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PERSPECTIVE

Electro- and Photoreduction of Carbon Dioxide: The Twain Shall Meet at Copper Oxide/Copper Interfaces

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ABSTRACT: Of the myriad electrode materials that have been used for electro-10 chemical (EC) and photoelectrochemical (PEC) reduction of carbon dioxide in 11 aqueous media, copper oxide/copper interfaces have shown a remarkable range of 12 hydrocarbon and oxygenated products including acids, aldehydes, ketones, and 13 14 alcohols. This Perspective highlights experimental evidence for the fact that both EC 15 and PEC reduction scenarios have similar chemical and morphological underpinnings in the in situ formation of copper nano- or microcubes on the (photo)cathode surface. 16 Recent rapid developments in our fundamental understanding of these interfaces and 17 areas requiring further studies are discussed in light of recent studies in the authors' 18 laboratories and elsewhere. 19



uch has been written already about the technological 20 relevance of carbon dioxide (CO₂) conversion and 21 utilization.^{1–3} Whether it makes sense from an 23 overall energy balance and practical feasibility perspective, it is 24 hardly debatable that electrochemical (EC) reduction and 25 subsequent hydrogenation/oxygenation of an inert molecule $_{26}$ such as CO₂ has considerable fundamental appeal. On the other 27 hand, the energy input needed for the process is considerably 28 ameliorated by the addition of solar excitation of the active $_{29}$ material (a photoresponsive semiconductor) such that the CO₂ 30 reduction now occurs at 700 mV positive of the thermody-31 namic threshold. Both process variants are hardly new, and the 32 electroreduction concept was first published some 150 years 33 ago.⁴ The modern era of CO₂ electroreduction, however, can 34 be traced back to the 1970s and 1980s. The photo-35 electrochemical (PEC) approach first surfaced around the 36 same time, with the seminal paper appearing in 1978.⁵ Since 37 then, interest in both the EC and PEC approaches has been 38 frenetic, especially during the past 5 years

The one-electron reduction of CO_2 to the radical anion is a 40 high-energy pathway and occurs at a standard potential of 41 -1.90 V in water.⁶ On the other hand, the two-electron 42 reduction generates CO via a pathway that is shared by 43 enzymatic processes and metal electrode surfaces. Subsequent 44 conversion to hydrocarbons and oxygenates, however, requires 45 the use of a catalyst and cogeneration of hydrogen. A wide range of electrode materials and electrolytes have been 46 deployed for the EC and PEC conversion of CO_2 ; many 47 reviews and book chapters exist.⁶⁻¹³ In terms of sustainability 48 and process scalability, however, only a limited range of 49 candidates are worthy of serious consideration for technological 50 deployment. Thus, the use of earth-abundant and nontoxic 51 electrode materials has considerable appeal relative to noble 52 metals (e.g., Pt, Ru, Rh, etc.) or nonabundant elements (e.g., 53 Ga, In, etc.). Likewise, notwithstanding the limited solubility of 54 CO_2 in water (0.033 M at 298 K and 1 atm), the use of aqueous 55 electrolytes presents considerable practical advantages relative 56 to aprotic solvents and ionic liquids. Approaches involving 57 semiconductor suspensions and sacrificial reagents (the so- 58 called "photocatalytic" (PC) processes),14,15 while extremely 59 simple and attractive from an initial materials screening 60 perspective, will not be practical. For example, (a) the products 61 are cogenerated in close proximity in PC reactors rather than in 62 separate compartments as in the EC and PEC counterparts, (b) 63 recovery and reuse of the photocatalyst necessitates an 64 additional step in PC reactors, and (c) back-reactions are 65 especially prevalent and the system attains a photostationary 66 state. This Perspective thus focuses on the EC/PEC process 67

 Received:
 April 20, 2016

 Accepted:
 May 11, 2016

68 variant involving one such intriguing electrode material, 69 namely, copper oxide decorated with copper nano- or 70 micrometer-sized particles. This rather complex electrode 71 material henceforth is simply designated as Cu_xO/Cu .

72 Peculiar Case of Copper Oxide/Nanoparticulate Copper. Of 73 all the myriad metals that have been used for EC reduction of

Of all the myriad metals that have been used for EC reduction of CO₂, only copper has shown a proclivity to generate C1–C3 hydrocarbons and oxygenated products.

⁷⁴ CO₂, only copper has shown a proclivity to generate C1–C3 ⁷⁵ hydrocarbons and oxygenated products. Copper oxide is a ⁷⁶ semiconductor, and both Cu₂O and CuO are known to exhibit ⁷⁷ p-type semiconductor behavior. The so-called "oxide-derived" ⁷⁸ Cu^{16,17} has been shown to have much higher selectivity toward ⁷⁹ CO₂ electroreduction (relative to the hydrogen evolution ⁸⁰ reaction or HER) than does polycrystalline copper. Thus, the ⁸¹ Cu_xO/Cu interface is unusual in that it can be deployed for ⁸² both EC and PEC reduction of CO₂. Finally, while demand for ⁸³ copper metal generally has soared because of power trans-⁸⁴ mission and microelectronics industry needs, it still is an earth-⁸⁵ abundant and nontoxic material. For all of these reasons, the ⁸⁶ liquid junction formed by this composite interface forms the ⁸⁷ focus of this Perspective.

Interest in Cu₂O first began in the 1920s, and subsequently both oxides of copper were evaluated for use in solid-state photovoltaic devices.¹⁸ The earliest report on the use of these metal oxides in PEC devices dates back to the 1970s.¹⁹ The first report of the use of hydrous Cu₂O suspensions for CO₂ photoreduction occurred much later in 1989.²⁰ The use of 4 Cu₂O photocathodes began soon thereafter, and there has been explosive growth of interest in this PEC approach, particularly since ~2010. The various aspects of the preparation, character-77 ization, and use of Cu₂O have been reviewed.¹⁸

The oxide layers are generally grown by thermal annealing of 99 polycrystalline copper foils in air. Both the annealing time and 100 annealing temperature are crucial variables in dictating the 101 subsequent behavior of the oxides, as discussed later. Thermal 102 growth of copper oxide nanowires on copper foil has been 103 reviewed.²¹ Electrosynthesis is another powerful tool for 104 preparing Cu_xO layers or nanoparticles;^{22–24} modifications in 105 deposition bath can be used to tune the nanoparticle 106 morphology, as demonstrated in these studies. This aspect is 107 further addressed below within the context of product 108 selectivity in CO₂ reduction.

¹⁰⁹ Both Oxide Phases Are Important in the PEC Activity for ¹¹⁰ CO_2 Reduction. Thermal annealing of a copper foil generates

Thermal annealing of a copper foil generates both copper oxides (i.e., Cu_2O and CuO), whose relative dominance can be tracked by X-ray powder diffraction (XRD).

¹¹¹ both copper oxides (i.e., Cu_2O and CuO), whose relative ¹¹² dominance can be tracked by X-ray powder diffraction (XRD). ¹¹³ As shown in Figure 1a, high aspect ratio (>200), dense, vertically standing copper oxide heterojunction nanowires were 114 fabricated by simply heating a copper substrate in air. 115 Interestingly, the PEC activity for CO_2 reduction for these 116 fabricated materials appears to be closely correlated with the 117 relative dominance of the two formed phases, Cu_2O and CuO, 118 as established by quantitative analyses of XRD data (Figure 119 1b,c). The sample with the more dominant Cu_2O phase (500 120 °C, Figure 1b; 4 h, Figure 1c) was seen to afford the highest 121 photocurrent for CO_2 reduction.

In Situ Formation of Copper on Cuprous Oxide Photo- 123 cathodes and Consequences in Terms of PEC Activity. On the 124 notion that copper that is formed in situ on the Cu₂O surface 125 during photoirradiation in CO₂-containing solutions plays a key 126 role in the PEC activity, the following series of comparative 127 experiments were performed. The Cu₂O films were electro- 128 deposited on Cu foils and glassy carbon electrodes²⁴ and 129 irradiated with simulated sunlight for different time periods (5, 130 10, 30, 60 min) in 0.1 M NaHCO3/satd. CO2 solution (to 131 mimic the conditions in CO₂ photoelectrolysis). No external 132 bias potential was applied to the photocathode in these 133 experiments. As a control measurement, an identical Cu₂O film 134 was electroreduced (for 60 min) at E = -1.5 V (vs Ag/AgCl 135 reference) to obtain Cu₂O-derived metallic copper. The first 136 striking difference was the color of the samples (Figure 2), 137 f2 namely, the oxide film became progressively darker with 138 increasing irradiation time (in fact, the sample irradiated for 60 139 min was completely black). XRD patterns were recorded to 140 prove that this change in the color was coupled with the 141 increasing Cu content of the samples (note that no CuO was 142 detected). Rietveld refinement of the XRD patterns proved that 143 the Cu₂O/Cu ratio systematically increased in the series of 144 samples and it reached 4:1 after 60 min of irradiation. 145

Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images (Figure 3) 146 f3 were taken to study the morphological changes associated with 147 Cu formation in the samples. While the bare Cu₂O layer 148 showed the characteristic nanocrystal morphology (Figure 149 3a),²⁴ important changes were observed even after only 5 min 150 of irradiation. In this case, the initial crystallites could still be 151 seen, but they lost their sharp edges, and Cu nanocubes (50- 152 80 nm) were formed on the surface. When continuing the 153 irradiation, the initial morphology changed and a porous Cu 154 film was obtained (Figure 3b). The morphology of an 155 electroreduced Cu oxide sample was also studied for comparison 156 (Figure 3c). A relatively compact structure was found in this 157 case, where the surface was decorated with small-sized (~ 20 158 nm) nanocubes. Note that this morphology is rather similar to 159 the one shown for the Cu₂O sample irradiated for short 160 timeframes (Figure 3b), although the nanoparticle size was 161 distinctly smaller for the electroreduced sample. Irradiation for 162 longer times (e.g., 60 min, Figure 3d) resulted in markedly 163 altered morphology from that in panel (b), reflecting further 164 chemical changes of the oxide layer. This corresponds to the 165 blackened layer visually seen in Figure 2. 166

The distinct morphological differences highlighted above are 167 also reflected in the electrocatalytic properties of the samples. 168 The first striking variance is manifested in the electroactive 169 surface area (as deduced from cyclic voltammetry, Figure 4). 170 f4 While the electroreduced samples had 3-4 times higher surface 171 roughness compared with the flat Cu electrode, the same ratio 172 was around 6-7 for the photoreduced sample (Figure 4a). 173 Subsequently, linear sweep voltammograms were recorded in 174 HCO_3^-/CO_2 solution to assess the electrocatalytic activity of 175 the samples. The most important observation was the shift in 176

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Figure 1. Side view (a) SEM images of copper-supported oxide layers grown by thermal annealing at 500 °C for 4 h. Panels b and c map the correlation between the relative fraction of CuO and Cu₂O (as established by powder XRD analyses) and the average photocurrent for CO₂ reduction as a function of thermal annealing temperature (at a fixed 4 h time) (b) and time (at fixed 500 °C anneal temperature) (c). The photocurrents were measured in CO₂-saturated 0.1 M sodium sulfate at zero applied bias (i.e., at short-circuit). The error bars in (b) and (c) were obtained from measurements on eight separate samples.



Figure 2. Photographs of slides containing Cu_2O layers irradiated in CO_2 -containing solutions for varying times without an externally applied bias potential. An electroreduced control sample (refer to the text) is also shown for comparison.



Figure 3. SEM images of the various Cu₂O-derived films. (a) Bare Cu₂O, (b) Cu₂O irradiated with simulated sunlight for 15 min, (c) Cu₂O electroreduced at -1.5 V (vs Ag/AgCl/3 M NaCl) for 60 min, and (d) Cu₂O irradiated with simulated sunlight for 60 min.

177 the onset potential. While for the bulk Cu foil CO₂ reduction 178 started at E = -1.0 V (vs Ag/AgCl reference), the onset 179 potential was notably more positive for the Cu₂O-derived Cu 180 samples (-0.85 and -0.90 V for the electroreduced and 181 photoreduced samples, respectively; Figure 4b).

This latter observation is consistent with literature data where a 150–200 mV shift was seen in the onset potential when comparing bulk and oxide-derived Cu.¹⁶ To prove that these increased currents were related to CO_2 reduction, and not the reduction of Cu₂O traces present in the samples, longterm electrolysis was also performed on both Cu₂O and Cu



Figure 4. (a) Cyclic voltammograms of the different Cu₂O-derived films, registered in 0.1 phosphate buffer solution (pH = 7) at a sweep rate of 25 mV s⁻¹. (b) Linear sweep voltammetry curves recorded for the different Cu₂O-derived films in 0.1 M NaHCO₃/ satd. CO₂ solution at a sweep rate of 25 mV s⁻¹. (c,d) Current–time and charge–time curves registered for a Cu foil and Cu₂O film in 0.1 NaHCO₃/satd. CO₂ solution at E = -1.0 V potential (vs Ag/AgCl reference).

electrodes (Figure 4c,d). While at the initial stage of the 188 electrolysis the reduction of Cu_2O and CO_2 occurred in 189 parallel, after the oxide was completely reduced (note that the 190 necessary charge perfectly matches the stoichiometric amount, 191 1 C), CO_2 reduction was sustained on the oxide-derived metal 192 surface. Thus, the difference between the two samples cannot 193 be simply ascribed to the difference in surface area; rather, 194 other structural factors (nanoparticle size, crystal facets, 195 interparticle grain boundaries, etc.) also must contribute to 196 the enhanced activity (see below).

The gradual conversion of Cu_xO to metallic copper during 198 the PEC processes has at least two effects on PEC performance. 199 First, the formation of traces of Cu (cf. Figure 3b) enhances the 200 PEC activity due to the intrinsic catalytic activity of the Cu 201 nanocubes. Existence of a Schottky junction between Cu₂O and 202 Cu can also facilitate e^-/h^+ separation, thus enhancing the 203 catalytic activity. On the other hand, especially after longer 204 irradiation, gradual consumption of the Cu_xO semiconductor 205 component (because of photocorrosion) leads to a decrease in 206 light absorption and consequently results in the cessation of 207 PEC activity. Note, however, that the photoreduction studies 208 209 presented here were performed in the absence of any external 210 bias potential.

The photocorrosion of Cu_xO in this system is not a fatal flaw 212 because the electrode material can be regenerated, as 213 demonstrated by our recent study on Cu_2O/CNT photo-214 electrodes.²⁴ Electro-oxidation of the photogenerated Cu (to 215 Cu_2O) occurred during the dark periods periodically inserted 216 into the photoelectrolysis protocol. It is worth noting that this 217 EC self-healing was enabled by selection of an optimal potential 218 after careful analysis of the Pourbaix diagram for Cu.

219 Reduction Products, Causal Factors in Product Distribution, 220 and Crystal Engineering. The Cu_xO/Cu interface is remarkable

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221 in the range of products that have been reported from EC and 222 PEC reduction of CO₂. Table 1 collates the various reduction 223 steps possible and corresponding redox potentials. Discounting 224 the one-electron radical pathway, anywhere from 2 electrons up 225 to 18 electrons can be delivered to the CO₂ molecule (Table 226 1). Clearly, carbon–carbon bond formation upon deeper 227 reduction is predicated upon initial binding of intermediates 228 such as CO at active sites on the solid surface. It is hardly 229 surprising that the surface morphology plays a key role in 230 product selectivity. While many mechanistic details still remain 231 to be elucidated, high-energy steps and edges on the crystal 232 surface are currently believed to stabilize and afford the 233 chemisorbed C1 and C2 intermediates to undergo intermo-234 lecular C–C coupling.

As many as 16 reaction products were observed in one EC 236 reduction study on Cu, and of these, 12 were C2 or C3 species, 237 comprised of a range of oxygenated species including 238 hydrocarbons, ketones, aldehydes, carboxylic acids, and 239 alcohols.²⁵ In our own PEC reduction studies on hybrid

Table 1. Nonradical Reduction Pathways for Carbon Dioxide

Theoretical insights^{30,31} considerably aid in guiding exper- 246 imentation and also for rationalizing the experimentally 247 observed product selectivity trends. Thus, analysis of trends 248 in the binding energies for the CO_2 reduction intermediates 249 revealed the protonation of adsorbed CO as the most 250 important step in dictating the overpotential magnitude.³¹ 251 Density functional theory (DFT) calculations have also been 252 presented to this end.³⁰ 253

Ethylene and ethanol have higher energy densities and 254 commercial value than the C1 counterparts. Thus, much effort 255 has focused on optimizing, for example, the C_2H_4/CH_4 product 256 ratio in EC reduction schemes. In this vein, copper microcubes 257 containing a large number of exposed (100) facets (see Figure 258 fs 5) have shown a much higher ratio than unstructured 259 fs



Figure 5. Representative SEM images at two magnifications of a Cu_xO/Cu microcube layer electrodeposited on a gas diffusion electrode (GDE) at -0.4 V (60 °C) from a pH 7 solution of 0.2 M $CuSO_4$ + 0.1 M CuBr + 2 M lactic acid.

polycrystalline copper.^{32–36} Their manifestation in PEC 260 reduction was addressed above (cf. Figure 4b). While this 261 morphology is derived from the use of copper(I) halides 262

product	reaction	standard reduction potential (V vs SHE, the behavior of copper-based electrodes calls into question, our traditiona notion of a chemical catalyst as an agent that does not itself undergo chemical change!at pH = 7)
carbon monoxide	$CO_2 + 2H^+ + 2e^- = CO$ $+ H_2O$	-0.51
		Hydrocarbons
methane	$CO_2 + 8H^+ + 8e^- = CH_4 + 2H_2O$	-0.24
ethane	$2CO_2 + 14H^+ + 14e^- = C_2H_6 + 4H_2O$	-0.27
ethylene	$2CO_2 + 12H^+ + 12e^- = C_2H_4 + 4H_2O$	-0.34
		Oxygenates
formic acid	$\begin{array}{c} \text{CO}_2 + 2\text{H}^+ + 2\text{e}^- = \\ \text{HCOOH} \end{array}$	-0.58
oxalic acid	$2CO_2 + 2H^+ + 2e^- = (COOH)_2$	-0.87
formaldehyde	$CO_2 + 4H^+ + 4e^- = HCHO + H_2O$	-0.48
methanol	$CO_2 + 6H^+ + 6e^- = CH_3OH + H_2O$	-0.39
ethanol	$2CO_2 + 12H^+ + 12e^- = C_2H_5OH + 3H_2O$	-0.33
propanol	$3CO_2 + 18H^+ + 18e^- = C_3H_7OH + 5H_2O$	-0.32

263 (chloride and bromide) as precursors (cf. Figure 5), in situ X- $_{264}$ ray absorption spectroscopy (XAS) has revealed that copper(I) 265 oxide, formed by the initial hydrolysis of the halide, is really the 266 precursor to copper nanocube formation.³⁵ Undoubtedly, the 267 deployment of new in situ probes such as XAS along with 268 online mass spectrometry and techniques such as nuclear 269 magnetic resonance (NMR) spectroscopy should continue to 270 provide insights into deposition mechanisms and reaction 271 pathways. Careful isotope labeling studies will also contribute 272 to further mechanistic insights.

The electrolytes used, the potentials applied, and the crystal 273 274 topology all have a major influence on EC reduction and, by 275 extension, the PEC reduction product selectivity. The oxide 276 layer thickness on copper is another crucial factor as is the local 277 pH at the oxide/copper/electrolyte interface. A high local pH, 278 for example, could suppress the HER and promote C2 279 coupling.³⁶ Finally, "crystal engineering" could be used to tune product selectivity. Two examples of this may be cited. 2.80 Controlled chemical etching has been demonstrated³⁷ as a 281 strategy for exposing high-energy (110) facets on copper 282 283 nanocubes; the resultant EC reduction activity was significantly enhanced. The grain boundary density has been shown to be 2.84 correlated to CO reduction activity for oxide-derived metals, 285 suggesting another route for externally manipulating the 286 catalytic activity of the surface.³ 287

Electrode and Reactor Designs for EC and PEC Reduction of 288 289 CO2. The vast majority of the initial studies were confined to 290 stationary laboratory-scale batch reactors in both cases. 291 Electrode designs also come into play. For example, a porous 292 hollow fiber copper electrode with a compact three-electrode geometry has been shown to provide a large-area three-phase 293 ²⁹⁴ boundary for CO₂ EC reduction.³⁹ Borrowing from the fuel cell 295 playbook, a GDE provides for operation at pressures higher 296 than the ambient.⁹ Solid-oxide fuel cells also provide for a 297 matrix for performing CO₂ electrolysis at higher temperatures 298 with concomitant improvements in process thermodynamics 299 and kinetics.⁹ Energy efficiencies for various CO₂ electrolyzer 300 designs have been compared.³ The challenge here is to simultaneously secure high values of energy efficiency and 301 302 cathodic current density. Reactor designs for PEC reduction of CO_2 have been reviewed.¹³ In our own studies of a continuous-303 304 flow PEC reactor (CFPR) for CO₂ reduction, interesting shifts 305 in product distribution away from C1 (methanol) to longer 306 chain products were observed because of the small volume in 307 the cathode microchannel and consequential ease of coupling 308 of the initial electrogenerated precursors.²²

309 Future Outlook. In summary, this Perspective has highlighted 310 the important fact that morphological evolution of the 311 (photo)cathode during the complex steps involved in the 312 addition of electrons and protons to CO₂ has similar 313 underpinnings in both EC and PEC reduction scenarios. 314 Nonetheless and as pointed out earlier, the chemical changes 315 undergone by the copper oxide surface during CO₂ (photo)-316 reduction need not be considered a fatal flaw in the use of this 317 intriguing material. Many natural assemblies (e.g., the plant 318 photosynthesis apparatus) do indeed undergo self-repair 319 mechanisms after exposure to high photon fluxes. In a similar 320 fashion, a periodic reactivation step to regenerate CO₂ 321 reduction activity may be built into the overall process design 322 to combat too deep of a reduction of the copper oxide layer. Interestingly, however, the behavior of copper-based electro-323 324 des calls into question our traditional notion of a chemical 325 catalyst as an agent that does not itself undergo chemical

change! This aspect certainly is not the only puzzle that the 326 Cu_vO/Cu/liquid interface holds; many more surprises 327 undoubtedly await the intense EC and PEC scrutiny of it in 328 the coming months and years. Finally, the features of copper 329 oxide/copper interfaces as noted here may not be unique; 330 recent studies highlighting similar trends in other metal oxide/ 331 metal interfaces, including Au, Sn, and even Co, are worthy of 332 note. $^{40-42}$ 333 p

The behavior of copper-based electrodes calls into question our traditional notion of a chemical catalyst as an agent that does not itself undergo chemical change!

Finally, notwithstanding the remarkable strides that have 334 been made in the past 5 years in our understanding of copper- 335 based electrodes and photoelectrodes for CO₂ (photo)- 336 reduction, the product fluxes need to be boosted significantly 337 to levels that are sufficiently high for reactor scale-up and 338 engineering. There are promising avenues, including the 339 incorporation of additional metal ions into the copper oxide 340 host framework (e.g., CuFeO₂ and CuNb₂O₆)^{43,44} or the use of 341 3D electrode architectures of highly conductive nanocarbons 342 such as aligned carbon nanotubes or graphene foams. Finally, 343 further advances in electrode and reactor designs also have to 344 occur to translate the laboratory-scale findings to technological 345 readiness. 346

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408 **ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

409 We thank the following agencies for partial funding support of 410 the research described herein: the National Science Foundation 411 (CHE-1303803) (to K.R.); Hungarian Academy of Science, 412 "Momentum" Excellence Program (LP2014-3) (to C.J.); and 413 NASA (Award No. NNL15AA08C to K.R., N.d.T., and 414 B.H.D.). The authors also thank Rendernet Ltd. for assistance 415 in preparing the artwork in the TOC. The constructive 416 criticisms provided by three anonymous reviewers on an initial 417 version of this manuscript are much appreciated.

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