

# Metallic porous electrodes enable efficient electrolysis of liquid CO<sub>2</sub> capture solutions

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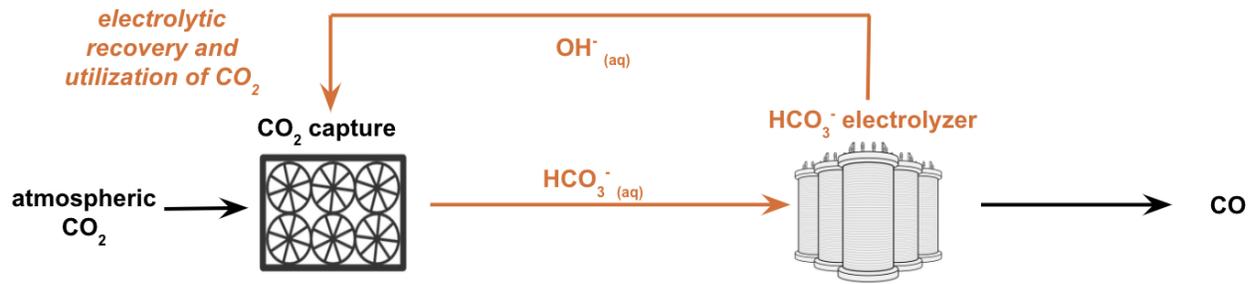
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## **Abstract**

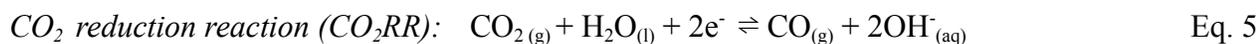
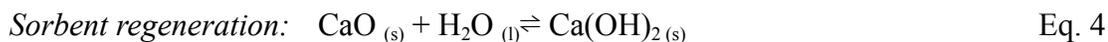
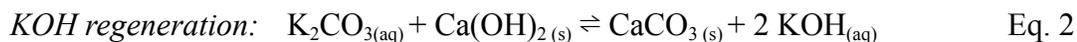
We demonstrate here that a porous free-standing silver foam cathode in an electrolytic flow electrolyzer mediates efficient electrolysis of 3.0 M bicarbonate solutions into CO. These results have direct implications for carbon capture schemes where OH<sup>-</sup> solutions react with CO<sub>2</sub> to form bicarbonate-rich solutions that need to be treated to recycle the sorbent and recover the CO<sub>2</sub>. Our study shows a viable path for replacing the high-temperature thermal process currently used to recover CO<sub>2</sub> from these carbon capture solutions by using electricity to drive the conversion of bicarbonate into CO<sub>2</sub> and subsequently into CO. The use of free-standing porous silver electrodes was found to yield electrolysis performance parameters (e.g., a Faradaic efficiency for CO production,  $FE_{CO}$ , of 95% at 100 mA cm<sup>2</sup>; <3% performance loss after 80 h operation) that are superior to results obtained in bicarbonate electrolyzers that utilize conventional carbon-based gas diffusion electrodes (GDEs) designed for gaseous CO<sub>2</sub> fed electrolyzers. This liquid-fed bicarbonate electrolyzer achieves high CO formation rates with the added benefit of not requiring an energy-intensive CO<sub>2</sub> regeneration step that would be necessary for the electrolysis of gaseous CO<sub>2</sub>. These findings represent a potentially important step in closing the carbon cycle.

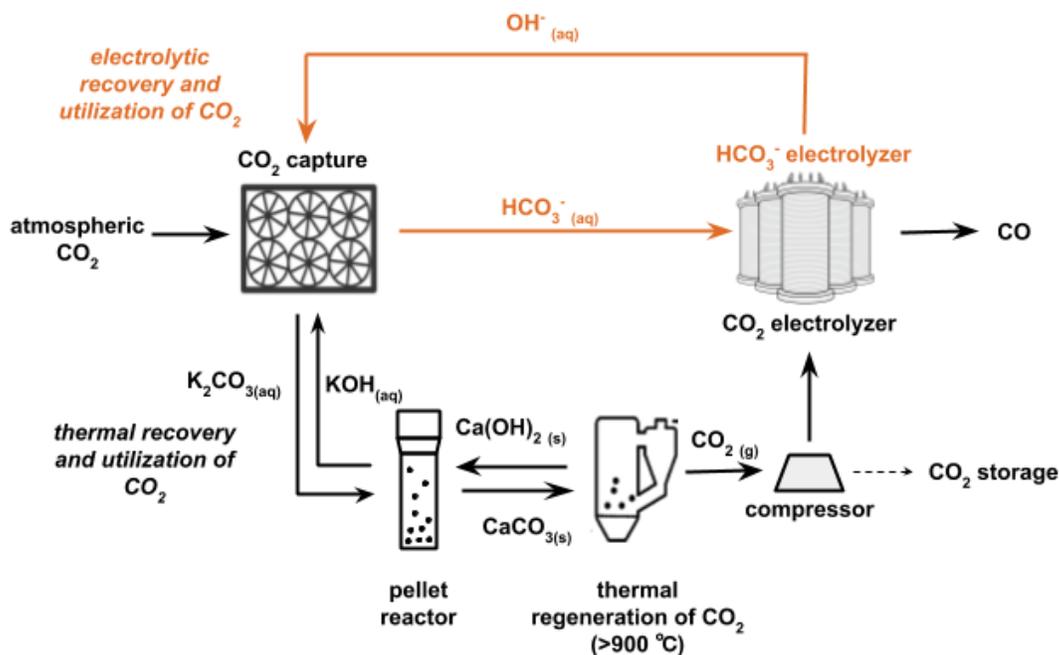
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## Introduction

In order to utilize CO<sub>2</sub> captured from the atmosphere or a point source, the captured CO<sub>2</sub> needs to be extracted from the sorbent in such a way that the sorbent can be recycled to capture additional CO<sub>2</sub>. Schemes that rely on basic solutions such as KOH to capture CO<sub>2</sub> by forming carbonate (Eqs. 1 and 2) use a high temperature calcination step (>900 °C) to subsequently liberate CO<sub>2</sub> (which can then be stored or utilized) from the carbonate salt with the concomitant recovery of the OH<sup>-</sup> sorbent (Eqs. 3 and 4, Figure 1).<sup>1</sup> This recovery process involving the thermal decomposition of CaCO<sub>3</sub> at 900 °C is expensive because it uses two preheat cyclones along with a calciner in succession that are both energy and capital intensive.<sup>1</sup> One promising option for using this CO<sub>2</sub> is to electrolytically convert it into chemicals or fuels of economic value (e.g., CO) using renewable electricity (Eq. 5, Figure 1).<sup>2,3</sup> While there have been many recent advances in electrolytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction,<sup>2,4-7</sup> the electrolysis of CO<sub>2</sub> will likely require an energy-intensive CO<sub>2</sub> pressurization step prior to electrolysis in order to achieve meaningful reaction rates (Figure 1).<sup>8</sup> Purification of the gaseous CO<sub>2</sub> is also necessary to remove impurities (O<sub>2</sub>,<sup>9</sup> NO<sub>x</sub>,<sup>9</sup> SO<sub>x</sub>,<sup>10</sup> NH<sub>3</sub>,<sup>11</sup> HCl<sup>12</sup>) which reduce the efficiency of the electrolyzer.<sup>9,10</sup>

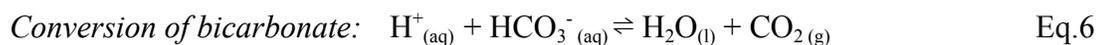




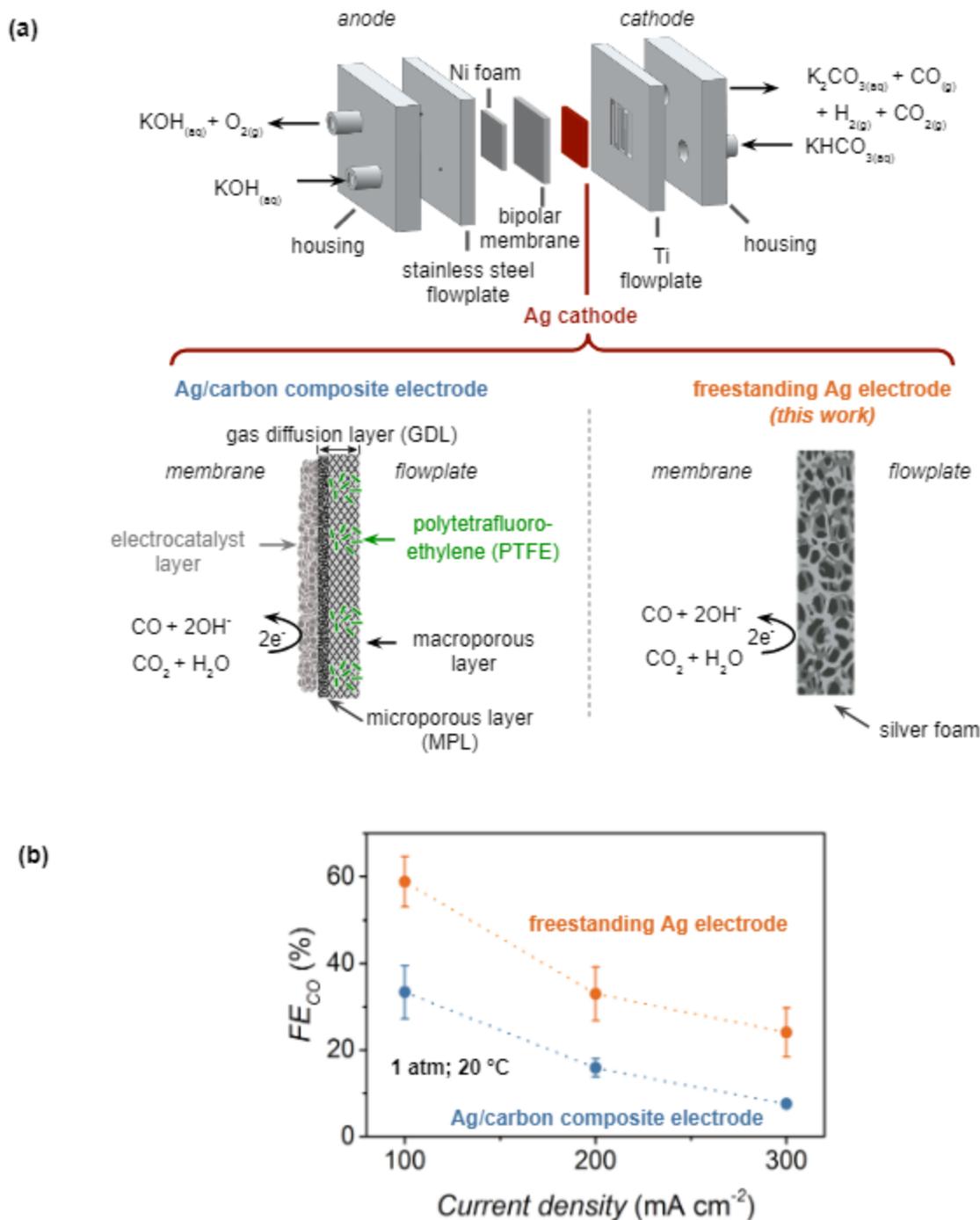
**Figure 1.** Thermal  $\text{CO}_2$  and sorbent recovery (black) and electrolytic  $\text{CO}_2$  recovery (orange) processes that convert captured atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  to CO. For the direct air capture process, atmospheric  $\text{CO}_{2(g)}$  is captured by hydroxide solutions and then regenerated from  $\text{CaCO}_{3(s)}$  in a high temperature calcination step ( $>900\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ ). The recovered  $\text{CO}_2$  typically needs to be pressurized prior to electrolysis or storage (black). For the bicarbonate electrolysis process, carbon capture solution ( $\text{HCO}_3^-$ ) is electrochemically converted to CO without the need for energy intensive calcination and pressurization steps (orange). The hydroxide byproduct can be recycled for use as a carbon capture solution in the bicarbonate electrolysis pathway.

Our program is therefore seeking methods that avoid the calcination and pressurizations steps by developing reactor architectures that utilize bicarbonate solutions obtained during the  $\text{CO}_2$  capture process as the cathodic feedstock while regenerating the  $\text{OH}^-$  sorbent for subsequent carbon capture (Figure 1).<sup>1,13–16</sup> This proposed carbon capture and utilization scheme links  $\text{CO}_2$  electrochemistry with upstream carbon capture without requiring high temperature or pressurization processes. A major technical challenge associated with this scheme is that bicarbonate cannot be directly electrochemically reduced at an industrial-relevant current density ( $\geq 200\text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ ). Bicarbonate must first react with protons to form  $\text{CO}_2$ , which is the electrocatalytically active species that can be reduced to CO or other

carbon-containing products. The management of this acid-base chemistry (Eq. 6) in tandem with electrochemistry (Eq. 5) therefore requires the careful design of an electrolyzer before liquid bicarbonate feedstocks can be deemed suitable for electrolysis. It is for these reasons that we are seeking ways to have protons delivered from a membrane, such as a bipolar membrane (BPM), for reaction with bicarbonate to form electrocatalytically active CO<sub>2</sub> at the membrane-catalyst interface (Figure 2a).<sup>15,17</sup>



For electrolyzers that use a gaseous CO<sub>2</sub> feedstock, gas diffusion electrodes (GDEs) are designed to support an electrocatalyst layer while also managing the water content at the cathodic side of the membrane electrode assembly (MEA). Flooding of the MEA with water needs to be avoided because it decreases the performance of electrolyzers by hindering CO<sub>2</sub> access to the catalyst layer. Excess water also promotes the undesirable hydrogen evolution reaction (HER) to occur over the CO<sub>2</sub> reduction reaction (CO<sub>2</sub>RR).<sup>18</sup> GDEs (i.e., carbon composite electrode) used for electrolysis of gaseous CO<sub>2</sub> typically consist of a three-layer structure containing: (i) a conductive, porous carbon cloth positioned against the cathodic flow plate; (ii) a conductive and hydrophobic microporous layer (MPL) of carbon black treated with polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE); and (iii) a catalyst layer between the MPL and the membrane (Figure 2a). The hydrophobicity of the MPL serves to mitigate flooding, and the mitigated flooding helps reduce ohmic losses and increases the accessible active area of the catalyst layer.<sup>19</sup>



**Figure 2.** The free-standing silver foam electrode used in this work and its performance. (a) first row: schematic depiction of the flow electrolyzer with bipolar membrane (BPM), silver cathodes and bicarbonate feedstock; second row: schematic depictions of the conventional carbon composite electrode with a microporous layer (MPL) and polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE) treatment, and the free-standing silver foam electrode. Bicarbonate ions are the reactants for *in-situ* CO<sub>2</sub> generation at the membrane-catalyst interface, and the produced CO<sub>2</sub> is subsequently

reduced to CO (see Eqs. 5 and 6). (b)  $FE_{CO}$  as a function of current density for the carbon composite electrode and freestanding silver electrode (geometrical surface area = 4 cm<sup>2</sup>; bicarbonate solution at 20 °C; electrolyzer operated at 1 atm).

While these composite electrode designs are effective for the electrolysis of *gaseous* CO<sub>2</sub>, they are not necessarily effective for the electrolysis of *liquid* feedstocks such as bicarbonate. Consider that commercial liquid-fed electrolyzer systems (e.g., water electrolyzers and chlor-alkali electrolyzers),<sup>20,21</sup> use free-standing electrodes and not the carbon composite electrodes as described above. Free-standing porous nickel (alloys), or steel electrodes coated with nickel, are capable of operating at lower overpotentials with longer lifetimes relative to carbon composite electrodes in alkaline water electrolyzers.<sup>22,23</sup> Commercial chlor-alkali electrolyzers also use titanium-based and nickel-based free-standing electrodes.<sup>21,24,25</sup> Moreover, hydrophobic composite electrode inhibit the transport of solvated HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, therefore adversely affecting the *in-situ* CO<sub>2</sub> generation (*i*-CO<sub>2</sub>) at the membrane-electrode interface.<sup>26</sup> Replacing hydrophobic composite electrode with metallic porous electrodes is anticipated to facilitate the transport of solvated ions and improve the performance of the bicarbonate electrolyzer.<sup>27</sup>

These collective observations inspired us to test porous free-standing silver foam electrodes for liquid bicarbonate fed electrolysis. Not only these free-standing electrodes simplify the assembly of electrolyzers relative to conventional composite electrodes (which require a multi-step fabrication process), these metallic electrodes mediate remarkably effective bicarbonate electrolysis (e.g., a faradaic efficiency for CO production ( $FE_{CO}$ ) of 95% at 100 mA cm<sup>-2</sup> and 55% at 400 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>) and incur a mere 3% loss in  $FE_{CO}$  over 80 h of sustained electrolysis at 65 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>. These results are superior to that of our control bicarbonate electrolysis experiments with carbon composite electrodes (i.e., multilayer structure of a catalyst layer adjacent to a hydrophobic GDL as a support) that has demonstrated high

performance in gaseous-fed CO<sub>2</sub> electrolyzers. We achieved these state-of-the-art results by systematically optimizing the pressure, temperature, and flow plate design of the bicarbonate electrolyzer. Moreover, we show that the catalytic activity of our metallic electrodes is not impaired by the majority of flue gas impurities which commonly form NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>, SO<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup>, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, Cl<sup>-</sup> in CO<sub>2</sub> capture solutions.<sup>28</sup> The bicarbonate electrolyzers reported herein achieve promising CO formation rates relative to state-of-art gaseous CO<sub>2</sub>-fed electrolyzers (Table S1), providing an opportunity to close the current upstream carbon capture loop and to avoid the costly calcination and pressurization steps.

## Results and Discussion

All electrolysis experiments were conducted in a two-electrode MEA electrolyzer (Figure 2a).<sup>15,29</sup> The MEA consisted of a fully hydrated Fumasep bipolar membrane (BPM) sandwiched between the anode (Ni foam) and the cathode (conventional GDEs or silver foam-based electrodes). The BPM was operated in reverse-bias mode, with the cation exchange layer facing the cathode.<sup>17</sup> A peristaltic pump delivered 1.0 M KOH to the anode at a constant flow rate of 40 ml min<sup>-1</sup>. The 3.0 M KHCO<sub>3</sub> cathode electrolyte was delivered separately at a constant flow rate of 100 ml min<sup>-1</sup>. The headspace of the cathode electrolyte reservoir was purged with N<sub>2</sub> at 160 sccm over the course of each experiment. Product gases and N<sub>2</sub> in the headspace of the cathode electrolyte reservoir were delivered to an in-line gas chromatograph (GC) with data analysis and peak integration completed in PeakSimple software. .

The bicarbonate electrolysis experiments were designed to test modifications of the cathodes: carbon composite electrode and silver foam electrode (Figure 2a). Silver was selected as the cathode of choice because it mediates effective conversion of CO<sub>2</sub> to CO.<sup>30,31</sup> The silver foam electrode (2 cm × 2 cm × 150 μm) were prepared by etching commercially available silver foam in dilute nitric acid (30% v/v HNO<sub>3</sub>) for 10 seconds.

Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) imaging of the etched surface of the silver foam contains a high number of cracks and holes (Figure S1). The X-ray diffraction (XRD) measurements of the foam electrode indicated signals at 38°, 44° and 64° corresponding to metallic silver (111), (200) and (220) facets, respectively (Figure S2). These signals are consistent with metallic silver ( $\text{Ag}^0$ ) being the main constituent of the samples. The electrochemical surface areas (ECSA) of the silver electrocatalyst in the silver foam electrode, estimated from the double-layer capacitance ( $C_{dl}$ ) measurements (Figure S3), were significantly higher than that of the carbon composite electrode. The etching process increased the ECSA of the silver foam electrode by ~1.2-fold. Beyond changes in ECSAs, the specific activity of the acid-etched silver foam electrode was also measured to be higher than the untreated foam. This effect made be due to the rougher curved surfaces that have been reported to stabilize  $\text{CO}_2^-$  intermediates (i.e., a higher roughness factor; roughness factor = ECSA / geometric electrode area) (Figure S4).<sup>32</sup> The silver foam electrodes reported here were etched unless stated otherwise.

### ***Effect of the silver foam cathode on bicarbonate electrolysis***

Both the silver foam and carbon composite electrodes were tested in an electrolyzer under constant applied current densities of 100, 200 and 300  $\text{mA cm}^{-2}$ . Control experiments were performed with a CeTech<sup>®</sup> woven carbon cloth support containing a layer of silver nanoparticles. This carbon support contains an MPL and PTFE common to gas-fed electrolyzers.<sup>33,34</sup> Electrolysis experiments using carbon composite electrodes at an applied current density of 100  $\text{mA cm}^{-2}$  for 500 seconds yielded a  $\text{FE}_{\text{CO}}$  value of  $33 \pm 6\%$ . This performance metric was exceeded by the silver foam electrode, which achieved a  $\text{FE}_{\text{CO}}$  value of  $59 \pm 6\%$  at 100  $\text{mA cm}^{-2}$ . This difference in  $\text{FE}_{\text{CO}}$  was maintained over a 100-300  $\text{mA cm}^{-2}$  range (Figure 2b). At 100  $\text{mA cm}^{-2}$ , the cell voltage ( $V_{\text{cell}}$ ) of the foam electrode ( $3.6 \pm 0.1$  V) was slightly higher than that of the carbon composite electrode ( $3.4 \pm 0.1$  V, Figure S5). The higher cell voltages obtained with the foam electrodes relative to the carbon composite electrodes

despite porous metals being two orders-of-magnitude more conductive than carbon GDLs (i.e.,  $\sim 10^5 \text{ S m}^{-1}$ <sup>35</sup> *c.f.*  $\sim 10^3 \text{ S m}^{-1}$ )<sup>36</sup>. This difference in cell potentials may therefore be related to a relatively higher tortuosity compared to composite electrodes, the foams retain larger volumes of the electrolyte which consequently introduces a greater solution resistance. Moreover, the contact resistances between the MPL and the membrane is lower.<sup>37</sup> These factors are difficult to experimentally resolve in a dynamic electrolyzer environment. Nevertheless, there are several properties of silver foam electrodes that can be tuned to reduce voltage losses: thickness, pore size distribution, surface roughness, etc.

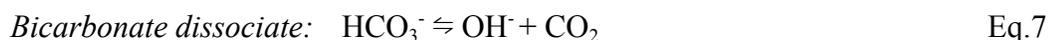
We operated an electrolyzer at  $100 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$  and tracked the amount of CO and CO<sub>2</sub> exiting the electrolyzer by GC to evaluate the CO<sub>2</sub> utilization values for both electrodes. Experiments showed the silver foam electrode containing electrolyzer reached a CO<sub>2</sub> utilization value of  $\sim 40\%$ , which is nearly double that of the composite electrode (Figure S6). We also measured liquid CO<sub>2</sub>RR products formed during the preceding experiments using <sup>1</sup>H NMR spectroscopy to confirm that all FE<sub>formate</sub> values were  $<1\%$  (Figure S7).

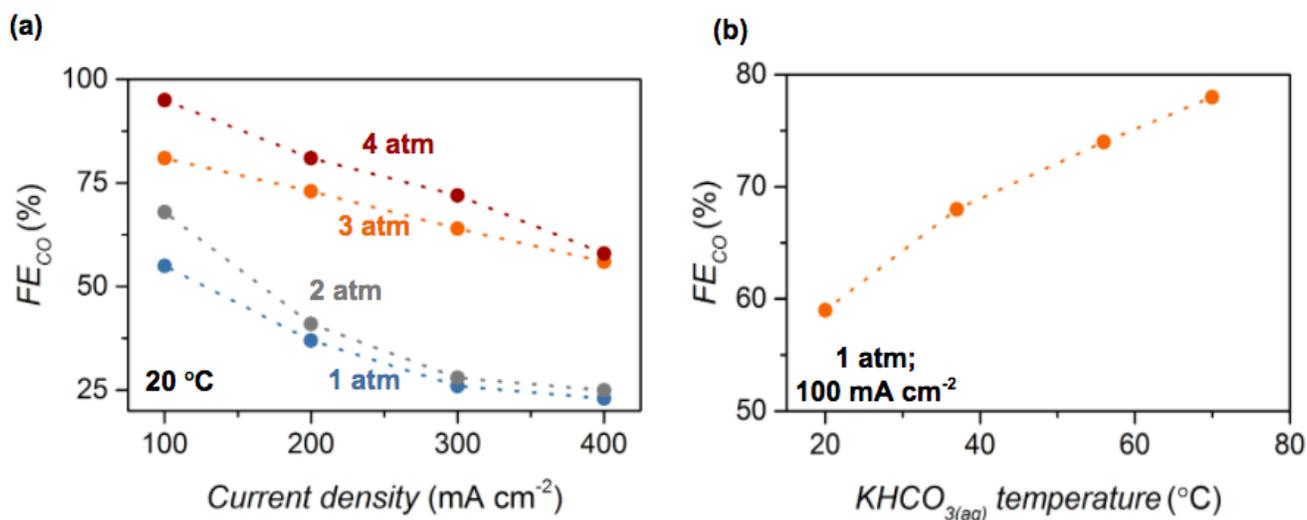
### ***Effect of pressure and temperature on bicarbonate electrolysis***

We conjectured that the CO formation rates from our bicarbonate electrolyzer could be improved by performing electrolysis at elevated temperatures and pressures. At higher pressures, the solubility of CO<sub>2</sub> in aqueous electrolyte increases,<sup>38</sup> which results in more CO<sub>2</sub> available for reaction at the electrolyte–electrocatalyst interface. We tested this hypothesis by constructing a pressurized bicarbonate electrolyzer test station (Figure S8; see Supporting Information for details) and applying constant current densities to our electrolyzer fitted with foam electrodes (Figure 3a). Our results show that increasing the inlet pressure of the electrolyzer from 1-4 atm increased the FE<sub>CO</sub> from 55% to 95% at a current density of  $100 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ . This result sets the benchmark for electrolytic CO formation from a CO<sub>2</sub>RR electrolyzer that uses a liquid feedstock (Table S1). Moreover, at these elevated pressures we

observed a less pronounced decrease in  $FE_{CO}$  relative to ambient conditions as the current density was increased from 100 to 400 mA cm<sup>-2</sup> (i.e., the  $FE_{CO}$  at 400 mA cm<sup>-2</sup> remained above 55% for an inlet pressure of 4 atm, but decreased to 23% at 1 atm). These observations support the notion that increasing the electrolyzer pressure increases the kinetic supply of CO<sub>2</sub> to the electrocatalyst, and consequently, the rate of CO formation.

We also observed that the efficiency of bicarbonate electrolysis could also be improved by increasing the temperature of the electrolyte to 70 °C (Figure 3b). Using the foam electrodes, an electrolyte temperature at the electrolyzer inlet of 70 °C yielded a  $FE_{CO}$  of 78 at 100 mA cm<sup>-2</sup> with a corresponding voltage of 3.5 V (*c.f.*  $FE_{CO}$  of 59 at 20 °C). Temperature can improve electrolyzer performance (i.e., improved  $FE_{CO}$ ) in a number of ways and they are difficult to experimentally resolve in a dynamic electrolyzer environment. Higher temperatures increase CO<sub>2</sub> generation by increasing bicarbonate dissociation kinetics (Eq. 7),<sup>39</sup> and shifting the equilibrium towards CO<sub>2</sub> (Eq. 6,  $\Delta H = 11.77$  kJ mol<sup>-1</sup>) (Figure S9). These reactions also increase the pH, thereby suppressing HER (Figure S10).<sup>40</sup> This observation is supported by the GC measurements. Higher temperatures would yield faster mass transfer kinetics for HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and CO<sub>2</sub>, which would also be expected to enhance the rate of bicarbonate electrolysis.<sup>41</sup>



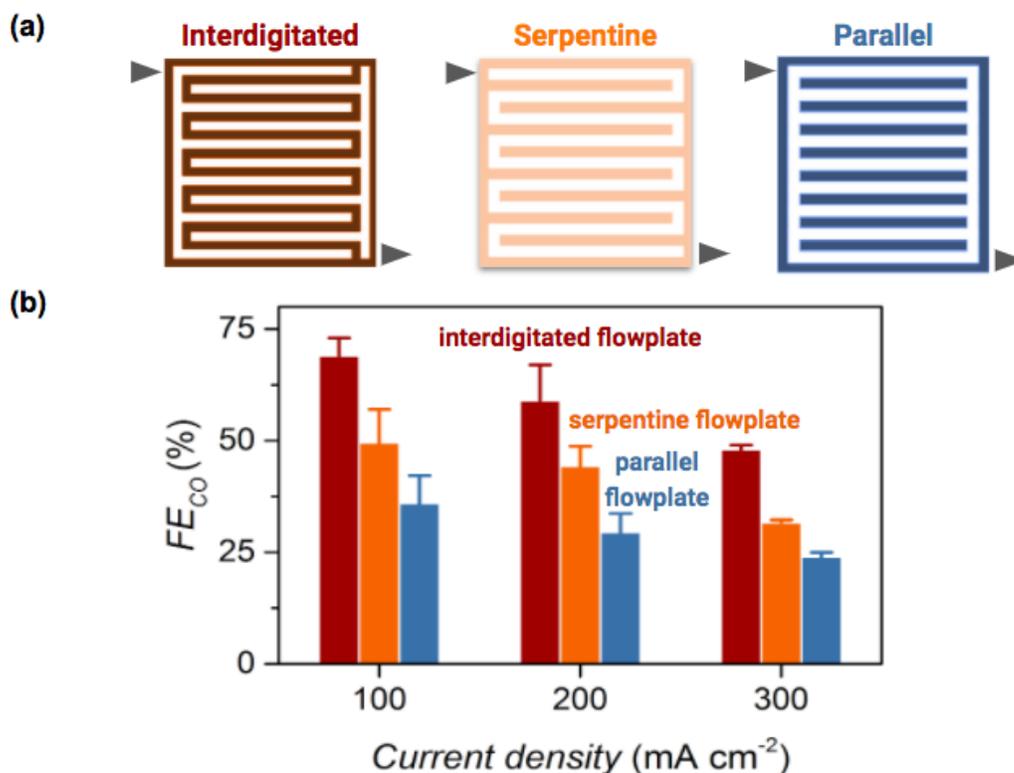


**Figure 3. The impact of operation conditions (pressure and temperature) on the bicarbonate electrolysis performance.** (a) FE<sub>CO</sub> values as a function of pressure at different current densities. The pressure of the liquid feedstock was measured at the inlet of the electrolyzer (b) FE<sub>CO</sub> values as a function of bicarbonate temperature (20, 37, 56 and 70 °C, measured at the inlet of the electrolyzer) at 100 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>. The temperature of the bicarbonate solution was measured when the solution entered the cathodic flowplate. All tests were performed with the silver foam electrode.

### *Effect of convective mass transfer and flow plate design on bicarbonate electrolysis*

We then sought to investigate the effect of convective fluid flow in the cathode compartment on the FE<sub>CO</sub>. We first increased the convective mass transport of HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> by increasing the flow rate from 30 to 100 mL min<sup>-1</sup> (Figure S11). This procedure led to an increase in *i*-CO<sub>2</sub>, and, in turn, the selectivity (FE<sub>CO</sub>).<sup>26</sup> The cell voltage did not change over this tested flow rate range.<sup>42</sup> Based on this result, we sought to further improve convective mass transfer in the cathode compartment using different flow pattern geometries (interdigitated, serpentine, and parallel; Figure 4a). These flow plates were 3D printed using an acrylonitrile butadiene styrene (ABS) plastic, coated with silver paint to improve conductivity (Figure S12),<sup>43</sup> and tested in the electrolyzer with the foam electrode (Figure 4b). The electrolyzer with the interdigitated flow pattern exhibited the highest FE<sub>CO</sub> values (69 ± 4% FE<sub>CO</sub> at 100 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>) of the flow plates tested,

without any additional voltage or pressure drop penalty (Figures 4b, S13, S14). Given that mass transfer occurs primarily by convection for the interdigitated flow plate (diffusion dominates parallel and serpentine flow patterns),<sup>44</sup> this result is consistent with convective mass transfer being positively correlated to  $FE_{CO}$ .



**Figure 4.** The impact of flowplates on the bicarbonate electrolyzer performance. (a) Render of interdigitated, serpentine and parallel cathodic flow plate patterns. (b)  $FE_{CO}$  as a function of current density for interdigitated, serpentine, and parallel flow plates tested in the bicarbonate electrolyzer with silver foam electrodes.

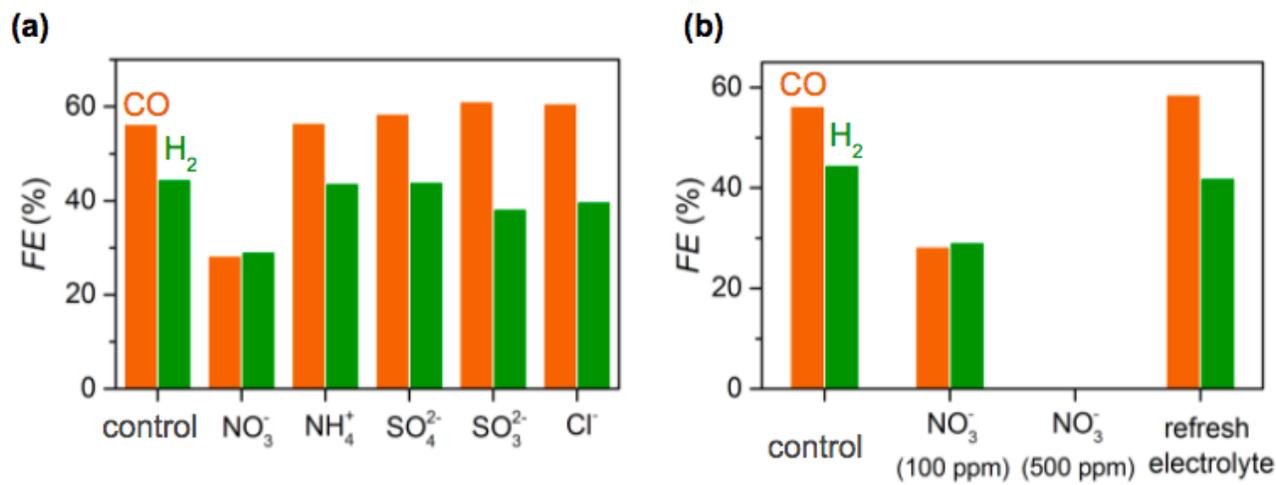
#### *Stability and the effects of flue gas impurities on bicarbonate electrolysis*

Stability studies were performed by electrolyzing 3.0 M bicarbonate over 80 hours at an applied current density of  $65 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$  using an electrolyzer containing silver foam based electrodes or carbon composite electrodes (Figure S15). (We recorded data at  $65 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$  instead of  $100 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$  only to reduce the rate at which the bicarbonate reagent concentration decreased with time.) Bicarbonate concentrations were held constant by manually refreshing the 3.0 M  $\text{KHCO}_3$  electrolyte 500 seconds

before each GC measurement. Unlike the catholyte solution, the KOH anolyte solution was not refreshed, since the continuous supply of OH<sup>-</sup> from the anion exchange side of the BPM is expected to maintain the pH of the anolyte. The FE<sub>CO</sub> decreased by merely 3% over this 80 h period for the silver foam electrode. Notably, the composite electrode exhibited a much larger decrease of 16% over the same time period. Moreover, the same electrode used for this 80 h electrolysis experiment could be reused 3 weeks later without any regeneration steps to yield nearly the same performance (Figure S16). These results demonstrate how a free-standing silver foam electrode does not suffer from silver nanoparticle detachment and stability issues common to conventional carbon composite electrodes.

In an industrial setting, the bicarbonate solution feedstock for our electrolyzer could be sourced from a flue gas CO<sub>2</sub> capture system. Consequently, this bicarbonate solution is expected to be contaminated with nitrogen and sulphur containing compounds (SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>, SO<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup>, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> etc.) originating from combustion products. We tested the impact of these impurities on the catalytic activity of the foam electrode by electrolyzing 3.0 M bicarbonate solutions spiked with 100 ppm of SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>, SO<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup>, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, Cl<sup>-</sup> (Figure 5a). The addition of 100 ppm of SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>, SO<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup>, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, Cl<sup>-</sup> to the bicarbonate solution had no significant impact on the FE<sub>CO</sub> or FE<sub>H<sub>2</sub></sub>. However, we found that the addition of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> to the bicarbonate solution decreased the FE<sub>CO</sub> from 56% to 28%. The total FE also decreased (from 100% to 58%) (Figure 5a). When the NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> concentration was increased from 100 to 500 ppm, no CO or H<sub>2</sub> was formed from the electrolyzer (i.e., the FE<sub>CO</sub> and FE<sub>H<sub>2</sub></sub> decreased to 0%) (Figure 5b). This result is due to the more thermodynamically-favourable NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> reduction outcompeting the CO<sub>2</sub>RR and HER.<sup>45</sup> This assertion is proved by the restored cell performance observed after switching to a fresh KHCO<sub>3</sub> solution, which shows the negligible long-term impact of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> on the silver foam electrode (Figure 5b). We also found that the *i*-CO<sub>2</sub> generation is independent of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> concentration. These results collectively show that our bicarbonate electrolyzer has a higher tolerance towards impurities than gaseous CO<sub>2</sub>-fed

CO<sub>2</sub>RR electrolyzers which suffer from electrolyzer failure upon addition of flue gas contaminants into the CO<sub>2</sub> feed.<sup>10</sup>



**Figure 5. The impact of flue gas impurities on bicarbonate electrolysis performance.** (a) FE<sub>CO</sub> and FE<sub>H<sub>2</sub></sub> in the 3.0 M KHCO<sub>3</sub> solutions containing 100 ppm impurities. (b) FE of CO and H<sub>2</sub> decreases with the increase of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> concentration, but the effect is reversible. All electrochemical tests were performed at a constant applied current density of 100 mA cm<sup>-2</sup> with the silver foam electrode

## Conclusion

A key outcome of this study is that we show that aqueous bicarbonate can be electrolyzed into a single carbon-based product with the faradaic efficiencies of 95% at 100 mA cm<sup>-2</sup> and 55% at 400 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>. These values are higher than any known CO<sub>2</sub> electrolyzer that uses an aqueous feedstock saturated with CO<sub>2</sub>, and are nearly commensurate with electrolyzers that rely on gaseous CO<sub>2</sub> feedstocks. We were able to achieve these performance metrics by using a free-standing metallic cathodic electrode, which we found to be more effective for electrolyzing liquid bicarbonate solutions than the carbon composite electrode widely used for CO<sub>2</sub>RR electrolysis. The electrolytic performance of this foam can be improved with an acid etching process, operation at higher pressure and temperatures, and also by optimizing flow pattern geometries. Importantly, the free-standing electrodes are also far more stable

than the conventional GDEs that suffer from catalyst detachment, and the system is generally effective when exposed to common impurities. The free-standing electrodes are also easier to work with when assembling the electrolyzer, and they can be re-used without further regeneration steps. We therefore contend that this architecture provides a viable path for making CO<sub>2</sub> electrolysis compatible with carbon capture schemes.

### **Author contributions**

C.P.B. supervised the project. Z.Z. and E.L. conceived the study and Z.Z., E.L., F.H., D.S., generated the figures. Z.Z. and E.L. designed experiments. Z.Z., S.R., G.S. and D.W. performed experiments. D.W. designed the instrumentation for the pressurized experiments. All authors contributed to the final manuscript writing.

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**Conflicts of Interest:**

The authors have filed a patent related to this work.

**Supporting Information:**

Experimental methods, electrochemical surface area (ECSA) measurements and Faradaic efficiency calculation, liquid product detection, diagram of the experimental setup, SEM images of the silver foam cathodes, XRD of the silver foam cathodes, CO<sub>2</sub> and in-situ generated CO<sub>2</sub> flow rates, <sup>1</sup>H-NMR spectra for electrolytes, and silver foam electrode recycle experimental data are included in the Supporting Information.

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