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**Continuous electrochemical reduction of carbon dioxide into formate
using a tin cathode: comparison with lead cathode**

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Abstract

Electrochemical reduction has been pointed out as a promising method for CO₂ valorisation into useful chemicals. This paper studies the influence of key variables on the performance of an experimental system for continuous electro-reduction of CO₂ to formate, when a tin plate is used as working electrode. Particular emphasis is placed on comparing the performance of Sn and Pb as cathodes. As was previously found with Pb, the influence of current density (j) using Sn was particularly noteworthy, and when j was raised up to a limit value of 8.5 mA cm⁻², important increases of the rate of formate production were observed at the expense of lowering the Faradaic efficiency. However, unlike what was found with Pb, the performance using Sn improved when the electrolyte flow rate/electrode area ratio was increased within the range studied (0.57-2.3 mL min⁻¹ cm⁻²). In this way, the use of Sn as cathode allowed achieving rates of formate production that were 25% higher than the maximum rates obtained with Pb, together with Faradaic efficiencies close to 70%, which were 15 points higher than

25 those with Pb. These results reinforce the interest in Sn as electrode material in the
26 electro-reduction of CO₂ to formate.

27

28

29 **Keywords**

30 Carbon dioxide; valorisation; electrochemical reduction; formate; continuous

31 filter-press cell; Sn cathode

32

32

33 **1. Introduction**

34 Fossil fuels (i.e. oil, coal and natural gas) represented 81.1% of the total primary energy
35 supply in the world in 2010, while renewable energies only accounted for 13.2% (IEA,
36 2011). Although the final objective for many countries is to phase out fossil fuels in
37 heat and power production as well as in the transport sector (Toftegaard et al., 2010),
38 prospects for the future indicate that the shift to renewable energy sources is slow and
39 that the world energy supply will still depend on fossil fuels in the next decades.

40 The anthropogenic emissions of carbon dioxide (CO₂), which is the most significant
41 greenhouse gas, are a major cause of global climate change (Figuerola et al., 2008), and
42 they represent a complex challenge that needs to be tackled. Among the different
43 alternatives that are being considered, the so-called “CO₂ valorisation” or “CO₂
44 chemical recycling” to convert CO₂ into useful and valuable products such as fuels or
45 other derived hydrocarbons (Arakawa et al., 2001; Jiang et al., 2010; Mikkelsen et al.,
46 2010; Quadrelli et al., 2011; Yu et al., 2008) appears as an innovative and attractive
47 option, which has been regarded as a feasible and powerful new approach that is
48 entering the stage of gradual practical implementation (Olah et al., 2009, 2011).

49 Particularly, electrochemical valorisation of CO₂ is receiving increasing attention over
50 the last years. Several papers can be found in the literature that have reviewed different
51 efforts in the study of CO₂ electro-reduction and have discussed mechanistic aspects
52 and reaction pathways (Chaplin and Wragg, 2003; Gattrell et al., 2006; Jitaru et al.,
53 1997; Jitaru, 2007; Lee et al., 2009; Spinner et al., 2012; Sánchez-Sánchez et al., 2001;
54 Whipple and Kenis, 2010).

55 Valorisation of CO₂ by electrochemical reduction is based on the supply of electrical
56 energy to establish a potential between two electrodes in order to allow CO₂ to be

57 converted into reduced forms. Different authors have suggested that the electrochemical
58 valorisation of CO₂ may be an excellent way of storing intermittent and unpredictable
59 renewable energy, which can be used for supplying the electricity required for this
60 process (Agarwal et al., 2011; Chen and Kanan, 2012; Narayanan et al., 2011; Olah et
61 al., 2011; Prakash et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2013; Whipple et al., 2010). A negative
62 public opinion to CO₂ storage, which has already been detected recently in the lack of
63 social acceptance of some projects for storing captured CO₂, may hamper its
64 implementation (Ashworth et al., 2012; Terwel and Daamen, 2012; Terwel et al., 2012;
65 Upham and Roberts, 2011) and therefore may increase the interest in finding ways of
66 converting captured CO₂ into useful products. Particularly, coupled to a renewable
67 energy source such as wind or solar, electrochemical processes for CO₂ conversion
68 could generate carbon neutral fuels or industrial chemicals that are conventionally
69 derived from petroleum (Kuhl et al., 2012), and at the same time, could also allow the
70 storage of electrical energy in chemical forms, which has been remarked as a key aspect
71 for levelling the output from intermittent electricity sources such as wind and solar
72 (Whipple and Kenis, 2010). Since electricity is difficult to store on a large scale, its
73 production has to closely follow the demand and to adapt to fluctuations; however,
74 renewable energies such as solar and wind are intermittent and not able to follow
75 closely the demand (i.e. solar energy cannot be produced during the night or with
76 cloudy weather, while wind does not blow constantly), so storage of electricity to
77 balance fluctuations in demand and production cycles is considered to be essential for
78 the use of renewable energies on a large scale (Olah et al., 2011; Prakash et al., 2013).
79 In this way, it has been highlighted that if the electrochemical reduction of CO₂ to liquid
80 chemical compounds could be made with high efficiencies, it could become a
81 sustainable approach in the future for the production of liquid fuels, providing a high

82 energy density means of storing renewable electricity as chemical energy (Gattrell et al.,
83 2006; Kuhl et al., 2012; Narayanan et al., 2011; Olah et al., 2011; Prakash et al., 2013;
84 Whipple et al., 2010).

85 In the electro-reduction of CO₂, the type of products, as well as the yield in which they
86 can be obtained, are strongly dependent on different factors, emphasising the nature and
87 form of the material used as cathode, the medium where the reaction occurs or the
88 conditions of pressure and temperature (Hori et al., 1994; Jitaru et al., 1997; Jitaru,
89 2007; Sánchez-Sánchez et al., 2001). Among the number of useful products into which
90 CO₂ can be electrochemically reduced, conversion to formic acid/ formate appears to
91 have the best chance for the practical development of technical and economically viable
92 processes (Oloman and Li, 2008). Apart from its different traditional industrial uses,
93 including textile finishing or additive in animal feeds (Kirk-Othmer, 2004), a growing
94 demand for formic acid in pharmaceutical synthesis and in paper and pulp production
95 has been reported (Innocent et al., 2009). Furthermore, formic acid has been pointed out
96 as one of the most promising candidate fuels for fuel cells (Rees and Compton, 2011;
97 Yu and Pickup, 2008) and recently has been proposed as an optimal hydrogen carrier
98 (Grasemann and Laurenczy, 2012; Prakash et al., 2013). However, formate/formic acid
99 is currently mainly produced by the oxidation of hydrocarbons or by thermo-chemical
100 processes based on the carbonylation of methanol or sodium hydroxide (Kirk-Othmer,
101 2004), which have negative environmental impacts (Li and Oloman, 2006) and are
102 relatively expensive production processes (Agarwal et al., 2011).

103 As a consequence, the study of the electrochemical reduction of CO₂ to formate has
104 attracted renewed and growing interest over the last years. Some studies have used
105 fixed-bed reactors (Köleli et al., 2003; Köleli and Balun, 2004; Kwon and Lee, 2010) or
106 divided H-type cells (Chen and Kanan, 2012; Kaneco et al., 1998, 1999; Li et al., 2012).

107 Nevertheless, several works in the literature have been focussed on parallel-plate or
108 filter-press flow-by type cells (Agarwal et al., 2011; Akahori et al., 2004; Alvarez-
109 Guerra et al., 2012; Innocent et al., 2009; Li and Oloman, 2005, 2006, 2007; Machunda
110 et al., 2010, 2011; Narayanan et al., 2011; Subramanian et al., 2007; Whipple et al.,
111 2010), under different working conditions and cathodes of very different nature, such as
112 indium-impregnated lead wire (Akahori et al., 2004), lead-plated stainless steel woven
113 mesh (Subramanian et al., 2007), tinned-copper mesh (Li and Oloman, 2005, 2006), tin
114 particles (shots and granules) (Li and Oloman, 2007), lead plates (Alvarez-Guerra et al.,
115 2012; Innocent et al., 2009), or metal catalysts (such as indium (Narayanan et al., 2011),
116 lead (Machunda et al., 2010) or tin (Agarwal et al., 2011; Machunda et al., 2011;
117 Whipple et al., 2010)) electrodeposited on different substrates. Apart from very recent
118 investigations focussed on new gas diffusion electrodes (Li et al., 2012; Prakash et al.,
119 2013), the CO₂ electrochemical valorisation to formate in continuous mode has been
120 particularly studied in several works (Agarwal et al., 2011; Alvarez-Guerra et al., 2012;
121 Li and Oloman, 2005, 2006, 2007; Subramanian et al., 2007), revealing the growing
122 interest in this type of approach, but at the same time, emphasising that despite its great
123 potential, there is the need for carrying on obtaining experimental evidence to guide the
124 research efforts for developing and improving these processes.

125 Following previous studies of our research group using lead cathode (Alvarez-Guerra et
126 al., 2012), the aim of this work is to analyse the influence of key variables like the
127 current density and the electrolyte flow rate on the performance of an experimental
128 system for continuous electro-reduction of CO₂ to formate, when a tin plate is used as
129 working electrode in a filter-press electrochemical reactor. Special emphasis will be
130 placed on comparing the performance of Sn plates with that of Pb plates previously
131 reported (Alvarez-Guerra et al., 2012), and for this reason, the same approach was

132 followed to carry out the analysis with Sn that will be presented in this paper, i.e. a 2^2
133 factorial design of experiments at different levels of current density and electrolyte flow
134 rate, followed by subsequent more detailed studies of the influence of each of these
135 variables on the performance of the process. These types of studies will allow the
136 description of the system behaviour and can serve as a reference for the assessment of
137 future advances.

138

139

140 **2. Methods**

141 In this work, the experimental laboratory system and operating conditions were the
142 same as in our previous study using lead cathode (Alvarez-Guerra et al., 2012), with the
143 only difference of using a tin plate (99.9% Sn, Amat Metalplast SA) as cathode. Details
144 about the elements of the experimental set-up and about the methodology followed to
145 carry out the experiments can be found in our previous work (Alvarez-Guerra et al.,
146 2012). Briefly, the experimental laboratory system, whose core is a filter-press or
147 parallel-plate type electrochemical cell (Micro Flow Cell, ElectroCell A/S), is
148 represented in Figure 1. A Nafion 117 cation-exchange membrane divided the cell in
149 two separated anodic and cathodic compartments. In this study, the working electrode
150 was a tin plate and a Dimensionally Stable Anode DSA/O₂ plate (Ir-MMO (Mixed
151 Metal Oxide) on Platinum, Electrocell A/S) was used as the counter-electrode, both
152 electrodes with a surface area of 10 cm². A leak-free Ag/AgCl 3.4M KCl reference
153 electrode was assembled in a PTFE frame of the cell very close to the surface of the
154 working electrode. Following the same pre-treatment that was used in the study with Pb
155 electrodes (Alvarez-Guerra et al., 2012), the Sn electrode was pre-treated before the
156 start of each experiment with 11% wt HNO₃ for 1 min and then rinsed with plenty of

157 ultra-pure water in an ultrasound bath for 5 min. An aqueous solution 0.45M KHCO_3 +
158 0.5M KCl, which was maintained saturated with CO_2 using constant bubbling
159 throughout the experiment, was used as catholyte, and 1M KOH was used as anolyte.

160

161 (FIGURE 1 HERE)

162

163 Experiments were carried out in continuous mode with an operating time of 90 min,
164 under room temperature and pressure, and at galvanostatic conditions with a
165 potentiostat/galvanostat AutoLab PGSTAT 302N (Metrohm, Inc.) that was controlled
166 with a computer using the General Purpose Electrochemical System (GPES) software.
167 Samples were taken at different times (15, 30, 60 and 90 min) of operation and the
168 average value of the concentrations of these samples was obtained for each experiment.
169 Each sample was analysed in duplicate by Ion Chromatography (Dionex ICS 1100)
170 provided with a AS9-HC column, using a solution of Na_2CO_3 (4.5 mM) as eluent, with
171 a flow-rate of 1 mL/min and a pressure of around 2000 psi, to quantify the
172 concentration of formate produced. As explained in our previous work (Alvarez-Guerra
173 et al., 2012), considering the intrinsic variability associated with this type of
174 electrochemical processes, at least two experiments were always performed for each of
175 the points studied. In this way, standard deviations for the replicates of most of the
176 points were below 5% of the average product concentration, with maximum deviations
177 around 10%.

178 The rate of formate production and the Faradaic current efficiency for formate
179 production were used to assess the performance of the process. The rate of formate
180 production was expressed as the quantity of formate obtained per unit of cathode area
181 and unit of time (i.e. $\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$). The Faradaic efficiency for a certain product is a

figure of merit commonly used to assess the performance of an electrochemical process; it is defined as the yield based on the electrical charge passed during electrolysis (Pletcher and Walsh, 1990), or in other words, as the percentage of the total charge supplied that is used in forming that certain product.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Factorial design of experiments at different current densities and flow/electrode area ratio

The effects of current density and electrolyte flow rate on the performance of the experimental laboratory-scale electro-reduction process to convert CO₂ into formate using Sn plate cathode were analysed with a 2² factorial design of experiments, following the same approach as that used in the previous study with Pb cathode (Alvarez-Guerra et al., 2012). Therefore, the variables current density (j) and “flow/area” ratio (Q/A , i.e. the feed flow rate used for the catholyte divided by the working electrode area, 10 cm²), were studied in the same ranges: 2.5 – 22 mA cm⁻² and 0.57 – 2.3 mL min⁻¹ cm⁻², respectively. Three levels (low (-), medium (0) and high (+)) within these ranges were defined for each variable: 0.57, 1.44 and 2.3 mL min⁻¹ cm⁻² for Q/A , and 2.5, 12.25 and 22 mA cm⁻² for j .

The results obtained in the different experiments carried out using a Sn plate as working electrode are summarised in Table 1. It is important to emphasise that, in each experiment, no significant changes with time were observed in the concentrations of the samples taken during the 90 min of operation. For each of the points studied, the deviations for these samples were below 10% of the average measured formate

207 concentration reported. The statistical analysis of these factorial experiments was
208 carried out using Minitab[®] 15 (Minitab Inc.) and MATLAB[®] 7.10 (MathWorks, Inc.) in
209 a sequential way, as described in our previous work (Alvarez-Guerra et al., 2012): first
210 only the high and low levels of the 2 factors (j and Q/A) were considered (i.e. 2^2
211 factorial design); then the centre point (0, 0) was included to test for curvature; and
212 finally, the 3^2 combinations of the 2 factors at the 3 levels were analysed. With the aim
213 of removing the influence of the absolute values in these analyses, both the factors (j
214 and Q/A) and the responses (rate of formate production and Faradaic efficiency) were
215 normalised in the range [-1, 1].

216

217

Table 1. Results of the factorial design of experiments using Sn cathode: levels of the variables (current density and flow/area ratio) and values obtained for the two responses (rate of formate production and Faradaic efficiency).

Point	Measured formate concentration (mg L ⁻¹)	Current density, j	Flow/area ratio, Q/A	Rate $\cdot 10^4$ (mol m ⁻² s ⁻¹)	Faradaic efficiency (%)	normalised rate [-1, +1] (-)	normalised Faradaic efficiency [-1, +1] (-)	Cathode potential vs. Ag/AgCl (V)	Cell potential (absolute value) (V)
		X_1^a	X_2^b	r	η	\bar{r}	$\bar{\eta}$	V_{cat}	V_{cell}
1	54.77	+	+	4.73	41.5	1.00	-0.28	-1.95	3.20
	49.37	+	+	4.26	37.4	0.76	-0.46	-1.80	3.15
2	39.36	-	-	0.83	64.1	-0.99	0.69	-1.39	2.07
	41.21	-	-	0.87	67.2	-0.97	0.82	-1.40	2.08
3	146.10	+	-	3.08	27.1	0.16	-0.90	-1.90	3.10
	133.33	+	-	2.81	24.7	0.02	-1.00	-1.88	3.11
4	9.41	-	+	0.81	62.7	-1.00	0.63	-1.45	2.13
	9.84	-	+	0.85	65.5	-0.98	0.75	-1.45	2.13
5	64.18	0	0	3.42	52.8	0.33	0.21	-1.70	2.64
	65.93	0	0	3.52	54.3	0.38	0.27	-1.72	2.66
6	71.70	+	0	3.82	33.5	0.54	-0.62	-1.86	3.10
	71.86	+	0	3.83	33.6	0.54	-0.62	-1.88	3.12
7	15.50	-	0	0.83	63.8	-0.99	0.67	-1.40	2.15
	15.85	-	0	0.85	65.2	-0.98	0.74	-1.42	2.15
8	47.49	0	+	4.10	63.3	0.68	0.65	-1.73	2.70
	53.61	0	+	4.63	71.4	0.95	1.00	-1.86	2.79
9	101.68	0	-	2.15	33.1	-0.32	-0.64	-1.77	2.68
	103.96	0	-	2.19	33.9	-0.29	-0.61	-1.88	2.76

^a Levels for current density (mA cm⁻²): 22 (+), 2.5 (-), 12.25 (0)

^b Levels for flow/area ratio (mL min⁻¹ cm⁻²): 2.3 (+), 0.57 (-), 1.44 (0)

Table 2. Statistical analysis of the 2^2 factorial experiments with Sn cathode. \bar{r} is the normalised rate of formate production and $\bar{\eta}$ is the normalised Faradaic efficiency.

Response	Current density, X_1			Flow/area ratio, X_2			Regression model: response = $\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2$			
	Main effect	Standard error	P*	Main effect	Standard error	P*	Coefficients (with 95% confidence bounds)			R^2
							β_0	β_1	β_2	
\bar{r} (-)	1.472	0.094	0.001	0.389	0.094	0.095	-0.249 ± 0.243	0.736 ± 0.243	0.195 ± 0.243	0.9284
$\bar{\eta}$ (-)	-1.379	0.078	0.000	0.257	0.078	0.162	0.030 ± 0.201	-0.690 ± 0.201	0.128 ± 0.201	0.9415

*Significant ($\alpha=0.05$) if $P < 0.05$

Table 2 shows the results of the statistical analyses considering the low and high levels of the factors. As can be seen, current density had strong significant main effects on both rate and Faradaic efficiency, although with different sign. This means that the effect of increasing j from the low (2.5 mA cm^{-2}) to the high level studied (22 mA cm^{-2}) resulted in an increase of 1.47 in the value of rate normalised in the scale $[-1, +1]$, but also made the efficiency to decrease in 1.38 within the coded scale. These main effects were similar, but greater, than the corresponding values obtained with Pb (1.316 for normalised rate and -1.295 for the normalised efficiency) (Alvarez-Guerra et al., 2012). It should also be emphasised that, as happened with Pb, the main effects of Q/A were positive on both factors but of minor magnitude than those of j . The main effect of Q/A on rate (0.389, Table 2) resulted almost identical to the corresponding value obtained in the study with Pb cathode (0.393) (Alvarez-Guerra et al., 2012). However, the effect of Q/A on efficiency that was obtained for Pb (0.476) almost doubled the value for Sn, which reveals the even lower influence of Q/A on $\bar{\eta}$ in the 2^2 factorial experiments with Sn.

Another way of expressing the results of a factorial design is in terms of a linear regression model (Montgomery, 1997). The β parameters that multiply the variables X_1

and X_2 (representing the factors current density and Q/A ratio, respectively) are included in Table 2. Looking at the values of these parameters of the regression model, the already mentioned influences can be confirmed. In this way, the great influence of j (positive on rate and negative on Faradaic efficiency) is revealed by the high values of their corresponding regression parameters, while the low β parameters that multiply Q/A indicated the much more limited influence of this variable.

Table 3. Statistical analysis of the 2^2 + centre point (0,0) factorial experiments with Sn cathode. \bar{r} is the normalised rate of formate production and $\bar{\eta}$ is the normalised Faradaic efficiency.

Response	Current density, X_1			Flow/area ratio, X_2			Curvature	
	Main effect	Standard error	P*	Main effect	Standard error	P*	Center point	P*
\bar{r} (-)	1.472	0.031	0.000	0.389	0.031	0.002	0.606	0.000
$\bar{\eta}$ (-)	-1.379	0.031	0.000	0.257	0.031	0.009	0.205	0.031

255

256 *Significant ($\alpha=0.05$) if $P<0.05$

257

Table 4. Regression models considering all the factorial experiments with Sn cathode, i.e. including the 3 levels of both factors X_1 (current density) and X_2 (flow/area ratio). \bar{r} is the normalised rate of formate production and $\bar{\eta}$ is the normalised Faradaic efficiency.

Response	Coefficients $\pm 95\%$ confidence bounds for different terms					
	β_0	X_1 (β_1)	X_2 (β_2)	X_1X_2 (β_{12})	X_1X_1 (β_{11})	X_2X_2 (β_{22})
\bar{r} (-)	0.324 ± 0.220	0.746 ± 0.120	0.316 ± 0.120	0.200 ± 0.147	-0.529 ± 0.208	-0.052 ± 0.208
$\bar{\eta}$ (-)	0.182 ± 0.342	-0.681 ± 0.187	0.327 ± 0.187	0.161 ± 0.229	-0.112 ± 0.324	-0.053 ± 0.324
Final regression models that only included coefficients of terms significant with 95% confidence:						
$\bar{r} = \beta_0 + \beta_1X_1 + \beta_2X_2 + \beta_{12}X_1X_2 + \beta_{11}X_1^2$						
\bar{r} (-)	β_0	β_1	β_2	β_{12}	β_{11}	R^2
	0.289 ± 0.164	0.746 ± 0.116	0.316 ± 0.116	0.200 ± 0.142	-0.529 ± 0.201	0.9539
$\bar{\eta} = \beta_1X_1 + \beta_2X_2$						
$\bar{\eta}$ (-)		β_1	β_2			R^2
		-0.681 ± 0.183	0.327 ± 0.183			0.8256

261

262 As done in the previous study with Pb, the results of the 2^2 factorial experiments were
 263 then analysed adding the centre point (0,0) in order to test for curvature. Table 3 reports
 264 the values of “centre point”, which measure the difference between the average of the
 265 centre-point response and the average of the factorial points (Montgomery, 1997). It can
 266 be seen that a large and significant value for curvature effect was obtained for rate,
 267 which suggests the existence of a non-linear behaviour, as also happened when using Pb
 268 as cathode. With Pb, curvature for Faradaic efficiency was very small (0.048) and
 269 statistically insignificant (Alvarez-Guerra et al., 2012); as shown in Table 3, in the case
 270 of Sn, curvature for $\bar{\eta}$ is statistically significant but smaller than for rate, which
 271 indicates the more limited influence of curvature in the response function $\bar{\eta}$ than in \bar{r} .
 272 Finally, regression models considering the 3 levels of both j and Q/A (i.e. all the
 273 factorial experiments, Table 1) were also calculated following the same approach as in
 274 the previous work with Pb. The regression models were successively fitted in such a
 275 way that those terms whose β parameters were not statistically significant with 95%
 276 confidence were eliminated in the following modelling equation, until obtaining models
 277 that only contained parameters with 95% confidence bounds that did not include the
 278 zero value (Alvarez-Guerra et al., 2012). Table 4 summarises the results that were
 279 obtained using Sn cathode. Regarding Faradaic efficiency, the important negative
 280 influence of j is represented by the high and negative value of β_1 parameter. It should be
 281 noted that the regression model considering the results of Faradaic efficiency from all
 282 the factorial experiments did not include other terms that were statistically significant
 283 apart from those corresponding to linear effects of j and Q/A (β_1 and β_2 , respectively).
 284 However, the R^2 achieved was low (0.826), which suggests that a better fit of these
 285 results would require the inclusion of other types of more complex mathematical

expressions. However, the rate response function was satisfactorily modelled
($R^2=0.954$) with the expression obtained, as shown in Table 4. The influence of j in \bar{r} is
made again clear with the high positive influence of β_1 , corresponding to the linear
effect; moreover, the curvature detected can be especially modelled by the high and
negative coefficient β_{11} that represents quadratic effects on rate associated with j .

291

292

3.2. Influence of the variables current density and flow/electrode area ratio in Sn cathode

In order to subsequently compare the behaviour of Sn and Pb plates as cathodes in our
electrochemical system, the same detailed study of the influence of current density and
catholyte flow/ electrode area ratio that had been done using Pb, was also done for Sn in
this work. In this way, additional experiments were carried out at the intermediate value
of the ranges of Q/A and j considered in the factorial study: on the one hand, using a
constant flow/ area ratio of $Q/A = 1.44 \text{ mL min}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-2}$ and different current densities ($j=$
4.5, 6.5, 8.5, 10.5 and 14 mA cm^{-2}); and on the other hand, using a constant current
density of 12.25 mA cm^{-2} and different flow/ area ratios ($Q/A= 0.76, 1.00, 1.90$ and 2.10
 $\text{mL min}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-2}$).

The results of rate of formate production and Faradaic efficiency at all the different
values of Q/A and j studied are summarised in Figure 2.

306

(FIGURE 2 HERE)

308

With respect to the influence of current density, it is interesting to note that increasing j
from the lowest value 2.5 mA cm^{-2} to the medium level $j= 12.25 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ made the rate

of formate formation to increase between 1.5 and 4 times depending on the level of Q/A ratio considered (i.e. rate increased 150% at $Q/A = 0.57 \text{ mL min}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-2}$, 315% at $1.44 \text{ mL min}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-2}$ and 425% at $2.3 \text{ mL min}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-2}$). Nevertheless, when j was further increased from 12.25 to 22 mA cm^{-2} , Figure 2 shows that such remarkable increases of rate were not observed; especially, for the middle and high Q/A studied, there were no significant difference between the rates obtained at current densities 12.25 and 22 mA cm^{-2} , but only resulted in falls of the % of Faradaic efficiency of 20 and 28 points.

Focussing on the influence of j at $Q/A = 1.44 \text{ mL min}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-2}$, it can clearly be seen in Figure 2 that the rate of formate production increased, nearly in a proportional way, when j was progressively increased from 2.5 up to 8.5 mA cm^{-2} . However, working at higher current densities did not make it possible to keep this linear growth; for all j studied higher than 8.5 mA cm^{-2} , the rate of formate obtained only varied in the narrow range between $3.47 \cdot 10^{-4}$ and $3.83 \cdot 10^{-4} \text{ mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$, which represents maximum differences of approximately just 10%.

Regarding the influence of the catholyte flow / electrode area ratio, at the lowest level of j studied, no influence of Q/A was observed, since, as can be seen in Figure 2, the 3 points at $j = 2.5 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ were almost overlapped. However, the Q/A ratio did have an influence when working at the intermediate and high levels of j considered. In this way, at a certain $j = 12.25 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ or $j = 22 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$, increasing Q/A resulted in better performance of the process, both in terms of higher rate and Faradaic efficiency. This tendency can be clearly observed looking at the results of the experiments carried out at constant $j = 12.25 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ and different Q/A (Figure 2). The increase of efficiency and rate is strongly marked when Q/A was raised from 0.57 to $0.76 \text{ mL min}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-2}$.

Although this rhythm of increase was not kept, in general higher formate rates and

efficiencies were obtained when Q/A was increased. The highest values of rate and efficiency were achieved at $Q/A = 2.3 \text{ mL min}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-2}$, which was the upper value of the range initially considered. Therefore, in order to test the performance beyond this limit, experiments at Q/A ratios higher than 2.3 were also carried out (i.e. at $Q/A = 3, 3.5$ and $4 \text{ mL min}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-2}$). The results have been included in Figure 2. As can be seen, further increase of Q/A did not give better results. It can be concluded that the experiments carried out at Q/A ratios above $2.3 \text{ mL min}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-2}$ involved catholyte flows that resulted to be too high for our electrochemical system, which could cause effects of dragging that are detrimental to the performance of the process and could explain the lower rates of formate production and Faradaic efficiencies observed.

3.3. Comparison of performance with Sn and Pb cathodes

The graphs included in Figure 3 can help to compare the performance with Sn and Pb in terms of rate of formate production and Faradaic efficiency.

(FIGURE 3 HERE)

Regarding the influence of current density, both with Sn and Pb plates, increasing j from the low to the medium level caused the rate to increase between 2 and 4 times, although in general, as shown in Figure 3A, further increase of j did not result in higher rates of formation. The comparison of the results obtained with Pb and Sn at $Q/A = 1.44 \text{ mL min}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-2}$ and different j allows detecting interesting differences (Figures 3A and 3B). It can be noticed in Figure 3A that when j was increased up to 10.5 mA cm^{-2} with the Pb cathode, the rate of formation increases linearly. As already mentioned, with Sn

361 the proportional increase of rate with j is also observed, but in this case up to a current
 362 density of 8.5 mA cm^{-2} . It is especially noteworthy that at this value $j = 8.5 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$,
 363 the rate of formate production achieved with Sn resulted to be 40% higher than the
 364 corresponding rate obtained with Pb at this j (Figure 3A). Moreover, as can be seen in
 365 Figure 3B, and differently from Pb, when j was gradually increased using Sn between
 366 4.5 and this limit value of 8.5 mA cm^{-2} , the observed Faradaic efficiency kept around
 367 80%, which was higher than the value of 57% obtained at the limit j using Pb. However,
 368 a look together at Figures 3A and 3B confirms that, both with Pb and Sn, continuing
 369 increasing the current density (i.e. continuing increasing the supply of charge for the
 370 electro-reduction) above the corresponding certain limits (10.5 mA cm^{-2} with Pb and 8.5
 371 mA cm^{-2} with Sn) did not raise the rate of formate production but only caused the
 372 Faradaic efficiency to fall noticeably. The interpretation of these results could be that
 373 the excess of electric charge supplied above these limits would not be employed in
 374 obtaining more amount of the desired product (formate), but instead, it would be used in
 375 other competitive reactions like the formation of H_2 . Therefore, this explained the
 376 decrease in Faradaic efficiencies observed. The observation of maximum current
 377 densities above which Faradaic efficiency decreased and rate did not improve, as has
 378 also been suggested in studies of photoelectrochemical reduction of CO_2 , could be
 379 attributed to the limited solubility of CO_2 in water at standard pressures and its transport
 380 limitations (Kumar et al. 2012).

381

382 Figures 3C and 3D are useful to compare the influence of Q/A in the Pb and Sn cathode.
 383 At the low level of j studied (2.5 mA cm^{-2}), the influence of the Q/A ratio on the rate of
 384 formate production resulted to be very limited, especially using Sn (Figure 3C). At
 385 higher current densities, increasing the flow from the low to the medium level gave

386 higher rates both in Sn and Pb, but further increase of Q/A involved different behaviour
 387 of the metals. This situation is especially noticeable in the experiments carried out at a
 388 same current density (i.e. $j = 12.25 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$) and various Q/A ratios. Working at higher
 389 Q/A ratios means that a higher amount of catholyte is made available per unit of time
 390 and of electrode area. This should involve improving the supply of mass for the
 391 reaction, and therefore, reducing mass transport limitations, which had been identified
 392 in the literature as one of the challenges to be overcome in these types of
 393 electrochemical processes (Lee et al., 2009; Oloman and Li, 2008; Subramanian et al.,
 394 2007; Sánchez-Sánchez et al., 2001). However, in the study with Pb plate, it was found
 395 that increasing the catholyte flow to overcome mass transport limitations only had
 396 beneficial effects for the lowest Q/A ratios (i.e. rate and efficiency only increased when
 397 Q/A was raised from 0.57 to $0.76 \text{ mL min}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-2}$), but further increase of Q/A did not
 398 result in better performance of the process, which was attributed to the fact that in such
 399 conditions the reaction to produce formate could be limited by other aspects, like
 400 adsorption equilibria in the lead cathode surface (Alvarez-Guerra et al., 2012).
 401 However, the results of the same analysis (working at $j = 12.25 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ and different
 402 Q/A ratios) using Sn plate cathode revealed differences with respect to the results
 403 obtained using Pb. As Figures 3C and 3D show, and unlike what was observed with Pb,
 404 using Sn cathode the performance generally improved when increasing Q/A ratios
 405 within the range studied ($0.57\text{--}2.3 \text{ mL min}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-2}$); in fact, the best result was obtained
 406 at $2.3 \text{ mL min}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-2}$. Therefore, it can be concluded that while working with Pb cathode
 407 at catholyte flow rates higher than a third of the maximum value of the range studied
 408 did not improve the performance (Alvarez-Guerra et al., 2012), this limitation was not
 409 found working with Sn cathode within the same Q/A range, which allowed achieving

410 (working at the same $j = 12.25 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$) a formate rate production 25% higher than the
 411 best obtained using Pb, with a Faradaic efficiency 14 points higher in percentage.
 412
 413 Finally, it is worth comparing the behaviour of Pb and Sn cathodes in terms of the
 414 combination of rate of production and Faradaic efficiency. Working at the lowest
 415 current density studied, it can be stated that Pb had better performance than Sn. At $j =$
 416 2.5 mA cm^{-2} , while with Sn the rates of formate production were $0.8 \cdot 10^{-4} \text{ mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$
 417 with efficiencies of around 64% (Figure 2), using Pb it was possible to achieve an
 418 experimental point that combined a higher rate of $1.1 \cdot 10^{-4} \text{ mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ and almost 87%
 419 of Faradaic efficiency (Alvarez-Guerra et al., 2012). However, at higher current
 420 densities, Sn gave better results than Pb in terms of points that combined both high rate
 421 and high efficiency. As can be seen in Figure 3, the use of Sn allowed achieving a rate
 422 of around $3.5 \cdot 10^{-4} \text{ mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ with an efficiency of almost 80%. This rate is very
 423 similar to the maximum value obtained with Pb, but as can also be noticed in Figure 3,
 424 this maximum rate with Pb was achieved with an efficiency of near 60% (Alvarez-
 425 Guerra et al., 2012), which is 20 points lower than using Sn. Finally, it is also important
 426 to emphasise that a great advantage of Sn was that it allowed finding experimental
 427 conditions that gave simultaneously a rate of $4.4 \cdot 10^{-4} \text{ mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ (25% higher than the
 428 best rates obtained with Pb) together with a Faradaic efficiency of around 70%.
 429 Therefore, it can be concluded that in the electrochemical system for CO_2 conversion
 430 into formate under study, Sn plates outperformed Pb plates as cathodes in terms of
 431 making it possible to work at conditions that combined higher rates of product
 432 formation with higher efficiencies than with Pb.

433

434

4. Conclusions

This paper presents new experimental results on the influence of key variables like the current density and electrolyte flow rate on the performance of a continuous electro-reduction process to convert CO₂ into formate in aqueous solutions under ambient conditions, when using a tin plate as cathode in a filter-press type electrochemical cell. Moreover, this study particularly focuses on comparing the performance of Sn plate with previous results obtained in our research group using Pb plate as cathode in the same experimental system (Alvarez-Guerra et al., 2012).

The analysis of the factorial design of experiments has allowed the quantification of the influence of j and Q/A . Moreover, the experiments carried out with Sn at the intermediate level of Q/A studied (1.44 mL min⁻¹ cm⁻²) showed that the rate of formate production increased, almost in a proportional way, when j was increased from 2.5 up to a limit value of 8.5 mA cm⁻². Following a similar behaviour as Pb, further increase of j using Sn did not improve the rate and only drastically lowered the efficiency. However, the detailed analyses done in this work also revealed interesting differences in the performance of the process using Pb or Sn plate as working electrode. Particularly, these comparative analyses allowed concluding that the best experimental points in terms of combining high rate and high efficiency obtained with Sn plate cathodes outperformed those with Pb plate, since with Sn the rates of formate production were 25% higher and with efficiencies close to 70%, improving the value of around 55% that we previously found with Pb. These results reinforce the interest in Sn as electrode material for the electro-reduction of CO₂ to formate and they can be useful as a reference when assessing future efforts in the development of continuous electro-reduction processes for CO₂ valorisation. In this sense, further research focussed on the application of Sn in gas diffusion electrodes (GDEs) appears as a clear possibility for

potentially overcoming current limitations of these processes. Additional great potential for improvement may be related to the nature of the solvent, using, for example, non-aqueous media like ionic liquids. However, despite some studies that stress its excellent potential to aid in the electro-reduction of CO₂ (Barrosse-Antle and Compton, 2009; Martindale and Compton, 2012), great research efforts are still required to fully explore how the use of ionic liquid as solvents can improve the performance of these processes.

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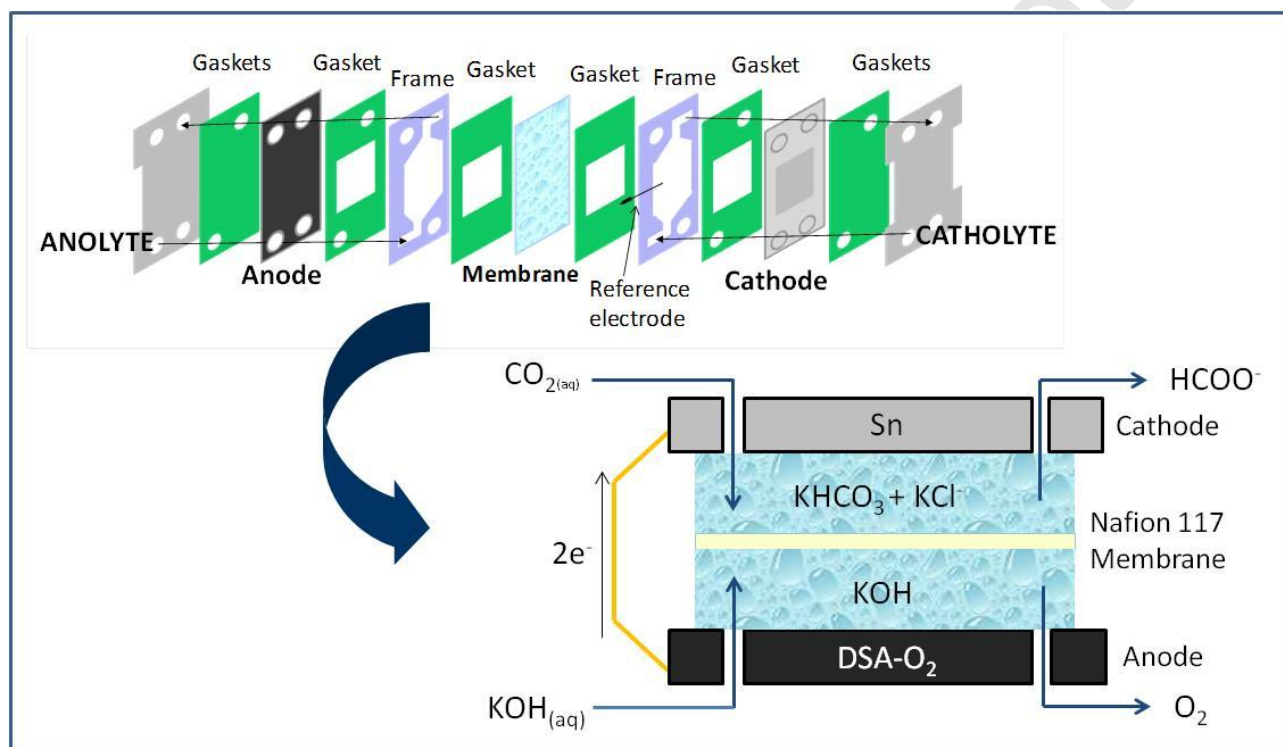
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Graphical Abstract

“Continuous electrochemical reduction of carbon dioxide into formate using a tin cathode: comparison with lead cathode”



Highlights

“Continuous electrochemical reduction of carbon dioxide into formate using a tin cathode: comparison with lead cathode”

- The influence of key variables in a Sn cathode filter-press cell was studied
- The performance of Sn plate was compared with previous results using Pb
- As with Pb, the influence of current density using Sn was especially remarkable
- Results with Sn plate cathodes outperformed those with Pb plate
- These results reinforce the interest in Sn for CO₂ electrovalorisation to formate

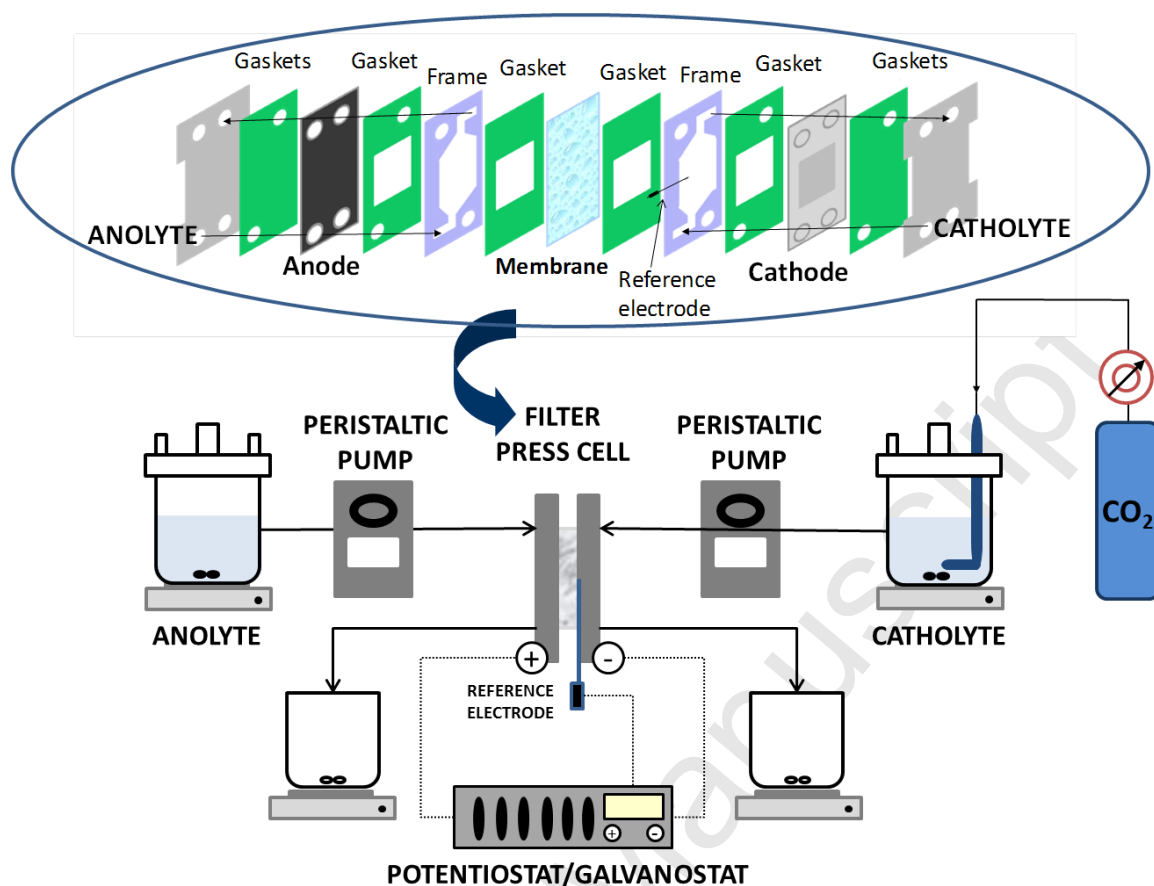


Figure 1. Diagram of the experimental set-up

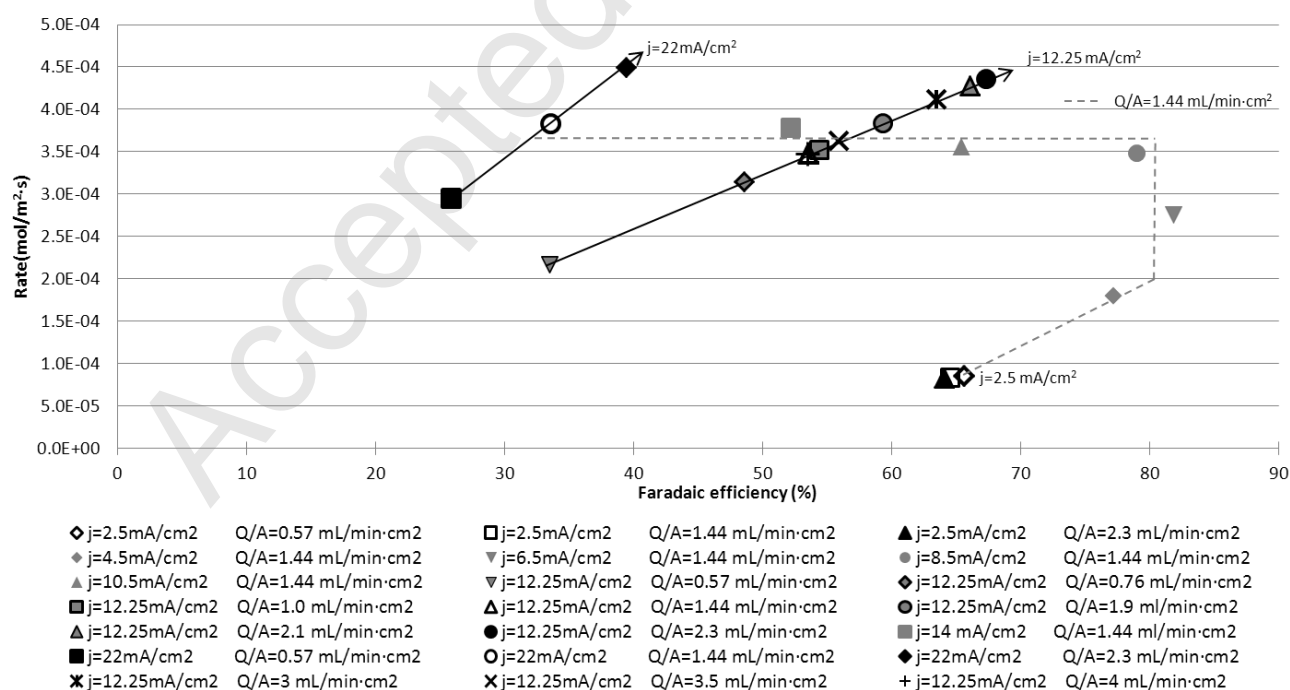


Figure 2. Relationship between the rate of formate production and Faradaic efficiency for formate at different flow/area ratios (Q/A) and current densities (j) using Sn cathode.

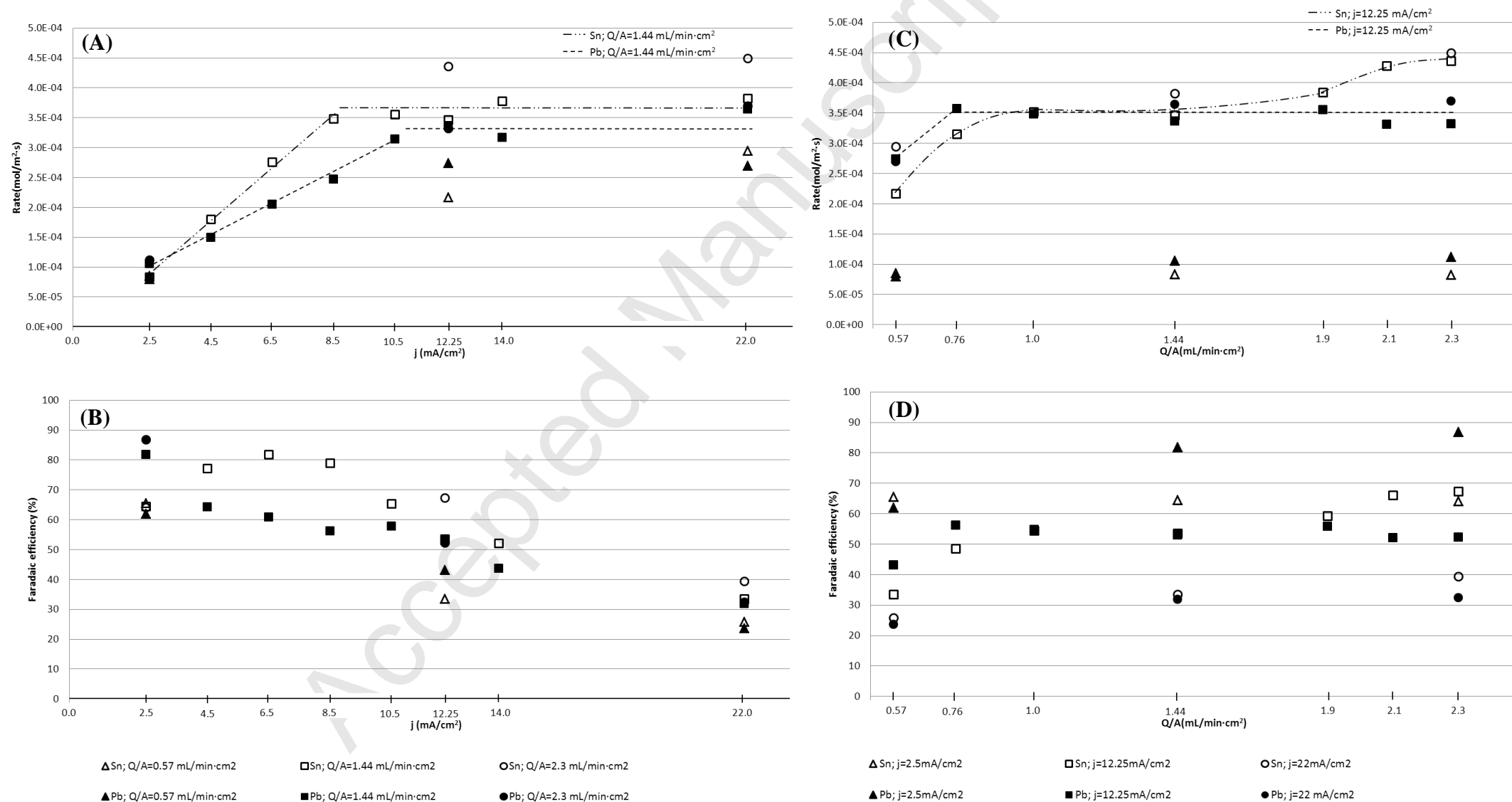


Figure 3. Comparison of the results obtained with Sn plate cathode and Pb plate cathode. (A) and (B): rates of formate production (A) and Faradaic efficiencies (B) vs current density (j). (C) and (D): rates of formate production (C) and Faradaic efficiencies (D) vs flow/area ratio (Q/A).