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

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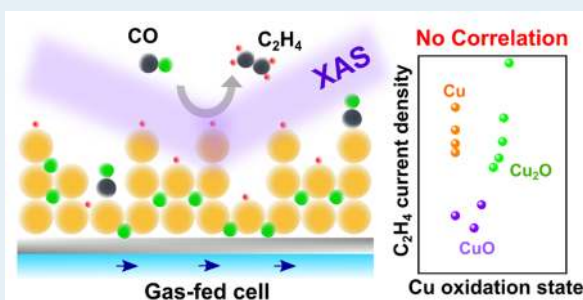
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**ABSTRACT:** The rational design of high-performance electrocatalysts requires a detailed understanding of dynamic changes in catalyst properties, including oxidation states, surface area, and morphology under realistic working conditions. Oxide-derived Cu catalysts exhibit a remarkable selectivity toward multicarbon products for the electrochemical CO reduction reaction (CORR), but the exact role of the oxide remains elusive for explaining the performance enhancements. Here, we used *operando* X-ray absorption spectroscopy (XAS) coupled with simultaneous measurements of the catalyst activity and selectivity by gas chromatography (GC) to study the relationship between oxidation states of Cu-based catalysts and the activity for ethylene (C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub>) production in a CO gas-fed cell. By utilizing a custom-built XAS cell, oxidation states of Cu catalysts can be probed in device-relevant settings and under high current densities (>80 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>) for the CORR. By employing an electrochemical oxidation process, we found that the Cu oxidation states and specific ion species do not correlate with C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub> production. The difference in the CORR activity is also investigated in relation to electrochemical surface area (ECSA) changes. While the hydrogen evolution reaction (HER) activity is positively correlated to the ECSA changes, the increased C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub> activity is not proportional to the ECSA. *Ex situ* characterization from microscopic techniques suggests that the changes in the C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub> activity and selectivity may arise from a morphological transformation that evolves into a more active structure. These comprehensive results give rise to the development of a cell regeneration method that can restore the performance of the Cu catalyst without cell disassembly. Our study establishes a basis for the rational design of highly active electrocatalysts for broad-range reactions in a gas-fed device.



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

## INTRODUCTION

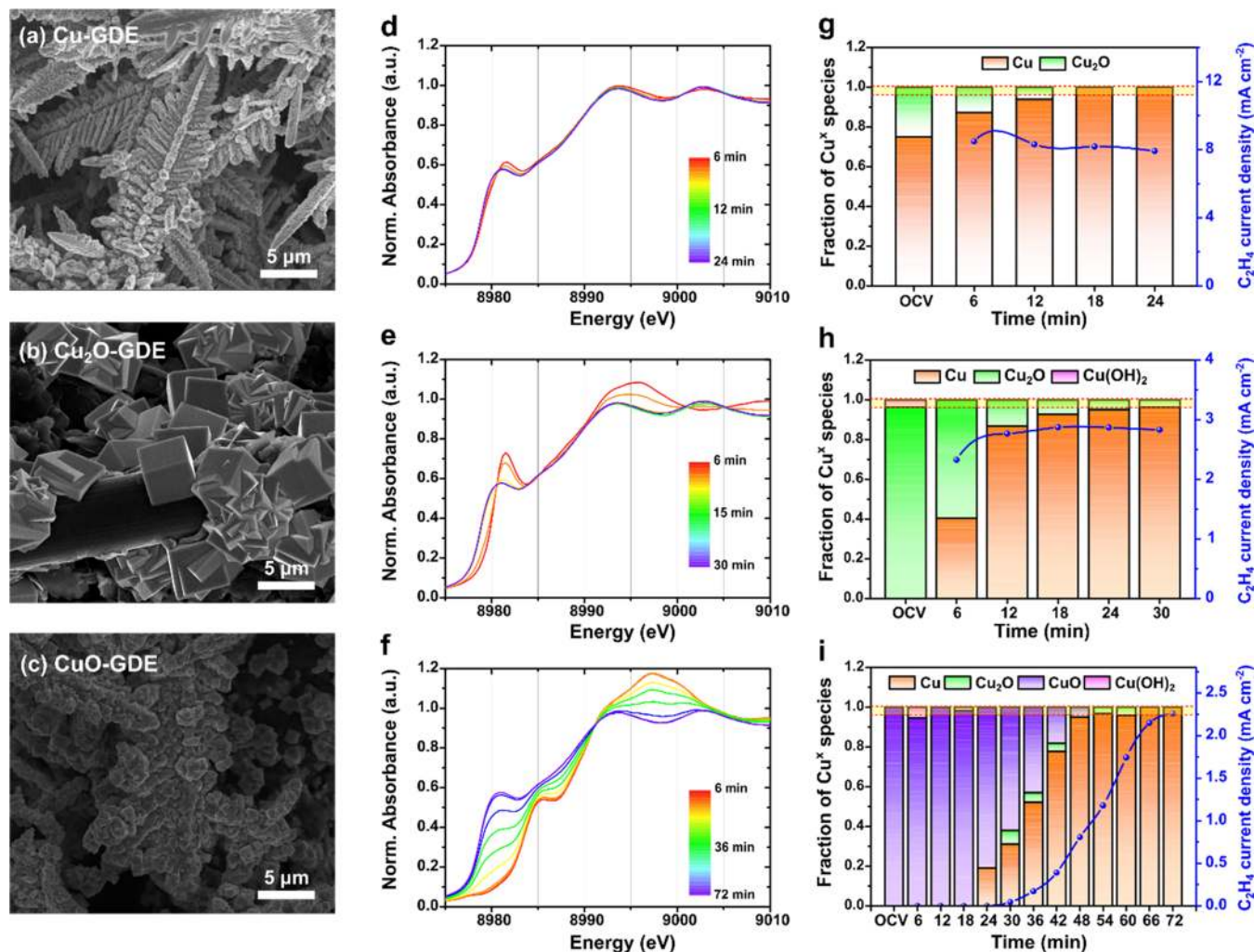
The electrochemical carbon monoxide and carbon dioxide reduction reactions (CORRs and CO<sub>2</sub>RRs, respectively) are promising strategies to convert waste emissions into valuable chemical feedstocks, such as synthesis gas, hydrocarbons, and oxygenates.<sup>1–4</sup> The CORR process is specifically interesting because it can be part of a tandem catalysis system, in which the first catalytic reaction converts CO<sub>2</sub> into CO, and the second catalytic reaction converts CO into higher-order reduction products such as ethanol or ethylene.<sup>5,6</sup> By leveraging the efficient and selective first two-electron, two-proton process from CO<sub>2</sub> to CO, analyses show that the optimal solar-to-fuel conversion efficiency of a tandem catalysis system was higher than that of the direct CO<sub>2</sub>RR system at all cathodic overpotential and faradaic efficiency (FE) combinations.<sup>7</sup> In the CORR process, copper-based materials are the only electrocatalysts that can produce more reduced hydrocarbons and oxygenates due to the optimal Cu–CO binding

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

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**Figure 1.** Catalyst structural characterization and *operando* XANES spectra during CORR. (a–c) SEM images of the as-synthesized Cu-GDE (a), Cu<sub>2</sub>O-GDE (b), and CuO-GDE (c). (d–f) Temporal changes of Cu K-edge XANES spectra of Cu-GDE (d), Cu<sub>2</sub>O-GDE (e), and CuO-GDE (f) acquired during the CORR at -2.2 V versus Ag/AgCl. (g–i) The calculated fraction of Cu oxidation states of Cu-GDE (g), Cu<sub>2</sub>O-GDE (h), and CuO-GDE (i) from a LCF analysis with respect to the reaction time. GC measurements for the C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub> partial current density (blue traces) were synchronized with XANES measurements and collected every 6 min. The yellow shaded region represents the estimated error range of up to 4% in the LCF analysis. The data shown in panels g, h, and i are derived from XANES spectra in panels d, e, and f, respectively.

57 To understand the origin of the superior catalytic activity of  
 58 OD-Cu in comparison to polycrystalline Cu, previous studies  
 59 focused on structural transformations during oxidation and  
 60 subsequent *in situ* reduction.<sup>17,18</sup> This oxidation–reduction  
 61 process increases the surface roughness, which can create high  
 62 densities of grain-boundaries.<sup>19</sup> The grain-boundary surface  
 63 terminations showed a selective increase in the CO<sub>2</sub>RR activity  
 64 but not for the parasitic hydrogen evolution reaction (HER).<sup>20</sup>  
 65 This observation triggered a detailed mechanistic question of  
 66 whether the activity enhancement comes from an increase in  
 67 the number of active surface sites or an increase in the intrinsic  
 68 activity of a specific active site. An extensive effort for  
 69 investigating the active site has concentrated on detecting Cu<sup>+</sup>  
 70 and subsurface oxides while under operation, as theoretical  
 71 calculations suggest that these species can improve the kinetics  
 72 and thermodynamics of CO dimerization.<sup>21</sup> The presence of  
 73 Cu<sup>+</sup> and subsurface oxygen under highly reductive conditions  
 74 was confirmed by microscopic and spectroscopic techni-  
 75 ques,<sup>22,23</sup> but most of these studies did not run the CORR  
 76 or CO<sub>2</sub>RR, so it is unclear if catalytic environments during the  
 77 measurements are relevant to the actual catalytic reaction. The

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

In order to investigate oxidation states of Cu catalysts during  
 the CORR, previous studies utilized *operando* XAS cells that  
 are modified from an existing high-performance cell  
 design.<sup>26,27</sup> These cells, however, typically operate at total  
 current densities of up to 5 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>, much lower than the  
 operating conditions for catalyst performance measurements,  
 which can exceed 100 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>.<sup>28</sup> The *operando* conditions are  
 not necessarily representative because the surface of the  
 catalyst and local environments are known to be very sensitive  
 to changes in the reaction rate and cell configurations.<sup>29</sup> The  
 structural information obtained in such controlled conditions  
 often ignores CO mass transport limitations and may not



99 represent the real oxidation states under practical operating  
100 conditions. Although the gas-diffusion layer (GDL)-based cell  
101 setup has been explored to overcome the mass transport  
102 limitations,<sup>30</sup> a careful evaluation of the CORR activity and  
103 selectivity in the modified *operando* cell is still needed to  
104 guarantee that the observed catalyst structure represents the  
105 real situation under operating conditions.<sup>31,32</sup> By considering  
106 these circumstances, we set our research goals as follows. First,  
107 investigating the direct relationship between oxidation states  
108 and the CORR performance using a well-configured *operando*  
109 XAS cell is required to understand the exact roles of oxide  
110 phases. Of particular interest is the oxidation state of a catalyst  
111 under high current densities without the depletion of CO  
112 molecules. Second, we set out to determine if dynamic changes  
113 in the catalyst surface area can influence C<sub>2+</sub> selectivity and  
114 activity. Addressing these goals is required to formulate the  
115 general design principles for active CORR electrocatalysts.

116 Herein, we report a time-resolved *operando* study on the  
117 effect of oxidation states on the CORR performance by XAS  
118 and online GC, which allows for the simultaneous monitoring  
119 of the chemical valence state and product selectivity. We  
120 prepared three types of Cu catalysts with different oxidation  
121 states and introduced an electrochemical oxidation process,  
122 which enabled us to investigate the relationship between  
123 oxidation states and C–C coupling. By utilizing a modified gas-  
124 diffusion electrode (GDE) cell and an extensive fitting analysis,  
125 we demonstrated that the oxidation states of Cu catalysts  
126 during the CORR do not correlate with ethylene production  
127 under high reaction rates (>80 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>). We also found that  
128 an increase in the number of active sites estimated by the  
129 electrochemical surface area (ECSA) was not proportional to  
130 the C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub> yield. The post-mortem microscopic characterization  
131 indicated that the increased CORR performance may be due to  
132 morphological transformations during the electrochemical  
133 oxidation and its subsequent reduction that generate a more  
134 active Cu structure. On the basis of our findings, we applied  
135 this electrochemical oxidation process to restore both the  
136 activity and selectivity for C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub> production and demonstrated  
137 continuous operation over 6 regeneration cycles.

## 138 ■ RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

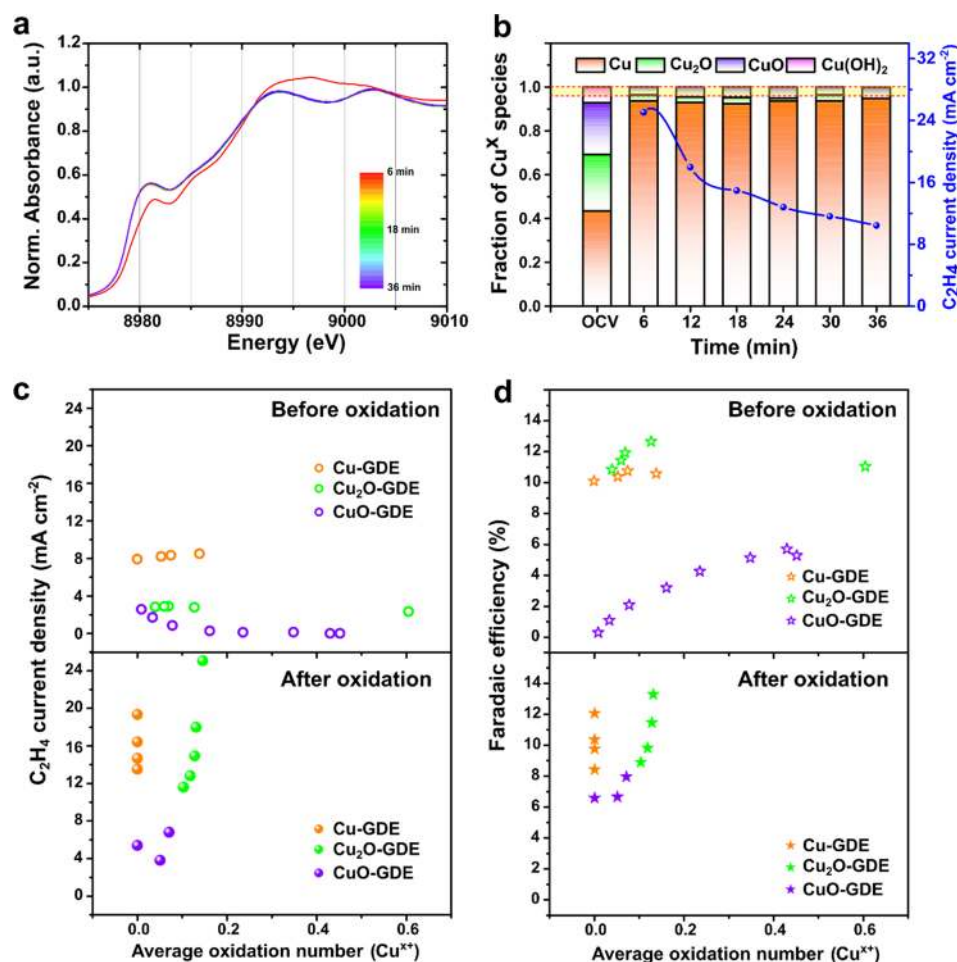
139 **Synthesis and CORR Activity of Cu Catalysts in an**  
140 ***Operando* XAS Cell.** To determine the relationship between  
141 oxidation states and the CORR performance, we carefully  
142 designed synthetic protocols to synthesize three catalysts with  
143 three different oxidation states of Cu. The crystalline structure  
144 and morphology of the three as-prepared Cu catalysts were  
145 confirmed by X-ray powder diffraction (XRD) and scanning  
146 electron microscopy (SEM). The XRD analysis indicated that  
147 Cu<sub>2</sub>O-GDE and CuO-GDE show good agreement with  
148 characteristic Cu<sub>2</sub>O and CuO peaks, respectively (Figure  
149 S1). The Cu-GDE not only had peaks that matched with  
150 metallic Cu but also had a small amount of Cu<sub>2</sub>O due to the  
151 spontaneous oxidation in ambient air. In SEM images, both  
152 Cu-GDE and CuO-GDE show dendritic structures with sizes  
153 ranging 5–10 μm. Cu-GDE exhibited a sharper dendritic  
154 structure, while CuO-GDE exhibited more rounded tips  
155 (Figure 1a and 1c). The Cu<sub>2</sub>O-GDE exhibited a cubic-shaped  
156 morphology with a size of less than 10 μm (Figure 1b).

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

S2). The gas-fed cell is based on a hybrid catalyst-bonded  
161 membrane device that exhibited a total operating current  
162 density of up to 87 mA cm<sup>-2</sup> at –2.0 V (vs Ag/AgCl; hereafter,  
163 all voltage is versus Ag/AgCl).<sup>33</sup> We first characterized the  
164 CORR activity and selectivity of the Cu-GDE in the *operando*  
165 XAS cell to verify the effects of cell modification on the catalyst  
166 performance. The total current density reached 80 mA cm<sup>-2</sup> at  
167 –2.2 V, and its trend followed an exponential increase for the  
168 potential window of –1.6 V to –2.2 V, demonstrating  
169 sufficient CO mass transport over these potential ranges  
170 (Figure S3a and S3b). The FE for C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub> and H<sub>2</sub> generation  
171 reached ~11 and ~79% at –2.2 V, respectively. (Figure S3c).  
172 Compared to the CORR performance in the original gas-fed  
173 cell, we found slight differences in the calculated FE for C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub>  
174 selectivity (decreased from 18 to 11%) and for H<sub>2</sub> (increased  
175 from 51 to 79%) in the *operando* XAS cell. We ascribe these  
176 changes to the modified parts that may prevent the pressure  
177 buildup necessary to reduce water flooding (Figure S3d).<sup>34</sup>  
178 However, the *operando* XAS cell maintained similar total  
179 operating current densities (~80 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>) compared to the  
180 original cell, which allowed us to observe actual states of the  
181 catalyst structure under realistic operating conditions. During  
182 the *operando* XAS measurements, we were only able to detect  
183 gas products, including H<sub>2</sub> and C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub>, because space  
184 constraints in the beamline hutch did not allow us to sample  
185 the liquid products in real-time. The corresponding *operando*  
186 Cu K-edge XAS was obtained after a potential hold of 1 h. The  
187 XANES analysis shows that the Cu-GDE was a metallic Cu<sup>0</sup>  
188 phase after 1 h for all applied potentials except the potential at  
189 –1.6 V (Figure S4a and S4b). The EXAFS analysis indicates  
190 that all the samples have a prominent Cu–Cu scattering peak  
191 at 2.2 Å across a range of the applied potentials, which is  
192 indicative of the metallic Cu<sup>0</sup> phase. (Figure S4c). These data  
193 also demonstrated that performing *operando* XAS on Cu  
194 catalysts with different oxidation states enables us to  
195 systemically validate the contribution of oxidation states to  
196 the CORR catalytic activity of Cu-based materials in the gas-  
197 fed cell.

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

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



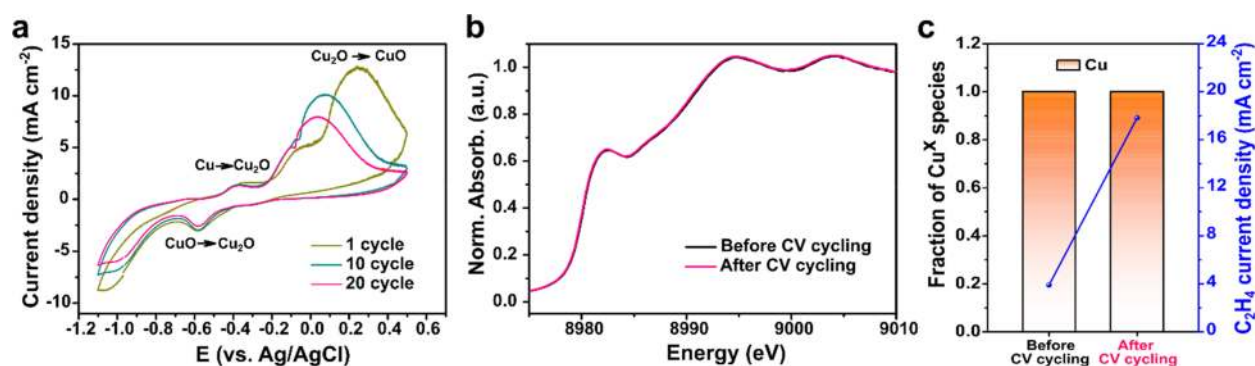
**Figure 2.** *Operando* XANES spectra during the CORR after electrochemical oxidation. (a) Temporal changes of Cu K-edge XANES spectra of Cu<sub>2</sub>O-GDE after applying an anodic potential at 1.5 V versus Ag/AgCl for 5 min. After 6 min, every spectrum overlaps with each other. (b) The calculated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

224 1d–1f). Repeated XANES spectra were collected until no  
 225 further changes were observed. In the case of Cu-GDE and  
 226 Cu<sub>2</sub>O-GDE, the Cu<sup>+</sup> reduced to metallic Cu<sup>0</sup> within 20 min,  
 227 and the C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub> production was detected in the first GC  
 228 measurement at 6 min (Figures 1g and 1h). Interestingly,  
 229 CuO-GDE exhibited no detectable C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub> product until the  
 230 CuO phase began to reduce to the metallic Cu<sup>0</sup> phase at 24  
 231 min (Figure 1i). The trend of C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub> partial current densities  
 232 followed the evolution of the metallic Cu<sup>0</sup> phase and showed  
 233 the maximum value after reducing all the residual oxide into  
 234 Cu<sup>0</sup>. This result suggests that CuO itself is inactive for the  
 235 reduction reaction of CO molecules, and C–C coupling occurs  
 236 only at the Cu<sup>0</sup> surface. Our observations were also in  
 237 agreement with previously reported oxide-containing Cu  
 238 catalysts that exhibited high C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub> activity after a preactivation  
 239 step.<sup>30,37</sup>

240 It is important to note that all the Cu catalysts reduced to  
 241 metallic Cu<sup>0</sup> states during the CORR regardless of their initial  
 242 oxidation states. Although the LCF analysis of Cu<sub>2</sub>O-GDE  
 243 shows ~3.7% Cu<sup>+</sup> remaining in the Cu<sub>2</sub>O-GDE after 30 min,  
 244 this amount of residual oxides is within the error range of a  
 245 LCF analysis. To estimate the error range in the LCF analysis,  
 246 we introduced an empirical method by using normalized sum-

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

**Correlation between Oxidation States and CORR Performance.** Previous studies have claimed efficient C–C  
 251 coupling during the CO<sub>2</sub>RR from surface or subsurface Cu  
 252 oxide species, which formed via an electrochemical oxidation  
 253 process.<sup>18,38,39</sup> During the CO<sub>2</sub>RR, the residual oxygen was  
 254 mainly located in an amorphous 1–2 nm thick layer within the  
 255 Cu subsurface.<sup>23</sup> Accordingly, we aimed in the next step to  
 256 investigate the effects of surface oxide species on the CORR  
 257 performance by applying an anodic potential to all the reduced  
 258 Cu catalysts. The generation of the surface oxide structure was  
 259 based on a previous study showing that copper oxide starts to  
 260 grow at the surface at sufficiently high positive potentials in  
 261 alkaline solutions.<sup>40</sup> A highly positive potential of 1.5 V was  
 262 applied for 5 min to the Cu catalysts that had already  
 263 converted into metallic Cu<sup>0</sup> states after the previous CORR.  
 264 After the anodic oxidation, the XANES spectra show oxide  
 265 features, and the LCF analysis reveals that copper oxides and  
 266 hydroxides were formed in all Cu catalysts up to 60% (Figures  
 267 2 and S8). We then performed *operando* XANES measure-  
 268 ments and evaluated the CORR performance simultaneously at  
 269



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

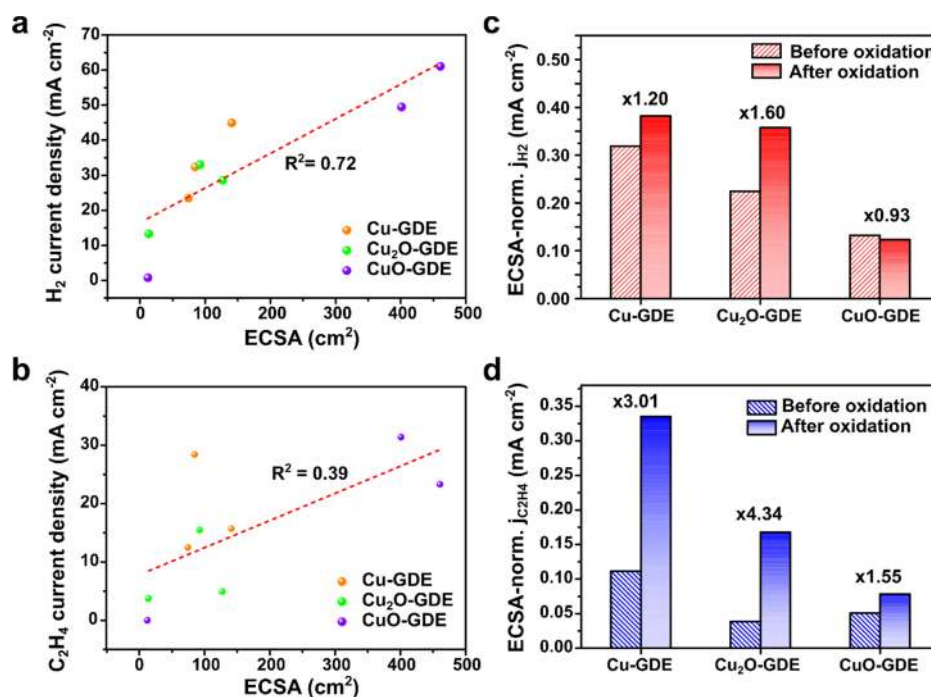
270 a fixed potential of  $-2.2$  V. Unlike the previous CORR results  
 271 before the anodic oxidation (Figure 1g–1i), most of the  
 272 surface oxide and hydroxide species in all Cu catalysts were  
 273 quickly reduced into metallic Cu<sup>0</sup> within the time resolution of  
 274 the XANES measurements ( $<6$  min) (Figures 2a and S8). The  
 275 result suggests that the surface oxides are generally much easier  
 276 to reduce than the initial oxides in the Cu catalysts. Moreover,  
 277 similar features in the CORR selectivity and activity were  
 278 observed through all the Cu catalysts. First, the total current  
 279 densities of all the catalysts were increased after the anodic  
 280 oxidation process, leading to significant enhancements of the  
 281 partial current densities for both  $C_2H_4$  and  $H_2$  (Figure S9). In  
 282 comparison to that of the initial Cu catalysts before the anodic  
 283 oxidation treatment,  $FE_{C_2H_4}$  increased and  $FE_{H_2}$  decreased in all  
 284 Cu catalysts. Second, the enhanced partial current densities of  
 285  $C_2H_4$  in all the Cu catalysts rapidly declined as the CORR  
 286 proceeded.

287 Interestingly, the LCF analysis of Cu<sub>2</sub>O- and CuO-GDE  
 288 demonstrates that residual oxide species ( $\sim 5\%$ ) remained after  
 289 further reaction time (Figures 2b and S8d). Although this  
 290 amount of residual oxide is quite close to the error margins of  
 291 the LCF analysis, its presence and persistence during the  
 292 reaction have been regarded as the promoter for a C–C  
 293 coupling.<sup>24,41</sup> We hypothesize that there could be an optimal  
 294 oxidation state value or a linear correlation between the  
 295 oxidation states and CORR performance if the residual oxide  
 296 plays a role in the catalytic reaction. To verify this hypothesis  
 297 and explore the relationship between oxidation states and  
 298 CORR performance, we link the average oxidation number  
 299 calculated from the LCF analysis and the CORR activity (vs  
 300  $C_2H_4$  partial current density, Figure 2c) and selectivity (vs  
 301  $FE_{C_2H_4}$ , Figure 2d) before and after the anodic oxidation  
 302 process. However, the oxidation states show no apparent  
 303 correlation with the activity or selectivity. The contribution of  
 304 each Cu ion species, including Cu<sup>0</sup>, Cu<sup>+</sup>, and Cu<sup>2+</sup>, to the  
 305 CORR activity and selectivity was also investigated, but no  
 306 obvious trend was observed (Figure S10). Although hard XAS  
 307 measurements at the Cu K-edge contains bulk-sensitive  
 308 information and the LCF analysis cannot exclude the possible  
 309 existence of residual oxides lower than 4%, this result is in  
 310 contrast to the previous studies that utilized *in situ* XAS  
 311 cells.<sup>24,42</sup> Our findings highlight the importance of a catalyst  
 312 performance evaluation for an *operando* cell and the direct  
 313 linkage between the observed XAS spectra and catalyst  
 314 performance measured simultaneously.

We also tested the steady-state CV cycling method to  
 regenerate the surface oxide on the Cu catalyst. This mild  
 oxidative–reductive process in alkaline solutions has been used  
 to induce step-wise reconstruction into a Cu(511) surface that  
 catalyzes the conversion of CO molecules into ethanol.<sup>43</sup> The  
 CV cycling method, with a cycling potential between  $-1.1$  and  
 $0.5$  V for 20 cycles, was applied to the Cu-GDE that was  
 already reduced into metallic Cu<sup>0</sup>. The CV data indicate that  
 Cu<sup>+</sup> was formed at  $-0.4$  V, and Cu<sup>2+</sup> was generated in the  
 range of  $0.05$ – $0.25$  V, leading to the formation of oxidized  
 copper (Figure 3a).<sup>40</sup> This formed oxide was reduced again  
 between  $-0.6$  V and  $-1$  V, as shown by the reductive wave in  
 the CV. *Operando* XANES demonstrated that there was no  
 change in the spectra before and after CV cycling (Figure 3b),  
 and the LCF analysis confirmed that the two spectra indicate  
 purely metallic Cu<sup>0</sup> states (Figure 3c). In contrast, the  $C_2H_4$   
 partial current densities were increased about 4 times higher  
 than those before the CV cycling (Figure 3c), consistent with  
 the results from the oxidative treatment method. This result  
 further supports our conclusion that the oxidation states of Cu  
 catalysts fail to explain the difference in the catalytic activity  
 and selectivity for the CORR in high current density  
 operations  $>80$  mA cm<sup>-2</sup>.

**Effects of Electrochemical Surface Area on CORR.** The  
 lack of a correlation between the oxidation state of Cu catalysts  
 and CORR performance naturally points to another common  
 factor, ECSA. It has been previously reported that the ECSA-  
 normalized CORR activities of high and low surface area Cu  
 are comparable, leading to the conclusion that both catalysts  
 have a similar intrinsic activity.<sup>44</sup> The major difference in  
 selectivity between these Cu catalysts was attributed to the  
 lower intrinsic HER activity in high-ECSA catalysts due to  
 local elevation of the pH from the rapid consumption of  
 protons at high rates.<sup>11,45</sup> We investigated the role of the ECSA  
 on CORR performance enhancement to understand whether  
 the electrochemical oxidation can simply increase the number  
 of active sites, or create new, more efficient active sites. The  
 ECSAs of all the Cu catalysts were estimated by measuring the  
 electrochemical double-layer capacitance (EDLC, Figure S11),  
 which has been used to estimate a proxy for the wetted GDL  
 electrode area in the gas-fed CO<sub>2</sub> electrolyzers.<sup>46</sup> Note that  
 although the ECSA obtained by EDLC measurements could  
 contain contributions from both the Cu catalyst and GDL, our  
 deposition method (detailed in Experimental Section) is likely  
 to cover the majority of the electrolyte-accessible portion of





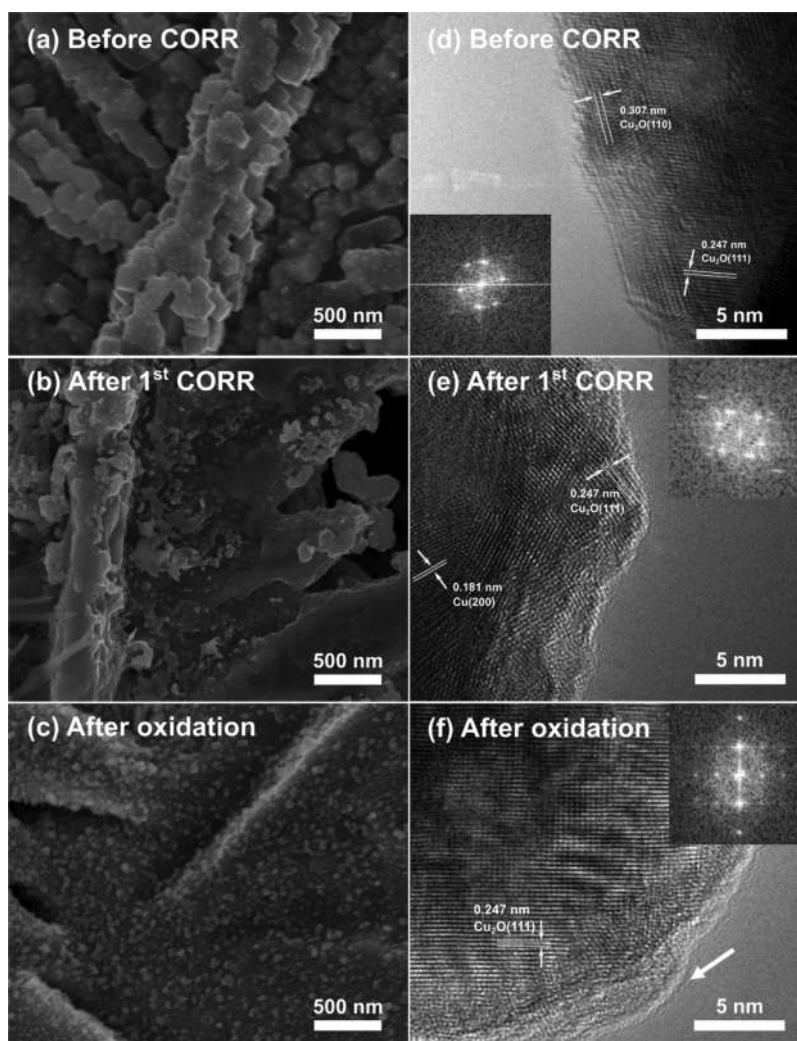
**Figure 4.** Relationship between the ECSA and activities for the HER and CORR. (a) H<sub>2</sub> and (b) C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub> partial current densities of Cu catalysts as a function of the ECSA, estimated by EDLC. Normalized current densities by the ECSAs for each Cu catalyst for (c) H<sub>2</sub> and (d) C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub> before and after electrochemical oxidation.

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

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

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

**Morphological Transformation of Cu Catalysts during CORR.** Our observations that neither the oxidation state  
 409 nor the ECSA are correlated with the activity and selectivity  
 410 suggest another catalyst property determining the CORR  
 411 performance in gas-fed cells. Since Cu has a small cohesive  
 412 energy and a high surface mobility, the surface of Cu  
 413 undergoes severe reconstruction when exposed to gaseous  
 414 CO<sup>48</sup> or under the CORR conditions.<sup>49</sup> In particular, the  
 415 adsorption of CO into oxide-containing Cu catalysts invokes a  
 416 surface reconstruction in the form of nanoclusters or  
 417 fragmented structures that resulted in enhanced *n*-propanol  
 418 production during the CORR.<sup>30,37</sup> This CO-induced surface  
 419 reconstruction motivates us to investigate the relationship  
 420 between morphological changes and the CORR performance  
 421 of our Cu catalysts. To investigate the morphological evolution  
 422 during CORR, we collected post-mortem SEM (Figures  
 423 5a–5c) and transmission electron microscopy (TEM) (Figures  
 424 5d–5f) images of Cu-GDE before and after electrolysis and  
 425 electrochemical oxidation. The dendritic structure in the  
 426 pristine Cu-GDE was composed of nanocubes with a size  
 427 ranging 100–150 nm (Figure 5a) and a crystalline surface layer  
 428 (Figure 5d). The fast Fourier transform (FFT) pattern of the  
 429



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

430 nanocube showed  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}(111)$  and  $(110)$  phases, but addi- 450  
 431 tional  $\text{CuO}$  phase patterns were also observed due to the 451  
 432 surface oxidation in ambient conditions during the *ex situ* TEM 452  
 433 analysis (Figure S15). After the initial CORR proceeded for 60 453  
 434 min, the nanocubes were no longer observed, having coalesced 454  
 435 into a smooth surface (Figure 5b). The TEM image showed 455  
 436 that the crystalline surface was still maintained even after 456  
 437 CORR (Figure 5e). This result is in agreement with a 457  
 438 degradation mechanism induced by either H- or CO- 458  
 439 adsorbates under highly negative potentials.<sup>50</sup> After applying 459  
 440 a positive potential of 1.5 V for 5 min, the Cu surfaces became 460  
 441 covered with nanoparticles ranging in size from 50 to 80 nm 461  
 442 (Figure 5c). The nanoparticles had an amorphous surface 462  
 443 structure resulting from anodic oxidation treatment (Figure 463  
 444 5f). As the second period of the CORR proceeded, the newly 464  
 445 formed nanoparticles also coalesced into a flat and smooth 465  
 446 surface (Figure S16). A similar trend of coalescence during the 466  
 447 CORR and subsequent formation of nanoparticles during 467  
 448 anodic oxidation was also observed for both  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$ - and  $\text{CuO}$ - 468  
 449 GDE (Figure S17), suggesting the generality of this 469  
 470

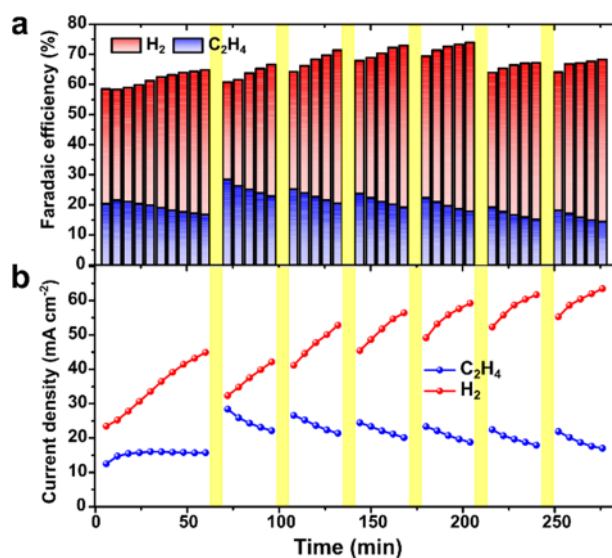
morphological transformation irrespective of the initial 450  
 oxidation states and morphology. 451

This finding suggests a hypothesis regarding the catalyst 452  
 properties that determine the CORR activity and selectivity in 453  
 the gas-fed cell. At the early stage of the electrolysis, the lower 454  
 wetted surface area and larger particle size compared to those 455  
 after anodic oxidation are likely to hinder the generation of Cu 456  
 active sites by restricting the morphological transformation of 457  
 the catalysts. Moreover, the coalescence of nanostructures into 458  
 smooth surfaces as the CORR proceeds can also limit the 459  
 availability of active sites during CORR, leading to a decrease 460  
 of  $\text{C}_2\text{H}_4$  partial current densities as a function of time in all Cu 461  
 catalysts. After anodic oxidation, the enhancements of the 462  
 $\text{C}_2\text{H}_4$  activity and selectivity may result from the formation of 463  
 oxide nanoparticles at the surface and their rapid reduction, 464  
 which could create a more active Cu structure. A reconstructed 465  
 Cu structure is consistent with previous studies demonstrating 466  
 that the electrochemical oxidative–reductive process generates 467  
 selective active sites for C–C coupling.<sup>43,51</sup> While we cannot 468  
 rule out a small fraction of the oxidized Cu below the error 469  
 range of our LCF analysis, these post-mortem measurements 470



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

474 **Restoration of Cell Performance by Electrochemical**  
475 **Oxidation.** Inspired by the above results, we explored the  
476 possibility of restoring the cell performance through an anodic  
477 oxidation process. We first measured the gaseous and liquid  
478 products before and after oxidation in the gas-fed cell (Figure  
479 S17). Remarkably, we note that applying 0.1 V during the  
480 oxidative step was enough to enhance the C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub> activity, and  
481 only FE<sub>C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub></sub> was enhanced while the other C<sub>2+</sub> products were  
482 similar after anodic oxidation (Table S3). The C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub> partial  
483 current densities rapidly decreased over 30 min after anodic  
484 oxidation, suggesting that the active sites are unstable under  
485 high reaction rates with large overpotentials. We hypothesize  
486 that the anodic oxidation can regenerate the stepped Cu active  
487 sites from the sintered Cu surface, making it possible to  
488 recover the activity periodically without any cell disassembly.  
489 To this end, we operated the gas-fed cell at a fixed potential of  
490  $-2.2$  V for 1 h before applying 0.1 V for 5 min, followed by  
491 alternating  $-2.2$  V for 30 min and 0.1 V for 5 min (Figure 6).



6  
Figure 6. Restoring the cell performance by applying anodic oxidation. (a) Faradaic efficiency and (b) partial current density for H<sub>2</sub> (red) and C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub> (blue) of Cu-GDE as a function of repeated catalyst regeneration. During the catalyst regeneration periods (yellow region), the cell was treated by applying an anodic potential of 0.1 V for 5 min without cell disassembly.

492 The first anodic oxidation increased the CORR activity (from  
493 15.7 to 28.4 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>) and selectivity (16.8 to 28.4%) toward  
494 C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub> and suppressed H<sub>2</sub> production, while the enhanced  
495 performance degraded over 30 min. Subsequent anodic  
496 oxidation cycles showed repeated degradation and recovery  
497 of the C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub> current density. During this periodic cycling, the  
498 initial current density and FE for C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub> were maintained even  
499 after 6 h. However, both the current density and FE for H<sub>2</sub>  
500 increased over time. Previous studies showed that this was due  
501 to electrolyte crossover from the anode chamber, which limited  
502 CO transport to the flooded catalyst layer, indicating that  
503 water management is important to suppress H<sub>2</sub> production in  
504 gas-fed cells.<sup>33,46</sup> To suppress the parasitic HER, strategies for  
505 water management include integrating hydrophobic materials  
506 (e.g., polytetrafluoroethylene) into the GDL and controlling

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

## 512 CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the effect of the oxidation state on the CORR  
513 activity of oxide-derived Cu catalysts was investigated by using  
514 simultaneous *operando* XAS and online GC measurements.  
515 Combining data from the XANES fitting and synchronized  
516 product analysis, we found that the C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub> activity and  
517 selectivity increased as the oxides were reduced to metallic  
518 Cu<sup>0</sup>. By introducing an electrochemical oxidation process,  
519 which improved the CORR performance, we successfully  
520 proved that the oxidation states and specific ion species do not  
521 correlate with the activity or selectivity of Cu catalysts.  
522 Moreover, activities normalized by ECSA revealed that H<sub>2</sub>  
523 production was proportional to the ECSA, while the  
524 conversion of CO into C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub> was not affected by the ECSA  
525 in the gas-fed cell. We also demonstrated that the modification  
526 of the cell design to include an X-ray window for the *operando*  
527 study could change the reaction environment, which indicates  
528 the importance of the performance characterization in the  
529 *operando* cell. Post-mortem microscopic investigations of  
530 morphological changes suggest that the electrochemical  
531 oxidation and its subsequent reduction may generate a more  
532 active Cu structure, surpassing the original activity. This  
533 electrochemical oxidation–reduction process was utilized as a  
534 regeneration method that restored the original catalyst activity  
535 and selectivity in the GDE cell without requiring cell  
536 disassembly. On the basis of our comprehensive study, we  
537 believe that our results motivate the rational design of catalysts  
538 for commercial CO reduction systems. 539

## 540 EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

**Synthesis of Cu Catalysts with Different Oxidation**  
541 **States.** Cu was electrodeposited on graphite-based GDLs  
542 (denoted as Cu-GDE, Sigracet, 39AA) in an electrolyte  
543 containing 0.15 M CuCl<sub>2</sub>·2H<sub>2</sub>O (99.99%, Alfa Aesar), 1 M  
544 HCl (37% ACS grade, Sigma-Aldrich), and 20% ethanol  
545 (Koptek, 200 proof). Preferential deposition of Cu on one side  
546 of the GDL was achieved by applying polyimide tape (Kapton)  
547 to one side of the GDL and then immersing it in an electrolyte  
548 bath. The cell consisted of the GDL as a working electrode, Cu  
549 mesh as a counter electrode, and Ag/AgCl (saturated (sat.)  
550 KCl) as a reference electrode. Then,  $-0.5$  V versus Ag/AgCl  
551 was applied for a total charge of 4.5 C cm<sup>-2</sup>. After deposition,  
552 the resulting Cu-GDE was taken out of the solution and  
553 dipped into deionized water several times to rinse the excess  
554 electrolyte. After rinsing, the Kapton tape was removed from  
555 the backside, and the electrode was dried in air. Cu<sub>2</sub>O was also  
556 electrodeposited on GDLs (denoted as Cu<sub>2</sub>O-GDE, Sigracet,  
557 39AA) in an aqueous electrolyte containing 0.2 M CuSO<sub>4</sub> and  
558 3.0 M lactic acid. The pH was adjusted to 12, using a  
559 concentrated NaOH solution. Depositions were performed in a  
560 3-electrode configuration using the GDL as a working  
561 electrode, Pt coil as a counter electrode, and Ag/AgCl (sat.  
562 KCl) as a reference electrode. Then,  $-0.5$  mA cm<sup>-2</sup> was  
563 applied to the working electrode for 1.1 h at 60 °C. The rinsing  
564 process was the same as that of Cu-GDE. To fabricate the  
565 CuO on the GDL, Cu-GDEs were electrodeposited as above, 566

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

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

583 **Electrochemical Measurements.** Electrochemical meas-  
584 urements were performed using a Biologic SP-300 model  
585 potentiostat. The GDE served as a working electrode, Pt mesh  
586 as a counter electrode, and Ag/AgCl (sat. KCl) as a reference  
587 electrode. The custom GDE cell consisted of two plates that  
588 sandwiched the Cu/Cu<sub>2</sub>O/CuO-GDE, anion exchange mem-  
589 brane (FAA-3-50, Fumatech), and Pt mesh anode and was  
590 tightened with external screws. Then, 1.0 M KOH was  
591 circulated through the anode chamber, which also contained  
592 the reference electrode, as described earlier.<sup>33</sup> All measure-  
593 ments were performed at room temperature (25 °C) and  
594 pressure (1 atm). The GDE cell was allowed to equilibrate at  
595 OCV conditions until the OCV measured  $-1.0$  V, typically 1  
596 h. EIS measurements were taken at OCV conditions using a  
597 range of frequencies of 1 MHz to 0.5 Hz and an amplitude of  
598 10 mV.

599 **Product Analysis.** Gas products were measured with  
600 online gas chromatography (GC, customized SRI instruments  
601 Model 8610C) every 6 min. A thermal conductivity detector  
602 (TCD) was used to detect H<sub>2</sub>, while a flame ionization  
603 detector (FID) was used to detect CH<sub>4</sub>, C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub>, and C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>6</sub>  
604 products. A parallel column configuration was employed using  
605 a molecular sieve with a 5 Å column for H<sub>2</sub>, O<sub>2</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>, and CO  
606 separation and a Haysep D column to separate CH<sub>4</sub>, CO, CO<sub>2</sub>,  
607 C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub>, and C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>6</sub>. An isothermal method was used with an oven  
608 temperature of 110 °C, a TCD temperature of 105 °C, a FID  
609 temperature of 100 °C, and an injection valve of 60 °C. The Ar  
610 carrier gas was set to 20 psi, H<sub>2</sub> methanizer gas set to 20 psi,  
611 and air pump set to 5 psi. Liquid products were analyzed from  
612 the anode side of the cell with high-performance liquid  
613 chromatography (HPLC, Dionex UltiMate 3000). The eluent  
614 was 1 mM H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> in water with a flow rate of 0.6 mL min<sup>-1</sup>  
615 and a column pressure of 76 bar. The column was an Aminex  
616 HPX 87-H from Biorad, held at 60 °C with an internal heater.  
617 The detector was a UV detector set to 250 nm. The injection  
618 volume was 10  $\mu$ L. For the determination of liquid products  
619 over time, 0.5 mL of anolyte was taken from the anolyte  
620 reservoir every 6 min, in conjunction with GC measurements.  
621 The faradaic efficiency (FE) was calculated as follows: FE =  $e$   
622  $\times F \times n/Q = e \times F \times n/(I \times t)$ , where  $e$  is the number of  
623 electrons transferred,  $F$  is the Faraday constant,  $Q$  is the  
624 charge,  $I$  is current,  $t$  is the running time, and  $n$  is the total  
625 amount of product (in moles).

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

## ■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

### Supporting Information

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

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

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715 <sup>#</sup>S.H.L. and I.S. contributed equally to this work.

## 716 Notes

717 The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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