

1 Real-time Detection of Acetaldehyde in Electrochemical CO Reduction 2 on Cu Single Crystals

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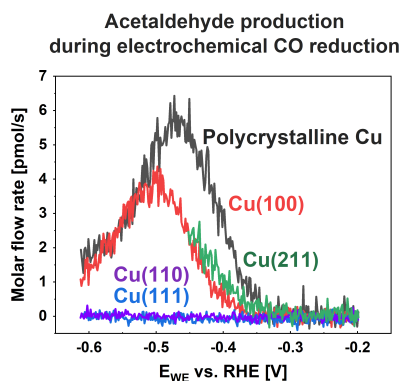
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19 Abstract

20 *Copper is known to be versatile in producing various products from electrochemical CO₂ reduction reaction*
21 *(eCO₂RR), and the product preference depends on reaction environments. Literature have reported*
22 *alkaline electrolytes favor acetate production, and proposed hypotheses on the reaction pathway*
23 *accordingly. Our work shows acetate can also come from the non-faradaic chemical oxidation of*
24 *acetaldehyde in alkaline environments, which occurs quite rapidly compared to the typical measurement*
25 *time interval. This adds uncertainties into both acetaldehyde and acetate production. With an*
26 *electrochemistry-mass spectrometry combined (EC-MS) system, we present real-time detection of*
27 *acetaldehyde as a function of applied potential on single crystal Cu electrodes during electrochemical CO*
28 *reduction reaction (eCORR). In 0.1M KOH, the (100) and (211) facets had an acetaldehyde production onset*
29 *of -0.35 V vs. RHE, whereas (111) and (110) exhibited no detectable acetaldehyde production up to -0.6 V*
30 *vs. RHE. Moreover, the quantified acetaldehyde-to-ethylene production ratio provides insightful*
31 *information on the acetaldehyde-to-ethylene bifurcation point in eCO₂RR, and thus help understand the*
32 *reaction pathways.*

1 TOC Graphic

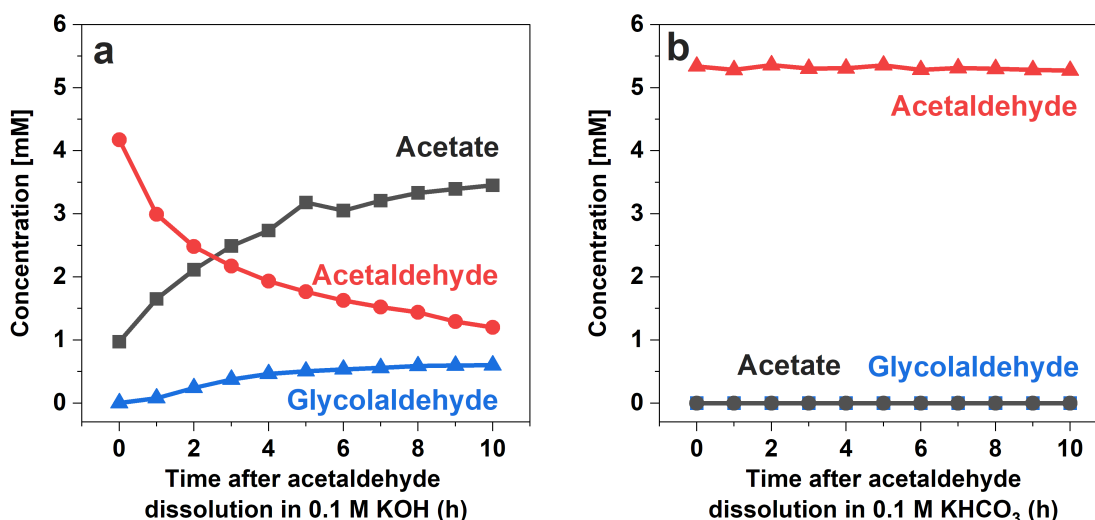


2
3 Electrochemical CO₂ reduction (eCO₂RR) stores renewable energy in chemical bonds by converting CO₂
4 into chemicals and fuels. This strategy provides an avenue for closing the carbon balance and curtailing
5 CO₂ emissions. Copper (Cu) is known to be the only monometallic metal that produces multiple
6 hydrocarbons and oxygenates, and the product selectivity is dependent on the reaction environment.¹ As
7 CO₂ forms buffering carbonates and bicarbonates with water, this limits the ability to modify the reaction
8 environment. However, the first stable intermediate in CO₂ reduction on copper is well known to be CO.
9 As CO does not form pH buffering species, electrochemical CO reduction (eCORR) can work as a CO₂
10 reduction proxy allowing us to vary pH. Using this approach, previous studies have reported that alkaline
11 conditions favor producing acetate, and proposed hypotheses of the formation pathways of acetate
12 production in eCORR²⁻⁸. Recent theoretical models along with experimental support suggested acetate
13 formation via a non-faradaic homogenous reaction of a ketene-based entity⁸.

14 In this letter, we demonstrate that instead of only being produced directly from eCO₂RR, acetate can also
15 be formed by non-faradaic chemical oxidation of acetaldehyde in alkaline solutions. Therefore, time delay
16 in measuring the post-reaction electrolyte may lead to an overestimated productivity on acetate while
17 underestimating acetaldehyde productivity, and thus mislead predictions on the formation pathways of
18 both products. To eliminate the issue due to delayed acetaldehyde measurements, we performed real-
19 time *operando* detection of acetaldehyde production on Cu electrodes during eCORR on an
20 electrochemistry-mass spectrometry (EC-MS) system. The necessity, feasibility, and sensitivity of real-time
21 acetaldehyde production detection were validated on polycrystalline Cu first, and then on single crystal Cu
22 electrodes (Cu(hkl)). The presented potential- and facet-dependent acetaldehyde production as well as
23 acetaldehyde vs. ethylene production bifurcation provides valuable mechanistic information on the yet-
24 to-be-fully-understood eCORR pathways.

25 ***Why does acetaldehyde need to be measured as soon as possible?*** Previous studies suggest that
26 acetaldehyde and ethanol are both products from eCORR/eCO₂RR, and that ethanol comes from further
27 reduction of acetaldehyde⁹⁻¹¹. However, acetaldehyde is rarely included in the product distribution list,
28 especially in eCORR conducted in alkaline conditions. This is mainly because acetaldehyde is unstable and
29 undergoes complicated chemical conversions in alkaline solutions, such as Cannizzaro reaction, aldol
30 reaction, Tishchenko reaction, self-condensation, and polymerization^{4,12-14}, making measurement of its
31 concentration in post-mortem electrolytes challenging. To investigate the stability of acetaldehyde in
32 alkaline solutions, ~5 mM acetaldehyde was added to 0.1 M KOH and the electrolyte composition was
33 analyzed every hour for 10 hrs with high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC). All major electrolyte

1 species (*i.e.*, concentration > 0.10 mM) are plotted in Figure 1a. There is a clear relationship between
2 acetaldehyde decreasing and acetate increasing, indicating oxidation of acetaldehyde to acetate. While
3 acetaldehyde oxidation to acetate can occur *via* the Cannizzaro reaction - a disproportionation of two
4 acetaldehyde molecules to one acetate and one ethanol molecule^{4,12,15}, the lack of any ethanol entails
5 this is not occurring substantially in our case. During the 24-hour test the electrolyte shifts from
6 transparent to a yellow color (Figure s2), which might be indicative of self-polymerization of acetaldehyde
7 in alkaline conditions^{16,17}. Figure 1a also shows the alpha carbon of acetaldehyde can also be oxidized to
8 form glycolaldehyde in small amounts. Given that small amounts of glycolaldehyde are sometimes seen in
9 eCORR, the non-Faradaic oxidation of acetaldehyde with oxygen from water or the air, happening after the
10 post-reaction sample is collected but before analysis, could be one explanation for this^{18,19}. Taken together,
11 these results show the complexities in accurately measuring acetaldehyde production from eCORR in
12 alkaline conditions.



13
14 *Figure 1. Composition change in the a) 5 mM Acetaldehyde – 0.1 M KOH and b) 5 mM Acetaldehyde – 0.1 M KHCO₃ mixture*
15 *tracked during 10 hrs. Only composites with over 0.1 mM of concentration are shown. Other detected composites with < 1 mM*
16 *concentration, as well as un-assigned HPLC chromatogram peaks, are plotted in Figure S1.*

17 The presence of other components in addition to acetaldehyde at 0 h is due to time delay during the
18 measurement: the HPLC sample was prepared *ca.* 10 min before injecting to the analyzing column, and
19 the analysis took another ~30 min before the results could be acquired. This further demonstrates the fast
20 conversion of acetaldehyde in alkaline and stresses the need for real-time detection in eCORR. In contrast,
21 acetaldehyde degradation was not found to occur in an electrolyte of 0.1 M KHCO₃ (pH 6.8) over 10 hours
22 (Figure 1b), which confirms the degradation is caused by the alkalinity of the electrolyte.

23 It should be noted that any industrially relevant CO electrolysis will need to operate at high current density.
24 Since stoichiometrically CO reduction always produces OH⁻ along with products at the cathode, the result
25 is that CO electrolysis will always occur in alkaline conditions at equilibrium. Previous work has shown that
26 even if a pH buffering carbonate solution is used initially, the solution gets converted to an alkaline solution
27 once equilibrium is reached (as the carbonate degasses as CO₂ at an acid-producing anode)²⁰.

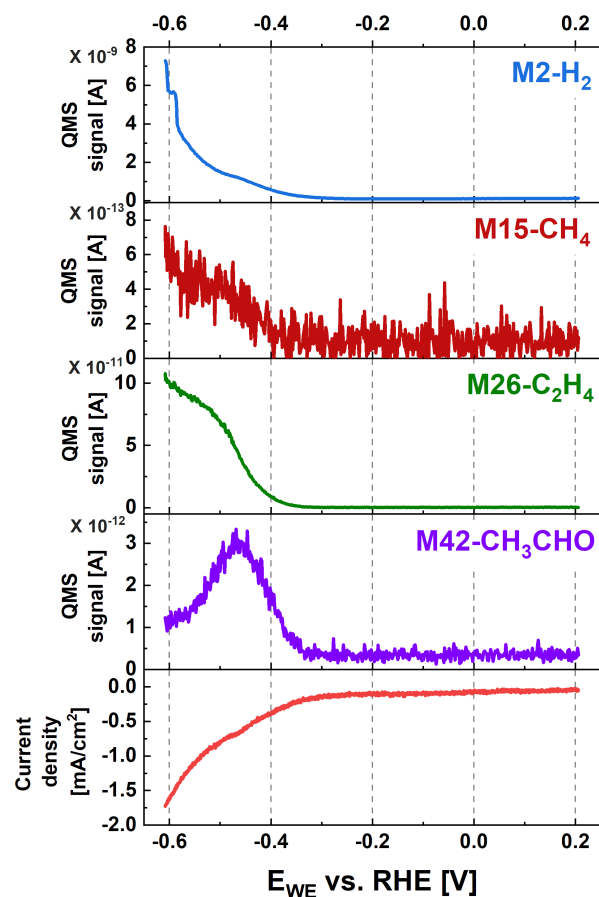
28 Previous studies have shown that alkaline environment favor acetate production, and proposed some
29 hypotheses on acetate reaction pathways accordingly^{2-6,8,21}. However, it is possible that the promoted

1 acetate production observed in alkaline is at least partially due to the abovementioned alkaline-induced
2 acetaldehyde oxidation. Therefore, analyzing liquid products in alkaline electrolytes immediately after the
3 reaction is the best strategy to mitigate potential impacts from the alkalinity of the post-reaction
4 electrolyte. Yet, in the case where immediate measurement is technically unfeasible, the authors suggest
5 neutralizing the electrolyte before analysis to effectively keep acetaldehyde and acetate stable and thus
6 improve the precision of liquid product measurement.

7 **Real-time detection of acetaldehyde production in eCORR with EC-MS.** As the most accurate way to
8 measure acetaldehyde would be to measure it in real time, a device such as an electrochemical mass
9 spectrometer (EC-MS) is perfectly suited for this need. Briefly, an EC-MS allows the removal of vapor
10 products instantaneously and then directly transfers the vapor into a mass spectrometer (MS). This allows
11 product analysis in the sub-seconds time scale. Therefore, an EC-MS enables us to resolve issues with
12 acetaldehyde degradation due to the electrolytes' alkalinity. Further details regarding the working
13 mechanism of the EC-MS have been published elsewhere ²².

14 One of the complexities of using MS with CO₂ or CO electrolysis is that multiple products are produced
15 simultaneously, and they are ionized to fragments with identical m/z in the MS, making it challenging to
16 differentiate different products. Specifically, the applied electron energy (EE) should not be so high that
17 the target analyte molecules are severely fragmented and generate too many small fragments (*e.g.*, CH₂⁺,
18 CH⁺, CO⁺, *etc.*) that are shared by most hydrocarbons and oxygenates while on the other hand, an
19 excessively low EE would not effectively ionize the target molecules. Furthermore, since acetaldehyde and
20 ethanol have similar molecular structures and thus similar ionized fragments, their differentiation requires
21 optimizing the EE. Fortunately, the EC-MS we used allowed us to vary EE from 19 eV to 70 eV. This enables
22 us to vary the degree of fragmentation of different products. The determined EE with the optimal
23 sensitivity towards acetaldehyde and even ethanol was at 28 eV. The exact details of why 28 eV was used
24 are described further in the supporting information.

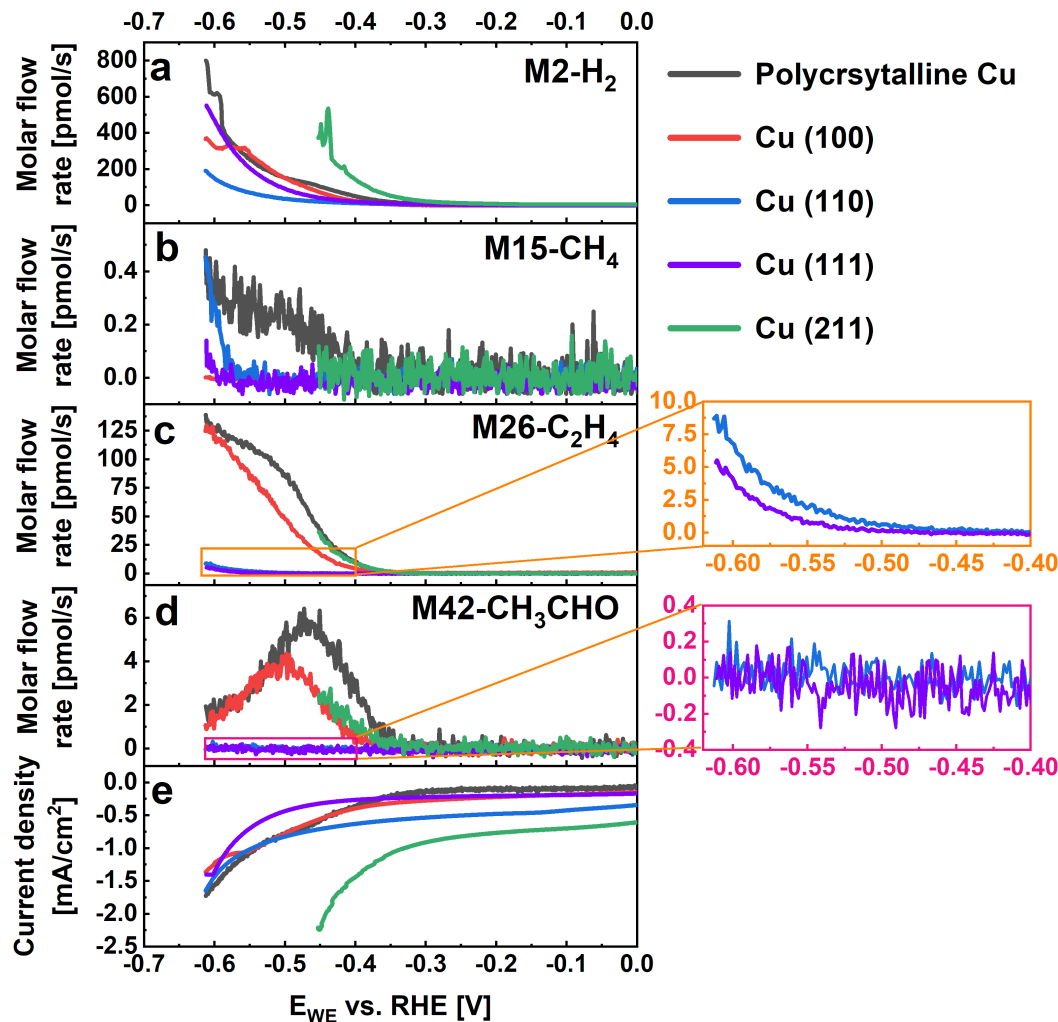
25 Figure 2 plots the linear sweep voltammetry (LSV) scans and tracked m/z fragments of corresponding
26 species as a function of the polycrystalline Cu working electrode potential (E_{WE}) during eCORR. The
27 advantage of the EC-MS comes into play as evidenced by a highly time-resolved measurement
28 (demonstrated in Figure S8) in ethylene production as shown in Figure 2c. In Figure 2b, methane
29 production is also observed, though the low signal-to-noise ratio is indicative of the typical low methane
30 selectivity for CO reduction in high pH electrolytes ². However, the most interesting peak is that of the
31 acetaldehyde at M42 (Figure 2e). There is a sharp exponential increase starting at -0.35 V vs. RHE and
32 decreases at more cathodic potentials starting at *ca.* -0.48 V vs. RHE. This could suggest that the
33 acetaldehyde decrease is due to a further conversion to ethanol. As ethanol has a much lower vapor
34 pressure than acetaldehyde at 25 °C (0.07 bar vs. 1.07 bar ²³), the sensitivity of ethanol in the MS is
35 relatively low. From Figure S7, the increment in M31 is so low that it is within the noise or possibly related
36 to other factors. Furthermore, at such low signals, the C¹²O¹⁸ isotopes (originating from the carrier gas CO)
37 could be chemically ionized by H₂⁺ (coming from HER), leading to a M31 signal being detected. Thus, on
38 this basis, our analysis is limited to only acetaldehyde for *in situ* liquid product analysis. With the
39 demonstrated real-time detection of acetaldehyde on the EC-MS system, the next section is on the
40 mechanistic studies on eCORR on single crystal Cu electrodes. Calibration of acetaldehyde and other
41 products including hydrogen, methane and ethylene are also carried out and presented in detail in SI-S3.
42 All further figures are presented in terms of mols rather than MS signal.



1
 2 *Figure 2. Linear sweep voltammetry scans and deconvoluted MS signals of electrochemical CO reduction on a polycrystalline Cu*
 3 *electrode in 0.1 M KOH. The scan rate was 2 mV/s to keep the system at a pseudo-steady state. Initially, the Cu electrode was kept*
 4 *at 0.2 V vs. RHE for 5 min to reduce oxidized Cu on the surface to its metallic state, then started LSV scan from 0.2 V without going back to*
 5 *OCV. The same scales are used for the same m/z and electrochemistry data on the two metals.*

6 **Facet-dependent production distribution on Cu in eCORR.** CO electrolysis was subsequently conducted in
 7 0.1 M KOH on four Cu single crystal electrodes: (100), (110), (111), (211), and compared with the
 8 polycrystalline results, as shown in Figure 3.

9 Noticeably, the total current density at 0 V vs. RHE on Cu (110) and Cu (211) was relatively high (Figure 3e).
 10 This current was well reproducible over multiple tests on each facet. Since each Cu electrode was reduced
 11 at 0 V vs. RHE for 5 min before eCORR started, the reduction of oxidized Cu should not be the reason. On
 12 the other hand, oxygen reduction reaction (ORR) is a possible explanation. Considering the cell
 13 configuration (Figure S13), there could be a very small amount of air dissolved in the electrolyte, and that
 14 ORR was operating with a 0.77 V overpotential at 0 V vs. RHE²⁴, it is very likely to be mass transfer limited.
 15 However, since the consumption of O₂ was so low that it was below the detection limit, the change in M32
 16 (descriptor for O₂) signal intensity was not observed. Moreover, as OH⁻ is produced from ORR, the (local)
 17 pH would increase which might also influence the current density. However, there was no literature that
 18 could be found explaining the facet or pH dependence of ORR on metallic Cu electrodes in alkaline
 19 environments, thus we cannot draw a full conclusion on the unexpected current. Nevertheless, the main
 20 argument regarding facet-dependent product preference is not influenced. More analysis regarding this
 21 can be found in SI-S4.4.



1
2 Figure 3. Electrochemical CO reduction performance comparison among polycrystalline Cu and single crystals in 0.1 M KOH. LSV
3 scans start from 0 V vs. RHE until the potentiostat is overloaded, at the scan rate of 2 mV/s. The working electrode was kept at 0
4 V vs. RHE for 5 min to reduce oxidized Cu to its metallic state, then continued with an LSV without going back to OCV. All MS signals
5 are converted to the molar flow rate (a-d) of the corresponding species. Magnified regions of panels c and d in the boxes are shown
6 to the right. In panel c (M26-C₂H₄), (211) (green) and pc (black) overlapped.

7 In terms of eCORR performance, both the (111) and (110) facets exhibit higher onset overpotential and
8 lower activity of all detected products compared to the polycrystalline Cu. For both these facets ethylene
9 (Figure 3c) is the dominant eCORR product yet occurs at a *ca.* 200 mV higher overpotential than the
10 polycrystalline Cu. For CH₄ (Figure 3b), the (111) and (110) also have similar onset potentials with the (110)
11 being slightly more active. Previous Raman and DFT studies have found that (110) binds *CO the strongest
12 among the three low-index facets^{25,26,27}, and that *CO dimerization is more favorable on the square sites
13 on the Cu(100) geometry²⁸⁻³⁰, *CO protonation to CH₄ is preferred on Cu(110). This helps explain the
14 higher CH₄ activity on (110) compared to the (111) facet.

15 Acetaldehyde was not found on (111) or (110) facets (Figure 3d). This is most likely to be either because
16 acetaldehyde was not produced or the produced amount was below the detection limit, again which we
17 can attribute to the low activity of *CO dimerization³¹⁻³⁴. It should be noted that the lack of acetaldehyde
18 is in contrast to the work of Hori on Cu(110), where substantial amounts of acetaldehyde were observed.

1 ^{31,35–37}. However, the difference may be attributed to that Hori used a more neutral pH and operated at
2 850 mV higher overpotential. It may also be that not only the produced amount was minimal, but
3 acetaldehyde's further reduction to ethanol was so fast that acetaldehyde has been consumed already
4 before being detected. Comparing product preference on the three low-index Cu facets (*i.e.* (111), (100),
5 and (110)), ethylene is the most favored on (100), which is in line with most previous Cu (hkl) studies both
6 experimentally ^{31,38,39} and theoretically ^{34,40,41}. Unlike many other single crystal studies works, we also
7 include the (211), which shows an onset potential similar to the (100), but a sharper rise in activity as the
8 potential is increased.

9 The onset potential of acetaldehyde (Figure 3d) and ethylene (Figure 3c) on polycrystalline Cu are
10 substantially earlier than methane (Figure 3b), similar to what is on Cu(100) and Cu(211). This suggests
11 that on polycrystalline Cu acetaldehyde and ethylene are both limited by C-C coupling whereas methane
12 is generated through a separate mechanism, thus agreeing with previous findings both experimentally and
13 theoretically ¹.

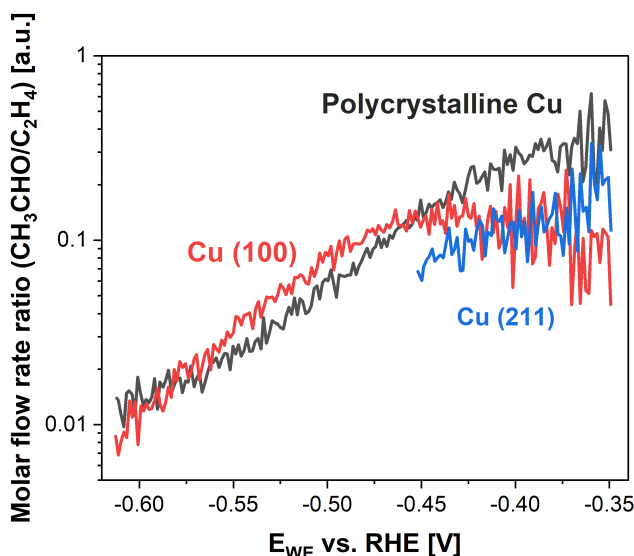
14 The Cu(211) facet could not reach a potential more cathodic than *ca.* -0.46 V due to gas bubble formation
15 (Figure 3e). Yet, within the scanned potential window, its ethylene (Figure 3c) and acetaldehyde (Figure
16 3d) formation acts similarly to polycrystalline Cu and Cu(100).

17 Previous *operando* EC-STM studies have revealed that both polycrystalline Cu and Cu(110) undergo surface
18 restructuring under eCORR conditions to a more Cu(100)-rich topmost surface, while the native Cu(111)
19 and Cu(100) surfaces do not undergo this reconstruction. This facet-dependent surface restructuring might
20 explain the (100)-like eCORR performance of polycrystalline Cu and Cu(110) in these previous studies. ^{42–}
21 ⁴⁴ However, the previous restructuring investigation was conducted at a constant potential (-0.2 ~ -0.3 V)
22 for 1h, while the presented eCORR data were collected within 5~6 min with LSV scans. In addition, given
23 that the above literature show both polycrystalline Cu and (110) crystals undergo restructuring on the
24 same time scale, and that Figure 3 only exhibits the similarity of Cu(100) with polycrystalline Cu but not
25 with Cu(110), restructuring may not be responsible for the (100)-like polycrystalline Cu here.

26 **Potential- and facet-dependent acetaldehyde/ethylene branching point.** One of the key issues in CO₂
27 electrolysis is determining the branching point between ethylene and ethanol. Literature have shown that
28 acetaldehyde is the direct precursor of ethanol, indicating the above branching happens between ethylene
29 and acetaldehyde ^{7,13,21,30}. Moreover, previous findings suggested that lower overpotential tends to favor
30 oxygenates over hydrocarbons ^{2,42,44–46} but with a limited precision at which potential their branching
31 occurs. To give more insight into this issue, Figure 4 plots the ratio of acetaldehyde/ethylene on
32 polycrystalline Cu, Cu(211), and Cu(100), which provides a detailed quantitative understanding of how
33 these two species relate. Cu(111) and (110) facets are not plotted in Figure 4 because they do not produce
34 acetaldehyde (Figure 3d).

35 In addition to potential dependency, the results also exhibit a facet dependency of the branching,
36 especially in the -0.35 V ~ -0.45 V vs. RHE potential window. By plotting the data on a log scale, it is clearly
37 seen that the acetaldehyde/ethylene ratio of polycrystalline Cu and Cu(211) decreases exponentially
38 across the detected potential window, whereas the ratio on the (100) facet appears to be a constant ratio
39 at lower overpotentials (> -0.45 V vs. RHE) and then shifts to the exponential decrease at higher
40 overpotentials (< -0.45 V vs. RHE). It is worth mentioning that the signal-to-noise ratio prevents a detailed
41 analysis and the lack of ethanol or acetate detection does limit a full analysis of the major branching.
42 However, Figure 4 still provides a highly unique relationship regarding the potential- and facet-dependency

1 of acetaldehyde/ethylene branching. In coordination with other works, the presented quantitative ratio
2 can provide valuable insights into the further understanding of the selectivity and reaction kinetics of CO₂
3 electrolysis products on copper.



4
5 *Figure 4 Molar flow rate ratio of acetaldehyde-to-ethylene on polycrystalline Cu and Cu(100) facet, respectively. Only the potential*
6 *window after acetaldehyde production onset (ca. -0.35 V vs. RHE) is plotted.*

7 In the present letter, we have first systematically demonstrated the necessity and feasibility of detecting
8 and measuring acetaldehyde production under eCORR conditions on a real-time scale. We then presented
9 the real-time detection of gas (hydrogen, methane, and ethylene) and volatile liquid (acetaldehyde)
10 production on both polycrystalline and single crystal Cu electrodes during eCORR at low overpotentials (<
11 -0.65 V). Results not only revealed a facet-dependent acetaldehyde production, but also exhibited a facet-
12 and potential-dependent acetaldehyde/ethylene production ratio. This quantified acetaldehyde/ethylene
13 ratio provides insightful information on the highly important bifurcation point between the pathway
14 producing these two products in eCORR/eCO₂RR. While the real-time acetaldehyde production detection
15 on polycrystalline and single crystal Cu provides new fundamental data for the field, the importance of
16 this data becomes greatly magnified when we relate it to ethylene production and note the exponential
17 trend of this ratio as a function of potential.

18
19

20 **Notes**

21 The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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25 Chemical grant 9455 (VSustain), and Capturing CO₂ for simultaneous chlorine and ethanol production
26 using sea water and sustainable electricity grant 1115-00007B (CapCO₂).

1 Supporting Information Available

2 Acetaldehyde chemistry in alkaline, optimization of the MS electron energy, validation and quantification
3 of target analytes, experimental methods and details of single crystal quality inspection of Cu(hkl)
4 electrodes and eCORR, electrochemical setup, explanation on the unexpected high current density at 0 V
5 vs. RHE.

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