreacted material. After synthesis, the Ni₂P-SSS powder was washed with 3% HCl to remove any soluble phosphate species. Ni₂P-SSS consists of larger particles with an average size ranging from 2–6 μm, which significantly limits the effective surface area. The phase purity and crystallinity of all the Ni₂P catalysts were confirmed using powder-ray diffraction, PXRD (Fig. 1d). The major peaks at 40.6°, 44.5°, 47.2°, 54.1°, 54.9°, 66.3°, 72.6° and 74.6° corresponded to the (111), (021), (210), (300), (002), (212), (321) and (211) lattice planes, matching exactly to the Ni₂P hexagonal crystal structure (ICSD reference pattern: PDF 03-065-3544). All three Ni₂P materials (SSS, CTAB, and SMDP) are polycrystalline in nature. Ni₂P adopts an ABAB layer arrangement along the [0001] direction of the crystal structure in which the alternating layers have stoichiometric Ni₃P₂ and Ni₃P.²⁸ Experiments on Ni₂P single crystals^{29,30} and DFT calculations,³¹ indicate that the hexagonal (0001) surface is terminated with P adatoms (Ni₃P-P) that stabilize the surface bonding to three fold Ni atoms. Recent ³¹P solid-state NMR studies, combined with HRTEM, XRD crystal structure analysis and DFT-calculations of Ni₂P nanoparticles have identified the individual crystal facets that terminate the surfaces of Ni₂P nanoparticles as the (0001) and the (10 $\bar{1}$ 0) facets, with the former being the dominant terminating surface of the ultrathin nanoparticles.³² As the nanoparticles grow in size, the (1010) facets prevail, indicating that nanoparticles grow along the [0001] zone axis, exposing predominately lateral (1010) surfaces. These studies agree with earlier first principles thermodynamic studies showing that the equilibrium morphology of Ni₂P nanoparticles and nanowires exposes predominantly the (0001)

Table 1 Particle size (from PXRD and SEM), N₂ gas porosity (from BET), and roughness factor of the Ni₂P catalysts

Catalyst	PXRD crystallite size from the Scherrer equation (nm)	BET surface area (m ² g ⁻¹)	SEM particle size range (nm)	Roughness factor (cm ² cm _{geo} ⁻²)
Ni ₂ P-SSS	>50	0.1	2000–6000	220
Ni ₂ P-SMDP	16	5	50–400	689
Ni ₂ P-CTAB	12	26	30–200	720

and (10 $\bar{1}$ 0) facets and less frequently either the (101 $\bar{1}$) or (1 $\bar{1}$ 20) facets, respectively.

Table 1 lists the average crystallite size as obtained from the Scherrer equation, molecular surface area as determined by cryogenic N₂ gas adsorption using the BET method, and the roughness factor as determined by dividing the ECSA by the geometric area.

Influence of surface area on the HER

To study the effect of high surface area on the intrinsic activity of Ni₂P catalysts and subsequently to select a catalyst for the CO₂RR, we first evaluated the three catalysts for the HER in 0.5 M H₂SO₄ solution. For this comparison, a pressed pellet electrode configuration was preferred over the electrodes prepared by air brushing of inks or drop-casting the active catalyst on to the conductive support, due to its higher mechanical stability and reproducible results at various current densities. The addition of Nafion improved the proton conduction to the catalyst surface and provided better mechanical stability during H₂(g) generation at high current densities. Fig. 2a illustrates the *iR*-compensated polarization curves of different Ni₂P catalysts. As shown, the cathodic current at any given potential for Ni₂P-CTAB is significantly

higher compared to that of SMDP, and SSS. Steady-state activity and electrode degradation (dissolution of the active material in the solution) were investigated by chronopotentiometric (CP) electrolysis at –10 mA cm⁻² and ICP-OES, respectively. Fig. 2b shows the time dependence of the CP potential of unconditioned pellet electrodes. All the Ni₂P catalysts exhibit an initial activation period (*t* < 2–3 h), after which there is no considerable change in catalytic activity as observed throughout the CP measurement study. Pre-activation was previously shown to arise from the reduction of surface phosphorus oxides and nickel oxides present on the catalysts which dissolve in the acidic solution, as evidenced by XPS (Fig. S1†).¹⁹ Table S1† illustrates the percentage of Ni leached in the solution as studied by ICP-OES over the 16 h of CP electrolysis. These results show that Ni₂P catalysts can be used for longer durations as an infinitesimal amount (<0.3%) of Ni leaches into the catalytic solution without significant loss of activity or structural stability. The amount of Ni that leaches is consistent with the surface oxides that get reduced and occurs on the first pass only.¹⁹ A lower amount of Ni leaches (<0.02%) for the SSS catalyst which can be attributed to its lower surface area.

To confirm that the observed HER activity is due to the Ni₂P catalyst, rather than any potential contaminant from epoxy or silver used during electrode fabrication, SEM-EDS analysis was performed on the spent electrode. As seen in Fig. S2,† in addition to the aluminum peak arising from the SEM holder, only elemental Ni and P peaks are observed. The HER overpotential of Ni₂P-CTAB is 80 mV at a current density of 10 mA cm⁻², which is lower than those of SMDP (103 mV) and SSS (140 mV). Noting that the amount of cathodic current density is proportional to the amount of hydrogen evolved, Fig. 2c summarizes the overpotentials of the three Ni₂P catalysts at 100 mA cm⁻² (210, 240, and 300 mV, respectively). Tafel slopes were further determined at low current densities below the onset of diffusion limitations (Fig. 2d). Tafel slopes are comparable for all three catalysts at 71, 72 and 76 mV dec⁻¹ for Ni₂P-CTAB, -SMDP and -SSS catalysts, respectively. Similar Tafel slopes for the Ni₂P phase have been reported previously.^{33,34} These results highlight that the soft-templating strategy with CTAB as the surfactant molecule produces the Ni₂P catalyst that achieves significantly lower overpotentials at commercially useful current densities. Accordingly, we focused on Ni₂P-CTAB for further CO₂RR studies.

Batch cell electrocatalysis

For comparison with historical data,¹⁸ we used a planar cathode geometry in a custom-made batch cell at low current densities

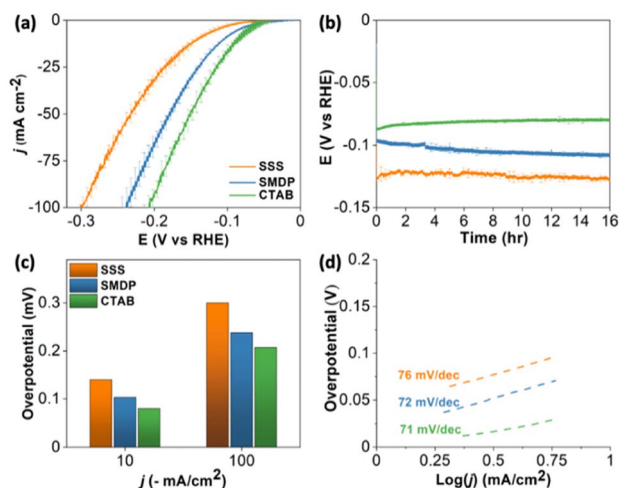


Fig. 2 Electrochemical analyses of the three Ni₂P catalysts under HER conditions at ambient pressure and temperature in 0.5 M H₂SO₄ solution (pH 0). The working compartment was purged with 1 atm. H₂ prior to and during the measurements. (a) Voltammetry at 1 mV s⁻¹, (b) chronopotentiometry analysis at –10 mA cm⁻², (c) overpotential values measured at –10 and –100 mA cm⁻², and (d) Tafel slopes measured below 0.75 mA cm⁻².

where CO₂ transport is not current limiting. Detailed description of the batch cell reactor suitable for low current densities and small volumes (8 mL) can be found elsewhere.¹⁸ 0.5 M KHCO₃ was used as the electrolyte for these studies as it acts as pH buffer during the catalysis as well as a proton donor. As can be seen from Fig. 3a, the total current density (CO₂RR + HER) increases from 0 to -0.3 V vs. RHE for both ionomers (average slope = 14 mA V⁻¹). The Nafion ionomer achieves slightly larger total current density than the PFAEM ionomer, although both are below 5 mA cm⁻². This compares to a total current density of 0.25 mA cm⁻² that we previously reported using a similar Ni₂P-SSS preparation in the same ionomer (Nafion), buffer and pH.¹⁸ This 20-fold improvement in current density at 0 V vs. RHE is attributed to the high surface area Ni₂P-CTAB catalyst compared to the non-porous SSS catalyst. The corresponding FE (Fig. 3b) shows that essentially all current goes into CO₂RR products using the Ni₂P-CTAB catalyst with methylglyoxal attaining 97% in the PFAEM ionomer and 85% in the Nafion ionomer at 0 V vs. RHE. Formic acid and 2,3-furandiol were the other liquid products formed, though their combined FE never exceeded 5% at any potential (Fig. 3b). Identification and quantification of carbon products was done by two methods:¹⁸ from retention

times and integration of LC peaks (Fig. S3† shows the representative chromatograph for a CO₂RR sample) and from ¹H NMR chemical shifts and multiplet-splittings (Fig. S4†). In conclusion, the increased surface area of Ni₂P-CTAB enables a >20-fold increase in current density into CO₂RR products over the HER, while improving the carbon selectivity into methylglyoxal (max. 97%) vs. the equivalent Ni₂P-SSS catalyst possessing 260 times lower BET surface area. The TOF of the major product, methylglyoxal, was calculated by taking the ratio of the moles of methylglyoxal formed during 16 h to the number of sites (see the ESI for the calculation†). Notably, Ni₂P-CTAB (TOF = 618 s⁻¹) showed 22 times higher activity than Ni₂P-SSS (TOF = 48.8 s⁻¹) measured under the same conditions in the batch cell at 0 V vs. RHE using the Nafion ionomer. This TOF is even 3 times higher than that of NiP₂-SSS (TOF = 204 s⁻¹) under other conditions, reported previously.¹⁸ The origin of the enhanced C-selectivity towards the methylglyoxal vs. furandiol products relative to the batch cell design may be associated with a change in the exposed crystal facets of Ni₂P-CTAB. This question was not addressed further.

At potentials 0, -0.1 and -0.3 V vs. RHE, a higher FE to CO₂RR products is observed using the PFAEM ionomer than using the Nafion ionomer (Fig. 3b). For the methylglyoxal product these are 97%, 85% and 25%, respectively. As the potential increases more negative than -0.1 V, the HER increases substantially although less HER occurs with PFAEM than with Nafion, as expected. This relative shift to the HER at higher current density is due to an increase in the local pH which results in conversion of locally dissolved CO₂ at the electrode surface to the unreactive bicarbonate form (*vide supra*). This agrees with our earlier results on Ni₂P-SSS where even at lower current densities the HER takes over the CO₂RR in buffered bicarbonate electrolyte on all five Ni_xP_y catalysts.¹⁸ This interpretation of the consequence of the shift to the HER on the CO₂RR rate is also seen in the partial current densities for the three major CO₂RR products shown in Fig. 3c (formic acid), Fig. 3d (methylglyoxal) and Fig. 3e (2,3-furandiol). Here we see that the PFAEM ionomer overtakes Nafion as the preferred ionomer for all three products at potentials more negative than -0.1 V where the HER increases rapidly. Notably, when Ni₂P-CTAB with the Nafion ionomer as the binder is evaluated in the batch cell reactor at 100 mA cm⁻², we observe the deposition of a white polymeric product on the cathode (Fig. 3f). The H₂ FE is found to be 94% while the only liquid product, methylglyoxal has a 2% FE (Fig. S5†). Hence, the remaining FE (4%) was attributed to polymer formation. The obtained polymer was isolated and is discussed in the next section. The FTIR spectrum and functional group assignments are depicted in Fig. 5.

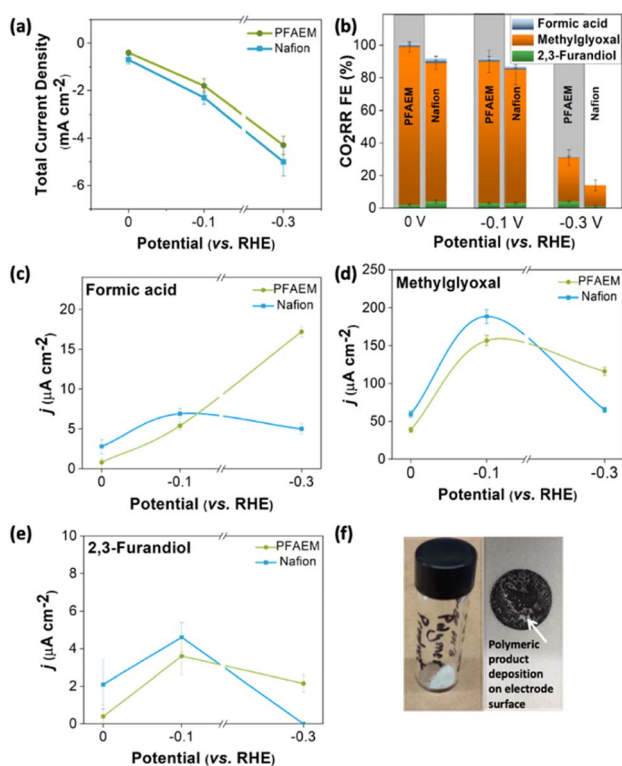


Fig. 3 Electrolysis in the batch reactor using a pressed pellet of the ionomer plus Ni₂P-CTAB catalyst measured in 0.5 M KHCO₃ (pH = 7.5) with CO₂ bubbling: (a) total current density, and (b) faradaic efficiency of the Ni₂P-CTAB catalyst with PFAEM (grey shaded) and Nafion as the ionomers at various potentials. Partial current densities (PFAEM = green and Nafion = blue) for (c) formic acid, (d) methylglyoxal, and (e) 2,3-furandiol at various potentials. (f) A solid white polymer product is deposited on the cathode at 100 mA cm⁻² in the batch cell (see the inset).

Flow-cell electrocatalysis

The CO₂RR performance in stirred batch reactors at applied potentials close to the RHE is intrinsically low, while at higher applied potentials CO_{2(aq)} transport through the electrolyte becomes rate-limiting and favors the HER. Hence, to fully take advantage of the 260-times higher BET surface area and to overcome the limitations of the batch reactor, we examined the

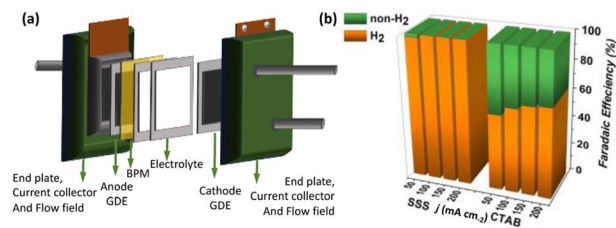


Fig. 4 (a) Electrolysis in a flow-cell using the GDE design. (b) The FE for the CO₂RR and HER on both Ni₂P-SSS and Ni₂P-CTAB in the flow cell (catalyst loading 0.5 mg cm⁻², PFAEM binder, catholyte 0.4 M K₂SO₄).

performance of Ni₂P catalysts supported on a GDE in a flow-cell design. The flow-cell reactor design (Fig. 4a) has been previously described in detail by Chen *et al.*²⁴ A bipolar membrane (BPM) was used in all the flow cell experiments to prevent the CO₂RR product crossover and to enable the use of separate electrolytes for the anode and cathode. In addition, we also anticipated to perform future reactions at different pH in which utilization of a BPM will be beneficial. The flow setup uses an aqueous electrolyte layer between the cation exchange layer of the membrane and the cathode. The cathode flow-field is composed of K₂SO₄

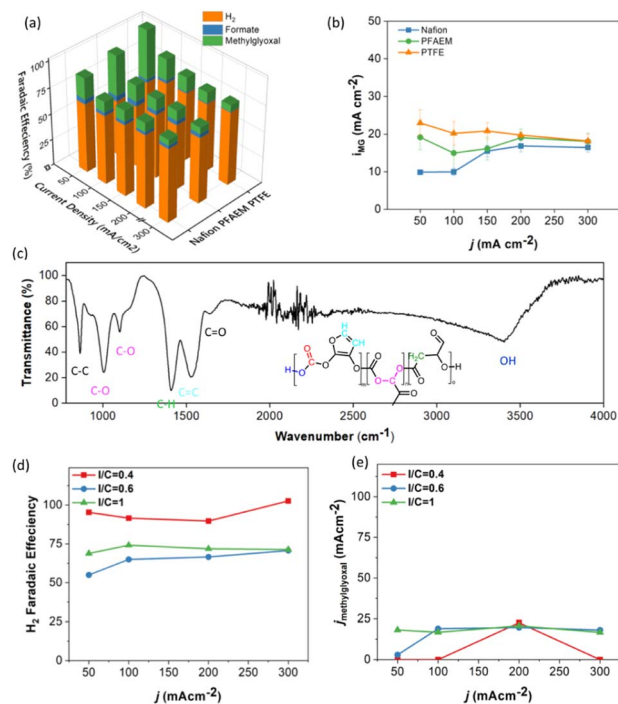


Fig. 5 (a) Faradaic efficiency for the CO₂RR products produced in the flow cell as a function of current density and type of binder used. The remaining faradaic efficiency is for the polymeric product formed (omitted for clarity). (b) Partial current density for methylglyoxal (major product) at various current densities and (c) ATR-FTIR spectrum of the polymeric product formed during the CO₂RR on Ni₂P catalysts. Functional group assignments are indicated based on the infrared database. (d) H₂ faradaic efficiencies and (e) methylglyoxal partial current density at various total current densities for different catalyst-ionomer ratios.

electrolyte with CO₂ gas flowing into the backside of the porous gas diffusion layer at a rate of 2 L min⁻¹. It is opposed by back pressure from the catholyte on the membrane side of the GDE. This flow field creates a gas-liquid-solid zone within the GDE that ideally brings CO₂ gas, water and aqueous protons (from the anode) to react together at the catalyst/ionomer interface. If this interface gets flooded with liquid electrolyte it will slow the delivery of CO_{2(aq)} to the catalyst at high current densities and possibly limit the CO₂RR current. If protons are blocked from reaching the catalyst, then the reactive hydrides that must form on the catalyst surface will be produced from reduction of water. The latter reaction produces hydroxide at the catalyst surface and reacts with CO_{2(aq)} to form inactive bicarbonate, resulting in possible loss of CO₂RR performance. In several cases, high CO₂ reactivity has been observed under alkaline conditions when CO₂ mass transport and dissolution at the electrode surface (CO_{2(aq)}) are both fully realized.³⁵⁻³⁷ Although, if these conditions are not met then high alkalinity created at high current density lowers the available CO₂ by forming inactive bicarbonate.³⁸ To avoid flooding of the GDL-catalyst layer and the resulting loss of CO₂RR current, several criteria need to be considered to balance the capillary force controlling the transport of liquid electrolyte from one side, and the CO₂ gas pressure controlling the concentration of dissolved (CO₂)_{aq} from the backside.³⁹ Accordingly, the performance of this flow-cell design depends on several other factors than the reactor design described above.

The Ni₂P-SSS catalyst produces CO₂RR products only at low current densities; the total carbon product FE = 2% at 50 mA cm⁻² (Fig. 4b), while at more negative potentials the current arises exclusively from hydrogen (>50 to 200 mA cm⁻²). By contrast, the Ni₂P-CTAB catalyst prepared with the same ionomer produces significantly more CO₂RR products over the entire range of currents from 50 to 200 mA cm⁻² and FE = 40–50%. The cell potentials needed to achieve these higher currents ranged from 3.06 V to 4.25 V. These results imply that CO₂ mass transport may limit the current density above 50 mA cm⁻² when using the low surface area, non-porous, SSS catalyst. Durability under electrolysis conditions is a shortcoming of all MEA-based CO₂ reduction demonstrations. However, the field has been making good progress in extending operational lifetimes. This same flow cell was used in an earlier report of formic acid production where initial durability was demonstrated for 11 hours,²⁴ and more recently, 24 hours of continuous operation has been achieved with moderate performance loss.⁴⁰ There is still a long way to go to realize the thousands of operational hours needed to be industrially relevant, but there is no known fundamental degradation mechanism that would prevent making progress toward this target through continued research and development.

Choice of ionomer-binder

We further optimized the choice of binder/ionomer within the GDE which determines the location and reactant accessibility at the gas-liquid-solid interface using the Ni₂P-CTAB catalyst. We examined a proton-conducting cationic ionomer (Nafion),

a hydroxide-conducting anionic ionomer (PFAEM) and a neutral polymer binder (PTFE). The flow cell configuration produces significantly higher total current densities for all ionomer/binder combinations, between 50 and 300 mA cm⁻², compared to the batch reactor (<5 mA cm⁻²) (Fig. 5). Analogous to the batch reactor, PFAEM achieves slightly higher performance compared to Nafion, while the neutral binder PTFE is intermediate between them (Fig. S6† highlights H₂ FE at various current densities with different binders). The total CO₂RR product FE using PFAEM changes relatively little between 50 mA cm⁻² (47%) and 300 mA cm⁻² (36%), indicating relatively stable CO₂RR production over this wide range (details in Table S2†). This FE corresponds to an almost 60-fold increase in current density over the batch reactor (30% FE to methylglyoxal at 5 mA cm⁻² total current, Fig. 3). The superior performance of PFAEM as the binder is consistent with the batch reactor results and we interpret it the same way; PFAEM lowers the alkalinity at the cathode surface caused by the HER, thus suppressing CO₂ hydrolysis by OH⁻ and leaving CO₂ available for reduction. The excellent performance of PTFE as the non-ionic binder in the GDE is ascribed to its hydrophobic properties, which we postulate serves to maintain the gas-liquid-solid interface needed for efficient CO₂ delivery to the catalyst.

Fig. 5a plots the FE for H₂, formate and methylglyoxal, the major soluble products, as a function of the current densities and different binders. Although identical products are formed in the two cells, the product distribution differs in the batch cell and flow cell using the same Ni₂P-CTAB catalyst. In the batch cell, we observed that the CO₂RR yield is close to 100% FE when operating near the thermodynamic potential for the CO₂RR. In contrast to the batch cell results, methylglyoxal was found to be the dominant CO₂ product under all conditions in the flow reactor. The reason for this high selectivity towards methylglyoxal is postulated to be due the high energy barrier for conversion of methylglyoxal to the 2,3-furandiol product – two large endergonic barriers for keto-enolization steps were previously estimated (41.8 and 28.0 kJ mol⁻¹).¹⁸ At current densities below 150 mA cm⁻², a marked difference in the partial current density to methylglyoxal was observed for the three ionomers (Fig. 5b). PTFE maintained constantly high selectivity towards the formation of methylglyoxal ($j = 24$ mA cm⁻²) at all examined total current densities, more than that of PFAEM ($j = 19$ mA cm⁻²) and Nafion ($j = 9$ mA cm⁻²). The first two ionomers achieved constant partial current densities of about 18 mA cm⁻² up to 300 mA cm⁻². In the case of Nafion, an increase in the partial current density occurs above 100 mA cm⁻², above which all three ionomers exhibit comparable partial current densities. The missing FE in Fig. 5a is attributed to the formation of the same insoluble polymer that is observed in the batch cell experiments done at 100 mA cm⁻² (Fig. 3f). Due to its precipitation inside the GDE, the continuous stream of flowing electrolyte and the larger volume, the amount of the insoluble polymer was difficult to quantify. We isolated the water-insoluble solid white product from the batch cell experiment and washed multiples times with water to remove any adsorbed impurities. When investigated using attenuated total reflection-Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (ATR-FTIR, Fig. 5c) in

the frequency range (800–4000 cm⁻¹), the spectrum of the isolated solid polymer exhibited strong peaks at 864 cm⁻¹ ((CH₂)_n stretch), 1005 cm⁻¹ (C–O stretch ether), 1100 cm⁻¹ (C–O stretch ether), 1408 cm⁻¹ (C–H stretch), 1530 cm⁻¹ (CC stretch) and 3400 cm⁻¹ (OH stretch). The peak positions observed for the entire range are available in Table S3.† The frequencies and intensities were used to assign the functional groups (from the ATR-IR polymer database on the know-it-all software) that are present and from this we provide an approximate composition of the solid polymer. We attribute the formation of the polymeric product at high currents to the esterification of the hydroxyl groups of 2,3-furandiol with CO₂, as well as the base-catalyzed condensation of methylglyoxal with CO₂. The molecular weight increases with increasing negative bias and time of reaction. Further analysis of the resulting polycarbonate product is underway and will be characterized for average mass and other physicochemical properties in the future. Attempts at redissolution of the polymer in acid or alkali were not successful.

To determine the optimal ionomer to catalyst concentration ratio (*I/C*), which is a significant performance determining factor for the electrocatalytic CO₂RR, we compared the PTFE to Ni₂P-CTAB ratio between 0.4 and 1. Fig. 5d and e plots the H₂ FE and methylglyoxal partial current density at various current densities. A low *I/C* ratio of 0.4 was found to favor the HER at current densities ranging from 50 to 300 mA cm⁻². On the other hand, increasing the *I/C* ratio to 0.6 and 1 led to almost 32 and 43% CO₂RR products at 50 mA cm⁻² which gradually decreased to 28% at 300 mA cm⁻² in both the cases. We note that based on these results with increasing PTFE content in the GDE, there is suppression of the HER that can be attributed to increased CO₂ accessibility to active sites of Ni₂P-CTAB. Thus, there exists an optimal ratio of ionomer to catalyst that facilitates CO₂ access to the catalyst and sufficient water at the same time.²⁷

Conclusions

By comparing electrocatalytic performance of a single pure phase Ni₂P compound prepared using three methods to modify the surface area to volume ratio, it was found that significantly improved CO₂RR current densities and selectivity *vs.* H₂ production could be achieved using the Ni₂P-CTAB catalyst prepared by a low-temperature soft-templating method. This high surface area catalyst permits use of a flow cell configuration with high CO₂ delivery rate that achieves constant CO₂RR yields across a wide range of currents and with high product selectivity towards a single product methylglyoxal, in contrast to the non-porous Ni₂P-SSS catalyst. The influence of anionic *vs.* cationic *vs.* neutral binders revealed that the proton conducting ionomer was found to predominantly favor the HER, while the anionic ionomer maintains high C/H selectivity at all current densities while suppressing the HER. The combination of the high surface area Ni₂P electrocatalyst with an anionic ionomer results in continuous CO₂ conversion to a single soluble C₃ product (methylglyoxal) in yields that are the highest in the literature. As the product concentration increases further at high current density, a solid polycarbonate polymer forms that

is composed of the condensation of the soluble monomers with CO₂. Finally, we believe that this work will motivate future development in the field of CO₂ conversion by electrocatalysis to produce sustainable products and further expand this promising technology.

Conflicts of interest

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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