

# Electrochemical capture and conversion of CO<sub>2</sub> into syngas

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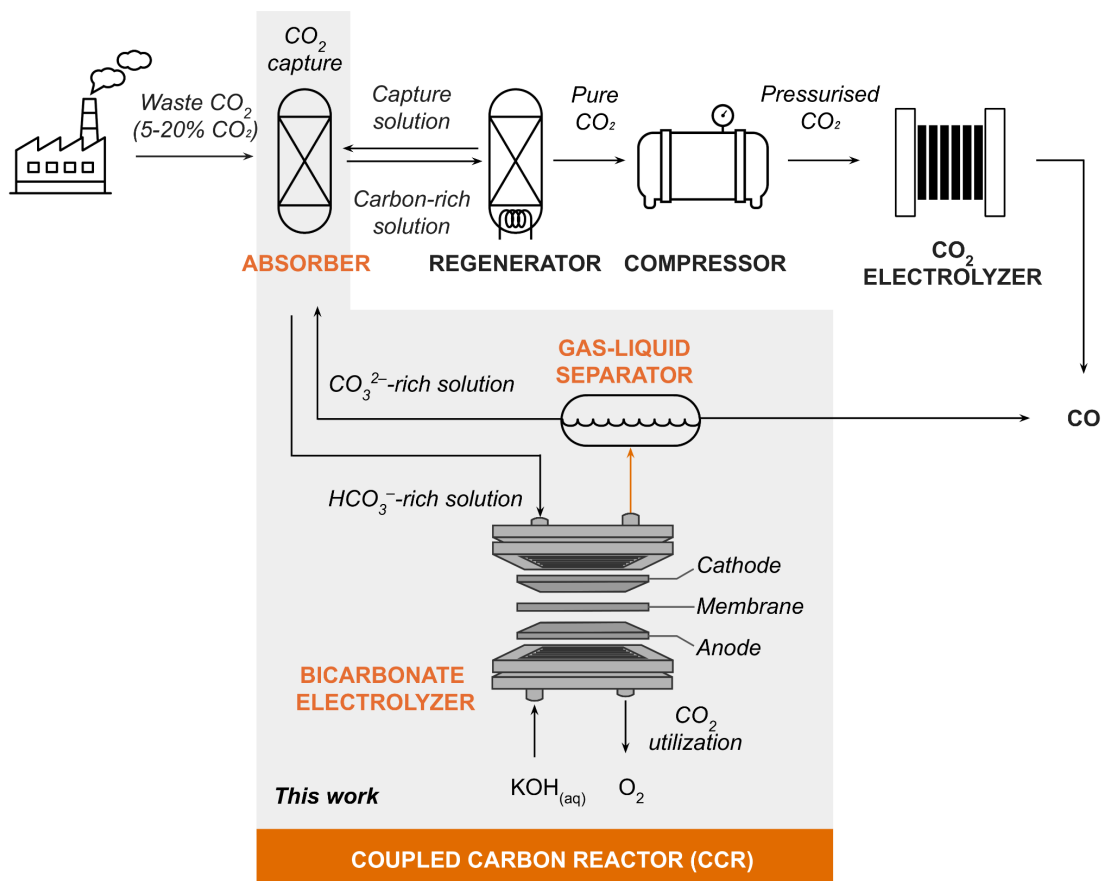
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## Abstract

For waste CO<sub>2</sub> to be electrolytically converted into higher-value chemicals and fuels, electrolyzers that drive the CO<sub>2</sub> reduction reaction need to be integrated with upstream CO<sub>2</sub> capture units. However, this has not yet been demonstrated because of the large operational gap for the capture and conversion steps. Here, we report a coupled carbon reactor that captures and converts CO<sub>2</sub> into syngas with a 1.7:1 ratio of H<sub>2</sub> to CO. The resulting syngas can be utilized in the production of a wide range of valuable chemicals. This CCR uses a packed bed absorption column (“capture unit”) to react alkaline aqueous solution enriched in K<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3(aq)</sub> with CO<sub>2</sub> to form bicarbonate enriched solutions (“reactive carbon solutions”). These reactive carbon solutions are then fed into an electrochemical reactor (“bicarbonate electrolyzer”) to form CO<sub>(g)</sub> and OH<sup>-</sup> product. This alkaline product is then passed through a gas-liquid separator (“separator”) and recycled back to the capture unit for further reaction with CO<sub>2(g)</sub>. These collective elements close the full loop for CO<sub>2</sub> capture and conversion. An electrochemically inert CO<sub>2</sub> capture promoter (glycine) was used to better match the CO<sub>2</sub> capture rates in the absorption column to the OH<sup>-</sup> production rates in the electrolyzer, thereby producing CO at steady-state without intervention. We demonstrate that the CCR captures and converts CO<sub>2</sub> from simulated flue gas (20% CO<sub>2</sub>; 80% N<sub>2</sub>) into CO with a Faradaic efficiency of 30% at 100 mA cm<sup>-2</sup> for 30 hours of operation.

## Introduction

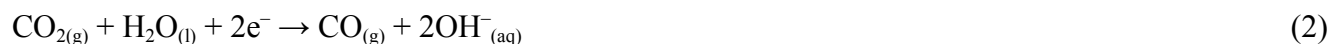
The electrolytic reduction of CO<sub>2</sub> into higher value products offers the opportunity to offset the high cost of carbon capture by generating a new revenue stream from waste CO<sub>2</sub>. One possible pathway for achieving this goal would be to combine the direct air capture approach developed by Keith et al.,<sup>1</sup> with an electrolyzer capable of converting CO<sub>2(g)</sub> into product (e.g., CO). This pathway for the capture and utilization of CO<sub>2</sub> would involve four steps presented in [Fig. 1](#): (i) reaction of CO<sub>2</sub> with alkaline solution to form an aqueous “reactive carbon solution” enriched with (bi)carbonates;<sup>1</sup> (ii) desorption of CO<sub>2</sub> from the reactive carbon solution to regenerate the CO<sub>2</sub>-lean form of the sorbent; (iii) pressurization of the purified CO<sub>2</sub>; and (iv) electrochemical upgrading of the CO<sub>2</sub> gas into CO product in an electrolyzer. The CO<sub>2</sub> capture, desorption, and pressurization units are capital intensive, and therefore require continuous operation at the megatonne scale to justify the upfront investment.<sup>2</sup> The electrochemical reactor is modular and can ramp production up or down in response to electricity surpluses.<sup>3,4</sup> These tradeoffs in terms of scale and operation will increase the capital and operating cost of the CO<sub>2</sub> capture and conversion units at scale. Consequently, CO<sub>2</sub> capture units have not yet been coupled to a CO<sub>2</sub> reduction reaction (CO<sub>2</sub>RR) electrolyzer for continuous, closed-loop operation at scale.



**Fig. 1. A schematic representation of two distinct electrochemical pathways for CO<sub>2</sub> capture and utilization.** In both pathways, an aqueous sorbent reacts with CO<sub>2</sub> to form a "reactive carbon solution" that is enriched with (bi)carbonate ions. The black pathway captures and converts CO<sub>2</sub> independently and consequently requires an energy-intensive CO<sub>2</sub> recovery step to generate a pure CO<sub>2</sub> stream for the CO<sub>2</sub> electrolyzer. The orange pathway, known as the bicarbonate electrolyzer pathway, enables the bypass of this energy-intensive step, resulting in a higher energy efficiency.

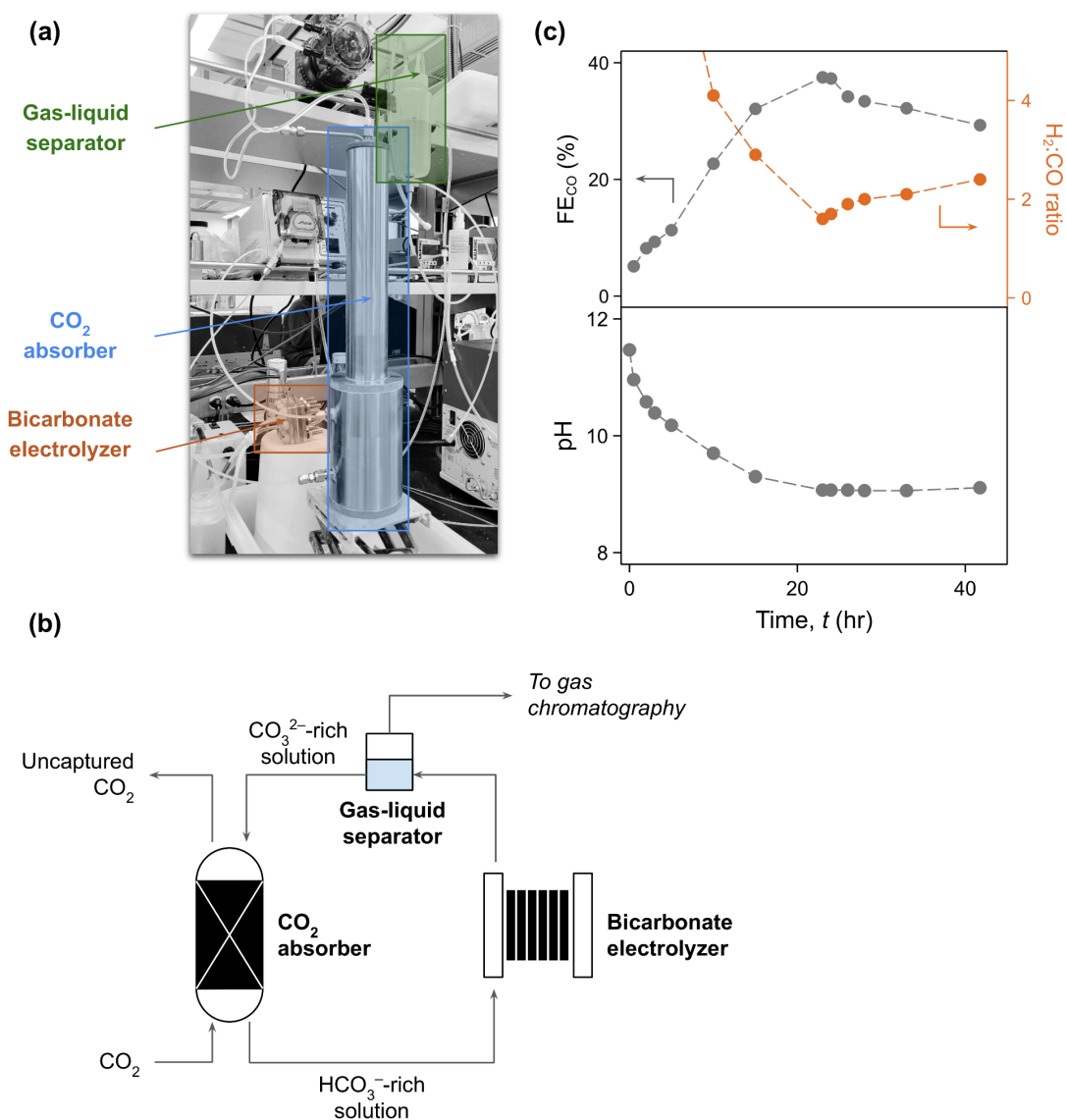
To address this challenge, we designed a class of electrochemical reactors that electrochemically convert reactive carbon solutions (rather than pressurized CO<sub>2</sub> feedstocks) into CO<sub>2</sub>RR products in a single step (Fig. 1; "bicarbonate electrolyzer").<sup>5-8</sup> These "bicarbonate electrolyzers" mediate reactive carbon capture by electrochemically generating H<sup>+</sup> to convert (bi)carbonates into CO<sub>2</sub> *in situ* (denoted herein as "*i*-CO<sub>2</sub>"). This formation of *i*-CO<sub>2</sub> (Eq. 1) at the cathode|membrane interface enables bicarbonate electrolyzers to achieve higher process energy efficiencies than gas-fed CO<sub>2</sub>RR electrolyzers by eliminating the energy penalty (>100 kJ mol<sup>-1</sup>) associated with generating a pure stream of CO<sub>2</sub> gas.<sup>8-11</sup> This *i*-CO<sub>2</sub> is subsequently reduced at the surface of an electrocatalyst to produce

carbon-containing compounds and OH<sup>-</sup> (Eq. 2). The OH<sup>-</sup> can be recycled to capture additional CO<sub>2</sub> (Eq. 3).



All bicarbonate electrolyzers reported to date were fed with laboratory-prepared solutions saturated with bicarbonate ions (because CO<sub>2</sub> reacts with OH<sup>-</sup> to form HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>; Eq. 3). However, these solutions do not match the effluent from practical CO<sub>2</sub> capture units, such as a CO<sub>2</sub> absorption column.<sup>12-17</sup> It is therefore unknown if the OH<sup>-</sup> produced during CO<sub>2</sub>RR (Eq. 2) within a bicarbonate electrolyzer regenerates sufficient alkalinity to enable continuous CO<sub>2</sub> capture at steady-state. We therefore set out to couple a carbon capture unit with a bicarbonate electrolyzer to form a “coupled carbon reactor” (CCR; Fig. 2), and to test the continuous operation of the CCR.<sup>18</sup>

Here, we built a laboratory-scale CCR with a packed-bed CO<sub>2</sub> absorption column, a bicarbonate electrolyzer, and a gas-liquid separator to continuously capture and convert CO<sub>2</sub> from simulated flue gas (20% CO<sub>2</sub>; 80% N<sub>2</sub>) into CO. We used an aqueous K<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> sorbent, which is used at a large scale through the Benfield process,<sup>19</sup> containing promoters such as glycine. These promoters enabled modulation of the dynamic rates of CO<sub>2</sub> capture and CO formation in the absorption column and bicarbonate electrolyzer, respectively. We report here a set of experimental conditions where the CCR yields FE<sub>CO</sub> of 30% at 100 mA cm<sup>-2</sup> for 30 hr without intervention or any significant decline in performance. To our knowledge, this report is the first example of a closed-loop system capable of capturing and converting CO<sub>2</sub> into a higher value product.



**Fig. 2. The coupled carbon reactor (CCR) for integrated CO<sub>2</sub> capture and utilization.** Data shown in this figure were obtained using an unpromoted 1 M K<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> reactive carbon solution. (a) Photograph of the CCR setup, including the absorption column, bicarbonate electrolyzer, and gas-liquid separator. (b) Schematic representation of the CCR and the streams entering and leaving each unit. (c) Steady-state CO formation during sustained electrolysis at 100 mA cm<sup>-2</sup> and measured pH of the reactive carbon solution exiting the bicarbonate electrolyzer as a function of time. The CCR produces a syngas ratio (H<sub>2</sub>:CO) of 1.7.

## Results

**Capture Unit.** We designed and built a CO<sub>2</sub> absorption column to resemble an industrial CO<sub>2</sub> capture unit. The CO<sub>2</sub> absorption column consisted of a stainless steel vessel (diameter: 4 cm; height: 30 cm) filled with a 20-cm tall packed bed of polypropylene Raschig rings (length: 0.8 cm; outer diameter: 0.6 cm; and inner diameter: 0.4 cm). The CO<sub>2</sub> absorption column was designed to operate in a counter-current mode, where the flow of simulated flue gas that entered at the bottom of the packed bed opposed the flow of liquid reactive carbon solution that entered at the top of the column (Fig. S1; also see Methods and Materials in Supplementary Materials).

To establish a baseline for carbon capture performance, we compared the CO<sub>2</sub> capture rate in the CO<sub>2</sub> absorption column to that of a single-state sparging apparatus (i.e., a “CO<sub>2</sub> bubbler”; Fig. S2) using unpromoted 1.5 M K<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> solutions as the sorbent. We supplied 100 sccm of 50% CO<sub>2</sub> (balance N<sub>2</sub>) for both apparatus. When operated independently of the CCR, the CO<sub>2</sub> absorption column enabled a 10-fold increase in CO<sub>2</sub> capture rates compared to the CO<sub>2</sub> bubbler, evidenced by a drop in pH from 12 to 10 in 1 hr (Fig. S2; Tables S1 and S2; see Supplementary Note 1 for calculations).

**Bicarbonate electrolyzer.** We built a bicarbonate electrolyzer consisting of stainless steel housing plates and flow plates with serpentine patterns that sandwiched the nickel foam anode, bipolar membrane, and the silver cathode spray-coated on carbon paper (Fig. 1). The membrane and electrodes were firmly pressed against each other with no gap (“zero-gap architecture”). The active area of the bicarbonate electrolyzer was 4 cm<sup>2</sup>.

**Coupled carbon reactor (“CCR”).** The CCR was assembled by integrating a CO<sub>2</sub> absorption column (“absorber”), a bicarbonate electrolyzer, and a gas-liquid separator (“separator”) (Fig. 2). The separator, which was designed as a sealed reservoir, functioned to separate the gaseous products (CO and H<sub>2</sub>) from the reactive carbon solution. The liquid outlet of the absorber was linked to the inlet of the bicarbonate

electrolyzer, while the outlet of the bicarbonate electrolyzer was connected to the inlet of the separator. Finally, the outlet of the separator was connected to the inlet of the absorber, thus establishing a closed loop of liquid flow.

**CCR Proof-of-Concept Experiment.** We then performed a CCR experiment with a 1 M  $\text{K}_2\text{CO}_3$  reactive carbon solution. This proof-of-concept CCR experiment was initiated by feeding 1000 sccm of simulated flue gas (20%  $\text{CO}_2$ ; 80%  $\text{N}_2$  by volume) to the absorber, applying a constant current density of  $100 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$  to the electrolyzer, and circulating the  $\text{CO}_2$ -lean form of the 1 M  $\text{K}_2\text{CO}_3$  reactive carbon solution through the three CCR components (absorber, electrolyzer, and separator). Gas chromatography (GC) analysis was used to analyze the composition of the gas stream exiting the top of the separator. Further details on experimental setup and procedure are found in the Methods and Materials section of the Supplementary Materials.

We observed an increase in  $\text{FE}_{\text{CO}}$  from 5% to 37% in the bicarbonate electrolyzer over the first 23 hours of CCR operation using unpromoted 1 M  $\text{K}_2\text{CO}_3$  (Fig. 2). This  $\text{FE}_{\text{CO}}$  value of 37% corresponds to a  $\text{H}_2$ : $\text{CO}$  ratio of 1.7:1, which is relevant to diesel synthesis.<sup>20</sup> The  $\text{FE}_{\text{CO}}$  then progressively declined to 29% over the next 20 hours of operation. A decrease in pH of the reactive carbon solution tracked the increase in  $\text{FE}_{\text{CO}}$  until a steady-state pH of 9.1 was reached (Fig. 2). This steady-state pH of the solution corresponds to a  $\text{CO}_2$  loading of  $0.88 \text{ mol CO}_2/\text{mol K}^+$ .<sup>21,22</sup> These collective results are all consistent with expected (bi)carbonate equilibria and acid-base kinetics associated with  $\text{CO}_2$  capture and electrochemical  $\text{CO}_2$  desorption.<sup>5</sup>

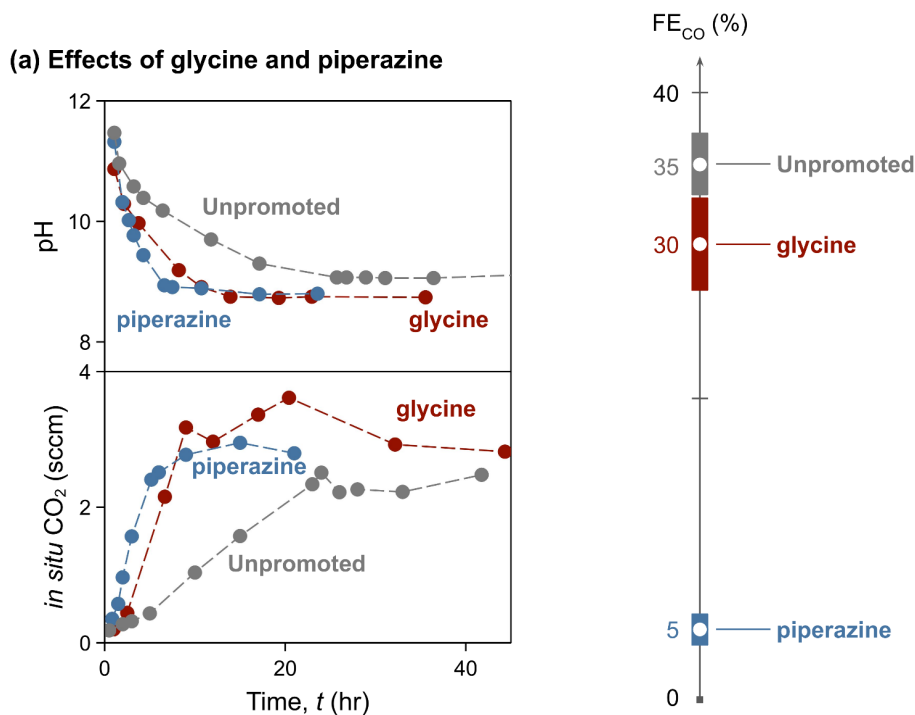
#### ***Promoters help match rates of $\text{CO}_2$ capture and conversion.***

We first performed a series of experiments independently in a bicarbonate electrolyzer and measured the  $\text{FE}_{\text{CO}}$  (Fig. S3). A nickel foam anode, bipolar membrane, and silver spray-coated carbon paper cathode comprised the membrane electrode assembly. A 1 M KOH solution was fed to the anode

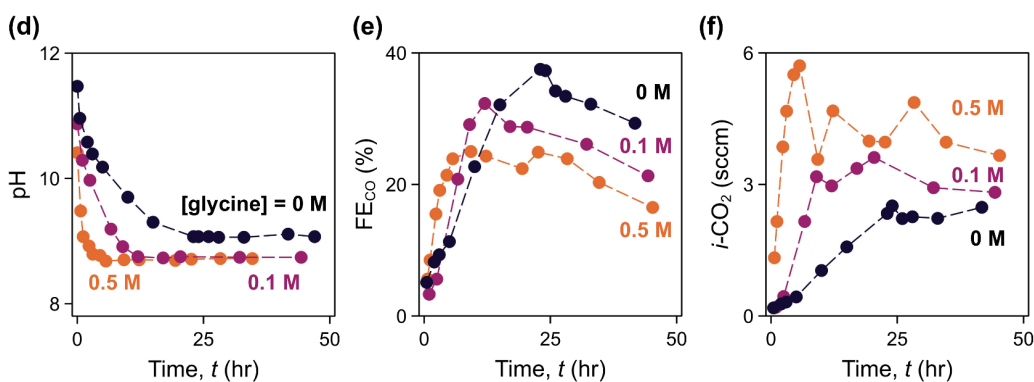


compartment and a 3 M  $\text{KHCO}_3$  solution, containing either 0.1 M piperazine or 0.1 M glycine, were delivered to the cathode compartment. The electrolysis experiment with an unpromoted 3 M  $\text{KHCO}_3$  solution yielded  $\text{FE}_{\text{CO}}$  of 75%. When a 3 M  $\text{KHCO}_3$  solution doped with 0.1-M piperazine was used as the catholyte, the  $\text{FE}_{\text{CO}}$  substantially decreased to 13%. The 3 M  $\text{KHCO}_3$  solution doped with 0.1-M glycine yielded a  $\text{FE}_{\text{CO}}$  of 56%.

Next, we quantified the impact of  $\text{CO}_2$  capture promoters on CCR operation. We performed CCR experiments with 1 M  $\text{K}_2\text{CO}_3$  solutions doped with 0.1 M piperazine and 0.1 M glycine and monitored the  $\text{CO}_2$  capture rate in the absorber (i.e., pH change) and  $\text{FE}_{\text{CO}}$  of the bicarbonate electrolyzer ([Fig. 3](#)). All experiments were performed in triplicate. When 1 M  $\text{K}_2\text{CO}_3$  solution was doped with capture promoters, the steady-state pH decreased from 9.1 for unpromoted to 8.9 for both promoted solutions. We observed a 4- and 2-fold increase in  $\text{CO}_2$  capture rates with the piperazine- and glycine-doped solutions, respectively, compared to the unpromoted 1 M  $\text{K}_2\text{CO}_3$  solution ([Fig. 3](#) and Fig. S4). However, the bicarbonate electrolyzer yielded a lower  $\text{FE}_{\text{CO}}$  ( $5\% \pm 1\%$ ) when the CCR was operated with a piperazine-doped solution compared to an unpromoted 1 M  $\text{K}_2\text{CO}_3$  solution ( $\text{FE}_{\text{CO}} = 35\% \pm 2\%$ ). The glycine-doped solution yielded a similar  $\text{FE}_{\text{CO}}$  as the unpromoted 1 M  $\text{K}_2\text{CO}_3$  solution ( $\text{FE}_{\text{CO}} = 30\% \pm 3\%$ ). These results are consistent with our independent study using a bicarbonate electrolyzer (Fig. S3). The rate of *i*- $\text{CO}_2$  generation at steady state increased when rate promoters were added to the capture solution ([Fig. 3](#)). We observed that the addition of glycine enhanced the *i*- $\text{CO}_2$  generation to a higher degree. These results collectively teach that glycine is a more effective promoter for the CCR than piperazine for our experimental conditions.



(b) Effects of glycine concentration



**Fig. 3. How promoters affect the operation of the coupled carbon reactor.** (a) shows the measured pH, Faradaic efficiencies for CO ( $FE_{CO}$ ), and rates of *in situ* CO<sub>2</sub> generation (*i*-CO<sub>2</sub>) of CCR operated with either piperazine- or glycine-doped reactive carbon solution. Addition of capture promoters increase *i*-CO<sub>2</sub>. However, the addition of piperazine to the reactive carbon solution substantially decreases  $FE_{CO}$ . (b) shows the effect of glycine concentration (0, 0.1, 0.5 M) in the operation of the CCR (e.g., pH,  $FE_{CO}$ , and *i*-CO<sub>2</sub>). Increase in glycine concentration increases *i*-CO<sub>2</sub>, but decreases  $FE_{CO}$ .

With confirmation that glycine is a favorable CO<sub>2</sub> capture promoter for the CCR, we tested the possibility of increasing the glycine concentration to further improve the capture rate in the CCR. We

doped 1 M  $\text{K}_2\text{CO}_3$  solutions with 0 (control), 0.1 and 0.5 M glycine. All other operating conditions of the CCR (i.e., current density, liquid and gas flow rates) were held at parity with the previous CCR experiments. We observed an increase in  $\text{CO}_2$  capture rate with increasing glycine concentrations (Fig. S5). We observed 2-fold and 2.5-fold faster decreases in pH when using 0.1 and 0.5 M glycine, respectively (compared to the unpromoted 1 M  $\text{K}_2\text{CO}_3$  solution; [Fig. 3](#)). However, the steady-state  $\text{FE}_{\text{CO}}$  decreased as the concentration of glycine increased with and without the promoters ([Fig. 3](#)).

The concentration of glycine added to 1 M  $\text{K}_2\text{CO}_3$  also had an impact on the  $i\text{-CO}_2$ . When the concentration of glycine in 1 M  $\text{K}_2\text{CO}_3$  was increased from 0 M to 0.5 M, the bicarbonate electrolyzer liberated higher amounts of  $i\text{-CO}_2$  ([Fig. 3](#)). This result indicates that glycine, a  $\text{CO}_2$  capture promoter, not only helps increase the  $\text{CO}_2$  capture rate, but also enables faster electrochemical recovery of  $\text{CO}_2$  from a bicarbonate electrolyzer.

## Discussion

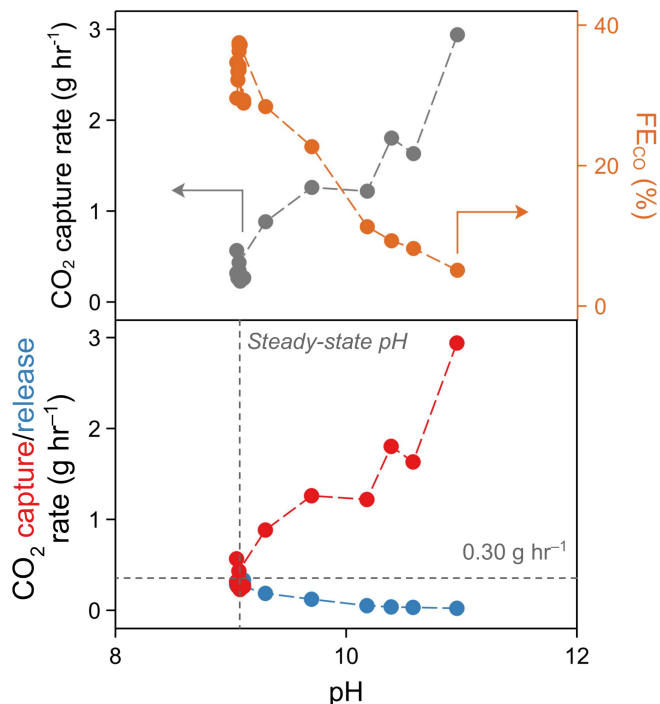
Amine-based sorbents such as monoethanolamine (“amines”) are the most widely used CO<sub>2</sub> capture sorbent in industry. However, aqueous K<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> solutions can also be used as sorbent, and offer lower regeneration energies, less corrosion, higher durability, and the capture of other impurities such as SO<sub>x</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub> in the flue gas stream.<sup>23,24</sup> The notion of capturing CO<sub>2</sub> with K<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> solutions has gained traction since the development of the “Benfield process”,<sup>19</sup> but laboratory and pilot scale studies have focused on the design of CO<sub>2</sub> capture units at a large scale (kg hr<sup>-1</sup> and ton hr<sup>-1</sup> for laboratory- and pilot-scale studies).<sup>22</sup> A high-performance bicarbonate electrolyzer generates *i*-CO<sub>2</sub> at a rate of g hr<sup>-1</sup> (e.g., 0.53 g hr<sup>-1</sup> for a bicarbonate electrolyzer with a 4-cm<sup>2</sup> geometric active area; FE<sub>CO</sub>: 80%; carbon utilization efficiency: 50%; applied current density of 100 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>).<sup>7</sup>

The scales of operation for capture (kg to ton hr<sup>-1</sup> of CO<sub>2</sub> captured) and conversion (g hr<sup>-1</sup> of CO<sub>2</sub> utilized) are simply not aligned. Consequently, CO<sub>2</sub> capture has not yet been coupled to CO<sub>2</sub> conversion. There are also no reports of CO<sub>2</sub> capture with aqueous K<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> solutions at smaller scales (g hr<sup>-1</sup>).

The rate of CO<sub>2</sub> capture and conversion in the CCR is governed by the pH during operation, and by the kinetics of the (bi)carbonate equilibrium (Fig. S6 and Supplementary Note 1).<sup>25</sup> At a high pH regime where CO<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup> ions are the dominant species, the CO<sub>2</sub> capture rate is high but the electrolyzer performance is lower.<sup>5,25</sup> At lower pH values (i.e., pH 8-9), CO<sub>2</sub> capture rate is low but electrolyzer performance is higher (e.g., higher FE<sub>CO</sub>; [Fig. 4](#)). This indirect correlation creates a tradeoff for CO<sub>2</sub> capture and conversion.

A saturated 3 M KHCO<sub>3</sub> solution (pH 8.3; see Supplementary Note 3) is effective for electrolysis but too acidic for efficient CO<sub>2</sub> capture. A 1 M K<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> solution (pH 12) in the CCR is initially effective at CO<sub>2</sub> capture in the column (2.9 g hr<sup>-1</sup>), but the capture rate progressively decreases to 0.30 g hr<sup>-1</sup> as the 1 M K<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> solution absorbs CO<sub>2</sub> and becomes less alkaline [Fig. 4](#)). The electrolyzer FE<sub>CO</sub> increases from 5% to 37% as the pH decreases from 11.5 to 9.1. The pH and FE<sub>CO</sub> values reach a steady-state when the rate of CO<sub>2</sub> capture in the column (0.30 g hr<sup>-1</sup>) matches the rate of CO<sub>2</sub> desorption in the

electrolyzer at  $0.30 \text{ g hr}^{-1}$ . These results are consistent with our previous works, which showed that  $\text{HCO}_3^-$ -rich solutions enable higher CO formation rates than  $\text{CO}_3^{2-}$ -rich solutions.

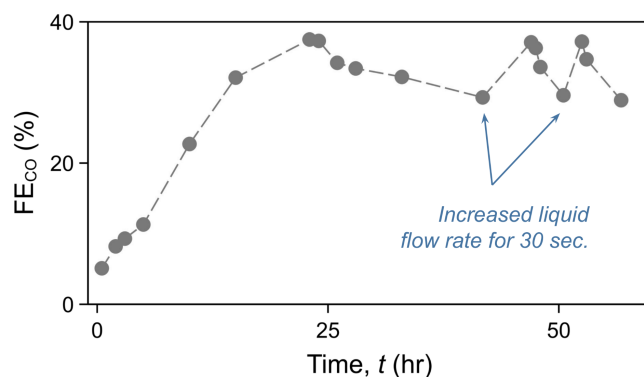


**Fig. 4. Tradeoff between the performance of the  $\text{CO}_2$  absorption column and the bicarbonate electrolyzer.**

The top panel shows the effect of pH on  $\text{CO}_2$  capture and CO formation: at high pH,  $\text{CO}_2$  capture is favored while CO formation is reduced, whereas at lower pH ( $\sim 8$ - $9$ ), CO formation is enhanced but  $\text{CO}_2$  capture is limited. The bottom panel depicts the interplay between the rates of  $\text{CO}_2$  capture in the absorption column and  $\text{CO}_2$  desorption from the bicarbonate electrolyzer, which generates  $\text{CO}_2$  *in situ*. The pH of the system reaches a steady state when these two rates are balanced.

For both promoted and unpromoted (bi)carbonate solutions, we observed a gradual decrease in  $\text{FE}_{\text{CO}}$  over time after the peak value was reached (Figs. 2 and 5). However, the steady-state pH and *i*- $\text{CO}_2$  formation rates remained approximately constant throughout the entire experiment ( $\sim 40$  h), indicating that the solution chemistry enabling synchronized  $\text{CO}_2$  capture and *i*- $\text{CO}_2$  formation was preserved. We therefore hypothesized that mass transport limitations caused by the accumulation of bubbles in the cathode chamber of the electrolyzer were causing the  $\text{FE}_{\text{CO}}$  of the CCR to decrease over time. To test this hypothesis, we performed an experiment where the flow rate of  $1 \text{ M K}_2\text{CO}_3$  through the CCR was pulsed

from  $100 \text{ mL min}^{-1}$  to  $150 \text{ mL min}^{-1}$  for 30 sec when the  $\text{FE}_{\text{CO}}$  was observed to decline from its peak value of 37% to 29% (i.e., after 40 h of operation at  $100 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ ; [Fig. 5](#)). During the pulse, we observed a brief 20-mV drop in cell potential (Fig. S7), which is consistent with a reduction in bubble-induced Ohmic resistances in the cathode.<sup>26</sup> Moreover, the  $\text{FE}_{\text{CO}}$  measured 1 hr after the flow rate pulse showed a complete recovery to 37%. The  $\text{FE}_{\text{CO}}$  decreased again to 30% during the next 3 hr of electrolysis, but the peak  $\text{FE}_{\text{CO}}$  value of 37% was recovered once again by repeating the pulsing protocol after 43 hr of electrolysis.



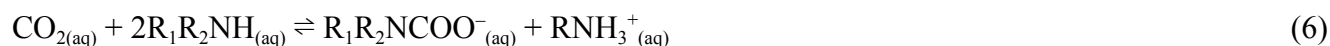
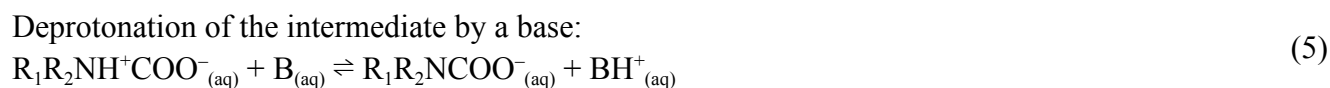
**Fig. 5. The importance of bubble management in the extended CCR operation.** The impact of periodically increasing the liquid flow rate on the Faradaic efficiencies for CO formation ( $\text{FE}_{\text{CO}}$ ) during electrolysis with the unpromoted CCR. A gradual decrease in the  $\text{FE}_{\text{CO}}$  is observed after 1 day of CCR operation. However, this decrease in  $\text{FE}_{\text{CO}}$  is completely recovered when the liquid flow rate is increased from  $100 \text{ mL min}^{-1}$  to  $150 \text{ mL min}^{-1}$  for 30 sec.

A drawback of using  $\text{K}_2\text{CO}_3$  as a sorbent is the slow reaction kinetics between  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{OH}^-$  ([Eq. 3](#)). This slow reaction necessitates a tall  $\text{CO}_2$  absorption column to achieve a high absorption efficiency, which equates to higher capital and operating costs. To address this issue, chemical compounds can be added to the sorbent to accelerate the rate of reaction between  $\text{CO}_2$  and the sorbent. Piperazine<sup>27</sup> and glycine<sup>28,29</sup> are known to enhance by >500% the reaction kinetics between  $\text{CO}_2$  and alkaline sorbents, but the impact of these rate promoters on reactive carbon capture is not known. If the carbonate-based CCR were to be commercialized, these rate promoters will likely need to be implemented into the CCR to

reduce investment costs.

We therefore incorporated these rate promoters into the CCR to achieve higher rates of CO<sub>2</sub> capture at lower pH values. The addition of 0.1 M and 0.5 M glycine to the CCR increased the rate of electrochemical CO<sub>2</sub> capture and desorption from 0.27 to 0.35 and 0.42 g hr<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. These additions of glycine exhibited nominal effects on FE<sub>CO</sub> (Fig. 3 and Fig. S5). In stark contrast, the addition of piperazine to the CCR dramatically decreased the FE<sub>CO</sub>, which we attribute to differences in the rate of (bi)carbonate and carbamate formation for the two promoters.<sup>30–34</sup>

The capture promotion mechanism for both glycine and piperazine proceeds through two steps: (i) the formation of a zwitterionic carbamate intermediate (denoted R<sub>1</sub>R<sub>2</sub>NH<sup>+</sup>COO<sup>-</sup><sub>(aq)</sub>; Eq. 4); and (ii) the deprotonation of the intermediate by a base (denoted **B**; Eq. 5) such as H<sub>2</sub>O, OH<sup>-</sup>, HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, CO<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup>, or another zwitterionic carbamate (Eq. 6).<sup>35</sup> For the system promoted with glycine, the deprotonation of zwitterionic carbamate is faster than the zwitterionic carbamate formation due to the ionic charge associated with glycine.<sup>34,36,37</sup> Therefore, zwitterionic carbamates of glycine are readily hydrolyzed to (bi)carbonate salts (Eq. 7), which results in high concentrations of (bi)carbonate compared to carbamate in glycine-doped sorbents. On the other hand, carbamates of piperazine (piperazine carbamate and piperazine dicarbamate) are relatively stable and remain as the dominant species (Eq. 6).<sup>27,34</sup> Carbamates have been found to be challenging to convert electrochemically either due to difficulty in liberating appreciable amount of CO<sub>2</sub> from the carbamate solution,<sup>38–40</sup> or due to the blockage of the active cathode surface by bulky ammonium cation (i.e., RNH<sub>3</sub><sup>+</sup>).<sup>13</sup> Consistent with other studies, our data suggests that bicarbonate-enriched solutions are more readily converted into CO than carbamate-enriched solutions.<sup>38,41,42</sup>



The CO<sub>2</sub> capture rates in the CCR increased by 2-fold as the glycine concentration was increased from 0 to 0.1 M (Fig. S5), but a 5% decrease in FE<sub>CO</sub> was also observed (Fig. 3). This result is consistent with the FE<sub>CO</sub> data collected during independent operation of the bicarbonate electrolyzer (Fig. S3), and can be attributed to the formation of carbamates in the K<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> solution. The CO<sub>2</sub> capture rate increased minimally (by a factor of 1.9 initially) as the glycine concentration was further increased to 0.5 M while the FE<sub>CO</sub> decreased by another 7%. These results indicate that a low concentration of glycine can effectively catalyze (bi)carbonate formation in the CO<sub>2</sub> absorption column with minimal impact to the FE<sub>CO</sub> of the electrolyzer.

The further scaling of the laboratory-scale CCR unit discussed in this work requires achieving both a high CO<sub>2</sub> capture rate and a high rate of electrolytic CO production. The former requires a higher pH and the latter requires a lower pH. To address this challenge, we introduced glycine to the solution to increase CO<sub>2</sub> capture rates at lower pH values. At the scale of our experimental apparatus, 0.1 M glycine in 1 M K<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> yielded the highest CO<sub>2</sub> capture rate without compromising syngas formation.



## Conclusion

Here, we demonstrate that the  $\text{OH}^-$  produced from the electrochemical  $\text{CO}_2$  reduction reaction in a bicarbonate electrolyzer can successfully regenerate the alkalinity of a reactive carbon solution to enable sustainable  $\text{CO}_2$  capture for a prolonged period of time. We achieved this by building an integrated  $\text{CO}_2$  capture and conversion device (“coupled carbon reactor”) that uses 1 M  $\text{K}_2\text{CO}_3$  as the capture media. The coupled carbon reactor (CCR) consists of a packed bed  $\text{CO}_2$  absorption column, a bicarbonate electrolyzer, and a gas-liquid separator. The CCR reported in this work captures  $0.27 \text{ g hr}^{-1}$  of  $\text{CO}_2$  and produces  $0.077 \text{ g hr}^{-1}$  of CO without any promoters. When 0.1 M glycine is added to 1 M  $\text{K}_2\text{CO}_3$  as a capture promoter, the CO formation rate slightly decreases to  $0.067 \text{ g hr}^{-1}$ , but  $\text{CO}_2$  capture rate increases to  $0.35 \text{ g hr}^{-1}$ . It is therefore imperative to balance the tradeoffs of  $\text{CO}_2$  capture and  $\text{CO}_2$  reduction to mediate integrated reactive carbon electrolysis. This work is the first demonstration of capturing  $\text{CO}_2$  from simulated flue gas using a reactive carbon solution (e.g., (bi)carbonate-enriched solution) and subsequently converting the reactive carbon solution into syngas.

## Experimental procedure

### *Materials*

$K_2CO_3$  (ACS reagent,  $\geq 99.0\%$ , Sigma Aldrich, USA), KOH (ACS reagent,  $\geq 85\%$ , pellets, Sigma Aldrich, USA), ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA; 99%, Sigma Aldrich, USA), silver nanoparticles ( $< 100$  nm particle size, contains PVP as dispersant, 99.5% trace metals basis, Sigma Aldrich, USA), glycine (ReagentPlus®,  $\geq 99\%$  (HPLC), Sigma Aldrich, USA), and piperazine (ReagentPlus®, 99%, Sigma Aldrich, USA) were purchased and used as received. Fumasep-FBM® bipolar membranes, Freudenberg H23 carbon papers, and Nafion® D2020 (20 wt% in a mixture of lower aliphatic alcohols and water) were purchased from Fuel Cell Store, USA. Nickel foam anodes were purchased from MTI Corporation, USA.

### *Materials preparation*

Nickel foam anode was cut into  $4\text{ cm}^2$  and used as-received without any modification. Cathodes were prepared by spray-coating silver nanoparticles onto carbon papers. The cathode catalyst inks were prepared by mixing 27 mg of silver nanoparticles ( $< 100$  nm) with  $10\text{ }\mu\text{L}$  of 20 wt% Nafion® (Nafion Dispersion D2020) in 9 mL of ethanol and the catalyst ink was sonicated for 20 min for even dispersion. Carbon papers were cut into  $4\text{ cm}^2$ . The cathode catalyst inks were then deposited onto these carbon papers using an air-brush until the catalyst loading was  $2\text{ mg cm}^{-2}$  (gravimetric measurement). The air pressure for the air-brush was set to 20 psi. The hotplate below the cathode samples was heated to  $150^\circ\text{C}$  to accelerate solvent evaporation during the spray-coating process. A bipolar membrane was cut in a larger area ( $3.5 \times 3.5\text{ cm}^2$ ) to accommodate sealing and was used as-is.

### *Electrolyzer design and assembly*

Details of the bicarbonate electrolyzer design used in this work is reported in our previous works<sup>1</sup>. In brief, the bicarbonate electrolyzer consists of stainless steel housing plates and flow plates with

serpentine flow patterns that sandwich the membrane electrode assembly (MEA). The MEA consists of a nickel foam anode, a carbon paper cathode spray-coated with silver nanoparticles, and a bipolar membrane (BPM) separating the anode and cathode compartments. The BPM was configured in reverse-bias, meaning the cation exchange layer faces the cathode and the anion exchange layer faces the anode. The active area is  $2 \times 2 \text{ cm}^2$  which equates to a geometric surface area of  $4 \text{ cm}^2$ . This geometric surface area was used to calculate the current density reported in this work. The entire components of the assembly were pressed against each other with no gap (“zero-gap architecture”). The assembly was tightened with 6 bolts of 6.35 mm diameter to a torque of  $4.5 \text{ N} \cdot \text{m}$ .

### *CO<sub>2</sub> absorber design*

A lab-scale CO<sub>2</sub> absorber was designed in-house as a modular-based stainless steel column. The CO<sub>2</sub> absorber has two stages, each stage with different height and diameter. The bottom stage (height: 11.5 cm, inner diameter: 8 cm) serves as a reservoir for excess liquid sorbent. The top stage (height: 30 cm and inner diameter: 4 cm) is the packed column that encloses packing materials (Fig. S1). The top and bottom stages were separated by a piece of stainless steel mesh to hold packing materials in the packed column, but allow flow of liquid and gas between the reservoir and the packed column. The liquid sorbent exits the CO<sub>2</sub> absorber from the reservoir and enters the absorber from the top of the packed column through a liquid distributor. The liquid distributor was designed as a single-inlet and multi-outlet module (mimicking a shower head) to enhance the liquid wetting of the bed of packings. The gas enters into the CO<sub>2</sub> absorber in the overhead of the reservoir and exits at the gas outlet near the top of the packed column. Polypropylene Raschig rings (length: 0.8 cm; outer diameter: 0.6 cm; and inner diameter: 0.4 cm) were used as the packing materials. Raschig rings were randomly poured into the packed column (“random packing”). The packing height measured 20 cm.

### *Coupled carbon reactor experimental procedure*

The coupled carbon reactor (CCR) consists of three main components; a CO<sub>2</sub> absorber; a bicarbonate electrolyzer; and a gas-liquid separator. The liquid outlet of the CO<sub>2</sub> absorber was connected to the liquid inlet of the bicarbonate electrolyzer. The liquid outlet of the bicarbonate electrolyzer was connected to the liquid inlet of the separator. Finally, the liquid outlet of the separator was connected to the liquid inlet of the CO<sub>2</sub> absorber. Two peristaltic pumps (43205K316, McMaster-Carr, USA) were installed to circulate the liquid sorbent; one between the outlet of the CO<sub>2</sub> absorber and the inlet of the bicarbonate electrolyzer and another one between the outlet of the separator and the inlet of the CO<sub>2</sub> absorber. Two peristaltic pumps were used to maintain the liquid level in the separator constant.

A liquid sorbent was first prepared by mixing 69 g of K<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> and 2.92 g of EDTA in 500 mL of deionized water (i.e., 1 M K<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> and 20 mM EDTA). A 20 mM EDTA was added to the 1 M K<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> to help prevent electrolyte impurities from electrodepositing on the electrode surface. For the studies involving CO<sub>2</sub> capture promoters (e.g., piperazine and glycine), the appropriate amounts of rate promoters were added to the liquid sorbent accordingly. A 1 M K<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> liquid sorbent was circulated at 100 mL min<sup>-1</sup> for the duration of all experiments. A 175 sccm of N<sub>2</sub> continuously purged the headspace of the gas liquid separator to carry electrolysis products from the liquid sorbent to the gas chromatograph (GC; SRI-8610C, SRI Instruments, USA). A 1000 sccm of simulated flue gas entered the CO<sub>2</sub> absorber from the bottom and exited at the top of the CO<sub>2</sub> absorber. A gaseous mixture of 20% CO<sub>2</sub> and 80% N<sub>2</sub> was used as the simulated flue gas in this study. A 500 mL of 1 M KOH was circulated through the anode compartment at a flow rate of 40 mL min<sup>-1</sup> using a peristaltic pump (9154K53, McMaster-Carr, USA).

Two-electrode electrolysis experiments were conducted at ambient pressure and temperature with a custom designed zero-cap electrolyzer using a power supply (2260B-30-72 720W, Keithley Instruments, USA). Current density is expressed as the total current applied divided by the geometric surface area of the electrodes (4 cm<sup>2</sup>).

### Product analysis

The composition of the gaseous products from the separator was analyzed with a GC at different time lengths. The GC was equipped with a packed MolSieve 5A column and a packed HaySep D column. Argon (Praxair, 99.999%) was used as the carrier gas. A flame ionization detector (FID) with a methanizer was used to quantify reduced carbon products (e.g., CO, CH<sub>4</sub>, C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub>, C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>6</sub>, and C<sub>3</sub>H<sub>8</sub>) and CO<sub>2</sub>. A thermal conductivity detector (TCD) was used to quantify H<sub>2</sub>. The GC was calibrated by injecting different calibration gas mixes from NorLAB containing CO, CO<sub>2</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>, CH<sub>4</sub>, C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>6</sub>, and C<sub>3</sub>H<sub>8</sub> at concentrations ranging from 100-50000 ppm for each gas (balance N<sub>2</sub>).

The Faradaic efficiency (FE) was calculated based on gas concentrations obtained from GC analyses using Faraday's law of electrolysis:

$$FE_i = \frac{x_i z_i \dot{n} F}{I} \quad (S1)$$

where  $z_i$  is the number of electrons transferred per mole of gaseous product  $i$  involved in the reduction reaction,  $F$  is Faraday's constant,  $x_i$  is the mole fraction of gaseous product  $i$  in the gaseous mixture analyzed using GC,  $\dot{n}$  is the molar flow rate, and  $I$  is the total applied current. The molar flow rate was derived from the volumetric flow rate  $Q$  by the ideal gas law.

The *in situ* generated CO<sub>2</sub> was calculated assuming CO was the only reduced carbon product in this study:

$$i\text{-CO}_2 \text{ (ppm)} = [\text{CO}_2]_{\text{unreacted}} + [\text{CO}] \quad (S2)$$

where  $i\text{-CO}_2$  is the concentration of *in situ* generated CO<sub>2</sub> and  $[\text{CO}]$  and  $[\text{CO}_2]_{\text{unreacted}}$  represent the concentrations of CO and unreacted CO<sub>2</sub> measured by GC at the outlet of the electrolyzer.

The carbon efficiency was calculated by dividing the  $[\text{CO}]$  at the outlet by the total amount of CO<sub>2</sub> generated *in situ* ( $i\text{-CO}_2$ ):

$$\text{Carbon utilization (\%)} = \frac{[CO]}{i-CO_2} \times 100\% \quad (S3)$$

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## **Author contributions**

Conceptualization: CPB, YK, EWL; Methodology: YK, EWL, CEBW; Investigation: YK, CD, GLS, AV; Visualization: YK, EWL; Funding acquisition: CPB; Supervision: CPB; Writing – original draft: CPB, YK, EWL; Writing – review & editing: All authors

## **Competing interests**

Authors C.P.B., E.W.L. have filed patent applications for the technology used in this work (PCT International Application No. PCT/CA2019/050539, Filed April 2019; Filed and pending in US (Serial # 17/050,319), Canada (Serial # 3,098,176), and Europe (Serial # 19791477.3)).

## **Supplementary Material**

Materials and methods; Supplementary notes 1 to 3; Figs. S1 to S7; Tables S1 and S2.

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