

Electroreduction of Carbon Dioxide into Formate: A Comprehensive Review

Shaima A. Al-Tamreh,^[a] Mohamed H. Ibrahim,^[a] Muftah H. El-Naas,^{*[a]} Jan Vaes,^[b] Deepak Pant,^[b] Abdelbaki Benamor,^[a] and Abdulkarem Amhamed^[c]





Carbon dioxide conversion into useful products has been gaining considerable attention as a global-warming-mitigation technique. The electrochemical conversion of CO_2 into highvalue chemicals involves the utilization of electrical energy in the presence of an effective catalyst. The process products depend on the number of transferred electrons during the reaction and the characteristics of the electrode. Recently, electrodes coupled with active catalysts have been used to convert CO_2 into valuable products including formic acid,

1. Introduction

Carbon dioxide (CO₂) is one of the main greenhouse gases (GHGs) that contributes to climate change, and it can absorb and emit infrared radiation.^[1] Consequently, it leads to global warming which causes a significant rise in the temperature globally. In addition, CO₂ emissions can cause acidification of water bodies due to the formation of carbonic acid from excess dissolved CO_2 . The expected rise in energy demand in the next few years will eventually lead to more CO₂ emission which is estimated to reach 39.1 billion metric tons in 2030.^[2] The impact of CO₂ can be reduced by applying CO₂ capture techniques that include adsorption,^[3] membrane separation,^[4,5] chemical and physical absorption^[6] and mineral carbonation.^[7,8] CO₂ capture strategies are only considered as a transitory solution, on the long-term further CO₂ conversion techniques are required to refunctionalize the carbon dioxide by converting the gas to value-added products. Hence, several techniques such as electroconversion^[9,10,19,20,11–18] bioconversion,^[21,22] photoconversion,^[22,23] bio-electroreduction^[24-26] and photoelectroreduction^[27] are being investigated in the literature. Electroconversion has potential to convert CO₂ to methanol,^[28] syngas,^[29] ethanol,^[30] methane^[31] and formic acid^[32], depending on which boundary conditions are set for the industrial context.

One of the main advantages of producing formic acid is its versatile use in multiple applications. Particularly, formic acid has a great capacity to store hydrogen, which can reach up to 4.35% of its weight;^[33,34] hence, it can be considered as an effective hydrogen carrier. At standard pressure and temperature, the capacity of hydrogen gas storage in formic acid is 580 times higher than the capacity of hydrogen gas that has the same volume.^[35] Moreover, formic acid is used to produce acetic acid and methanol.^[36] In addition, 2000 tons of formate solutions (50 wt/vol%) are used in US airports as deicing salts

hydrocarbons, and syngas. This review offers an overview of the recent literature on the electrochemical conversion of CO_2 to valuable products, with an emphasis on the production of formate/formic acid. In addition, it compares the main features of electrochemical conversion to other techniques and summarizes their key advantages. It also provides future perspective for research and development, such as the need for novel and selective catalysts to obtain high conversion and product yield with low energy consumption.

annually.^[36] In spite of the importance of formic acid as a base material for several industries, the number of recent comprehensive literature reviews on CO₂ conversion into formate/ formic acid is rather limited and mostly focus on specific aspects of electrochemical reduction. For example, Lu et al.^[34] presented a general discussion of electrochemical reduction of CO₂ to formic acid, while Du et al.^[37] reviewed inorganic cathode materials. Recently, Philips et al.^[38] compared several types of electrodes and cell configurations in terms of current efficiency toward the formation of formate. Nonetheless, the formate production literature is still deficient in providing detailed analysis of catalysts, cell configuration, membrane types and electrode materials. Thus, this review addresses these aspects, focusing on the electro-catalytic reduction of CO₂ to formate/ formic acid and comparing it with other possible products, such as carbon monoxide, methanol, ethylene and ethanol. In addition, the review proposes further steps towards the enhancement of CO₂ reduction and suggests synthesis of new efficient catalysts with high Faradaic efficiency (FE) that can have industrial applications.

2. Types of CO₂ Conversion

 CO_2 can be utilized through two routes: chemical and physical pathways.^[39] For the physical route, CO_2 can be used as pure or in a mixture. Physical utilization of CO_2 can be achieved by either direct or by indirect utilization. However, direct physical utilization has minor reduction of CO_2 , and it has limited in applications. On the other hand, the chemical pathway can convert CO_2 molecules to fuels or chemicals.^[40] This can be achieved by several methods, such as photoconversion, bioconversion, thermal conversion and electroconversion.

Photoconversion may involve photocatalytic conversion^[41,6,42-44] or photo-electrocatalytic conversion.^[45] The main difference between these two methods is that photo-conversion has a semiconductor electrode with photocatalyst that is exposed to sunlight to absorb photons and convert CO_2 into other chemical products;^[46] while photo-electrocatalytic consists of photoanode, photocathode or both in electrolysis cell separated by membrane.^[47] The combination of photo-conversion with electrochemistry enhances the efficiency of the conversion.^[47]

Bioconversion can be achieved through artificial biosystems,^[48] microalgae^[49] or fermentation.^[50] Microbial bioelectrochemical systems are one of the artificial biosystems that

[[]a] S. A. Al-Tamreh, M. H. Ibrahim, Prof. M. H. El-Naas, Dr. A. Benamor Gas Processing Center, College of Engineering, Qatar University, Doha, Ad Dawhah 2713, Qatar E-mail: muftah@qu.edu.qa

[[]b] Dr. J. Vaes, Dr. D. Pant

Separation & Conversion Technology, Flemish Institute for Technological Research (VITO), Boeretang 200, 2400 Mol, Belgium [C] Dr. A. Amhamed

Qatar Environment & Energy Research Institute, Hamad Bin Khalifa University, Education City, Doha, Qatar

^{© 2021} The Authors. ChemElectroChem published by Wiley-VCH GmbH. This is an open access article under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits use, distribution and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.



utilize microorganisms or enzymes as biocatalysts with an electrical power source. The product selectivity can reach up to 100% using enzymes, however, this process has a high overall cost that needs to be reduced to become economically feasible.^[51] Microalgae are unicellular photoautotrophic species that are driven by sunlight^[52,53] and can be used in CO₂ utilization. The microalgae growth depends on several factors including nutrients, CO₂ as carbon source and light^[52] to produce biofuel.^[53,54] Furthermore, fermentation may also convert CO₂ into methane as a biogas. Besides fermentation, methanation is one of the other types of CO₂ conversion into methane; however, it is a natural mechanism that requires the use of catalysts due to the limitation in mass transfer.^[55]

Thermal conversion is achieved through plasma splitting^[56,57] and catalytic reforming.^[58,59] The process mainly depends on a catalytic reaction to produce carbon monoxide and hydrogen.^[59,60] This reaction suffers from carbon deposition that causes catalyst deactivation.^[61] Plasma splitting converts CO_2 to carbon monoxide and a free oxygen atom.^[60,62] It is



Ms. Shaima A. Al-Tamreh obtained her Bachelor of Science in chemical engineering degree from Qatar University (QU) in 2018. Shaima received High Distinction Award and graduated as Honors Program student. She got the 2nd place for graduation project competition. Currently she is studying her Masters of Science in environmental engineering at QU under the supervision of Prof. Muftah El-Naas while working as a research assistant in Gas Processing Center at QU.



Prof. Muftah H. El-Naas is a Professor at the Gas Processing Center, Qatar University, and served as Director of the Center and QAFCO Chair. His areas of expertise include CO2 capture, water purification, biotechnology, plasma technology, and membrane separation. Most of his recent research work focuses on the development of new, environmentally friendly processes for the Oil and Gas industry.

Dr. Deepak Pant is senior scientist at Flemish Institute for Technological Research (VITO), Belgium working on electrosynthesis and resource recovery, specifically, the design and optimization of (bio)electrochemical systems for CO₂ conversion and microbial electrosynthesis. He has a PhD in environmental biotechnology and has 156 peer-reviewed publications, 6 edited books, 6 patents and 36 book chapters to his credit.



Dr. Abdulkarem Amhamed is a senior scientist, program director and chartered chemical engineer, with more than 22 years' experience in the oil and gas industry. Dr. Amhamed earned his doctorate and MSc degrees in Chemical Engineering from Bradford University, UK, and the University of Salford UK, respectively. worth mentioning that conversion and capacity of the process are still low to be efficiently used in industrial applications.^[63]

A comparison of the core advantages of the abovementioned methods for CO_2 conversion, including electrochemical conversion, is shown in Table 1. Among these, electrocatalysis has been able to achieve the highest efficiency.

3. CO₂ Electroreduction

3.1. Mechanisms

Electroreduction is a multistep process that depends on the number of electrons transferred, and it is divided into four main categories as shown in Figure 1:^[71] 1) two-electron transferred, which mainly produces carbon monoxide and formate. 2) Six-electron transferred, resulting in methanol production. 3) Eight-electron transferred to obtain methane as the main product. 4) twelve-electron transferred to synthesize ethylene and



Mr. Mohamed H. Ibrahim received his Bachelor of Science in chemical engineering degree in 2016 from Qatar University (QU) and recently obtained his Master of Science in environmental engineering from QU. Mohamed currently works as a research assistant in Gas Processing Center at QU. His research interest includes CO_2 capture and sequestration, CO_2 conversion and utilization and resource management.







Dr. Abdelbaki Benamor is an Associate Research Professor in the Gas Processing Centre (GPC) at Qatar University, specialized in carbon capture and gas treatment processes. He holds a PhD in Chemical Engineering from the University of Malaya. He has more than fourteen years of experience in academic and industrial research.



Table 1. Main advantages and disadvantages of CO2 conversion types.					
CO ₂ Conversion types	Advantages	Disadvantages			
Bio-conversion	Sustainable conversion method. ^[48]	low efficiency and suffers from difficulties while operating in continuous mode on large scale ^[48,64] Dependence on sunlight limits its tractability and scalability ^[65] Methanation process is considered to be kinetically slow and suffers from poor mass transfer. ^[55]			
Photo-conversion	Using sunlight as an energy source. ^[46] Sensible production cost ^[41,66,67]	The efficiency can be limited by: ^[42,68] Charge carrier separation. low CO ₂ solubility.			
Electroconversion	Operates at ambient condition Ability to use renewable electricity including solar, wind, and hydro energy sources. ^[46] Can be carried out at low temperatures in liquid electrolytes. ^[46]	High overpotentials are required to overcome a competitive hydrogen evolution reaction. ^[69] Poor product selectivity and slow kinetics are required to be solved by developed materials. ^[69,70] Low operation temperature can cause low reaction rate and low selectivity in liquid electrolytes. ^[46]			
Thermal-conver- sion	Plasma splitting can be operated at moderate conditions. ^[63] long term decarbonization. ^[58]	Mass transfer limitations. ^[55] High methane production cost by thermal conversion method compared to other conventional methods. ^[24] Economic perspective challenges in converting CO ₂ into CO. ^[60] High energy consumption since it operates at high temperature and pressure. ^[48]			



Figure 1. Reaction pathways of CO_2 electroconversion into different products based on the number of transferred electrons.

ethanol. According to the CO₂ reduction routes in Figure 2,^[72,73] the critical step in the process is the initial reaction step of producing the radical anion of carbon dioxide ([•]CO₂⁻), which is required to control the high overpotential that is competing with hydrogen evolution.^[72] The overpotential value can be significantly reduced by selecting a suitable catalyst. This initial step can be divided into two pathways: formate production pathway and carbon monoxide pathway. For carbon monoxide pathway, the produced CO gains four electrons to produce CH_{2(ads)}, which is used for the production of ethylene, ethane and methane. For the formate pathway, it has three mechanisms including radical anion (Pathway 1), protonation step (Pathway 2) and electrode surface bonding (Pathway 3).^[74] Radical anion mechanism depends on transferring protons to a radical carbon atom (CO_2^{-}) since the oxygens are connected to the electrode surface. Thus, the protonation occurs on the carbon atom to produce HCOO[•] intermediate. This intermediate further receives another transferred electron and a proton for the formation of formic acid. This indicates that less energy and electricity are needed to produce formate and formic acid, which makes this pathway more favorable in terms of product selection. Mainly, after the formation of the product on the catalyst surface, it is released to the electrolyte. Therefore, the product selectivity can be determined according to the used catalyst and electrode potential.[11,13-18,75] It is worth mentioning that there are other proposed pathways for formate production such as the formation of OCHO intermediates (pathway 2) and electrode surface bonding (pathway 3). This pathway, unlike radical anion pathway, has 'OCHO as an intermediate after transferring an electron to the HCOO[•] intermediate. After that the protonation step takes place at the produced 'OCHO to obtain formic acid. The last possible mechanism pathway depends on the bonding site of the electrode surface with carbon atom of radical anion. When this bonding takes place, the protonation of oxygen atom of the radical anion occurs to form 'COOH intermediate. This intermediate is further reduced to formic acid by transferring protons and electrons.

3.2. Electroreduction Products

3.2.1. Carbon Monoxide

Carbon monoxide is one of the possible products that results from the electroconversion of CO₂. Lee et al.^[76] described a modified technology for CO₂ conversion that focused on applying a membrane electrode rather than a conventional reduction of CO₂ in liquid phase. The membrane electrode involves anion exchange membrane (AEM) and gas diffusion electrode (GDE). The catalyst materials of the cathode are Reviews doi.org/10.1002/celc.202100438





Figure 2. Flowchart of the reduction reaction steps of CO₂ electroconversion into carbon monoxide, formate/formic acid, methane, ethylene and ethane.

applied as powders including Ni, Pd, Zn, Ag, Sn, Ru, Cu, Pt. CO_2 is reduced to CO with a Faradic efficiency (FE) higher than 95%. The formation of carbon monoxide in the KHCO₃ solution saturated with the CO₂ resulted in a substantial FE of about 84% with Cu₂Cd/Cd/Cu bimetallic catalyst.^[77] Furthermore, the performance of the electroreduction with the Ag/Co₃O₄ catalyst reported excellent results with high selectivity of CO in the used solution based on KHCO₃.^[78] The FE reached a value greater than 95% with the Ag foam electrocatalyst.^[79] This electrocatalyst was produced by the combination of 1-butyl-3-methylimidazolium tetrafluoroborate ([Bmim][BF4]) ionic liquid. However, another highly active catalyst, pyrrolidinonyl-nickel phthalocyanine (PyNiPc), achieved close to 100% FE.^[69]

3.2.2. Methanol

The other product options by electro-conversion is methanol. Marepally et al.^[80] studied the production of methanol using Cubased catalysts in a continuous reactor with a pure flow of carbon dioxide and electrolyte consisting of an aqueous solution of KHCO₃. The main results showed that at average current density, the formation of methanol could be highly achieved with Cu nanoparticles, which were prepared as nanowires, compared to the classical preparation of the commercial carbon tube (Cu/CNT). In another study, Zarandi et al.^[81] evaluated the electroreduction of CO₂ to methanol with platinum nanoparticles catalyst on histamine-reduced graphene oxide plates (Pt@His-rGO) supported by a glassy carbon (GC). The optimization study was obtained by examining several parameters, such as the applied potential, pH and CO₂ purging time. The results showed that throughout the production of

methanol, lower applied potential is required for the nanocomposite electrocatalysts. Table 2 summarizes numerous literature work on the electrochemical conversion of CO_2 to syngas or methanol in terms of different experimental parameters.

3.2.3. Formic Acid/Formate

The formic acid or formate is one of the major products from electroconversion, and it is the main focus of this review. The production of formic acid or formate depends on the pH value during the experiment; formic acid can be produced at low pH (less than 3), while at higher pH values (weak alkaline) the production of formate can take place.^[34,37] Figure 3 shows reaction of formate production. Mainly, the carbon dioxide gains an electron and gets into an excited state (intermediate step), where the formate is produced by combination with a







Table 2. Tabulated data of current densities applied potentials, catalyst and FE for syngas and methanol as main products from CO ₂ electroconversion.						
Type of products	Current density	Applied potential*	Type of catalyst	Faraday efficiency	Electrolyte	Ref.
Syngas with water	6–100 mA.cm ⁻²	-1.1 to -0.6 V vs. RHE	CuZnO/CNT	15-85%	0.1 M KHCO₃	[82]
Carbon monoxide	20.4 mA.cm ⁻²	-1.28 vs. NHE	ZnO/Cu	47.2%	0.5 M KHCO3	[83]
Carbon monoxide	0.04–0.08 mA.cm ⁻²	-1.8 V vs.SCE	Ag/Co ₃ O ₄	21.3%	0.1 M KHCO ₃	[78]
Carbon monoxide	6.72 mA.cm ⁻²	-2.3 V vs. Fc/Fc $^+$	Zn	83%	PC/TBAP catholyte 0.1 M H₃SO₄ anolyte	[84]
Carbon monoxide	-11.4 mA.cm ⁻²	-1.2 V vs RHE	CdS-CNT	95%	0.1 M KHCO3	[85]
Carbon monoxide	8 mA.cm ⁻²	-1.0 V vs. RHE	Cu ₂ Cd/Cd/Cu	84%	0.1 M KHCO3	[77]
Carbon monoxide	19.1 mA.cm ⁻²	-0.93 V vs. RHE	PyNiPc/CNT	\approx 100 %	0.5 M KHCO3	[69]
Carbon monoxide	\sim 2.6 mA.cm $^{-2}$	-0.4 V vs. RHE	ZrO ₂ /N–C	64%	0.5 M KHCO3	[86]
Methanol	250 μ A0.044 cm ⁻²	—0.3 V vs. Ag/AgCl (KClsat)	Pt@His-rGO	37%	0.1 mol/L KNO3	[81]
Ethanol	2.3 mA.cm ⁻²	-0.8 V vs RHE	HMMP Cu ₅ Zn ₈	46.6%	0.1 M KHCO3	[87]
Methane	100 mA.cm ⁻²	-1 V vs.RHE	Cu(II)	42%	1 M KOH	[88]
* Reference electrode not normalized against a single one due to non-uniformity in reporting in different studies.						

proton and another electron. This explains the reason why formate production by CO₂ electroreduction requires twoelectron transferred, which is due to the intermediate step. The involvement of proton (H⁺) in the intermediate step is essential in formate production. During the reduction reaction, the oxygen evolution potential (OEP) of the anode can affect the required voltage. Higher values of OEP lead to higher applied voltages, which corresponds to more H⁺ transfer across the proton membrane resulting from strengthening of the electric field.^[89] It is noteworthy that hydrogen evolution reaction is more thermodynamically favorable than the reaction of formate or formic acid;^[37] therefore, more effort is needed to overcome the production of hydrogen by selecting a suitable electrocatalyst and reactor configuration. For more details, Figure 4 illustrates an electrolysis cell for the CO₂ electroreduction into formate using tin-based (Sn) electrocatalyst as cathode and platinum (Pt) as anode with an ion exchange membrane.



Figure 4. A schematic diagram of the CO₂ electrocatalytic reduction into formate on Sn-based catalyst.

ChemElectroChem 2021, 8, 1–15 www.chemelectrochem.org 6 These are not the final page numbers!

4. Types of Electrolytic Cell Reactor for Formate Production

The configuration of the electrolytic cell plays a critical role in CO_2 electroreduction since the arrangement of the electrodes,^[90] types of membrane^[91] and types of electrolyte^[92] affect the performance of electroreduction and the desired product yield. The most common reactors types are: (i) H-type cell, (ii) solidoxide electrolysis cell (SOEC), (iii) differential electrochemical mass spectrometry cell (DEMS), (iv) Microfluidic flow cell (MFC), (v) polymer electrolyte membrane (PEM) and (vi) GDE.^[93] To produce formate/formic acid, the main used configuration in the literature is based on H-type cell (lab-scale), filter-press cell and gas diffusion electrode, as mentioned in Table 4. The simplicity of H-type allows it to be tested at lab-scale to examine the performance of electrocatalyst selectivity; however, for large and long-time scales, further development are required to reduce the mass transfer resistance.^[93] The main challenges of CO₂ electrolyzers are electrode structure, reactor configuration, reaction conditions (temperature pH and pressure), and electrolyte selection.^[94] The local pH, near the cathode surface, is often different from the bulk pH due to diffusion limitation and proton consumption or OH⁻ generation.

4.1. Cell Configuration

The cell configuration depends on the selected reactor type that is efficiently used in producing formate or formic acid. According to the literature,^[95,96] the majority of the studies focused on applying 3 electrodes and H-type cell, while others applied GDE^[14,97] to improve the FE of formate production. Only a limited number of studies focused on using the filter press cell for a continuous reaction.^[98,99] Thus, this section describes the three commonly used types, as shown in Figure 5, including H-type cell, GDE and filter press cell.

H-type cell is considered as the most common applied reactor for electroreduction of $CO_{2r}^{[93]}$ which consists of two separated compartments having three electrodes.^[95] The anodic





Figure 5. Sketch of reactors type a) H-type cell b) gas diffusion electrode cell and c) filter press cell

compartment contains one electrode, while the cathodic compartment contains two electrodes, a reference electrode and a working electrode. These two compartments are separated by a membrane, which controls the ions movement to prevent the further oxidation of the desired product.

GDE is one of the reactor types with highly improved mass transfer efficiency in comparison to H-type cell.^[93] The configuration of GDE allows CO_2 gas to be directly contacted by the inner electrode, which has a porous membrane that allows the electrolyte to be contacted with CO_2 gas at the outer side of the electrode. As a result, having a boundary consisting of three phases including gas phase (CO_2), liquid phase (electrolyte bulk) and solid phase (electrode) can lead to the production of formate due to the higher mass transfer at the boundaries.

Filter press cell is investigated frequently as parallel plates of selected electrodes (mainly different types depending on the case study) that are separated by a membrane.^[99] Usually, this type of reactors can run in a continuous mode, consisting of inlet and outlet for electrolyte path and inlet for CO₂ (feed) with another path for outlet with the formate or formic acid product.

4.2. Types of Membranes and Electrolytes

The selection of the membrane can significantly affect the results since most of the reactors depend on the membrane type between the chambers or even between the plates (in the case of filter press cell) to control the movement of ions. Thus, the types of membrane and electrolyte need to be carefully selected in order to obtain high performance electroreduction of CO_2 into formate. Proton exchange membrane, cation exchange membrane and bipolar membrane are used in

that the membrane thickness can affect the FE of the formate production. The study was based on the performance of different types of membrane including Nafion 115, 212 and 324 on the anodic chamber at applied cell voltage of 3.5 V obtaining a high FE around 94%. The results showed that the thicker membrane, which is Nafion 324 with a thickness of 150 µm, obtained less crossover of formate ions from cathodic compartment to anodic compartment compared to the thinner membrane. Ramdin et al.[101] compared the performance of cation exchange membrane and bipolar membrane. They concluded that bipolar membrane can be applied in large-scale process compared to cation exchange membrane due to its capability to have less amount of liquid crossover and its ability to maintain the pH gradient. Besides the significant role of membranes, the electrolytes also affect the performance significantly. As mentioned before, the competitive reaction (hydrogen evolution reaction) is required to be minimized, since it affects the formate production. According to Wang et al.^[34] high overpotential electrolyte could increase the hydrogen evolution; however, the electrolyte could be considered as a support for the catalysts and system stabilization.

electroconversion of CO₂ into formate. Yang et al.^[100] showed

Electrolytes could be divided into two types: aqueous and non-aqueous electrolyte. Aqueous electrolytes have high electrical conductivity properties and they have different CO_2 saturation affinity. On the other hand, nonaqueous electrolytes are less conductive compared to aqueous electrolyte. Potassium carbonate (KHCO₃) is one of the most common aqueous electrolytes and it can be saturated by CO_2 within a concentration range of 0.1–0.5 M. Ju et al.^[102] investigated a solid polymer electrolyte membrane-based continuous-flow reactor





Figure 6. Timeline for the application of most common electrocatalyst of CO₂ conversion into formate

which is believed to offer an attractive pathway for CO_2 conversion into value products at low temperature.

5. Types of Catalysts Used for Formate/Formic Acid Production

The type of electrocatalysts plays a significant role in the performance of the electrochemical conversion, as well as it affects the type of final product from the CO₂ reduction.^[34,71,95] Effective electrocatalysts are expected to give high performance at low overpotential with high selectivity, activity and stability.^[71,72] The electroreduction of CO₂ to produce formate was first reported in 1985.^[103] In 1987, Ikeda et al.^[104] studied the formation of formic acid using several metallic electrodes such as lead, mercury and titanium. At the end of 1990's, iron was developed electrocatalyst using as an iron(0) tetraphenylporphyrins.^[105] At the early of 2000's, Co(II) complex was investigated as an electrocatalyst while dissolved in aqueous solution.^[106] Between 2008 and 2010, lead (Pb) electrodes were examined in aqueous medium.^[107,108] While between 2011 and 2014, tin electrodes were mostly studied.^[109,110] In 2017, Kim et al.^[111] used shape-controlled bismuth nanoflakes, which helped in increasing the process efficiency. In 2018 and 2019, copper-based catalyst was doped in sulfur and gold to enhance the selectivity towards formate.[112,113] In 2020, Yang et al.^[114] synthesized a homogenous nanoparticles alloy using bismuth -doped amorphous SnOx nanoshells. Figure 6 illustrates the electrocatalyst application timeline of CO2 into formate. Through the decades, the electrocatalysts were developed via using main set of strategies, as shown in Figure 7, to enhance the CO₂ conversion into formate. For a detailed discussion about catalyst design and fundamental principles, the readers are directed to Zhang et al.^[115]

Electrocatalysts can be divided into homogenous and heterogenous catalysts. Homogenous catalysts are made of organic compounds or organometallic materials that have an intrinsic molecular structure, and they can be dissolved in



Figure 7. Proposed catalyst design strategies for CO₂ electroconversion.^[115]

electrolytes to enhance the exchange of protons and electrons.^[16] It has been reported that the reduction of CO₂ on homogeneous catalysts exhibits favorable kinetics with low overpotentials.^[16] However, they are considered to be more expensive than heterogenous electrocatalysts. Hence, utilizing heterogenous catalysts is more economically and environmentally viable at large scales. The heterogenous electrocatalysts fall under different categories including molecular catalysts,^[71] metallic catalyst^[34,71,116] carbon-based catalysts and alloy electrocatalysts.

Alloys catalysts, such as palladium-tin alloy, show more efficient performance compared to pure metallic catalysts (tin catalyst).^[117,118] In addition, using alloys helps in reducing the manufacturing cost of the electrocatalysts^[82] and controls the binding energies for intermediates in electrochemical CO₂ reduction.^[82,119] To improve the catalyst performance, catalyst supports are used to provide more active sites^[120] which will consequently promote high surface area.^[58] Carbon is usually the main support material and it can exist in different forms including carbon nanotube, carbon black and reduced graphene oxide (rGO) (as shown in Figure 8). A study conducted by





Figure 8. Common catalysts and catalyst support for CO_2 electroconversion into formate.

Jiménez et al.^[121] examined the effect of using different carbon supports on the catalytic activity of copper; the rGO support showed tendency toward formic acid production. In this section, the following catalysts: tin (Sn),^[96,117,122-125] bismuth (Bi),^[126,127,136-142,128-135] indium (In)^[143-146] and copper (Cu)^[121,147-150] are discussed in more details.

5.1. MOF Catalyst

Metal–organic framework (MOF) catalysts can be synthesized through bridging cation metals with organic linkers.^[151] MOFs show high stability when having different pore sizes and topology at wide range of temperature and pH. Table 3 shows the reported MOFs catalysts for electroconversion, photocatalytic and hydrogenation of CO₂.

5.2. Tin (Sn)-Based Electrocatalyst

Sn-based catalysts are considered to be non-toxic with high selective properties that can tolerate aqueous electrolyte at low overpotentials.^[95] According to Liu at al.,^[72] Sn-based catalyst has one of the highest selectivity toward formic acid/formate, which can be applied efficiently for CO₂ electroconversion. This efficiency is affected by the reaction conditions and electrode

properties, which can significantly change the Sn reactivity. Its FE, which is a function of structure and morphology of catalyst, varies between 18–95%.^[116] FE, which is shown in Equation 1, is defined as the number of transferred electrons to produce a certain number of formate moles at a certain electric charge which is provided during the reaction.^[157]

$$f = nFn_{formate}/Q \tag{1}$$

Where the term *n* represents the number of transferred electrons, *F* shows the Faraday constant, $n_{formate}$ indicates the produced moles of formate and *Q* refers to the total passing charge through the reaction.

The performance of different forms of Sn-based catalyst, such as pure, oxide or alloy catalysts, were investigated in the literature at different experimental conditions to obtain formate.^[96,122-125,158-161] According to Zhao et al.^[95] Sn-based catalyst was prepared by electron-deposition method on Cu film. The film had a series of a deposited Sn catalyst, which achieved an optimum current density of 15 mA.cm⁻² and FE around 91%. Yang et al.^[100] further improved the Sn catalyst by using a novel cell composed of three compartments. The cell configuration achieved higher FE about 94% at a current density of 140 mA.cm⁻². This was obtained by applying ionomer (imidazole-based) to nanoparticle Sn catalyst at GDE to improve the performance of CO₂ reduction into formic acid. In addition, the efficient use of ion membranes helped in the transfer of ions between the chamber cells. It is worth noting that the authors did not use any salt electrolytes and only used deionized water. It is also important to note that authors recommended further development for GDEs as they observed liquid flooding during the reaction time. Although GDEs showed good performance by allowing the direct contact between the catalyst and CO₂ which increases the mass transfer, they still require more improvement. According to Castillo at al.,^[162] the implementation of GDEs with Sn-carbon support needs more research to improve the FE at high current densities. The authors work showed low efficiency of 70% compared to Yang et al.^[100] at relatively high current density. Consequently, Guillermo at al.^[158] described more advanced steps to improve formate selectivity by applying Sn-Catalyst Coated Membrane electrode (Sn-CCMs). This configuration is based on the utilization of solid polymer electrolyte, which reduces the effect of CO₂ solubility on the reaction rate. Although Castillo et al.^[162] and Guillermo et al.^[158] used the same Sn-based electrode (Sn/C-NPs and Sn-CCMEs), the Sn-CCMEs data did not show any improvement with respect to FE and

Table 3. Illustrated metal-organic framework used in CO2 conversion.					
Conversion type	Organic framework	Additions	Product	Ref.	
Electroconversion	Benzne-1,3,5-tricarboxylic acid Cu ₃ (BTC) ₂	Graphene oxide	Formic acid	[152]	
	Cu/Cu ₂ O	Nanoparticles	Carbon monoxide	[153]	
Photocatalytic	manganese bipyridine complex Mn(bpydc)- (CO)3Br	robust Zr(IV)-based metal	Formic acid	[154]	
Hydrogenation	Copper- Alkoxide-Functionalized	-	Formic Acid	[155]	
, ,	chromium dicarboxylate MOF MIL-53(Cr)	cyclopentadienyl iron tricarbonyl complex	Formate	[156]	

ChemElectroChem 2021, 8, 1–15 www.chemelectrochem.org

These are not the final page numbers! 77

© 2021 The Authors. ChemElectroChem published by Wiley-VCH GmbH



Table 4. Tabulated data of current density, applied potential and catalysts for Formate production by CO ₂ ER.							
Current density	Applied potential	Type of catalyst	Faraday efficiency	Electrolyte	Membrane	Cell-type	Ref.
15 mA.cm ⁻²		Sn catalyst	91%	0.1 M KHCO ₃	Nafion 211 proton ex-	H-type	[95]
8.3 mA.cm ⁻²	-1.4 V vs.RHE	Oxide-derived -Sn—Pb-Sb-5 V	91%	0.1 M KHCO ₃	Cation ion exchange membrane (CEM)	Conventional type	[161]
500 mA.cm ⁻²	0.5 V vs.RHE	SnO ₂	90%	Aqueous	Bipolar membrane	GDE	[14]
11.2 mA.cm ⁻²	-1.2 V vs.RHE	Sn/SnOx	89.6%	0.3 M NaOH	Nafion 117 cation ex- change membrane	H-type	[96]
45 mA.cm ⁻²	-	Sn-CCME	49.4%	Solid polymer electrolyte, SPE	Nafion 117 membrane	Continuous filter-press cell	[158]
150 mA.cm ⁻²	—1.5 V vs. NHE	Sn/C-GDEs	70%	Anolyte:1 M KOH Catholyte: 0.5 M KCl + 0.45 M KHCO	Nafion 117 membrane	Continuous and single pass filter-press cell	[162]
5.4 mA.cm ⁻²	—1.8 V vs SCE for	Nano-SnO ₂ /black carbon	93%	0.1 M NaHCO ₃	-	Flow cell or GDEs.	[163]
10.2 mA.cm ⁻²	-1.8 V vs SCE for	Nano-SnO ₂ /gra-	93.6%	0.1 M NaHCO ₃	-	Flow cell or GDEs.	[163]
140 mA.cm ⁻²	3.5 V	Sn/GDE	94%	Deionized water	Nafion® 115, 212, and 324 membranes	Novel 3-compartment formic acid cell design	[100]*
90 mA.cm ⁻²	3.1 V	Bi nanoparticles (Bi/C-NPs)	89.5%	Anolyte: 1 M KOH Catholyte: a solution of 0.5 M KCI + 0.45 M KHCO.	Cation exchange mem- brane, Nafion 117	Filter press cell with sin- gle pass electrolyte	[99]
200 mA.cm ⁻²	—0.28 V vs. RHE	Bi ₂ O ₃	93%	0.5 M KHCO ₃	-	flow cell	[128]
15.2 mA.cm ⁻²	—1.8 V vs. SCE	Bi nanoden- drites-TCP	96.4%	0.5 M NaHCO ₃	Proton exchange mem- brane Nafion 115	Conventional type	[126]
95 mA.cm ⁻²	–0.82 V vs. RHE	Biden/Pbporous	92%	0.5 M KHCO3 (CO ₂ super- saturated)	Nafion 117	High-pressure flow cell	[129]
14.4 mA.cm ⁻²	—1.5 V vs.SCE	Bi@NPC	92.0%	0.1 M KHCO ₃	Nafion	-	[170]
37.8 mA.cm ⁻²	-1.7 V vs.SCE	BiO _x	89.3%	1 M KHCO ₃ , saturated CO ₂	Nafion 117	Gas-tight H-type cell	[174]
-3.54 mA.cm ⁻²	–1.9 V vs. Ag/AgCl	In	72.5%	0.5 M KHCO ₃	Nafion N117	GDE	[97]
-12to -1	–0.82 V vs. RHE	In/In ₂ O ₃ -x	89.2%	Catholyte:0.5 mol/L NaHCO ₃ Anolyte: 0.5 mol/L NaOH with 0.2 mmol octylamine	-	-	[144]
5.2 mA.cm ⁻²	-0.64 V vs.RHE	SW-Cu₂O/Cu	97.7%	0.5 M KHCO ₃	Nafion Membrane	Full cell (high pressure cell)	[11]
* formic acid production by CO ₂ ER							

formate rate at similar current density. For example, the rate of formate production has decreased by 75% when using Sn-CCMEs compared to Sn-GDEs. This can be explained by the low current density that Sn-CCMEs operate at compared to Sn/C-NPs. Nonetheless, Sn-CCMEs can produce formate of high purity at low current densities (45 mA.cm⁻²) while consuming significantly lower energy. In addition, further research work is needed to improve FE and the formate production rate at low energy requirement.

There are other forms of tin-based catalysts that can also be applied for electro-conversion of CO_2 as illustrated in Figure 8 < xfigr8. Sn oxide electrocatalyst can be synthesized to nanoparticles by hydrothermal synthesis methods.^[163] This type of catalyst can be supported by carbon support to increase the surface area due to their 3D porous structure. The main advantage of using tin oxide is in its capacity of producing formate at low overpotential (0.34 V).^[163] The results showed that the graphene support with nano tin oxide had higher FE and current density than black carbon support. Rasul et al.^[161]

reported the first inexpensive electrocatalyst alloy for $\rm CO_2$ electroreduction with low coats as SN–Pb-Sb alloy.

The Sn-oxide derived alloys outperform the Sn-metal alone as it exhibits a reduction in hydrogen production at high overpotential. The oxidized alloy is also more favorable towards formate production since the oxidation is facilitated by the easy transfer of electrons within the metal alloy. Proietto et al.^[98] investigated for the first time the formation of formic acid by a pressured filter cell. The cell consisted of Sn cathode and 0.9 litters of electrolytic solution as a continuous recirculation. The results verified that high production of formic acid can be achieved at high current density and high CO₂ pressure. Pavithra et al.^[164] reported a Sn-based catalyst synthesized by microwave polyol method. SnO2-CNT composites catalyst has been utilized to enhance the electroconversion of CO₂ into formate. This catalyst has been examined by varying the particle size and exhibited the ability to reduce the activation barrier for the formation of CO2⁻⁻ due to the availability of oxygen vacancy. The results have indicated that SnO₂-CNT catalyst with



5.26 nm particle size at a pH of 11, had a higher FE (76%) compared to others with different particle sizes; it also exhibited high stability for a 10-hour run with 60% of FE.

5.3. Bismuth (Bi)-Based Electrocatalyst

Another promising alternative catalyst for CO₂ conversion is bismuth (Bi), which is a low cost and nontoxic material with high selectivity.^[165] However, Bi-based catalyst has several limitations including lengthy preparation times using energy intensive processes which hinders its applicability for large-scale applications.^[165] Thus, further work is required to facilitate the application of large-scale of Bi-electrocatalyst. Another limitations of the Bi-based electrodes is the limitation in mass transfer between the reactants.^[166,167] This challenge can be solved by utilizing GDE.[101,166] In general, bismuth-based catalyst can be prepared in three different shapes, as shown in Figure 8.^[168] Several experimental work by Piao et al.^[169] reported that Bi electrodes are highly porous and possess high electrocatalytic activity. Furthermore, Zhang et al.^[170] obtained formate by using Bi nanoparticles fixed in nitrogen-doped porous carbon (Bi@NPC). The study showed that the formate was detected at low potential and high current density, which improved the reaction compared to Bi nanoparticles (Bi-NP). The preparation of Bi-based catalysts might require large amount of energy, which makes it less attractive as it is considered to be energyand time-consuming. However, Zhu et al.^[165] investigated networked Bi-based catalyst by using non-additional energy supply process, which can save time and energy. The results showed that at a current density of 68.51 ± 4.04 mA.cm⁻² the networked Bi-based electrode (N-Bi, Sn/Cu mesh) achieved FE of approximately 100%. Furthermore, a catalyst performance can be enhanced by applying two-dimensional engineering of materials through reducing the catalyst dimensionality which provides high activity. Zhang et al.[171] reported the enhancement of nanosheet catalyst of few-layer bismuth through reducing the catalyst dimensionality by using electrochemical sub-carbonate exfoliation method. The developed nanosheet catalyst showed high activity and selectivity in reducing CO₂ into formate with 85% of FE. The catalyst stability was maintained for at least 12 hours.

5.4. Indium (In)-Based Electrocatalyst

Indium electrocatalyst can be used more efficiently in the oxide form (Indium(III) oxide) with 21.7% FE.^[144] Bohlen et al.^[97] reported the first electrodeposition process of deep eutectic solvents for the preparation of electrocatalyst using three materials including: copper, carbon and platinum. The results showed using indium with the copper sheet had higher FE (72.48%) than GDE (FE: 48.0%).

5.5. Copper (Cu)-Based Electrocatalyst

Copper-based catalyst can be used at high pressure with efficient performance during the electroconversion of CO_2 into formate.^[172,173] Li et al. discussed that the FE reached approximately 98% at 45 atm using SW-Cu₂O/Cu as a cathode.^[11] The results indicated that phase change of SW-Cu₂O/Cu cathode was slow, which affected the performance in terms of FE. Operation for a prolonged period caused decrease in the FE due to the decrease in the amount of the remaining Cu₂O on the surface.

6. Economic Study

The economic feasibility of CO₂ electroreduction into formate/ formic acid is based on the selected configuration of electrolysis cell including the electrodes (anode and cathode materials) and membrane type. The lifetime of these features plays a significant role in estimating the plant lifetime for industrial applications.^[175] Rumayor et al.^[175] reported a techno-economic study for CO₂ electroconversion into formate, by comparing the conventional formate production process (by hydrolysis of methyl formate) and CO₂ electroconversion. The results showed that a cathode lifetime of about 4.45 years can save the consumable cost related to total cost around 10%. Durst et al.^[176] showed that formate production costs were lower than the market price by 2 to 4 factors. The estimated production costs around \$0.34, while the market price close to \$0.8–1.2.

7. Summary and Future Perspectives

In summary, carbon dioxide can be considered as a valuable byproduct that can be converted to useful products (i.e. formate, carbon monoxide and methanol) by several techniques including photoconversion, electrocatalytic conversion and bioconversion. Electroreduction of CO₂ into chemical products received considerable attention in recent years and can produce several products depending on the number of electrons transferred, while using a suitable catalyst that can reduce the cell overpotential. Cell configuration, current density and the types of catalyst play a significant role in the production of formic acid, carbon monoxide or hydrocarbons. Although CO₂ electroreduction into formate is gaining research momentum, more attention is needed at key research areas such as pilot-scale studies of CO₂ electroconversion into formate. In addition, there is an immense need to implement efficient and high performance electrocatalysts to achieve high formate production at high FE and current density. Among the studied catalysts, tin-oxide showed high catalytic activity toward CO₂ electroconversion reduction into formate, however, certain aspects require further investigations to get optimal conversion. Similarly, Sn-CCME performance can be improved by tuning FE. Finally, there is a need for detailed cost analysis studies of CO₂ electroreduction in literature especially at pilot scale.



Acknowledgements

The authors would like to acknowledge the support of Qatar National Research Fund (a member of Qatar Foundation) through Grant # NPRP 12 C-33923-SP-102 (NPRP12 C-0821-190017). The findings achieved herein are solely the responsibility of the authors. Open Access funding provided by the Qatar National Library.

Conflict of Interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

Keywords: electrochemical techniques \cdot CO₂ conversion \cdot catalysts \cdot formic acid \cdot electrodes

- [1] A. Yamasaki, J. Chem. Eng. Japan 2003, 36, 361-375.
- [2] U.S. Energy Information Administration, Int. Energy Outlook 2016, 2016, 139–148.
- [3] F. Nocito, A. Dibenedetto, Curr. Opin. Green Sustain. Chem. 2020, 21, 34–43.
- [4] M. H. Al-Marzouqi, M. H. El-Naas, S. A. M. Marzouk, M. A. Al-Zarooni, N. Abdullatif, R. Faiz, Sep. Purif. Technol. 2008, 59, 286–293.
- [5] S. A. M. Marzouk, M. H. Al-Marzouqi, M. H. El-Naas, N. Abdullatif, Z. M. Ismail, J. Membr. Sci. 2010, 351, 21–27.
- [6] M. Flores-Flores, E. Luévano-Hipólito, L. M. Torres-Martínez, T. O. Do, Mater. Chem. Phys. 2019, 227, 90–97.
- [7] M. H. Ibrahim, M. H. El-Naas, A. Benamor, S. S. Al-Sobhi, Z. Zhang, Processes 2019, 7, 1–21.
- [8] M. H. Ibrahim, M. H. El-Naas, R. Zevenhoven, S. A. Al-Sobhi, Int. J. Greenhouse Gas Control 2019, 91, 102819.
- [9] R. Küngas, J. Electrochem. Soc. 2020, 167, 044508.
- [10] O. G. Sánchez, Y. Y. Birdja, M. Bulut, J. Vaes, T. Breugelmans, D. Pant, *Curr. Opin. Green Sustain. Chem.* 2019, *16*, 47–56.
- [11] J. Li, Y. Kuang, Y. Meng, X. Tian, W.-H. Hung, X. Zhang, A. Li, M. Xu, W. Zhou, C.-S. Ku, C.-Y. Chiang, G. Zhu, J. Guo, X. Sun, H. Dai, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* **2020**, *142*, 7276–7282.
- [12] Y. Y. Birdja, E. Pérez-Gallent, M. C. Figueiredo, A. J. Göttle, F. Calle-Vallejo, M. T. M. Koper, *Nat. Energy* 2019, 4, 732–745.
- [13] M. Li, S. Garg, X. Chang, L. Ge, L. Li, M. Konarova, T. E. Rufford, V. Rudolph, G. Wang, *Small Methods* **2020**, *4*(7), 2000033, DOI 10.1002/ smtd.202000033.
- [14] Y. Chen, A. Vise, W. E. Klein, F. C. Cetinbas, D. J. Myers, W. A. Smith, T. G. Deutsch, K. C. Neyerlin, ACS Energy Lett. 2020, 1825–1833.
- [15] M. Y. Lee, K. T. Park, W. Lee, H. Lim, Y. Kwon, S. Kang, Crit. Rev. Environ. Sci. Technol. 2020, 50, 769–815.
- [16] D. Yang, Q. Zhu, B. Han, Innov. 2020, 1, 100016.
- [17] L. Zhang, I. Merino-Garcia, J. Albo, C. M. Sánchez-Sánchez, Curr. Opin. Electrochem. 2020, 23, 65–73.
- [18] C. Genovese, C. Ampelli, S. Perathoner, G. Centi, J. Energy Chem. 2013, 22, 202–213.
- [19] R. A. Tufa, D. Chanda, M. Ma, D. Aili, T. B. Demissie, J. Vaes, Q. Li, S. Liu, D. Pant, *Appl. Energy* **2020**, *277*, 115557.
- [20] X. Chen, Y. Liu, J. Wu, J. Mol. Catal. 2020, 483, 110716.
- [21] P. Chellapandi, R. Prathiviraj, J. CO2 Util. 2020, 40, 101210.
- [22] P. R. Yaashikaa, P. Senthil Kumar, S. J. Varjani, A. Saravanan, J. CO2 Util. 2019, 33, 131–147.
- [23] I. Rossetti, G. Ramis, *Catalysts* **2019**, *9*, 1–5.
- [24] S. Srikanth, D. Singh, K. Vanbroekhoven, D. Pant, M. Kumar, S. K. Puri, S. S. V. Ramakumar, *Bioresour. Technol.* 2018, 265, 45–51.
- [25] Z. Zhang, Y. Song, S. Zheng, G. Zhen, X. Lu, K. Takuro, K. Xu, P. Bakonyi, Bioresour. Technol. 2019, 279, 339–349.
- [26] P. C. Sahoo, D. Pant, M. Kumar, S. K. Puri, S. S. V. Ramakumar, *Trends Biotechnol.* 2020, 38, 1245–1261.
- [27] Y. Wang, D. He, H. Chen, D. Wang, J. Photochem. Photobiol. C 2019, 40, 117–149.

- [28] Y. Liu, F. Li, X. Zhang, X. Ji, Curr. Opin. Green Sustain. Chem. 2020, 23, 10–17.
- [29] I. Hjorth, Y. Wang, Y. Li, M. E. Melandsø Buan, M. Nord, M. Rønning, J. Yang, D. Chen, *Catal. Today* **2020**, *364*, 172–181..
- [30] L. R. L. Ting, O. Piqué, S. Y. Lim, M. Tanhaei, F. Calle-Vallejo, B. S. Yeo, ACS Catal. 2020, 10, 4059–4069.
 [31] Y. Talatavii, J. Malatavi, M. Maximuta, T. Caladavi, D. Yamasaki, T.
- [31] Y. Takatsuji, I. Nakata, M. Morimoto, T. Sakakura, R. Yamasaki, T. Haruyama, *Electrocatalysis* 2019, 10, 29–34.
- [32] G. Liu, Z. Li, J. Shi, K. Sun, Y. Ji, Z. Wang, Y. Qiu, Y. Liu, Z. Wang, P. A. Hu, Appl. Catal. B 2020, 260, 118134.
- [33] H. Kawanami, Y. Himeda, G. Laurenczy, Adv. Inorg. Chem. 2017, 70, 395–427.
- [34] X. Lu, D. Y. C. Leung, H. Wang, M. K. H. Leung, J. Xuan, ChemElectroChem 2014, 1, 836–849.
- [35] C. Fellay, N. Yan, P. J. Dyson, G. Laurenczy, Chem. A Eur. J. 2009, 15, 3752–3760.
- [36] A. S. Agarwal, Y. Zhai, D. Hill, N. Sridhar, ChemSusChem 2011, 4, 1301– 1310.
- [37] D. Du, R. Lan, J. Humphreys, S. Tao, J. Appl. Electrochem. 2017, 47, 661– 678.
- [38] M. F. Philips, G. J. M. Gruter, M. T. M. Koper, K. J. P. Schouten, ACS Sustainable Chem. Eng. 2020, 8, 15430–15444.
- [39] C. H. Huang, C. S. Tan, Aerosol Air Qual. Res. 2014, 14, 480-499.
- [40] A. Rafiee, K. Rajab Khalilpour, D. Milani, M. Panahi, J. Environ. Chem. Eng. 2018, 6, 5771–5794.
- [41] M. Khalil, J. Gunlazuardi, T. A. Ivandini, A. Umar, Renewable Sustainable Energy Rev. 2019, 113, 109246.
- [42] K. Li, X. An, K. H. Park, M. Khraisheh, J. Tang, *Catal. Today* **2014**, *224*, 3–12.
- [43] T. Dieu, C. Nguyen, T. Phuong, L. Chi, H. Thanh, T. Mai, V. Dao, J. Catal. 2017, 352, 67–74.
- [44] J. Kim, E. E. Kwon, J. CO2 Util. 2019, 33, 72-82.
- [45] P. Wang, S. Wang, H. Wang, Z. Wu, L. Wang, Part. Part. Syst. Charact. 2018, 35, 1–25.
- [46] B. Hu, C. Guild, S. L. Suib, J. CO2 Util. 2013, 1, 18–27.
- [47] S. Xie, Q. Zhang, G. Liu, Y. Wang, Chem. Commun. 2016, 52, 35–59.
- [48] T. T. Zhao, G. H. Feng, W. Chen, Y. F. Song, X. Dong, G. H. Li, H. J. Zhang, W. Wei, Chin. J. Catal. 2019, 40, 1421–1437.
- [49] W. Klinthong, Y. H. Yang, C. H. Huang, C. S. Tan, Aerosol Air Qual. Res. 2015, 15, 712–742.
- [50] J. Zabranska, D. Pokorna, *Biotechnol. Adv.* 2018, 36, 707–720.
- [51] K. K. Sakimoto, N. Kornienko, P. Yang, Acc. Chem. Res. 2017, 50, 476– 481.
- [52] J. Fu, Y. Huang, Q. Liao, A. Xia, Q. Fu, X. Zhu, Bioresour. Technol. 2019, 292, 121947.
- [53] Y. Chisti, Biotechnol. Adv. 2007, 25, 294–306.
- [54] P. Spolaore, C. Joannis-Cassan, E. Duran, A. Isambert, J. Biosci. Bioeng. 2006, 101, 87–96.
- [55] A. Galadima, O. Muraza, Renewable Sustainable Energy Rev. 2019, 115, 109333.
- [56] J. Li, X. Zhang, J. Shen, T. Ran, P. Chen, Y. Yin, J. CO2 Util. 2017, 21, 72– 76.
- [57] S. R. Sun, H. X. Wang, D. H. Mei, X. Tu, A. Bogaerts, J. CO2 Util. 2017, 17, 220–234.
- [58] W. J. Lee, C. Li, H. Prajitno, J. Yoo, J. Patel, Y. Yang, S. Lim, Catal. Today 2020, 368, 2–19.
- [59] L. C. Buelens, V. V. Galvita, H. Poelman, C. Detavernier, G. B. Marin, *Science* 2016, 354, 449–452.
- [60] Z. Li, T. Yang, S. Yuan, Y. Yin, E. J. Devid, Q. Huang, D. Auerbach, A. W. Kleyn, J. Energy Chem. 2020, 45, 128–134.
- [61] S. C. Pereira, M. F. Ribeiro, N. Batalha, M. M. Pereira, Greenh. Gases Sci. Technol. 2017, 7, 843–851.
- [62] A. Ozkan, A. Bogaerts, F. Reniers, J. Phys. D 2017, 50(8), 84004, DOI 10.1088/1361-6463/aa562c.
- [63] R. Snoeckx, A. Bogaerts, Chem. Soc. Rev. 2017, 46, 5805-5863.
- [64] H. Li, J. C. Liao, Energy Environ. Sci. 2013, 6, 2892-2899.
- [65] S. Erşan, J. O. Park, Joule 2020, 4(10), 2047–2051. https://doi.org/ https://doi.org/10.1016/j.joule.2020.08.007.
- [66] V. P. Indrakanti, J. D. Kubicki, H. H. Schobert, *Energy Environ. Sci.* 2009, 2, 745–758.
- [67] S. L. F. Chan, T. L. Lam, C. Yang, S. C. Yan, N. M. Cheng, *Chem. Commun.* 2015, *51*, 7799–7801.
- [68] Y. Izumi, Coord. Chem. Rev. 2013, 257, 171–186.
- [69] D. D. Ma, S. G. Han, C. Cao, X. Li, X. T. Wu, Q. L. Zhu, Appl. Catal. B 2020, 264, 118530.

ChemElectroChem 2021, 8, 1–15 www.chemelectrochem.org 12 These are not the final page numbers!



- [71] F. Zhang, H. Zhang, Z. Liu, Curr. Opin. Green Sustain. Chem. 2019, 16, 77–84.
- [72] Q. Zhang, W. Xu, J. Xu, Y. Liu, J. Zhang, *Catal. Today* 2018, 318, 15–22.
 [73] J. Qiao, Y. Liu, F. Hong, J. Zhang, *A Review of Catalysts for the*
- [74] S. Zhao, S. Li, T. Guo, S. Zhang, J. Wang, Y. Wu, Y. Chen, Nano-Micro Lett. 2019, 11, 1–19.
- [75] E. E. Benson, C. P. Kubiak, A. J. Sathrum, J. M. Smieja, Chem. Soc. Rev. 2009, 38, 89–99.
- [76] S. Y. Lee, H. Jung, N. K. Kim, H. S. Oh, B. K. Min, Y. J. Hwang, J. Am. Chem. Soc. 2018, 140, 8681–8689.
- [77] C. Wang, M. Cao, X. Jiang, M. Wang, Y. Shen, *Electrochim. Acta* 2018, 271, 544–550.
- [78] S. Y. Zhang, Y. Y. Yang, Y. Q. Zheng, H. L. Zhu, J. Solid State Chem. 2018, 263, 44–51.
- [79] A. V. Rudnev, K. Kiran, A. Cedeño López, A. Dutta, I. Gjuroski, J. Furrer, P. Broekmann, *Electrochim. Acta* 2019, 306, 245–253.
- [80] B. C. Marepally, C. Ampelli, C. Genovese, F. Tavella, L. Veyre, E. A. Quadrelli, S. Perathoner, G. Centi, J. CO2 Util. 2017, 21, 534–542.
- [81] R. F. Zarandi, B. Rezaei, H. S. Ghaziaskar, A. A. Ensafi, Int. J. Hydrogen Energy 2019, 44, 30820–30831.
- [82] I. Hjorth, M. Nord, M. Rønning, J. Yang, D. Chen, Catal. Today 2019, 357, 311–321.
- [83] K. Malik, B. M. Rajbongshi, A. Verma, J. CO2 Util. 2019, 33, 311-319.
- [84] F. xia Shen, J. Shi, T. you Chen, F. Shi, Q. yuan Li, J. zheng Zhen, Y. fei Li, Y. nian Dai, B. Yang, T. Qu, *J. Power Sources* **2018**, *378*, 555–561.
- [85] B. Qin, Y. Li, H. Wang, G. Yang, Y. Cao, H. Yu, Q. Zhang, H. Liang, F. Peng, *Nano Energy* **2019**, *60*, 43–51.
- [86] Z. Miao, P. Hu, C. Nie, H. Xie, W. Fu, Q. Li, J. Energy Chem. 2019, 38, 114–118.
- [87] X. Su, Y. Sun, L. Jin, L. Zhang, Y. Yang, P. Kerns, B. Liu, S. Li, J. He, Appl. Catal. B 2020, 269, 118800.
- [88] T. Zhang, S. Verma, S. Kim, T. T. Fister, P. J. A. Kenis, A. A. Gewirth, J. Electroanal. Chem. 2020, 875, 113862.
- [89] H. Jiang, Y. Zhao, L. Wang, Y. Kong, F. Li, P. Li, J. CO2 Util. 2018, 26, 408–414.
- [90] T. N. Nguyen, C. T. Dinh, Chem. Soc. Rev. 2020, 49, 7488–7504.
- [91] X. He, Energy. Sustain. Soc. 2018, 8(1), 34, DOI 10.1186/s13705-018-0177-9.
- [92] M. König, J. Vaes, E. Klemm, D. Pant, iScience 2019, 19, 135–160.
- [93] S. Liang, N. Altaf, L. Huang, Y. Gao, Q. Wang, J. CO2 Util. 2020, 35, 90– 105.
- [94] S. Garg, M. Li, A. Z. Weber, L. Ge, L. Li, V. Rudolph, G. Wang, T. E. Rufford, J. Mater. Chem. A 2020, 8, 1511–1544.
- [95] C. Zhao, J. Wang, Chem. Eng. J. 2016, 293, 161-170.
- [96] Q. Lai, W. Yuan, W. Huang, G. Yuan, Appl. Surf. Sci. 2020, 508, 145221, DOI 10.1016/j.apsusc.2019.145221.
- [97] B. Bohlen, D. Wastl, J. Radomski, V. Sieber, L. Vieira, *Electrochem. Commun.* 2020, 110, 106597.
- [98] F. Proietto, B. Schiavo, A. Galia, O. Scialdone, *Electrochim. Acta* 2018, 277, 30–40.
- [99] G. Díaz-Sainz, M. Alvarez-Guerra, J. Solla-Gullón, L. García-Cruz, V. Montiel, A. Irabien, J. CO2 Util. 2019, 34, 12–19.
- [100] H. Yang, J. J. Kaczur, S. D. Sajjad, R. I. Masel, J. CO2 Util. 2017, 20, 208– 217.
- [101] M. Ramdin, A. R. T. Morrison, M. De Groen, R. Van Haperen, R. De Kler, L. J. P. Van Den Broeke, J. P. Martin Trusler, W. De Jong, T. J. H. Vlugt, Ind. Eng. Chem. Res. 2019, 58, 1834–1847.
- [102] H. K. Ju, G. Kaur, A. P. Kulkarni, S. Giddey, J. CO2 Util. 2019, 32, 178– 186.
- [103] H. Ishida, K. Tanaka, T. Tanaka, Chem. Lett. 1985, 14, 405–406.
- [104] S. Ikeda, T. Takagi, K. Ito, Bull. Chem. Soc. Jpn. 1987, 60, 2517-2522.
- [105] I. Bhugun, D. Lexa, J. M. Savéant, J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1996, 118, 1769– 1776.
- [106] M. Isaacs, J. C. Canales, A. Riquelme, M. Lucero, M. J. Aguirre, J. Costamagna, J. Coord. Chem. 2003, 56, 1193–1201.
- [107] B. Innocent, D. Liaigre, D. Pasquier, F. Ropital, J. M. Léger, K. B. Kokoh, J. Appl. Electrochem. 2009, 39, 227–232.
- [108] B. Innocent, D. Pasquier, F. Ropital, F. Hahn, J. M. Léger, K. B. Kokoh, *Appl. Catal. B* **2010**, *94*, 219–224.
- [109] R. L. MacHunda, H. Ju, J. Lee, Curr. Appl. Phys. 2011, 11, 986–988.
- [110] A. Del Castillo, M. Alvarez-Guerra, A. Irabien, AlChE J. 2014, 60, 3557– 3564.

[111] S. Kim, W. J. Dong, S. Gim, W. Sohn, J. Y. Park, C. J. Yoo, H. W. Jang, J. L. Lee, *Nano Energy* **2017**, *39*, 44–52.

Chemistry Europe

uropean Chemical Societies Publishing

- [112] Y. Huang, Y. Deng, A. D. Handoko, G. K. L. Goh, B. S. Yeo, *ChemSusChem* 2018, 11, 320–326.
- [113] Z. Tao, Z. Wu, X. Yuan, Y. Wu, H. Wang, ACS Catal. 2019, 9, 10894– 10898.
- [114] Q. Yang, Q. Wu, Y. Liu, S. Luo, X. Wu, X. Zhao, H. Zou, B. Long, W. Chen, Y. Liao, L. Li, P. K. Shen, L. Duan, Z. Quan, Adv. Mater. 2020, 32, 1–7.
- [115] X. Zhang, S. X. Guo, K. A. Gandionco, A. M. Bond, J. Zhang, *Mater. Today* 2020, 7, 100074.
- [116] Y. Wang, C. Niu, D. Wang, J. Colloid Interface Sci. 2018, 527, 95–106.
- [117] K. Ye, A. Cao, J. Shao, G. Wang, R. Si, N. Ta, J. Xiao, G. Wang, *Sci. Bull.* 2020, 65, 711–719.
- [118] J. He, N. J. J. Johnson, A. Huang, C. P. Berlinguette, *ChemSusChem* 2018, 11, 48–57.
- [119] D. Kim, J. Resasco, Y. Yu, A. M. Asiri, P. Yang, Nat. Commun. 2014, 5, 1– 8.
- [120] Y. Sakata, Y. Tamaura, H. Imamura, M. Watanabe, Preparation of a New Type of CaSiO3 with High Surface Area and Property as a Catalyst Support, Elsevier Masson SAS, 2006.
- [121] C. Jiménez, M. I. Cerrillo, F. Martínez, R. Camarillo, J. Rincón, Sep. Purif. Technol. 2020, 248, 117083.
- [122] L. Fan, Z. Xia, M. Xu, Y. Lu, Z. Li, Adv. Funct. Mater. 2018, 28, 1-8.
- [123] J. Wang, J. Zou, X. Hu, S. Ning, X. Wang, X. Kang, S. Chen, J. Mater. Chem. A 2019, 7, 27514–27521.
- [124] B. Zhang, Z. Guo, Z. Zuo, W. Pan, J. Zhang, Appl. Catal. B 2018, 239, 441–449.
- [125] Y. Fu, T. Wang, W. Zheng, C. Lei, B. Yang, J. Chen, Z. Li, L. Lei, C. Yuan, Y. Hou, ACS Appl. Mater. Interfaces 2020, 12, 16178–16185.
- [126] H. Zhong, Y. Qiu, T. Zhang, X. Li, H. Zhang, X. Chen, J. Mater. Chem. A 2016, 4, 13746–13753.
- [127] J. Huang, X. Guo, J. Yang, L. Wang, J. CO2 Util. 2020, 38, 32–38.
- [128] H. Zhang, Y. Ma, F. Quan, J. Huang, F. Jia, L. Zhang, *Electrochem. Commun.* 2014, 46, 63–66.
- [129] M. Fan, S. Prabhudev, S. Garbarino, J. Qiao, G. A. Botton, D. A. Harrington, A. C. Tavares, D. Guay, *Appl. Catal. B* **2020**, *274*, 119031.
- [130] Q. Wang, C. Zhu, C. Wu, H. Yu, Electrochim. Acta 2019, 319, 138-147.
- [131] W. Zhang, Y. Hu, L. Ma, G. Zhu, P. Zhao, X. Xue, R. Chen, S. Yang, J. Ma, J. Liu, Z. Jin, *Nano Energy* **2018**, *53*, 808–816.
- [132] H. Yang, N. Han, J. Deng, J. Wu, Y. Wang, Y. Hu, P. Ding, Y. Li, Y. Li, J. Lu, Adv. Energy Mater. 2018, 8, 1–6.
- [133] G. Wen, D. U. Lee, B. Ren, F. M. Hassan, G. Jiang, Z. P. Cano, J. Gostick, E. Croiset, Z. Bai, L. Yang, Z. Chen, *Adv. Energy Mater.* 2018, *8*, 1–9.
- [134] S. He, F. Ni, Y. Ji, L. Wang, Y. Wen, H. Bai, G. Liu, Y. Zhang, Y. Li, B. Zhang, H. Peng, *Angew. Chem.* **2018**, *130*, 16346–16351; *Angew. Chem. Int. Ed.* **2018**, *57*, 16114–16119.
- [135] Z. Chen, K. Mou, X. Wang, L. Liu, Angew. Chem. Int. Ed. 2018, 57, 12790–12794; Angew. Chem. 2018, 130, 12972–12976.
- [136] P. Deng, F. Yang, Z. Wang, S. Chen, Y. Zhou, S. Zaman, B. Y. Xia, Angew. Chem. Int. Ed. 2020, 59(27), 10807–10813.
- [137] S. Subramanian, V. I. Chukwuike, M. A. Kulandainathan, R. C. Barik, ChemElectroChem 2020, 7, 2265–2273.
- [138] L. Jia, H. Yang, J. Deng, J. Chen, Y. Zhou, P. Ding, L. Li, N. Han, Y. Li, *Chin. J. Chem.* 2019, 37, 497–500.
- [139] N. Han, Y. Wang, H. Yang, J. Deng, J. Wu, Y. Li, Y. Li, Nat. Commun. 2018, 9, 1–8.
- [140] Q. Gong, P. Ding, M. Xu, X. Zhu, M. Wang, J. Deng, Q. Ma, N. Han, Y. Zhu, J. Lu, Z. Feng, Y. Li, W. Zhou, Y. Li, *Nat. Commun.* **2019**, *10*, 1–10.
- [141] X. Zhang, F. Li, Y. Zhang, A. M. Bond, J. Zhang, J. Mater. Chem. A 2018, 6, 7851–7858.
- [142] X. Zhang, X. Sun, S. X. Guo, A. M. Bond, J. Zhang, *Energy Environ. Sci.* 2019, *12*, 1334–1340.
- [143] R. Hegner, L. F. M. Rosa, F. Harnisch, Appl. Catal. B 2018, 238, 546–556.
- [144] Y. Liang, W. Zhou, Y. Shi, C. Liu, B. Zhang, Sci. Bull. 2020, 65(18), 1547– 1554, DOI 10.1016/j.scib.2020.04.022.
- [145] F. Jiao, Sci. Bull. 2020, 65(18), 1514–1515, DOI 10.1016/ j.scib.2020.06.010.
- [146] Y. Y. Birdja, R. E. Vos, T. A. Wezendonk, L. Jiang, F. Kapteijn, M. T. M. Koper, ACS Catal. 2018, 8, 4420–4428.
- [147] Z. H. U. Chang, C. Wei, S. Yan-fang, D. Xiao, L. I. Gui-hua, W. E. I. Wei, S. U. N. Yu-han, J. Electrochem. 2020, 26(6), 797–807, DOI 10.13208/ j.electrochem.191228.
- [148] C. Zhu, Q. Wang, C. Wu, J. CO2 Util. 2020, 36, 96–104.
- [149] X. Zong, J. Zhang, J. Zhang, W. Luo, A. Züttel, Y. Xiong, *Electrochem. Commun.* 2020, 114, 106716.

ChemElectroChem 2021, 8, 1–15 www.chemelectrochem.org 13 These are not the final page numbers!



- [150] W. Wang, H. Ning, Z. Yang, Z. Feng, J. Wang, X. Wang, Q. Mao, W. Wu, Q. Zhao, H. Hu, Y. Song, M. Wu, *Electrochim. Acta* **2019**, *306*, 360–365.
- [151] V. Pascanu, G. González Miera, A. K. Inge, B. Martín-Matute, J. Am. Chem. Soc. 2019, 141, 7223–7234.
- [152] S. M. Hwang, S. Y. Choi, M. H. Youn, W. Lee, K. T. Park, K. Gothandapani, A. N. Grace, S. K. Jeong, ACS Omega 2020, 5, 23919–23930.
- [153] J. Liu, L. Peng, Y. Zhou, L. Lv, J. Fu, J. Lin, D. Guay, J. Qiao, ACS Sustainable Chem. Eng. 2019, 7, 15739–15746.
- [154] H. Fei, M. D. Sampson, Y. Lee, C. P. Kubiak, S. M. Cohen, *Inorg. Chem.* 2015, 54, 6821–6828.
- [155] T. Maihom, S. Wannakao, B. Boekfa, J. Limtrakul, J. Phys. Chem. C 2013, 117, 17650–17658.
- [156] S. Coufourier, S. Gaillard, G. Clet, C. Serre, M. Daturi, J. L. Renaud, Chem. Commun. 2019, 55, 4977–4980.
- [157] W. Lv, R. Zhang, P. Gao, L. Lei, J. Power Sources 2014, 253, 276-281.
- [158] G. Díaz-Sainz, M. Alvarez-Guerra, J. Solla-Gullón, L. García-Cruz, V. Montiel, A. Irabien, Catal. Today 2020, 346, 58–64.
- [159] J. Gu, F. Héroguel, J. Luterbacher, X. Hu, Angew. Chem. Int. Ed. 2018, 57, 2943–2947; Angew. Chem. 2018, 130, 2993–2997.
- [160] Q. Li, Z. Wang, M. Zhang, P. Hou, P. Kang, J. Energy Chem. 2017, 26, 825–829.
 [161] S. Basul, A. Bugnant, H. Viang, J. M. Fantaratin, F. H. Van, J. Conducting and A. Bugnant, J. Viang, J. M. Fantaratin, F. H. Van, J. Conducting and A. Bugnant, J. Viang, J. M. Fantaratin, F. H. Van, J. Conducting and A. Bugnant, J. Viang, J. M. Fantaratin, F. H. Van, J. Conducting and A. Bugnant, J. Viang, J. M. Fantaratin, F. H. Van, J. Conducting and A. Bugnant, J. Viang, J. M. Fantaratin, J. K. Basul, A. Bugnant, J. Viang, J. M. Fantaratin, F. Viang, J. K. Sang, J. Sang, J. K. Sang, J. Sang, J. K. Sang, J. Sang,
- [161] S. Rasul, A. Pugnant, H. Xiang, J. M. Fontmorin, E. H. Yu, J. CO2 Util. 2019, 32, 1–10.
- [162] A. Del Castillo, M. Alvarez-Guerra, J. Solla-Gullón, A. Sáez, V. Montiel, A. Irabien, J. CO2 Util. 2017, 18, 222–228.
- [163] S. Zhang, P. Kang, T. J. Meyer, J. Am. Chem. Soc. 2014, 136, 1734–1737.

- [164] K. Pavithra, S. M. S. Kumar, Catal. Sci. Technol. 2020, 10, 1311–1322.
- [165] C. Zhu, Q. Wang, C. Wu, J. CO2 Util. 2020, 36, 96–104.
- [166] S. Ma, R. Luo, J. I. Gold, A. Z. Yu, B. Kim, P. J. A. Kenis, J. Mater. Chem. A 2016, 4, 8573–8578.
- [167] J. Albo, A. Irabien, J. Catal. 2016, 343, 232-239.
- [168] T. Gao, X. Wen, T. Xie, N. Han, K. Sun, L. Han, H. Wang, Y. Zhang, Y. Kuang, X. Sun, *Electrochim. Acta* **2019**, *305*, 388–393.
- [169] G. Piao, S. H. Yoon, D. S. Han, H. Park, ChemSusChem 2019, 2713, 698– 706.
- [170] D. Zhang, Z. Tao, F. Feng, B. He, W. Zhou, J. Sun, J. Xu, Q. Wang, L. Zhao, *Electrochim. Acta* **2020**, *334*, 135563.
- [171] Y. Zhang, X. Zhang, Y. Ling, F. Li, A. M. Bond, J. Zhang, Angew. Chem. Int. Ed. 2018, 57, 13283–13287; Angew. Chem. 2018, 130, 13467–13471.
- [172] C. Zhu, Q. Wang, C. Wu, *J. CO2 Util.* **2020**, *36*, 96–104.
- [173] Z. Tao, Z. Wu, Y. Wu, H. Wang, *ACS Catal.* **2020**, *10*, 9271–9275.
- [174] X.-H. Zhao, Q.-S. Chen, D.-H. Zhuo, J. Lu, Z.-N. Xu, C.-M. Wang, J.-X. Tang, S.-G. Sun, G.-C. Guo, *Electrochim. Acta* **2021**, *367*, 137478.
 [175] M. Rumayor, A. Dominguez-Ramos, P. Perez, A. Irabien, J. CO2 Util.
- 2019, 34, 490–499.
- [176] J. Durst, A. Rudnev, A. Dutta, Y. Fu, J. Herranz, V. Kaliginedi, A. Kuzume, A. A. Permyakova, Y. Paratcha, P. Broekmann, T. J. Schmidt, *Chimia* (*Aarau*). 2015, 69, 769–776.

Manuscript received: April 1, 2021 Revised manuscript received: May 27, 2021

REVIEWS

Carbon dioxide conversion is an essential step in transitioning to carbon neutrality, as it can convert the captured CO_2 into useful commodities. The electrochemical conversion of CO_2 to formate/formic acid has the potential to contribute to CO_2 mitigation and serve as a backbone chemical for several essential products including methanol. The conversion and product yield depend heavily on factors such as cell design and catalyst material.



S. A. Al-Tamreh, M. H. Ibrahim, Prof. M. H. El-Naas*, Dr. J. Vaes, Dr. D. Pant, Dr. A. Benamor, Dr. A. Amhamed

1 – 15

Electroreduction of Carbon Dioxide into Formate: A Comprehensive Review