See discussions, stats, and author profiles for this publication at: https://www.researchgate.net/publication/263895048

Selective Photoelectrochemical Reduction of Aqueous CO2 to CO by Solvated Electrons

ARTICLE in ANGEWANDTE CHEMIE · SEPTEMBER 2014

DOI: 10.1002/ange.201404328

READS

40

4 AUTHORS, INCLUDING:



Linghong Zhang
University of Wisconsin–Madison
8 PUBLICATIONS 102 CITATIONS

SEE PROFILE



Robert J. Hamers
University of Wisconsin–Madison
387 PUBLICATIONS 17,304 CITATIONS

SEE PROFILE

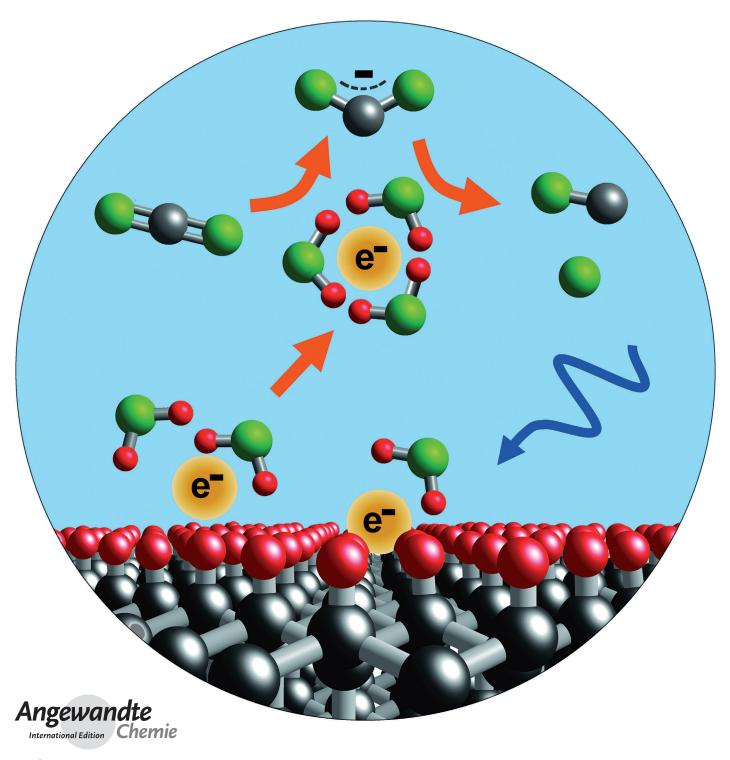


Photochemistry Hot Paper

DOI: 10.1002/anie.201404328

Selective Photoelectrochemical Reduction of Aqueous CO₂ to CO by Solvated Electrons**

Linghong Zhang, Di Zhu, Gilbert M. Nathanson, and Robert J. Hamers*



Abstract: Reduction of CO_2 by direct one-electron activation is extraordinarily difficult because of the -1.9 V reduction potential of CO₂. Demonstrated herein is reduction of aqueous CO₂ to CO with greater than 90 % product selectivity by direct one-electron reduction to $CO_2^{\bullet-}$ by solvated electrons. Illumination of inexpensive diamond substrates with UV light leads to the emission of electrons directly into water, where they form solvated electrons and induce reduction of CO_2 to CO_2^{-} . Studies using diamond were supported by studies using aqueous iodide ion (I-), a chemical source of solvated electrons. Both sources produced CO with high selectivity and minimal formation of H_2 . The ability to initiate reduction reactions by emitting electrons directly into solution without surface adsorption enables new pathways which are not accessible using conventional electrochemical or photochemical processes.

he development of methods to efficiently convert atmospheric CO₂ into chemical feedstocks or other environmentally benign products is one of the most pressing problems today. Attempts to reduce CO₂ under aqueous conditions by photochemical and electrochemical methods typically yield poor selectivity and poor efficiency because of competing reduction of H⁺ to H₂, as well as the many possible coupling reactions which can occur on the electrode surface. [1] The vast majority of work on CO2 photoreduction has focused on proton-coupled electron-transfer (PCET) reactions, [2] which usually require the participation of multiple electrons and protons as well as long-lived intermediates, and are therefore inefficient. A much more direct and more efficient pathway would be the one-electron reduction of CO₂ into CO₂. This pathway has been little studied photochemically because the one-electron reduction, $e^- + CO_2 \rightarrow CO_2^{\bullet-}$, has a standard redox potential (E^0) of -1.9 V versus the standard hydrogen electrode (SHE).[1] This value lies above the conduction band edge of nearly all semiconductors,[3] thus rendering them unable to initiate the one-electron reduction process.^[1,4]

Herein, we demonstrate a new approach to CO_2 reduction using aqueous solvated electrons, and show that solvated electrons produced by illuminating diamond surfaces selectively reduce CO_2 into CO with high product selectivity and minimal proton reduction. To enable this new pathway, we build on recent work showing that inexpensive, commercial-grade diamond samples can act as facile solid-state sources of solvated electrons in water when illuminated with ultraviolet light. The possible role of solvated electrons in photochemical

[*] L. Zhang, D. Zhu, Prof. G. M. Nathanson, Prof. R. J. Hamers Department of Chemistry, University of Wisconsin-Madison 1101 University Avenue, Madison, WI 53706 (USA) E-mail: rjhamers@wisc.edu Homepage: http://hamers.chem.wisc.edu

[**] This work was supported by the Air Force Office of Scientific Research under AFOSR Award FA9550-12-1-0063. L.Z. thanks Fei Meng for assistance of X-ray diffraction measurements, Steve Strebel, LeRoy Dobson, and Christopher McSweeny at Wisconsin State Laboratory of Hygiene for the assistance of ion chromatography measurements.

Supporting information for this article is available on the WWW under http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/anie.201404328.

reduction on diamond has been inferred previously,^[5] but until our recent work on N₂ reduction^[6] the direct role of solvated electrons in important reduction reactions had not been established. Unlike conventional electrochemical or photochemical approaches where reactants must adsorb to a surface, this approach does not require surface adsorption and is instead based on direct emission of electrons into the aqueous reactants.

Figure 1 shows an energy level diagram for diamond^[6,7] and some redox reactions of importance.^[3,7,8] When the surface of diamond is terminated with H atoms its conduction

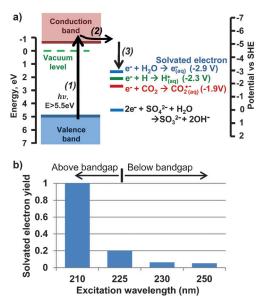


Figure 1. a) Energy diagram of H-terminated diamond compared with relevant redox potentials on absolute energy scale (left) and electrochemical energy scale (right). $^{[8,11]}$ E^0 values are shown for production of solvated electron ($e^-_{(aq)}$), hydrogen atom (H') and CO_2 radical anion (CO_2 -). ($E(SO_4^{2-}/SO_3^{2-})$ for counter-electrode is shown for pH 3.2. b) Solvated-electron yield versus wavelength from transient absorption measurements, normalized to yield at 210 nm.

band typically lies at -5.2 V versus SHE, thus placing it above the one-electron reduction potential of CO_2 , and even higher than the energy of a free electron in space (the vacuum level). When H-terminated diamond is illuminated with above-bandgap ($E_{\rm gap} = 5.5$ eV or $\lambda < 225$ nm) light, absorption of light by the diamond (1) excites electrons to the conduction band. These electrons are readily ejected into the adjacent aqueous phase (2), where they quickly relax (3) to form solvated electrons $^{[6,10]}$ and other high-energy species.

We can directly observe solvated electrons by measuring the transient absorption of a $\lambda=705$ nm laser beam grazing a diamond surface, which is then exposed to a brief pulse of ultraviolet light, as described in the Supporting Information. Figure 1 b shows measurements of the solvated electron yield relative to the value at $\lambda=210$ nm. These data show that the electron yield is much greater using above-bandgap excitation ($\lambda<225$ nm) than that at longer wavelengths, thus confirming that absorption of light in the bulk diamond and subsequent electron emission from the diamond conduction band is more



efficient at creating solvated electrons compared with other possible sub-bandgap excitation processes.

To establish how these solvated electrons induce reduction of CO₂ into CO, we conducted experiments using inexpensive "electrochemical grade" boron-doped diamond substrates (Element Six, Inc., resistivity < 0.05 ohm cm⁻¹) supported within a two-compartment quartz electrochemical cell. As shown previously, [6] the use of conductive, boron-doped diamond facilitates electron emission by allowing diamond to act as the electron emitter, while a platinum counter electrode can be used to perform an oxidation reaction to maintain charge neutrality. The experimental apparatus and procedures are described in the Supporting Information. Briefly, the diamond sample in a Na₂SO₄ supporting electrolyte is connected to a platinum counter electrode immersed in a Na₂SO₄/Na₂SO₃ solution. Sulfite acts as a sacrificial hole scavenger by the oxidation half-reaction $SO_3^{2-} + 2OH^- \rightarrow SO_4^{2-} + H_2O + 2e^-$, (E = $-0.27 \,\mathrm{V}$ under reaction conditions). The quartz cell is housed within a reactor (Parr, Inc.) with a fused silica window, pressurized to 2.5 MPa (~25 times atmospheric pressure) with CO₂, and the diamond sample is illuminated with broadband light from a HgXe lamp. Under these reaction conditions the pH is about 3.2.[12] After reaction the gas-phase headspace is released into a gas cell and analyzed using Fourier-transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR). The liquid is analyzed using ion chromatography (IC), gas chromatography mass spectroscopy (GC-MS), and nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectroscopy.

Figure 2 shows FTIR spectra of the gas-phase headspace after CO_2 photoreduction by illumination of a diamond sample. The spectrum from illuminated diamond in CO_2 /

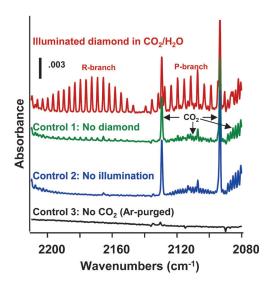


Figure 2. FTIR spectra of gaseous headspace demonstrating reduction of CO_2 to CO by illuminated diamond, along with control samples.

water shows distinct absorption lines of CO. The features shown here are the $P(\Delta J=-1)$ and $R(\Delta J=+1)$ rotational branches associated with excitation from the lowest (v=0) to the first excited (v=1) vibrational state of CO. No significant

CO is produced in the absence of UV light (Figure 2; No illumination) or in an argon-purged solution (Figure 2; No CO₂). A very small amount of CO is observed when a CO₂-saturated solution is illuminated without the diamond sample (Figure 2; No diamond). This CO arises because CO₂ has a very small photochemical reactivity at short wavelengths.^[13] All features in Figure 2 arise from CO and CO₂. The positions and intensities are reproduced almost exactly using known spectral constants (see the Supporting Information).^[14]

We calibrated our apparatus to establish the absolute CO yield and determined that a 1 cm² diamond sample typically produces about 300 µg of CO, thus corresponding to a concentration of CO in the gas phase of about 100 parts per million (ppm). We attempted to detect H₂ by GC and found that the concentration of H₂ product lies below our detection limit of 5 ppm. This result demonstrates that reduction of H⁺ to H₂ does not compete with reduction of CO₂ into CO. IC measurements of the liquid phase revealed only a small amount (28 µg) of the formate ion. We also attempted to detect other liquid-phase products using both GC-MS and NMR methods, but the amounts were below the detection limit of less than 1 mg L⁻¹ (corresponding to a ca. 80 µg of product). Our results indicate that the reduction of CO₂ occurs with high selectivity for CO, and also with high (>95%) selectivity for CO₂ reduction over proton reduction.

We evaluated whether the CO produced arose entirely from excitation across the diamond bandgap or whether subbandgap could induce CO_2 reduction, by comparing the CO production using broad-spectrum light with CO production when a $\lambda=225$ nm cutoff filter was inserted (thereby passing only sub-bandgap light). This experiment (see the Supporting Information) showed that no CO was produced using excitation wavelengths greater than $\lambda=225$ nm. This result is consistent with the solvated electron yield results of Figure 1 b.

To maintain charge neutrality, every electron emitted from the diamond must be accompanied by an oxidation reaction of the valence-band holes. In a previous study using identical samples^[6] we found that the valence-band edge lies at +0.3 V versus SHE^[15] (Figure 1), and is in agreement with earlier studies.^[7] The oxidation of diamond by $C+H_2O\rightarrow$ $CO + 2H^{+} + 2e^{-}$ has an associated reduction potential of $E_{\rm red} = 0.71 \text{ V}$ at pH 3.2 and should therefore not occur. [16] To prove that our CO product comes from CO₂ and not from the diamond substrate or other sources, we used isotopically labeled ¹³CO₂ as the source to perform the reaction. Figure 3 shows FTIR spectra of the gas-phase products starting from natural-abundance CO₂ (which we refer to as ¹²CO₂) and starting from ¹³CO₂. Also shown are simulations showing the spectra expected from pure 12CO and 13CO based on the HITRAN database. [14] The experimental FTIR spectra show clear rotational-vibrational lines expected for isotopically pure products and exactly match the simulated spectra. Using ¹²CO₂ yields the ¹²CO product with its band center near 2140 cm⁻¹, and using ¹³CO₂ produces shifted bands centered near 2100 cm⁻¹ for ¹³CO. In each case the shifted spikes and pattern between 2100 cm⁻¹ and 2000 cm⁻¹ are from CO₂ (also simulated in the Supporting Information). These isotope data prove that the CO product arises from the photoreduction of

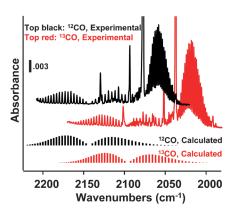


Figure 3. FTIR spectra showing CO produced from diamond illuminated in contact with isotopically labeled CO₂. The data show that ¹³CO and ¹²CO are produced from ¹³CO₂ and ¹²CO₂ starting materials, respectively. Also shown are calculated spectra for ¹³CO and ¹²CO.

 CO_2 introduced as a gas-phase reactant and not from diamond or other sources.

The iodide ion (I $^-$) is also known to generate solvated electrons upon UV exposure. ^[17] As a comparison, we placed a 10 mm KI solution into the pressure vessel, pressurized with CO₂ to 2.5 MPa, and exposed the sample to UV light for 16 hours. Figure S8 in the Supporting Information shows FTIR spectra of the resulting gas-phase headspace. Again CO is the major product with very little formation of H₂.

Despite much effort, the mechanistic pathways for photochemical CO_2 reduction remain only partially understood. [1,18] Nearly all prior photochemical studies have focused on PCET reactions such as $CO_2 + 2H^+ + 2e^- \rightarrow CO + H_2O$. [1] However, PCET reactions require adsorption of both CO_2 and H^+ and multi-electron transfers, thus leading to complex pathways and multiple products, including H_2 . [2a,b,18a,b,19] The high selectivity we observe with almost no H_2 suggests the solvated electron-induced reduction of CO_2 occurs by a unique pathway.

A notable difference between our work and all previous work on electrocatalytic and photocatalytic reduction of CO₂ is that the diamond electrode introduces electrons directly into the aqueous phase and it is therefore unnecessary (even undesirable) for reactants, intermediates, or products to bind to the surface. Instead, once the electrons are emitted, subsequent reactions occur in homogeneous solution. As depicted in Figure 1, electrons emitted from the diamond conduction band into water could react directly with CO₂ to form CO₂⁻⁻ in free solution (not adsorbed on a surface) or could relax first and produce solvated electrons $e^{-}_{(aq)}$. These then react with CO₂ to form CO₂. or with H⁺ to form neutral hydrogen atoms (H·). The reaction $e^{-}_{(aq)} + CO_2 \rightarrow CO_2$ · has a rate constant of $k = 7.7 \times 10^9 \,\mathrm{m}^{-1} \,\mathrm{s}^{-1}$, while the competing reaction with protons $e^{-}_{(aq)} + H^{+} \rightarrow H^{\bullet}$ has a rate constant of $k = 2.3 \times 10^{10} \,\mathrm{M}^{-1} \,\mathrm{s}^{-1}$. At a CO₂ pressure of 2.5 MPa and a temperature of 300 K, $[CO_{2(aq)}] = 0.8 \,\text{M}^{[21]}$ and the pH is $3.2.^{[12]}$ Since $[CO_{2(aq)}](0.8 \text{ M}) \gg [H^{+}](8 \times 10^{-4} \text{ M})$, the vast majority of solvated electrons react by $e^{-}_{(aq)} + CO_2 \rightarrow CO_2$. These rate equations predict that [H] will be small and that solvated electrons predominantly react with CO₂ to form CO₂. Since $CO_2^{\bullet-}$ is approximately 0.4 eV lower in energy than [H $^{\bullet}$] (see Figure 1), H $^{\bullet}$ atoms never accumulate and therefore the bimolecular reaction H $^{\bullet}$ +H $^{\bullet}$ \rightarrow H $_2$ (an undesirable side-reaction) is unimportant. Our observation of high selectivity for CO reduction over proton reduction with no detectable H $_2$ product strongly supports this model and highlights the importance of $CO_2^{\bullet-}$ as a reservoir for electrons.

Electrochemical studies have hypothesized that the oneelectron reduction of surface-adsorbed CO2 to form adsorbed CO2 • and then undergo additional bimolecular coupling or proton-coupled electrontransfer reactions to form CO and formate. [2b,e,18a,c,d,22] Hori et al. [18a] hypothesized that protonation of CO2 could form adsorbed HOCO and then be reduced to OH+CO. Saveant et al. [18c,22] proposed that two CO₂·-(ads) anions could form a transient intermediate which disproportionates by 2CO_2 \rightarrow CO + CO₃²⁻ in a solution with low proton concentrations.^[22] On a surface, pathways involving bimolecular coupling are important because of the locally high concentrations of accumulated species, but such reactions are less likely to occur in homogeneous solution. However, CO2 in large water clusters photodissociates into CO and O- when illuminated with light at $\lambda = 266 \text{ nm}$ or $\lambda = 355 \text{ nm}$. This result suggests that CO production in our studies may involve initial formation of CO2. and subsequent photodissociation of CO₂⁻⁻ to produce the final CO product. To ensure that our CO product did not come from photodissociation of formate (a common CO₂ reduction product), [18a] we tested the photochemical activity of formate-containing solutions. These experiments yielded very little CO (see Figure S9 in the Supporting Information), thus showing that CO comes from the CO₂. intermediate.

While further studies will undoubtedly be needed to fully resolve the detailed mechanistic pathways, our results demonstrate that CO₂ can be efficiently and selectively reduced to CO using solvated electrons. The unique electronic structure of H-terminated diamond allows it to be used as a convenient solid-state source of electrons at the conduction-band energy. The high energy of these electrons enables formation of solvated electrons and the direct one-electron reduction of CO₂ to CO₂. in solution, a reaction step not accessible with other water-stable semiconductor photocatalysts. The rapid reaction of solvated electrons with CO2 at 2.5 MPa allows CO₂ reduction to outcompete proton reduction even at pH 3.2, thus resulting in selective reduction of CO₂ with only minimal production of H₂ as a side product. This work represents a new approach to catalysis by bringing electrons as a reagent directly into reactant solutions, thus enabling new mechanistic pathways which can provide unique and selective product distributions.

Received: April 15, 2014 Revised: June 6, 2014 Published online: July 14, 2014

Keywords: carbon dioxide \cdot diamond \cdot photochemistry \cdot reduction \cdot surface chemistry



- [1] B. Kumar, M. Llorente, J. Froehlich, T. Dang, A. Sathrum, C. P. Kubiak, *Annu. Rev. Phys. Chem.* **2012**, *63*, 541.
- [2] a) H. Fujiwara, H. Hosokawa, K. Murakoshi, Y. Wada, S. Yanagida, Langmuir 1998, 14, 5154-5159; b) T. Inoue, A. Fujishima, S. Konishi, K. Honda, Nature 1979, 277, 637-638; c) B. A. Rosen, A. Salehi-Khojin, M. R. Thorson, W. Zhu, D. T. Whipple, P. J. Kenis, R. I. Masel, Science 2011, 334, 643-644; d) C. Costentin, S. Drouet, M. Robert, J. M. Saveant, Science 2012, 338, 90-94; e) R. Angamuthu, P. Byers, M. Lutz, A. L. Spek, E. Bouwman, Science 2010, 327, 313-315.
- [3] H. A. Schwarz, R. W. Dodson, J. Phys. Chem. 1989, 93, 409 414.
- [4] A. L. Linsebigler, G. Q. Lu, J. T. Yates, Chem. Rev. 1995, 95, 735-758.
- [5] L. Boonma, T. Yano, D. A. Tryk, K. Hashimoto, A. Fujishima, J. Electrochem. Soc. 1997, 144, L142–L145.
- [6] D. Zhu, L. H. Zhang, R. E. Ruther, R. J. Hamers, *Nat. Mater.* 2013, 12, 836–841.
- [7] T. N. Rao, D. A. Tryk, K. Hashimoto, A. Fujishima, J. Electrochem. Soc. 1999, 146, 680–684.
- [8] D. D. M. Wayner, V. D. Parker, Acc. Chem. Res. 1993, 26, 287– 294.
- [9] F. J. Himpsel, J. A. Knapp, J. A. Vanvechten, D. E. Eastman, Phys. Rev. B 1979, 20, 624–627.
- [10] J. R. Christianson, D. Zhu, R. J. Hamers, J. R. Schmidt, J. Phys. Chem. B 2014, 118, 195–203.
- [11] P. Wardman, J. Phys. Chem. Ref. Data 1989, 18, 1637-1755.
- [12] C. Peng, J. P. Crawshaw, G. C. Maitland, J. P. M. Trusler, D. Vega-Maza, J. Supercrit. Fluids 2013, 82, 129–137.

- [13] J. A. Schmidt, M. S. Johnson, R. Schinke, Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 2013, 110, 17691 – 17696.
- [14] L. S. Rothman, C. P. Rinsland, A. Goldman, S. T. Massie, D. P. Edwards, J.-M. Flaud, A. Perrin, C. Camy-Peyret, V. Dana, J.-Y. Mandin, J. Schroeder, A. McCann, J. Quant. Spectrosc. Radiat. Transfer 2010, 111, 1568–1613.
- [15] D. Takeuchi, H. Kato, G. S. Ri, T. Yamada, P. R. Vinod, D. Hwang, C. E. Nebel, H. Okushi, S. Yamasaki, *Appl. Phys. Lett.* 2005, 86, 152103.
- [16] a) H.-S. Choo, T. Kinumoto, S.-K. Jeong, Y. Iriyama, T. Abe, Z. Ogumi, J. Electrochem. Soc. 2007, 154, B1017; b) S. G. Bratsch, J. Phys. Chem. Ref. Data 1989, 18, 1–21.
- [17] H. Matsumura, F. Mafune, T. Kondow, J. Phys. Chem. 1995, 99, 5861 – 5864.
- [18] a) Y. Hori, H. Wakebe, T. Tsukamoto, O. Koga, *Electrochim. Acta* 1994, 39, 1833–1839; b) Y. Izumi, *Coord. Chem. Rev.* 2013, 257, 171–186; c) C. Costentin, M. Robert, J. M. Saveant, *Chem. Soc. Rev.* 2013, 42, 2423–2436; d) M. Gattrell, N. Gupta, A. Co, *J. Electroanal. Chem.* 2006, 594, 1–19.
- [19] N. Hoshi, M. Kato, Y. Hori, *J. Electroanal. Chem.* **1997**, 440, 283 –
- [20] G. V. Buxton, C. L. Greenstock, W. P. Helman, A. B. Ross, J. Phys. Chem. Ref. Data 1988, 17, 513–886.
- [21] G. V. L. Wiebe, J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1940, 62, 815-817.
- [22] C. Amatore, J. M. Saveant, J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1981, 103, 5021 5023.
- [23] a) T. Habteyes, L. Velarde, A. Sanov, J. Chem. Phys. 2007, 126, 154301; b) L. Velarde, T. Habteyes, A. Sanov, J. Chem. Phys. 2006, 125, 114303.