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*Catalyst-proximal plastrons enhance activity and selectivity of carbon dioxide electroreduction*

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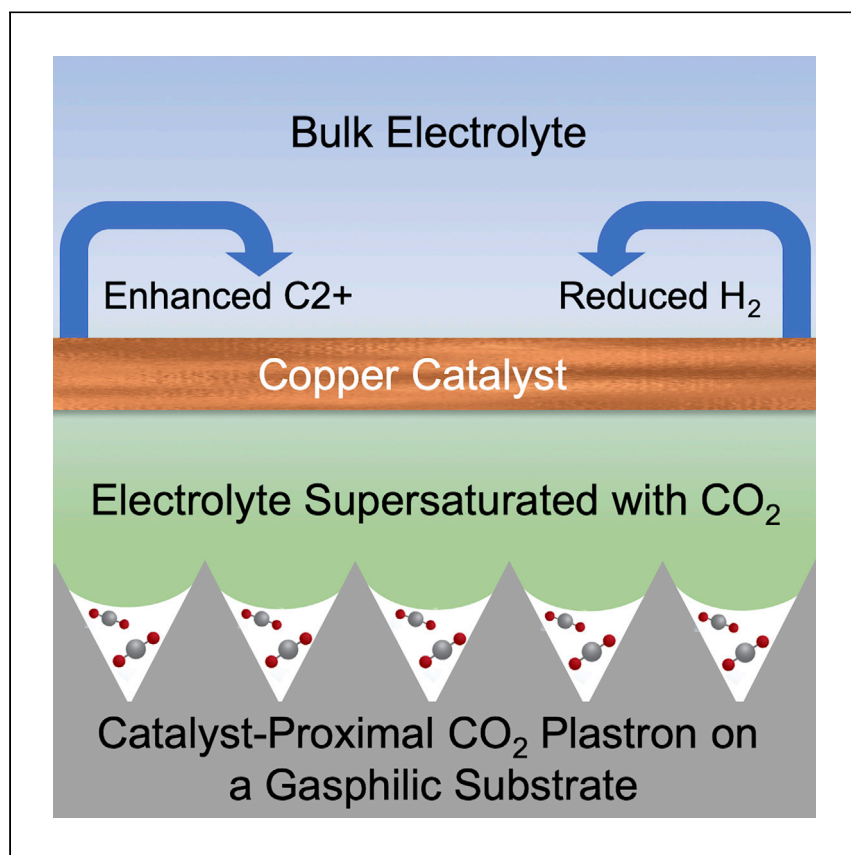
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Article

# Catalyst-proximal plastrons enhance activity and selectivity of carbon dioxide electroreduction



Khan et al. report how bubble-capturing surfaces can enhance electrocatalytic reduction of CO<sub>2</sub> by local supersaturation of CO<sub>2</sub> in the electrolyte near the catalyst, overcoming mass transport limitations. Thereby, hydrogen co-evolution is suppressed and formation of attractive C<sub>2</sub><sup>+</sup> products, such as ethanol and ethylene, is increased.

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## HIGHLIGHTS

Gasphilic surfaces capture CO<sub>2</sub> bubbles

Local CO<sub>2</sub> concentration proximal to copper catalyst becomes supersaturated

CO<sub>2</sub> electroreduction current density is enhanced and maintained throughout the reaction

Hydrogen Faradaic efficiency is suppressed and C<sub>2</sub><sup>+</sup> product formation is enhanced

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## Article

## Catalyst-proximal plastrons enhance activity and selectivity of carbon dioxide electroreduction

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## SUMMARY

Electrochemical reduction of carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>RR) is an attractive approach toward converting CO<sub>2</sub> to solar fuels. Novel catalyst chemistries and morphologies may provide high selectivity to both one-carbon (C1) and two-carbon (C2) products over hydrogen; however, the limited aqueous solubility of CO<sub>2</sub> restricts the CO<sub>2</sub>RR current density. Here, we demonstrate how gasphilic bubble-trap surfaces enhance mass transfer and enrich and maintain CO<sub>2</sub> concentration during CO<sub>2</sub>RR by forming a catalyst-proximal plastron layer, consequently increasing the CO<sub>2</sub>RR activity on both smooth and nanostructured copper as compared to the conventional head-space or bubbling modes of CO<sub>2</sub> delivery. The H<sub>2</sub> Faradaic efficiency is suppressed from 33% to 13% on smooth copper and from 62% to 33% on nanostructured copper, accompanied by enhanced formation of C2+ products, including ethylene, propanol, and ethanol, and >1% acetone and acetate. We highlight the importance of the catalyst-proximal plastron approach by comparing against recent aqueous-phase CO<sub>2</sub>RR studies.

## INTRODUCTION

Over the past several years, the concentration of CO<sub>2</sub> in the Earth's atmosphere has risen at an alarming rate, thereby causing an increase in global temperatures owing to the greenhouse effect. Numerous approaches have been proposed to tackle growing CO<sub>2</sub> levels: from minimizing consumption of fossil fuels to capturing and sequestering CO<sub>2</sub>. Although these are promising avenues, CO<sub>2</sub> conversion in particular is attractive, as it has the potential to provide useful end products.<sup>1,2</sup> Electrochemical reduction of CO<sub>2</sub> (CO<sub>2</sub>RR) is one approach toward converting CO<sub>2</sub> to synthetic or solar fuels, where much research has been focused on developing novel catalysts to enhance the kinetics (activity) and product distribution (selectivity).<sup>3-8</sup> Copper has been studied extensively, as it can produce hydrocarbons with both one carbon (C1), such as methane, and two carbons (C2), such as ethylene, in addition to oxygenates, such as formate, ethanol, and n-propanol.<sup>4,9</sup> Recent studies have shown increased geometric current density or selectivity toward C2 products on copper by using nanostructures,<sup>10-13</sup> controlling surface crystallinity,<sup>14-16</sup> and utilizing gas diffusion electrodes.<sup>17,18</sup> Unfortunately, copper is not immune from the competing hydrogen evolution reaction (HER). The poor solubility of CO<sub>2</sub> in water (~34 mM saturation concentration at ambient conditions)<sup>19</sup> limits the CO<sub>2</sub>RR current density, and HER is favored if the aqueous CO<sub>2</sub> concentration becomes locally undersaturated close to the catalyst during CO<sub>2</sub>RR.<sup>20</sup> This limitation becomes even more significant for nanostructured copper, because the increased active surface area leads to faster depletion of local CO<sub>2</sub>, thereby promoting HER and reducing CO<sub>2</sub>RR.<sup>21-23</sup> Hence, overcoming these mass transport limitations can enable higher CO<sub>2</sub>RR activity while reducing HER.

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Here, we develop a gasphilic CO<sub>2</sub> trap that is placed in close proximity to the catalyst (see Figure 1C) that enhances gas-liquid mass transfer and maintains supersaturated CO<sub>2</sub> concentration around the catalyst during CO<sub>2</sub>RR. Gasphilic surfaces require a special combination of surface chemistry and texture to capture bubbles and form a sheet of gas underwater also known as plastron.<sup>24,25</sup> By creating hierarchical micro-nano pyramidal textures on silicon (see Experimental Procedures and Figure S3), CO<sub>2</sub> bubbles are efficiently captured (see sequential high-speed camera images in Figure 1F and Video S1) within the textures, thereby forming a CO<sub>2</sub> plastron that appears silvery as shown in Figure 1D. When this CO<sub>2</sub> plastron is placed close to a smooth, electropolished Cu wire during CO<sub>2</sub>RR (~3 mm distance), the current density is enhanced and sustained throughout the experiment at -1.1 V<sub>RHE</sub> when compared to two commonly used methods of CO<sub>2</sub> delivery: headspace and bubbling in the bulk electrolyte (see Figure 1J and Experimental Procedures for detailed description of the electrochemical setup and conditions and Figures S1 and S2). We also find that the HER Faradaic efficiency does not appreciably change over time for the plastron and is greatly reduced (~13%) compared to that of the headspace (~33%) and bubbling (~29%) approaches. By trapping gas bubbles and spreading the gas into a sheet, the gasphilic surface has the unique ability to increase gas-liquid interfacial area and residence time. This allows for rapid replenishment of CO<sub>2</sub> during the CO<sub>2</sub>RR reaction and prevents any depletion of CO<sub>2</sub> concentration in the vicinity of the catalyst.

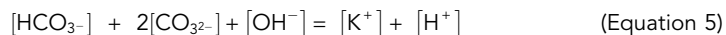
## RESULTS

### CO<sub>2</sub> concentration enhancement

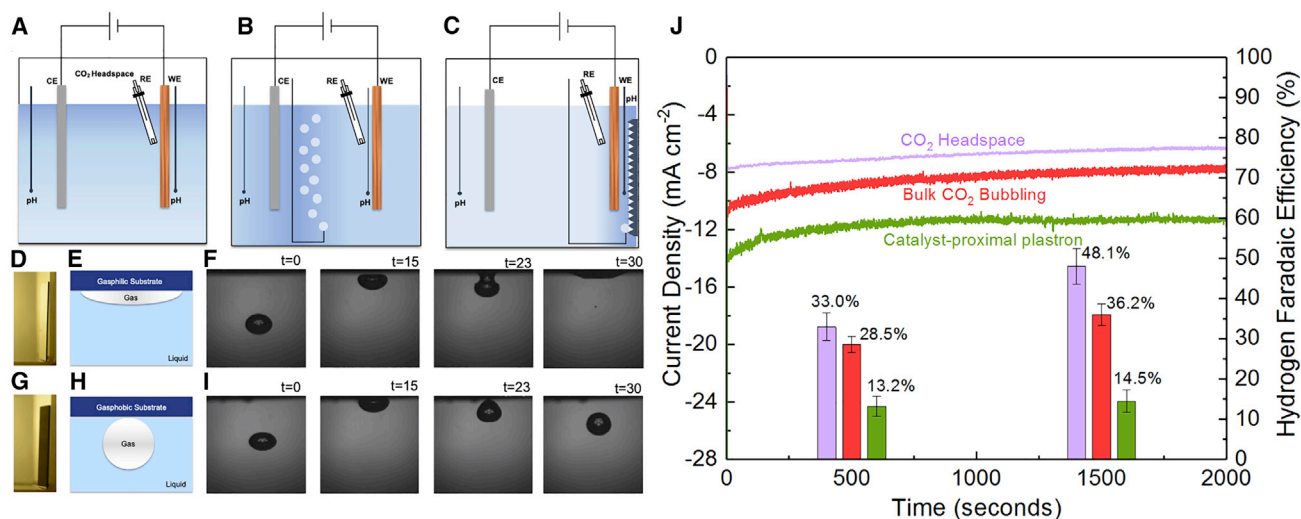
To confirm that the enhancement in CO<sub>2</sub>RR activity and selectivity was indeed arising from the enriched CO<sub>2</sub> concentration close to the catalyst, we used two sensitive pH microprobes to track the aqueous CO<sub>2</sub> concentration in the electrolyte both near the plastron (~2 mm) and in the bulk during CO<sub>2</sub>RR (4 cm from the catalyst surface). The aqueous CO<sub>2</sub> concentration can be determined from the measured pH using the following equilibria equations:<sup>26</sup>



In 0.1 M KHCO<sub>3</sub>, the alkalinity is balanced by acidity by the following equation:



Typically, the aqueous CO<sub>2</sub> concentration decreases with increasing concentration of KHCO<sub>3</sub>, a phenomenon known as the "salting-out effect."<sup>27</sup> However, the concentration of KHCO<sub>3</sub> used here, 0.1 M, allows the electrolyte to be treated as pure water for the purpose of equilibrium calculations, given that the CO<sub>2</sub> solubility is expected to be reduced by less than 5% (see Note S1). Knowing the equilibrium constants for Equations 1, 2, 3, and 4 at ambient temperature and pressure,<sup>19</sup> the aqueous CO<sub>2</sub> concentration was determined from the measured pH (see Figure S4 for the graph correlating pH with CO<sub>2</sub> concentration). The graph shows 0.1 M KHCO<sub>3</sub> saturated with CO<sub>2</sub> has a pH of 6.82 and corresponds to an aqueous CO<sub>2</sub> concentration of 34 mM. This was experimentally verified by equilibrating a 0.1 M KHCO<sub>3</sub> solution with 1 atm CO<sub>2</sub> gas (see Figure S5), thereby validating our assumption to treat 0.1 M KHCO<sub>3</sub> as pure water for equilibrium calculations.

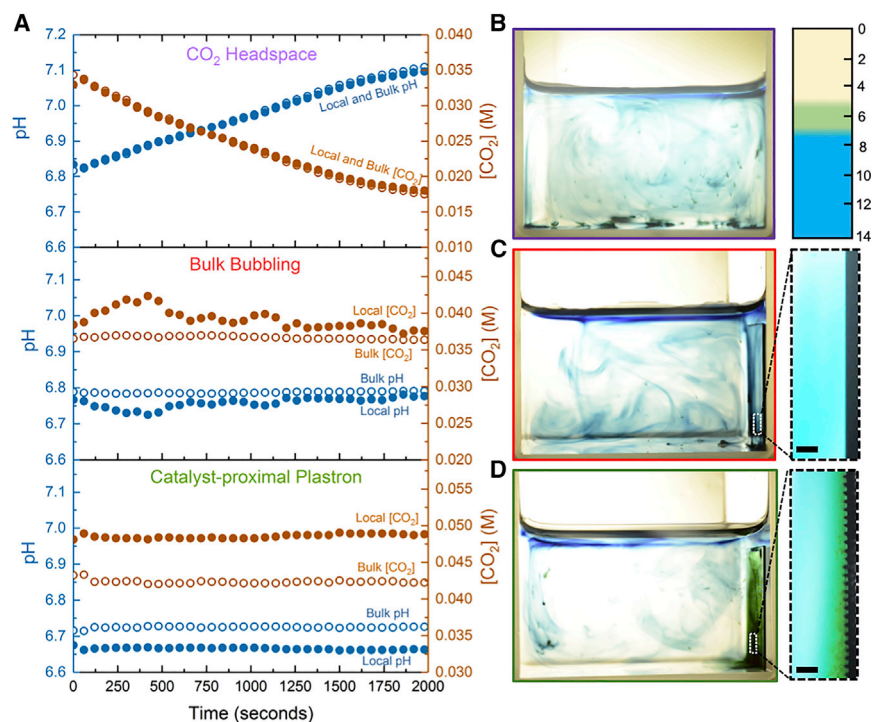


**Figure 1. Catalyst-proximal plastron approach to enhance CO<sub>2</sub> electroreduction**

(A) CO<sub>2</sub> headspace mode of CO<sub>2</sub> delivery.  
 (B) Bubbling CO<sub>2</sub> in the bulk.  
 (C) Catalyst-proximal CO<sub>2</sub> plastron layer on a gasphilic surface. The bubbling stream and plastron are held at the same approximate distance from the catalyst.  
 (D) A gasphilic silicon surface, which appears silvery due to an embedded plastron gas layer.  
 (E) Schematic of a gasphilic substrate that captures bubbles.  
 (F) Sequential high-speed camera images showing CO<sub>2</sub> bubble capture on a gasphilic surface (time shown in ms).  
 (G) A gasphobic silicon surface, which appears dark black.  
 (H) Schematic of a gasphobic substrate that does not capture bubbles.  
 (I) Sequential high-speed camera images showing CO<sub>2</sub> bubble bouncing on a gasphobic surface (time shown in ms). See [Video S2](#).  
 (J) Comparison of CO<sub>2</sub> reduction current densities using the three delivery approaches shown in (A)–(C) along with the hydrogen Faradaic efficiency as a function of time (potential of  $-1.1 V_{RHE}$ ). The error bars show the standard deviation obtained from three replicate runs. The reported current density is the geometric density and has been determined by dividing the measured current by the surface area of the wire (modeled as a cylinder).

As shown in [Figures 1A–1C](#), two sensitive pH probes measured pH at two locations: in the CO<sub>2</sub>-rich zone between the trap and the catalyst and in the bulk away from the catalyst (4 cm), from which the corresponding aqueous CO<sub>2</sub> concentration was determined. We found that, in the headspace mode of CO<sub>2</sub>RR, although initially at the start of CO<sub>2</sub>RR, the pH close to the catalyst indicated saturated conditions (pH  $\sim 6.82$ ), it rapidly increased with reaction time, attributable to a decrease in the local CO<sub>2</sub> concentration due to fast consumption and sluggish replenishment of CO<sub>2</sub> as seen in [Figure 2A](#). Both the pH probes (close and far) showed a similar increase in pH with time, given that the electrolyte was stirred constantly. In the bubbling case, even though the stream of bubbles was introduced at the same distance from the catalyst as the plastron, the pH increased during the reaction, showing that even the bubbling approach was not able to maintain a constant CO<sub>2</sub> concentration close to the catalyst. In contrast, not only did the plastron maintain a constant pH (and therefore local aqueous CO<sub>2</sub> concentration) near the catalyst throughout CO<sub>2</sub>RR but also provided a richer, supersaturated concentration of CO<sub>2</sub>, as confirmed by the local pH measurement (pH  $\sim 6.65$ ) in [Figure 2A](#).

In order to further confirm the enriched aqueous CO<sub>2</sub> concentration near the catalyst-proximal plastron, we used a colorimetric technique with the pH indicator bromothymol blue, which has a visual transition range between pH 5.2 and 7.4,<sup>28</sup> thereby being ideal for this study, considering that CO<sub>2</sub> saturation in the CO<sub>2</sub>RR electrolyte occurs close to a pH of 6.8. We introduced drops of 0.05% bromothymol blue in a near-saturated electrolyte at two opposite ends in the cell and allowed the



**Figure 2. Characterization of  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration in the electrolyte both close to the catalyst and further away from the catalyst**

(A) pH measurements (blue circles) made during the  $\text{CO}_2\text{RR}$  experiment shown in Figure 1J for the headspace, bubbling, and plastron cases and the corresponding calculated  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration (brown circles). Dark circles indicate measurements made close to the catalyst ( $\sim 2$  mm), and hollow circles indicate measurements made  $\sim 4$  cm from the catalyst.

(B) Bromothymol blue added to a saturated  $0.1\text{M KHCO}_3$  with an ambient  $\text{CO}_2$  headspace above it. It appears bluish at saturated conditions (see pH scale).

(C) Color evolution in a solution that has been recently bubbled with  $\text{CO}_2$  with a magnified optical microscope image zooming in on a gasphobic silicon surface showing blue throughout.

(D) Color evolution in a solution with a gasphilic trap showing the  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration difference (green indicating richer  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration close to the trap relative to the bulk, which is blue).

Optical microscope magnification reveals a green layer close to the trap emanating from the trapped gas within the textures. Scale bar shown in black represents  $100\ \mu\text{m}$ .

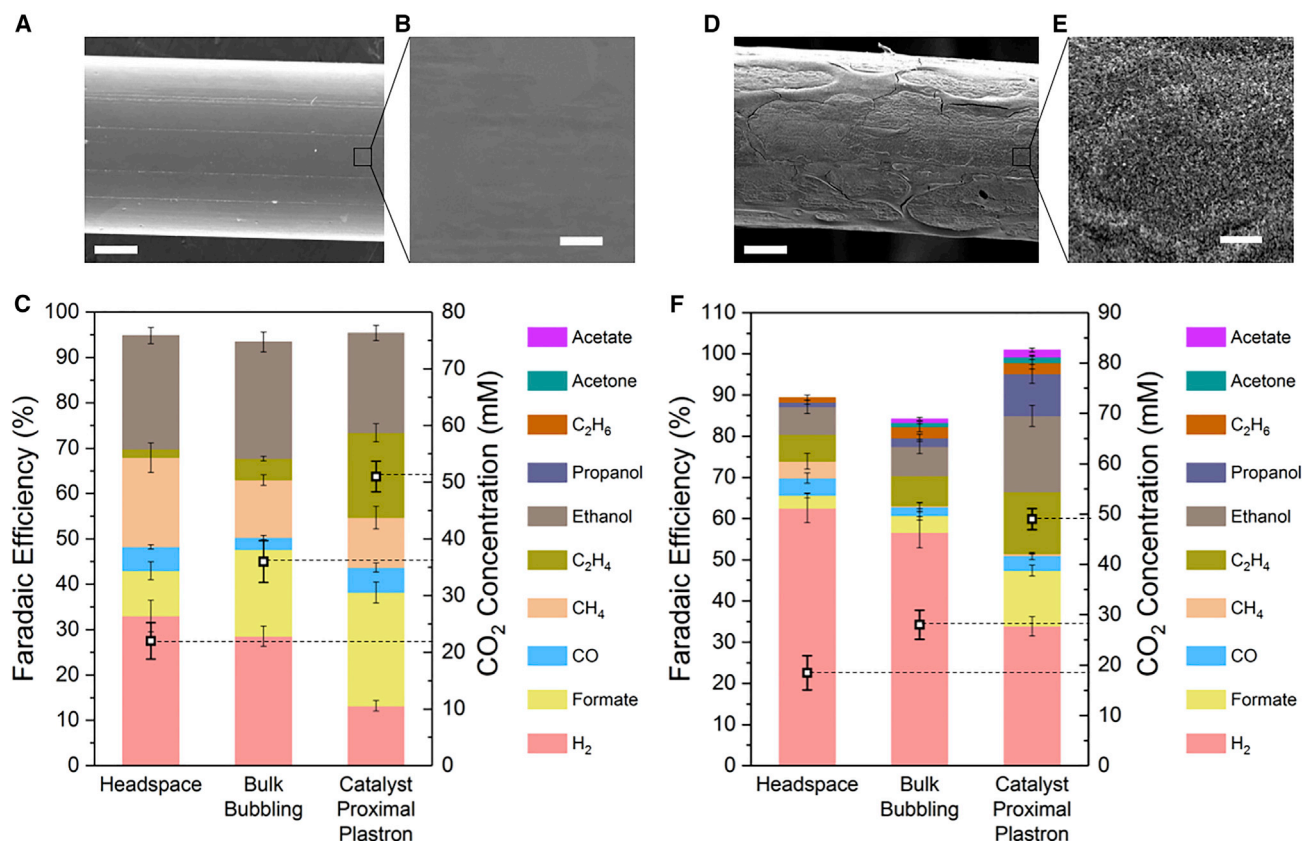
indicator to equilibrate for 2 min. As shown in Figure 2B, in the headspace approach, the solution remained blue throughout the electrolyte, indicating no gradients in  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration. Similarly, when a stream of  $\text{CO}_2$  bubbles was bubbled on a gasphobic silicon substrate, as shown in Figure 2C for 20 s, the electrolyte next to the substrate appeared blue as the rest of the electrolyte, showing no immediate benefit of the bubbling approach toward enhancing local  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration, given the small residence time of the bubbles in the electrolyte ( $\sim 1$  s per bubble). However, when the same stream of bubbles was allowed to trap on the gasphilic surface and maintain a plastron layer, the solution close to the plastron instantly appeared green in sharp visual contrast to the rest of the blue solution as seen in Figure 2D, indicating a richer aqueous  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration in the immediate vicinity of the plastron (see Video S3). In fact, after zooming in to the gasphilic surface using optical microscopy, we found that the enhanced  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration emanates from the plastron contained within the textures of the gasphilic surface, as visualized by the thin green layer in the expanded image in Figure 2D. As long as the plastron layer is continuously replenished,  $\text{CO}_2$  supersaturation is maintained throughout the  $\text{CO}_2\text{RR}$  experiment, as shown by the pH measurements in Figure 2A.

To investigate the mass transfer advantage of the plastron versus bubbling approaches, we experimentally visualized the concentration evolution of the two approaches using bromothymol blue, which was introduced at two opposite ends of the cell while the CO<sub>2</sub> was continuously flowing (see Videos S4 and S5). The bubbling stream induced mixing as visualized by the eddies, and the CO<sub>2</sub> transferred from the bubbles to the electrolyte was rapidly convected away into the bulk, as shown by the blue color (see the dashed rectangle showing extent of convection in Figure S6). In contrast, the color close to the plastron remained green, indicating that high CO<sub>2</sub> concentration is maintained local to the plastron without being convected away and diluted into the bulk electrolyte as with the bubbling approach. Despite the bubbling stream and the plastron being at the same distance from the catalyst, the steady-state CO<sub>2</sub>RR current density using the plastron approach was 33% greater than the bubbling approach, and the H<sub>2</sub> Faradaic efficiency was over two times lower, as shown in Figure 1. By increasing the gas-liquid interfacial area and the residence time in the system, the CO<sub>2</sub>-electrolyte mass transfer was enhanced using the plastron, and a high local concentration of CO<sub>2</sub> was maintained throughout the CO<sub>2</sub>RR reaction, which drives CO<sub>2</sub> to the catalyst surface and maintains CO<sub>2</sub>RR performance. By operating at atmospheric pressure, this approach has an inherent advantage over pressurized reactors by achieving high localized CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations and mass transfer rates that maintain CO<sub>2</sub>RR performance.

### Enhancement of C<sub>2</sub>+ products

We performed equivalent experiments in a standard CO<sub>2</sub>RR H-cell connected to a gas chromatograph (GC) in order to characterize the effect of the catalyst-proximal plastron on the product distribution (see Experimental Methods). As seen in Figure 3E, using smooth copper (SEM images in Figures 3A and 3B), the plastron approach resulted in the lowest H<sub>2</sub> Faradaic efficiency as compared to other delivery approaches at  $-1.1 V_{RHE}$ , reducing from 33% in the headspace approach to 13%. At the same time, the ethylene Faradaic efficiency was also enhanced from 2% to 18%, indicating a significant increase in a valuable C<sub>2</sub> product as well as enhancement in formate from 10% to 25%. It is clear that these changes in product distribution result directly from enhancement in local aqueous CO<sub>2</sub> concentration, as shown by squares in Figure 3C.

We synthesized nanostructured copper using the thermal treatment technique previously described in literature (see Experimental Procedures and SEM images in Figures 3D and 3E).<sup>12</sup> Porous, nanostructured copper is an attractive catalyst, as it has been shown to generate more C<sub>2</sub> and C<sub>3</sub> products especially at low overpotentials ( $>-1.0 V_{RHE}$ ), as compared to polycrystalline copper.<sup>12,23,29</sup> However, at potentials more negative than  $-1.0 V_{RHE}$ , mass transport limitations are reached, due to which the catalyst evolves primarily hydrogen, as the CO<sub>2</sub> that is rapidly consumed from the vicinity of the catalyst is not adequately replenished.<sup>21-23</sup> Indeed, as shown in Figure 3F, we observe that, at  $-1.1 V_{RHE}$ , both the headspace and bubbling approaches result in an over 50% Faradaic efficiency for hydrogen, which is consistent with observations from previous studies at similar potentials on oxide-derived copper (see Table S1 for a comprehensive comparison).<sup>23,30-32</sup> With a catalyst-proximal plastron, similar to the smooth polycrystalline case, the local CO<sub>2</sub> available to the catalyst is enhanced and replenished quickly, thereby leading to a dramatic decrease in the H<sub>2</sub> Faradaic efficiency from 62% to 33% and an increased production of valuable C<sub>2</sub>+ products, such as ethanol, ethane, ethylene, acetone, acetate, and propanol. The local CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations follow a similar trend as in the case of the smooth copper, with the catalyst-proximal plastron showing the highest local CO<sub>2</sub> concentration. In addition, the CO<sub>2</sub>RR-specific current density is also enhanced relative to the headspace approach, similar to observations on smooth copper (see Table S1).



**Figure 3. Faradaic efficiencies obtained from the catalyst-proximal plastron approach on copper**

(A) SEM image showing a polycrystalline electropolished Cu wire (scale bar represents 100  $\mu\text{m}$ ).

(B) Zoomed inset of (A)—scale bar represents 1  $\mu\text{m}$ .

(C) Comparison of product distribution and the corresponding aqueous  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration for smooth copper. Error bars for Faradaic efficiencies of all products are included in the individual bar graphs, as well as error bars for the aqueous  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration, as represented by the squares. The error bars show standard deviations from three replicate runs. All experiments are at  $-1.1 V_{\text{RHE}}$  in 0.1 M  $\text{KHCO}_3$  saturated with  $\text{CO}_2$ .

(D) SEM image showing an oxide-derived nanostructured Cu wire (scale bar represents 100  $\mu\text{m}$ ).

(E) Zoomed inset of (D) showing nanotextures—scale bar represents 1  $\mu\text{m}$ .

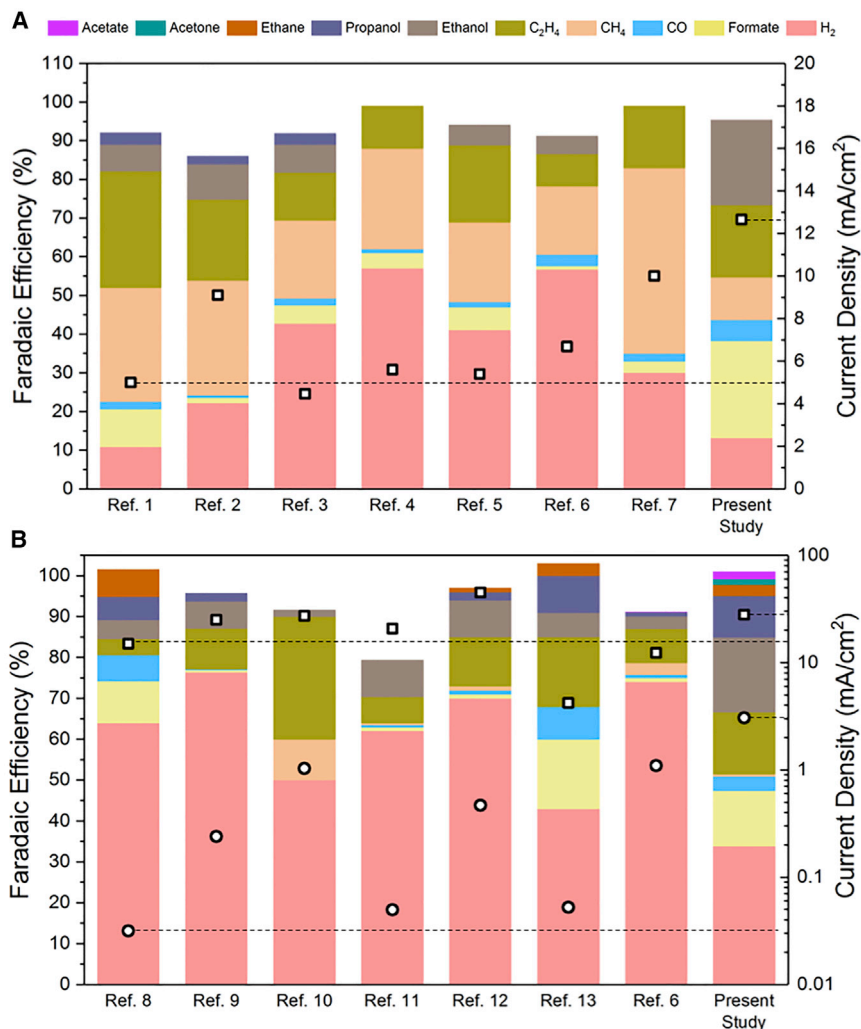
(F) Comparison of product distribution and the corresponding  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration for nanostructured copper. Error bars for Faradaic efficiencies of all products are included in the individual bar graphs, as well as error bars for the aqueous  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration, as represented by the squares. The error bars show standard deviations from three replicate runs. All experiments are at  $-1.1 V_{\text{RHE}}$  in 0.1 M  $\text{KHCO}_3$  saturated with  $\text{CO}_2$ .

The coupling of C2+ products requires the arrival and adsorption of several  $\text{CO}_2$  molecules to the surface throughout the  $\text{CO}_2\text{RR}$  reaction.<sup>33,34</sup> Using the gasphilic trap, not only is the  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration enhanced close to the catalyst, as seen in Figure 2, but this enhanced concentration is held proximal to the catalyst, as visualized in Figure S6 and Videos S3 and S4, thereby enabling the arrival and adsorption of  $\text{CO}_2$  molecules to the catalyst surface and promoting formation of attractive C2+ products. The total Faradaic efficiency for C2+ products is increased from 21% to 49% on nanotextured copper and from 30% to 40% on smooth copper by changing from the bubbling approach to the catalyst-proximal plastron approach, consistent with our previous hypothesis of enhanced mass transport and  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration.

#### Comparison with other recent $\text{CO}_2\text{RR}$ studies using copper

Figure 4 compares the results from the present study using the catalyst-proximal plastron approach with other relevant  $\text{CO}_2\text{RR}$  studies on copper. Comparing with seven different  $\text{CO}_2\text{RR}$  studies that were conducted on smooth, polycrystalline copper at approximately the same potential and electrolyte concentration, the





**Figure 4. Comparison with recent aqueous-phase CO<sub>2</sub>RR studies**

(A) Product distribution and geometric current density (shown by square symbols) from the present study using the catalyst-proximal plastron approach as compared to seven different reported studies on polycrystalline copper at potentials equal to or similar to  $-1.1 V_{\text{RHE}}$  in  $0.1\text{M KHCO}_3$ : Ref. 1;<sup>9</sup> Ref. 2;<sup>4</sup> Ref. 3;<sup>35</sup> Ref. 4;<sup>36</sup> Ref. 5;<sup>37</sup> Ref. 6;<sup>32</sup> and Ref. 7.<sup>38</sup> The reported current density is the geometric density and has been determined by dividing the measured current by the surface area of the wire (modeled as a cylinder).

(B) Product distribution and geometric current density (shown by square symbols) as well as ECSA-normalized current density (shown by circles) from the present study using the catalyst-proximal plastron approach as compared to seven different reported studies on nanostructured copper: Ref. 8;<sup>12</sup> Ref. 9;<sup>23</sup> Ref. 10;<sup>13</sup> Ref. 11;<sup>30</sup> Ref. 12;<sup>31</sup> and Ref. 13.<sup>39</sup> See Table S1 for detailed comparison and description of the catalysts used by each reference.

catalyst-proximal plastron approach reports the highest current density together with highest formate ( $\sim 25\%$ ) and ethanol ( $\sim 22\%$ ) Faradaic efficiencies, as shown in Figure 4A.<sup>4,9,32,35-38</sup> Although our reported H<sub>2</sub> Faradaic efficiency ( $\sim 13\%$ ) is slightly greater than the seminal work of Hori et al.<sup>9</sup> on copper ( $\sim 10\%$ ), we report a greater overall current density as well as CO<sub>2</sub>RR-specific current density, as shown in Table S1. We also show the lowest H<sub>2</sub> Faradaic efficiency when compared to more recent studies on polycrystalline copper performed within the last decade at  $-1.1 V_{\text{RHE}}$ .<sup>4,32,35-38</sup>

Similarly, when compared to previous CO<sub>2</sub>RR studies using nanotextured copper, as shown in Figure 4B, the catalyst-proximal plastron approach results in the lowest H<sub>2</sub> Faradaic efficiency and the highest ethanol, n-propanol, acetone, and acetate Faradaic efficiencies determined at  $-1.1 V_{\text{RHE}}$ . In fact, to our knowledge, our study is the first to report acetone and acetate at Faradaic efficiencies exceeding 1%. Although there are large variances in the geometric current densities on nanostructured copper between different studies as shown by the square symbols in Figure 4B, our study reports the highest current density when normalized by the electrochemically active surface area (ECSA), as shown by the circles in Figure 4B (see Experimental Procedures and Figure S10 for details on the ECSA determination). Recent literature on CO<sub>2</sub>RR has highlighted the importance of normalizing the current density with respect to ECSA on nanotextured catalysts in order to truly ascertain improvements in intrinsic CO<sub>2</sub>RR activity against comparable catalysts,<sup>22,40</sup> and thus, the effect of the catalyst-proximal plastron can be further highlighted on nanostructured copper due to enhanced local CO<sub>2</sub> concentration.

Figure 4B also shows that nanotextured copper has a lower overall current density than smooth, polycrystalline copper in Figure 4A when normalized by ECSA, despite having similar local CO<sub>2</sub> concentration using the catalyst-proximal plastron approach, as seen in Figure 3. Comparing the headspace, bubbling, and catalyst-proximal plastron approaches, we find that the HER current is progressively suppressed on nanotextured copper (see Table S1; HER current obtained by multiplying H<sub>2</sub> Faradaic efficiency by the total current density), a trend that is similarly reflected by polycrystalline copper as well. However, because the HER current observed on nanotextured copper is similar in magnitude to that of polycrystalline copper, the plastron approach is not mass transport limited, despite having a lower overall current density. We believe that the lower ESCA-normalized CO<sub>2</sub>RR current density on oxide-derived copper (when compared to smooth, polycrystalline copper) can be attributed to catalyst-level defects on the oxide-derived copper, such as undercoordinated sites, readsorption of reaction products, preferential faceting, and grain boundaries,<sup>13,22,41</sup> rather than mass-transport limitations arising from the locally available CO<sub>2</sub>. Hence, the catalyst-proximal plastron approach can truly deconvolute mass-transport effects and inherent catalyst defects in nanostructured copper, especially at potentials more negative than  $-1.0 V_{\text{RHE}}$ . As shown in Table S1, no matter whether the catalyst is smooth or nanostructured, the catalyst-proximal plastron increases the intrinsic CO<sub>2</sub>RR current density while minimizing hydrogen co-evolution when compared with other CO<sub>2</sub>RR studies on state-of-the-art catalysts.<sup>12,13,23,30-32,39</sup> Thus, the catalyst-proximal plastron approach can truly reveal the attractive capabilities of nanostructured copper, which have been typically obfuscated by hydrogen co-evolution.

## DISCUSSION

We note here that gas diffusion electrodes (GDEs) have evolved over the years to overcome CO<sub>2</sub> mass transport limitations and deliver high current densities and Faradaic efficiencies for C<sub>2</sub>+ products in a continuous flow configuration.<sup>17,42-44</sup> Although GDEs have been recognized as the practical, scalable path forward for CO<sub>2</sub> electroconversion,<sup>18,22</sup> GDEs have a complicated interface that combine multiple elements, including hydrophobicity, and it is not straightforward to elucidate intrinsic catalytic performance using GDEs, as kinetics and transport are coupled. Therefore, many fundamental CO<sub>2</sub>RR studies are performed in aqueous-phase electrolytic cells (such as H-cells).<sup>18,45</sup> Such aqueous-phase systems, however, have been hitherto mass transport limited, as the CO<sub>2</sub> that is depleted from the reaction is not

rapidly replenished, which has made it difficult to assess CO<sub>2</sub>RR performance against gas diffusion systems.<sup>18,45</sup> The plastron approach can bridge the gap between GDEs and aqueous-phase systems by overcoming the mass transport limitations of aqueous systems. For example, the reported Faradaic efficiencies for C<sub>2</sub>+ alcohols (ethanol and propanol) on nanotextured copper for aqueous-phase systems as reported in Figure 4B show <15% total Faradaic efficiency for C<sub>2</sub>+ alcohols at the same applied potential when compared to GDE systems. By using the catalyst-proximal plastron approach, we observe a Faradaic efficiency of 30% for C<sub>2</sub>+ alcohols, as shown in Figure 3F, which is similar to the highest reported Faradaic efficiency of 32% using copper in a GDE.<sup>34</sup> Therefore, by overcoming mass transport limitations in a simple aqueous-phase system, the plastron approach can provide target CO<sub>2</sub>RR Faradaic efficiencies that can inform the selection and incorporation of catalysts toward enabling optimum GDE performance. Future studies can evaluate specific high-surface area catalyst architectures typically used in GDEs along with catalyst-proximal plastron to obtain catalyst activity and selectivity in aqueous-phase systems.

In addition, theoretical studies can be performed in the future to predict the specific pH conditions and chemical composition at the electrode surface.

In summary, we show that, by maintaining a CO<sub>2</sub> plastron layer on a gasphilic surface in close proximity to a smooth, electropolished copper catalyst, the intrinsic current density associated with CO<sub>2</sub>RR is increased by close to two times as compared to conventional absorption from a CO<sub>2</sub> headspace. Furthermore, the CO<sub>2</sub>RR current density does not deteriorate with time, and this is directly due to the enhanced local CO<sub>2</sub> concentration available to the catalyst that is sustained throughout the reaction and the improved gas-liquid mass transfer using the plastron. Consequently, the Faradaic efficiency associated with hydrogen is reduced to as low as 13% at  $-1.1 V_{RHE}$ , and when compared to previous studies at the same potentials, we report the lowest hydrogen Faradaic efficiency combined with the highest CO<sub>2</sub>RR current density on a smooth, electropolished copper surface. H<sub>2</sub> Faradaic efficiency is suppressed from 62% to 33% on oxide-derived nanostructured copper, along with the generation of attractive C<sub>2</sub>+ products, including ethylene, ethanol, and n-propanol, as well as acetone and acetate at enhanced concentrations. We believe that this transformational approach can truly elucidate the attractive capabilities of both smooth and nanostructured copper, which have been typically hindered by hydrogen co-evolution, as well as combined with many catalyst-side advances in CO<sub>2</sub>RR to further enhance activity and selectivity.

## EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

### Resource availability

#### Lead contact

Further information and requests for resources should be directed to the lead contact, Kripa K. Varanasi ([varanasi@mit.edu](mailto:varanasi@mit.edu)).

#### Materials availability

This study did not generate any unique materials.

#### Data and code availability

This study did not generate code. All of the data associated with this study are represented in the manuscript and [Supplemental Information](#). Other data are available from the lead contact upon reasonable request.

### Preparation of electropolished copper

Copper wire (99.999% purity; 0.5 mm in diameter) was obtained from Goodfellow Corporation. Prior to electrochemical experiments, the wire was rubbed by sandpaper followed by sonicating in deionized (DI) water and subsequent electropolishing in 85% H<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> (Sigma Aldrich; 85 wt % in H<sub>2</sub>O; 99.99% trace metals basis) for 1 min at 3 V and 10 min at :1.5–2 V (based on the oxidation peak from a cyclic voltammetry measurement) versus a graphite counter electrode. The wire was then thoroughly rinsed and sonicated in DI water and was immediately used for electrochemical experiments. The geometric surface area of the catalyst was determined by measuring the wire diameter and length (modeling the wire as a cylinder), and the surface roughness was assumed to be unity, similar to previous studies. The geometric current density was determined by dividing the measured current by this calculated surface area.

### Preparation of oxide-derived nanostructured copper

Oxide-derived nanostructured copper (OD-Cu) was synthesized using the techniques published previously.<sup>12</sup> The electropolished Cu wire described above was heated to 500°C at a rate of 10°C/min and maintained at 500°C for 1 h, after which it was cooled down slowly over a period of 12 h. The sample was then electrochemically reduced to copper during the first 5 min of the CO<sub>2</sub>RR reaction. The diameter of the wire was determined from the SEM image shown in [Figure 3](#), and the geometric surface area was calculated by modeling the wire as a cylinder. The geometric current density was then determined by dividing the measured current by the surface area of the wire.

### Preparation of gasphilic traps

The gasphilic surfaces (1" by 1") to develop plastrons were fabricated on silicon using a 1,064 nm laser (TYMKA ElectroX), which created a series of closely packed pyramidal textured features spaced approximately 50 μm apart and 50 μm deep. The features also had nanotexture atop the pyramids, which was naturally formed from the ablating silicon. The samples were then cleaned in an oxygen plasma chamber (PDC-32G-2 by Harrick Plasma) at 200 mTorr for 10 min followed by chemical vapor deposition using fluorosilane to render them hydrophobic and, consequently, gasphilic.

### Electrochemistry experiments

The CO<sub>2</sub>RR experiments described in [Figures 1](#) and [2](#) were performed in a custom-made clean cubical glass cell measuring 5 cm by 5 cm by 5 cm. Due to the flat walls of the glass cell, it was possible to visualize the catalyst and the gasphilic trap during the reaction (see [Figures S1](#) and [S2](#)). The cubical geometry of the cell also made it possible to insert electrodes and pH probes at precise distances from one another. A coiled platinum wire (99.99% purity; Pine Research) was used as the counter electrode, which was isolated from the main electrolyte by storing in a fritted glass tube. In order to minimize metal contamination that can impact CO<sub>2</sub>RR performance, all glassware was cleaned in sequence by 1 M KOH (Alfa Aesar; 99.99%), Aqua Regia (3:1 HCl:HNO<sub>3</sub>), and boiling DI water (Millipore; 18.2 M Ω cm) for 1 h each. 0.1 M KHCO<sub>3</sub> electrolyte was prepared by vigorously bubbling a solution of 0.1 M KOH (Millipore Suprapur; >99.995%) in DI water (Millipore; 18.2 M Ω cm) with CO<sub>2</sub> gas (Airgas; 99.999% purity) for at least 1 h. The pH of the electrolyte was confirmed to be 6.8 prior to use in CO<sub>2</sub>RR. In fact, in the catalyst-proximal plastron approach, the CO<sub>2</sub> was bubbled directly on the gasphilic trap along with the bulk, thereby resulting in a pH <6.8 prior to the experiment. In the CO<sub>2</sub> headspace approach, the electrolyte was constantly stirred by a stir bar, thereby ensuring it was well mixed.

All chronoamperometry experiments were conducted at  $-1.1 V_{\text{RHE}}$  using an Ag/AgCl leak-free reference electrode (Pine Research) calibrated to the reference hydrogen electrode (RHE), and iR correction was applied post-electrolysis. pH effects were taken into consideration while calculating the electrode potentials from RHE using the following equation:

$$E_{\text{RHE}} = E_{\text{Ag/AgCl}} + 0.197 + 0.0591\text{pH}$$

The current densities reported in Figure 4 and Table S1 represent averages of at least three measurements. Local pH measurements were made using the 9810n series probe from Fisher Scientific ( $\sim 1$  mm diameter), although the bulk pH was measured using a 3-mm-diameter probe from Hanna Instruments. The aqueous  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration reported in Figure 3 was determined from the pH measured 10 min into  $\text{CO}_2\text{RR}$  and represents an average of three measurements. Figure S7 shows the impact of changing the distance between the plastron and the catalyst on the  $\text{CO}_2\text{RR}$  current density. It is advantageous to perform  $\text{CO}_2\text{RR}$  as proximal to the catalyst as possible.

### Determining Faradaic efficiencies

For the equivalent experiments requiring characterization of product distribution,  $\text{CO}_2\text{RR}$  was performed in a two-compartment H-cell, with a Pt mesh counter electrode separated from the catholyte by a Nafion 117 membrane (obtained from the Fuel Cell Store). The same cleaning procedures described earlier were used with all glassware, and the Nafion 117 membrane was conditioned prior to electrochemical measurements sequentially by 0.5 M  $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$ , 0.5 M  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ , and 0.5 M  $\text{KClO}_4$  for  $\sim 1$  h each and then rinsed with DI water prior to electrochemical measurements. The catalyst-proximal plastron was developed on the gasphilic trap and kept at the exact same distance from the catalyst as in the cubical cell described previously. Product detection of gas-phase products were made by gas chromatography (SRI Instruments; 6'' Hayesep-D and 6'' Molsieve-13 $\times$  columns), in which the headspace of the catholyte compartment was continuously flushed with  $\text{CO}_2$  into the GC sample loop.  $\text{H}_2$  was detected by the thermal conductivity detector (TCD) although organic compounds ( $\text{CH}_4$ ,  $\text{CO}$ ,  $\text{C}_2\text{H}_4$ , and  $\text{C}_2\text{H}_6$ ) were detected by flame ionization detector (FID). The first gas sampling was taken 10 min into the chronoamperometry measurement, and the second was taken 30 min into the measurement. Liquid-phase products were analyzed after electrolysis using nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR), specifically  $^1\text{H-NMR}$  (Bruker 500 MHz). For this procedure, 35  $\mu\text{L}$  of a 100 mM phenol and 100 mM dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) reference solution in  $\text{D}_2\text{O}$  standard was added to 700  $\mu\text{L}$  of collected electrolyte, and a water-suppression protocol was followed to minimize the water peak intensity. Figure S8 shows the effect of potential on  $\text{CO}_2\text{RR}$  current densities and Faradaic efficiencies. Although both  $-1.1 V_{\text{RHE}}$  and  $-1.0 V_{\text{RHE}}$  potentials show improvement in  $\text{CO}_2\text{RR}$  performance by using the plastron,  $-1.1 V_{\text{RHE}}$  is optimal to show the most significant impact of the plastron approach.

### X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) characterization

XPS surface analysis was performed on the electropolished copper catalyst both before and after  $\text{CO}_2\text{RR}$  (PHI Versaprobe II series XPS). Survey spectra of the catalyst sample used in the catalyst-proximal plastron approach are shown in Figure S9. No metallic contaminants were detected both before and after  $\text{CO}_2\text{RR}$ ; the K, O, and C peaks on the post-electrolysis catalyst sample can be attributed to trace electrolyte salts left on the catalyst surface.

### Determination of ECSA

The ECSA of the nanostructured oxide-derived copper catalyst was determined using the double-layer capacitance method as described previously in literature.<sup>12</sup>

Using 0.1M HClO<sub>4</sub> as the electrolyte, cyclic voltammetry scans were conducted in a potential range where Faradaic processes are absent (see Figure S10) at five different scan rates from 20 mV/s to 100 mV/s. The current density was then plotted against the scan rate, which resulted in an approximately linear graph, from which the slope was determined and the double-layer capacitance was calculated. The corresponding roughness factor (see Table S2) was calculated by dividing the capacitance of the nanostructured catalyst by that of the smooth, electropolished catalyst (roughness assumed to be 1). The roughness factor was then multiplied by the geometric area in all ECSA-normalized current density calculations.

### Assembly of catalyst-proximal plastrons

To demonstrate that the enhancement in the CO<sub>2</sub>RR current density by using the catalyst-proximal plastron approach is replicable even in catalyst systems that have an increased area, we fabricated a simple device that consists of five electropolished copper catalyst wires placed in close proximity to their respective plastrons, as shown in Figure S11A and S11B below using the same volume of 0.1 M KHCO<sub>3</sub> as our previous experiment in Figure 1 in the manuscript. For comparison, a similar configuration of catalysts with the same surface area was made where instead CO<sub>2</sub> was bubbled in the bulk electrolyte close to the catalyst at the same flowrate as shown in Figures S11C and S11D. It is evident from Figure S11E that the CO<sub>2</sub>RR current is enhanced simply by introducing the bubbles on traps close to the catalyst than in bulk for the same flow rate and catalyst surface area. In fact, the ratio of the measured currents at steady state between the plastron and bubbling approaches is consistent with the ratio of current densities measured previously with a single catalyst seen in Figure 1J. Furthermore, the local CO<sub>2</sub> concentration (as determined by measuring pH) is enhanced and maintained in the catalyst-proximal plastron approach. Each catalyst-proximal plastron provides greater mass transfer of CO<sub>2</sub> relative to the bubbling approach, thereby maintaining the local CO<sub>2</sub> concentration as well as the CO<sub>2</sub>RR current. Each individual catalyst in the assembly benefits from the supersaturated CO<sub>2</sub> concentration emanating from within the plastrons, as visualized in Figure 2D. Even when the catalyst area is increased for the same volume of electrolyte (thereby drawing a greater current and consuming more CO<sub>2</sub> in the same electrolyte volume), the catalyst-proximal plastron approach is able to enhance and maintain CO<sub>2</sub>RR performance relative to the bubbling approach.

### SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION

Supplemental Information can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.xcrp.2020.100318>.

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### AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

The manuscript was written through contributions of all authors. K.K.V. and Y.-S.H. conceptualized the research and supervised the project. S.K. and J.H. performed the research. S.K. fabricated textured gasphilic samples and performed chronoamperometry, pH, and colorimetry measurements. J.H. and S.K. performed the GC and NMR measurements. All authors discussed the results and analyzed the data. S.K. and K.K.V. wrote the manuscript, and others commented on and edited the manuscript.

## DECLARATION OF INTERESTS

Y.S.H. is a board member at *Cell Reports Physical Science*.

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