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Journal

ACS Catalysis, 10(14)

ISSN

2155-5435

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Publication Date

2020-07-17

DOI

10.1021/acscatal.0c01670

Supplemental Material

<https://escholarship.org/uc/item/0v4992d8#supplemental>

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Correlating Oxidation State and Surface Area to Activity from Operando Studies of Copper CO Electroreduction Catalysts in a Gas-Fed Device

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Cite This: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1021/acscatal.0c01670>

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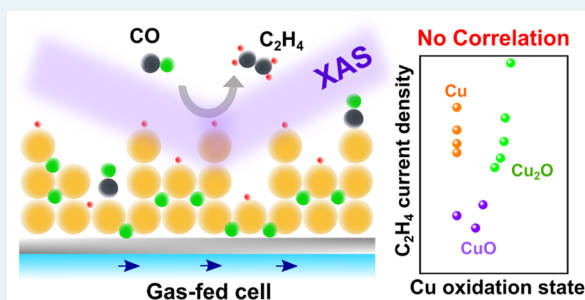
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ABSTRACT: The rational design of high-performance electrocatalysts requires a detailed understanding of dynamic changes in catalyst properties, including oxidation states, surface area, and morphology under realistic working conditions. Oxide-derived Cu catalysts exhibit a remarkable selectivity toward multicarbon products for the electrochemical CO reduction reaction (CORR), but the exact role of the oxide remains elusive for explaining the performance enhancements. Here, we used *operando* X-ray absorption spectroscopy (XAS) coupled with simultaneous measurements of the catalyst activity and selectivity by gas chromatography (GC) to study the relationship between oxidation states of Cu-based catalysts and the activity for ethylene (C₂H₄) production in a CO gas-fed cell. By utilizing a custom-built XAS cell, oxidation states of Cu catalysts can be probed in device-relevant settings and under high current densities (>80 mA cm⁻²) for the CORR. By employing an electrochemical oxidation process, we found that the Cu oxidation states and specific ion species do not correlate with C₂H₄ production. The difference in the CORR activity is also investigated in relation to electrochemical surface area (ECSA) changes. While the hydrogen evolution reaction (HER) activity is positively correlated to the ECSA changes, the increased C₂H₄ activity is not proportional to the ECSA. *Ex situ* characterization from microscopic techniques suggests that the changes in the C₂H₄ activity and selectivity may arise from a morphological transformation that evolves into a more active structure. These comprehensive results give rise to the development of a cell regeneration method that can restore the performance of the Cu catalyst without cell disassembly. Our study establishes a basis for the rational design of highly active electrocatalysts for broad-range reactions in a gas-fed device.

KEYWORDS: *operando* X-ray absorption spectroscopy, electrochemical CO reduction, oxide-derived copper electrocatalyst, gas diffusion electrode, oxidation state



INTRODUCTION

The electrochemical carbon monoxide and carbon dioxide reduction reactions (CORRs and CO₂RRs, respectively) are promising strategies to convert waste emissions into valuable chemical feedstocks, such as synthesis gas, hydrocarbons, and oxygenates.^{1–4} The CORR process is specifically interesting because it can be part of a tandem catalysis system, in which the first catalytic reaction converts CO₂ into CO, and the second catalytic reaction converts CO into higher-order reduction products such as ethanol or ethylene.^{5,6} By leveraging the efficient and selective first two-electron, two-proton process from CO₂ to CO, analyses show that the optimal solar-to-fuel conversion efficiency of a tandem catalysis system was higher than that of the direct CO₂RR system at all cathodic overpotential and faradaic efficiency (FE) combinations.⁷ In the CORR process, copper-based materials are the only electrocatalysts that can produce more reduced hydrocarbons and oxygenates due to the optimal Cu–CO binding

strength.^{8,9} For lower activation overpotentials and increased FEs, Cu-based catalysts have been tuned via nanostructuring,¹⁰ modifying the electrochemical surface area (ECSA),¹¹ or through the introduction of a second metal.^{12,13} In particular, oxide-derived Cu (OD-Cu) prepared from the oxidative treatment of polycrystalline Cu resulted in high CO reduction selectivity toward multicarbon oxygenates at modest potentials.¹⁴ Although the high CO reduction activity was correlated to surface sites that bind CO strongly,^{15,16} the detailed mechanism for catalytic enhancement and surface structure during CORR remains elusive.

Received: April 13, 2020

Revised: June 11, 2020

Published: June 25, 2020

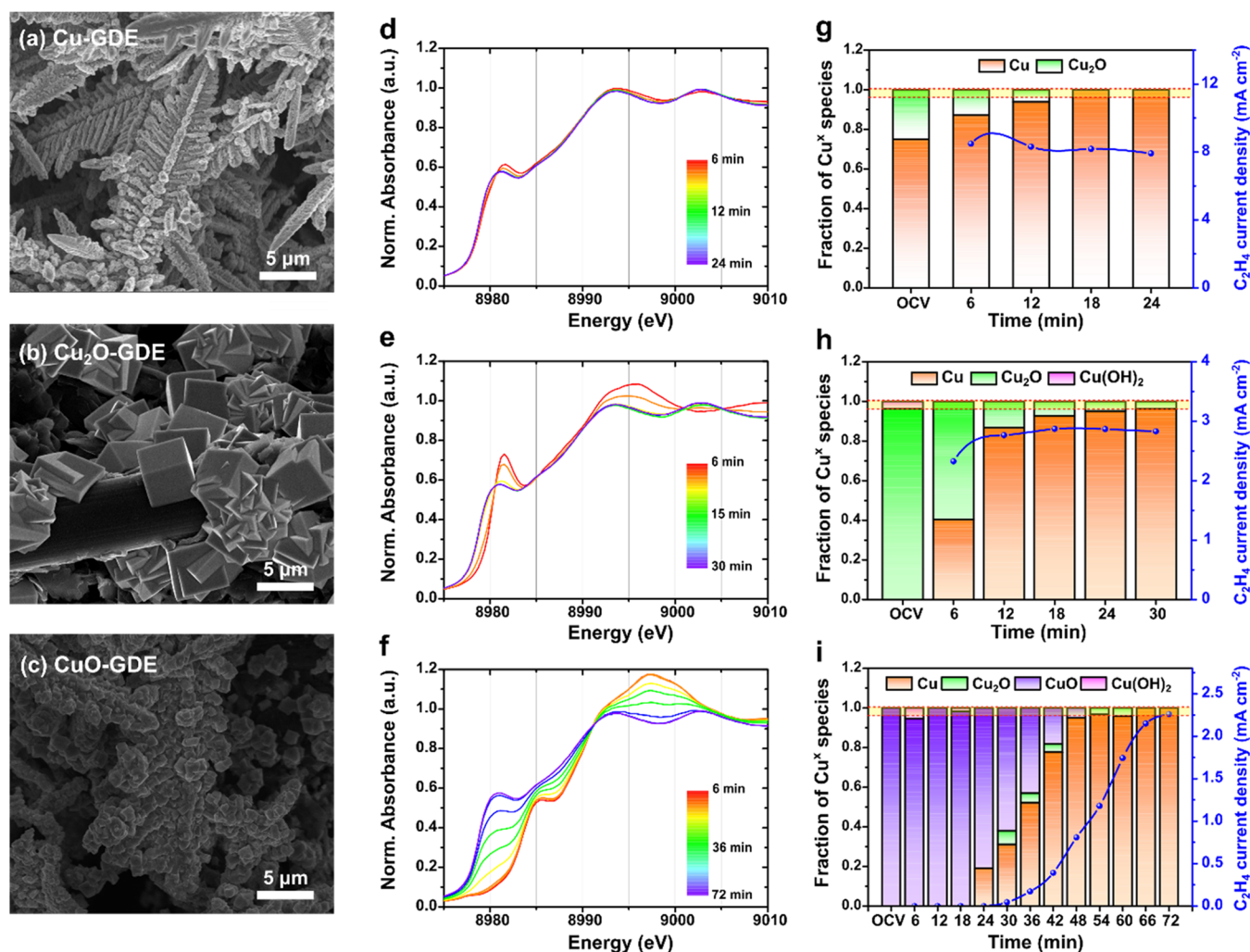


Figure 1. Catalyst structural characterization and *operando* XANES spectra during CORR. (a–c) SEM images of the as-synthesized Cu-GDE (a), Cu₂O-GDE (b), and CuO-GDE (c). (d–f) Temporal changes of Cu K-edge XANES spectra of Cu-GDE (d), Cu₂O-GDE (e), and CuO-GDE (f) acquired during the CORR at -2.2 V versus Ag/AgCl. (g–i) The calculated fraction of Cu oxidation states of Cu-GDE (g), Cu₂O-GDE (h), and CuO-GDE (i) from a LCF analysis with respect to the reaction time. GC measurements for the C₂H₄ partial current density (blue traces) were synchronized with XANES measurements and collected every 6 min. The yellow shaded region represents the estimated error range of up to 4% in the LCF analysis. The data shown in panels g, h, and i are derived from XANES spectra in panels d, e, and f, respectively.

57 To understand the origin of the superior catalytic activity of
 58 OD-Cu in comparison to polycrystalline Cu, previous studies
 59 focused on structural transformations during oxidation and
 60 subsequent *in situ* reduction.^{17,18} This oxidation–reduction
 61 process increases the surface roughness, which can create high
 62 densities of grain-boundaries.¹⁹ The grain-boundary surface
 63 terminations showed a selective increase in the CO₂RR activity
 64 but not for the parasitic hydrogen evolution reaction (HER).²⁰
 65 This observation triggered a detailed mechanistic question of
 66 whether the activity enhancement comes from an increase in
 67 the number of active surface sites or an increase in the intrinsic
 68 activity of a specific active site. An extensive effort for
 69 investigating the active site has concentrated on detecting Cu⁺
 70 and subsurface oxides while under operation, as theoretical
 71 calculations suggest that these species can improve the kinetics
 72 and thermodynamics of CO dimerization.²¹ The presence of
 73 Cu⁺ and subsurface oxygen under highly reductive conditions
 74 was confirmed by microscopic and spectroscopic techni-
 75 ques,^{22,23} but most of these studies did not run the CORR
 76 or CO₂RR, so it is unclear if catalytic environments during the
 77 measurements are relevant to the actual catalytic reaction. The

experiments also relied on *ex situ* or quasi *in situ* tools that
 cannot exclude the possible rapid reoxidation of OD-Cu before
 measurement.^{24,25} Moreover, in many studies of the highly
 active Cu-based catalysts, the explanation for high performance
 depends on simple confirmation of Cu⁺ or oxygen content,
 with no proof of whether they are involved in the catalytic
 reaction or not. These uncertainties hinder the development of
 general relationships between the catalyst structure and
 activity.

In order to investigate oxidation states of Cu catalysts during
 the CORR, previous studies utilized *operando* XAS cells that
 are modified from an existing high-performance cell
 design.^{26,27} These cells, however, typically operate at total
 current densities of up to 5 mA cm⁻², much lower than the
 operating conditions for catalyst performance measurements,
 which can exceed 100 mA cm⁻².²⁸ The *operando* conditions are
 not necessarily representative because the surface of the
 catalyst and local environments are known to be very sensitive
 to changes in the reaction rate and cell configurations.²⁹ The
 structural information obtained in such controlled conditions
 often ignores CO mass transport limitations and may not

99 represent the real oxidation states under practical operating
100 conditions. Although the gas-diffusion layer (GDL)-based cell
101 setup has been explored to overcome the mass transport
102 limitations,³⁰ a careful evaluation of the CORR activity and
103 selectivity in the modified *operando* cell is still needed to
104 guarantee that the observed catalyst structure represents the
105 real situation under operating conditions.^{31,32} By considering
106 these circumstances, we set our research goals as follows. First,
107 investigating the direct relationship between oxidation states
108 and the CORR performance using a well-configured *operando*
109 XAS cell is required to understand the exact roles of oxide
110 phases. Of particular interest is the oxidation state of a catalyst
111 under high current densities without the depletion of CO
112 molecules. Second, we set out to determine if dynamic changes
113 in the catalyst surface area can influence C₂₊ selectivity and
114 activity. Addressing these goals is required to formulate the
115 general design principles for active CORR electrocatalysts.

116 Herein, we report a time-resolved *operando* study on the
117 effect of oxidation states on the CORR performance by XAS
118 and online GC, which allows for the simultaneous monitoring
119 of the chemical valence state and product selectivity. We
120 prepared three types of Cu catalysts with different oxidation
121 states and introduced an electrochemical oxidation process,
122 which enabled us to investigate the relationship between
123 oxidation states and C–C coupling. By utilizing a modified gas-
124 diffusion electrode (GDE) cell and an extensive fitting analysis,
125 we demonstrated that the oxidation states of Cu catalysts
126 during the CORR do not correlate with ethylene production
127 under high reaction rates (>80 mA cm⁻²). We also found that
128 an increase in the number of active sites estimated by the
129 electrochemical surface area (ECSA) was not proportional to
130 the C₂H₄ yield. The post-mortem microscopic characterization
131 indicated that the increased CORR performance may be due to
132 morphological transformations during the electrochemical
133 oxidation and its subsequent reduction that generate a more
134 active Cu structure. On the basis of our findings, we applied
135 this electrochemical oxidation process to restore both the
136 activity and selectivity for C₂H₄ production and demonstrated
137 continuous operation over 6 regeneration cycles.

138 ■ RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

139 **Synthesis and CORR Activity of Cu Catalysts in an**
140 ***Operando* XAS Cell.** To determine the relationship between
141 oxidation states and the CORR performance, we carefully
142 designed synthetic protocols to synthesize three catalysts with
143 three different oxidation states of Cu. The crystalline structure
144 and morphology of the three as-prepared Cu catalysts were
145 confirmed by X-ray powder diffraction (XRD) and scanning
146 electron microscopy (SEM). The XRD analysis indicated that
147 Cu₂O-GDE and CuO-GDE show good agreement with
148 characteristic Cu₂O and CuO peaks, respectively (Figure
149 S1). The Cu-GDE not only had peaks that matched with
150 metallic Cu but also had a small amount of Cu₂O due to the
151 spontaneous oxidation in ambient air. In SEM images, both
152 Cu-GDE and CuO-GDE show dendritic structures with sizes
153 ranging 5–10 μm. Cu-GDE exhibited a sharper dendritic
154 structure, while CuO-GDE exhibited more rounded tips
155 (Figure 1a and 1c). The Cu₂O-GDE exhibited a cubic-shaped
156 morphology with a size of less than 10 μm (Figure 1b).

157 For evaluating the electronic structure and oxidation states
158 during the CORR, we used minimal modifications to an
159 existing gas-fed cell, incorporating an X-ray transmissive
160 window to accommodate *operando* XAS measurements (Figure

S2). The gas-fed cell is based on a hybrid catalyst-bonded
161 membrane device that exhibited a total operating current
162 density of up to 87 mA cm⁻² at –2.0 V (vs Ag/AgCl; hereafter,
163 all voltage is versus Ag/AgCl).³³ We first characterized the
164 CORR activity and selectivity of the Cu-GDE in the *operando*
165 XAS cell to verify the effects of cell modification on the catalyst
166 performance. The total current density reached 80 mA cm⁻² at
167 –2.2 V, and its trend followed an exponential increase for the
168 potential window of –1.6 V to –2.2 V, demonstrating
169 sufficient CO mass transport over these potential ranges
170 (Figure S3a and S3b). The FE for C₂H₄ and H₂ generation
171 reached ~11 and ~79% at –2.2 V, respectively. (Figure S3c).
172 Compared to the CORR performance in the original gas-fed
173 cell, we found slight differences in the calculated FE for C₂H₄
174 selectivity (decreased from 18 to 11%) and for H₂ (increased
175 from 51 to 79%) in the *operando* XAS cell. We ascribe these
176 changes to the modified parts that may prevent the pressure
177 buildup necessary to reduce water flooding (Figure S3d).³⁴
178 However, the *operando* XAS cell maintained similar total
179 operating current densities (~80 mA cm⁻²) compared to the
180 original cell, which allowed us to observe actual states of the
181 catalyst structure under realistic operating conditions. During
182 the *operando* XAS measurements, we were only able to detect
183 gas products, including H₂ and C₂H₄, because space
184 constraints in the beamline hutch did not allow us to sample
185 the liquid products in real-time. The corresponding *operando*
186 Cu K-edge XAS was obtained after a potential hold of 1 h. The
187 XANES analysis shows that the Cu-GDE was a metallic Cu⁰
188 phase after 1 h for all applied potentials except the potential at
189 –1.6 V (Figure S4a and S4b). The EXAFS analysis indicates
190 that all the samples have a prominent Cu–Cu scattering peak
191 at 2.2 Å across a range of the applied potentials, which is
192 indicative of the metallic Cu⁰ phase. (Figure S4c). These data
193 also demonstrated that performing *operando* XAS on Cu
194 catalysts with different oxidation states enables us to
195 systemically validate the contribution of oxidation states to
196 the CORR catalytic activity of Cu-based materials in the gas-
197 fed cell.

Probing Oxidation States of Cu Catalysts by
199 ***Operando* XAS.** To investigate the Cu valence fraction in
200 real-time during the CORR, we performed time-resolved XAS
201 measurements of three Cu catalysts under the CORR
202 operating conditions. We applied the potential of –2.2 V
203 because it exhibited the highest FE for ethylene generation.
204 During the *operando* XAS measurements, gas products were
205 characterized by using on-line GC, and the GC and XAS
206 measurements were synchronized such that both collected data
207 every 6 min. (Figure S5). Other gaseous products such as
208 methane and ethane exhibited negligible FEs during the bulk
209 electrolysis (<0.2%). For the quantitative analysis of the Cu
210 oxidation states, a linear combination fitting (LCF) was
211 employed using a set of pure-valence references (Figure
212 S6a).³⁵ Compared to the reference spectra, the observed
213 XANES spectra presented a lower amplitude due to the
214 overabsorption effect (Figure S6b). All the spectra were
215 corrected for overabsorption by using a simple model (Table
216 S1).³⁶ By using the synchronized measurements of GC and
217 XAS with rigorous overabsorption correction and LCF, the
218 *operando* XAS cell and analysis provided a useful platform to
219 study the correlation between the catalyst oxidation states and
220 catalytic performance for the CORR.

221 We tracked the change of XANES spectra for three Cu
222 catalysts overtime under the fixed potential of –2.2 V (Figure 223

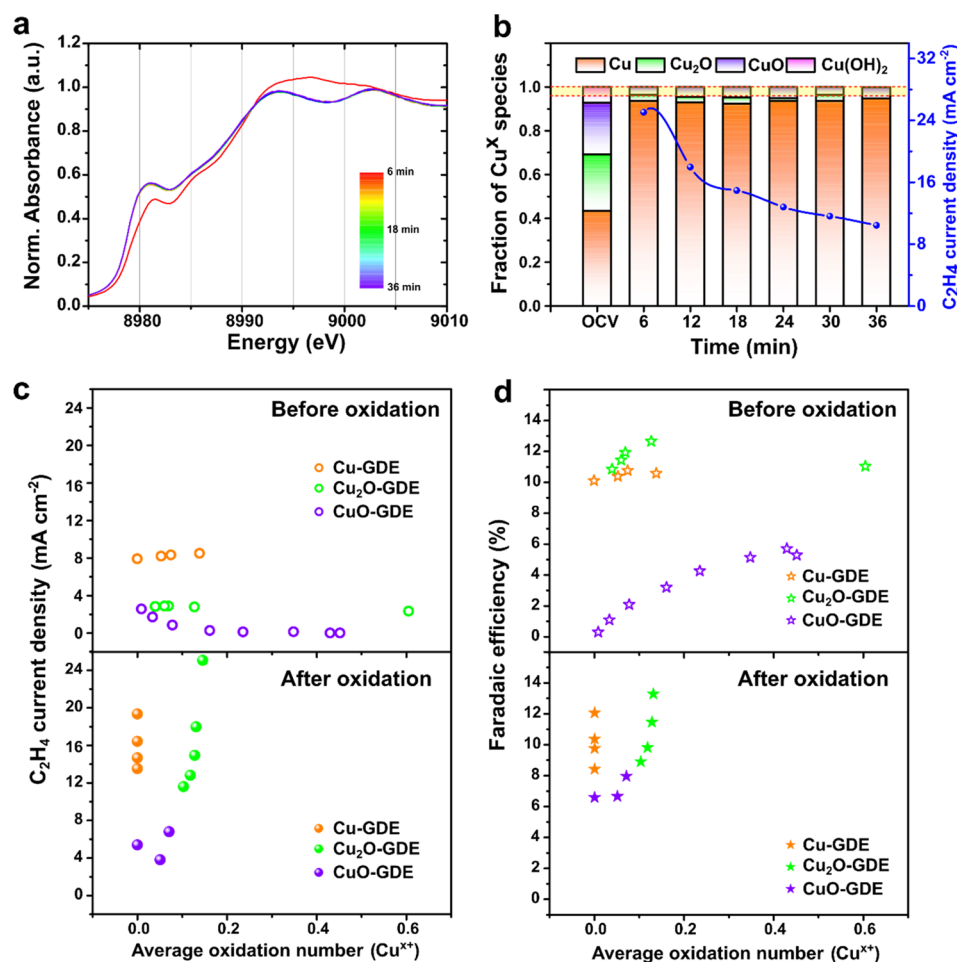


Figure 2. *Operando* XANES spectra during the CORR after electrochemical oxidation. (a) Temporal changes of Cu K-edge XANES spectra of Cu₂O-GDE after applying an anodic potential at 1.5 V versus Ag/AgCl for 5 min. After 6 min, every spectrum overlaps with each other. (b) The calculated fraction of the Cu oxidation states of Cu₂O-GDE after electrochemical oxidation. The yellow shaded region represents the estimated error range of up to 4% in the LCF analysis. (c) C₂H₄ partial current density and (d) faradaic efficiency of Cu catalysts as a function of Cu oxidation states before and after electrochemical oxidation. In terms of the CORR activity (C₂H₄ partial current density) and selectivity (faradaic efficiency), there is no correlation to the Cu oxidation states.

224 1d–1f). Repeated XANES spectra were collected until no
 225 further changes were observed. In the case of Cu-GDE and
 226 Cu₂O-GDE, the Cu⁺ reduced to metallic Cu⁰ within 20 min,
 227 and the C₂H₄ production was detected in the first GC
 228 measurement at 6 min (Figures 1g and 1h). Interestingly,
 229 CuO-GDE exhibited no detectable C₂H₄ product until the
 230 CuO phase began to reduce to the metallic Cu⁰ phase at 24
 231 min (Figure 1i). The trend of C₂H₄ partial current densities
 232 followed the evolution of the metallic Cu⁰ phase and showed
 233 the maximum value after reducing all the residual oxide into
 234 Cu⁰. This result suggests that CuO itself is inactive for the
 235 reduction reaction of CO molecules, and C–C coupling occurs
 236 only at the Cu⁰ surface. Our observations were also in
 237 agreement with previously reported oxide-containing Cu
 238 catalysts that exhibited high C₂H₄ activity after a preactivation
 239 step.^{30,37}

240 It is important to note that all the Cu catalysts reduced to
 241 metallic Cu⁰ states during the CORR regardless of their initial
 242 oxidation states. Although the LCF analysis of Cu₂O-GDE
 243 shows ~3.7% Cu⁺ remaining in the Cu₂O-GDE after 30 min,
 244 this amount of residual oxides is within the error range of a
 245 LCF analysis. To estimate the error range in the LCF analysis,
 246 we introduced an empirical method by using normalized sum-

247 squares (NSS) as a best-fit criterion (Figure S7). In this
 248 respect, we conclude that the accuracy for the determination of
 249 Cu oxidation states via the LCF analysis is within 3–4%.

Correlation between Oxidation States and CORR
Performance. Previous studies have claimed efficient C–C
 251 coupling during the CO₂RR from surface or subsurface Cu
 252 oxide species, which formed via an electrochemical oxidation
 253 process.^{18,38,39} During the CO₂RR, the residual oxygen was
 254 mainly located in an amorphous 1–2 nm thick layer within the
 255 Cu subsurface.²³ Accordingly, we aimed in the next step to
 256 investigate the effects of surface oxide species on the CORR
 257 performance by applying an anodic potential to all the reduced
 258 Cu catalysts. The generation of the surface oxide structure was
 259 based on a previous study showing that copper oxide starts to
 260 grow at the surface at sufficiently high positive potentials in
 261 alkaline solutions.⁴⁰ A highly positive potential of 1.5 V was
 262 applied for 5 min to the Cu catalysts that had already
 263 converted into metallic Cu⁰ states after the previous CORR.
 264 After the anodic oxidation, the XANES spectra show oxide
 265 features, and the LCF analysis reveals that copper oxides and
 266 hydroxides were formed in all Cu catalysts up to 60% (Figures
 267 2 and S8). We then performed *operando* XANES measure-
 268 ments and evaluated the CORR performance simultaneously at
 269

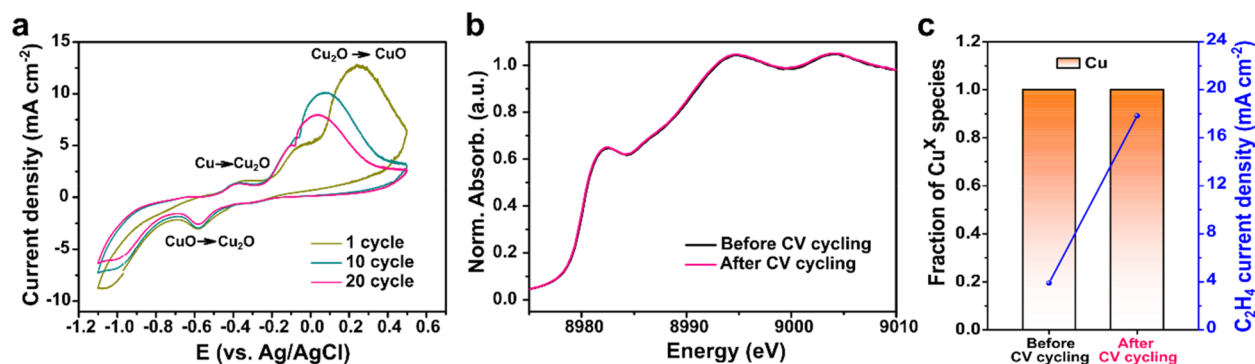


Figure 3. Electrochemical oxidation by using CV cycling. (a) CV curves of Cu-GDE recorded after electrolysis at -2.2 V versus Ag/AgCl. The anodic peaks related to the Cu oxidation into Cu(I) and Cu(II) and reduction are indicated. (b) *Operando* Cu K-edge XANES spectra of Cu-GDE before and after CV cycling. (c) The calculated fraction of Cu oxidation states before and after CV cycling and the corresponding C_2H_4 partial current densitie.

270 a fixed potential of -2.2 V. Unlike the previous CORR results
 271 before the anodic oxidation (Figure 1g–1i), most of the
 272 surface oxide and hydroxide species in all Cu catalysts were
 273 quickly reduced into metallic Cu⁰ within the time resolution of
 274 the XANES measurements (<6 min) (Figures 2a and S8). The
 275 result suggests that the surface oxides are generally much easier
 276 to reduce than the initial oxides in the Cu catalysts. Moreover,
 277 similar features in the CORR selectivity and activity were
 278 observed through all the Cu catalysts. First, the total current
 279 densities of all the catalysts were increased after the anodic
 280 oxidation process, leading to significant enhancements of the
 281 partial current densities for both C_2H_4 and H_2 (Figure S9). In
 282 comparison to that of the initial Cu catalysts before the anodic
 283 oxidation treatment, $FE_{C_2H_4}$ increased and FE_{H_2} decreased in all
 284 Cu catalysts. Second, the enhanced partial current densities of
 285 C_2H_4 in all the Cu catalysts rapidly declined as the CORR
 286 proceeded.

287 Interestingly, the LCF analysis of Cu₂O- and CuO-GDE
 288 demonstrates that residual oxide species ($\sim 5\%$) remained after
 289 further reaction time (Figures 2b and S8d). Although this
 290 amount of residual oxide is quite close to the error margins of
 291 the LCF analysis, its presence and persistence during the
 292 reaction have been regarded as the promoter for a C–C
 293 coupling.^{24,41} We hypothesize that there could be an optimal
 294 oxidation state value or a linear correlation between the
 295 oxidation states and CORR performance if the residual oxide
 296 plays a role in the catalytic reaction. To verify this hypothesis
 297 and explore the relationship between oxidation states and
 298 CORR performance, we link the average oxidation number
 299 calculated from the LCF analysis and the CORR activity (vs
 300 C_2H_4 partial current density, Figure 2c) and selectivity (vs
 301 $FE_{C_2H_4}$, Figure 2d) before and after the anodic oxidation
 302 process. However, the oxidation states show no apparent
 303 correlation with the activity or selectivity. The contribution of
 304 each Cu ion species, including Cu⁰, Cu⁺, and Cu²⁺, to the
 305 CORR activity and selectivity was also investigated, but no
 306 obvious trend was observed (Figure S10). Although hard XAS
 307 measurements at the Cu K-edge contains bulk-sensitive
 308 information and the LCF analysis cannot exclude the possible
 309 existence of residual oxides lower than 4%, this result is in
 310 contrast to the previous studies that utilized *in situ* XAS
 311 cells.^{24,42} Our findings highlight the importance of a catalyst
 312 performance evaluation for an *operando* cell and the direct
 313 linkage between the observed XAS spectra and catalyst
 314 performance measured simultaneously.

We also tested the steady-state CV cycling method to
 regenerate the surface oxide on the Cu catalyst. This mild
 oxidative–reductive process in alkaline solutions has been used
 to induce step-wise reconstruction into a Cu(511) surface that
 catalyzes the conversion of CO molecules into ethanol.⁴³ The
 CV cycling method, with a cycling potential between -1.1 and
 0.5 V for 20 cycles, was applied to the Cu-GDE that was
 already reduced into metallic Cu⁰. The CV data indicate that
 Cu⁺ was formed at -0.4 V, and Cu²⁺ was generated in the
 range of 0.05 – 0.25 V, leading to the formation of oxidized
 copper (Figure 3a).⁴⁰ This formed oxide was reduced again
 between -0.6 V and -1 V, as shown by the reductive wave in
 the CV. *Operando* XANES demonstrated that there was no
 change in the spectra before and after CV cycling (Figure 3b),
 and the LCF analysis confirmed that the two spectra indicate
 purely metallic Cu⁰ states (Figure 3c). In contrast, the C_2H_4
 partial current densities were increased about 4 times higher
 than those before the CV cycling (Figure 3c), consistent with
 the results from the oxidative treatment method. This result
 further supports our conclusion that the oxidation states of Cu
 catalysts fail to explain the difference in the catalytic activity
 and selectivity for the CORR in high current density
 operations >80 mA cm⁻².

Effects of Electrochemical Surface Area on CORR. The
 lack of a correlation between the oxidation state of Cu catalysts
 and CORR performance naturally points to another common
 factor, ECSA. It has been previously reported that the ECSA-
 normalized CORR activities of high and low surface area Cu
 are comparable, leading to the conclusion that both catalysts
 have a similar intrinsic activity.⁴⁴ The major difference in
 selectivity between these Cu catalysts was attributed to the
 lower intrinsic HER activity in high-ECSA catalysts due to
 local elevation of the pH from the rapid consumption of
 protons at high rates.^{11,45} We investigated the role of the ECSA
 on CORR performance enhancement to understand whether
 the electrochemical oxidation can simply increase the number
 of active sites, or create new, more efficient active sites. The
 ECSAs of all the Cu catalysts were estimated by measuring the
 electrochemical double-layer capacitance (EDLC, Figure S11),
 which has been used to estimate a proxy for the wetted GDL
 electrode area in the gas-fed CO₂ electrolyzers.⁴⁶ Note that
 although the ECSA obtained by EDLC measurements could
 contain contributions from both the Cu catalyst and GDL, our
 deposition method (detailed in Experimental Section) is likely
 to cover the majority of the electrolyte-accessible portion of

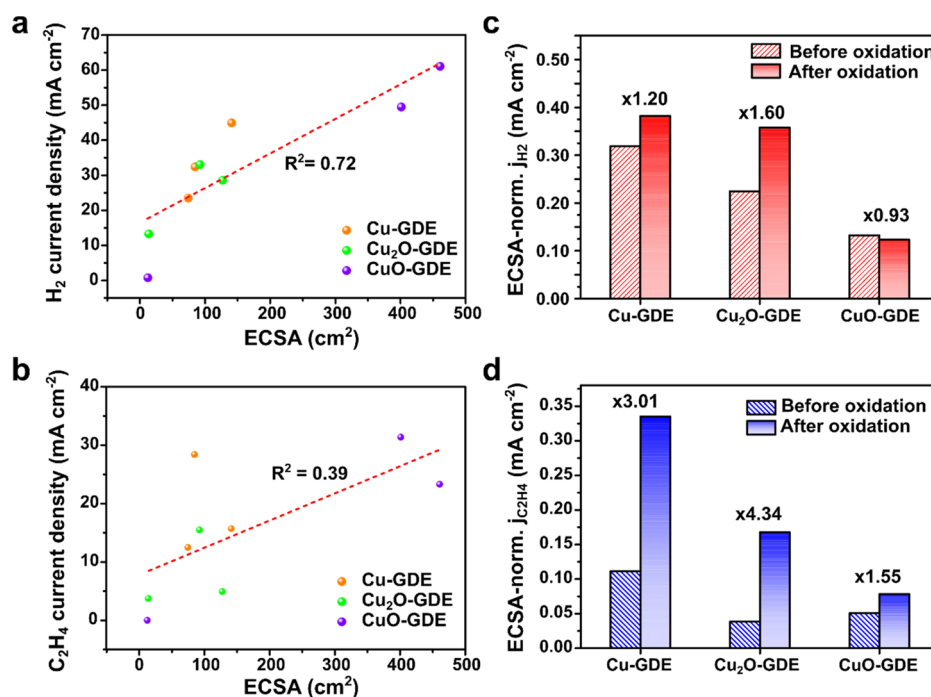


Figure 4. Relationship between the ECSA and activities for the HER and CORR. (a) H₂ and (b) C₂H₄ partial current densities of Cu catalysts as a function of the ECSA, estimated by EDLC. Normalized current densities by the ECSAs for each Cu catalyst for (c) H₂ and (d) C₂H₄ before and after electrochemical oxidation.

360 the GDL with the Cu catalyst. We therefore expect the EDLC
 361 measurements to provide a good approximation of the catalyst
 362 ECSA. The EDLC of the catalysts was measured at three
 363 periods before and after CORR and after anodic oxidation in
 364 the gas-fed cell (Table S2). All of the EDLCs of the Cu
 365 catalysts increased during the CORR and slightly decreased
 366 after anodic oxidation. The increase in EDLC during CORR
 367 could arise from the accelerating electrolyte ingress into the
 368 GDE. Such an increase in the EDLC is consistent with a
 369 previous report, where the passage of the faradaic current was
 370 found to lead to an increasing apparent hydrophilicity of a
 371 GDL over time, resulting in water flooding.⁴⁶ Also, we
 372 consistently observed salt crystallites on the catalyst layer in
 373 all the Cu catalysts (Figure S12). As salt crystallites form, they
 374 may draw water through the GDL via capillary forces, owing to
 375 their hygroscopic properties.⁴⁷

376 On the basis of the above results, we measured partial
 377 current densities for C₂H₄ and H₂ at the same points where the
 378 ECSAs were obtained (Figure S13) and linked them to the
 379 ECSA of the Cu catalysts. We note that the total FEs for all of
 380 the Cu catalysts were less than unity because liquid products
 381 were measured from the anode side of the gas-fed cell where
 382 oxidation of some products can occur.³³ We observe that the
 383 ECSA value was positively correlated with the H₂ partial
 384 current density ($R^2 = 0.72$, Figure 4a), suggesting that the
 385 flooded electrolyte impeded the influx of CO gas to the catalyst
 386 surface and promoted HER. Such enhanced water flooding and
 387 higher rates of the HER were also observed in the *operando*
 388 XAS cell compared to that of the gas-fed cell (Figure S14).
 389 These results highlight that the characterization of the catalyst
 390 performance in the *operando* XAS cell is critical in order to
 391 guarantee the real operating condition of the CORR. The
 392 ECSA-normalized partial current densities for H₂ increased
 393 slightly or were similar before and after oxidation (Figure 4c),
 394 indicating that the intrinsic activity for the HER was not

395 affected by the anodic oxidation process. In contrast, there was
 396 no linear correlation between the ECSA and C₂H₄ partial
 397 current densities ($R^2 = 0.39$, Figure 4b), and the ECSA-
 398 normalized C₂H₄ current densities significantly increased after
 399 oxidation in all Cu catalysts (Figure 4d). Considering that
 400 wetted surfaces estimated by the EDLC values were slightly
 401 decreased after anodic oxidation, we explicitly exclude an
 402 increase in the number of active sites for the CORR from the
 403 reduction of the preoxidized catalyst as a cause of the increased
 404 activity in the gas-fed cell. Therefore, we conclude that
 405 electrochemical oxidation increases the C₂H₄ activity and
 406 selectivity by generating new, highly selective active sites for
 407 C–C coupling.

Morphological Transformation of Cu Catalysts during CORR. Our observations that neither the oxidation state
 409 nor the ECSA are correlated with the activity and selectivity
 410 suggest another catalyst property determining the CORR
 411 performance in gas-fed cells. Since Cu has a small cohesive
 412 energy and a high surface mobility, the surface of Cu
 413 undergoes severe reconstruction when exposed to gaseous
 414 CO⁴⁸ or under the CORR conditions.⁴⁹ In particular, the
 415 adsorption of CO into oxide-containing Cu catalysts invokes a
 416 surface reconstruction in the form of nanoclusters or
 417 fragmented structures that resulted in enhanced *n*-propanol
 418 production during the CORR.^{30,37} This CO-induced surface
 419 reconstruction motivates us to investigate the relationship
 420 between morphological changes and the CORR performance
 421 of our Cu catalysts. To investigate the morphological evolution
 422 during CORR, we collected post-mortem SEM (Figures
 423 5a–5c) and transmission electron microscopy (TEM) (Figures
 424 5d–5f) images of Cu-GDE before and after electrolysis and
 425 electrochemical oxidation. The dendritic structure in the
 426 pristine Cu-GDE was composed of nanocubes with a size
 427 ranging 100–150 nm (Figure 5a) and a crystalline surface layer
 428 (Figure 5d). The fast Fourier transform (FFT) pattern of the
 429

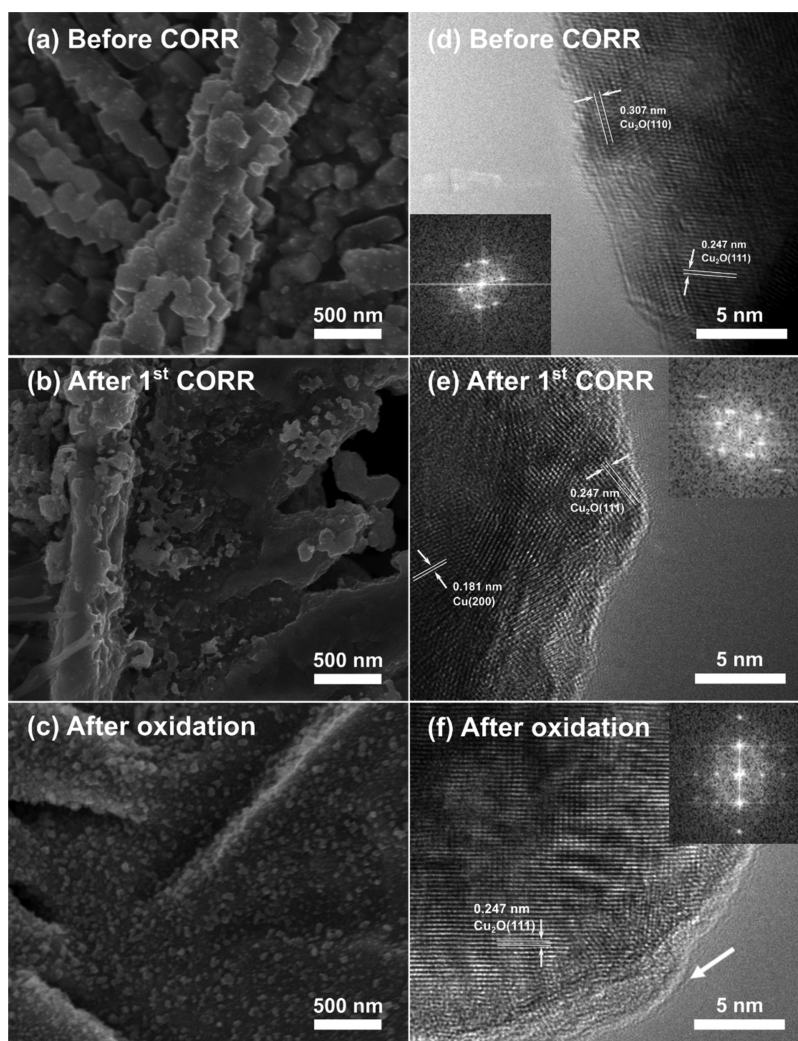


Figure 5. Morphological transformation of Cu-GDE during the CORR. (a–c) SEM and (d–f) TEM images of Cu-GDE before and after electrolysis and subsequent electrochemical oxidation: (a and d) as-synthesized Cu-GDE before the CORR, (b and e) after first the CORR under -2.2 V versus Ag/AgCl taken at 60 min, (c and f) after applying the anodic potential of 1.5 V versus Ag/AgCl for 5 min. The white arrow indicates an amorphous surface layer on the newly formed nanoparticles after anodic oxidation. The insets of the TEM images indicate representative FFT analysis on a selected area to calculate the local d -spacing value.

430 nanocube showed Cu₂O(111) and (110) phases, but addi- 450
431 tional CuO phase patterns were also observed due to the 451
432 surface oxidation in ambient conditions during the *ex situ* TEM 452
433 analysis (Figure S15). After the initial CORR proceeded for 60 453
434 min, the nanocubes were no longer observed, having coalesced 454
435 into a smooth surface (Figure 5b). The TEM image showed 455
436 that the crystalline surface was still maintained even after 456
437 CORR (Figure 5e). This result is in agreement with a 457
438 degradation mechanism induced by either H- or CO- 458
439 adsorbates under highly negative potentials.⁵⁰ After applying 459
440 a positive potential of 1.5 V for 5 min, the Cu surfaces became 460
441 covered with nanoparticles ranging in size from 50 to 80 nm 461
442 (Figure 5c). The nanoparticles had an amorphous surface 462
443 structure resulting from anodic oxidation treatment (Figure 463
444 5f). As the second period of the CORR proceeded, the newly 464
445 formed nanoparticles also coalesced into a flat and smooth 465
446 surface (Figure S16). A similar trend of coalescence during the 466
447 CORR and subsequent formation of nanoparticles during 467
448 anodic oxidation was also observed for both Cu₂O- and CuO- 468
449 GDE (Figure S17), suggesting the generality of this 469

470 morphological transformation irrespective of the initial 470
471 oxidation states and morphology. 471

This finding suggests a hypothesis regarding the catalyst 472
473 properties that determine the CORR activity and selectivity in 473
474 the gas-fed cell. At the early stage of the electrolysis, the lower 474
475 wetted surface area and larger particle size compared to those 475
476 after anodic oxidation are likely to hinder the generation of Cu 476
477 active sites by restricting the morphological transformation of 477
478 the catalysts. Moreover, the coalescence of nanostructures into 478
479 smooth surfaces as the CORR proceeds can also limit the 479
480 availability of active sites during CORR, leading to a decrease 480
481 of C₂H₄ partial current densities as a function of time in all Cu 481
482 catalysts. After anodic oxidation, the enhancements of the 482
483 C₂H₄ activity and selectivity may result from the formation of 483
484 oxide nanoparticles at the surface and their rapid reduction, 484
485 which could create a more active Cu structure. A reconstructed 485
486 Cu structure is consistent with previous studies demonstrating 486
487 that the electrochemical oxidative–reductive process generates 487
488 selective active sites for C–C coupling.^{43,51} While we cannot 488
489 rule out a small fraction of the oxidized Cu below the error 489
490 range of our LCF analysis, these post-mortem measurements 490

471 suggest that the control over the morphological transformation
472 during catalysis may be a key parameter for achieving high
473 catalytic activities in a practical CO electrolyzer.

474 **Restoration of Cell Performance by Electrochemical**
475 **Oxidation.** Inspired by the above results, we explored the
476 possibility of restoring the cell performance through an anodic
477 oxidation process. We first measured the gaseous and liquid
478 products before and after oxidation in the gas-fed cell (Figure
479 S17). Remarkably, we note that applying 0.1 V during the
480 oxidative step was enough to enhance the C₂H₄ activity, and
481 only FE_{C₂H₄} was enhanced while the other C₂₊ products were
482 similar after anodic oxidation (Table S3). The C₂H₄ partial
483 current densities rapidly decreased over 30 min after anodic
484 oxidation, suggesting that the active sites are unstable under
485 high reaction rates with large overpotentials. We hypothesize
486 that the anodic oxidation can regenerate the stepped Cu active
487 sites from the sintered Cu surface, making it possible to
488 recover the activity periodically without any cell disassembly.
489 To this end, we operated the gas-fed cell at a fixed potential of
490 −2.2 V for 1 h before applying 0.1 V for 5 min, followed by
491 alternating −2.2 V for 30 min and 0.1 V for 5 min (Figure 6).

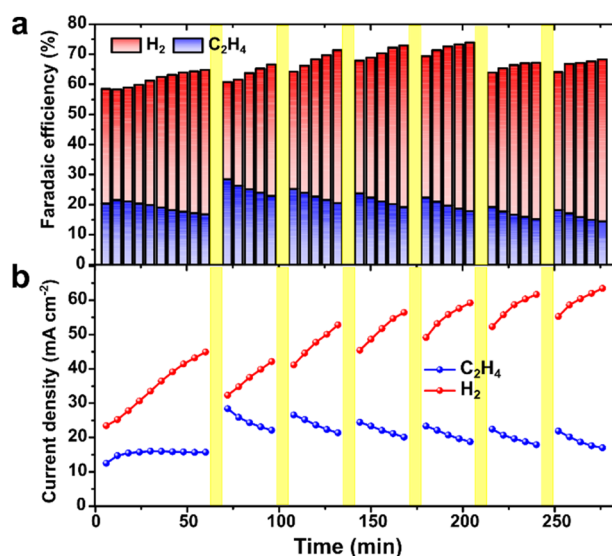


Figure 6. Restoring the cell performance by applying anodic oxidation. (a) Faradaic efficiency and (b) partial current density for H₂ (red) and C₂H₄ (blue) of Cu-GDE as a function of repeated catalyst regeneration. During the catalyst regeneration periods (yellow region), the cell was treated by applying an anodic potential of 0.1 V for 5 min without cell disassembly.

492 The first anodic oxidation increased the CORR activity (from
493 15.7 to 28.4 mA cm⁻²) and selectivity (16.8 to 28.4%) toward
494 C₂H₄ and suppressed H₂ production, while the enhanced
495 performance degraded over 30 min. Subsequent anodic
496 oxidation cycles showed repeated degradation and recovery
497 of the C₂H₄ current density. During this periodic cycling, the
498 initial current density and FE for C₂H₄ were maintained even
499 after 6 h. However, both the current density and FE for H₂
500 increased over time. Previous studies showed that this was due
501 to electrolyte crossover from the anode chamber, which limited
502 CO transport to the flooded catalyst layer, indicating that
503 water management is important to suppress H₂ production in
504 gas-fed cells.^{33,46} To suppress the parasitic HER, strategies for
505 water management include integrating hydrophobic materials
506 (e.g., polytetrafluoroethylene) into the GDL and controlling

the porous structure of both the catalyst layer and the GDL.³⁴
507 Compared to the previous studies that include cell disassembly
508 to restore the performance,^{52,53} *in situ* regeneration by periodic
509 anodic oxidation can provide a practical strategy to mitigate
510 gas-fed GDE cell degradation. 511

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the effect of the oxidation state on the CORR
513 activity of oxide-derived Cu catalysts was investigated by using
514 simultaneous *operando* XAS and online GC measurements. 515
516 Combining data from the XANES fitting and synchronized
517 product analysis, we found that the C₂H₄ activity and
518 selectivity increased as the oxides were reduced to metallic
519 Cu⁰. By introducing an electrochemical oxidation process,
520 which improved the CORR performance, we successfully
521 proved that the oxidation states and specific ion species do not
522 correlate with the activity or selectivity of Cu catalysts. 522
523 Moreover, activities normalized by ECSA revealed that H₂
524 production was proportional to the ECSA, while the
525 conversion of CO into C₂H₄ was not affected by the ECSA
526 in the gas-fed cell. We also demonstrated that the modification
527 of the cell design to include an X-ray window for the *operando*
528 study could change the reaction environment, which indicates
529 the importance of the performance characterization in the
530 *operando* cell. Post-mortem microscopic investigations of
531 morphological changes suggest that the electrochemical
532 oxidation and its subsequent reduction may generate a more
533 active Cu structure, surpassing the original activity. This
534 electrochemical oxidation–reduction process was utilized as a
535 regeneration method that restored the original catalyst activity
536 and selectivity in the GDE cell without requiring cell
537 disassembly. On the basis of our comprehensive study, we
538 believe that our results motivate the rational design of catalysts
539 for commercial CO reduction systems.

EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

Synthesis of Cu Catalysts with Different Oxidation
541 **States.** Cu was electrodeposited on graphite-based GDLs
542 (denoted as Cu-GDE, Sigracet, 39AA) in an electrolyte
543 containing 0.15 M CuCl₂·2H₂O (99.99%, Alfa Aesar), 1 M
544 HCl (37% ACS grade, Sigma-Aldrich), and 20% ethanol
545 (Koptek, 200 proof). Preferential deposition of Cu on one side
546 of the GDL was achieved by applying polyimide tape (Kapton)
547 to one side of the GDL and then immersing it in an electrolyte
548 bath. The cell consisted of the GDL as a working electrode, Cu
549 mesh as a counter electrode, and Ag/AgCl (saturated (sat.)
550 KCl) as a reference electrode. Then, −0.5 V versus Ag/AgCl
551 was applied for a total charge of 4.5 C cm⁻². After deposition,
552 the resulting Cu-GDE was taken out of the solution and
553 dipped into deionized water several times to rinse the excess
554 electrolyte. After rinsing, the Kapton tape was removed from
555 the backside, and the electrode was dried in air. Cu₂O was also
556 electrodeposited on GDLs (denoted as Cu₂O-GDE, Sigracet,
557 39AA) in an aqueous electrolyte containing 0.2 M CuSO₄ and
558 3.0 M lactic acid. The pH was adjusted to 12, using a
559 concentrated NaOH solution. Depositions were performed in a
560 3-electrode configuration using the GDL as a working
561 electrode, Pt coil as a counter electrode, and Ag/AgCl (sat.
562 KCl) as a reference electrode. Then, −0.5 mA cm⁻² was
563 applied to the working electrode for 1.1 h at 60 °C. The rinsing
564 process was the same as that of Cu-GDE. To fabricate the
565 CuO on the GDL, Cu-GDEs were electrodeposited as above, 566

567 followed by oxidation in the air at 350 °C for 16 h in a muffle
568 furnace (denoted as CuO-GDE).

569 **Characterization.** A scanning electron microscope (SEM,
570 FEI Inc., NOVA NanoSEM 450) with an integrated energy-
571 dispersive X-ray (EDX) spectrometer was used to analyze the
572 morphology and elemental composition, respectively. Images
573 were taken using an accelerating voltage of 15 kV. EDX images
574 were taken with an accelerating voltage of 15 kV. X-ray
575 diffraction (XRD) measurements were taken with a Bruker D8
576 Discover X-ray diffractometer using Cu K α radiation (1.54056
577 Å) in a Bragg–Brentano geometry. Diffraction images were
578 collected using a two-dimensional VANTEC-500 detector and
579 integrated into one-dimensional patterns using DIFFRAC-
580 SUITE EVA software. Transmission electron microscopy
581 (TEM) was performed using an F20 UT Tecnai (FEI)
582 microscope at an acceleration voltage of 200 kV.

583 **Electrochemical Measurements.** Electrochemical meas-
584 urements were performed using a Biologic SP-300 model
585 potentiostat. The GDE served as a working electrode, Pt mesh
586 as a counter electrode, and Ag/AgCl (sat. KCl) as a reference
587 electrode. The custom GDE cell consisted of two plates that
588 sandwiched the Cu/Cu₂O/CuO-GDE, anion exchange mem-
589 brane (FAA-3-50, Fumatech), and Pt mesh anode and was
590 tightened with external screws. Then, 1.0 M KOH was
591 circulated through the anode chamber, which also contained
592 the reference electrode, as described earlier.³³ All measure-
593 ments were performed at room temperature (25 °C) and
594 pressure (1 atm). The GDE cell was allowed to equilibrate at
595 OCV conditions until the OCV measured -1.0 V, typically 1
596 h. EIS measurements were taken at OCV conditions using a
597 range of frequencies of 1 MHz to 0.5 Hz and an amplitude of
598 10 mV.

599 **Product Analysis.** Gas products were measured with
600 online gas chromatography (GC, customized SRI instruments
601 Model 8610C) every 6 min. A thermal conductivity detector
602 (TCD) was used to detect H₂, while a flame ionization
603 detector (FID) was used to detect CH₄, C₂H₄, and C₂H₆
604 products. A parallel column configuration was employed using
605 a molecular sieve with a 5 Å column for H₂, O₂, N₂, and CO
606 separation and a Haysep D column to separate CH₄, CO, CO₂,
607 C₂H₄, and C₂H₆. An isothermal method was used with an oven
608 temperature of 110 °C, a TCD temperature of 105 °C, a FID
609 temperature of 100 °C, and an injection valve of 60 °C. The Ar
610 carrier gas was set to 20 psi, H₂ methanizer gas set to 20 psi,
611 and air pump set to 5 psi. Liquid products were analyzed from
612 the anode side of the cell with high-performance liquid
613 chromatography (HPLC, Dionex UltiMate 3000). The eluent
614 was 1 mM H₂SO₄ in water with a flow rate of 0.6 mL min⁻¹
615 and a column pressure of 76 bar. The column was an Aminex
616 HPX 87-H from Biorad, held at 60 °C with an internal heater.
617 The detector was a UV detector set to 250 nm. The injection
618 volume was 10 μ L. For the determination of liquid products
619 over time, 0.5 mL of anolyte was taken from the anolyte
620 reservoir every 6 min, in conjunction with GC measurements.
621 The faradaic efficiency (FE) was calculated as follows: FE = e
622 $\times F \times n/Q = e \times F \times n/(I \times t)$, where e is the number of
623 electrons transferred, F is the Faraday constant, Q is the
624 charge, I is current, t is the running time, and n is the total
625 amount of product (in moles).

626 **Operando X-ray Absorption Spectroscopy and Data**
627 **Analysis.** Operando X-ray absorption spectroscopy (XAS)
628 measurements were conducted at the Stanford Synchrotron
629 Radiation Lightsource (SSRL) on beamline 7-3 at the Cu K

edge. The operando experiments were performed under CO gas
630 conditions using a GDE cell setup identical to the one used for
631 evaluating the CORR,³³ with a slight modification of a
632 polyimide (Kapton) window to allow for X-ray penetration on
633 the vapor side and with the cell positioned at 45° from the
634 incident X-ray beam. The X-ray energy was tuned by a Si
635 (220) double-crystal monochromator, and the intensity of the
636 incident X-rays (I_0) was monitored by an Ar-filled ion chamber
637 in front of the GDE cell. Data were collected as fluorescence
638 excitation spectra at room temperature using a Ge 30 element
639 detector (Canberra). The data analysis of the Cu K edge X-ray
640 absorption near-edge spectroscopy (XANES) and extended X-
641 ray absorption fine structure (EXAFS) spectra was performed
642 using the Athena software package.⁵⁴ Pre-edge and post-edge
643 backgrounds were subtracted from the XAS spectra, and the
644 resulting spectra were normalized by the edge height. For the
645 EXAFS spectra, three consecutive scans were averaged to
646 increase the signal-to-noise ratio, and data reduction was
647 performed with Athena software. The procedures used for the
648 overabsorption correction and linear combination fitting
649 (LCF) analysis are described in detail in Supporting
650 Information.

651 **Electrochemical Oxidation.** Potentiostatic electrochem-
652 ical oxidation of the GDE films was performed by applying 1.5
653 or 0.1 V for 5 min after bulk electrolysis (-2.2 V, 1 h). After 5
654 min of oxidation, the cell was allowed to equilibrate at OCV
655 for 1 min, followed by second bulk electrolysis at -2.2 V.
656 Cyclic voltammetry (CV) was performed from -1.1 to 0.5 V at
657 a scan rate of 50 mV s⁻¹ for 20 cycles, with the scan ending at
658 0.5 V.

659 **Electrochemical Active Surface Area (ECSA) Measure-**
660 **ments.** The electrochemically active surface area (ECSA) was
661 determined from the double-layer capacitance of the films in a
662 non-faradaic potential range, typically ± 50 mV of the open-
663 circuit voltage (OCV). CV scans were performed at scan rates
664 of 10, 20, 50, 100, and 200 mV s⁻¹, with the potential held at
665 each vertex for 10 s before the next scan. The double-layer
666 capacitance (C_{dl}) is given by the following equation: 667

$$i_c = \nu C_{dl}$$

668 where i_c is the charging current (mA) and ν is the scan rate (V
669 s⁻¹). The charging current was plotted as a function of the scan
670 rate, with the slope equal to C_{dl} . The ECSA was then calculated
671 using the following equation:

$$ECSA = \frac{C_{dl}}{C_s}$$

672 where C_s is the electrolyte-dependent solution capacitance. We
673 chose to assume a C_s value of 0.04 mF cm⁻², as previously
674 described.⁵⁵

■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at
677 <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acscatal.0c01670>. 678

679 Sample characterizations (XRD), electrochemical meas-
680 urements (electroactive surface area, faradaic efficiencies
681 for all products), and XAS analyses are provided (PDF) 681

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716 Notes

717 The authors declare no competing financial interest.

718 ■ ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

719 This material is based on work performed by the Joint Center
720 for Artificial Photosynthesis, a DOE Energy Innovation Hub,
721 supported through the Office of Science of the U.S.
722 Department of Energy under Award Number DE-
723 SC0004993. Use of the Stanford Synchrotron Radiation
724 Lightsource, SLAC National Accelerator Laboratory, is
725 supported by the U.S. Department of Energy, Office of
726 Science, Office of Basic Energy Sciences, under Contract No.
727 DE-AC02-76SF00515.

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