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Modified Cu-based Catalysts for Electrochemical Reduction of CO₂ to Multicarbon Products

by

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Abstract

The electrochemical reduction of carbon dioxide to produce valuable chemicals is widely recognized as a promising strategy for mitigating the environmental impact of CO₂. This research focuses on the development of Cu-based materials, particularly oxide-derived copper (OD-Cu), as efficient electrocatalysts for the conversion of CO₂ to multicarbon products. Normally, the electrocatalytic reduction of CO₂ involves a complex reaction pathway and the simultaneous occurrence of the hydrogen evolution reaction (HER), which subsequently results in poor selectivity of the carbonaceous products. Furthermore, the deactivation of catalysts has a significant impact on their long-term stability. Therefore, various electrode preparation methods and modification techniques have been used to improve the catalytic performance and deepen our understanding of the underlying mechanism.

The surface hydrophobicity of CuO electrodes was controlled by coating PVDC to suppress the hydrogen evolution reaction and promote the conversion of CO₂ to ethylene, a value-added bulk chemical. The systematic investigation of different coating materials, amounts and sequences revealed that the CuO electrode with a PVDC coating of only 50 μg/cm² optimizes hydrophobicity (WCA = 122°). It is found that the modified electrode led to highly efficient production of ethylene ($|j|_{\text{C}_2\text{H}_4} = 6.8 \text{ mA/cm}^2$, $\text{FE}_{\text{C}_2\text{H}_4} = 41.4\%$) at -0.89 V vs. RHE while effectively suppressing hydrogen evolution ($\text{FE}_{\text{H}_2} = 22.7\%$). The catalytic activity of CO₂RR to ethylene of the PVDC-modified CuO electrode is inherently a 50.8% increase in comparison to that of the CuO electrode. PVDC modification balances proton transfer and CO₂ availability. In addition, PVDC affects CuO reduction by increasing the proportion of Cu⁺ species on the CuO-

PVDC surface and facilitating C-C coupling. The PVDC-modified electrode retains durable hydrophobic properties without affecting conductivity, which facilitates efficient CO₂ conversion.

Besides, CuO was prepared using precursors with different mass ratios, both with and without microwave heating. The microwave-assisted synthesized CuO (MW-CuO) showed similar morphology but smaller particle size than the conventionally prepared CuO. MW-CuO exhibited a higher defect site density and significantly more grain boundaries (GBs). At a reactant ratio of Cu²⁺ and CO₃²⁻ of 1.1, MW-CuO exhibited superior catalytic performance and achieved a remarkable FE of C₂₊ products (71.9% at -1.04 V vs. RHE, corresponding to a partial current density of about 11.2 mA/cm²). This performance, which is among the highest reported for OD-Cu catalysts, is attributed to the significantly higher Cu⁺ to Cu⁰ ratio of MW-CuO on the surface. These factors, an appropriate ratio of Cu⁺ and Cu⁰ species, and defective surface features improved the CO₂RR selectivity for multi-carbon products and emphasized the sustainable approach in catalyst preparation.

Another modification strategy involves electrochemical deposition on the Cu₂O-C₃N₄ electrode, resulting in a captivating dendritic 3D Cu structure that significantly enhances the catalytic activity. Electrochemical analysis revealed a fourfold increase in current density. Electrochemical analysis revealed a fourfold increase in current density for multicarbon products after electrodeposition with a peak value of 12.7 mA/cm² (with $|j|_{\text{ethylene}} = 7.2 \text{ mA/cm}^2$) at -1.04 V vs. RHE. Furthermore, the reduction and restructuring of Cu species during the electrocatalytic CO₂ reduction reaction led to a high Cu⁺/Cu⁰ ratio on the Cu@Cu₂O-C₃N₄ electrode, which correlates with enhanced C-C coupling as

evidenced by higher product ratios of C_2H_4/CH_4 . The electrodeposition increased the electrochemically active sites by 1.5 times and reduced the charge transfer resistance by 0.4-fold. In particular, the intrinsic electrocatalyst in the original electrode contributed significantly to the improvement of the electrochemical performance of various electrodes during the deposition process. Furthermore, the mechanism of electrode deactivation was investigated, revealing that carbon deposition was the primary cause.

This thesis covers several relevant works, including the preparation of Cu-based catalysts and the regulation of the gas-liquid-solid interface. It presents universal strategies to improve the performance of oxide-derived Cu electrodes for electrochemical CO_2 reduction reactions to multi-carbon products. The research findings indicate that maintaining a moderate level of hydrophobicity facilitates proton transfer while preserving unhindered CO_2 adsorption. In addition, the presence of porous 3D structures, an optimal ratio of Cu^0 to Cu^+ and abundant surface defects accelerate C-C coupling processes. It contributes to a better understanding of the reaction process.

Keywords: Cu-based catalysts, electrochemical CO_2 reduction, surface modification, multi-carbon products, inhibited hydrogen evolution.

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- GUO, Z., ZHU, H., YANG, G., WU, A., **CHEN, Q.**, YAN, Z., LOON FOW, K., DO, H., HIRST, J. D., WU, T. & XU, M. (2023). Synergistic engineering of heteronuclear Ni-Ag dual-atom catalysts for high-efficiency CO₂ electroreduction with nearly 100% CO selectivity. *Chemical Engineering Journal*, 476.
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- ZHU, H., LIU, S., YU, J., **CHEN, Q.**, MAO, X. & WU, T. (2023). Computational screening of effective g-C₃N₄ based single atom electrocatalysts for the selective conversion of CO₂. *Nanoscale*, 15, 8416-8423.
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List of Abbreviation

Ar = Argon

C₂₊ = Multicarbon

CCS = CO₂ capture and storage

C_{dl} = Double-layer capacitance

CH₄ = Methane

C₂H₄ = Ethylene

C₂H₆ = Ethane

C₂H₅OH = Ethanol

C₃H₇OH = n-Propanol

CO = Carbon monoxide

CO₂ = Carbon dioxide

CO₂RR = Carbon dioxide reduction reaction

Cu = Copper

Cu₂O = Cuprous oxide

CuO = Copper oxide / cupric oxide

CV = Cyclic voltammetry

DMSO = Dimethylsulfoxide

D₂O = Deuterioxide

eCO₂RR = Electrochemical carbon dioxide reduction reaction

ECSA = Electrochemical Active Surface Area

EDS = Energy Dispersive X-Ray Spectrometer

EIS = Electrochemical Impedance Spectroscopy

EtOH = Ethanol

FE = Faradaic efficiency

FID = Flame ionization detectors

GC = gas chromatography

H₂ = Hydrogen

HCOOH = Formic acid

HER = Hydrogen evolution reaction

¹H-NMR = Proton nuclear magnetic resonance

H₂O = Water

HRTEM = High-Resolution Transmission Electron Microscope

$|j|$ = Current density

LSV = Linear sweep voltammetry

N₂ = Nitrogen

O₂ = Oxygen

P-ED = Pulse electrodeposition

R_{ct} = Charge transfer resistance

R_s = Solution resistance

PTFE = Polytetrafluoroethylene

PVDC = Polyvinyl Dichloride

PVDF = Polyvinylidene Fluoride

RHE = Reversible hydrogen electrode

SCE = Saturated calomel electrode

SEM = Scanning electron microscope

SWP = Square-wave potential

TCD = Thermal conductivity detector

TEM = Transmission electron microscopy

UPD = Underpotential deposition

VASP = Vienna ab initio Simulation Package

WCA = Water contact angle

XPS = X-Ray Photoelectron Spectroscopy

XRD = X-Ray Diffraction

Chapter 1. Introduction

1.1 Background

The emission of carbon dioxide has many causes and poses a considerable environmental risk [1]. In particular, the burning of fossil fuels such as coal, oil and natural gas for electricity generation [2-5], transportation [6, 7], and industrial processes [8-11] is the main cause of CO₂ emissions [12, 13]. The accumulation of CO₂ in the atmosphere triggers the greenhouse effect and thus leads to global warming [14]. This phenomenon has negative effects, such as a rise in global temperatures, a disruption of the usual weather patterns, an increase in extreme weather events and the progressive retreat of glaciers and polar ice caps [15-18]. To mitigate climate change and preserve the delicate balance of our planet, it is of utmost importance to tackle the sources and threats of CO₂ emissions [19-21].

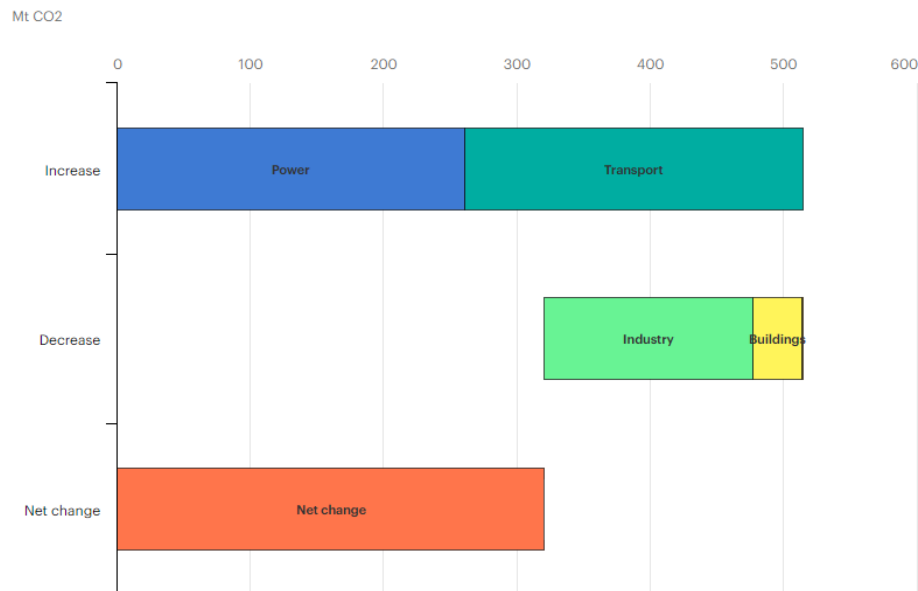


Figure 1.1 Changes in CO₂ emissions by sector, 2021-2022 [22].

The conversion of CO₂ into fuels has attracted considerable attention as a promising strategy for energy storage and the promotion of a sustainable carbon-neutral economy [23, 24]. Scientists and researchers have explored various effective conversion techniques, including photocatalytic conversion, biological conversion, and electrocatalytic reduction [25-27]. Among these methods, electrocatalytic CO₂ reduction powered by renewable energy sources has emerged as an attractive approach due to its mild reaction conditions and environmentally friendly nature [28-30].

When considering the products obtained from eCO₂RR, a variety of compounds can be generated, including carbon monoxide (CO), methane (CH₄), formic acid (HCOOH), ethylene (C₂H₄), ethane (C₂H₆), ethanol (C₂H₅OH), and n-propanol (n-C₃H₇OH) [31]. However, there is actually a preference for C₂ and C₂₊ compounds consisting of two or more carbon atoms. This preference stems from the higher volumetric energy density of these compounds compared to the simpler C₁ products. The ability of C₂ and C₂₊ products to offer convenient transportation and improved energy storage properties makes them particularly desirable [32]. In addition, C₂ and C₂₊ offer a wide range of applications in numerous industries. These versatile compounds are valuable starting materials for chemical synthesis and are promising alternatives to conventional fossil fuels [33-35].

When considering the sustainable development and environmental impact of the CO₂RR process for synthesizing multi-carbon products, several notable considerations come to the fore. The choice of an energy source to drive the CO₂RR process proves to be a critical factor in promoting sustainable development. Utilizing renewable energy sources, such as solar or wind energy,

has the potential to significantly reduce the carbon footprint and environmental impact associated with the process [36, 37]. By limiting fossil fuels, the overall sustainability of the CO₂RR process can be improved.

The design and selection of catalysts and the optimization of reaction conditions are crucial for sustainable CO₂RR. Highly active, selective and stable catalysts improve process efficiency and minimize waste [38, 39]. Controlling factors such as temperature, pH, and electrolyte composition improve reaction efficiency and selectivity, increasing the yield of multi-carbon products while reducing by-products and waste [40]. Maximizing selectivity for the desired multi-carbon products improves process efficiency and economic viability.

In addition, a comprehensive life cycle assessment for the CO₂RR process provides insights into its environmental impact [41, 42]. The LCA considers the entire life cycle of the process, from raw material extraction to catalyst synthesis, reaction, product separation and waste management. Identifying and remediating environmental hotspots improves the overall sustainability of CO₂RR [43-46]. Incorporating these considerations into the development and implementation of CO₂RR for multi-carbon products enables a more sustainable and environmentally friendly process that contributes to the reduction of greenhouse gases and the transition to a low-carbon economy.

Catalysts play a crucial role in facilitating chemical reactions. Factors such as temperature, pressure, and the composition of catalysts used would influence the performance of the entire process. These factors determine the outcome of the reaction and lead to the production of a wide range of hydrocarbon products [47-49]. Copper has moderate adsorption energy towards key reaction intermediates,

which contributes to its unique properties as an electrocatalyst for the production of multi-carbon products compared to other metals [50]. During the CO₂ reduction process, at least 16 different C₁-C₃ products can form on the surface of copper [51]. Table 1.1 shows the standard equilibrium potentials for the electrochemical conversion of CO₂ into specific carbon products, together with the number of electrons transferred. This table shows that the main product potentials for eCO₂RR overlap with those of H₂, which can affect the eCO₂RR performance of catalysts [52]. The overlapping potentials between CO₂ reduction and HER pose a challenge for achieving high selectivity and activity in CO₂RR.

In addition, the formation of different C₁-C₃ products can be attributed to the different bond strengths and reaction kinetics of the various intermediates on the copper surface [53]. The process of CO₂ reduction involves multiple proton and electron transfers to form complex reaction intermediates, which can lead to slow kinetics. The formation of these intermediates and the subsequent conversions determine the selectivity and efficiency of the CO₂ electroreduction process. Therefore, controlling the binding of intermediates is a crucial approach to improve product selectivity [54, 55].

Table 1.1 Electrochemical reactions yielding different products with thermodynamic equilibrium potentials in a 0.1 M KHCO₃ solution at 1.0 atm and 25°C [56, 57].

	Chemical formula	Chemical reaction	E⁰/V vs. RHE
C₁	CO	$\text{CO}_2 + 2\text{H}^+ + 2\text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{CO}(\text{g}) + \text{H}_2\text{O}$	-0.10
	HCOOH	$\text{CO}_2 + 2\text{H}^+ + 2\text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{HCOOH}(\text{aq})$	-0.12
	CH₃OH	$\text{CO}_2 + 6\text{H}^+ + 6\text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{CH}_3\text{OH}(\text{aq}) + \text{H}_2\text{O}$	0.03
	CH₄	$\text{CO}_2 + 8\text{H}^+ + 8\text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{CH}_4(\text{g}) + 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$	0.17
C₂₊	CH₃CHO	$2\text{CO}_2 + 10\text{H}^+ + 10\text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{CH}_3\text{CHO}(\text{aq}) + 3\text{H}_2\text{O}$	0.06
	C₂H₄	$2\text{CO}_2 + 12\text{H}^+ + 12\text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{C}_2\text{H}_4(\text{g}) + 4\text{H}_2\text{O}$	0.08
	C₂H₅OH	$2\text{CO}_2 + 12\text{H}^+ + 12\text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{OH}(\text{aq}) + 3\text{H}_2\text{O}$	0.09
	C₂H₆	$2\text{CO}_2 + 14\text{H}^+ + 14\text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{C}_2\text{H}_6(\text{g}) + 4\text{H}_2\text{O}$	0.14
	C₂H₅CHO	$2\text{CO}_2 + 16\text{H}^+ + 16\text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{CHO}(\text{aq}) + 5\text{H}_2\text{O}$	0.09
	C₃H₇OH	$3\text{CO}_2 + 18\text{H}^+ + 18\text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{C}_3\text{H}_7\text{OH}(\text{aq}) + 5\text{H}_2\text{O}$	0.10
	Hydrogen evolution reaction	$2\text{H}^+ + 2\text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{H}_2(\text{g})$	0.00
	Oxygen Evolution Reaction	$2\text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{O}_2(\text{g}) + 4\text{H}^+ + 4\text{e}^-$	1.23

Improving the durability and stability of copper-based catalysts is a major challenge in CO₂ electroreduction. Several actors contribute to the gradual degradation of copper-based catalysts during prolonged operation (Figure 1.2). The dissolution/re-deposition of copper ions from the catalyst surface into the electrolyte leads to the loss of active sites and changes in the surface morphology of the catalyst [58-60]. At the same time, the accumulation of reaction by-products or intermediates on the catalyst surface hinders the accessibility of the

active sites and makes the interaction of the reactant with the catalyst more difficult [61, 62]. As a result, copper-based catalysts experience surface erosion, changes in the lattice structure and deactivation of the catalytic sites, leading to a deterioration in overall performance.

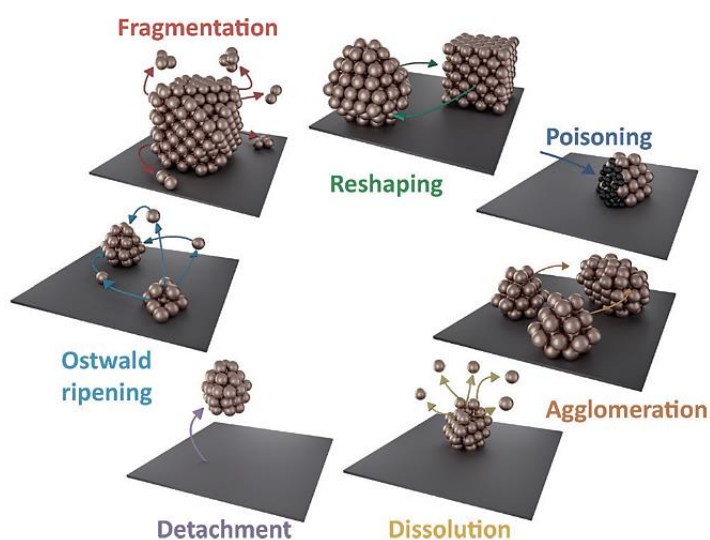


Figure 1.2 Summary of nanoscale degradation mechanism of Cu-based nanostructures during CO₂RR [58].

Researchers have explored various strategies to overcome the challenges associated with CO₂ emissions reduction. The aim is to improve the activity, selectivity, durability and stability of copper-based catalysts for the production of multi-carbon products (Figure 1.3). A critical approach is to suppress the HER and favour the desired CO₂ reduction pathway by modifying the composition, surface structure and electronic structure of the catalyst and tuning the coordination environment [52, 63-65]. In addition, understanding the scaling relationship between the adsorption energies of similar intermediates enables the development of catalysts with higher selectivity for carbon products while minimizing hydrogen formation [66]. Strategies such as surface modifications and the use of stable support materials contribute to making copper-based

catalysts more durable and efficient in the long term. In addition, optimization of reaction conditions, including temperature, pH and electrolyte composition, helps to reduce catalyst degradation and improve stability [67-69]. Addressing these challenges requires in-depth research and innovation in catalyst design, interfacial engineering, and crystal structure modulation, among others, to develop efficient, selective, and stable copper oxide catalysts for CO₂RR [70, 71].

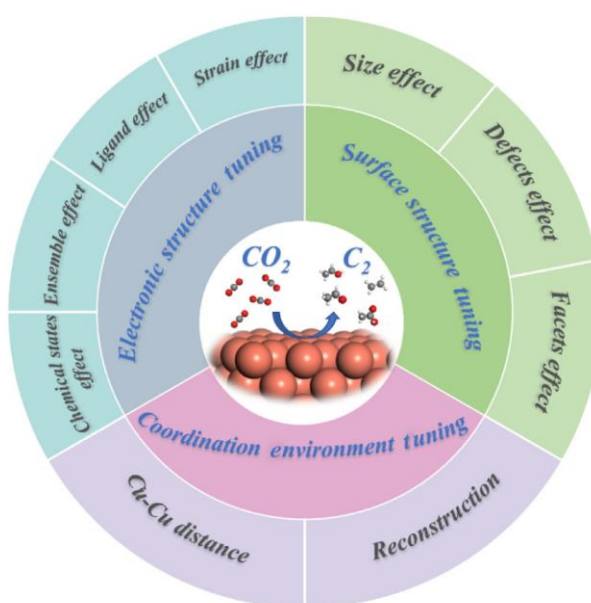


Figure 1.3 Strategies for the design of Cu-based catalysts for CO₂RR to produce multi-carbon products [72].

In situ characterization and operando studies are crucial for understanding catalyst behaviour during CO₂RR and essential for rational catalyst design [73, 74]. Techniques such as spectroscopy, microscopy and electrochemical methods provide insights into the surface structure, adsorption behaviour, and reaction kinetics under realistic conditions [75-77]. Computational modelling, including density functional theory calculations [78-81] and machine learning [82-84], enables the prediction of reaction energetics, identification of active sites and

screening of catalyst composition. This cost-effective approach helps to identify promising candidates for experimental validation. By integrating these methods, catalyst design can be accelerated, providing a viable route to customize catalysts for optimal performance in CO₂RR.

1.2 Aim and objectives

This research plan focuses on the application of Cu-based material in the electrocatalytic reduction of CO₂ to C₂₊ products. Based on this main topic, the specific objectives are listed as follows:

1. To analyse the relationship between hydrophobicity and proton transfer and search for an optimal hydrophobic material to suppress the hydrogen evolution reaction without affecting the CO₂RR.
2. Investigate the formation of defects on the CuO nanoparticles and study the effects of a rough surface on the electrochemical performance of CO₂ reduction to a multi-carbon product.
3. To study the evolution of electrodes and to find out the active species during the test, to study the degradation of electrodes comparatively, and to improve the stability and durability of catalysts.
4. To improve the selectivity and activity of multi-carbon products, to accelerate C-C coupling, and to enhance the charge and mass transfer.

In order to improve the selectivity and efficiency of CO₂RR for multi-carbon products, this work focuses on the development of different electrode modifications. Three main approaches are used: PVDC-modified CuO

electrodes, microwave-assisted synthesis of CuO electrodes, and Cu-electrodeposited Cu₂O-C₃N₄ electrodes. The CuO electrode is hydrophobically modified with different hydrophobic materials, coating amounts and methods to determine the optimal hydrophobicity for controlled proton transfer. In addition, CO₂ permeability calculations are performed to investigate the effects of hydrophobicity. DFT calculations are used to investigate the binding energy of key intermediates on the modified electrode. In addition, the surface roughness of CuO is investigated by introducing defects during synthesis by microwave treatment. The evolution of species on the electrode surface is analyzed to elucidate the degradation mechanism. In the final work, the surface roughness can be adjusted by electrodeposition. Cu is deposited on the Cu₂O-C₃N₄ electrode to create a porous structure and increase the active sites. The ratio of Cu⁰ and Cu⁺ on the electrode is evaluated to study the C-C coupling process. The overall goal of this work is the modification of Cu-based electrodes for electrochemical CO₂RR, with the aim of producing C₂₊ products.

1.3 Structure of thesis

This thesis comprises seven chapters, accompanied by pertinent references, which establish a logical progression of the research undertaken in this study. It delves into the significant strides made in electrochemical CO₂ reduction reaction stemming from comprehensive investigations conducted during this program (Figure 1.4).

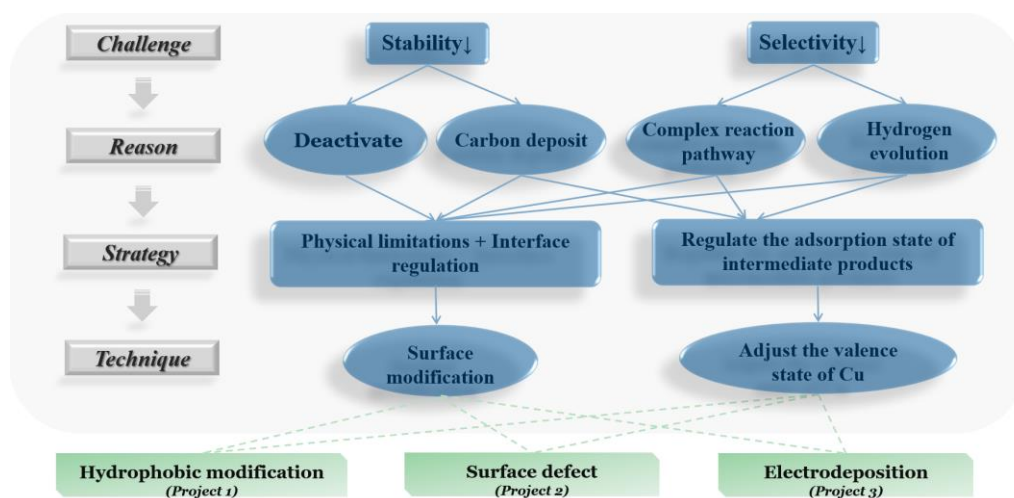


Figure 1.4 The research gap of eCO₂RR.

Chapter 1 introduced Cu-based electrocatalysts to develop electrochemical reduction of carbon dioxide. The topic is directly relevant to the overall thesis and planned technical approach presented in the thesis. The chapter also outlined the objectives that would be pursued in the study.

An introduction to the mechanisms and factors influencing the performance of copper-based catalysts in the electrochemical reduction of carbon dioxide, with a special focus on the generation of C₂₊ products, is the main topic of Chapter 2. More attention is paid to these catalysts' preparation, modification, and performance within the context of an H-cell setup.

A detailed description of the experimental equipment and procedures employed was provided in Chapter 3. It covers the synthesis methods for PVDC-modified CuO, microwave-assisted CuO synthesis and Cu electrodeposition of Cu₂O-C₃N₄. The mechanisms and processes underlying the different characterization techniques have been elucidated to allow a better understanding of the experimental results. The catalytic reaction process is also presented, highlighting the most critical factors and parameters. In addition, the

computational process using density functional theory (DFT) is mentioned in this chapter, which provided theoretical insights into the reaction mechanisms and helped in the experimental design and interpretation of the results.

The effect of PVDC modification on the CuO electrodes was investigated in Chapter 4. The effects of PVDC modification on the proton transfer and the stability of the electrocatalysts were systematically investigated by varying the coating material, coating amount and coating order. Comparative tests and calculations were carried out to determine the influence of PVDC on CO₂ availability and CO₂RR performance.

Besides, the synthesis of grain boundary-rich CuO using microwave heating was described and compared with conventionally heated CuO based on morphology and defect density in Chapter 5. The catalytic performance in electrochemical CO₂ reduction for C₂₊ products, as well as the degradation mechanism, is investigated through a series of characterizations.

The electrodeposition method was employed to modify the Cu₂O-C₃N₄ electrode, with the goal of regulating the reaction pathway in Chapter 6. This chapter extensively details the impact of Cu electrodeposition on the electrode by comparing morphology, catalytic activity, and efficiency. Additionally, electrochemical analysis for the Cu@Cu₂O-C₃N₄ electrode is conducted to discern changes in active sites and resistance.

Finally, in Chapter 7, the overarching findings and results drawn from this research are presented, along with suggestions for future work in this field.

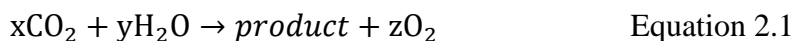
Chapter 2. Literature review

2.1 Introduction

Carbon dioxide sequestration and utilization are the two promising approaches to reduce the net CO₂ content of the atmosphere. Among these methods, the conversion of CO₂ into valuable fuels such as carbon monoxide, methane, ethylene and alcohols offers great potential for the development of a sustainable, carbon-neutral economy. There are several effective techniques for CO₂ conversion, including thermocatalytic, photocatalytic, biocatalytic and electrocatalytic CO₂ reduction [85]. Among these methods, electrocatalytic CO₂ reduction is characterized by its mild operating conditions at ambient temperature and pressure. In addition, the electrochemical reaction is environmentally friendly and produces no hazardous waste. This makes electrocatalytic CO₂ reduction a promising and sustainable approach to tackle the challenges of energy storage and environmental issues while creating a pathway to a carbon-neutral future [28, 86-88].

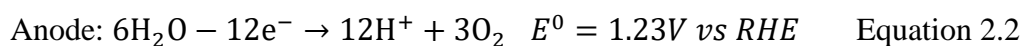
In electrochemical CO₂ reduction, the abundant and inexpensive H₂O is often used as a source of electrons and protons. The extensive use of electrolyte solutions containing bicarbonate ensures a neutral pH and promotes an equilibrium between HCO₃⁻ and dissolved CO₂ [68, 89]. This equilibrium ensures effective contact between the cathode and the saturated carbon dioxide. At the same time, hydrogen evolution has become the main side reaction. Previous studies have investigated the addition of organic solvents and ionic liquids to water to inhibit the hydrogen evolution reactions and improve Faradaic efficiency [69, 90]. Organic solvents have better CO₂ solubility than water, but

their high cost and limitations in anodic reactions in non-aqueous systems hinder broad applicability. The CO₂ reduction reaction in a water-based system follows the following general formulas:



H-cells, microfluidic cells, membrane-based flow reactors and solid oxide electrolyzers have been developed to perform the electrochemical CO₂ reduction reaction [67, 91-93]. The H-cell is commonly used in the laboratory to evaluate the catalytic performance of electrodes and to perform some basic research [94]. In the H-cell, a membrane separates the cathode chamber and the anode chamber to avoid mixing the electrocatalytic products. The proton exchange membrane Nafion 117, for example, is one of the membranes commonly used. The oxygen evolution reaction (OER) takes place at the anode and follows the reaction equation 2.2.

A wide range of carbonaceous products can be produced at the cathode. The typical carbon products in the CO₂RR are CO, formic acid, hydrocarbons, aldehydes and alcohols [95]. It is more likely that CO is produced with only two electron transfers among these products. At present, the efficiency of CO₂RR to CO could reach more than 95% if modified electrocatalysts with good stability are used [96, 97]. However, due to the low energy density of CO, it is not an ideal product. Figure 2.1 shows the possible market prices and the energy content of the products in CO₂RR. Ethylene, ethanol and propanol have enormous research potential due to their high volumetric energy densities and high market prices [33].



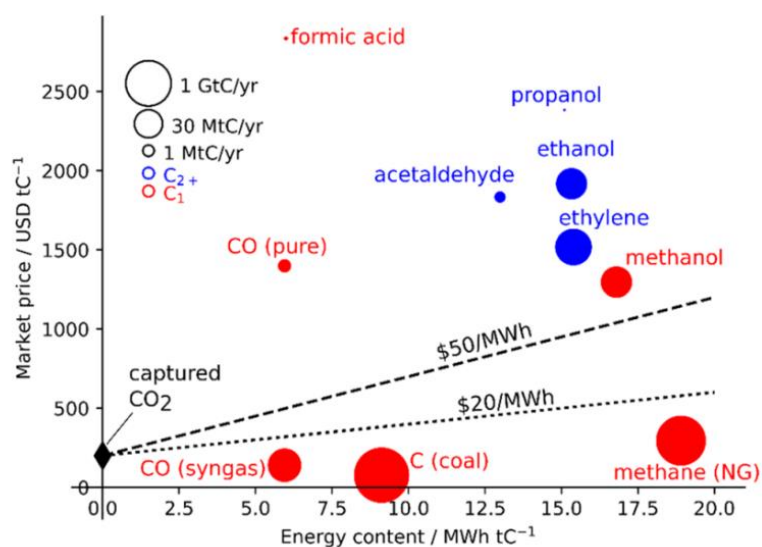


Figure 2.1 Market price and energy content of the desired products in the electrochemical CO₂ reduction reaction.

2.2 Basic Principles of CO₂ Electrocatalytic Reduction

2.2.1 Reaction process of CO₂RR.

The electrocatalytic reduction of carbon dioxide is a complex and intricate reaction process that requires the creation of a comprehensive and unified theoretical framework to develop catalysts with high activity and selectivity (Figure 2.2). In an aqueous environment, this reaction process unfolds as a multi-layered and multi-step journey involving multiple proton-coupled electron transfer events between reactive surface-bound species at the three-phase interface [98].

When carbon dioxide is electrolyzed, it undergoes a series of reduction reactions at the electrode surface. Although the exact reaction mechanism has not been generally explained, the following four steps are widely accepted in heterogeneous catalysis. The overall reaction process can be summarized as

follows: Carbon dioxide molecules are adsorbed on the surface of the electrode, where they interact with the catalyst [99, 100]. Subsequently, the adsorbed carbon dioxide molecules are activated by accepting electrons from the electrode and forming intermediates such as CO_2^* , CO^* and HCOO^* (where * stands for the adsorption site) [101]. The process of linearly bound CO_2 molecules on the catalyst surface in the sp^1 -hybridized state and their initial electron transfer activation to $^*\text{CO}_2$ is typically a rate-determining step, as it usually involves spatial changes in the geometric structure and requires a significant amount of reorganization energy [102]. This energy contribution is also a major factor influencing the slow dynamics of electrochemical reduction. Protons from the electrolyte participate in the reduction process and lead to the formation of products such as carbon monoxide (CO), formate (HCOO^-) and hydrocarbons by proton-coupled electron transfer [103].

C-C coupling is the crucial step for multi-carbon products. The C-C coupled intermediates can undergo further hydrogenation reactions, in which additional hydrogen atoms are added to the carbon backbone. This leads to the formation of hydrocarbons with different chain lengths, such as ethylene, ethanol, or products with a higher carbon number. Finally, the reaction products desorb from the electrode surface, making room for new CO_2 molecules to pass through the process. The specific pathways and selectivity of the reduction depend on the catalyst, the electrode potential and the reaction conditions [104, 105].

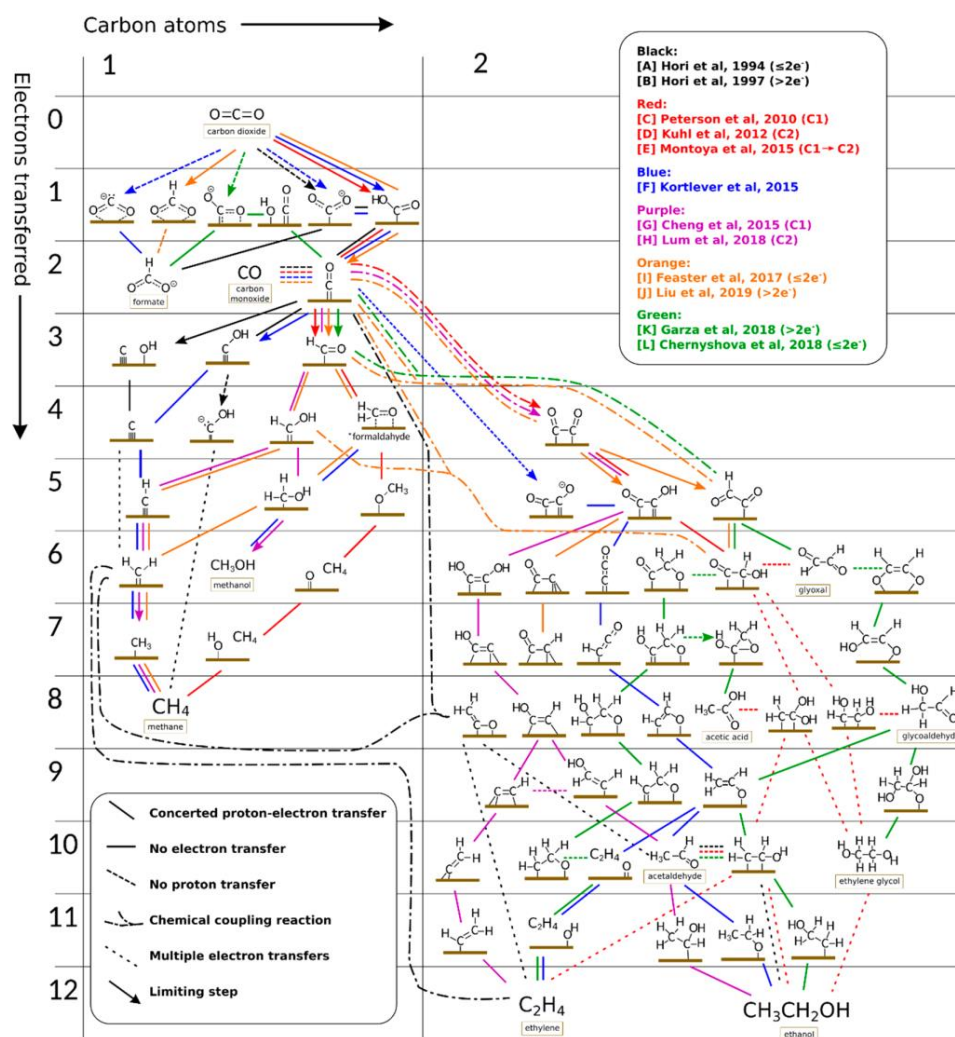


Figure 2.2 The possible pathways of CO₂RR on polycrystalline copper [106].

The difference in production selectivity usually depends on the strength of the bond between the electrocatalyst and the main intermediate, mainly CO*. If the bond between the catalyst and CO* is weak, CO* will be released from the catalyst surface as soon as it is formed. In this case, CO becomes the main product. If the bond is too strong, the hydrogen evolution reaction would dominate, and CO₂ reduction would also be inhibited as the occupied metal sites are not available for further CO₂RR [107]. Therefore, the adsorption and desorption energy of the key intermediates is one of the decisive factors for the efficiency of the final product.

In the production of multi-carbon products, a crucial step is the dimerization of CO^* . However, this reaction competes with the hydrogenation of CO^* . Based on the data presented in Table 2.1, the possible reactions leading to the formation of COCO^* and COCHO^* and their respective free energies were documented on three Cu-based electrocatalysts. The COCO^* intermediates can be generated by the reaction between CO^* and either CO or CO^* . It can be deduced that the adsorption of CO next to an existing CO^* site occurs spontaneously, but the approach of two neighbouring CO^* molecules requires overcoming a small barrier.

On the other hand, the formation of the intermediate COCHO^* differs from that of COCO^* . While the adsorption of CO next to an existing CHO^* site or the approximation of existing CO^* and CHO^* can contribute to it, it can also be formed by the hydrogenation of COCO^* . However, due to their high reaction energies, this hydrogenation process is challenging for the Cu-AGNR and Cu- βB catalysts. In addition, maintaining adequate CO^* coverage plays an essential role in achieving high selectivity for C_{2+} products. This coverage helps to inhibit the decomposition of COCHO^* and is crucial for the desired result [108].

Table 2.1 The free energies of the C₂-related reactions on Cu-AGNR, Cu-ZGNR and Cu-βB [108].

Reaction	$\Delta G_{\text{Cu-AGNR}}$ [ev]	$\Delta G_{\text{Cu-ZGNR}}$ [ev]	$\Delta G_{\text{Cu-}\beta\text{B}}$ [ev]
$\text{CO} + * \rightarrow \text{CO}^*$	-0.45	-0.77	-0.60
$\text{CO}^* + \text{H}^+ + \text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{CHO}^*$	0.59	0.62	0.61
$\text{CO}^* + \text{CO} \rightarrow \text{COCO}^*$	-0.38	-0.26	-0.55
$\text{CO}^* + \text{CO}^* \rightarrow \text{COCO}^*$	0.06	0.17	0.05
$\text{CHO}^* + \text{CO} \rightarrow \text{COCHO}^*$	0.20	-0.38	0.26
$\text{CHO}^* + \text{CO}^* \rightarrow \text{COCHO}^*$	0.34	0.15	0.46
$\text{COCO}^* + \text{H}^+ + \text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{COCHO}^*$	1.17	0.50	1.42

2.2.2 Factors influencing the kinetics of CO₂RR

The pathways from CO₂ to C₂ products are very complex, and several factors can influence these reactions. These factors include operating conditions, which include parameters such as temperature, pressure and flow rate [109, 110]. These factors can modulate the reaction rates of both CO₂RR and HER and consequently affect the selectivity of CO₂RR.

pH effect

Upon dissolution in water, CO₂ exists in three inorganic forms: CO₂(aq.), HCO₃⁻, and CO₃²⁻, along with carbonic acid. The concentrations of these species are pH-dependent, affecting the availability of CO₂ for reactions [69].

Aside from the pH of the aqueous solution, the local pH significantly influences the electrochemical reaction in several ways. Changes in pH can alter the surface charge and electrochemical potential of the electrode, influencing the adsorption

and activation of CO₂ molecules [111]. It affects the stability and transformation pathways of reaction intermediates, with alkaline conditions often favouring the stability of intermediates that promote C-C bond formation [112]. Additionally, different electrocatalysts exhibit varying catalytic activities under different local pH conditions, with some being more effective in alkaline environments. Furthermore, Local pH also impacts proton availability, appropriate local pH can suppress hydrogen evolution, thereby enhancing the selectivity for target multi-carbon products[57]. Overall, optimizing local pH is key to improving the efficiency and yield of multi-carbon products in CO₂RR.

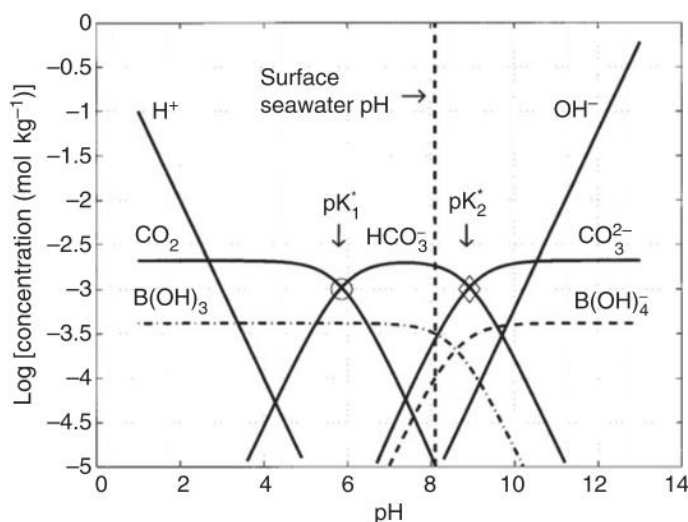


Figure 2.3 Variations in concentration of CO₂, HCO₃⁻, and CO₃²⁻ [69].

Electrolyte

The choice of electrolyte is crucial for the performance of CO₂ reduction reactions. Studies have shown that halide ions, introduced through salts like KCl, KBr, and KI, can significantly affect product selectivity. The addition of certain cations or anions can improve CO₂ adsorption and facilitate the formation of the desired products [113-116]. However, there is a significant lack of understanding

regarding the fundamental mechanisms involved in real-time reactions. Advanced operando techniques are essential for revealing the influence of halide anions and provide insights into the fundamental reaction pathways in real-time electrocatalysis.

Catalyst

Another decisive factor is the properties of the catalysts [117-119]. The selection of suitable electrode materials, as well as the design and optimization of catalysts, are of great importance in CO₂RR [120]. The performance of electrocatalysts can be evaluated based on their selectivity, activity, and stability. The faradaic efficiency serves as a measure of the selectivity of electrocatalysts towards a specific product. Equation 2.3 provides the calculation formula where m is the number of electrons transferred, n is the actual number of moles of product, F is Faraday's constant (equal to 96485.3 C/mol), and Q is the total charge consumed [105]. The overpotential, which is the difference between the actual reaction potential and the thermodynamic potential, plays a crucial role in evaluating the activity of catalysts at a given partial current density. A higher overpotential, which is required to reach a certain partial current density, indicates a lower activity of the catalyst and leads to a waste of electrical energy [121]. In addition, the cost efficiency and durability of the catalysts are crucial for industrial production. The desired electrocatalyst should, therefore, not only have activity and selectivity but also cost-effectiveness and stability [122].

$$FE = mnF/Q \quad \text{Equation 2.3}$$

2.3 Development of Cu-based electrocatalyst

2.3.1 Cu metals electrocatalysts

Pure metals were widely used as electrocatalysts in CO₂RR. Since the main products vary with the bond strength between metal catalysts and the main CO₂RR and HER intermediates such as *H, *OCHO and *CO, metal electrocatalysts can be classified into four groups [106]. The first group mainly includes Au, Ga, Ag, Zn and Pd, on which *CO can be easily desorbed so that CO is selectively produced [122, 123]. The metals of the second group (e.g. Pb, Hg, In, Sn, Cd and Tl) could catalyze the formation of formic acid [124]. The third group plays a decisive role in the formation of hydrocarbons, aldehydes and alcohols. It currently includes only one metal element, Cu, which is highlighted in the following section [125]. The metals of the last group, such as Pt, Fe, Co, Ni, and Ti, are rarely used in CO₂RR. Due to the tight bonding of the metals to the intermediate *CO, the hydrogen evolution reaction would predominate over the CO₂RR [107].

Due to the exclusive performance of copper in catalyzing the reduction of CO₂ to valuable hydrocarbons and alcohols, Cu has been tested in various fields for its performance in ethanol production. In the copper-catalyzed CO₂ reduction reaction, 16 different C₁-C₃ products were detected on the surface of Cu, including 12 C₂ and C₃ products containing hydrocarbons, ketones, aldehydes, alcohols and carboxylic acids [126]. The variety of products observed in CO₂RR can be attributed to the adsorption energies between the catalyst and key intermediates such as *CO and *H. In the case of copper catalysts, the moderately negative adsorption energy between Cu and *CO, combined with the

positive adsorption energy for *H , contributes to the formation of a variety of products [106, 127].

Extensive testing of Cu catalysts with different particle sizes and morphologies has been performed to understand their CO₂RR performance [60, 128, 129]. Interestingly, Cu catalysts with different crystal orientations exhibit different properties in terms of CO₂RR. In particular, Cu(100) surfaces consistently show a relatively high yield of multi-carbon products. If, for example, the faradaic efficiencies of different products on a Cu(100) electrode are considered, the faradaic efficiency for ethanol is below 10%. However, the faradaic efficiencies for ethylene and C₂₊ products are significantly higher, reaching 40.4% and 57.8%, respectively [130]. This underlines the importance of crystal orientation in determining the selectivity and efficiency of CO₂RR on Cu catalysts.

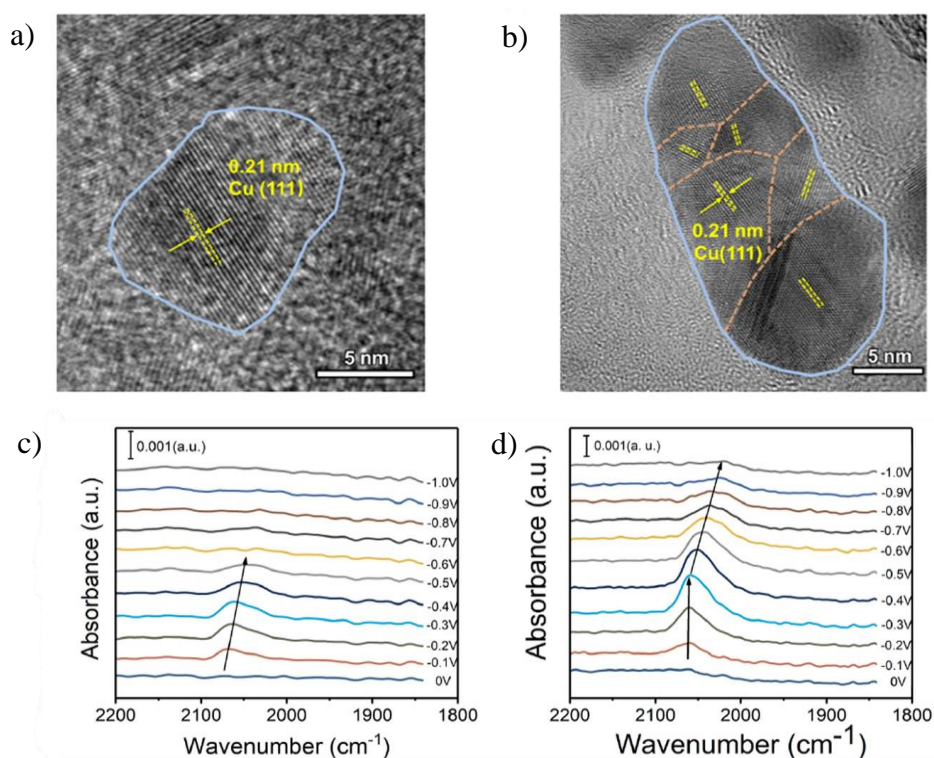


Figure 2.4 HRTEM images and in situ ATR-SEIRAS spectra of a,c) ED-Cu catalysts and b,d) GB-Cu catalysts [131].

Chen's group added poly(vinylpyrrolidone) (PVP) in the electrodeposition step and successfully enriched the grain boundaries. The GB-Cu could effectively prevent carbon contamination and reduce the crystal size. According to the DFT calculations and the in situ ATR-SEIRAS spectra, the presence of grain boundaries enhanced *CO adsorption, further supporting CO dimerization (Figure 2.4c, d). This electrocatalyst shows a high faradaic efficiency of about 31.7% for ethanol and 70.0% for C₂ products at a potential of -1.3 V vs. RHE [131]. This work attracted the great attention of Cu-based electrocatalysts. An extensive body of work focusing on copper-containing materials for CO₂RR continues in order to optimize the production of multi-carbon products (Table 2.2) [106].

Table 2.2 The performance of Cu for CO₂RR to multi-carbon products.

Catalyst	Product	FE	Electrolyte	Potential	Ref.
Cu (100)	EtOH	9.7%	0.1 M KHCO₃	-1.4 V vs. SHE	[130]
	C₂H₄	40.4%			
	C₂₊	57.8%			
Anodised copper	C₂H₄	38.1%	0.1 M KHCO₃	-1.08 V vs. RHE	[132]
Electroredeposited copper	C₂H₄	38.0%	0.1 M KHCO₃	-1.2 V vs. RHE	[133]
GB-Rich Copper	EtOH	31.7%	0.1 M KOH	-1.3 V vs. RHE	[131]
	C₂₊	70.0%			
EC Cu	C₂₊	56.4%	0.1 M KHCO₃	-1.0 V vs. RHE	[134]
HQ-Cu	C₂₊	68.2%	0.1 M KHCO₃	-1.05 V vs. RHE	[135]
Porous Hollow Copper Microspheres	C₂₊	67.3%	0.1 M KHCO₃	-0.82 V vs. RHE	[136]
Nanosheet structure derived Cu	C₂₊	67.5%	0.1 M KHCO₃	-1.5 V vs. RHE	[137]
Cu nanofoam, co-cata:1-butyl-3-methyl-imidazolium bromide	EtOH	49.0%	0.1 M KHCO₃	-1.6 V vs. Ag/AgCl	[138]

2.3.2 Compound-derived copper electrocatalysts

The electrocatalytic performance of copper nanoparticles derived from halides and oxides has been extensively studied. Cui's group synthesized CuO nanoparticles with different structures and morphologies and studied their electrocatalytic performance in a 0.2 M KI solution. Among the various CuO nanoparticles tested, spherical nanoparticles with a size of about 4 μm and an average surface area of 45.4 m^2/g showed superior performance, achieving a faradaic efficiency of 33% for ethanol production at -1.7 V vs. SCE. Notably, the percentage of ethanol in the carbon-based products of this CuO nanoparticle exceeded 95%. This work emphasizes the high selectivity of the CuO nanoparticle for ethanol production [139].

In another study, another research group analyzed the yields of ethylene and ethanol on Cu_2O film electrodes with different thicknesses from 0.2 μm to 8.8 μm in a 0.1 M KHCO_3 solution at -0.99 V vs. RHE (Figure 2.5). Cu_2O films with different thicknesses and different densities of steps and edges were obtained by adjusting the deposition time. The highest ethylene FE of 40.3% was obtained on a 0.9 μm Cu_2O catalyst at a current density of -25 mA/cm^2 , while the FE of ethanol was 8.7%. The best FE of 16.4% for ethanol production was observed on a 3.6 μm film at a current density of -35 mA/cm^2 , while the ethylene FE was 34.3%. During the CO_2RR process, CuO and Cu_2O were reduced to metallic Cu, and Cu^0 particles were identified as the active species for CO_2 reduction. However, a significant drawback of both CuO and Cu_2O catalysts is the uncontrolled hydrogen evolution reaction, as shown by the FE of H_2 between

26% and 68% on the 0.2-8.8 μm Cu_2O catalyst, which is sometimes even higher than the combined FE of C_2 products, indicating energy waste [140].

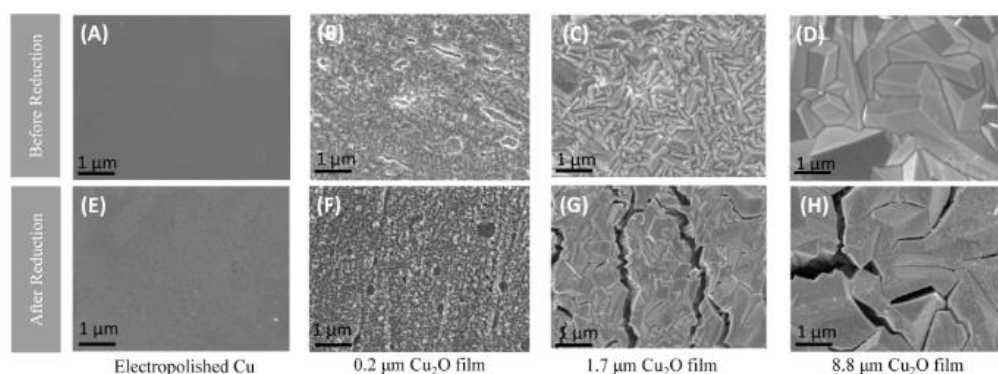


Figure 2.5 SEM images of Cu catalysts before and after CO_2 reduction at -0.99 V: a, e) electropolished Cu; b, f) 0.2 μm , c, g) 1.7 μm , and d, h) 8.8 μm Cu_2O films deposited on Cu disc [140].

CuCl , CuI and CuBr were prepared by electrochemical cycling of an electropolished Cu foil in potassium salt solutions. The prepared CuX samples exhibited both Cu_2O and CuX compounds (CuCl , CuI or CuBr) on their surfaces (Figure 2.6i). The surface morphology varied considerably between the different samples (Figure 2.6a-d). Of particular interest is the iodine-modified Cu sample, which exhibited a rough surface, a greater amount of Cu^+ species, and subsurface oxygen. This iodine modification resulted in the best performance in the production of multi-carbon products during CO_2RR , achieving FEs of about 80% at -0.9 V vs. RHE. During the CO_2RR process, most Cu species in the CuX samples were reduced to metallic Cu. This reduction of Cu species to metallic Cu led to a decrease in the faradaic efficiency of ethylene production (Figure 2.6j). Therefore, the presence of Cu_2O and Cu^+ species and the surface morphology played a crucial role in determining the CO_2RR performance and selectivity towards multi-carbon products [141]. Overall, this study emphasizes

the importance of surface modification and the presence of specific Cu species in controlling CO₂RR performance and product selectivity.

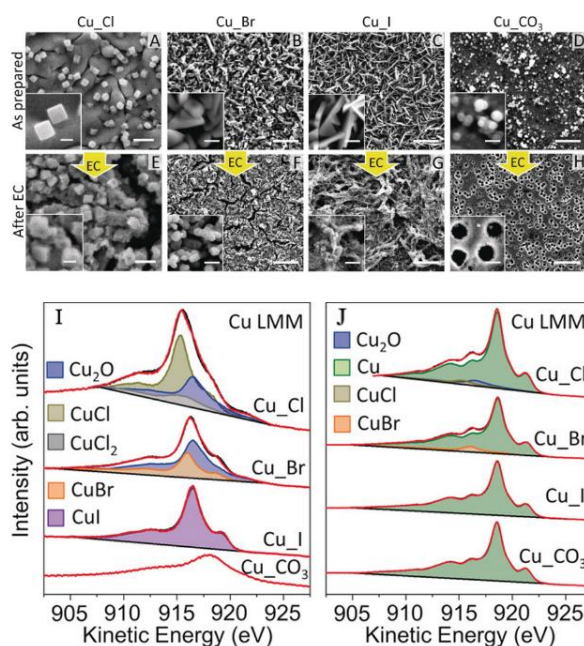


Figure 2.6 SEM images of Cu catalysts before and after CO₂ reduction: a, e) CuCl; b, f) CuBr, c, g) CuI, and d, h) CuCO₃. XPS Cu LMM for the electrodes i) before and j) after CO₂ reduction [141].

Table 2.3 The performance of compound-derived copper catalysts for CO₂RR to multi-carbon products.

Catalyst	Product	FE	Electrolyte	Potential	Ref.
Mesoporous CuO	C ₂₊	60.0%	1.0 M KI	-1.0 V vs. RHE	[142]
Cu ₂ O-derived Cu NP	C ₂ H ₄	33.5%	0.1 M KHCO ₃	-1.1 V vs. RHE	[143]
CuO nanoparticles	EtOH	36.1%	0.2 M KI	-1.7 V vs. SCE	[139]
PVDF modified CuO	C ₂ H ₄	40.6%	0.5 M KHCO ₃	-1.22 V vs. RHE	[144]
Cu ₂ O film (0.9 μm)	C ₂ H ₄	40.3%	0.1 M KHCO ₃	-0.99 V vs. RHE	[140]
	EtOH	8.7%			

CuBr	C ₂₊	66.0%	0.1 M KHCO ₃	-1.0 V vs. RHE	[141]
CuI	C ₂₊	80.0%	0.1 M KHCO ₃	-0.9 V vs. RHE	[141]
CuCl	C ₂₊	73.0%	0.5 M KHCO ₃	-2.6 V vs. Ag/AgCl	[145]

2.3.3 Bimetallic electrocatalysts

To compensate for the limitations of pure Cu, researchers have explored alloying Cu or Cu₂O with other metals such as Ag, Au and Zn to produce electrodes with improved electrocatalytic properties [107]. A CuAg electrode was prepared by electrodepositing CuAg onto a carbon paper substrate coated with Cu. The resulting CuAg electrode exhibited a significantly larger electroactive surface area and a smaller crystal size of 3.6 nm, which contributed to its high activity and selectivity in the production of C₂ products [146].

Another group utilized a similar method of electrodeposition in an NH₃-based electrolyte or KCN solution to prepare phase-separated and phase-mixed Ag-incorporated Cu₂O electrodes, namely Ag-Cu₂O_{PS} and Ag-Cu₂O_{PB}. Electrochemical reduction tests showed that the Ag-Cu₂O_{PB} electrode achieved a faradaic efficiency of 34.2% for ethanol production at a potential of -1.2 V vs. RHE and effectively suppressed the hydrogen evolution reaction with Cu₂O [147].

In another study, Ag nanoparticles were embedded in Cu nanopores by in situ reduction with silver nitrate, with ascorbic acid added as a reducing agent, resulting in the formation of Ag@Cu hybrid arrays. The modification of silver at the Cu/Ag interface regulated the electronic structure, improved the adsorption of *CO and facilitated the dimerization of *CO to ethylene (FE =

41.3%) [148]. In addition, the density and length of Cu-Ag interfaces were found to influence ethanol production and possibly affect the migration of CO [149]. These impressive results provide a practical approach to control the desired product pathway by exploring the diversity of bonding configurations [150].

Gold nanoparticles can catalyze the reduction of CO₂ to CO in close proximity to the copper surface, resulting in high coverage of *CO. Nanostructured Cu-Au electrodes have been used in electrochemical reduction. For example, Cu_{63.9}Au_{36.1}/NCF showed high selectivity for ethanol and methanol with a faradaic efficiency of 12 and 15.9%, respectively [151]. In another experiment, a bimetallic Cu/Au electrocatalyst was used, which showed high selectivity for C₂₊ products. The activity of the gold-copper tandem catalyst was significantly better than that of the single Cu, Au and Au-Cu catalysts, highlighting the promising future of tandem catalyst applications [152].

Besides, AuCu nanoparticles were embedded in Cu submicron arrays by electrodeposition and chemical reduction, resulting in a more selective electrocatalyst with 29% FE for ethanol and 16% FE for ethylene at -1.0 V vs. RHE. In this case, the Au atoms acted as cocatalysts and altered the adsorption energy of the intermediates, while the unique structure of the Cu submicron provided undercoordinated Cu and Au active sites [153].

To further improve the ability of bimetallic AuCu catalysts for ethanol production, Zhang's group has prepared Au@Cu₂O yolk-shell nanoparticles using a hydrazine hydrogenation reduction method. The Au core wrapped with a copper shell efficiently reduced CO₂ to CO, and the high CO concentration inside the cavity further facilitated ethanol production in the copper shell.

To investigate the spatial confinement effect of the CO intermediates, three samples with different cavity sizes of Cu₂O nanocavities (radius 14, 35, 48 nm) were prepared by adjusting the amount of the reducing agent and the reaction time (Figure 2.7). Electrochemical measurements showed that the catalyst with a moderate cavity size of 35 nm exhibited the highest faradaic efficiency for ethanol with 52.3% at -0.3 V vs. RHE, which can be attributed to the moderate CO concentration in the cavity. These results emphasize the potential of the yolk-shell structure in the development of bimetallic electrocatalysts [154].

Metals of the Pd group have also been used to modify Cu electrodes in electrochemical reduction processes. In one study, Cu overlays were prepared on tetrahedral Pd nanocrystals with high index planes. The Pd and Cu overlayers were electrodeposited successively on glassy carbon using the programmed square wave potential and underpotential deposition methods, respectively. Pd on the Cu electrode led to a high density of low-coordinated step atoms, which exhibited strong CO adsorption and favoured CO₂ electroreduction [155].

Studies have shown that for Pd- and Au-doped M@Cu catalysts, the free energy change for OC-COH coupling is lower than that for OC-CHO coupling, which favours the production of alcohols [156]. Ce(OH)_x-doped Cu was another efficient electrocatalyst for ethanol production. The exceptional performance is attributed to the presence of hydroxide, which increases the adsorption energy for hydrogen. This promotes the hydrogenation of *HCCOH to *HCCHOH instead of *CCH in the ethylene pathway, leading to the formation of ethanol. However, the accelerated water decomposition simultaneously leads to the formation of H₂ [157].

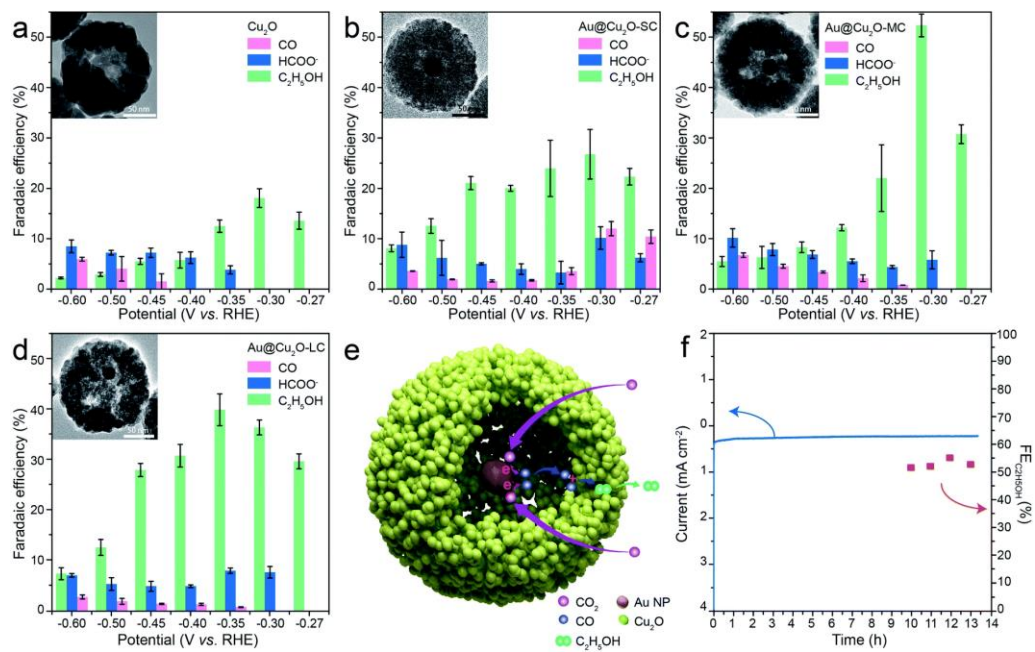


Figure 2.7 Schematic illustration in the Au@Cu₂O cavity and the FE of ethanol at -0.3 V vs. RHE [154].

In summary, incorporating a second metal, particularly silver or gold, significantly enhances the performance of copper-based catalysts for ethylene production. These metals fine-tune the catalyst's electronic properties, creating a more favorable environment for improved catalytic efficiency.

Table 2.4 The performance of bimetallic copper-based catalysts for CO₂RR to the multi-carbon products.

Catalyst	Product	FE	Electrolyte	Potential (V vs. RHE)	Ref.
Ag@Cu composite	C₂H₄	41.3%	0.5 M KHCO₃	-1.2	[148]
Zn@Cu composite	C₂H₄	38.3%	0.5 M KHCO₃	-1.2	[148]
Ag-Cu ₂ O _{PB}	EtOH	34.2%	0.2 M KCl	-1.2	[147]
Ag _{0.14} /Cu _{0.86}	EtOH	41.0%	1.0 M KHCO₃	-0.7	[150]
Cu overlayers on THH Pd NCs	EtOH	20.4%	0.1 M NaHCO₃	-0.5	[155]
Au@Cu ₂ O	EtOH	52.3%	0.1 M KHCO₃	-0.3	[154]
Ce(OH) _x -doped-Cu	EtOH	43.0%	1.0 M KOH	-0.7	[157]
Ni-Cu NW	C₂₊	44.0%	0.5 M NaHCO₃	-0.8	[158]

2.3.4 Cu-based heteroatomic carbon electrocatalysts

MOF materials are normally used as electrical insulators. However, various carbon-based MOF electrocatalysts have been synthesized, which are characterized by a large surface area, unique porous structure, and uniformly distributed metal nanoparticles [159-161]. Cu-based MOFs such as HKUST-1 can be carbonized at high temperatures (900-1100°C) to produce OD Cu/C electrocatalysts. At 1000°C, the resulting catalyst achieves a Faradaic efficiency of 34.8% for ethanol at -0.7 V vs. RHE.

This efficiency is due to several factors. First, carbonization forms Cu₂O in the catalyst, which increases its electrocatalytic activity and facilitates CO₂ reduction to ethanol. Secondly, the electronic interactions between Cu and

carbon improve the catalytic performance by promoting CO₂ adsorption and activation and improving ethanol selectivity. The high active surface area and porous structure of OD Cu/C enable efficient mass and electron transfer during electrochemical reduction, which improves reactant accessibility and facilitates the conversion of CO₂ to ethanol. Carbonization of Cu-based MOFs to obtain OD Cu/C catalysts represents a promising approach for efficient electrocatalytic CO₂ to ethanol conversion, taking advantage of Cu₂O formation, electronic interactions and favourable structural properties [162].

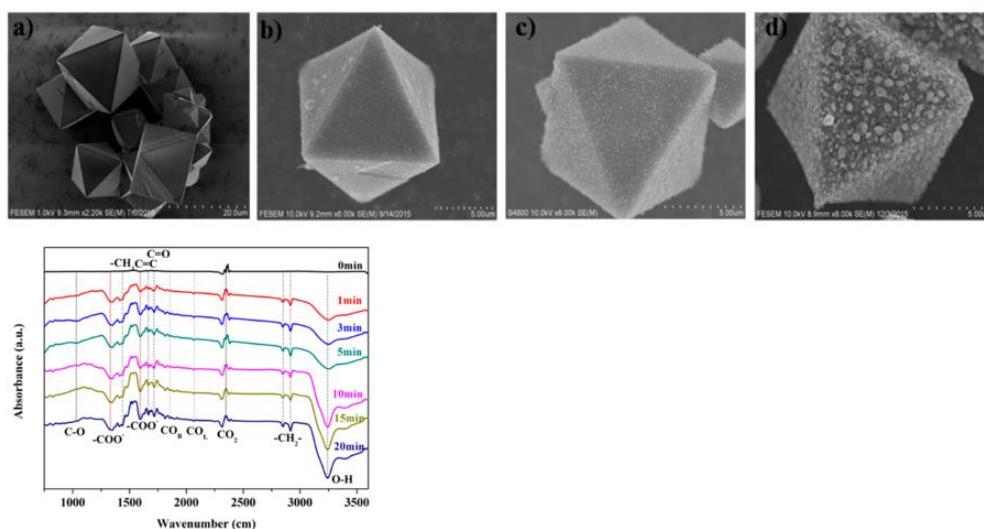


Figure 2.8 SEM images of a) HKUST-1; b) OD Cu/C-900; c) OD Cu/C-1000; d) OD Cu/C-1100; e) In situ FTIR spectrum of CO₂ reduction on OD Cu/C-1000 at -0.7 V vs RHE [162].

Graphene-based materials have attracted considerable attention for improving the electrochemical reduction of CO₂ due to their excellent electronic and thermal conductivity and unique structure [163].

One example is the carbon nanospike electrode (CNS) with electro-nucleated Cu nanoparticles (Cu/CNS), which has a nitrogen doping density of 5.1%. This

catalyst exhibits a remarkable ethanol production (FE = 63%). The nitrogen-doped graphene in Cu/CNS plays a crucial role in achieving these results. The π -electron states in the nitrogen-doped graphene polarize the carbon atoms associated with the nitrogen and provide active sites for C_2 intermediates involved in ethanol formation. In addition, the unique corrugated and crimped structure of CNS enhances the interaction with C_2 intermediates and promotes ethanol selectivity [164].

Another research group developed a Cu GNC-VL nanocomposite for CO_2RR by anchoring Zeolitic Imidazolate Framework-L (ZIF-L) on graphene oxide and incorporating copper into the structure. After carbonization at $1000^\circ C$, the resulting MOF electrocatalyst showed remarkable performance. It achieved an impressive ethanol FE of 70.5% at a potential of -0.87 V vs. RHE. In the Cu-GNC-VL nanocomposite, copper is present in the form of a mixture of Cu^0 and Cu^+ species, with Cu^+ atoms accounting for a significant proportion (70.6%). The presence of Cu^+ facilitates the dimerization of CO^* intermediates. In addition, the nitrogen in the catalyst provides abundant active sites that effectively reduce the binding energy [165]. The outstanding performance of Cu GNC-VL, compared to OD Cu/C, emphasizes the great potential of nitrogen-containing electrocatalysts in CO_2RR .

A similar graphene-based electrocatalyst with Cu nanoparticles on pyridoxine-modified graphene oxide sheets (GO-VB₆-Cu) was also used. The resulting catalyst showed efficient ethanol production with a faradaic efficiency of 56.3% at a low potential of -0.25 V vs. RHE. Various nitrogen species were functionalized in the N-doped graphene of GO-VB₆-Cu, including pyridine-N, pyrrole-N, graphite-N, and oxidized N [166]. Pyridoxine was used to achieve a

pyridine-N content of 2.3%. The Incorporation of pyridinic N into the N-doped graphene of GO-VB₆-Cu provides additional sites for the CO₂ reduction reaction, resulting in improved ethanol production. Furthermore, it contributes to improved charge transfer and higher mobility within the catalyst, which enhances its catalytic performance [86, 167].

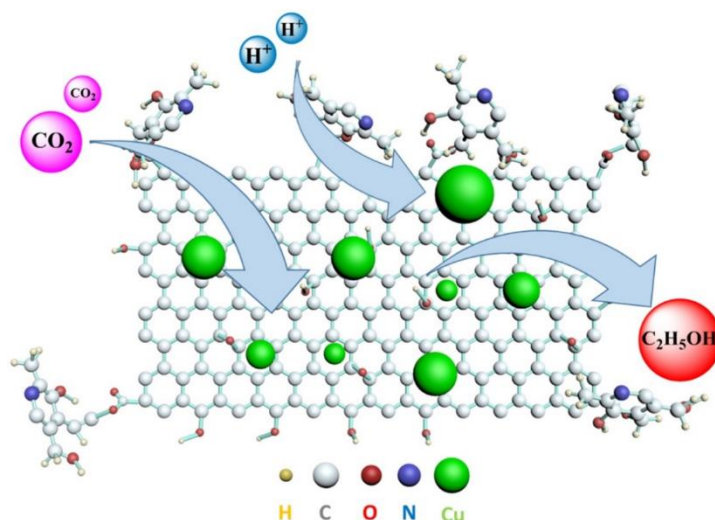


Figure 2.9 Schematic illustration of the proposed process of the CO₂RR on the GO-VB₆-Cu catalyst [166].

Nitrogen species in the catalyst, such as pyridinic N, play a crucial role in the enrichment and activation of CO₂ and facilitate the reorganization processes of the bonds. Here, a nitrogen-doped carbon shell was generated over the Cu surface. The resulting Cu@N_xC electrode exhibits a favourable CO₂RR compared to the HER. The pore structure and the N-containing sites in the nitrogen-doped carbon shell contribute to a high surface coverage of CO intermediates during CO₂RR. This increased surface coverage promotes the formation of C₂₊ products, leading to an impressive 80% FE for C₂₊ products. In particular, the Cu@N_xC electrode shows a faradaic efficiency of over 40% in ethylene production at a potential of -1.1 V [168]. These results emphasize the

importance of the catalyst substrate and the environment for electrocatalysis. The presence of nitrogen species in the catalyst and the resulting nitrogen-doped carbon shell contribute to the improved CO₂RR performance and emphasize the importance of catalyst design and the role of the environment for efficient electrocatalysis.

Table 2.5 The performance of Cu-based heteroatomic carbon catalysts for CO₂RR to multi-carbon products.

Catalyst	Product	FE	Electrolyte	Potential (V vs. RHE)	Ref.
Cu/CNC	EtOH	63.0%	0.1 M KHCO ₃	-1.2	[164]
GO-VB ₆ -Cu	EtOH	56.3%	0.1 M KHCO ₃	-0.3	[167]
OD Cu/C	EtOH	34.8%	0.1 M KHCO ₃	-0.7	[162]
Cu GNC-VL	EtOH	70.5%	0.5 M KHCO ₃	-0.9	[165]
Cu-on-Cu ₃ N	C ₂ H ₄	39.0%	0.1 M KHCO ₃	-1.0	[36]
Cu@N _x C	C ₂ ⁺	80.0%	0.1 M KHCO ₃	-1.1	[168]

2.3.5 Cocatalyst applied to enhance CO₂RR

Cocatalysts play a crucial role in CO₂RR by increasing the conversion rate of CO₂ and facilitating the separation and transport of electron-hole pairs. They also improve the activity, stability and product selectivity of the electrocatalyst and help control the reaction pathway by inhibiting side reactions. The composition, surface area, structure and dispersibility of cocatalysts can significantly affect their performance [169].

In Zarandi's research, 1-butyl-3-methyl-imidazolium bromide (BMIMB) was used as a homogeneous cocatalyst in a 0.1 M KHCO₃ electrolyte. CO₂ reduction

was carried out on a simple electrodeposited copper nanofoam electrode. The addition of BMIMB improved the CO₂ conversion to 83%. The faradaic selectivity for ethanol was 49%. The synergistic effect between the copper nanofoam and the BMIMB cocatalyst contributed to the stabilization of the intermediates, which significantly increased the ethanol yield [138]. Although further improvements are needed, the use of cocatalysts shows promise as a method for large-scale ethanol production by CO₂RR. The use of cocatalysts can increase the selectivity and yield of the desired products, making them an essential factor in the development of efficient electrocatalytic CO₂ systems.

2.4 The valence state of Cu

The valence states of copper have long been recognized as crucial factors in the performance of copper-based catalysts for CO₂ reduction [170]. A combination of experimental techniques and DFT calculations was employed to elucidate the role of mixed-valence copper active sites in catalysis. The complexity of base materials, which often feature a myriad of structural motifs such as grain boundaries, high-index facets, stepped terraces, and corrugated surfaces, presents a challenge in untangling the contributions of these features to the CO₂ reduction performance. As a result, achieving a clear mechanistic understanding becomes inherently difficult.

To address this challenge, CuLs with various dihedral angles of adjacent Cu^ICu^{II}L-metalloligands transformed, ultimately yielding the most stable variant with a 180° dihedral angle. This variant demonstrates outstanding performance in CO₂ reduction, achieving a methane FE of 67.8% and an ethylene FE of 17.3%.

Additionally, DFT calculations corroborate that isolated Cu(I) sites predominantly catalyze methane generation, whereas synergistic interactions between adjacent Cu(II) sites favour ethylene production(Figure 2.10a) [171].

Besides, single-crystal Cu(111) foils, characterized by minimal morphological and crystallographic heterogeneities, were utilized. These foils were then subjected to varying degrees of oxidation to obtain OD-Cu with distinct crystalline and valence states. The postelectrolytic and operando characterizations revealed that the CuO_x were gradually reduced and fragmented during the CO_2RR . The transition state $\text{Cu}^{\delta+}$ ($0 < \delta < 1$) between the initial oxide and the ultimately reduced copper phases, along with its stability over time, significantly influences the catalytic performance of CO_2RR to multicarbon products (Figure 2.10b) [172].

Indeed, stabilizing the transition state of copper is crucial for improving the selectivity towards C_{2+} products. The utilization of 0.9 nm Cu_2O nanosheets with abundant oxygen vacancies has shown promising results, achieving an exceptionally high C_{2+} FE of approximately 81%. Both experimental and computational findings suggest that the presence of abundant Cu^+ species in the ultrathin 2D Cu_2O nanosheets is the most favourable oxidation state for $^*\text{CO}$ adsorption and coverage on the catalyst surface. This, in turn, promotes the C–C coupling reaction in CO_2 reduction [173]. Therefore, in the transition state, the presence of $\text{Cu}^{\delta+}$, where δ is close to 1, is crucial for achieving excellent performance in producing C_{2+} products.

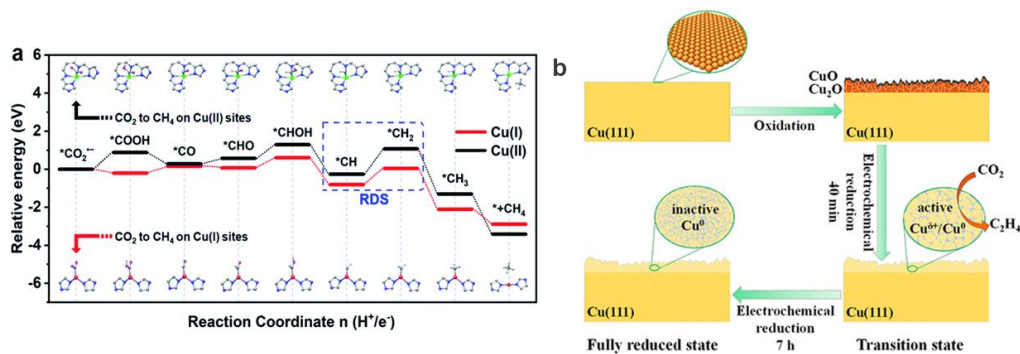


Figure 2.10 a) Calculated free energy diagram for CO₂ electrocatalytic reduction to CH₄ on the Cu(I) sites and Cu(II) sites of the CuL catalyst [171], b) valence change of copper at each reaction stage [172].

2.5 Stability

In recent years, considerable efforts have been dedicated to understanding how nanoscale structures influence the activity and selectivity of electrocatalytic CO₂ reduction. Nevertheless, the stability of catalysts during electrolysis stands out as a key consideration for advancing practical applications. Despite breakthroughs in improving reaction activity and selectivity, research on the stability of copper-based electrodes and the underlying nanoscale degradation mechanisms remains at a preliminary stage[58]

The commonly available copper-based catalysts in the market can only maintain stable electrocatalytic activity for a short period (around 10 hours) [174, 175]. Even with the most stable catalysts available in an H-cell reactor, the ethylene yield can only be sustained for up to 40 hours [132, 176]. Copper-based electrocatalysts used in CO₂ electroreduction encounter challenges related to catalyst stability, influenced by a range of factors (Figure 1.2). Examining the nanoscale degradation mechanisms has unveiled key processes that play a vital

role in this degradation. During the reaction, reshaping and fragmentation occur, leading to shape variations and potential breakage of copper nanostructures [174]. These alterations directly impact the catalyst's active surface area and overall structure. Detachment and dissolution of catalyst nanoparticles can also occur, resulting in a decreased number of active sites and undermining the catalyst's stability. Ostwald agglomeration, another degradation mechanism, involves the rearrangement of nanoparticles, causing aggregation or enlargement of specific particles and affecting the catalyst's surface properties [61, 177].

Moreover, the occurrence of poisoning, where impurities or their byproducts adhere to active sites, can lead to a decrease in the activity and selectivity of the catalyst [178]. Together, these degradation mechanisms profoundly influence the activity, selectivity, and stability of copper electrocatalysts during CO₂RR by altering their active surface area, structure, and morphology.

Table 2.6 The stability of Cu-based catalysts for CO₂RR to multi-carbon products.

Catalyst	Product	FE	Electrolyte	Potential (V vs. RHE)	Stability	Ref.
Cubic Cu ₂ O NPs	C₂H₄	57.3%	0.1 M KHCO₃	-1.1	10 h	[174]
Branched CuO NPs	C₂H₄	65.0%	0.1 M KHCO₃	-1.05	12 h	[175]
Anodized Cu(OH) ₂	C₂H₄	38.1%	0.1 M KHCO₃	-1.08	40 h	[132]
CuAg composite	EtOH	16.4%	0.1 M KHCO₃	-1.1	5 h	[149]
AuCu/Cu-SCA	EtOH	28.0%	0.5 M KHCO₃	-1.0	24 h	[153]
Boron-doped catalysts	Cu C₂H₄	52.0%	0.1 M KCl	-1.1	40 h	[176]
N-Doped porous carbon supported Cu	C₂₊	71.1%	0.2 M KHCO₃	-1.05	10 h	[179]

To enhance the stability of electrodes in CO₂RR, various strategies have been investigated. Catalyst stabilization is crucial for improving the performance of copper-based catalysts. Techniques such as particle confinement with Pd atoms [178], graphene oxide wrapping [167], and vertically oriented graphene separation [165], help preserve catalyst morphology and prevent issues like shape changes, coalescence, and agglomeration, thereby increasing morphological stability.

The role of surface-bound organic molecules, particularly ligands used during the colloidal synthesis of nanocatalysts, significantly impacts catalyst stability [180, 181]. While the desorption of ligands can accelerate morphological changes, strongly bound carbene-based ligands have shown potential in stabilizing electrocatalyst morphology, leading to enhanced stability and selective CO formation.

A synergistic interplay between catalyst design and system engineering has been explored to achieve longer periods of stable operation. Studies on shape-controlled nanoparticles have revealed a correlation between morphological transformations and electrocatalytic performance, allowing for the identification of more stable structures. Additionally, establishing a standardized procedure for assessing the stability of CO₂RR electrocatalysts is crucial. This procedure should consider parameters such as electrode type, electrolyte, electrolysis time/potential, and preferred product, enabling straightforward benchmarking of catalyst stability.

2.6 Summary

In the current phase, the production of more reduced hydrocarbons and alcohols faces some challenges.

- The low solubility of CO₂ in electrolytes would limit mass transfer [120].
In most conventional H-cell experiments, current densities are less than 30 mA/cm². To achieve considerable current densities, high overpotentials are required to dissociate the double bond between C and O (806 kJ/mol), which leads to a waste of electrical energy [182, 183].
- The critical step for the formation of C₂₊ molecules is the C-C coupling process, which must compete with the formation of the C-H bond and the C-O bond.
- The binding energy between the catalyst and CO intermediate must be moderate. If CO binds strongly to catalysts, the catalysts could be poisoned. If the bond is too weak, CO is easily desorbed, resulting in high selectivity for CO.
- The competing process (hydrogen evolution reaction) is unavoidable in an aqueous system.
- The production rate of CO₂RR must be significantly improved by increasing the number of active sites or the activity of each active site. However, another difficulty may be to find the active sites on the surface of the catalysts [87].
- Furthermore, a significant decrease in catalytic performance was observed in electrocatalysts such as Cu nanoparticles after several hours of testing, which can be attributed to the aggregation of the particles

[168]. Therefore, stability and durability need to be improved for sustainable production [179, 184].

- There are several possible pathways with different intermediates and products, but there is a lack of concrete experimental evidence to prove the correctness of the pathway. In addition, the complexity of the roadmap increases the difficulty of controlling the reaction pathway for the C₂ product [53].
- Another problem is the lack of highly accurate applicable and independent descriptors to determine the activity and selectivity of catalysts. With suitable descriptors, it would be much easier to find one effective catalyst [53, 185].

Overcoming these complex challenges requires the adoption of innovative solutions and the implementation of extensive research to optimize CO₂RR processes. The main objective is to improve the production of multi-carbon products. This endeavour requires the development of efficient catalysts that exhibit improved performance, stability and selectivity. By exploring these areas, we can pave the way for remarkable progress and unlock the full potential of CO₂RR technologies.

In this chapter, a comprehensive scientific investigation was conducted to explore mechanisms and influencing factors that determine the efficiency and selectivity of copper-based catalysts in the electrochemical reduction of carbon dioxide, specifically with a focus on the generation of C₂₊ products. Different types of copper-based catalysts that have shown remarkable efficiency in the electrocatalytic production of multi-carbon products from CO₂ were systematically enumerated and compared. The preparation and refining methods

of copper oxides, copper-containing alloys, and carbon-based copper catalysts were thoroughly analyzed.

Finally, a rigorous evaluation and analysis of future strategies aimed at further improving the efficiency and selectivity of electrochemical CO₂ reduction was conducted. Given the ongoing challenges in this area, three main approaches are explored: PVDC-modified CuO electrodes, microwave-assisted synthesis of CuO electrodes, and Cu-electrodeposited Cu₂O-C₃N₄ electrodes. My proposed research builds on the design and development of innovative catalysts, the optimization of preparation methods and the conduct of in-depth research in both experimental and theoretical simulations. Hydrophobic modifications and CO₂ permeability are studied to optimize proton transfer, while DFT calculations analyze key intermediate binding energies. Surface roughness is adjusted by microwave treatment and electrodeposition to increase active sites and enhance C-C coupling.

Chapter 3. Methodologies

3.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a comprehensive exploration of the experimental and theoretical approaches used to study the fabrication and modification of copper-based electrodes. The chemicals and equipment used in the experiments are described, respectively. The sample preparation procedures are described. The experimental setup and the procedural steps are then presented. The principles underlying the equipment and method used for characterization and analysis.

3.2 Chemicals

The source and specification of chemicals used were listed as follows.

Table 3.1 The chemical used in the experiments.

Chemical name	Specification	Source
Copper (II) oxide	< 50 nm	Sigma Aldrich Co. Ltd
N, Dimethylformamide	N- $\geq 99.5\%$	Sinopharm Chemical Reagent Co. Ltd
Acetone	$\geq 99.5\%$	Sinopharm Chemical Reagent Co. Ltd.
Polyvinylidene chloride	-	Macklin Inc.
Polyvinylidene fluoride (HSV900)	-	Arkema Inc.
Copper(II) trihydrate	nitrate 99.0 ~ 102%	Sinopharm Chemical Reagent Co. Ltd.

Sodium carbonate	$\geq 99.8\%$	Sinopharm Reagent Co. Ltd.	Chemical
Isopropanol	$\geq 99.7\%$	Sinopharm Reagent Co. Ltd.	Chemical
Melamine	$\geq 99\%$	Sinopharm Reagent Co. Ltd.	Chemical
Copper chloride dihydrate	$\geq 99.0\%$	Sinopharm Reagent Co. Ltd.	Chemical
Sodium hydroxide	$\geq 96.0\%$	Aladdin Industrial Co. Ltd.	
Ascorbic acid	$\geq 99.7\%$	Sinopharm Reagent Co. Ltd.	Chemical
Potassium hydrogen carbonate	$\geq 99.5\%$	Sinopharm Reagent Co. Ltd.	Chemical
Nafion 117 solution	~ 5% in a mixture of lower aliphatic alcohols and water	Aladdin Industrial Co. Ltd.	
Dimethyl sulfoxide	$\geq 99.7\%$	Sinopharm Reagent Co. Ltd.	Chemical
Deuterium oxide	99.9%	Sinopharm Reagent Co. Ltd.	Chemical
Carbon paper (TGP-H-060)	-	Toray industries, inc.	
CO ₂	99.999%	Linde plc.	
Ar	99.999%	Linde plc.	
N ₂	99.999%	Linde plc.	
Air		Ningbo Nuoan Gas Ltd.	

3.3 Equipment

Table 3.2 is a list of the devices used in the experiments. Devices 1-6 are primarily used to characterize the prepared electrocatalyst or electrode. Devices 7 and 8 facilitate the analysis of the gaseous and liquid products produced during the CO₂RR process. And finally, devices 10-16 were used to produce the electrocatalyst or electrode.

Table 3.2 The equipment used in the experiments.

	Equipment	Equipment model
1	Field emission scanning electron microscopy	ZEISS GeminiSEM 360
2	Transmission electron microscopy	JEOL JEM-200 microscope
3	X-ray diffraction	Bruker D8 Advance
4	X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy	Shimadzu Axis Supra+
5	Contact angle apparatus	SDC-350
6	Electrochemical workstation	CH Instrument Inc., CHI660e and Gamry, Reference 3000
7	Nuclear magnetic resonance spectrometer	AVANCE NEO 600
8	Gas chromatography	Agilent GC 8890
9	Gas flow meter	Sevenstar, CS200
10	Air dryer oven	Shanghai Yiheng BPG-9156

11	Tube furnace	Shanghai Optics and Fine Mechanics Instillation, SG-GL1200K
12	Heating plate	IKA plate, RCT digital
13	Electronic balance	Mettler toledo, ME104E/204E
14	High-accuracy pH meter	Mettler toledo, FE28-standard
15	Microwave reactor	UWAVE-2000
16	Air flow calibrators	Gilibrator 2-USB Calibrator

3.4 Procedure

3.4.1 Preparation of CuO-polymer electrodes

Copper oxide nanoparticles (CuO NPs) were subjected to acetone ultrasonic cleaning and then rinsed with DI water. Subsequently, the CuO was dried in an oven at 120 °C for 12 hours. 5 mg of CuO NPs were sonicated in 1 mL DMF for 25 minutes [144]. A 50 μL dispersion of the CuO material was coated on both sides of a $1 \times 1 \text{ cm}^2$ carbon paper. Then, the coated carbon paper was dried completely at 105 °C. The prepared CuO electrode could be used for electrochemical tests. Under optimal conditions, the amount of CuO on each electrode was about 0.25 mg/cm^2 .

To prepare CuO-PVDC electrodes, different volumes (5/10/20/30 μL) of a 5 mg/mL PVDC/DMF solution were dropped on each side of the previously prepared CuO electrodes (Figure 3.1). The cast electrodes were then dried on a hot plate at 80 °C for 1 hour. The polymer loading of the electrodes was adjusted to achieve the target amounts of 25, 50, 100 and 150 $\mu\text{g}/\text{cm}^2$, resulting in the

following electrode designations: CuO-PVDC 25, CuO-PVDC 50, CuO-PVDC 100 and CuO-PVDC 150, respectively.

As for the control group, CuO electrodes were coated with different polymers (Nafion, PTFE, PVDF) of $50 \mu\text{g}/\text{cm}^2$. These control electrodes were labelled CuO-Nafion, CuO-PTFE and CuO-PVDF, respectively.

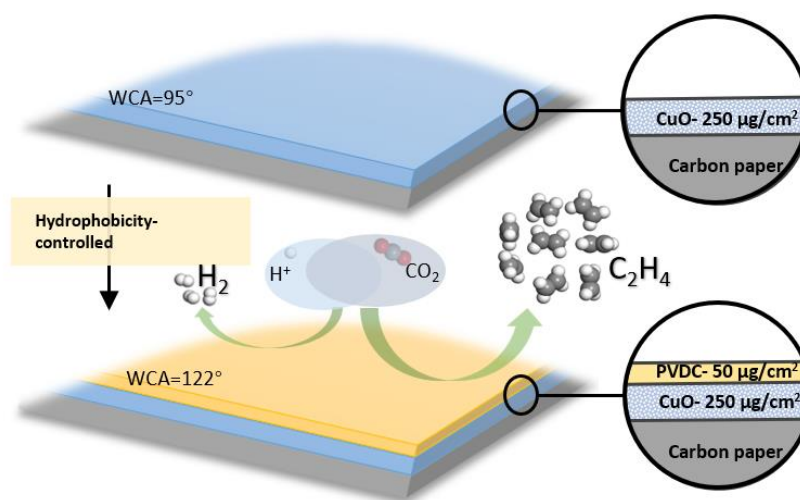


Figure 3.1 Preparation of the CuO-PVDC electrode.

3.4.2 Preparation of CuO and MW-CuO electrodes

A $\text{Cu}(\text{NO}_3)_2$ solution was first prepared to produce the MW-CuO catalyst. Hydrated copper nitrate in amounts of 0.002, 0.008, 0.016 and 0.021 mol was dissolved in 20 mL of water to prepare the $\text{Cu}(\text{NO}_3)_2$ solution. In a 100 mL round bottom flask, 15 mL of 1 M Na_2CO_3 solution was heated to 70°C with constant stirring using a UWAVE-2000 microwave reactor. Then, the $\text{Cu}(\text{NO}_3)_2$ solution was continuously added to the flask with a peristaltic pump at about 8 mL/min while stirring at 70°C for 10 minutes. The precipitate obtained was filtered, washed thoroughly with deionized water, dried overnight at 110°C and then

calcined in air at 300 °C for 4 hours (Figure 3.2). The resulting powder was used for further characterization and experiments. Based on the molar ratio of Cu^{2+} and CO_3^{2-} in the reactants, the obtained copper oxide catalysts were named MW-CuO_{0.1}, MW-CuO_{0.5}, MW-CuO_{1.1} and MW-CuO_{1.4}.

For performance comparison, another set of CuO catalysts was prepared using a similar method, using a water bath heater at the same temperature and stirring speed [186]. The resulting precipitate was washed, dried overnight at 110 °C and then calcined in air at 300 °C for 4 hours. The final CuO samples were labelled as CuO_{0.1}, CuO_{0.5}, CuO_{1.1} and CuO_{1.4}, based on the molar ratio of Cu^{2+} and CO_3^{2-} in the reactants.

To prepare the electrode, a 10 mg CuO catalyst was sonicated in a mixture of 1.92 mL isopropanol and 80 μL Nafion solution for 20 minutes. The resulting dispersion with a volume of 200 μL was dropped onto each side ($2 \times 2 \text{ cm}^2$) of a carbon paper and dried thoroughly at 110 °C. Then, the resulting CuO electrode was cut into thin slices of $1 \times 1 \text{ cm}^2$, with a CuO loading of about 0.25 mg/cm^2 . The other electrodes were prepared using the same method, and their names corresponded to the copper oxide catalysts used.

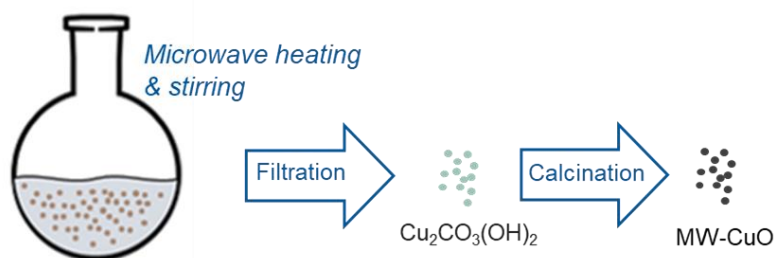


Figure 3.2 Preparation of the MW-CuO catalyst.

3.4.3 Preparation of Cu₂O-C₃N₄ and Cu@Cu₂O-C₃N₄ electrode

The C₃N₄ nanosheets were synthesized in a two-step process. First, melamine was annealed at a temperature of 550 °C for 2 hours in a semi-closed crucible. Subsequently, the resulting material was fired at 520 °C for another hour in an Ar atmosphere [187]. 60 mg of C₃N₄ was dispersed in 30 mL of deionized water (DI), and then 24 mL of CuCl₂ solution (0.15 M) was added. This mixture was slowly added dropwise to 36 mL NaOH solution (0.6 M) with constant stirring. Later, 50 mL of ascorbic acid solution (0.06 M) was added to the solution and stirred for 2 hours. The resulting precipitates had an orange colour and were then washed by suction filtration. Finally, the precipitates were dried overnight at 70 °C under vacuum [188, 189]. After grinding, the resulting powder is Cu₂O-C₃N₄. The Cu₂O was prepared using a similar method but without the addition of C₃N₄.

The preparation of Cu₂O-C₃N₄ electrodes starts with the dispersion of 5 mg of the Cu₂O-C₃N₄ catalyst in a solution containing 960 µL of isopropanol and 40 µL of Nafion solution. The resulting mixture is then subjected to ultrasonic treatment for 25 minutes to ensure homogeneous dispersion of the catalyst. Subsequently, 100 µL of the dispersed solution is coated onto a pristine carbon paper electrode. The coated electrode is carefully dried at a temperature of 105 °C to ensure complete evaporation of the solvents. This careful drying process leads to the preparation of the Cu₂O-C₃N₄ electrode, which can be used for subsequent experiments or testing purposes [190].

In the electrodeposition process, the Cu₂O-C₃N₄ electrode was used as the working electrode for the electrodeposition of copper on the electrode produced (Figure 3.3). At the same time, a copper foil electrode and an Ag/AgCl electrode

were used as counter and reference electrodes. The electrolyte consisted of a solution containing 0.01 M $\text{Cu}(\text{NO}_3)_2$. The electrodeposition process lasted 100 seconds while a constant current density of -2.5 mA/cm^2 was applied [191, 192]. After the deposition process, the $\text{Cu@Cu}_2\text{O-C}_3\text{N}_4$ electrodes were rinsed with distilled water and then used for electrochemical investigations.

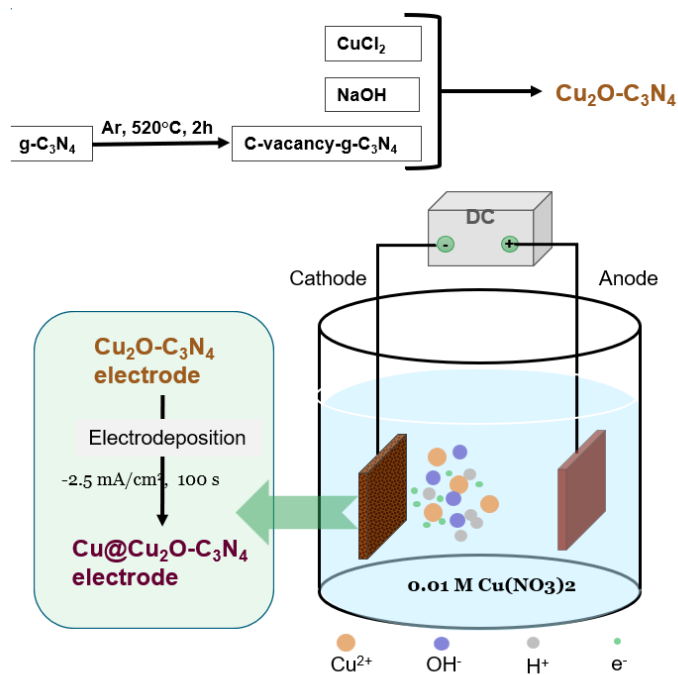


Figure 3.3 Preparation of the $\text{Cu@Cu}_2\text{O-C}_3\text{N}_4$ electrode.

3.4.4 Electrochemical test

The electrochemical performance test for CO_2 was performed at room temperature and ambient pressure using a conventional 50 mL H cell with a Nafion 117 proton-exchange membrane. Each compartment of the H cell contained 30 mL 0.1 M KHCO_3 electrolyte solution. The reference electrode was an Ag/AgCl electrode, while a $2 \times 2 \text{ cm}^2$ platinum plate was used on the counter electrode (Figure 3.4). Before the test was performed, the catholyte was saturated

with 99.999% CO₂. Throughout the electrolysis process, a continuous flow of CO₂ was introduced into the catholyte at a rate of 30 mL/min while magnetic stirring was maintained at about 700 rpm. The CHI660e electrochemical workstation from CH Instrument Inc. and the Gamry (Reference 3000) electrochemical workstation were used for the experiment. All potentials were manually adjusted to account for ohmic loss (*iR*_s) using Equation 3.1. After correcting for Ohmic loss, the potentials were converted to a reversible hydrogen electrode scale using Equation 3.2 [193]. After the electrode was prepared, it was subjected to an activation process at -2.4 V vs. RHE for 5 minutes in preparation for the subsequent eCO₂RR. The eCO₂RR was performed at a constant potential for 30 minutes.

$$E_{\text{corrected}} = E_{\text{applied}} - 85\% iR_s \quad \text{Equation 3.1}$$

where *i* represents the current in the electrolysis and *R*_s denotes the solution resistance, which was determined to be approximately 30 Ω)

$$E_{\text{RHE}} = E_{\text{Ag/AgCl}} + 0.059 \times \text{pH} + 0.21 \quad \text{Equation 3.2}$$

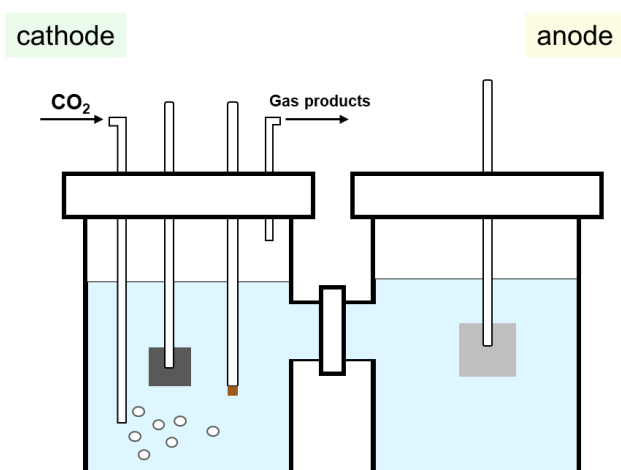


Figure 3.4 H-cell configuration.

After the reaction, gas samples were collected and transferred to a gas chromatography instrument (GC 8890, Agilent) equipped with a thermal conductivity detector (TCD) and two flame ionization detectors (FIDs). The detectors were maintained at a temperature of 275 °C for the FIDs and 250 °C for the TCD, while the oven temperature was set at 60 °C. The concentrations of the gas products were determined by comparison with calibration curves [132, 148, 194, 195].

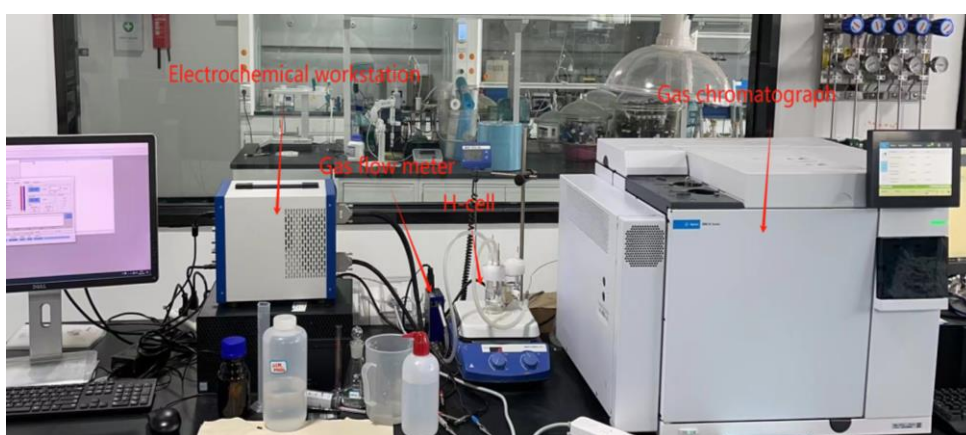


Figure 3.5 Schematic diagram of experimental set-up.

The liquid products were quantified by ^1H NMR (Bruker, Avance Neo 600). After 1-2 hours of electrolysis, 500 μL of the electrolyte was mixed with 50 μL DMSO/ H_2O (in a volume ratio of 1/2000) and 100 μL D_2O . A presaturation method was used to suppress the water peak and obtain the ^1H spectrum. Quantitative analysis of the liquid carbon products was performed using the peak area of DMSO as a reference [196].

Faradaic efficiency (FE) measures the effectiveness of an electrochemical process in producing the desired product. It quantifies the ratio of the electrical charge explicitly used to produce the desired product compared to the total charge transferred during the electrochemical reaction.

$$QE = mnF/It \quad \text{Equation 3.3}$$

Where m is the number of moles of the desired product, n is the number of electrons required to generate per mole of the product (Table 1.1), and F is the Faradaic constant (96485 C/mole electrons). I and t are the current and time, respectively, and their product is the total charge transferred between the electrodes in an experiment.

3.4.5 ECSA measurement

The electrochemically active surface area (ECSA) values of CuO and CuO-PVDC electrodes were determined using the Cottrell equation (Equation 3.4) [197]. $K_3Fe(CN)_6$ was used as the redox probe. A CV measurement was conducted using an electrode (Ag/AgCl) at a scan rate of 10 mV/s within the voltage range of 0.5 to 0 V in Ar-saturated 5 mM $K_3Fe(CN)_6$ / 0.1 M KCl. A chronoamperometry measurement was performed for 1 s at a potential of about 0.25 V, which is more negative than the peak potential in the foregoing CV curve [153].

$$I = \frac{FA\sqrt{D}}{\sqrt{\pi t}} [A]_{bulk} \quad \text{Equation 3.4}$$

Where F is the Faraday constant ($F = 96485 \text{ C/mol}$), A is ECSA, D is the diffusion coefficient ($D = 4.34 \times 10^{-6} \text{ cm}^2/\text{s}$), $[A]_{bulk}$ is the bulk concentration of $K_3Fe(CN)_6$ ($[A]_{bulk} = 5 \times 10^{-6} \text{ mol/ml}$).

The measurement of double-layer capacitance (C_{dl}) was also used to reveal ECSA. CV curves were conducted in a non-Faradaic region at various scan rates

in CO₂-saturated 0.1 M KHCO₃ solution. j_{dl} , calculated to be half of the difference between the anodic and cathodic currents ($j_a - j_c$) against scan rate, the slope of which is identified with the capacitance of the double layer.

$$C_{dl} = \Delta j / v = (j_a - j_c) / 2v \quad \text{Equation 3.5}$$

Where j_a and j_c are anodic and cathodic current densities, v is the scan rate in mV/s.

3.5 Characterization techniques

3.5.1 Field emission scanning electron microscopy (FESEM)

The Field-Emission Scanning Electron Microscope is an advanced imaging instrument that provides high-resolution analysis of surface properties and morphology in materials. Its primary purpose is to offer detailed visual information about the surface features of a sample. By scanning an electron beam over the surface and measuring the resulting signals, the FESEM generates highly magnified images with exceptional depth of field and resolution. This capability allows researchers to observe microstructural details, surface textures, and nanoscale features of the material under study [198].

The FESEM uses two primary imaging modes: secondary electron imaging and backscattered electron imaging. Secondary electron imaging provides information about the surface morphology and allows researchers to examine the topography and fine structures of the sample. This mode is beneficial for visualizing surface roughness, cracks and other surface features. On the other hand, backscattered electron imaging provides insights into the composition of

the sample and variations in atomic number [199, 200]. By detecting electrons backscattered from the sample, this mode can reveal differences in elemental composition and density within the material.

FESEM images were acquired for the study using the ZEISS GeminiSEM 360 device. FESEM analysis was performed at accelerating voltages of 10 and 15 kV, which determined the energy of the electron beam used for imaging. A careful sample preparation process was carried out to prepare the samples for the SEM images. The material to be analysed was dispersed on a double-sided adhesive, conductive carbon tape, which was then attached to a sample holder.

This deposition process was carried out using the KYKY SBC-12 sputter coater, which deposits a fine layer of gold on the sample. The gold layer acts as a conductive coating that dissipates the charge and minimises the charging effects of the beam during SEM analysis. By combining FESEM images with energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS), both high-resolution images and information about the elemental composition of the samples can be obtained.

3.5.2 Transmission electron microscopy (TEM)

Transmission electron microscopy is an advanced imaging technique that surpasses the capabilities of the SEM by enabling precise examination of materials at the atomic level. In TEM, an electron beam is directed through a thin sample, allowing detailed insights into the atomic arrangement and composition. TEM utilises the wave-particle duality of electrons and uses an electron gun to create a concentrated beam that is precisely focused on the sample using electromagnetic lenses. As the electrons interact with the atoms of

the sample, intricate electron diffraction patterns are created, revealing information about the crystal structure, lattice spacing and orientation of the sample [201]. After exiting the sample, the scattered electrons are further magnified and focussed before impinging on a fluorescent screen or digital detector, resulting in high-resolution images that can resolve atomic-level details. By carefully manipulating the lenses and adjusting the parameters, accurate images can be captured with the TEM (Figure 3.6) [202-204].

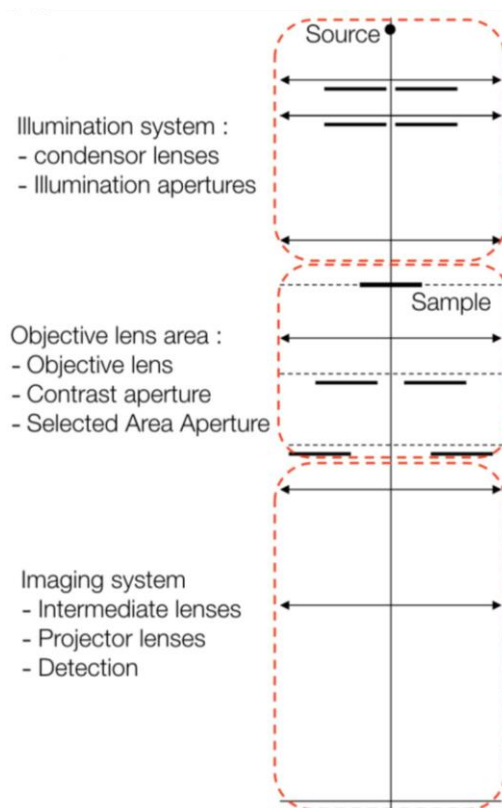


Figure 3.6 General outline of the TEM optic [204].

In this study, TEM images were taken with a JEOL JEM-200 microscope operating at an accelerating voltage of 200 kV. Prior to imaging, the sample powder was dispersed in either ethanol or methanol using ultrasound for 10 minutes. A small amount of the resulting suspension was then placed on a copper grid, which served as a substrate for TEM imaging. This method of sample

preparation ensured that the sample was well dispersed and evenly distributed on the grid, allowing accurate and representative TEM imaging.

3.5.3 X-ray diffraction (XRD)

XRD is a robust analytical method that can be used to determine the properties and crystal structure of a substance. This is achieved by analysing the diffraction pattern [205]. This technique is based on Bragg's law, which describes the constructive interference of X-rays with the distances between the crystal planes (Figure 3.7). By measuring the angles and intensities of the resulting diffraction peaks, valuable information about the crystal lattice, including the dimensions of the unit cell, crystal symmetry and impurities or defects, can be obtained. In XRD analysis, a powdered or single crystal sample is irradiated with a monochromatic X-ray beam, and a detector collects the diffracted X-rays. The resulting diffraction pattern is then analysed to determine the crystal structure and other relevant information about the material [206, 207].

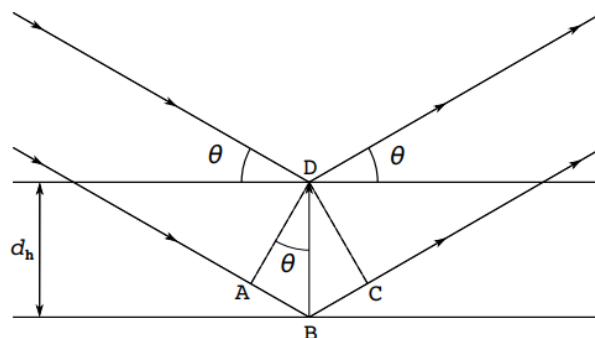


Figure 3.7 Bragg representation of X-ray diffraction by lattice planes with interplanar distance d_h [208].

XRD measurements were performed with a Bruker D8 Advance X-ray diffractometer using monochromatic Cu K α 1 radiation ($\lambda = 1.54056 \text{ \AA}$) at 40 kV and 40 mA. The data was collected within the 2θ range of $10\text{--}90^\circ$ with a step size of 0.02° .

3.5.4 X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS)

X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy is a surface-sensitive analytical technique for determining the elemental composition and chemical state of materials by analysing the energy distribution of photoelectrons emitted from the surface of the material when irradiated with X-rays. This technique provides valuable information about the elemental composition of the elements, the chemical bonding and the oxidation state on the surface of the material. The theory behind XPS is based on the photoelectric effect, in which X-rays excite electrons in the material so that they are emitted from the surface. The kinetic energy and intensity of these emitted electrons are measured to determine their binding energies and relative concentrations, allowing the identification of characteristic peaks corresponding to different elements and chemical states. In XPS analysis, the sample is placed in a vacuum chamber, X-rays of known energy are directed at the surface, and the emitted photoelectrons are collected using an electron energy analyser. The resulting XPS spectrum provides information about the elemental composition and chemical environment of the material surface [209, 210].

In the XPS analysis described, a Shimadzu Axis Supra+ system was used. The system employed a focused, monochromatic Al K α X-ray source with an energy

of 1486.6 eV for sample excitation. To calibrate the XPS data, the binding energy of the C 1s peak was fixed at 284.6 eV as an internal reference. The experimental curves, including the XPS spectra and other relevant data, were generated using CasaXPS software. It provides various tools and algorithms to analyze the XPS spectra, quantify elemental composition, and determine chemical states.

3.5.5 Contact angle apparatus

The contact angle apparatus serves as a crucial scientific instrument for measuring the contact angle between a liquid droplet and a solid surface, offering insights into the wettability and surface characteristics of the material. Its primary function involves precise measurement of the contact angle at the three-phase interface, where the liquid, solid, and gas phases meet [211]. This enables researchers to analyze and quantify the wetting behaviour of liquids on solid surfaces. The apparatus typically includes a sample stage, a liquid dispenser, an imaging system (such as a high-resolution camera), and image analysis software (Figure 3.8) [212].

The theoretical basis is based on the equilibrium of the interfacial forces at the three-phase contact line, whereby the Young-Laplace equation (Equation 3.6) is usually used to describe the relationship between the contact angle, the interfacial tensions and the curvature of the liquid droplet. The contact angle, which is influenced by surface tension factors, reflects information about the surface energy, roughness and chemistry of the solid material. A high contact angle indicates poor wettability and, therefore, limited spreading of the liquid,

while a low contact angle indicates good wettability and easy spreading of the liquid on the surface [213, 214].

$$\Delta p = -\gamma \nabla \cdot \hat{n} \quad \text{Equation 3.6}$$

Where Δp is the pressure difference across the fluid interface, γ is the surface tension, \hat{n} is the unit normal pointing out of the surface.



Figure 3.8 Image of the contact angle apparatus.

3.5.6 Electrochemical workstation

The electrochemical workstation, a central tool in electrochemical research, investigates the behaviour of materials during various electrochemical processes. It works by precisely measuring and regulating electrical parameters during experiments. Equipped with multiple channels for potential, current and impedance control, this workstation enables various techniques such as cyclic voltammetry, chronoamperometry, impedance spectroscopy and potentiostatic/galvanostatic measurements. It has its roots in electrochemistry and explores the synergy between electricity and chemical reactions [215-217].

In this study, chronoamperometry and chronopotentiometry were used to analyse the performance of the CO₂RR. Impedance spectroscopy was also used to measure the impedance of the electrochemical system at different frequencies to gain insight into electrical properties such as conductivity, capacitance and the kinetic behaviour of the electrochemical reactions. Cyclic voltammetry was used to investigate the electrochemical activity of the electrode material, the charge transfer processes and the reaction kinetics. By applying different scan rates and measuring the resulting current response, CV allowed the ECSA of the electrode to be determined. In contrast, linear sweep voltammetry is commonly used to measure the limiting current density and potential windows, focussing on the measurement of the kinetic parameters and electrochemical activity of the electrode reaction. Overall, these techniques contribute to a comprehensive understanding of electrochemical systems and help to optimise them.

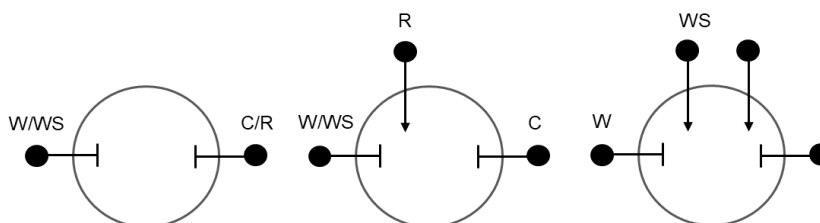


Figure 3.9 Wiring diagram of two -, three - and four-electrode systems.

3.5.7 Gas chromatography (GC)

Gas chromatography is an analytical technique that separates, identifies and quantifies volatile compounds in a sample mixture by utilising the principles of partitioning and selective adsorption. A typical GC system consists of a sample injector, a separation column, a detector and a data acquisition system [218]. The sample is vaporised and introduced into the separation column, which contains

a stationary phase. The mobile phase, usually an inert gas, transports the sample through the column. During this process, various compounds interact with the stationary phase due to their affinity and volatility, leading to their separation. The time it takes for each compound to pass through the column is called the retention time. The detector measures the concentration of each compound as it elutes from the column and produces a chromatogram [219, 220].

In this work, the gas chromatograph system is enhanced with specific detectors to enable comprehensive compound analysis. The configuration includes one methane reformer, two FIDs, and one TCD (Figure 3.10). TCD operates based on the principle of thermal conductivity differences among compounds during sample separation. In this setup, the TCD is specifically used to detect and quantify hydrogen. On the other hand, the FID functions by utilizing the ion flow generated by the combustion of compounds in a flame during sample separation. The FID can detect and quantify several compounds, including carbon monoxide, methane, ethylene, and ethane.

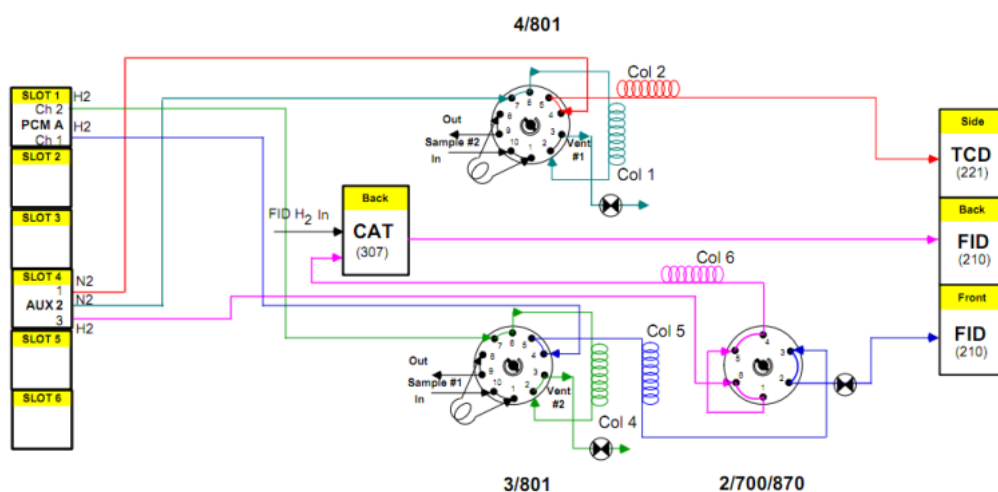


Figure 3.10 Diagram of gas chromatographic configuration used in the experiment.

3.5.8 Nuclear magnetic resonance spectrometer (NMR)

¹H-NMR spectroscopy is an analytical technique that utilizes the magnetic properties of hydrogen nuclei to determine the structure and identify organic compounds. The protons absorb and emit energy in the form of electromagnetic radiation by subjecting the hydrogen nuclei to a strong magnetic field and applying a radiofrequency pulse. This emitted radiation is analyzed to provide valuable information about the chemical environment and connectivity of hydrogen atoms in a molecule. The concept of chemical shift reveals the displacement of resonance frequencies due to different chemical environments, while coupling refers to the splitting of NMR signals caused by interactions between neighbouring protons. These principles allow researchers to obtain data on the number of distinct proton environments, their relative positions, and their interactions with neighbouring atoms.

In the electrochemical reduction of CO₂, NMR hydrogen spectroscopy was employed to determine the content of liquid phase products, including formic acid, ethanol, propanol, and other similar compounds. This analytical technique involves analyzing the behaviour of hydrogen atoms in the electrolyte after the reaction. By comparing these signals with those of an internal standard, it becomes possible to quantify the concentration of the liquid phase products.

3.6 Computational method

3.6.1 Density Functional Theory (DFT)

DFT calculations play an essential role in CO₂RR and offer valuable applications and insights. DFT enables structure determination and detection of intermediates, as well as prediction and optimisation of reaction pathways and transition state structures. It facilitates the study of reaction kinetics, including rate constants, activation energies and reactive sites. In addition, DFT helps characterise catalysts by revealing structural, surface adsorption and electronic properties. It helps in the development and improvement of catalysts by evaluating the adsorption energy of the catalyst, the structures of the transition states and the reaction barriers.

In addition, DFT takes solvent effects into account and predicts their influence on reaction rates, selectivity and catalyst activity [158, 176, 221, 222]. The application and importance of DFT calculations in CO₂ electrocatalysis lies in their ability to provide theoretical insights, optimise catalyst performance, and predict experimental results. By integrating experiments and calculations, DFT accelerates the development of CO₂ electrocatalysis and advances research in the field of sustainable energy and carbon reduction.

All calculations in this work were carried out using the Vienna ab initio Simulation Package. The projector-extended wave method was used to describe the core-valence interactions, and the cut-off energy for the plane-wave basis set was 500 eV. The Brillouin zone was sampled using the Monkhorst-Pack scheme with a grid of $3 \times 3 \times 1$ k points. The Cu(111) surface plates were constructed from three layers, with the lower layers fixed and the two upper

layers relaxed, with vacuum layers of at least 15 Å. Only two polymer monomers (PVDC, PVDF and PTFE) were placed over the Cu layers (Figure 3.11). After optimisation, the key intermediates *H, *OCHO and *COOH were placed in three positions above the polymer and the adsorption energy was calculated and recorded.

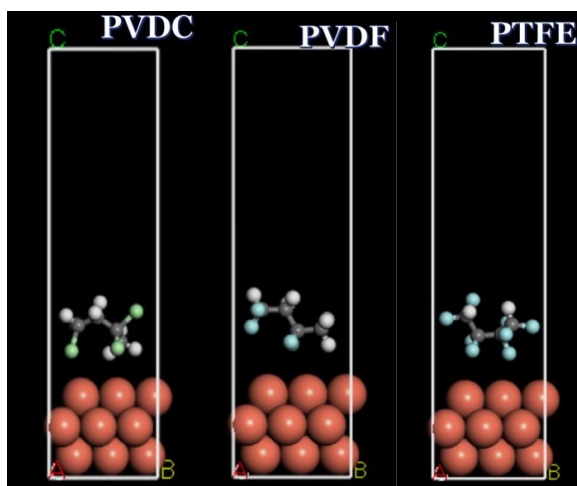


Figure 3.11 Optimized polymer on Cu layers. The corresponding atom to the colour: Red-O, Grey-C, White-H, Blue-F, Green-Cl, Orange-Cu).

Chapter 4. Hydrophobic polymer coated on CuO electrode for improved ethylene production

4.1 Introduction

Renewable energy-driven electrochemical CO₂ reduction is a sustainable approach for CO₂ emission mitigation [223, 224]. Although the current technology is challenging to apply on a large scale, the conversion of CO₂ into value-added products such as CO, HCOOH, CH₄ and C₂₊ products is of great potential, which improves the economics of the process. Ethylene, a lower-carbon product with higher commercial value that could be directly used as a building block in the chemical industry, has become a hot research topic [159, 225]. However, the development of catalysts with high activity and selectivity for the electrochemical production of C₂H₄ remains a challenge due to the complex reaction pathways involved in the eCO₂RR [95, 106, 190].

In recent studies on the electrocatalytic reduction of CO₂ to C₂H₄, some remarkable results have been obtained using copper-based catalysts with different crystal planes, sizes, structures and roughness [226-229]. The CuO-derived Cu electrode showed better performance in CO₂RR to ethylene than a pure Cu electrode. After the lattice oxygen was rapidly removed in the initial phase, the resulting coordination-low, defect-rich and oxygen-rich subsurface sites were able to optimise C-C coupling [230]. When CuO was used as an electrocatalyst, the Faradaic efficiency of ethylene could reach 29.7% at about -1.6 V vs. RHE in 0.2 M KHCO₃ electrolyte. Although the C₂H₄ partial current was significantly increased, the inhibition of the hydrogen evolution reaction (FE_{H₂} = ~ 50%) remained a challenge [142].

In the conversion of CO₂ to ethylene, protons play a crucial role in the balance of electrons and, thus, in the most critical side reaction, the hydrogen evolution reaction [140]. Research into strategies to reduce HER is necessary. Recently, some studies have paid special attention to the regulation of the microenvironment in Cu-based CO₂RR [231-234]. Modification of polymers is one of the simple and universal methods to suppress hydrogen formation and increase the yield of the target product. Previous modifications with Nafion and PTFE on Cu or CuO electrodes show satisfactory effects in preventing water diffusion ($FE_{H_2} > 27\%$) and facilitating CO, CH₄ or HCOOH production but no obvious improvement in ethylene production [235-238].

Coating a CuO electrode with polyvinylidene fluoride increased the local pH on the surface and created a hydrophobic environment, successfully improving the Faraday efficiency of ethylene to 40.6% and suppressing FE_{H_2} to about 29%. Nevertheless, the electrical conductivity of the PVDF-modified electrodes was partially sacrificed. The overall energy conversion efficiency was limited, with a total current density of about 15 mA/cm² at a relatively high potential of -1.22 V vs. RHE in a 0.5 M KHCO₃ electrolyte [144]. Polymer modification holds considerable untapped potential. So far, there have been several applications of PVDC in electrochemical fields to produce activated carbon for high-performance EDLCs or electrolytes for rechargeable batteries, but the possibilities in CO₂RR still need to be explored [239-242].

This study aimed to improve the catalytic activity and selectivity of CuO electrodes for the production of the target product C₂H₄. PVDC was used to form a hydrophobic layer over the CuO electrodes by physical sedimentation. The hydrophobic property of the electrodes was regulated by controlling the amount

of polymer applied. The influence of polymer coating on proton transfer and eCO₂RR was studied with the selectivity and catalytic efficiency.

4.2 Results and discussion

4.2.1 Surface properties of PVDC-modified CuO electrode

The CuO-PVDC electrodes were prepared by drop-casting a PVDC dispersion in DMF onto the CuO electrode. The transmission electron microscopy image shows that the CuO nanoparticles have a cylindrical structure with a length of 100 to 200 nm and a cross-sectional diameter of about 50 nm (see Figure 4.2a), which corresponds to the particles on the bare CuO electrode (Figure 4.1a). The drying process at a high temperature of 105 °C led to a significant agglomeration dispersion of the CuO nanoparticles. This agglomeration led to a partial exposure of the carbon fibres, as shown in Figure 4.1a, e.

Figure 4.1b-d shows that a film is present covering both the CuO particles and the underlying carbon paper. This film acts as a binder and effectively binds the CuO nanoparticles to the carbon paper substrate. For the Cl element referred to in the EDS mapping (Figure 4.1e), this film is the well-distributed hydrophobic polymer PVDC. Moreover, as the loading of PVDC on the CuO electrode increases, the amount of exposed CuO nanoparticles on the surface of the top layer decreases significantly. When the PVDC coating amount reaches 150 µg/cm², a considerable number of catalyst particles are buried under the polymer layer.

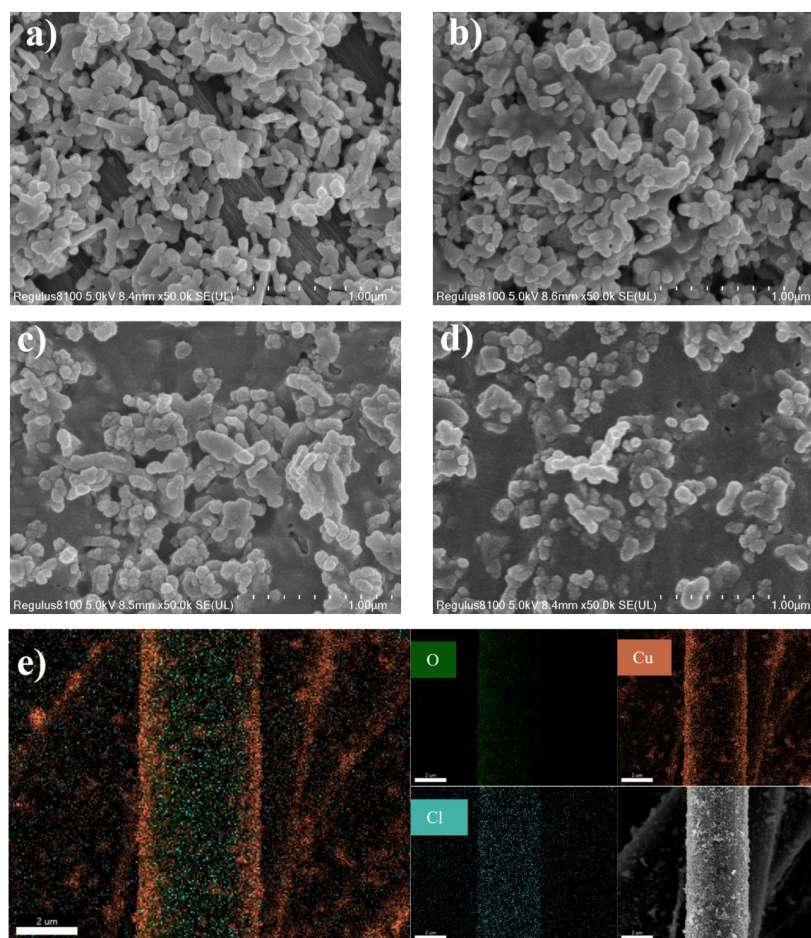


Figure 4.1 SEM images of a) CuO electrode; b) CuO-PVDC 50 electrode; c) CuO-PVDC 100 electrode; d) CuO-PVDC 150 electrode; e) the elemental mapping of CuO-PVDC 100 electrode coating.

The HRTEM image shows enlarged lattice fringes with an interplanar spacing of 0.243 nm, which corresponds to the (111) planes of monoclinic CuO (Figure 4.2b). The crystal phase of the CuO powder was also confirmed by the wide-angle X-ray diffraction, with broad peaks at 35.5° , 38.7° and 48.7° corresponding to (002), (111) and (-202) of tenorite CuO (JCPDS#45-0937), respectively (Figure 4.2c). Figure 4.2d shows the XRD patterns of the freshly fabricated electrodes. Due to the small loading amount, the peak of PVDC on the CuO-PVDC electrode is relatively weak, which can be seen by the peak at

42°. The high-intensity peak at 54.5° can be attributed to the carbon paper substrate, respectively[243]. In comparison, distinct peaks at 35.5° and 38.8° appear in the CuO and CuO-PVDC electrodes, which are characteristic of CuO. This is consistent with the observations from the XRD results of the CuO powder and indicates that CuO was successfully deposited on the carbon paper, and the oxidation state of the copper remains unchanged before and after physical vapour deposition and PVDC coating.

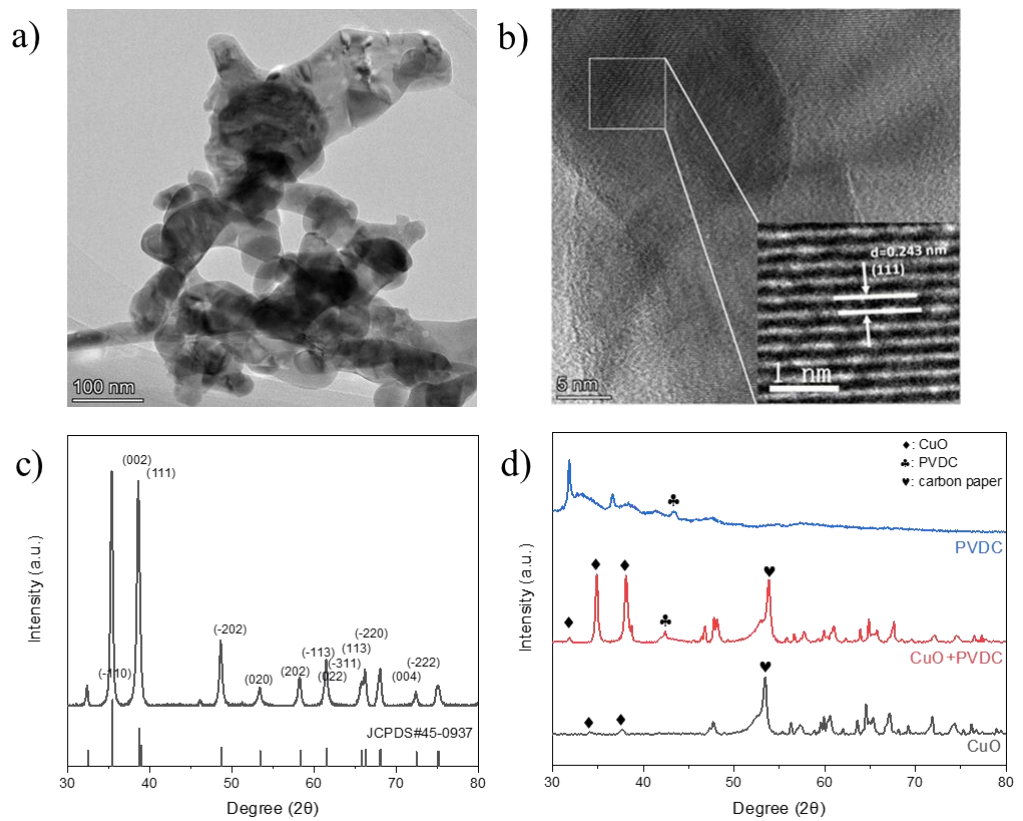


Figure 4.2 a) TEM image of CuO after cleaning, b) HRTEM image with measured lattice distance. c) XRD patterns of CuO powder and d) CuO electrodes with and without PVDC coating.

4.2.2 Electrochemical CO₂RR of PVDC-modified electrodes

To investigate the influence of hydrophobicity on the electrochemical conversion of CO₂ to ethylene, we performed CO₂RR experiments with bare CuO electrodes and CuO electrodes coated with PVDC. The experiments were performed in a CO₂-saturated 0.1 M KHCO₃ electrolyte at a fixed potential of -1.19 V vs. RHE (with 85% iR-corrected). Without any polymer modification, the bare CuO electrode exhibited an FE of about 30.9% for C₂H₄ production and ~ 31.8% for H₂ evolution. When the CuO electrodes were coated with various amounts of PVDC, all FE values for H₂ decreased by more than 5%. At the same time, the FE for ethylene production increased by at least 4.5% (Figure 4.3). The change in selectivity showed that the addition of PVDC as a modifier agent significantly weakened the hydrogen evolution reaction and promoted the selective formation of ethylene during the CO₂ reduction process.

The performance of the electrodes varied slightly depending on the amount of PVDC coating. The CuO electrode achieved optimum performance with a PVDC coating of only 50 μg/cm². By applying this coating, hydrogen evolution was significantly suppressed, and the FE was reduced from 31.8% to 22.8%. At the same time, the FE_{C₂H₄} increased from 30.9% to 37.8%, indicating improved ethylene production. Interestingly, when the PVDC coating amount was further increased, there was no clear positive correlation with product selectivity. Instead, it was observed that the inhibitory effect on hydrogen evolution and the promotion of ethylene production were most pronounced when only a tiny amount of PVDC was applied to the electrode. In contrast, excessive loading of PVDC had a suppressive effect on the CO₂ reduction process, indicating an optimal PVDC concentration to achieve the desired performance enhancement.

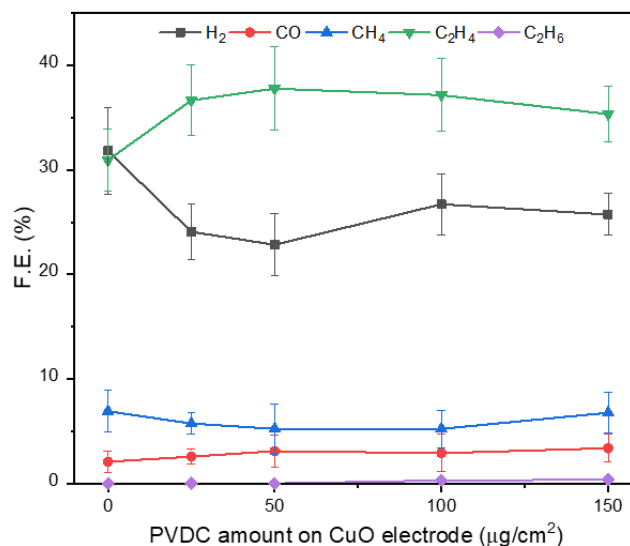


Figure 4.3 Faradaic efficiencies for C₂H₆, C₂H₄, CH₄, CO and H₂ for bare CuO electrode and CuO electrode with various PVDC coating amounts obtained at the fixed potential of -1.19 V vs. RHE in CO₂-saturated 0.1 M KHCO₃ solution.

To investigate the influence of the interfacial difference on product selectivity, we performed CO₂ reduction experiments on bare CuO electrodes and CuO electrodes coated with 50 $\mu\text{g}/\text{cm}^2$ PVDC. The experiments were performed at working potentials from -0.89 V to -1.29 V vs. RHE. The bare CuO electrodes showed fluctuating FE of H₂ between 24.8% and 31.8%, with FE_{C₂H₄} around 30%. Over the entire working potential range, more than 61% of the charges were used to generate gaseous products (Figure 4.4a). After PVDC modification with a dose of 50 $\mu\text{g}/\text{cm}^2$, CO and CH₄ production (FE_{CO+CH₄} < 10%) was similar to that observed at the CuO electrode. However, the HER were significantly suppressed, with an FE of only 22.8%, lower than the minimum FE observed with the unmodified CuO electrode at all working potentials.

In addition, the formation of C_2H_4 was significantly increased on the CuO-PVDC electrode, with FEs between 4.7% and 9.3% higher compared to the CuO electrode at the same potential. The observed variations in Faraday efficiency emphasize the sensitivity of the reaction to the properties of the electrode surface. Remarkably, the CuO-PVDC electrode achieved a $FE_{C_2H_4}$ of 41.4% and a high partial current density for ethylene production of ~ 6.8 mA/cm² at a potential of -0.89 V vs. RHE, surpassing the $FE_{C_2H_4}$ of the CuO electrode (32.2%). The observed high yield is remarkable and is among the highest reported yields in electrocatalytic CO_2 to C_2H_4 conversion using CuO-derived catalysts (Figure 4.4b and Table 4.1).

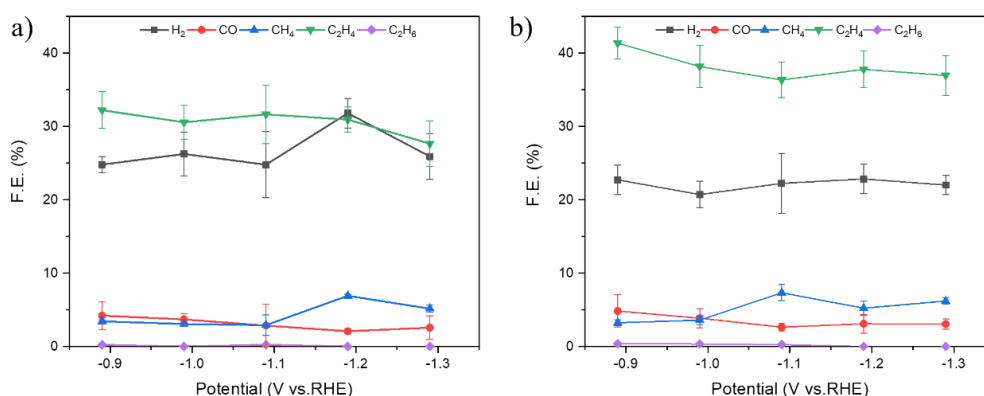


Figure 4.4 The product distribution of a) bare CuO electrode and b) CuO electrode with 50 $\mu g/cm^2$ PVDC coating under different working potentials in CO_2 -saturated 0.1 M $KHCO_3$ electrolyte (with 85% iR-corrected).

Table 4.1 Comparison of optimized C₂H₄ production using various Cu-based catalysts in H cells.

Electrode	FE _{C₂H₄}	FE _{H₂}	E (V vs. RHE)	j _{C₂H₄} (mA/cm ² _{geo})	Electrolyte	Ref.
PVDC modified CuO	41.4%	22.7%	-0.9	6.8	0.1 M KHCO ₃	This work
Oxide-derived Cu	20%	29.0%	-1.0	2.0	0.5 M KHCO ₃	[244]
CuO-derived catalyst	29.7%	50.0%	-1.6	~35.6	0.2 M KHCO ₃	[89]
Mesoporous CuO	33.6%	33.0%	-1.0	~4.2	1.0 M KI	[142]
PVDF modified CuO	40.6%	28.5%	-1.2	~6.1	0.5 M KHCO ₃	[144]
Cu-on-Cu ₃ N	39.0%	29.0%	-1.0	~8.5	0.1 M KHCO ₃	[245]
Copper mesocrystals	27.2%	50.0%	-1.0	~6.8	0.1 M KHCO ₃	[246]
Prism-shaped Cu	27.8%	32.0%	-1.2	11.8	0.1 M KHCO ₃	[247]
Copper nanoparticle ensembles	33.2%	34.0%	-0.9	~6.8	0.1 M KHCO ₃	[248]
Agglomerated Cu Nanocrystals	35.8%	26.4%	-1.0	7.1	0.1 M KHCO ₃	[177]
Cu ₂ O films (0.9μm)	40.3%	28.6%	-1.0	10.1	0.1 M KHCO ₃	[140]
Cu foil	26.0%	22.6%	-1.1	1.5	0.1 M KHCO ₃	[126]
Cu ₂ O-derived Cu NP	33.5%	31.0%	-1.1	~12.1	0.1 M KHCO ₃	[143]
Electrodeposited Cu ₂ O	25.0%	60.0%	-1.2	~2.3	0.5 M KHCO ₃	[249]
Anodised copper	38.1%	36.6%	-1.1	7.3	0.1 M KHCO ₃	[132]
Electroredeposited copper	38.0%	~2.0%	-1.2	22	0.1 M KHCO ₃	[133]

The influence of polymer coating on ethylene production is considerable. To further investigate the effects of different polymers on the electrochemical

performance of CuO electrodes, a series of comparative tests were carried out with alternative hydrophobic materials, including polytetrafluoroethylene, polyvinylidene fluoride and Nafion. Without the CuO coating, ethylene could not be formed on the bare carbon paper, and more than half of the electrons were involved in the hydrogen evolution reaction (Figure 4.5a). PVDC coating on carbon paper led to a sharp decrease in the Faraday efficiency of CO and CH₄ products, while the FE of H₂ only decreased by 3.5%. A similar change in the selectivity of the products was observed for PVDF and Nafion coatings. It should be noted that the PTFE coating was effective in suppressing hydrogen evolution. However, more charges were consumed to produce CO. Polymer on carbon paper shows no positive catalytic effect on the reduction of CO₂ to ethylene and the suppression of hydrogen evolution.

Nevertheless, a significant shift occurred after the application of polymers to CuO electrodes, leading to improved performance in eCO₂RR. A comparison of Faradaic efficiency at the same potential showed that the polymer-modified electrodes slightly inhibited hydrogen evolution and exhibited an increased ethylene yield (Figure 4.5b). The extent of this increase varied with the different polymers. In particular, CuO electrodes modified with PVDC and Nafion showed a significant increase, improving the ethylene yield from 32.2% to 41.4% and 37.7%, respectively. PVDC continues to be a highly sought-after hydrophobic material, demonstrating its effectiveness.

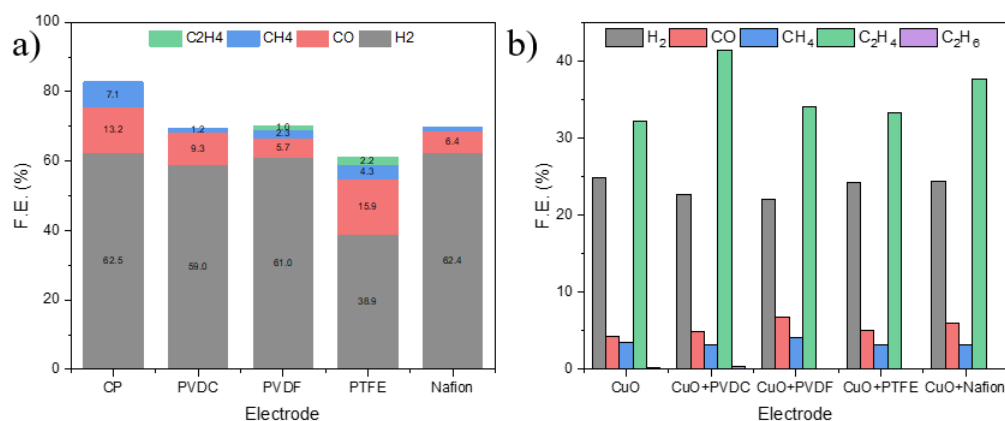


Figure 4.5 Product distribution for a) carbon paper with and without polymer layer (polymer coating amount = $\sim 150 \mu\text{g}/\text{cm}^2$; b) bare CuO electrode and CuO electrode with various polymer coating (coating amount = $\sim 50 \mu\text{g}/\text{cm}^2$) obtained at the fixed potential of -0.89 V vs. RHE in CO_2 -saturated 0.1 M KHCO_3 solution.

In addition, the effect of PVDC was further tested by changing the coating order by first applying PVDC on carbon paper and then the CuO layer or by dispersing both PVDC and CuO in DMF solution and dripping this mixture on carbon paper. According to the CO_2RR test, the result shows that the coating sequence is also decisive for product distribution. When PVDC and CuO were applied simultaneously on the carbon paper, the catalytic performance of CuO was affected by higher hydrogen evolution ($\text{FE} = 48.7\%$) and lower ethylene production ($\text{FE} = 14.3\%$). Only when the PVDC layer covered the CuO catalysts, the electrocatalytic performance of the CuO electrode was improved (Figure 4.6). These results prove that the copper species always play the most important role in this electrocatalytic reduction process, and the polymer coating has a synergistic effect on the reaction pathway.

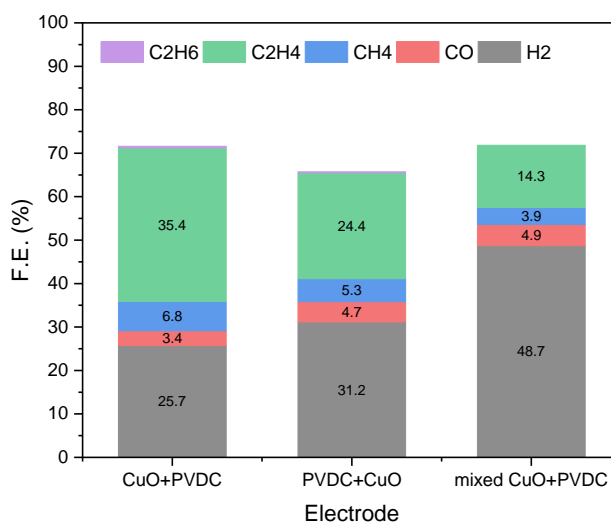


Figure 4.6 CuO electrodes with PVDC layer prepared in different drop-casting order (polymer coating amount = 150 $\mu\text{g}/\text{cm}^2$).

Evolution of electrode species during the CO₂RR

SEM images before and after the 6-hour electrocatalytic reaction could be used to identify the morphological changes on the surface of the electrode (Figure 4.7c-f). When comparing the fresh and spent CuO electrodes, the morphology of the particles changed from a short rod-like shape to spherical particles. For the CuO-PVDC electrode, there is also a similar change in morphology, indicating that the PVDC layer has no obvious effect on protecting the CuO from this type of change during a 6-hour reaction. The atoms with low coordination on the surface quickly transformed into nanoparticles during the stability test, making it difficult to maintain the structure and activity over a long period. As a result, the current density of the stability test decreased [141].

Remarkably, more spherical particles were found on the PVDC-coated electrodes after the reaction than on the bare CuO electrodes, and the decrease

of $|j|_{\text{C}_2\text{H}_4}$ on the CuO-PVDC electrode was much better than that of CuO, with $|j|_{\text{C}_2\text{H}_4}$ constantly fluctuating from 6.8 to 5 mA/cm² on the CuO-PVDC electrode and from 5.8 to 3.2 mA/cm² on the CuO electrode (Figure 4.7a-b), which proves that PVDC can act as a binder for the electrocatalysts. In general, four main mechanisms can lead to stability degradation: catalyst poisoning, catalyst delamination, loss of hydrophobicity, and salt/carbonate formation and deposition [59]. The PVDC coating could slow down the decrease in activity by protecting the catalyst and maintaining hydrophobicity.

To verify the evolution of surface copper oxide on the electrodes before and after the 6-hour reaction, we dispersed the particles on the reacted electrode surface in ethanol and prepared samples for HRTEM analysis (Figure 4.8). Large amounts of spherical particles with diameters ranging from 3-10 nm and irregular particles with diameters ranging from 30-100 nm were observed on both the CuO and CuO-PVDC electrodes after the reaction. The lattice spacing of the small particles corresponds to the (111), (200), and (220) crystal planes of copper (Figure 4.8b, e). Similar lattice spacing to Cu₂O and CuO was observed on larger particles (Figure 4.8c, f), requiring further characterization tests to determine the reduction process of CuO.

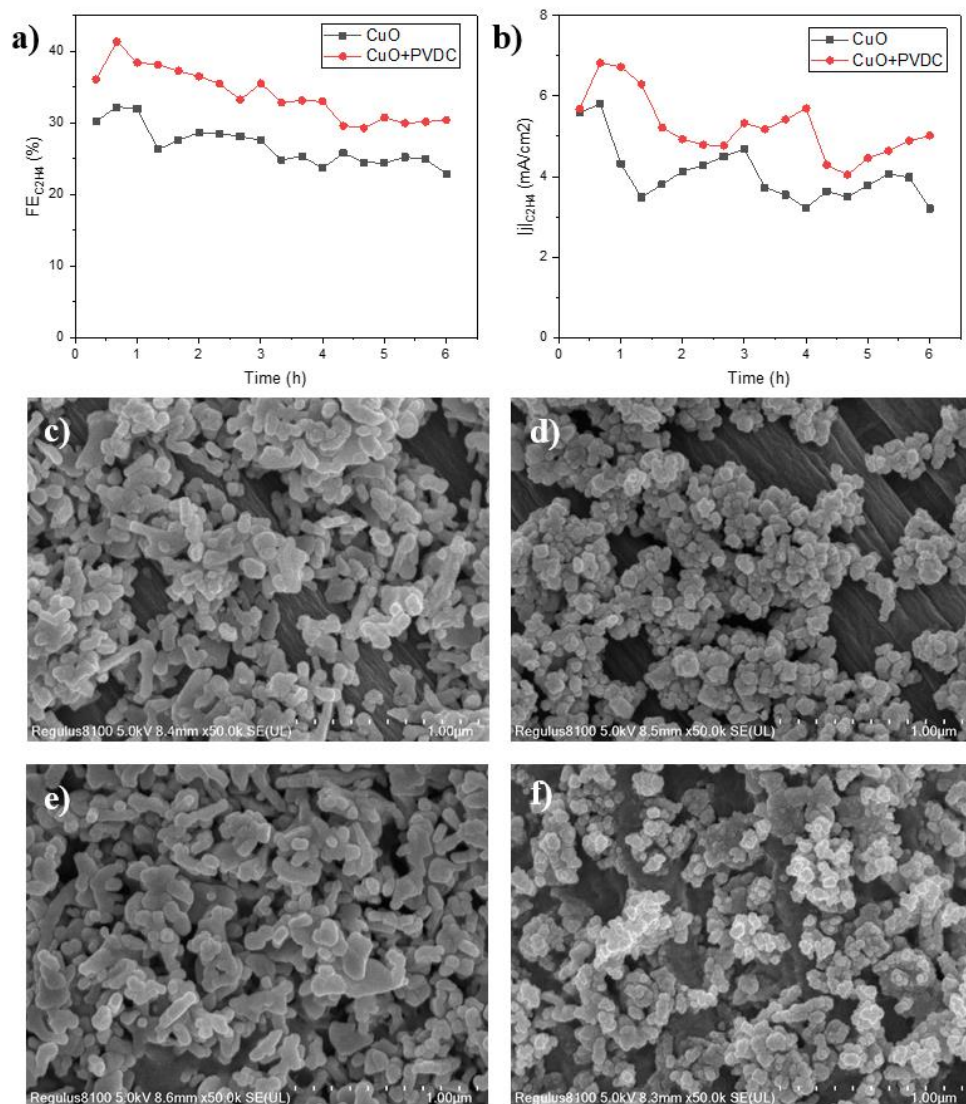


Figure 4.7 a) $FE_{C_2H_4}$ and b) $|j|_{C_2H_4}$ of bare CuO and CuO electrodes with 50 $\mu\text{g}/\text{cm}^2$ PVDC coating under long-term operations (two 3h reactions). SEM images of bare CuO electrode c) before CO_2RR and d) after the 6-hour test; SEM images of CuO-PVDC e) before CO_2RR and f) after the 6-hour test.

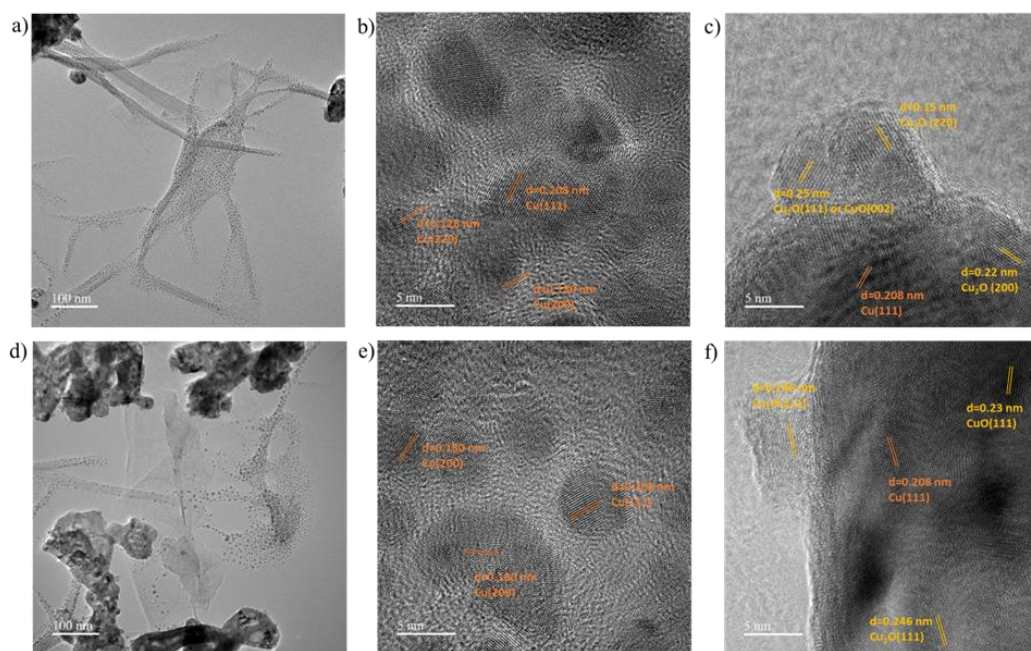


Figure 4.8 HRTEM image with measured lattice distance of the particles on the a-c) CuO electrode; d-f) CuO-PVDC electrode after 6-hour reaction at -0.89 V. After the reaction, the electrodes were immersed in ethanol and ultrasonic treated for a few minutes and then the dispersed solution was prepared for the test.

In addition, XPS analysis was used to analyse the oxidation state of copper on the electrodes before and after a short-term and long-term reaction. The presence of Cu(II) on the freshly prepared CuO and CuO-PVDC electrodes was confirmed by the prominent peak at 933.9 eV. A shift of the peak to 932.8 eV was observed in the Cu 2p spectra after both the 30-minute and 6-hour reactions, indicating the presence of Cu(I) (Figure 4.9a). This phenomenon was further supported by the shift observed in the Cu-LMM spectra (Figure 4.9b). This transition in oxidation state, from Cu^{2+} to Cu^+ , likely occurred within the first thirty minutes of the reaction, with no further reduction of Cu^+ to Cu^0 observed during the six-hour

reaction period. Furthermore, the Cl 2p spectra for CuO-PVDC before and after long-term electrolysis show no peak shift, which is consistent with the SEM results. This indicates that the PVDC coating is stable and would not be easily reduced or fallen off during this reaction (Figure 4.9c).

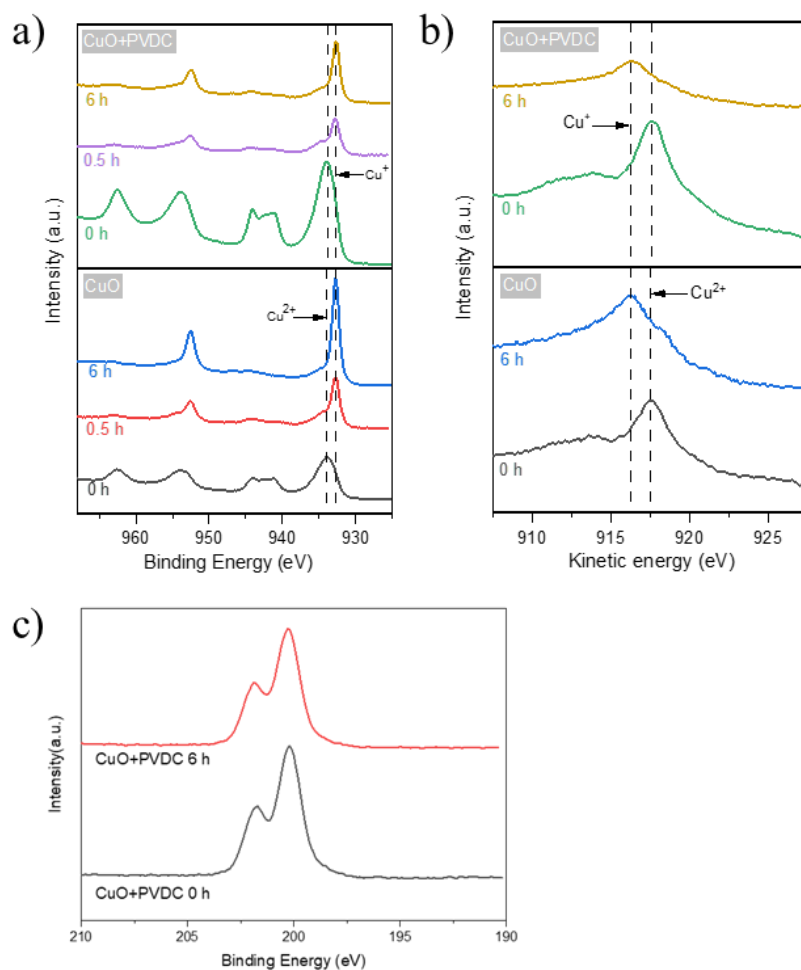


Figure 4.9 High-resolution XPS a) Cu 2p; b) Cu LMM; c) Cl 2p.

XRD analysis was used to further confirm the changes in Cu oxidation states during the electrocatalytic process. To mitigate the interference from the carbon paper, the CuO electrode was loaded with twice the amount of CuO and PVDC. Figure 4.10 shows the presence of CuO on the electrode before the reaction. Significant changes in the peak patterns were observed after both the short-term

and long-term reactions. The peaks observed at 43.3° and 50.4° can be attributed to the (111) and (200) crystal phases of copper (JCPDS: 04-0836), respectively. In addition, the peak at 36.4° corresponds to the (111) crystal plane of Cu_2O , suggesting that CuO may have undergone reduction, resulting in a mixture of Cu_2O and Cu , which is not consistent with the results of the XPS analysis. This discrepancy could be due to the limited detection depth of XPS, which is typically less than 10 nm.

Studies on the surface phase of Cu material indicate the coexistence of cathodic reduction and anodic re-oxidation, leading to a dynamic equilibrium due to strong oxidizing species in the electrolyte. The most active species is expected to be metallic Cu , along with some stable Cu^+ species [250, 251]. The relative ratios of Cu^{2+} , Cu^+ , and Cu^0 can be estimated based on the peak intensity corresponding to the respective (111) planes (Table 4.2). Interestingly, the Cu^+ amount on the CuO -PVDC electrode is approximately three times higher than that on the unmodified electrode. The observed higher Cu^+ content can be attributed to PVDC's ability to prevent the detachment of active species or regulate the reduction state of copper oxide. This favourable influence may contribute to the enhanced C-C coupling processes, leading to an increased ethylene yield.

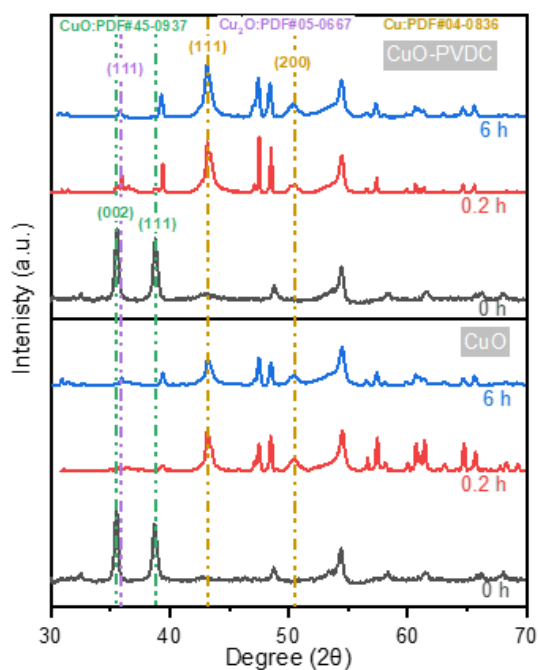


Figure 4.10 XRD patterns of CuO and CuO-PVDC electrodes before and after CO₂RR at -0.89 V vs. RHE.

Table 4.2 Integral area of (111) facet according to XRD patterns.

	CuO	CuO-PVDC
Integral area of (111) facet of Cu₂O	27.5	64.3
Integral area of (111) facet of Cu	290.1	244.7
Integral area of (111) facet of CuO	22.4	46.0
The integral area ratio of (111) of Cu/(111) of Cu₂O	10.5	3.8

4.2.3 The influence of coating on electron and proton transfer

The influence of the PVDC coatings on the selectivity of the carbonaceous products was as expected, while the electrical conductivity and porosity of the electrodes were decisive factors for the practical application. It is essential to determine whether hydrophobic materials affect the electrocatalytic properties

and to understand their effects on product distribution. In this context, the effect of PVDC on the electrochemical behaviour was investigated by recording the LSV at the electrodes. The measurements were performed under working conditions and covered a voltage range from 0.5 V to -2 V at a scan rate of 0.01 V/s. Figure 4.11 shows the LSV curves for each pristine CuO electrode and the PVDC-modified electrode. During the first cycle, an irreversible reductive wave between 0.2 V and -1 V vs. RHE was observed. This observation is clear evidence for the reduction of Cu^{2+} to either Cu^0 or Cu^+ [144], which is consistent with the results of XPS and XRD analysis.

The overall trends of the curves for all modified CuO electrodes show no significant differences. Within the experimental range and at the same working potential, the PVDC coating increased the total current density only slightly. The electrodes with 25 and 50 $\mu\text{g}/\text{cm}^2$ PVDC coating show a better improvement in current density. However, as the PVDC coating increased further, the increase in current density became less noticeable, and the curves converged to those of the uncoated CuO electrode. A comprehensive analysis of both the current density and Faradaic efficiency for each product suggests that the PVDC modification effectively optimises the partial current density of ethylene while causing a moderate reduction in the partial current density of hydrogen.

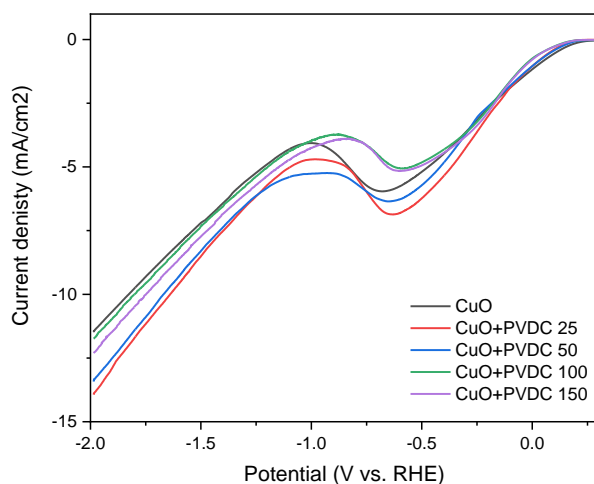


Figure 4.11 LSV of CuO electrodes and CuO with PVDC coating in CO₂-saturated 0.1 M KHCO₃ electrolyte at a scan rate of 10 mV/s without iR-corrected.

The LSV of carbon paper and PVDC electrode, as illustrated in Figure 4.12, shows that the coating of PVDC led to the slight increase in current density. The coating of PVDC helps to stabilise the CuO layer on the electrodes. In addition, the PVDC electrode and PVDC-modified CuO electrodes exhibited a negative shift in the onset potential compared to the bare carbon paper and CuO electrodes. This observation indicates that the presence of the PVDC polymer hinders explicitly the transfer of protons from the electrolyte [252].

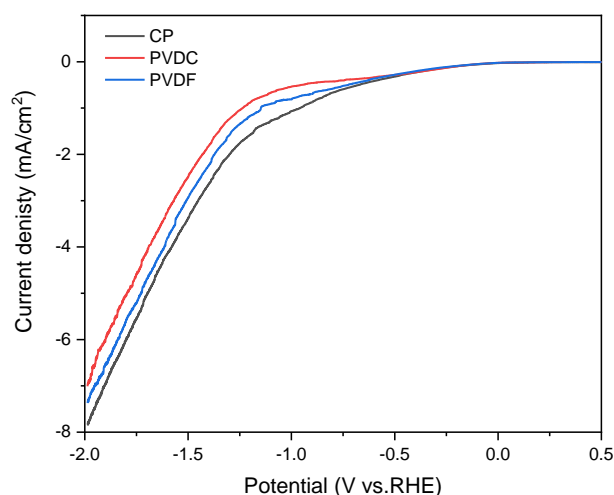


Figure 4.12 LSVs of carbon paper and carbon paper electrode with 150 $\mu\text{g}/\text{cm}^2$ PVDC or PVDF coating in CO_2 -saturated 0.1 M KHCO_3 electrolyte at a scan rate of 10 mV/s without iR-corrected.

The specific surface area of the electrode is the decisive factor for the electrochemical applications of the nanocatalysts. Unlike an electrode with a flat surface, whose geometric area is almost equal to the electrochemically active area, the ECSAs of CuO electrodes must be determined according to the Cottrell equation, which is supported by C_{dl} [253, 254]. As shown in Table 4.3 and Figure 4.13-14, both the ECSA and the capacitance of the double layer of the CuO electrodes after the reaction are significantly different from those of the unused electrodes, which could be due to the change of active species on the electrodes. As for the electrodes before the reaction, the ECSA of the CuO electrode after hydrophobicity modification (0.432 cm^2) was almost 16% lower than that of the unused CuO electrode (0.501 cm^2), which is consistent with the decrease in the double layer capacitances ($C_{dl} = 219.9 \mu\text{F}/\text{cm}^2$ for the CuO electrode, $C_{dl} = 95.7$

$\mu\text{F}/\text{cm}^2$ for the CuO-PVDC electrode). Similar trends in the electrodes after the reaction were observed for the ECSA and the C_{dl} . From these results, it can be concluded that the PVDC coating slightly reduces the electrochemically active surface area.

When the ECSA value was used to normalise the current, it reached $244.4 \text{ mA}/\text{cm}^2$ for the CuO-PVDC electrode and $208.3 \text{ mA}/\text{cm}^2$ for the CuO electrode at a potential of -0.89 V vs. RHE. Considering that the Cu species as electrocatalysts are the primary source of electrochemical activity, it may be that the presence of the PVDC layer on the CuO-PVDC electrode may concentrate copper clusters on the surface, consequently augmenting the overall current density. With C_2H_4 Faradaic efficiencies of 32.2 and 41.4% for the CuO and CuO-PVDC electrodes at -0.89 V , the ECSA-normalized partial current density of ethylene stands at 67.1 and $101.2 \text{ mA}/\text{cm}^2$, respectively. This observation indicates that the catalytic activity of CO_2RR to ethylene of the PVDC-modified CuO electrode is inherently a 50.8% increase in comparison to that of the CuO electrode.

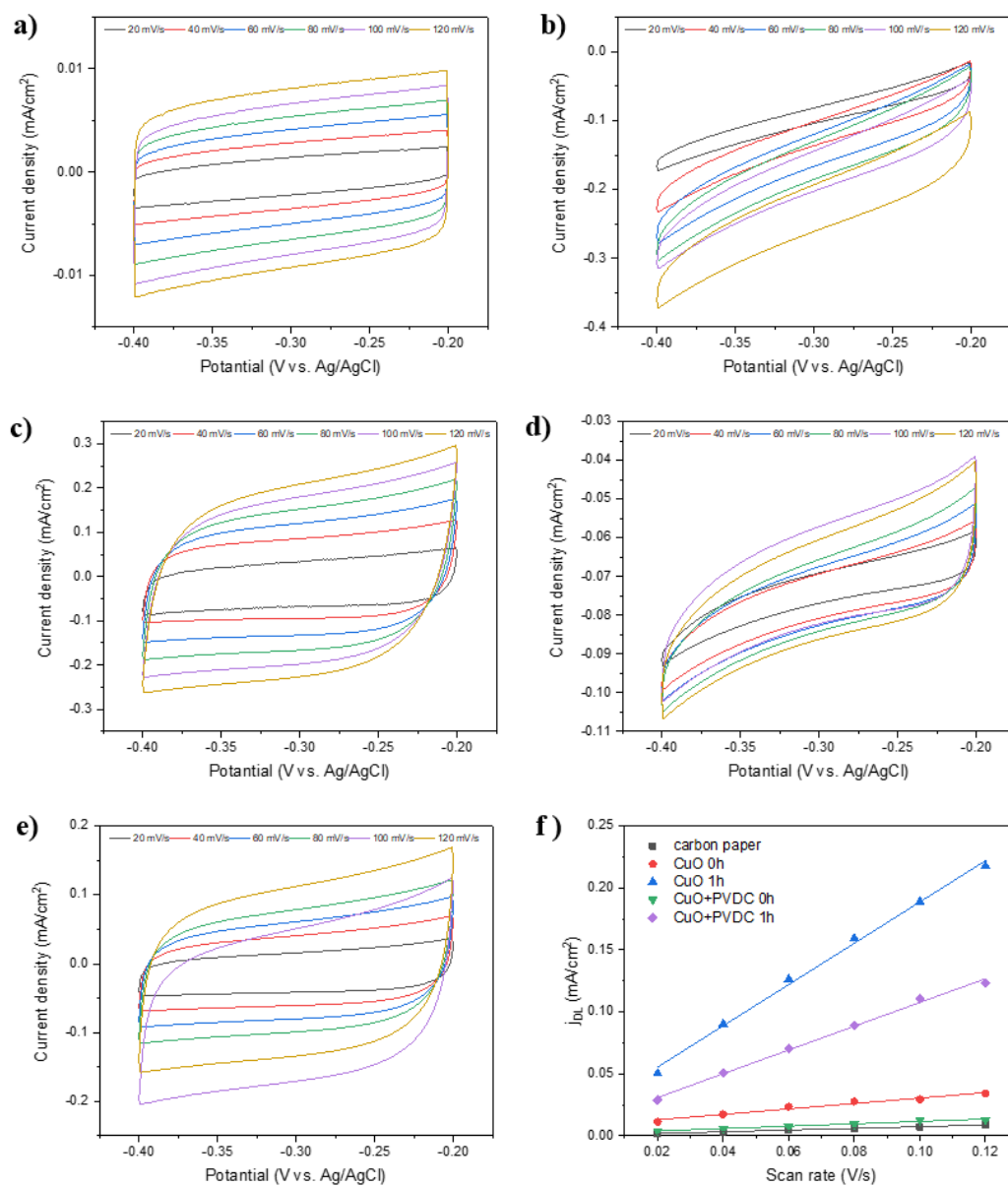


Figure 4.13 CV curves in a non-Faradaic region from -0.4 V to -0.2 V vs Ag/AgCl at various scan rates in CO₂-saturated 0.1 M KHCO₃ solution of a) carbon paper, b) pristine CuO electrode, c) CuO electrode after 1-hour reaction, d) pristine CuO-PVDC electrode, and e) CuO-PVDC electrode after 1-hour reaction, f) Plots of double layer current density, j_{dl} , obtained at -0.3 V vs Ag/AgCl against scan rate, the slope of which is identified with the capacitance of double layer.

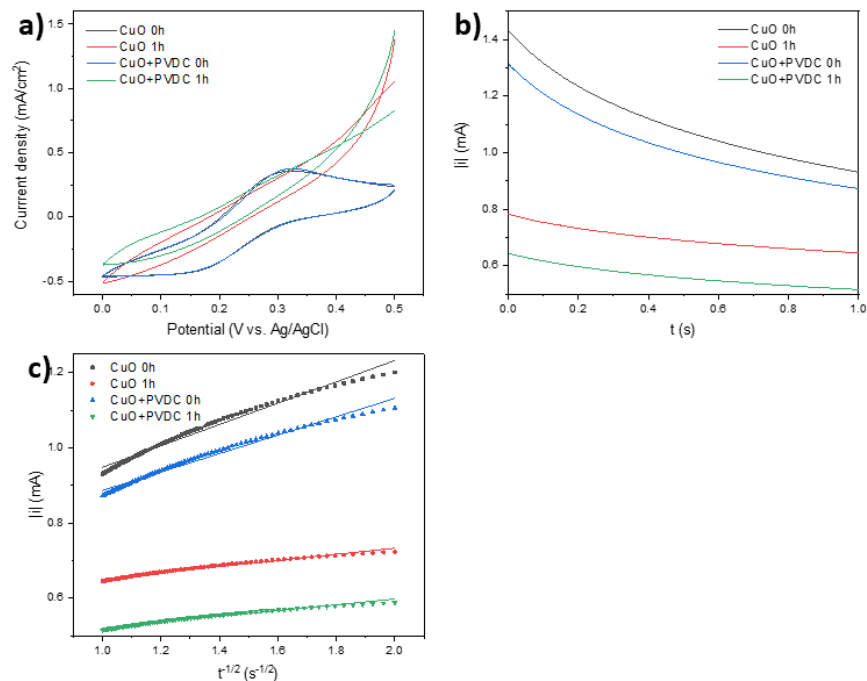


Figure 4.14 a) CV curves of CuO and CuO-PVDC electrodes using a scan rate of 10 mV/s in 5 mM $K_3Fe(CN)_6/0.1$ M KCl; b) constant potential measurement for 1 second at 0.02 V vs. Ag/AgCl on CuO and CuO-PVDC electrodes; c) linearized plot based on the Cottrell equation, the slope of which could be converted to ECSA.

Table 4.3 Double-layer capacitance and electrochemically active surface area of CuO and CuO-PVDC electrodes (PVDC coating amount = 50 $\mu\text{g}/\text{cm}^2$) before and after the reaction.

Electrode	Reaction time (h)	Slope ($A*s^{1/2}$)	$A_{\text{geometric}}$ (cm^2)	A_{ECSA} (cm^2)	C_{dl} ($\mu\text{f}/\text{cm}^2$)
CuO	0	2.84E-04	2	0.501	219.9
CuO	1	8.18E-05	2	0.144	1665.1
CuO+PVDC	0	2.45E-04	2	0.432	95.7
CuO+PVDC	1	7.66E-05	2	0.135	959.0

EIS was used to quantify the resistivity of CuO and CuO-PVDC electrodes. As can be seen in Figure 4.15, EIS was measured at -0.89 V versus RHE and then fitted with a constant phase angle element. The simulated R_s and R_{ct} for these electrodes are listed in Table 4.4. The solution resistances were slightly affected by the position of the electrodes [255]. Here, we mainly focus on the charge transfer resistance. The charge transfer on bare carbon paper was limited, and the polymer even led to an almost double resistance. It is worth highlighting that the PVDC-modified CuO electrodes ($< 26.50 \Omega$) have a lower R_{ct} value than that of bare CuO (29.28Ω), which correlates well with the behaviour of the LSVs. The charge transfer resistances of the electrodes with different PVDC loading hardly differed. The CuO-PVDC 25 exhibited the lowest charge transfer resistance (24.49Ω). Since PVDC is not a conductive material, the reduction in resistance could be due to the more stable copper cluster, which means that a small amount of PVDC coating would lead to better conductivity and the PVDC layer could act as a stabiliser of the electrocatalysts on the surface of the electrode during CO_2 reduction.

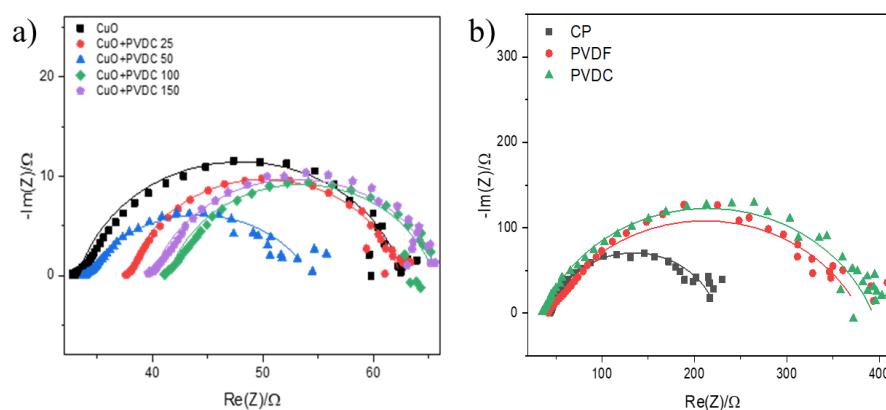


Figure 4.15 EIS of the electrodes taken at -0.89 V vs. RHE in 0.1 M CO_2 -saturated KHCO_3 electrolyte. The symbols represent the original experimental data, and the lines represent the fitted results.

Table 4.4 Summary of solution resistance and charge transfer resistance obtained from EIS data fitted to a constant phase angle element.

Electrode	R_s (Ω)	R_{ct} (Ω)
CuO	33.33	29.28
CuO+PVDC 25	37.89	24.49
CuO+PVDC 50	34.01	26.10
CuO+PVDC 100	41.44	26.50
CuO+PVDC 150	40.02	25.89
Carbon paper	43.68	181.20
PVDC	35.48	357.50

4.2.4 The influence of coating on HER

The complex reaction pathways of eCO₂RR lead to a number of by-products, such as the formation of hydrogen by HER. To limit the HER without hindering the eCO₂RR to C₂H₄, it is possible to limit the proton transfer by controlling the hydrophobicity of the electrode by coating the electrode with hydrophobic materials. Normally, the hydrophobicity of the electrode surface is characterized by the water contact angle [236, 256-258]. Here, the WCA of the PVDC-modified CuO electrodes was measured at three different positions on the surface. The results in Figure 4.15a show that the CuO-PVDC electrodes are more hydrophobic than the unmodified electrodes. A PVDC layer with a coating of 50 μg/cm² significantly increased the WCA from 94.8 to 122.2 °. The hydrophobicity improved slightly with an increase in the PVDC coating amount. Remarkably, the hydrophobicity of the PVDC-modified electrode (133.0°)

exceeded that of the PVDF-modified electrode (128.1°) when the same coating amount of 150 $\mu\text{g}/\text{cm}^2$ was applied. In addition, CuO-PVDC 100 achieved similar hydrophobicity to PVDF at a coating amount of 150 $\mu\text{g}/\text{cm}^2$, indicating that the hydrophobic effect of PVDC exceeds that of PVDF.

Figure 4.16b compares the eCO₂RR selectivity between CuO electrodes modified with PVDF and PVDC. Similar suppression of HER and increased ethylene production was observed for the CuO-PVDF electrode, albeit to a lesser extent than for the PVDC-modified electrode with the same coating amount and hydrophobicity. This observation suggests that while the hydrophobicity of the electrode plays a role in influencing H₂ evolution, other factors, such as the specific interaction between the electrode surface and the reactants, the presence of active sites and the catalytic properties of the modified electrode may also contribute to the observed differences in product selectivity.

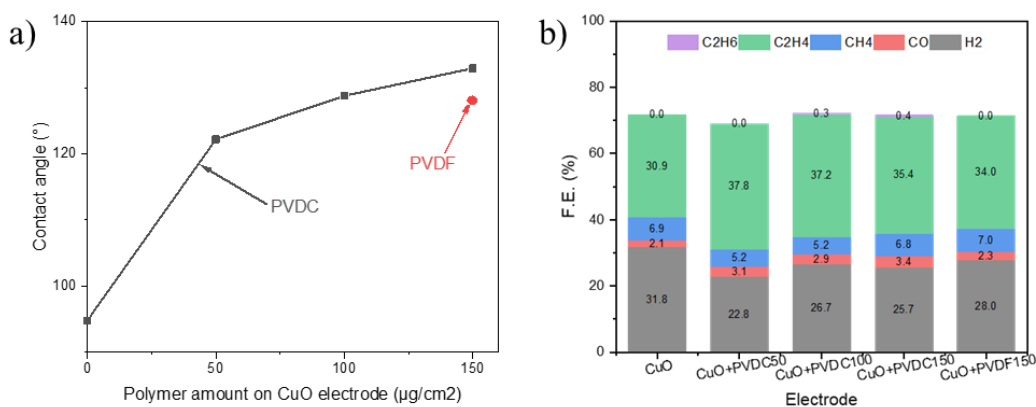


Figure 4.16 a) The water contact angle and b) the performance of bare CuO and CuO electrodes with various amounts of PVDC or PVDF coating modification.

The effect of PVDC on the suppression of HER is shown in Figure 4.17a. The bare CuO electrode exhibits an FE_{H_2} of 31.8% with different coating amounts of PVDC. All FEs of H_2 were reduced by more than 5% under the same conditions. In particular, the CuO-PVDC 50 electrode reached its optimum suppression of H_2 evolution by a significant reduction to 22.8%. In addition, the HER study was performed on the CuO and CuO-PVDC 50 electrodes within the working potential range (Figure 4.17b). The bare CuO electrodes showed that the H_2 Faraday efficiency was between 24.8 and 31.8%. After PVDC modification with $50 \mu\text{g}/\text{cm}^2$, The H_2 efficiency was limited to below 22.8%, which was 2.1-9% lower than that on the untreated CuO electrode. It is noteworthy that at the same coating amount ($150 \mu\text{g}/\text{cm}^2$) or similar hydrophobicity (water contact angle of $\sim 128^\circ$), the synergistic catalytic effect of PVDC coating on HER suppression ($FE_{H_2} < 26.7\%$) and ethylene formation ($FE_{C_2H_4} > 35.4\%$) was slightly better than that of PVDF coating ($FE_{H_2} = 28.0\%$, $FE_{C_2H_4} = 34\%$) (Figure 4.16b). This phenomenon shows that the characterisation of the polymers is also responsible for the improved ethylene production and the inhibited hydrogen evolution.

There is little doubt that the PVDC modification would improve the product selectivity for ethylene. Although hydrophobicity correlates positively with polymer loading, the increased PVDC coating did not perform better in HER suppression. This could be due to excessively hindered water diffusion on the thicker PVDC layer and insufficient coverage on the thinner PVDC layer. The hydrophobicity induced by $50 \mu\text{g}/\text{cm}^2$ PVDC was satisfactory and regulated the water diffusion to a certain extent so that HER could be inhibited while sufficient proton transfer for CO_2RR could occur.

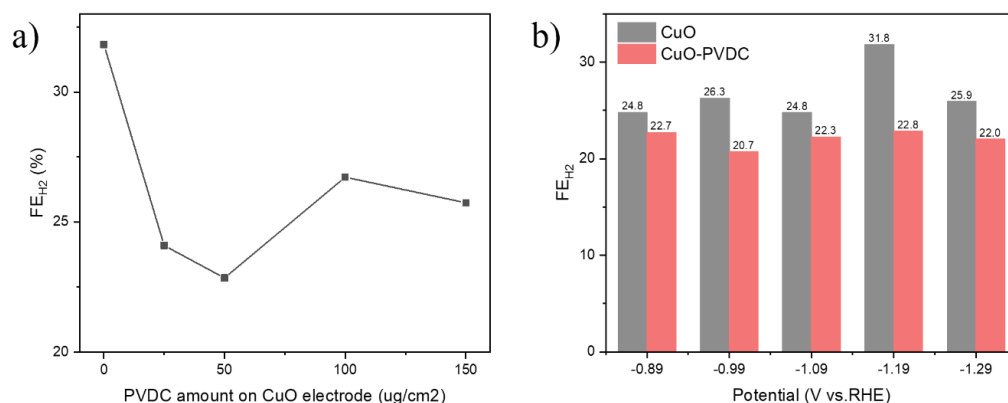


Figure 4.17 Faradaic efficiencies of H₂ for a) bare CuO electrode and CuO electrode with various PVDC coating amounts obtained at the fixed potential of -1.19 V vs. RHE; b) bare CuO electrode and CuO electrode with 50 μg/cm² PVDC coating under different working potentials in CO₂-saturated 0.1 M KHCO₃ electrolyte (with 85% iR-corrected).

4.2.5 The permeability of CO₂

It is assumed that CO₂ activation is the first step of the reaction. It is crucial to optimise the local CO₂ concentration to an appropriate level so that the surface coverage of *CO₂ and *CO is balanced to promote the production of multi-carbon products. Insufficient CO₂ supply is a common factor inhibiting the reaction [259, 260].

The effect of PVDC on the adsorption of CO₂ can be evaluated by the permeability of CO₂ in the modified electrodes. Here, the current density at the working potential could be used to determine the maximum CO₂ consumption rate. Using the experimental data of the CuO-PVDC 50 electrode as an example, a current density of 10 mA/cm² at a potential of -0.75 V vs. RHE was achieved.

Estimating the ratio between electron consumption and carbon dioxide consumption in eCO₂RR is challenging due to the complex reaction pathway and the presence of H₂ by-products. Based on the actual distribution of products, an approximate ratio of 3.5 was determined. The CO₂ consumption rate at the CuO-PVDC 50 electrode is therefore calculated to be 2.97×10^{-8} mol/cm²·s [237]. The permeability of CO₂ in PVDC is about 0.95 cm³·mm/m²·day·atm [261]. The thickness of the PVDC layer is calculated to be 1.65 nm so that the CO₂ flux through the polymer layer corresponds to the theoretical CO₂ consumption rate. These results suggest that CO₂ mass transport is a limiting factor when the thickness of the PVDC layer exceeds 1.65 nm.

In agreement with the SEM, LSV and CO₂RR results, CO₂ transport through the polymer layer becomes more restricted as the PVDC layer becomes thicker, resulting in a lower flux and possibly limiting the overall CO₂ consumption rate. This finding could explain why ethylene production and current density decrease with increasing PVDC coating. Proton transfer is not the only factor influencing the electrochemical performance of electrodes. Permeability to CO₂ is also essential. The particular configuration of CuO-PVDC 50 electrodes provides a favourable balance between proton transfer and CO₂ availability, resulting in efficient CO₂ consumption. The moderate proton transfer rate ensures efficient electrochemical reactions, while the adequate CO₂ supply at the electrode-polymer interface ensures sufficient availability of CO₂ for the reaction. These properties make the CuO electrodes with 50 μg/cm² PVDC a promising choice for CO₂ conversion applications.

4.2.6 The adsorption of main intermediates

CO₂ is reduced by multiple proton-electron transfers to intermediates such as *CHO and CO*, which bind to the catalytic metal centre. These intermediates are then subjected to C-C coupling and further hydrogenation to form ethylene (Figure 4.18). DFT calculations implemented in the Vienna Ab-initio Simulation Package package were performed to simulate the adsorption of key intermediates on the surface of unmodified Cu and Cu modified with polymers (PVDC/PVDF/PTFE) [158, 176, 221, 222]. In the reaction pathway, three basic intermediates (*H, *OCHO, *COOH) strongly influence the selectivity of ethylene [262].

For each electrode surface, the intermediates were analysed (Table 4.5). The simulated results show that all these intermediates can be firmly adsorbed on the unmodified Cu electrode and that the modification slightly weakens this adsorption. On the surface of bare Cu, the adsorption energy of *H is much stronger than that of *COOH and *OCHO, resulting in a high FE_{H₂}. The adsorption of *H should be moderately weak to control H₂ formation without affecting CO₂RR. Here, PVDC and PVDF-decorated Cu show relatively weak binding with *H compared to the binding on a bare Cu surface. Compared to *OCHO, *COOH is a highly desirable intermediate as it can be easily converted to *CO, allowing C-C coupling to produce ethylene. Although the modification reduces the adsorption of *COOH, it is still much stronger than that of *H, especially on PVDC and PTFE coatings. This result shows that ethylene formation is enhanced after PVDC coating.

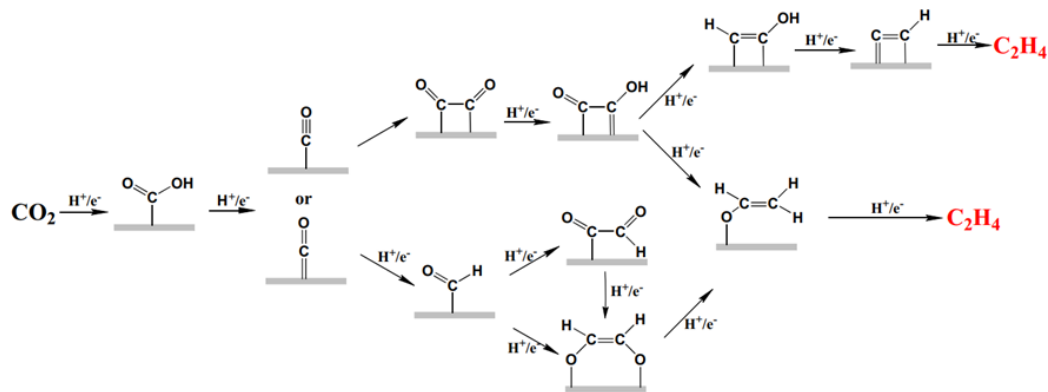


Figure 4.18 Potential reaction pathways for the electrochemical reduction of CO₂ to ethylene.

Table 4.5 Comparison of the adsorption energy of key intermediates to C₂H₄ on polymer-modified copper.

*H adsorption	E _{ad}	*COOH adsorption	E _{ad}	*OCHO adsorption	E _{ad}
Cu-PVDC-*H	-0.009	Cu-PVDC-*COOH	-0.327	Cu-PVDC-*OCHO	-0.819
Cu-PVDF-*H	-0.007	Cu-PVDF-*COOH	-0.079	Cu-PVDF-*OCHO	-0.730
Cu-PTFE-*H	-0.020	Cu-PTFE-*COOH	-0.342	Cu-PTFE-*OCHO	-0.649
Cu- *H	-2.566	Cu- *COOH	-1.954	Cu - *OCHO	-1.705

4.3 Summary

To summarise, the hydrophobicity of CuO electrodes can be controlled by the amount of PVDC coating. CuO electrodes with a PVDC coating of 50 μg/cm² exhibit improved conductivity and an optimal synergy between ethylene production and hydrogen suppression. This CuO-PVDC electrode shows favourable performance with FE_{C₂H₄} = 41.4%, |j|_{C₂H₄} = 6.8 mA/cm², at a low potential of -0.89 V vs. RHE. The catalytic activity of CO₂RR to ethylene of the PVDC-modified CuO electrode is inherently a 50.8% increase in comparison to

that of the CuO electrode. The unique structure of the CuO-PVDC 50 electrode provides a good balance between proton transfer and CO₂ availability, enabling efficient CO₂ consumption. In addition, the PVDC coating increases the amount of Cu⁺ and Cu⁰ on the electrode surface after the reaction, promoting the C-C coupling process. The results indicate that CuO electrodes with a PVDC coating offer promising advantages in terms of conductivity, CO₂ consumption and catalyst stability, making them a potential candidate for efficient electrocatalytic applications with carbon dioxide.

Chapter 5. Microwave-assisted synthesis of CuO for eCO₂RR to C₂₊ products

5.1 Introduction

Copper catalysts have attracted much attention due to their moderate binding ability to *CO- and *H- intermediates and their potential to generate chemical bonds with high energy density in the formation of C₂₊ products [95, 190]. Compared to metallic Cu, OD-Cu catalysts perform much better in electrochemical CO₂ reduction reactions. The electrocatalytic performance of OD-Cu electrodes with four different preparations, such as thermal annealing and electrodeposition, has been intensively investigated. Among these four other electrodes, the EC-Cu electrode prepared by electrochemical oxidation-reduction cycling of Cu foil shows the highest C₂₊ FE of ~ 56.4%, while FE_{ethylene} reaches ~ 38.1% at -1.0 V vs. RHE in 0.1 M KHCO₃ electrolyte. The untreated Cu film shows an FE for C₂₊ of only ~ 36% (FE_{ethylene} = 21.6%) under the same operating conditions, strongly suggesting a better performance of Cu after oxidation treatment [134]. Studies show that CuO is rapidly reduced to a certain percentage of Cu₂O or Cu in the early phase of CO₂ER, which is the main catalytically active species [263].

Most importantly, the adsorption of CO at the Cu⁺ site is more stable than the adsorption at the metallic Cu⁰ region, which facilitates the dimerisation process. Therefore, the proportion of the Cu⁺ site is crucial for the selectivity of multicarbon products [162, 175, 232]. Furthermore, the presence of rich grain boundaries, low coordination sites and oxygen species has been shown to be advantageous for the formation and stabilisation of C-C double bonds [264].

Therefore, optimising the surface structure and controlling the coordination environment are two essential strategies to control further the catalytic activity and selectivity of OD-Cu catalysts [72, 128, 265, 266].

Defect-rich CuO, synthesised by microwave heating, could be a promising electrocatalyst for CO₂RR to multicarbon products. In contrast to conventional heating, microwave heating combines heating mechanisms with a magnetic and electric field. The use of microwave heating for the synthesis of CuO offers several advantages, such as faster reaction rates [267], better control over the size and morphology of the resulting nanoparticles [268] and more efficient use of energy and resources [269]. More importantly, microwaves are non-ionising electromagnetic radiation with a relatively high penetration depth that could significantly accelerate the reaction kinetics, increase the nucleation rate and shorten the synthesis time while potentially causing material stresses, cracks, and, thus, defects [270-272]. The CuO nanoblooms synthesised by the microwave-assisted method have abundant surface oxygen and a large surface area, which have been investigated for their performance in CO oxidation, gas sensing and photocatalysis, as well as their antimicrobial and anticancer properties [186, 273-276].

In this study, CuO was synthesised using different heating methods and used as a catalyst in an electrochemical CO₂ reduction reaction. A CuO catalyst with optimal selectivity and efficiency in CO₂ER was identified by comparing morphology, crystal facets, and electrochemical properties. A series of studies were carried out to investigate the mechanism leading to high C₂₊ product selectivity of the CuO electrodes.

5.2 Results and discussion

5.2.1 Influences of microwave heating on the surface properties of CuO

A simple two-step procedure was developed for the synthesis of MW-CuO catalysts based on previous literature [186]. The synthesis procedure involved mixing a copper salt solution with sodium carbonate at 70 °C with continuous microwave heating to produce the precursor basic copper carbonate. Subsequently, calcination at 300 °C was performed to facilitate the decomposition of the carbonate ions and to obtain the MW-CuO catalysts. A CuO sample was prepared as a control using a similar method but with conventional water bath heating in the first step instead of microwave heating (see details in the Experimental section).

The X-ray diffraction patterns of all samples match those of standard CuO (JCPDS#48-1548). Sharp diffraction peaks at 35.5, 38.7 and 48.7° are observed for all MW-CuO and CuO samples, corresponding to crystal facets (11-1), (111), and (20-2), respectively, indicating that the CuO nanoparticles are well crystallised during calcination (Figure 5.1). The intensities of the main diffraction peaks of the samples are listed in Table 5.1. The high intensity of the (11-1) and (111) peaks indicates that the growth of MW-CuO and CuO occurs preferentially along these two planes.

Scanning electron microscope images of the MW-CuO and conventional CuO nanoparticles are shown in Figure 5.2. The shape of the CuO particles was changed by adjusting the ratio of the reactants Cu^{2+} and CO_3^{2-} during the synthesis process. MW-CuO_{0.1} powder has a fluffy, sea urchin-like morphology with cylindrical villi of 25 to 50 nm in diameter and 200 to 500 nm in length.

MW-CuO_{0.5} has a similar morphology but a more compact appearance. Due to the addition of an excessive amount of copper salt, the morphology of the obtained MW-CuO_{1.1} and MW-CuO_{1.4} differs significantly from that of MW-CuO_{0.1} and MW-CuO_{0.5}, resulting in large leaf structures and smooth surfaces that are somewhat randomly distributed. The CuO samples synthesised by heating in a water bath have a comparable morphology to the corresponding MW-CuO samples but are more irregular and have a non-uniform grain size. Figure 5.2 shows that the ratio of reactants has a significant influence on the morphology of the final product, while the heating method in the synthesis process mainly changes the size distribution of the CuO particles.

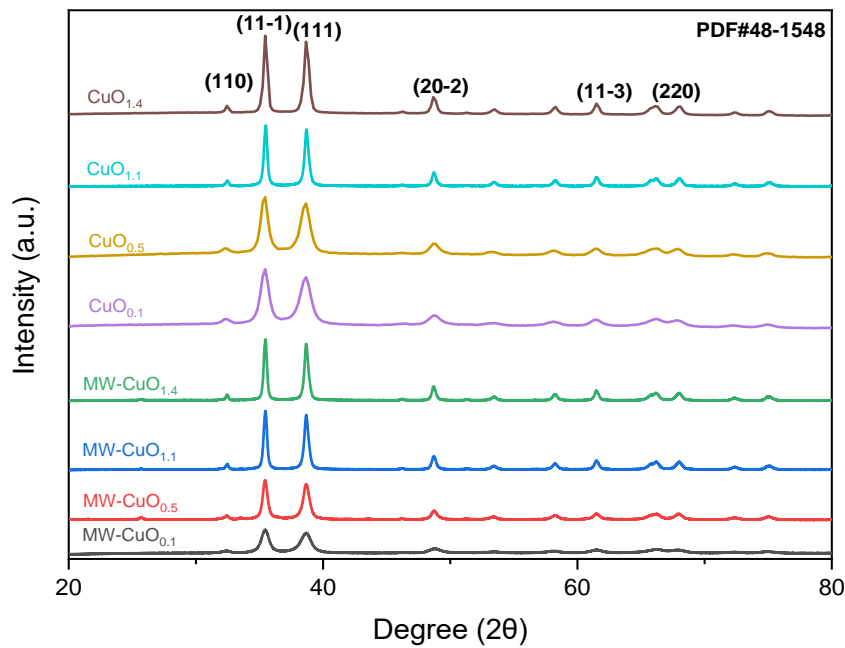


Figure 5.1 XRD partterns of the CuO samples.

Table 5.1 The intensity of the main facets of CuO and MW-CuO.

	<u>MW-CuO_{0.1}</u>	<u>MW-CuO_{0.5}</u>	<u>MW-CuO_{1.1}</u>	<u>MW-CuO_{1.4}</u>	<u>CuO_{0.1}</u>	<u>CuO_{0.5}</u>	<u>CuO_{1.1}</u>	<u>CuO_{1.4}</u>
<u>Intensity of (110) facet</u>	499.3	549.4	546.9	517.9	643.2	597.5	544.2	750.2
<u>Intensity of (11-1) facet</u>	5422.9	6418.4	6931.2	6748.3	8916.5	8243.8	7231.8	10006.8
<u>Intensity of (111) facet</u>	6159.1	7526.2	8008.5	7759.1	9973.0	9603.7	8141.5	11657.3
<u>Intensity of (20-2) facet</u>	1332.8	1679.7	1862.9	1831.2	2081.6	1998.3	1842.1	2609.6
<u>Intensity ratio of (111)/(11-1)</u>	1.14	1.17	1.16	1.15	1.12	1.16	1.13	1.22
<u>Intensity ratio of (111)/(110)</u>	12.34	13.70	14.64	14.98	15.51	16.07	14.96	15.54
<u>Intensity ratio of (111)/20-2)</u>	4.62	4.48	4.30	4.24	4.79	4.81	4.42	4.47

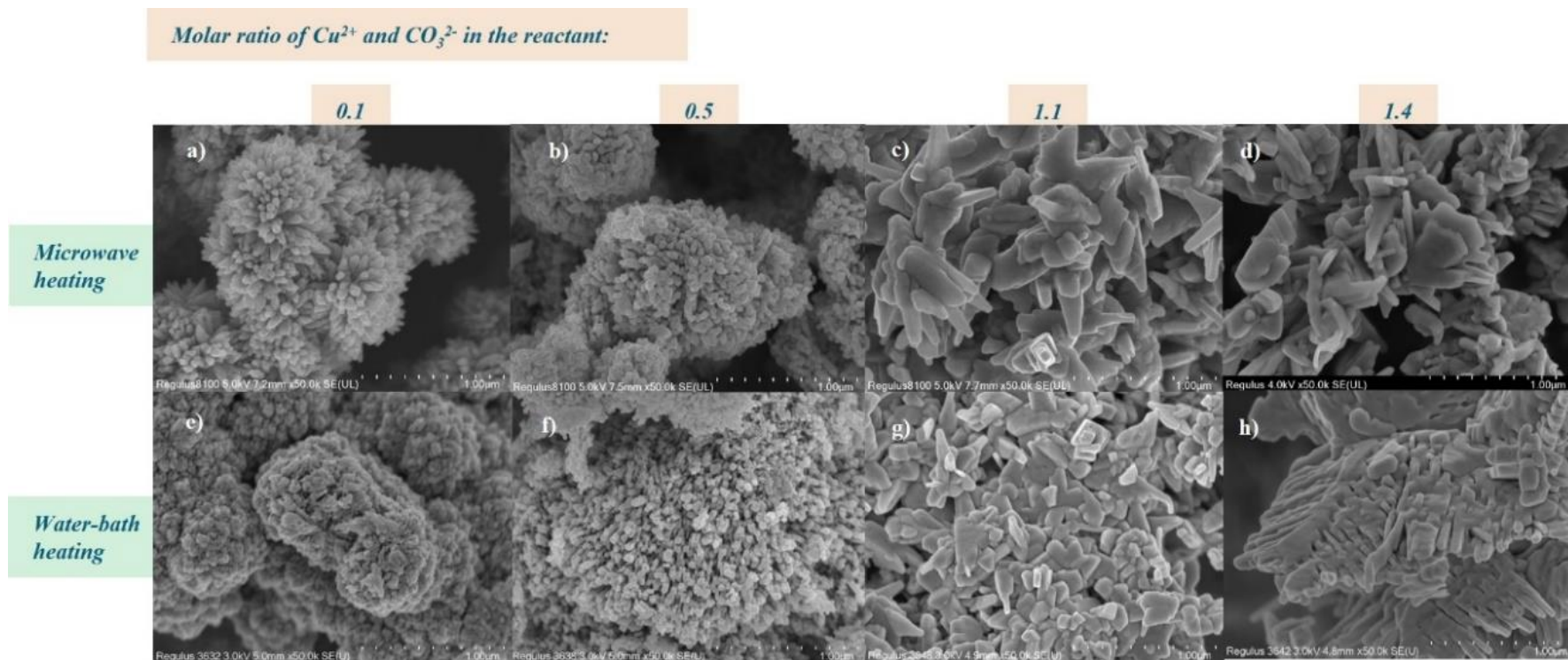


Figure 5.2 SEM images of a) MW-CuO_{0.1}; b) MW-CuO_{0.5}; c) MW-CuO_{1.1}; d) MW-CuO_{1.4}; e) CuO_{0.1}; f) CuO_{0.5}; g) CuO_{1.1}; h) CuO_{1.4}.

High-resolution transmission electron microscopy was used to further investigate the crystalline structure of CuO with and without microwave treatment (Figure 5.3). The exposed (11-1) facet could be observed on each CuO sample, which is consistent with the results of XRD analysis. The HRTEM images show that the CuO prepared using the water bath method has a uniform lattice orientation with few defects. However, a high density of grain boundaries was observed in the MW-CuO nanoparticles, especially in MW-CuO_{1.1} [277]. In addition, other defects, such as lattice distortions and vacancies, were also found in all MW-CuOs. The similarities and differences in the morphology and crystal facets of the CuO samples indicate that microwave heating affects both nucleation and growth processes and induces defects, and the defect density can be altered by changing the ratio of reactants.

It has been proven that various defects play an essential role in the electrochemical conversion of CO₂ into multi-carbon products. For example, the existence of oxygen vacancies can enhance the adsorption of CO₂ and promote strong binding interactions with intermediates such as *CO and *COH. At the same time, it has a comparatively lowered affinity for *CH₂, which leads to the effective production of multi-carbon products [231, 278]. Moreover, as a planar defect, the grain boundary can provide a variety of edge sites and stabilise catalytically active surfaces to regulate the electronic and surface properties and improve the product selectivity of CORR and CO₂RR over C₂₊ products [279-281]. Due to the higher defect density of MW-CuO_{1.1}, the defect-rich MW-CuO_{1.1} is expected to be more selective for multi-carbon products as an electrocatalyst.

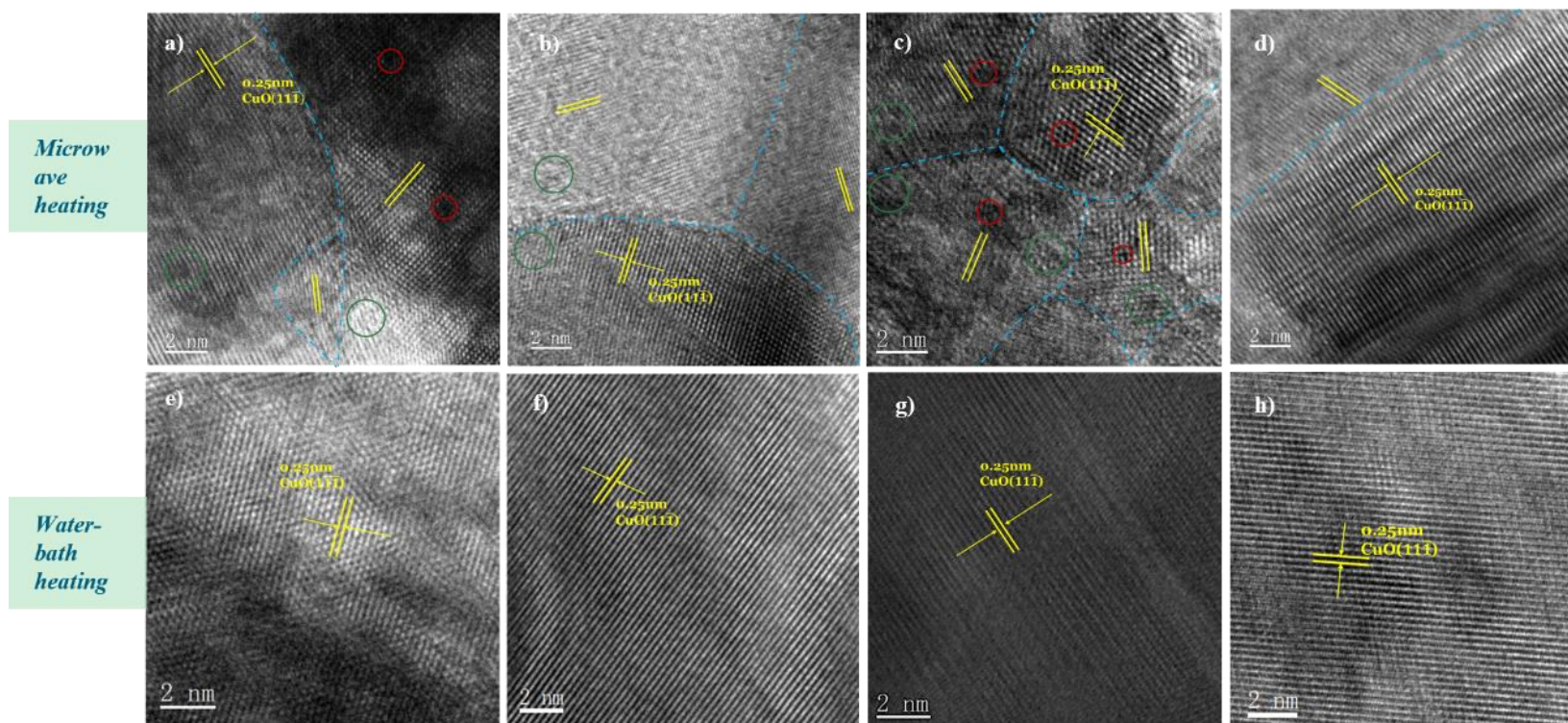


Figure 5.3 HRTEM images of a) MW-CuO_{0.1}; b) MW-CuO_{0.5}; c) MW-CuO_{1.1}; d) MW-CuO_{1.4}; e) CuO_{0.1}; f) CuO_{0.5}; g) CuO_{1.1}; h) CuO_{1.4}. The blue line presents the grain boundaries, lattice distortion and vacancy marked in the green and red circles, respectively.

5.2.2 CO₂RR of MW-CuO electrodes

The CuO catalysts were dried on purified carbon paper with Nafion as the binder (catalyst loading = ~ 0.25 mg/cm²), which served as a working electrode in an H-cell with 30 mL CO₂-saturated 0.1 M KHCO₃ electrolyte. The electrocatalytic activity of the CuO and MW-CuO electrodes was analysed using cyclic voltammetry. The first two cycles of the cyclic voltammograms for the fresh electrodes are shown in Figure 5.4. The general trends for each electrode are similar. The initial potential of the MW-CuO electrode is close to that of the CuO electrode, indicating no significant difference in proton transfer [252]. All CuO electrodes show irreversible reductive waves between -1.5 and 0.2 V vs. RHE in the first cycle, indicating that Cu²⁺ was reduced to Cu⁰ or Cu⁺. The current density of the electrodes in the working potential region hardly differs.

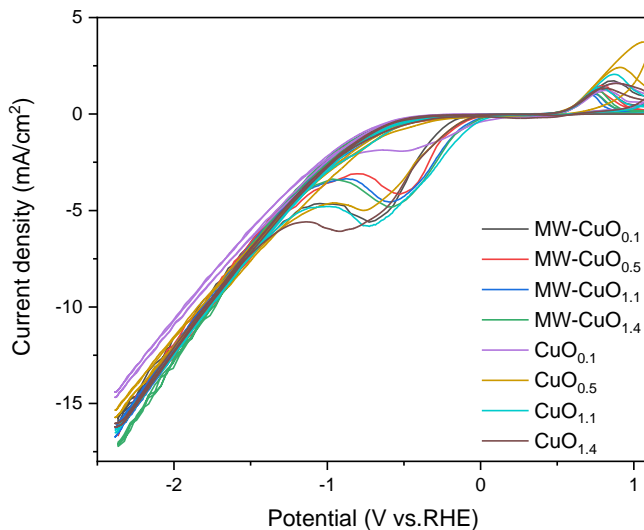


Figure 5.4 CV of MW-CuO and CuO electrodes in CO₂-saturated 0.1 M KHCO₃ electrolyte at a scan rate of 10 mV/s without iR correction.

The MW-CuO_{1.1} electrode has the largest active area among all these eight electrodes, and the CuO_{1.1} electrode ranks second, which is crucial for the

catalytic activity (determined by the capacitance of the double layer in Figure 5.5 and Table 5.2). Furthermore, the lower charge transfer resistance observed in $\text{CuO}_{1.1}$ and MW- $\text{CuO}_{1.1}$, compared to other electrodes, indicates a more efficient and easier electron transfer process. This suggests that these two electrodes have a higher conductivity, which improves their overall electrocatalytic performance.

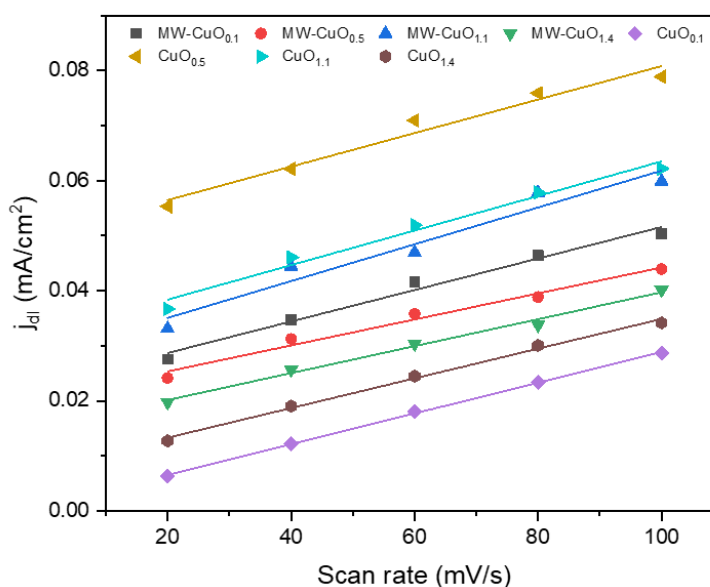


Figure 5.5 Plots of double layer current density, j_{dl} against scan rate, the slope of which is identified with the capacitance of the double layer. The j_{dl} was calculated to be half the difference between the anodic and cathodic currents ($i_a - i_c$).

Table 5.2 The resistance and double layer capacitance of CuO and MW-CuO electrodes.

Electrode	R_s (Ω)	R_{ct} (Ω)	C_{dl} ($\mu\text{F}/\text{cm}^2$)
MW-CuO _{0.1}	39.2	40.2	286.0
MW-CuO _{0.5}	38.5	45.4	236.0
<u>MW-CuO_{1.1}</u>	<u>35.0</u>	<u>34.3</u>	<u>334.3</u>
MW-CuO _{1.4}	34.0	45.9	244.6
CuO _{0.1}	34.6	47.9	279.2
CuO _{0.5}	40.0	37.1	304.3
<u>CuO_{1.1}</u>	<u>39.8</u>	<u>34.9</u>	<u>313.7</u>
CuO _{1.4}	39.6	41.0	269.4

The catalytic performance of each CuO electrode was evaluated using the CO₂RR test at a fixed potential of -1.04 V vs. RHE, as shown in Figure 5.6. The total FE for both electrodes is not exactly 100% because some of the charge was consumed in the reduction of CuO to Cu⁺ or Cu⁰. In addition, the FE of the liquid products was collected after a 1-hour test, while there may be slight variations in the FE of the gaseous products. The results showed that the percentage of multi-carbon products produced was more than 56.7%, with ethylene dominating with an FE of more than 33.2%. The FE of H₂ varied between 19.3 and 28.7%. Among all these CuO electrodes, MW-CuO_{1.1} showed the best performance with 45.1% FE_{ethylene} and 71.9% FE_{C₂⁺}, while CuO_{1.1} was the next most efficient with 35.4% FE_{ethylene} and 64.9% FE_{C₂⁺}. Thus, the 1.1 molar CO₃²⁻ and Cu²⁺ composition in the reactant mixture resulted in CuO with the best

eCO₂RR performance. The better performance of MW-CuO could be due to the numerous defects created by microwave heating.

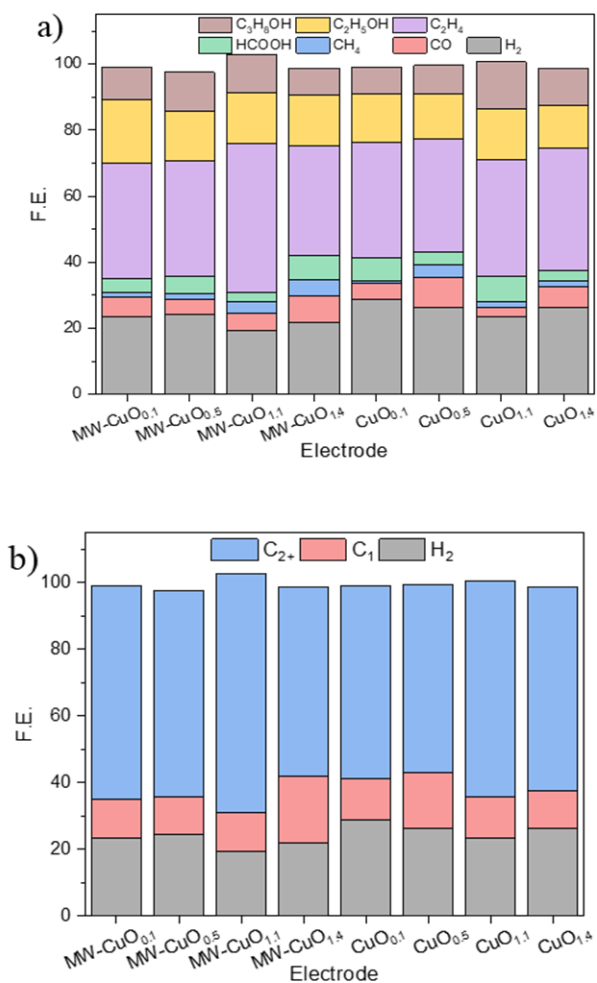


Figure 5.6 The product distribution of MW-CuO electrodes at -1.04 V vs. RHE (with 85% iR-correction).

The catalytic activity and selectivity of MW-CuO_{1.1} and CuO_{1.1} electrodes were investigated (CuO and MW-CuO in the following refer to CuO_{1.1} and MW-CuO_{1.1}, respectively). Electrolysis at constant potential was performed for 60 minutes at potentials ranging from -1.14 to -0.94 V vs. RHE (with 85% iR correction). The gas products were quantified during the first 30 minutes of eCO₂RR. The Faradaic efficiencies as a function of voltage at both CuO

electrodes are shown in Figure 5.7a,b. The product distribution appears to be directly related to the working potential. At a more negative potential, the formation of hydrogen increases while CO decreases slightly. CH₄ also increases slightly, while ethanol and propanol decrease. The main product is ethylene, which shows an initial increase and a downward trend. The control experiment shows that CuO synthesised by conventional heating has low selectivity for multi-carbon products ($FE_{C_{2+}} = 57.6 \sim 65.7\%$, $FE_{\text{ethylene}} = 22.1 \sim 36.1\%$), while H₂ is the second most produced gas with FE up to 28.4%.

In general, the defects of MW-CuO weaken the competition of the hydrogen evolution reaction and enhance C-C coupling, resulting in a significant improvement in the production of multi-carbon products compared to CuO. The selectivity of the MW-CuO electrode is similar to that of the CuO electrode at low potentials. However, MW-CuO shows a clear superiority in the production of multi-carbon products at a more negative potential. In particular, at a potential of -1.04 V vs. RHE, the CuO electrode shows a total current density of ~ 11.5 mA/cm² and FEs for H₂, C₂H₄ and C₂₊ products of 23.4, 35.4 and 64.9%, respectively. Under the same working conditions, the total current density towards CO₂ER of the MW-CuO electrode (~ 15.5 mA/cm²) is much higher than that of the CuO electrode. The MW-CuO electrode shows only 19.3% for H₂ evolution, while it shows a high FE of 45.1% for ethylene and 71.9% for multi-carbon products.

It should be noted that the high Faradaic efficiency of 71.9% achieved with the MW-CuO electrode for C₂₊ production with the high partial current density of the multi-carbon products (~ 11.2 mA/cm²) is one of the highest yields for multi-carbon products using oxide-based catalysts (Table 5.3).

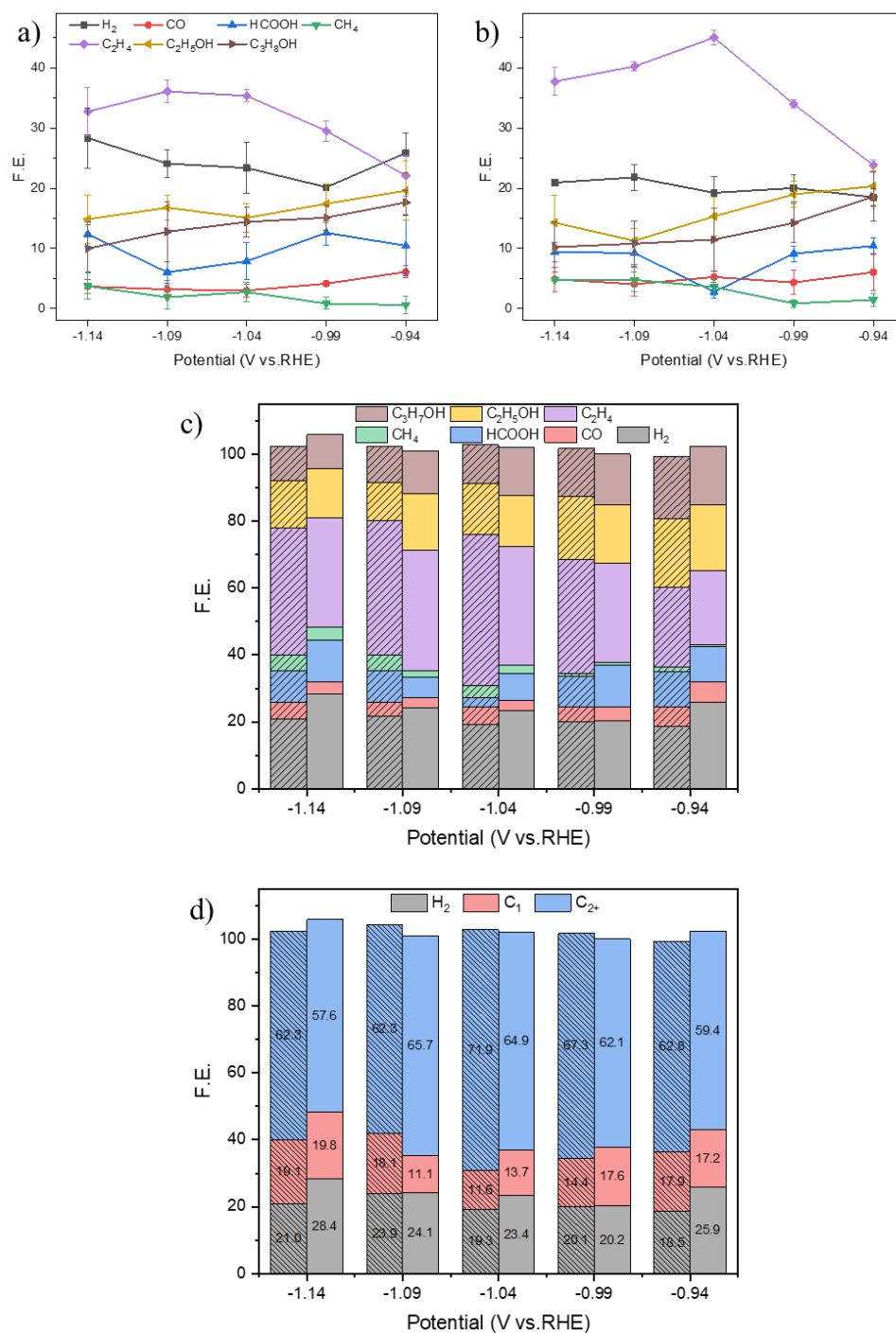


Figure 5.7 The product distribution of a) the CuO electrode, b) the MW-CuO electrode; c,d) the comparison between the CuO_{1.1} electrode (right column with no pattern) and MW-CuO_{1.1} electrode (left column with oblique line) under different working potentials in the CO₂-saturated 0.1 M KHCO₃ electrolyte (with 85% iR-corrected).

Table 5.3 Comparison of optimized C₂₊ production using various Cu-based catalysts in H-cells.

Electrode	FE _{C₂₊}	E (V vs. RHE)	Electrolyte	Reference
MW-CuO	71.9%	-1.0	0.1 M KHCO ₃	This work
Oxide-derived Cu	58.0%	-1.0	0.5 M KHCO ₃	[244]
Mesoporous CuO	~ 60.0%	-1.0	1.0 M KI	[142]
PVDF modified CuO	~ 49.6%	-1.2	0.5 M KHCO ₃	[144]
OD Cu	23.5%	-0.8	0.1 M KHCO ₃	[134]
EC Cu	56.4%	-1.0	0.1 M KHCO ₃	[134]
OD NWs	45.9%	-1.0	0.1 M KHCO ₃	[134]
EOD Cu 100s	54.9%	-1.0	0.1 M KHCO ₃	[134]
HQ-Cu	68.2%	-1.1	0.1 M KHCO ₃	[135]
Copper mesocrystals	29.4%	-1.0	0.1 M KHCO ₃	[246]
Copper nanocubes (44 nm)	~ 55.0%	-1.1	0.1 M KHCO ₃	[228]
Prism-shaped Cu	~ 35.5%	-1.2	0.1 M KHCO ₃	[247]
Copper nanoparticle ensembles	55.0%	-0.9	0.1 M KHCO ₃	[248]
Cu foils treated with O ₂ plasma 20 W 2 min	~ 61.0%	-0.9	0.1 M KHCO ₃	[125]
Agglomerated Cu Nanocrystals	60.3%	-1.0	0.1 M KHCO ₃	[177]
Cu ₂ O films (0.9 μm)	48.9%	-1.0	0.1 M KHCO ₃	[140]
Anodized copper	~ 53.0%	-1.1	0.1 M KHCO ₃	[132]
Electrodeposited copper	54.0%	-1.2	0.1 M KHCO ₃	[133]
Porous Hollow Copper Microspheres	67.3%	-0.8	0.1 M KHCO ₃	[136]
Nanosheet structure derived Cu	67.5%	-1.5	0.1 M KHCO ₃	[137]

5.2.3 Concurrence of Cu^+ and Cu^0 during electrolysis

The electrochemical performance provides additional insight into the comparison of the CuO and MW-CuO samples. The curves for the first two cycles for both electrodes are shown in Figure 5.8. In the first cycle, there was an irreversible reductive wave between 0.2 and -1.5 V vs. RHE, which may indicate that Cu^{2+} was reduced to Cu^0 or Cu^+ and CuO was not the actual electrocatalyst in the CO_2 reduction reaction [139]. It is noteworthy that the absolute area of the reductive wave is 3.3 for the CuO electrode, while it is 2.4 for the MW-CuO electrode. Since the catalyst loading on the electrode is the same, it could be concluded that the CuO was easier to reduce than the MW-CuO, that a higher proportion of the CuO was reduced, or that the degree of reduction was higher for the particles on the CuO electrode.

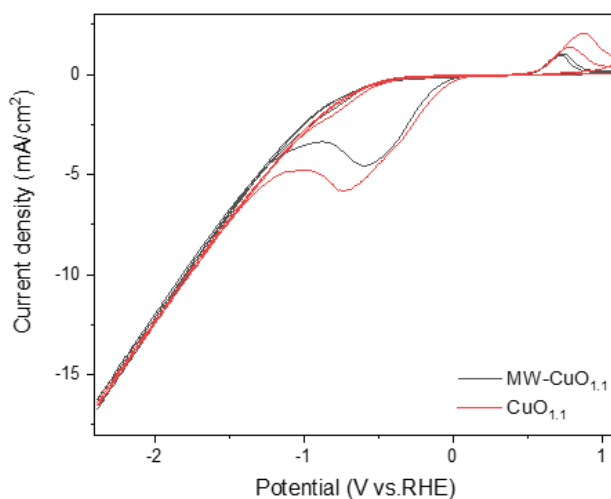


Figure 5.8 CVs of the CuO and MW-CuO electrodes for the first two cycles in CO_2 -saturated 0.1 M KHCO_3 electrolyte at a scan rate of 10 mV/s without iR-correction.

X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy was used to analyse and characterise the oxidation state of the copper species before and after the reaction. In the Cu 2p 3/2 signals shown in Figure 5.9a, b, the existence of Cu (II) in fresh MW-CuO and CuO catalyst is evidenced by a shoulder at the main peak at 933.5 eV. There is no obvious difference between the CuO and MW-CuO electrodes, indicating that the microwave treatment does not change the valence state of Cu²⁺. After the 5-minute reaction, the main peaks have shifted to about 932.7 eV, which could be associated with Cu⁰ or Cu⁺. In the Cu-LMM spectra, the spent electrodes show a peak maximum at ~916 eV, which could be assigned to the Cu⁺ species. Due to the small loading amount of CuO on the electrodes, the signal-to-noise ratio is inadequate. The peak could for Cu⁰ and Cu²⁺ could hardly be identified.

Furthermore, there is no noticeable difference in the Cu 2p and Cu LMM peaks for MW-CuO electrodes after 5-, 30-, 60-, 120-, and 360-minute reactions (Figure S5b). The chemical phase change should occur in the first 5 minutes of the reaction, which is consistent with the conclusion from the irreversible reductive wave in CV.

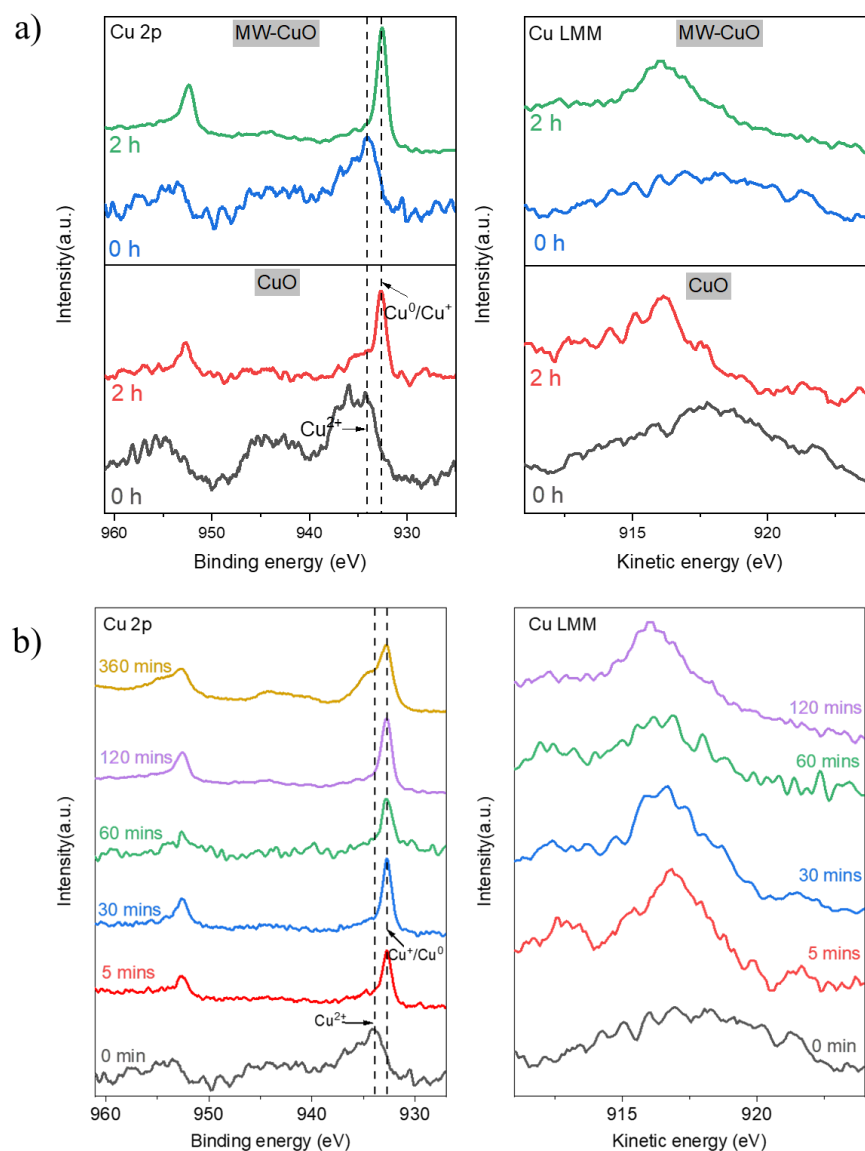


Figure 5.9 The high-resolution XPS Cu 2p and Cu LMM of a) CuO electrode and MW-CuO electrode; b) MW-CuO electrode before and after CO₂RR test at -1.04 V vs. RHE in the CO₂-saturated 0.1 M KHCO₃(aq) electrolyte.

Due to the limited detection depth (< 10 nm) of XPS, all electrodes were additionally analysed by XRD before and after the reaction (Figure 5.10). The crystal phase of CuO and MW-CuO remained unchanged in the fresh electrodes. The peaks occurring at 53° can be attributed to the carbon paper. After a 30-

minute CO₂RR test, both electrodes show similar peak shifts. No pattern could be found for CuO, but there are two clear peaks at 43.3 and 50.4° corresponding to (111) and (200) of Cu (PDF#04-0836) and a relatively weak peak at 36.4° corresponding to (111) of Cu₂O (PDF#05-0667), which is consistent with the XPS results. From the above results, it can be concluded that this change of oxidation state from Cu²⁺ to Cu⁺ and Cu⁰ occurs at the beginning of the reactions at a low working potential. Cu⁰ and Cu⁺ were the active species and relatively stable, even at a high negative potential during CO₂RR.

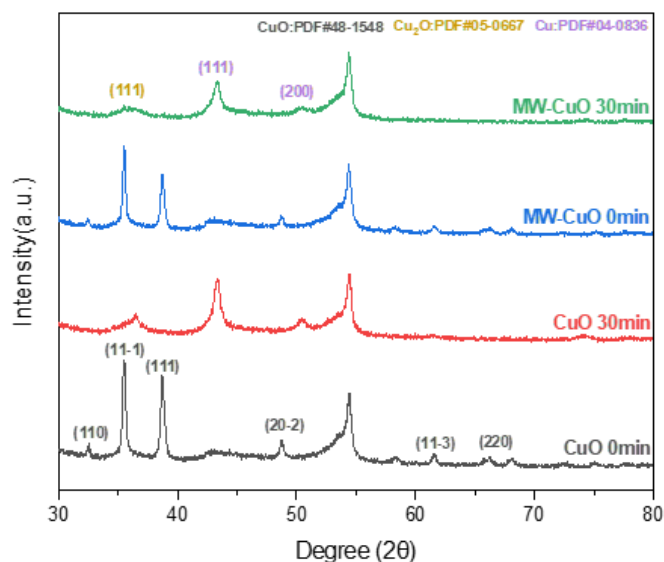


Figure 5.10 XRD of CuO electrode and MW-CuO electrode before and after 0.5-h eCO₂RR at -1.04 V vs. RHE.

The ratio of Cu⁰ and Cu⁺ plays a pivotal role in dictating the performance of CO₂ER. In this context, both the cathodic voltammetric reductive wave and the cumulative area of XRD serve as instrumental metrics for assessing the reduction degree of CuO. Since all Cu²⁺ was reduced at both electrodes, the absolute area of the reductive wave in the first cycle of CV may illustrate the degree of

reduction. With a minor reductive wave, the degree of reduction was lower at MW-CuO, so the fraction of Cu^+ should be larger than that at the CuO electrode. In addition, the integral area of the main XRD peaks is shown in Table 5.4. Although XRD could not quantify the amount of Cu^0 and Cu^+ on the electrodes, the ratio could be roughly judged. The ratio (111) of Cu_2O / (111) of Cu is 0.5 for the CuO electrode and 0.74 for MW-CuO, which suggests that more Cu^+ could be found on the MW-CuO electrode compared to the CuO electrode.

The coexistence of Cu^0 and Cu^+ at the electrode has proven to be favourable for the production of multicarbon products. The ratio of Cu^0 and Cu^+ exhibited variation between the CuO electrode and the MW-CuO electrode, providing a potential explanation for the disparity in product selectivity. The carbon atoms within *CO intermediates adhering to Cu^+ and Cu^0 surfaces exhibit disparate charges. This electrostatic disparity between the two carbon atoms enhances the dimerization process. The collaborative interaction between Cu^+ and Cu^0 on a CuO surface assumes a pivotal role in fostering the generation of C_{2+} products. The higher ratio of Cu^+ and Cu^0 (0.74:1) elucidates the better selectivity of the multicarbon products with the MW-CuO as an electrocatalyst.

Table 5.4 Integral area of the main facets of CuO and MW-CuO electrodes after 30 minutes' reaction.

	CuO	MW-CuO
Integral area of (111) facet of Cu_2O	315.46	289.38
Integral area of (111) facet of Cu	632.78	392.79
Integral area of (200) facet of Cu	77.48	64.53
Integral area of (111)/(200) of Cu	8.17	6.09
The integral area ratio of (111) of Cu_2O / (111) of Cu	0.50	0.74

5.2.4 Evolution of the catalyst morphology

A 6-hour stability test was performed at -1.04 V vs. RHE using the current interruption correction method (Figure 5.11). The Faradaic efficiency of H₂ increased for both the MW-CuO and CuO electrodes with a similar trend in current densities, while FE_{ethylene} decreased by over 10% during the 5-hour reaction. It should be noted that the partial current density of ethylene is relatively stable for both electrodes. In addition, more charges are used for the production of CH₄, which would decompose into graphitic carbon and cause poisoning of the active site [61, 178].

Among the carbonaceous products, the selectivity of methane increased from 1.9 to 11.1% for the CuO electrode and from 4.3 to 6.7% for the MW-CuO electrode, while the selectivity of the carbonaceous products gradually decreased from 83.9 to 71.8% for CuO and from 85.1 to 80.5% for the MW-CuO electrode. More charges are used to produce CH₄, which may decompose into graphitic carbon and cause poisoning of the active site [178]. Defects have been found to play a dual role: they promote the formation of C₂H₄ while concurrently inhibiting the generation of CH₄, all the while enhancing the overall stability of the catalyst [61]. The change in product distribution shows that the low tendency of methane formation on the MW-CuO electrode prevents the deactivation of the catalysts, which partially explains why the production of the multicarbon product on the MW-CuO electrode continues for longer.

Apart from catalyst poisoning, the loss of activity in electrochemical CO₂ reduction can be attributed to catalyst degradation, surface fouling, changes in

electrolyte composition and structural changes [58]. To investigate this further, the SEM images of the electrodes before and after a certain reaction time are shown in Figure 5.12. Obviously, changes in the morphology and distribution of all catalysts were observed after CO₂ electrolysis at -1.04 V vs. RHE for two hours. The CuO particles were buried under the Nafion layer on the surface of the freshly prepared MW-CuO electrode. The catalysts on the electrode were spherical and well-distributed after the reaction. After a 5-minute eCO₂RR test at -1.04 V, uniformly distributed nanoclusters are found on the carbon paper. These nanoclusters are a mixture of Cu and Cu₂O, averaging 61.3 nm in size and consisting of 10.9 nm nanoparticles. These clusters continue to grow as the reaction progresses (Figures 5.12a-d and Table 5.5). After 6 hours, the clusters on the MW-CuO electrode have smaller and more uniform sizes ($d = 270.33 \pm 74.66$ nm) than those on the CuO electrode ($d = 327.95 \pm 145.71$ nm) (Figure 5.12e-h).

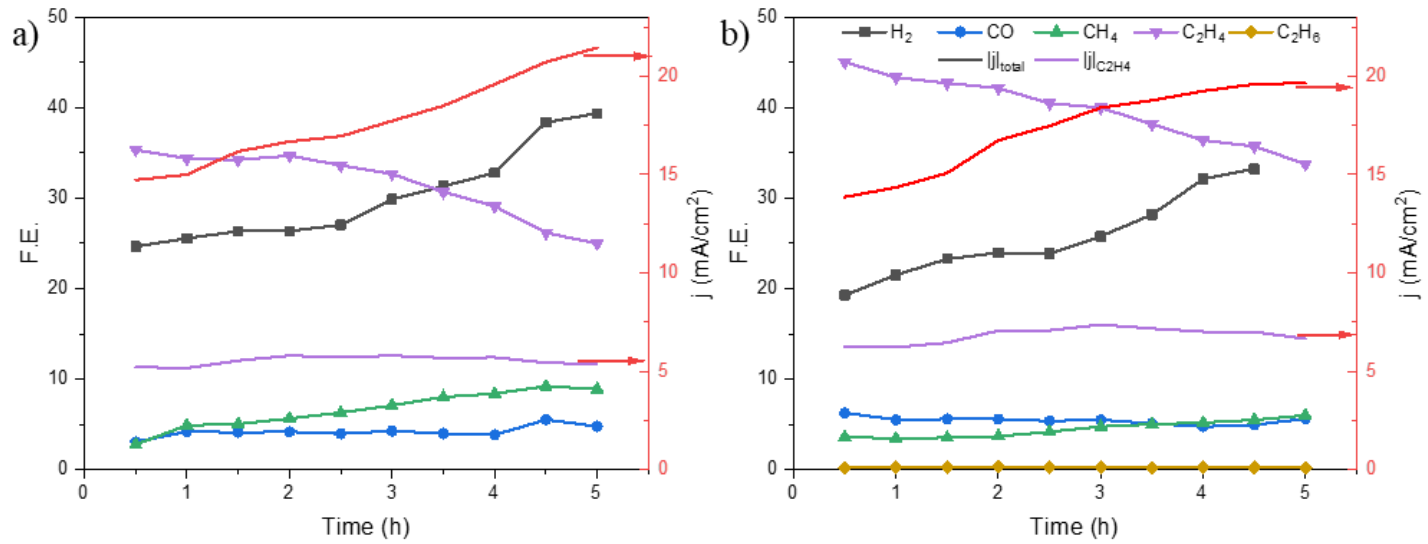


Figure 5.11 FE, $|j|_{C_2H_4}$ and $|j|_{total}$ of a) CuO electrode and b) MW-CuO electrode at the potential of -1.04 V with current interrupt correction under long-term operation.

Although the size of the nanoparticles on the CuO electrode is similar to that on the MW-CuO electrode, the growth of the clusters varies. At the same working potential, the growth of clusters on the MW-CuO electrode is slower, and the MW-CuO electrode exhibits a more uniform cluster density. These results indicate that the differences in the electrocatalytic activity of MW-CuO and CuO electrodes are due to the influence of microwaves on the nucleation and crystal growth process. The reduction and reconstruction at the beginning of the reaction lead to the formation of Cu^+ , which effectively promotes the C-C coupling process, but the continuous agglomeration leads to a loss of activity and aggravates the hydrogen evolution reaction.

Table 5.5 The size of particles and clusters on the reacted CuO and MW-CuO electrodes.

Electrode \ Reaction time		30 min	120 min	360 min
CuO	Size of particles (nm)	12.12 ± 2.72	10.46 ± 2.61	-
	Size of clusters (nm)	52.47 ± 13.67	63.71 ± 18.42	327.95 ± 145.71
MW-CuO	Size of particles (nm)	12.77 ± 2.36	13.54 ± 4.03	-
	Size of clusters (nm)	43.74 ± 9.33	60.06 ± 15.31	270.33 ± 74.66

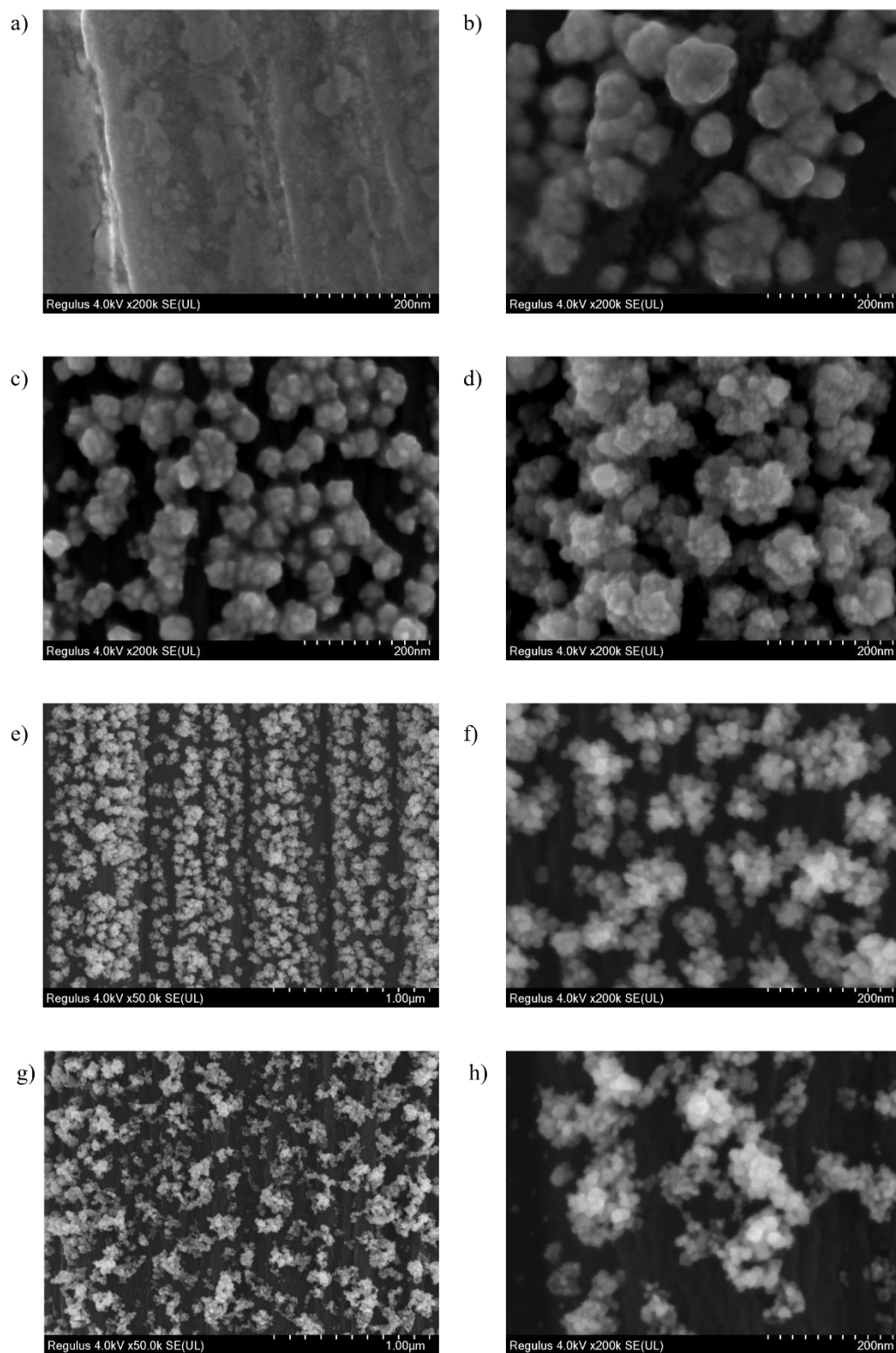


Figure 5.12 SEM of MW-CuO electrode after CO₂RR at -1.04 V for a) 0 minutes; b) 5 minutes; c) 30 minutes; and d) 120 minutes; CuO electrode after CO₂RR at -1.04 V for e, f) 30 minutes; g, h) 120 minutes.

5.2.5 Loss of defect sites

Defect sites such as vacancies and grain boundaries on copper-based electrocatalysts are considered essential for the reduction of CO₂ to higher C₂ and C₃ molecules, as they are very effective in stabilising C₁ and C₂ intermediates and trimerising them to C₃ compounds such as n-propanol. The grain boundaries were confirmed on the MW-CuO particles before the reaction (Figure 5.3). It is also hypothesised that CuO or Cu₂O nanoparticles are reduced and reconstructed in situ during the eCO₂RR test, resulting in numerous lattice distortions (3D volume defects) and oxygen vacancies.

The oxygen vacancies could be observed according to the elemental O 1s spectrum (Figure 5.13). The peak at binding energies at 531.6 eV (red line) corresponds to defect O. The high-intensity defect peaks observed in the electrode are indicative of a significant presence of defect sites, predominantly oxygen vacancies [282]. These materials with smaller particle sizes demonstrate characteristics of low oxygen coordination [231]. The oxygen vacancy phenomenon is detected not only in the pristine MW-CuO electrode but also in both electrodes post-reaction, suggesting the introduction of oxygen vacancies during sample preparation and their potential formation during the electrode reduction and reconstruction processes. Oxygen vacancies on catalyst surfaces significantly enhance CO₂RR by increasing CO₂ adsorption, modifying the catalyst's electronic structure, facilitating electron transfer, and directing the reaction towards desired products like ethylene [278]. This conclusion further corroborates the significance of defects for achieving outstanding performance of MW-CuO electrodes.

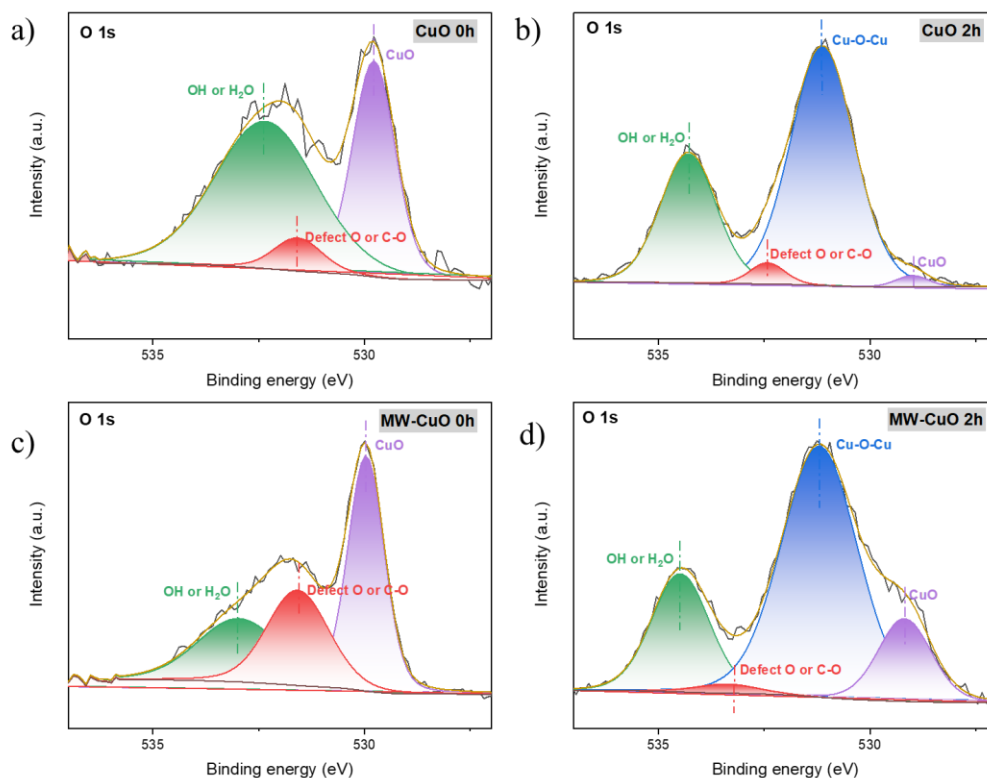


Figure 5.13 O 1s for CuO electrode a) before and b) after reaction and MW-CuO electrode c) before and d) after 1-hour reaction at -0.89 V vs. RHE in the CO_2 -saturated 0.1 M $\text{KHCO}_3(\text{aq})$ electrolyte.

The defect sites related to the reduction of CuO can be identified by their voltammetric properties in Figure 5.14 [177, 247]. The reduction peaks at ~ 0 and ~ -0.25 V vs. RHE were assigned to the reduction of oxidised Cu defect sites. The integrated charge value of these defect peaks was plotted in Table 5.6 and represents the density of defect sites. The density of defect sites on the MW-CuO electrode was twice that of the CuO electrode after 5 min of CO_2RR at -1.04 V (Figure 5.14a), while the FEs of C_{2+} products for the CuO and MW-CuO electrodes were 65.1 and 71.9%, respectively, confirming the significant role of defect sites in the promotion of C_{2+} products [283]. This result indicates that the

dense Cu nanocluster aggregation can form abundant surface defects, which is beneficial for the production of multi-carbon products. Another result was a continuous decrease in the integrated area of the reduction peak during CO₂RR. For the CuO electrode after 30 minutes of CO₂RR and the MW-CuO electrode after 90 minutes of CO₂RR, no reduction peaks could be detected in the corresponding region, indicating the loss of defect sites.

In addition, the distinct reduction peaks at ~ 0.5 and ~ 0.25 V could be related to the reduction of Cu²⁺ to Cu⁺ and Cu⁺ to Cu⁰, respectively. The integrated charge value of the peaks is directly related to the electrochemically active surface areas of the electrodes [284].

From the cyclic voltammograms of the electrodes before and after the reaction over a period of time in Figure 5.14b-c, the active surface area of the CuO electrode continued to decrease after 5 minutes of CO₂RR, while the decrease in ECSA for the MW-CuO electrode was less during the first 90 minutes. The agglomeration of catalyst particles or surface impurities could cause the loss of ECSA. In addition, this decrease could cause the decreasing FE of ethylene during the long-term test. The defect sites could be blocked or poisoned by the growth of nanoclusters, leading to a decrease in the yield of ethylene and other multi-carbon products by about 25%.

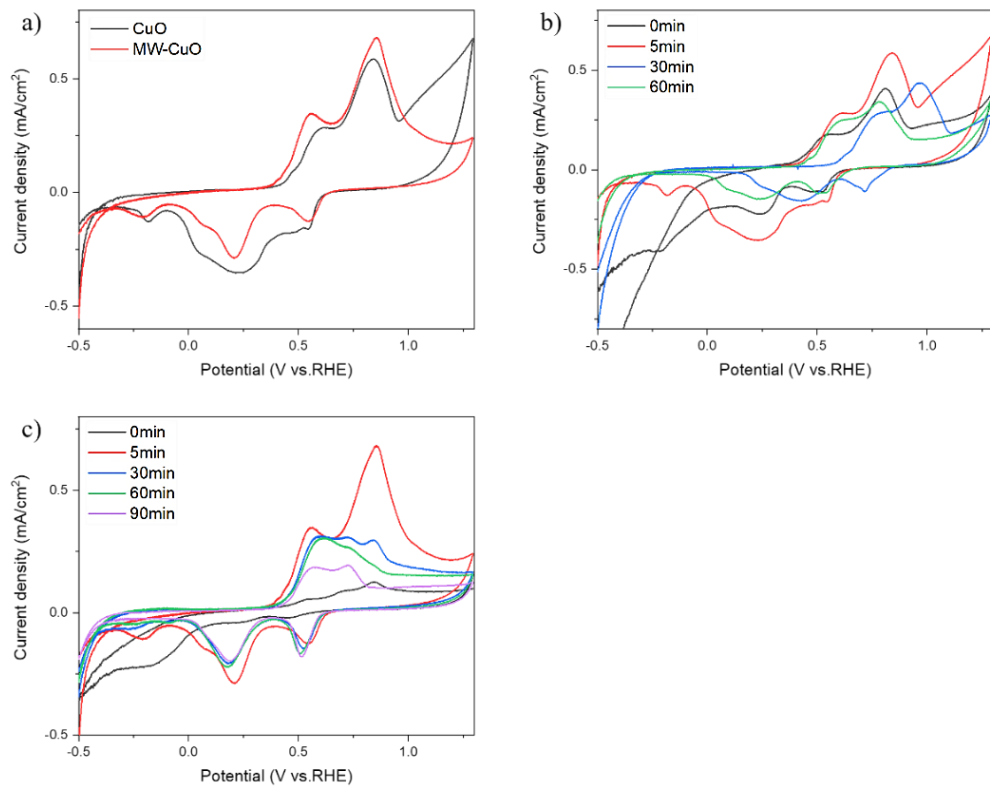


Figure 5.14 a) CVs of CuO and MW-CuO electrodes after a 5-min CO₂RR reaction; b) CuO and c) MW-CuO electrodes before and after CO₂RR reaction for a certain period in 0.1 M KHCO₃ (saturated with N₂) at the scan rate of 10 mV/s.

Table 5.6 The area of reduction peak at ~ -0.25 V vs. RHE for electrodes after the CO₂RR test at -1.04 V for a certain period.

	<u>0min</u>	<u>5min</u>	<u>30min</u>	<u>60min</u>	<u>90min</u>
<u>CuO</u>	0.00441	0.00393	0	0	0
<u>MW-CuO</u>	0.01047	0.00503	0.0019	0.00115	0

5.2.6 Reaction mechanisms of CO₂ reduction

There are several possible reaction pathways to the C₂₊ products, with C–C coupling being a crucial step. In this work, the presence of Cu⁰ and Cu⁺ in the spent CuO and MW-CuO electrodes was confirmed, with a higher Cu⁺/Cu⁰ ratio found on the MW-CuO electrode than on the CuO electrode. Before the reaction, the MW-CuO was rich in defects, such as grain boundaries. During in situ reduction and reconstruction of CuO nanoparticles, defect sites form on staggered lattices in which Cu atoms have low coordination. These defect sites serve as nucleation sites for oxide, leading to the occurrence of Cu⁺ species along the grain boundaries of Cu [285].

In recent theoretical studies on the CO₂ reduction process on Cu⁺/Cu⁰, it has been suggested that the rate-limiting step is the dimerisation of CO, which can be facilitated by increasing the coverage of *CO species. Since the adsorption of *CO and *H on the Cu₂O (111) facets was calculated to be relatively strong and the desorption of C₂H₄ to be weak, the higher proportion of Cu⁺ on the MW-CuO electrode should lead to better selectivity for ethylene compared to the CuO electrode [286]. In addition, the opposite charges of the carbon atoms in the *CO intermediates bound to Cu⁰ and Cu⁺ create an electrostatic attraction that further promotes dimerisation [286-288]. The introduction of GBs into Cu⁰ and Cu⁺ should further enhance the C-C coupling process, as the Cu⁺/Cu⁰ interfaces are thermodynamically more favourable for the formation of *CO species. Therefore, rapid and uniform microwave heating should promote the nucleation and growth of MW-CuO nanoparticles and induce the formation of defects. These defects are crucial for the stabilisation of the C₁ intermediate and improve the electrocatalytic selectivity for multi-carbon products in eCO₂RR.

5.3 Summary

In summary, this study shows that the application of microwave heating in the synthesis of CuO can lead to a GB-rich CuO product with improved electrocatalytic activity and selectivity for C₂₊ products in the electrochemical reduction of CO₂. The mass ratio of the precursors determines the morphology and size of the resulting CuO nanoparticles during the nucleation and crystal growth process. With the optimal Cu²⁺ and CO₃²⁻ feed ratio of 1.1:1, the MW-CuO achieved 71.9% FE of C₂₊ products and 45.1% FE of ethylene, while the current density reached about 15.5 mA/cm² at a potential of -1.04 V vs. RHE. Compared to the CuO electrode, more Cu(I) was found on the MW-CuO electrode. The synergistic effect of Cu₂O and defect sites could be the reason for the increased formation of multi-carbon products. The practical synthesis approach developed in this study offers a promising strategy for the development of efficient and selective electrocatalysts for the conversion of CO₂ to C₂₊ products.

Chapter 6. Cu-electrodeposition modified electrodes for eCO₂RR to C₂₊ products

6.1 Introduction

The optimisation of C-C coupling to achieve high activity and selectivity for multi-carbon products while suppressing the formation of undesired by-products is crucial for the commercial viability of CO₂RR [259, 289]. In recent years, electrodeposition technology has shown enormous potential for the production of electrodes [290-292]. Electrodeposition involves the deposition of metals or alloys on the surface of an electrode to produce the desired structures and properties [192]. By manipulating the deposition conditions such as current density, deposition time and electrolyte composition, the morphology, crystalline structure, and chemical composition of the electrode can be precisely controlled [293-296].

Pulse electrodeposition (P-ED) has been used for copper coatings on carbon paper. The resulting copper electrodes show high faradaic efficiency for methane (85% at -2.8 V vs. SCE). The improved activity can be attributed to increased active sites, a rough surface, and a loose structure that facilitates CO₂ access to the sub-layers of the copper coatings [297]. C₂₊ products can also be obtained with electrosynthetic Cu catalysts under controlled deposition conditions. The high-density copper nanoplatelet synthesised by electrodeposition on copper foil has predominantly Cu(200) facets. The copper nanoplatelet has a high partial current density of - 9.6 mA/cm² compared to C₂ products [298]. Electrodeposition is often used for the production of electrodes, effectively

achieving the desired performance [196, 258, 299, 300]. However, it is rarely used as a technique for modifying electrodes [191].

In this study, electrodeposition was used to modify the $\text{Cu}_2\text{O-C}_3\text{N}_4$ electrodes. The influence of electrodeposition on the catalyst activity and selectivity of the catalyst was investigated, with the aim of improving the overall efficiency of CO_2 conversion and facilitating the selective synthesis of multi-carbon products. Besides, the degradation of the electrode and the effect of the substrate on the electrodeposition process were investigated.

6.2 Results and discussion

6.2.1 The characterization of $\text{Cu}_2\text{O-C}_3\text{N}_4$

SEM analysis revealed the morphology and nanostructure of the C_3N_4 , Cu_2O and $\text{Cu}_2\text{O-C}_3\text{N}_4$ samples. The pure C_3N_4 exhibits a loosely layered structure, while the pure Cu_2O shows a well-defined cubic structure with a size of several tens to several hundred nanometers (Figure 6.1a, b). The in-situ formation of Cu_2O cubes on the C_3N_4 nanosheets by chemical reduction is shown in Figure 6.1c. The synthesised Cu_2O in the $\text{Cu}_2\text{O-C}_3\text{N}_4$ heterojunction has a similar morphology and size as the pure Cu_2O . However, due to the small amount of C_3N_4 , it is difficult to identify it using SEM images. Therefore, element mapping was performed, as shown in Figure 6.1d and Table 6.1, which shows the uniform distribution of the individual elements.

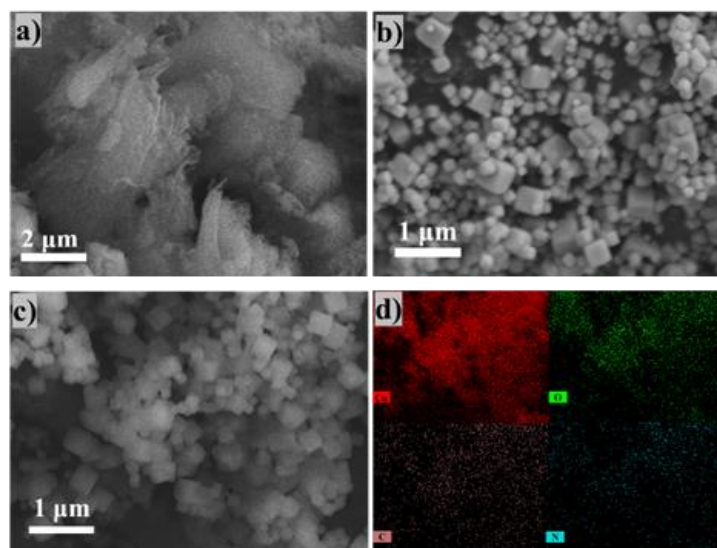


Figure 6.1 SEM images of a) C_3N_4 , b) Cu_2O and c) $Cu_2O-C_3N_4$ powder; d) SEM-EDS mapping.

Table 6.1 The element content in the prepared sample obtained by the SEM-EDS.

Sample	Element (Atomic%)			
	Cu	O	C	N
C_3N_4	-	-	43.8	56.2
Cu_2O	62.6	37.4	-	-
$Cu_2O-C_3N_4$	38.2	20.0	29.1	12.7

In order to gain a deeper understanding of the structural properties of $Cu_2O-C_3N_4$, a thorough investigation was carried out using high-resolution transmission electron microscopy. Figure 6.2a shows the presence of both C_3N_4 and Cu_2O . Given the relatively low content of C_3N_4 , it is very likely that it is partially enveloped by the cubic Cu_2O particles. It is noteworthy that distinct lattice fringes were observed in $Cu_2O-C_3N_4$, as shown in Figure 6.2b. These fringes were attributed to the (111) facet of Cu_2O based on the measured distance between the planes.

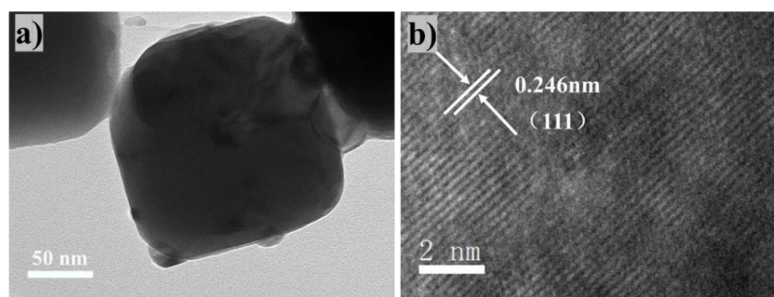


Figure 6.2 a) TEM images of $\text{Cu}_2\text{O-C}_3\text{N}_4$; b) high-resolution TEM image of the selected area.

X-ray diffraction measurements also confirmed that the $\text{Cu}_2\text{O-C}_3\text{N}_4$ nanoparticles consist of a mixture of Cu_2O and C_3N_4 (Figure 6.3). It is noteworthy that both the C_3N_4 nanosheet and $\text{Cu}_2\text{O-C}_3\text{N}_4$ sample patterns have a characteristic diffraction peak at 27.0° , which corresponds to the C_3N_4 crystal structure (JCPDS #87-1526). In addition, the other diffraction peaks of $\text{Cu}_2\text{O-C}_3\text{N}_4$ samples correspond to those of Cu_2O , dominated by the (111) crystal face of Cu_2O at 36.4° (JCPDS #05-0667). This confirms the successful synthesis of the $\text{Cu}_2\text{O-C}_3\text{N}_4$ composite without any impurity phases.

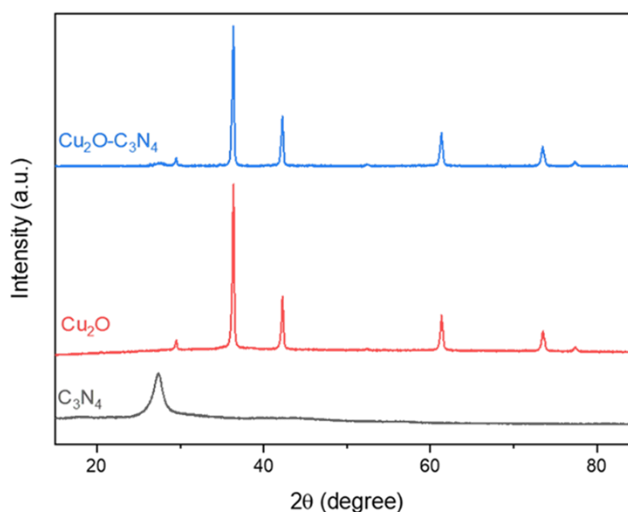


Figure 6.3 XRD pattern of Cu_2O , C_3N_4 and $\text{Cu}_2\text{O-C}_3\text{N}_4$.

X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy was used to investigate the valence state of copper in the $\text{Cu}_2\text{O-C}_3\text{N}_4$ catalyst (Figure 6.4). The discovery of a prominent peak at 931.6 eV provided strong evidence for the existence of Cu(I) in the recently synthesised $\text{Cu}_2\text{O-C}_3\text{N}_4$ catalyst (Figure 6.4d). This finding was further supported by the Auger spectrum of copper (Figure 6.4e). When the Cu 2p peaks are deconvoluted, a small peak at a higher binding energy of 933.7 eV indicates the presence of Cu(II) species [285]. While the Cu(I) species dominates, the small amount of Cu(II) observed could be due to oxidation of the sample prior to testing or insufficient amounts of ascorbic acid during $\text{Cu}_2\text{O-C}_3\text{N}_4$ synthesis, resulting in incomplete reduction of the copper hydroxide.

The elemental O 1s spectrum could be fitted into three different peaks at binding energies of 530.3, 531.0, and 532.1 eV, corresponding respectively to the lattice oxygen (O_2^-) in the Cu_2O phase, the defect O and the O- species adsorbed on the surface with an affinity to bind with hydrogen (Figure 6.4b) [254, 301]. In addition, the XPS peaks of C 1s and N 1s in the sample are in excellent agreement with those of C_3N_4 , confirming the presence of C_3N_4 in the $\text{Cu}_2\text{O-C}_3\text{N}_4$ composite (Figure 6.4a, c) [187]

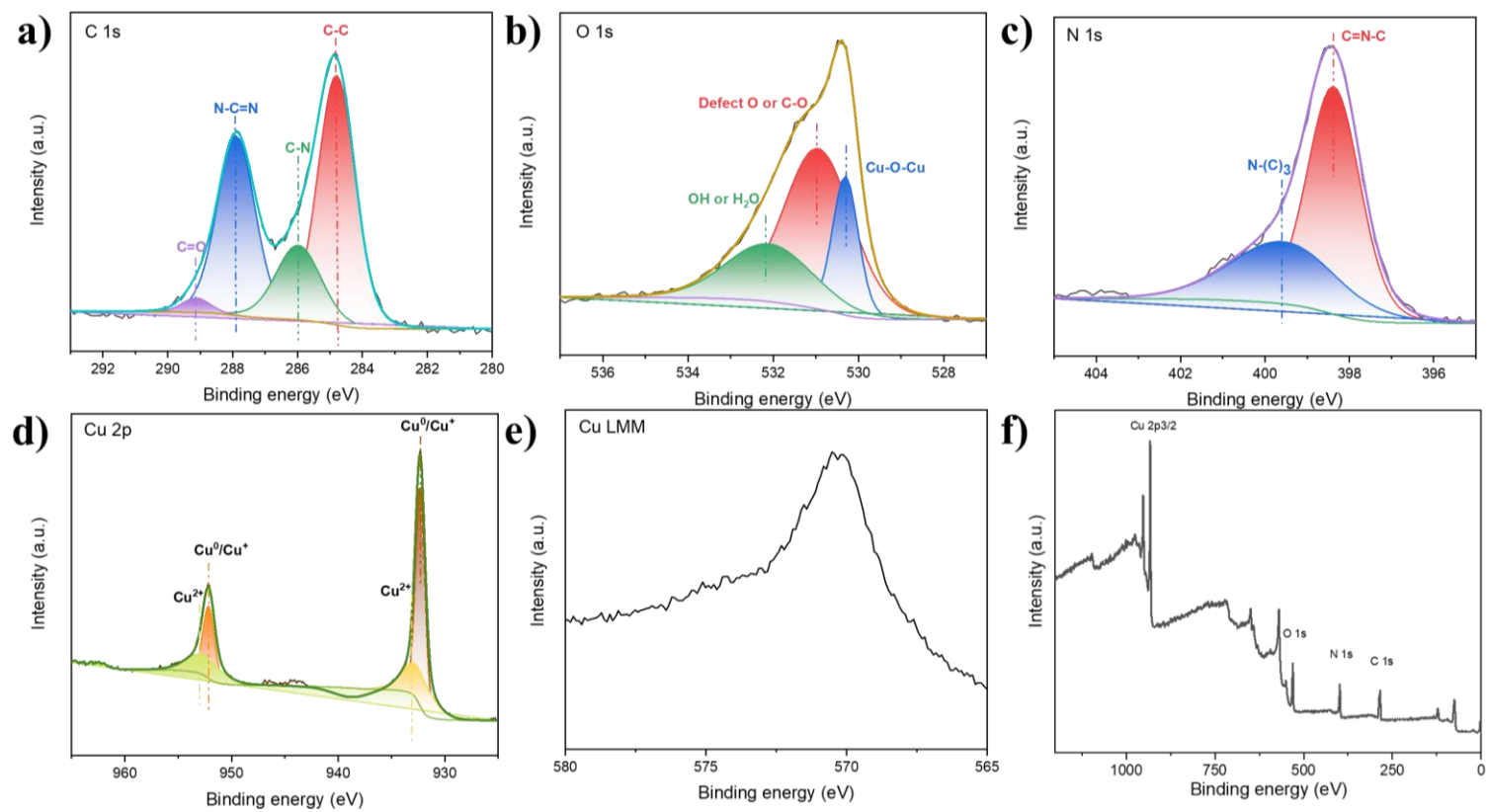


Figure 6.4 High-resolution XPS spectra of Cu₂O-C₃N₄.

6.2.2 The characteristics of the Cu@Cu₂O-C₃N₄ electrodes

The Cu₂O-C₃N₄ catalyst was processed into a Cu₂O-C₃N₄ electrode. The Cu electrodeposition was carried out on the Cu₂O-C₃N₄ electrode in a 0.01 M Cu(NO₃)₂ solution at a current density of -2.5 mA/cm². The electrodeposited electrode was named Cu@Cu₂O-C₃N₄. SEM-EDS was used to characterise the morphological changes and elemental distribution on the electrode surface before and after electrodeposition. No change in the particles on the Cu₂O-C₃N₄ electrode surface was observed, which corresponds to the state before coating (Figure 6.5a). The Nafion layer acts as a binder that holds the particles to the surface of the carbon paper. Red or black "tufts" grow on the orange-red electrode surface during the deposition process. Figure 6.5b shows that copper branches with a diameter of less than 100 nm grow on the electrode surface, completely covering the underlying Cu₂O-C₃N₄. Compared with the original electrodes, the electrodeposited electrode yields a three-dimensional hierarchical structure, which could facilitate rapid electron and mass transfer and enhance catalytic performance[191, 302-304].

SEM-EDS analysis shows that after electrodeposition, the atomic ratio of copper to oxygen on the electrode surface decreases from 2.03 to 1.62, while the ratio of carbon to nitrogen remains relatively unchanged (Table 6.2). Based on the decrease in the copper-to-oxygen ratio and the colour of the "clumps" on the Cu@Cu₂O-C₃N₄ electrode surface, it can be deduced that the material deposited on the electrode surface is probably a mixture of CuO and Cu.

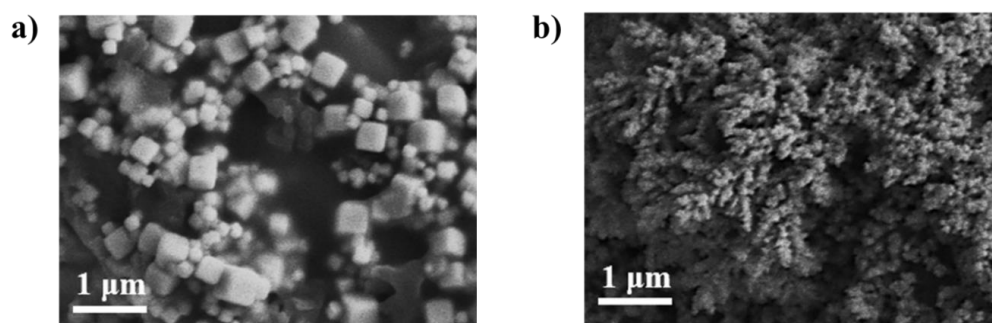


Figure 6.5 SEM images of a) $\text{Cu}_2\text{O-C}_3\text{N}_4$ electrode and b) $\text{Cu@Cu}_2\text{O-C}_3\text{N}_4$ electrode.

XPS measurements were carried out to gain deeper insights into the chemical state of the surface copper (Figure 6.6a). For the $\text{Cu}_2\text{O-C}_3\text{N}_4$ electrode, the Cu 2p 3/2 binding energy was measured at 932.7 eV, a range consistent with that expected for Cu^0 and Cu^+ . The modified Auger parameter, referred to as α' , provides valuable information about the electronic structure of the copper species and its bonding properties. It can be calculated by the combined kinetic energy of the Cu LMM Auger electron and the binding energy of the Cu 2p3/2 photoelectron. The α' value for the pristine $\text{Cu}_2\text{O-C}_3\text{N}_4$ electrode was 1849.2 eV, indicating the presence of copper as Cu^+ [305]. In particular, the XPS spectra of the $\text{Cu}_2\text{O-C}_3\text{N}_4$ electrode indicated the presence of Cu^{2+} , as indicated by the peak at about 935.5 eV. This is probably due to accidental exposure to air during transport of the sample to the XPS spectrometer, as no feature of CuO was found in the XRD pattern (Figure 6.6b).

The semi-quantitative analysis of copper in different valence states is based on the peak matching of Cu 2p. After the electrodeposition of Cu, three types of valence copper occur simultaneously in the electrode, of which Cu^0 takes up a significant proportion (Table 6.3). The crystal phase of Cu (JCPDS#04-0836) with a peak at 43.3° was also confirmed by X-ray diffraction. However, no

characteristic peak of CuO was found on the electrode after electrodeposition. Excluding the effect of electrode oxidation, the divalent copper on the electrode surface could have been formed by rapid oxidation of electrodeposited copper in copper nitrate solution, and only the top layer of Cu was oxidised, which is consistent with the XPS and SEM results. These results suggest that elemental copper is deposited on the surface of $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}-\text{C}_3\text{N}_4$ during electrodeposition, with some of the surface copper being oxidised to CuO.

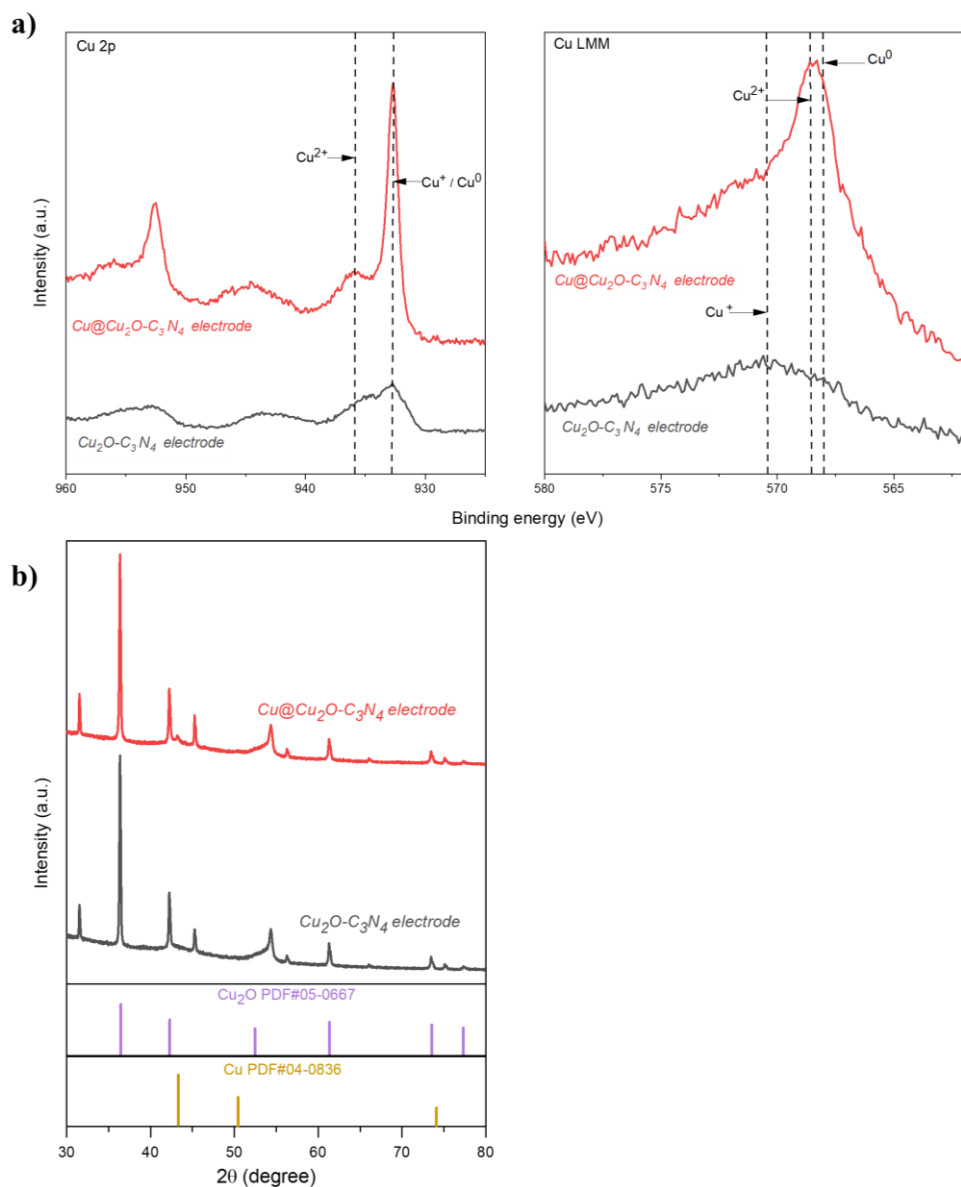


Figure 6.6 a) XPS Cu 2p and LMM; b) XRD for pristine electrodes.

The influence of electrodeposition on the activity and selectivity of CO₂RR at the Cu₂O-C₃N₄ electrode was investigated. Constant potential electrolysis was carried out for 30 minutes using potentials from -1.09 to -0.89 V vs. RHE in a CO₂-saturated 0.1 M KHCO₃ solution (Figure 6.7). For the pristine Cu₂O-C₃N₄ electrode, the predominant products obtained over the range of potentials investigated were H₂ and C₂H₄. Remarkably, the faradaic efficiency of H₂ initially decreased from 34.2 to 22.2% when more negative potentials were applied, while the FE of ethylene continued to increase and eventually reached around 30.2% when a potential of -1.09 V vs. RHE was used. It is worth noting that a significant portion of the total charges, about 28.1%, was used to generate the single carbon products CO, HCOOH and CH₄, indicating a limited selectivity of the Cu₂O-C₃N₄ electrode.

The Cu@Cu₂O-C₃N₄ electrode shows a significant improvement in selectivity compared to the Cu₂O-C₃N₄ electrode, particularly in the production of C₂₊ carbon products, especially ethylene, with a higher faradaic efficiency (Figure 6.7). Electrodeposited Cu significantly increases the faradaic efficiency of multi-carbon products, from 46.0% for Cu₂O-C₃N₄ to 64.0% for Cu@Cu₂O-C₃N₄ at -1.04 V vs. RHE. The FE for C₂H₄ reaches 36.1% for Cu@Cu₂O-C₃N₄, compared to 28.7% for Cu₂O-C₃N₄. In addition, the electrodeposited Cu shifts the product distribution, reducing the proportion of one-carbon products and emphasizing the potential to produce C₂₊ products.

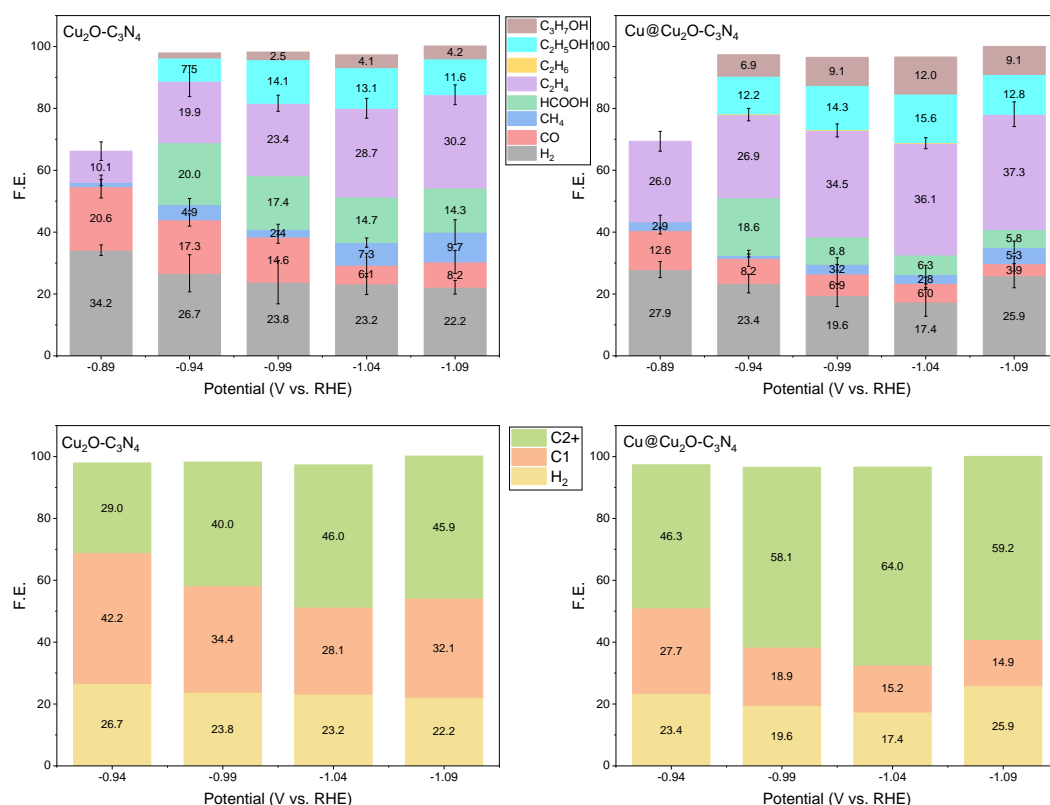


Figure 6.7 The product distribution under different working potentials (with current interrupt-corrected).

The comparison of the current density ($|j|$) further underpins the favourable effects of electrodeposition (Figure 6.8a, b). The total current density for the $\text{Cu}@\text{Cu}_2\text{O}-\text{C}_3\text{N}_4$ electrode has more than doubled at the working potential. The partial current density for multi-carbon products also shows a significant improvement. For example, the $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}-\text{C}_3\text{N}_4$ electrode shows $|j|_{\text{ethylene}} = 1.2 \text{ mA/cm}^2$ at -0.99 V vs RHE, while the $\text{Cu}@\text{Cu}_2\text{O}-\text{C}_3\text{N}_4$ electrode shows $|j|_{\text{ethylene}} = 5.0 \text{ mA/cm}^2$, which is more than a fourfold increase. Under this working condition, the $|j|_{\text{C}_2+}$ increases from 2.1 to 8.3 mA/cm^2 . In addition, the increased catalytic activity at the $\text{Cu}@\text{Cu}_2\text{O}-\text{C}_3\text{N}_4$ electrode remains constant over the entire potential range investigated, and the current density for multi-carbon

products reaches a maximum value of 12.7 mA/cm^2 ($j_{\text{ethylene}} = 7.2 \text{ mA/cm}^2$) at -1.04 V vs. RHE.

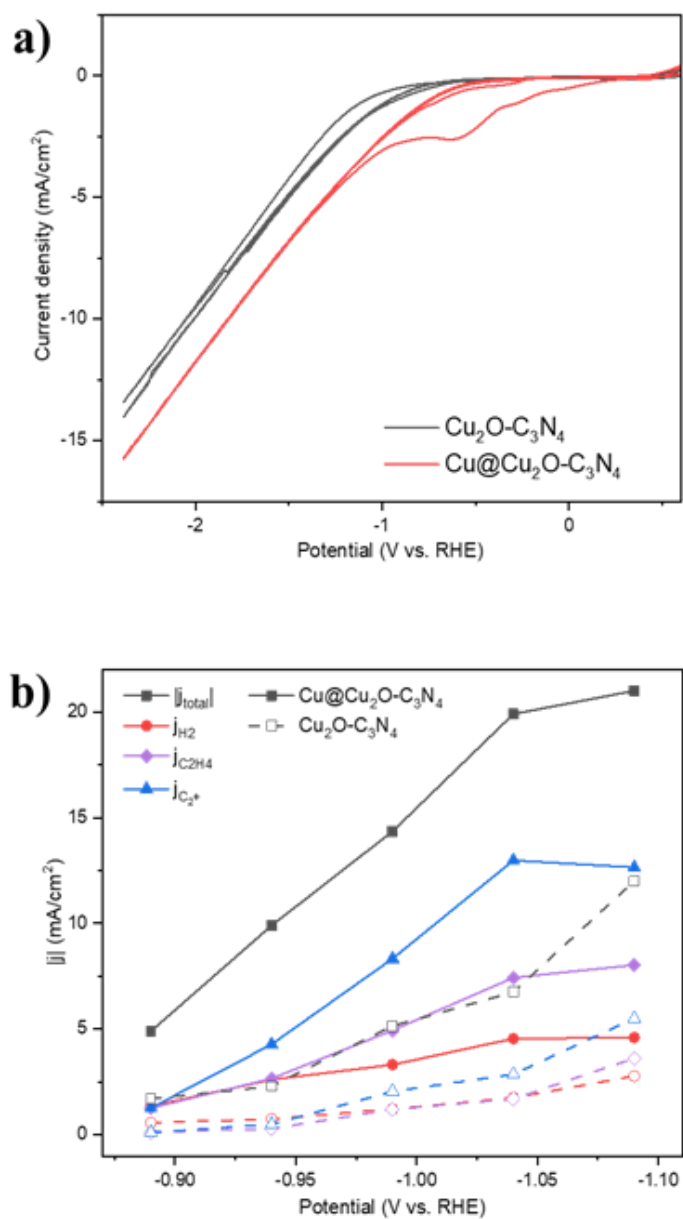


Figure 6.8 a) Cyclic voltammograms of electrodes in CO₂-saturated 0.1 M KHCO₃ electrolyte at a scan rate of 40 mV/s without iR correction; b) the total and partial current density of H₂, C₂H₄ and C₂⁺ products for both electrodes.

6.2.3 Active sites

Significant differences can be observed on the surface of the electrodes before and after the reaction. The particles on the $\text{Cu}_2\text{O-C}_3\text{N}_4$ electrode turn into nanoscale particles after one hour of eCO_2RR and show a uniform distribution on the surface of the carbon fibre (Figure 6.9b). The electrodeposited electrode also shows similar changes after the reaction but with relatively uneven particle sizes and distributions, with some spherical particles exceeding 100 nm (Figure 6.9e). EDS analysis shows a significant reduction in copper content on both electrode surfaces after the reaction, with the $\text{Cu}_2\text{O-C}_3\text{N}_4$ electrode showing a more significant reduction (Table 6.2). This indicates surface reconstruction and partial detachment of copper from the electrode, indicating a probable reduction of copper oxide during the reaction.

Table 6.2 The element content in the electrodes as determined by SEM-EDS.

Electrode	Element (Atomic%)				
	Cu	O	C	N	F
a) $\text{Cu}_2\text{O-C}_3\text{N}_4$ before reaction	39.7	19.6	26.2	5.0	9.5
b) $\text{Cu}_2\text{O-C}_3\text{N}_4$ after 1-hour reaction	19.2	18.7	39.3	3.8	13.4
c) $\text{Cu}_2\text{O-C}_3\text{N}_4$ after 3-hour reaction	2.1	4.9	87.8	2.4	1.3
d) $\text{Cu@Cu}_2\text{O-C}_3\text{N}_4$ before reaction	34.8	21.5	27.5	7.7	8.6
e) $\text{Cu@Cu}_2\text{O-C}_3\text{N}_4$ after 1-hour reaction	29.5	17.3	32.7	4.3	16.2
f) $\text{Cu@Cu}_2\text{O-C}_3\text{N}_4$ after 3-hour reaction	1.2	4.2	92.4	1.8	0.5

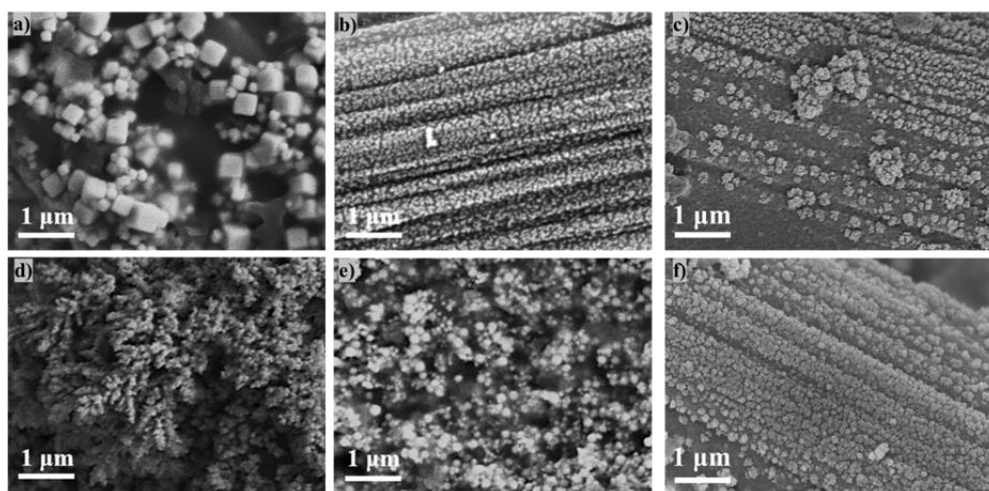


Figure 6.9 SEM images of $\text{Cu}_2\text{O-C}_3\text{N}_4$ electrodes a) before, after b) 1-hour and c) 3-hour reaction and $\text{Cu@Cu}_2\text{O-C}_3\text{N}_4$ electrodes d) before, after e) 1-hour and f) 3-hour reaction.

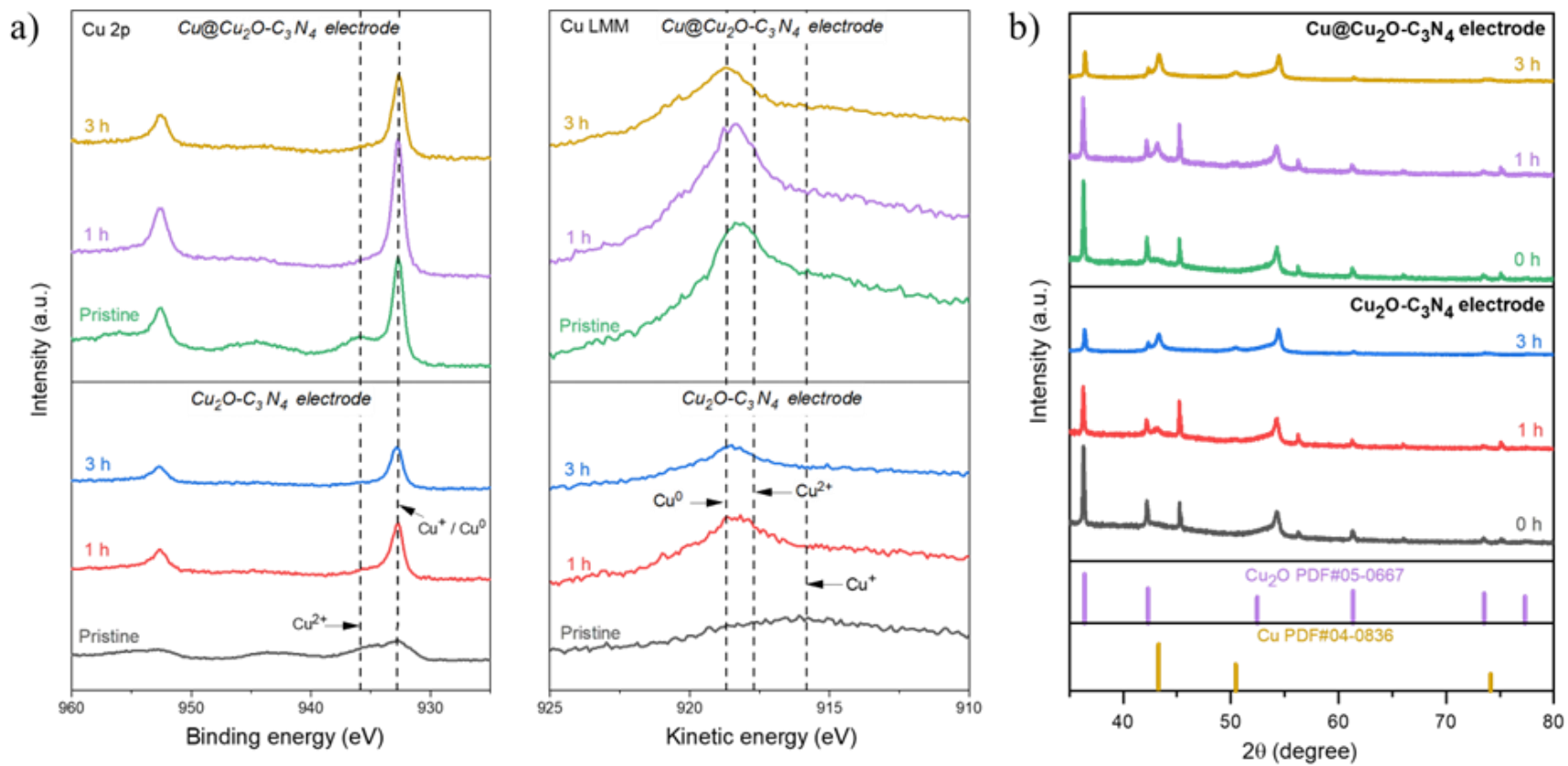
In order to determine the actual active species in the reaction, the XPS measurements for the electrodes were carried out according to eCO₂RR (Figure 6.10). Both the $\text{Cu}_2\text{O-C}_3\text{N}_4$ and $\text{Cu@Cu}_2\text{O-C}_3\text{N}_4$ electrodes appeared to have been reduced to a mixture of Cu^+ and Cu^0 , as shown by the main peak at 568.0 eV and a smaller matched peak at 570.5 eV in the Cu LMM, which is consistent with the properties of metallic Cu and Cu^+ . This result is confirmed by the XRD pattern, which shows that the characteristic peak of Cu_2O decreases significantly after the reaction while the characteristic peak of zero-valent copper becomes clearer (Figure 6.10a). Therefore, Cu^{2+} and Cu^+ on the $\text{Cu}_2\text{O-C}_3\text{N}_4$ and $\text{Cu@Cu}_2\text{O-C}_3\text{N}_4$ electrode were reduced to a mixture consisting mainly of metallic Cu, together with a small amount of Cu^+ , which probably originated from the unreacted Cu_2O and the reduced CuO during eCO₂RR.

After peak matching of Cu 2p 3/2, the ratio of Cu^+ and Cu^0 is calculated to be 0.83 and 1.13 for the $\text{Cu}_2\text{O-C}_3\text{N}_4$ and $\text{Cu@Cu}_2\text{O-C}_3\text{N}_4$ electrodes after the 1-

hour reaction (Table 6.3). It has been shown that the presence of Cu^+ facilitates the adsorption and reaction of CO_2 molecules [264, 285]. In addition, an appropriate ratio of monovalent and zero-valent copper can promote the C-C coupling process and favour the formation of multi-carbon products [263]. The performance of the electrodes indicates that more multi-carbon products are produced at a Cu^+ to Cu^0 ratio of 1.13 compared to methane. This indicates an enhanced C-C coupling process leading to the formation of more carbon-containing products such as C_2H_4 and $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}$.

Table 6.3 The proportion of each copper valence state on the electrode before and after the reaction according to the fitting peak for XPS Cu 2p 3/2.

Electrode	Peak concentration %			Cu^+/Cu^0
	Cu^0	Cu^+	Cu^{2+}	
a) $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}-\text{C}_3\text{N}_4$ before reaction	0	31.7	35.2	-
b) $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}-\text{C}_3\text{N}_4$ after 1-hour reaction	19.2	16.0	25.3	0.83
c) $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}-\text{C}_3\text{N}_4$ after 3-hour reaction	19.9	23.9	15.2	1.20
d) $\text{Cu}@\text{Cu}_2\text{O}-\text{C}_3\text{N}_4$ before reaction	28.8	23.0	11.3	0.80
e) $\text{Cu}@\text{Cu}_2\text{O}-\text{C}_3\text{N}_4$ after 1-hour reaction	19.0	21.5	19.7	1.13
f) $\text{Cu}@\text{Cu}_2\text{O}-\text{C}_3\text{N}_4$ after 3-hour reaction	20.1	27.7	9.82	1.38



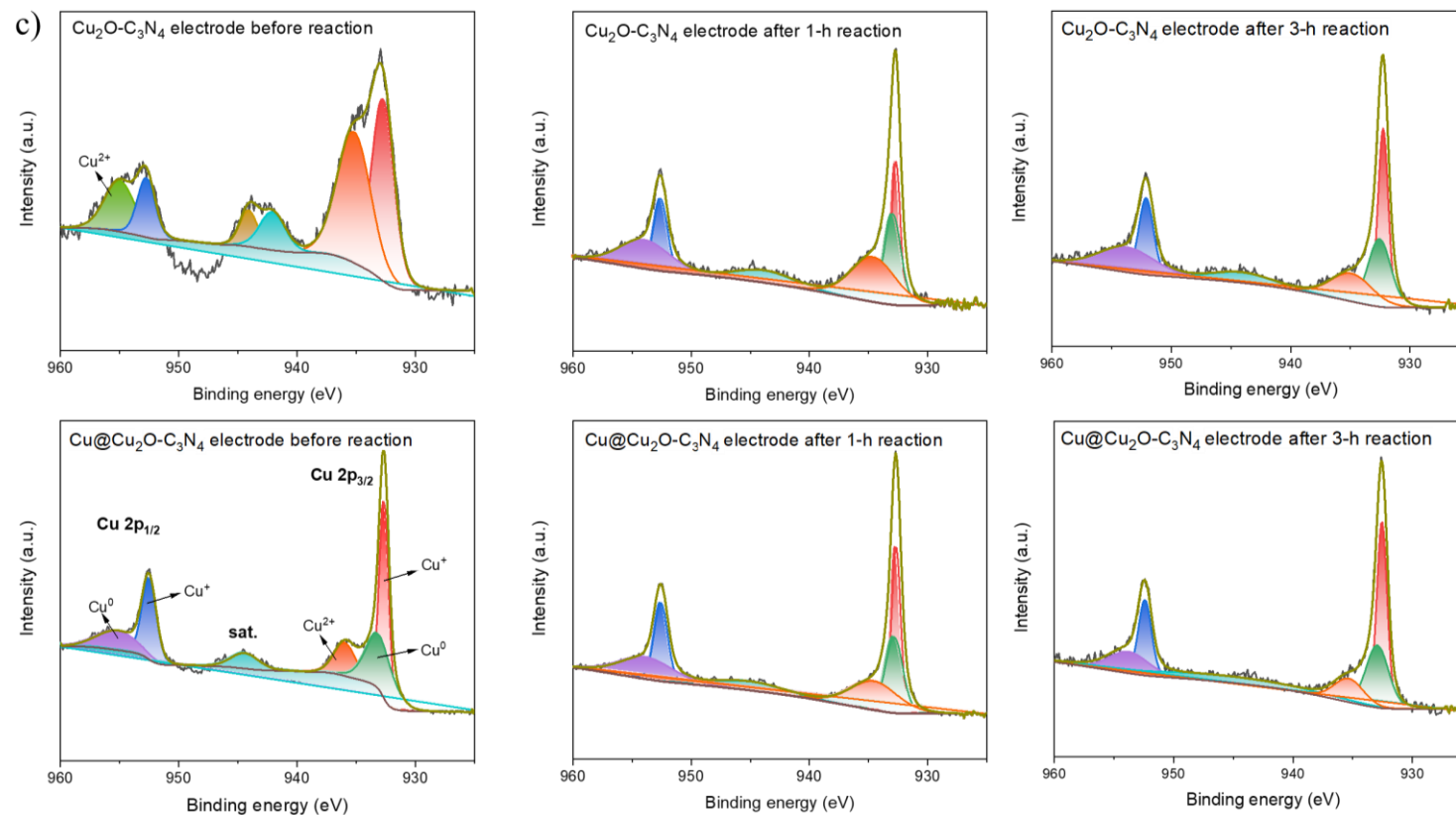


Figure 6.10 a) XPS Cu 2p and LMM; b) XRD pattern; c) the fitted Cu 2p for pristine electrodes and electrodes after 1-hour eCO₂RR at -1.04 V vs. RHE. Different colours correspond to different valence peaks of copper.

The electrochemically active surface of the electrode can be assessed by measuring the double-layer capacitance of the catalyst [195, 306]. Here, the electrodeposition process leads to a 0.5-fold increase in the electrochemically active sites on the electrode surface (Figure 6.11a-c). The formation of additional active sites can be attributed to the metal deposition and the restructuring of the surface during electrodeposition. The increased number of active sites has a positive effect on the activity and efficiency of the catalytic reactions and increases the activity over time.

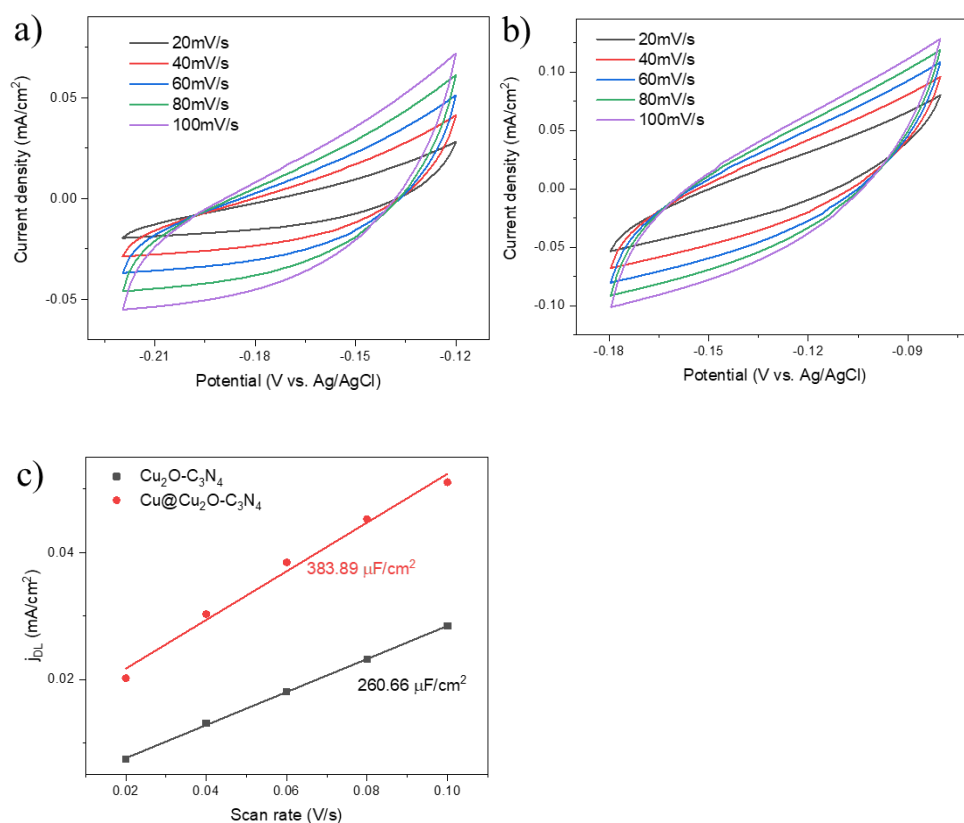


Figure 6.11 a, b) CV curves in a non-Faradaic region at various scan rates in CO_2 -saturated 0.1 M KHCO_3 solution of electrodes after a 10-minute reaction; c) plots of double layer current density, j_{dl} against scan rate, the slope of which is identified with the capacitance of double layer.

In addition, the Cu@Cu₂O-C₃N₄ electrode shows a significantly lower charge transfer resistance of 31.1 Ω compared to the Cu₂O-C₃N₄ electrode, which has a resistance of 52.3 Ω (Figure 6.12). The reduction in resistance can be attributed to the better electronic conductivity of the metal deposit. This, in turn, leads to a lower onset potential and a lower applied potential. As a result, the electron transfer in Cu@Cu₂O-C₃N₄ from the bulk to the electrode surface is facilitated compared to the pristine electrodes [307]. The enhanced electron and ion transfer processes increase the activity of CO₂RR.

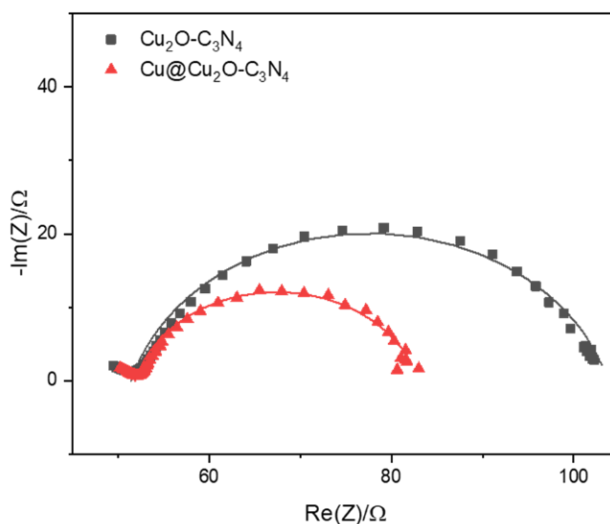


Figure 6.12 EIS of the electrodes taken at -0.99 V vs. RHE. The symbols represent the original experimental data, and the lines represent the fitted results.

6.2.4 Electrode deactivation

In addition, the 6-hour stability tests show the continued stability of the partial current density for ethylene, indicating a significant and stable increase in the

catalytic activity of the electrodeposited electrode (Figure 6.13a, b). The FEs of CO and CH₄ are relatively stable for both electrodes. As the reaction progresses, both the current density and the hydrogen production increase in a similar manner.

The primary consideration for electrode deactivation lies in the changes in the surface material. Comparing the electrodes after 1- and 3-hour reactions reveals that while the size and morphology of the particles remain unchanged, there is evident agglomeration, as shown in Figure 6.9c, f. Additionally, SEM-EDS analysis indicates significant differences in elemental distribution, as detailed in Table 6.2. In particular, the carbon content steadily increases throughout the entire reaction process. Initially, the atomic proportion of carbon on the electrode is 26.2 and 27.5% for Cu₂O-C₃N₄ and Cu@Cu₂O-C₃N₄, respectively. However, there is a significant increase between the first and third hours. After 3 hours of reaction, the atomic compositions of carbon on the Cu₂O-C₃N₄ and Cu@Cu₂O-C₃N₄ electrodes reach 87.8 and 92.4%, respectively. On the contrary, the ratios of copper, oxygen, and nitrogen decrease.

XRD and XPS tests were conducted on the Cu₂O-C₃N₄ and Cu@Cu₂O-C₃N₄ electrodes after 3 hours of reaction (Figure 6.10a, b). Compared to electrodes tested after 1 hour of reaction, the XPS peak for copper on the surface of the electrode remained similar after 3 hours, albeit with weakened signals. Peak fitting results from the Cu 2p spectrum indicate a notable increase in the Cu⁺/Cu⁰ ratio as the reaction progresses (Figure 6.10c and Table 6.3). XRD spectra also show a gradual decrease in characteristic peak signals for copper, while those for cuprous oxide diminish over the course of the reaction and the proportion of metallic copper increases. This result contrasts with the XPS findings, possibly

due to differences in the testing depth between the two methods, suggesting an overall increase in the proportion of metallic copper on the electrode with Cu^+ concentration being higher at the surface. The results indicate the presence of copper material detachment from the electrode during the reaction, and the variation in Cu^+/Cu^0 ratio on the electrode surface also affects the selectivity of CO_2 reduction.

To further investigate the deactivation processes of the electrode during prolonged operation, linear sweep voltammetry was performed on the electrode every hour (Figure 6.13c, d). The double-layer capacitance, the solution resistance, and the charge transfer resistance were measured at each interval (Figure 6.13g, h). During a three-hour reaction period without changing the cathodic electrolyte, both R_s and R_{ct} gradually decreased. The LSV plots also showed an increase in current density at the same potential as the reaction time progressed.

In the electrocatalytic reduction of carbon dioxide at constant potential, the compensated current did not fully follow the trend of gradual increase due to the use of current interruption compensation. However, with increasing current density, the availability of protons is higher than that of CO_2 , resulting in HER gradually dominating.

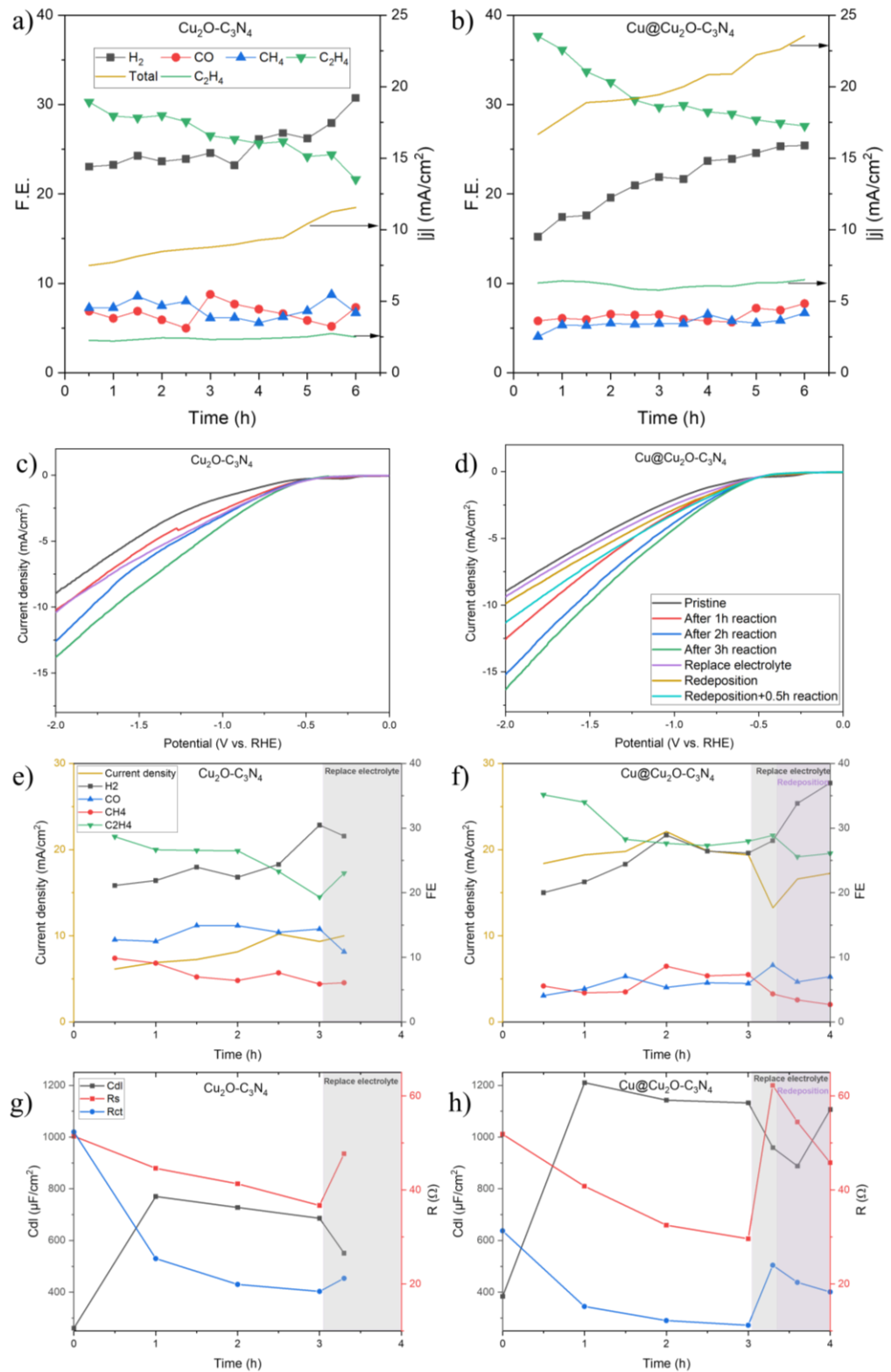


Figure 6.13 Stability test, LSV, C_{dl} and resistance for $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}-\text{C}_3\text{N}_4$ electrode and $\text{Cu}@\text{Cu}_2\text{O}-\text{C}_3\text{N}_4$ electrode after each hour reaction at the potential of -1.65 V vs. RHE, replacing electrolyte and redeposition.

The double-layer capacitance reflects changes in the number of active sites on the electrode surface. As can be seen in Figure 6.13g, h, the number of active sites initially increased during the reaction, followed by a gradual decrease. The initial increase in active sites was related to reduction and restructuring processes on the electrode surface. However, as the reactions progressed, factors such as carbon deposition on the electrode surface and deactivation due to poisoning of the active sites led to a gradual decrease in active sites [61]. This affected the dynamics of the chemical reaction and intensified the hydrogen evolution reaction. This phenomenon was partially alleviated after the electrode solution was replaced.

Furthermore, the performance of the electrode redeposition after a three-hour reaction shows that secondary electrodeposition increased the number of active sites but did not significantly contribute to the recovery of ethylene efficiency. Instead, it further increased the efficiency of hydrogen evolution. This result suggests that the reduction in the deactivation of active sites cannot be compensated by simply increasing the number of sites by electrodeposition again. The reason for this could be the formation of a dense deposition layer on the electrode surface after redeposition, which in turn hinders the adsorption and desorption processes of CO₂ molecules.

6.2.5 Cu electrodeposition on different electrodes

To investigate the influence of electrodeposition on the electrochemistry and intrinsic properties of Cu₂O and C₃N₄ in more detail, we performed a series of control experiments. Electrochemical deposition was performed under identical

conditions (0.01 M $\text{Cu}(\text{NO}_3)_2$, -2.5 mA/cm^2 , 100 s) on carbon paper, C_3N_4 , Cu_2O and $\text{Cu}_2\text{O-C}_3\text{N}_4$ electrodes, resulting in electrodes labelled Cu, $\text{Cu@C}_3\text{N}_4$, $\text{Cu@Cu}_2\text{O}$ and $\text{Cu@Cu}_2\text{O-C}_3\text{N}_4$, respectively.

Electrochemical tests were then carried out with these electrodes. The cyclic voltammetry diagrams show a significant increase in current density at the working potential after electrodeposition (Figure 6.14a). As with the $\text{Cu@Cu}_2\text{O-C}_3\text{N}_4$ electrode, a reduction wave between -1 and 0 V vs. RHE was observed after electrodeposition, indicating an early-stage reduction reaction on the electrode surface. The electrodeposition of Cu significantly changed the product distribution, resulting in a decreased Faradaic efficiency of hydrogen and a remarkable increase in the Faradaic efficiency of ethylene (Figure 6.14b). Furthermore, electrodeposition significantly increased the $\text{C}_2\text{H}_4/\text{CH}_4$ ratio of the electrode, indicating that during the electrochemical CO_2 reduction process, sufficient concentrations of key intermediates such as $^*\text{CHO}$ and $^*\text{CO}$, adsorb onto the electrode surface, facilitating C-C coupling and subsequent hydrogenation, ultimately leading to the production of ethylene (Figure 6.14c) [308]. The control experiments show that Cu deposition enhances the activity of the electrochemical CO_2 reduction reaction across different electrodes and modulates the selectivity.

Both C_3N_4 and Cu_2O have been shown to support the electrodeposition of Cu, leading to a higher current density and a higher proportion of $\text{C}_2\text{H}_4/\text{CH}_4$ in the gas products, endowing the resulting electrodes with increased reaction activity and selectivity. Studies show that substrate choice significantly shapes the structure and morphology of electrodeposited materials [309]. Differing electrode roughness leads to diverse growth patterns [310]. Higher roughness

electrodes can offer more active sites and a larger surface area, promoting better adsorption and reaction kinetics. The presence of C_3N_4 enhances the surface roughness of the electrode, creating more sites for growth. Besides, Cu_2O plays a vital role in modulating the Cu^+/Cu^0 ratio on the electrode surface during the reaction, thereby facilitating C-C coupling. The synergy between C_3N_4 and Cu_2O further emphasizes this advantage.

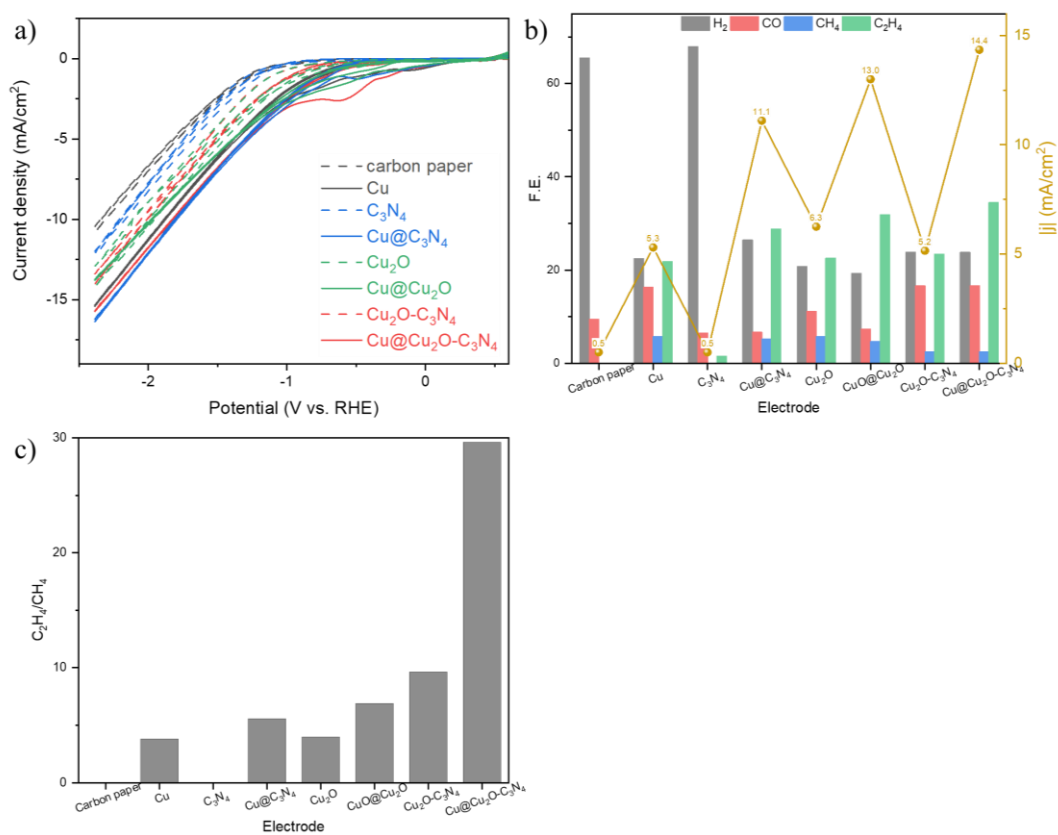


Figure 6.14 a) CV at the scan rate of 40 mV/s; b) the gaseous product distribution; and c) the ratio of C_2H_4/CH_4 of the electrodes before and after deposition at the potential of -0.99 V vs. RHE.

6.3 Summary

In summary, Cu was successfully deposited on the Cu₂O-C₃N₄ electrode, and the top layer of Cu was oxidised into CuO. The 3D dendritic structure of the electrodeposited copper increases the electrochemically active sites and decreases the charge transfer resistance, thereby improving the catalytic activity and efficiency of the electrode. After electrodeposition, the current density shows a remarkable four-fold improvement for multi-carbon products, reaching a peak value of 12.7 mA/cm² ($|j|_{\text{ethylene}} = 7.2 \text{ mA/cm}^2$) at -1.04 V vs. RHE. Moreover, during the CO₂RR process, the Cu substance on the electrode undergoes reduction and reconstruction, with the electrodeposited copper protecting the underlying Cu₂O layer. The high Cu⁺/Cu⁰ ratio on the electrode surface contributes to an increased product ratio of C₂H₄/CH₄. Moreover, an investigation into electrode deactivation unveiled carbon deposition as the primary culprit. Importantly, physical properties such as the roughness of the Cu₂O-C₃N₄ electrode facilitate the electrodeposition process. These findings hold significance for the development of efficient electrochemical reaction catalysts.

Chapter 7. Conclusions and recommendations for future work

7.1 Conclusions

This work provides a comprehensive review of recent advances in various types of Cu-based electrocatalysts for CO₂RR. The mechanisms of CO₂RR to multi-carbon products, including reaction pathways and factors critical to the reaction, are summarised. The mini-review provides a better understanding of the progress and advancement in this research field and highlights the challenges and prospects for further improvement of CO₂RR efficiency ([Chapter 2](#)). In addition, the influence of CuO synthesis conditions and the ratio of starting materials on the morphology, size and defects of CuO is investigated in this thesis ([Chapter 5](#)). Two different surface modification techniques, polymer coating ([Chapter 4](#)) and electrodeposition ([Chapter 6](#)) are applied to Cu-based electrodes with different objectives. Mechanistic insights are gained through simulations and electrode characterisation. The intricate relationship between electrode properties and electrochemical performance is illustrated by the improved electrochemical conversion efficiency of CO₂ to multi-carbon products.

In the first experimental work of this dissertation, control over proton transfer on the CuO electrode surface was achieved by tuning the surface hydrophobicity using the low-cost and hydrophobic polymer PVDC. A modest 50 µg/cm² PVDC coating exhibited optimised hydrophobicity (WCA = 122°), which effectively suppressed the hydrogen evolution reaction while facilitating the conversion of CO₂ to ethylene (FE = 41.4% at -0.89 V vs. RHE). Comparative tests and

calculations have shown that the PVDC modification remarkably balances proton transfer and CO₂ availability, preserves conductivity and improves selectivity and stability. Furthermore, the improved C-C coupling process is also attributed to the increased presence of Cu⁺ active species on the CuO-PVDC surface.

Besides, the mechanism of CuO growth was demonstrated using precursors with different mass ratios both with and without microwave heating. Microwave-assisted synthesised CuO (MW-CuO) exhibited a higher defect site density and significantly increased grain boundaries than conventionally produced CuO. At an optimal reactant ratio, MW-CuO exhibited superior catalytic performance and achieved a remarkable FE of C₂₊ products (71.9% at -1.04 V vs. RHE, yielding a partial current density of about 11.2 mA/cm²). This performance, which is among the highest reported for OD-Cu catalysts, results from an appropriate ratio of Cu(I) and Cu species and defective surface features. Microwave heating during catalyst preparation induces surface defects, which increases the CO₂RR selectivity for multi-carbon products, emphasizing the sustainable approach to catalyst preparation.

Another modification strategy was demonstrated: electrodeposition on the Cu₂O-C₃N₄ electrode, resulting in an intriguing 3D dendritic Cu structure that significantly increases the catalytic activity. Electrochemical analysis revealed a fourfold increase in current density for multicarbon products after electrodeposition, peaking at 12.7 mA/cm² (with $|j|_{\text{ethylene}} = 7.2 \text{ mA/cm}^2$) at -1.04 V vs. RHE. The restructuring of Cu species during eCO₂RR resulted in a high Cu⁺/Cu⁰ ratio on the Cu@Cu₂O-C₃N₄ electrode, which correlates with enhanced C-C coupling as evidenced by higher product ratios of C₂H₄/CH₄. The

electrodeposition increased the electrochemically active sites by 1.5 times, while the charge transfer resistance was reduced by 0.4-fold. Moreover, an investigation into electrode deactivation unveiled carbon deposition as the primary culprit. Importantly, physical properties such as the roughness of the Cu₂O-C₃N₄ electrode facilitate the electrodeposition process. Electrodeposition as a modification method has also been shown to be effective on other electrodes.

Overall, PVDC coating on CuO electrode controls proton transfer, achieving optimal hydrophobicity and suppressing H₂ evolution while facilitating high ethylene yield. Additionally, microwave heating generates CuO with abundant grain boundaries, resulting in a high density of defect sites and an excellent performance in the production of C₂₊ products. The Cu-electrodeposited electrode exhibits a 4-fold increase in the current density for C₂₊ species. The accelerated C-C coupling, attributed to a higher Cu⁺/Cu⁰ ratio, is observed, although electrode deactivation primarily stems from carbon deposition, with rough substrates aiding Cu electrodeposition and contributing to the observed 3D dendrite structure. These works offer universal strategies to enhance the efficiency of electrochemical reduction of CO₂ for multi-carbon product generation, advancing our comprehension of the reaction mechanisms involved.

7.2 Recommendations for future work

Future research should focus on high-throughput screening, active site regulation, sustainable synthesis and stability testing to drive progress in efficient CO₂RR towards multi-carbon products. Detailed recommendations on this topic are provided below:

1. Real-time insights into the changes in the catalyst

Variations in the Cu⁰/Cu⁺ ratio, which reflect the oxidation states of the surface, have been shown to influence catalytic activity and selectivity during CO₂RR. However, the optimal ratio for the desired CO₂RR results appears to depend on factors such as the reaction conditions, the morphology of the catalyst, and the nature of the active sites involved. The integration of advanced characterisation techniques and theoretical calculations is essential to unravel these complex relationships.

In future work, in-situ spectroscopy, operando studies, and high-resolution microscopy will provide real-time insights into the changes in electrodes. The activation and deactivation processes of electrodes can be better explained through a combination of experiments and theoretical calculations.

2. New electrode materials

While efficient catalysts exist for the conversion of eCO₂RR to CO, the integration of CO-affine materials with copper-based electrodes, such as metal oxides or carbides, is promising. This integration improves the selective adsorption of CO, which is particularly important to drive the C-C coupling process and consequently promote the preferential formation of C₂₊ products. In addition, a strategic focus on structural design is critical to improving the

electrode interface and transfer performance. Here, in the second work of the microwave-assisted synthesis of CuO, the increased concentration of *CO may further enhance the C-C coupling process. Thus, the introduction of conductive additives, nanostructures or heterostructures into the defect-rich CuO may offer opportunities to optimise the performance of copper-based electrodes in CO₂RR.

3. Long-term stability

Long-term stability is a critical factor in assessing the practical feasibility of electrode materials in continuous CO₂ reduction reactions. Monitoring changes in structural integrity and catalytic performance through extended durability testing under realistic operating conditions helps to identify potential problems such as catalyst aggregation, surface passivation or chemical transformation. To maintain stability and prevent degradation of electrodes in the CO₂ reduction reaction, managing carbon-containing byproducts is crucial. Strategies such as regular cleaning, catalyst regeneration, and the use of sacrificial electrodes can effectively mitigate electrode contamination. Additionally, modifying electrode surfaces, optimizing operating conditions, and employing selective capture methods can further enhance stability by reducing the accumulation of carbonaceous species. By integrating these approaches, the stability and efficiency of CO₂RR electrodes can be improved, enabling sustainable conversion into valuable products.

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