

1 **Stability and catalytic properties of nanostructured carbons in**
2 **electrochemical environments**

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26 **Abstract**

27 This work reports a study of the electrocatalytic properties and stability of
28 nanostructured carbon electrodes by on-line differential electrochemical mass
29 spectrometry (DEMS). A wide electrochemical characterization in 0.1 M NaHCO₃
30 involving anodic (carbon corrosion and oxygen evolution reaction, OER) and cathodic
31 (CO₂ reduction and hydrogen evolution reaction, HER) key reactions in energy-
32 conversion devices was performed. DEMS studies showed that the faradaic current from
33 1.3 to 1.6 V vs. RHE of carbons was only associated to CO₂ formation by corrosion and
34 not to OER, the stability being improved by the graphitic character of carbon. H₂
35 evolution was also enhanced with graphitic carbon nanofilaments, even though metal
36 traces might positively influence their catalytic activity. By comparison of the faradaic
37 currents and the H₂ formation signals, in the absence and presence of CO₂, a high
38 inhibition of the HER was established for all carbon electrodes due to the species
39 adsorption from CO₂ reduction.

40

41 **Keywords:** Nanostructured carbons, DEMS, corrosion, O₂ evolution, H₂ evolution, CO₂
42 electroreduction.

43

44 **1. Introduction**

45 Noble metals or metal oxides supported on carbon materials are conventionally
46 used as catalysts in renewable energy conversion and storage devices, for example in
47 polymer electrolyte membrane (PEM) fuel cells and metal-air batteries [1-7].

48 The commercial carbon black Vulcan XC-72R (supplied by Cabot) is the most
49 commonly used material in the field of electrocatalysis because of their adequate
50 mesoporous distribution and good electrical properties [4, 8]. However, much research
51 effort has been made using advanced nanostructured carbon materials (NCMs) over the
52 last decades, such as graphenes [1], carbon nanotubes (CNTs) [3, 9, 10], carbon
53 nanofibers (CNFs) [3, 11], carbon nanocoils (CNCs) [12, 13], carbon xerogels (CXs)
54 [14, 15], carbon nanocages [5] and ordered mesoporous carbons (OMCs) [2]. These
55 materials offer optimal textural and chemical features which lead to an enhanced
56 performance. For example, OMCs and CXs provide a high surface area and a developed
57 mesoporosity which is essential for achieving a good dispersion of metal nanoparticles
58 and to favour the diffusion of reactants and by-products. Another key specification is
59 the stability of the carbon material since carbon-support corrosion is considered to be
60 one of the main problems facing the performance of fuel cells [16-20]. Also, a high
61 electrical conductivity is required to facilitate electron transfer [3, 4, 14]. In order to
62 solve these issues, more graphitic carbons (e.g., CNTs and CNFs) have been used [3, 9,
63 10].

64 Carbon-supported catalysts have been also used in the electrochemical reduction
65 of CO₂ obtaining promising results [21-25]. An enhanced activity was reached on these
66 carbon-based electrocatalysts in comparison to massive metal electrodes, which may be
67 explained by a better distribution of CO₂ on the active surface. However, few efforts
68 have been made involving advanced NCMs [26-28].

69 On the other hand, the use of carbon electrodes for electrochemical energy
70 conversion and storage applications has received special attention during the last years
71 [6, 24, 29-37]. In this context, Zhang and coworkers [6] obtained good electrocatalytic
72 properties for both oxygen reduction and evolution reactions on a N,P-doped
73 mesoporous carbon foam. On the other hand, Wu et al. [36] reported high Faradaic
74 efficiencies (up to 90%) for CO₂ reduction to ethylene and ethanol on nanometre-size
75 N-doped graphene quantum dots. Finally, the hydrogen evolution reaction (HER) has
76 been also recently studied on carbon electrodes obtaining promising results [32, 37].

77 The electrochemical behaviour of carbon materials for energy-conversion
78 applications has been evaluated in detail using conventional electrochemical techniques,
79 as cyclic voltammetry or chronoamperometry [1, 8, 20, 37-42]. However, these
80 measurements do not allow distinguishing between the current signals associated with
81 the production of different species at the electrode surface in the same potential region.
82 For example, oxygen evolution reaction (OER) by water oxidation takes place at
83 potentials above 1.23 V vs. RHE, and consequently, it is accompanied by carbon
84 corrosion. In contrast, the hydrogen formation is a competitive reaction, which occurs
85 during the CO₂ reduction in aqueous electrolytes. This limitation can be resolved by
86 using differential electrochemical mass spectrometry (DEMS), coupling on-line an
87 electrochemical cell to a mass spectrometer. In this way, DEMS allows simultaneously
88 following the electrochemical properties of electrodes and the volatile and gaseous
89 species generated on the electroactive surface, with excellent sensitivity and under
90 potential control. Therefore, DEMS is a powerful in situ tool to investigate the
91 electrochemical behaviour of carbon materials and to elucidate the reaction pathways
92 taking place [16, 17, 21, 43, 44]. But this technique is not commercial and the DEMS
93 configuration has to be adapted for every application.

94 In this work, the electrochemical stability and catalytic behaviour of various
95 nanostructured carbons has been established by DEMS. In particular, OMCs, two types
96 of graphitic carbons, CNFs and CNCs, and the commercial carbon black Vulcan XC-
97 72R, have been used. Different cathodic and anodic electrochemical processes have
98 been studied: capacitive properties, tolerance to corrosion and activity toward HER and
99 OER. Furthermore, carbons have been tested in the electrochemical reduction of CO₂.
100 To the best of our knowledge, it is the first work reporting an extensive study of the
101 electrochemical properties and stability of different nanostructured carbons by in-situ
102 electrochemical mass spectrometry.

103

104 **2. Experimental**

105 **2.1 Synthesis of nanostructured carbon materials**

106 OMCs were prepared by the nanocasting technique using a mesoporous silica
107 (SBA-15) as template and a furan resin/acetone as carbon precursor. Finally, OMCs
108 were washed with 1.1 M NaOH in order to remove the silica particles [22, 45].

109 CNFs were synthesized by methane decomposition at 700 °C over a NiCuAl₂O₃
110 (atomic ratio 78:6:16) catalyst. After CNF synthesis, the metal particles were removed
111 by means of an oxidation treatment with concentrated nitric acid (65 wt%, Panreac) at
112 room temperature for 2 h [11, 22].

113 CNCs were prepared by the catalytic graphitization method using Ni and Co
114 nitrates as graphitization catalysts, a mixture of resorcinol and formaldehyde as the
115 carbon precursor and silica sol to generate mesoporosity. Obtained CNCs were first
116 washed with 1.1 M NaOH (98 wt%, Panreac) solution to remove the silica particles, and
117 subsequently treated with concentrated nitric acid (65 wt%, Panreac) at room
118 temperature for 2 h for eliminating the metal content [22, 46].

119 In addition to the removal of metal nanoparticles, the treatment with nitric acid
120 led to the creation of a low concentration of oxygen functionalities on CNFs and CNCs,
121 especially carbonyl/quinone groups (see Supporting Information; Tables S1 and S2).
122 The treatment at low temperature was selected to preserve the original structure of
123 nanofibers and nanocoils while removing the non-encapsulated metal [46-48].

124 **2.2 Physicochemical characterization**

125 Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) micrographs of the NCMs were
126 obtained using a JEOL-2000 FXII microscope equipped with a LaB6 gun at 200 kV and
127 with a spatial resolution of 0.28 nm. To obtain the micrographs, the samples were finely
128 grinded and ultrasonically dispersed in ethanol. A drop of the resultant dispersion was
129 deposited and dried onto a standard copper grid coated with Lacey carbon.

130 X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns of the materials were recorded using a Bruker
131 AXS D8 Advance diffractometer with a θ - θ configuration and with Cu K α radiation.

132 N₂ adsorption-desorption isotherms of the NCMs were measured at -196 °C
133 using a Micromeritics ASAP 2020. The total surface area was calculated from BET
134 (Brunauer, Emmett and Teller) equation and the total pore volume was determined
135 using the single point method at $P/P_0 = 0.99$. V_{meso} and average pore sizes (D_p) were
136 obtained from the analysis of the desorption branch of the N₂ isotherm using the BJH
137 (Barrett, Joyner and Halenda) method.

138 Thermogravimetric analyses (TGA) were carried out on a thermogravimetric
139 SETARAM Setsys Evolution under air atmosphere. The temperature was varied
140 between room temperature and 950 °C with a heating rate of 5 °C min⁻¹.

141 Temperature programmed desorption (TPD) experiments were carried out in an
142 AutoChem II 2920 apparatus to determinate the amount of surface oxygen groups on
143 carbon materials. The profiles of desorbed CO and CO₂ were obtained in a quartz

144 reactor heated under a constant flow of Ar (50 mLmin⁻¹) at a heating rate of 10 °Cmin⁻¹
145 up to 1000 °C. The amounts of CO and CO₂ desorbed from the carbon samples were
146 analyzed online by mass spectroscopy. The total amount of CO and CO₂ released was
147 calculated by integrating the area under the flow rate versus time curve. Furthermore,
148 the ratio CO/CO₂ was obtained as a measure of the surface acidity. The deconvolution
149 of TPD profiles was performed using a multiple Gaussian function and a non-linear
150 least-squared optimization procedure based on the Levenberg-Marquardt algorithm
151 using the software Fytik and assigning as initial estimate distinct desorption
152 temperatures for each group [49, 50]. The CO and CO₂ evolution and the deconvoluted
153 TPD profiles are shown in the Supporting Information (see Figures S1 and S2).

154 X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) analyses were carried out with an
155 ESCAPlus OMICRON system equipped with a hemispherical electron energy analyser.
156 The spectrometer operated at 150 W (15 mA, 10 kV), using a non-monochromatized
157 MgK α (1253.6 eV) anode and under vacuum (<5 ·10⁻⁹) over an area of sample of
158 1.75×2.75 mm. A survey scan (1sweep/200 ms dwell) was acquired between 0 and 1100
159 eV, at 0.5 eV step, 0.2 s dwell and 50 eV pass energy. Detailed scans for C 1s and O 1s
160 were obtained at 0.1 eV step, 0.5 s dwell and 20 eV pass energy. For calibration
161 purposes, the C 1s binding energy of the graphitic peak (BE) was referenced at 284.6
162 eV. C and O content was calculated from the corresponding peak areas divided by the
163 appropriate sensitive factors (1.00 for C 1s and 2.85 for O 1s) using the CASAXPS
164 software after Shirley background subtraction. Figure S3 shows the survey XPS spectra
165 and C1s and O1s regions for a selected sample: Vulcan XC-72R.

166 Elemental analysis (EA) of carbon materials were performed in a CHNS-O
167 Analyzer Thermo FlashEA 1112.

168 Inductively coupled plasma atomic emission spectroscopy (ICP-AES) were
169 performed on a Jobin Yvon 2000 spectrometer to determine the silica and metal
170 residues in the carbon matrixes (Table S3).

171

172 **2.3. Electrochemical and spectro-electrochemical characterization**

173 Spectro-electrochemical measurements were carried out at room temperature
174 and atmospheric pressure in a three electrodes electrochemical cell directly attached to a
175 mass spectrometer (Balzers Omnistar quadrupole mass spectrometer), with a Faraday
176 cup detector. The potentiostat-galvanostat was an Autolab PGSTAT302 (Ecochemie).
177 Further details about DEMS set-up can be found elsewhere [51]. A high surface area
178 carbon rod was used as counter electrode, whereas an Ag/AgCl/3M KCl electrode (0.21
179 V vs. normal hydrogen electrode, NHE) placed inside a Luggin capillary was employed
180 as reference. Unless otherwise specified, all potentials in the text are referred to the
181 reversible hydrogen electrode (RHE). The working electrode was prepared depositing a
182 thin-layer of the corresponding carbon over a glassy carbon (GC) substrate (7.0 mm of
183 diameter, SIGRADUR® G). Carbon suspensions were prepared by mixing 2 mg of the
184 sample, 15 μ L of Nafion dispersion (5 wt%, Aldrich) and 500 μ L of ultrapure water
185 (Millipore Milli-Q system). The suspension was sonicated for 90 min before deposition.
186 The Nafion content of the carbon thin-film was selected on the basis of previous works
187 for a convenient attachment of NCMs to the electrode surface, but not leading to
188 extensive surface blocking [52]. The capacitance of nanocarbon materials was
189 calculated from the charge in the region 0.3-0.8 V vs. RHE in the base electrolyte by
190 considering the averaged value from positive and negative going scans of cyclic
191 voltammetry performed from -0.1 to 1.6 V vs. RHE.

192 DEMS experiments were carried out in a 0.1 M NaHCO₃ (Merck, p.a.)
193 electrolyte solution deaerated with Ar (pH = 8.4). An aliquot of 10 μL of the carbon ink
194 was deposited onto the carbon disk and dried to room temperature before every
195 electrochemical characterization, each performed with different potential windows.
196 Freshly prepared working electrodes were used for the capacitance properties and
197 corrosion behaviour on one hand, and the hydrogen evolution and CO₂ reduction on the
198 other hand. For the latter, CO₂ (99.99 %, Air Liquide) was bubbled into the electrolyte
199 for 30 min in order to obtain a CO₂ saturated 0.1 M NaHCO₃ solution (pH = 6.8) and
200 the performance of carbons for CO₂ reduction was established.

201

202 **3. Results**

203 **3.1 Physicochemical characterization of nanostructured carbon materials**

204 The morphology of NCMs was studied by TEM (see Figure 1a-d). Vulcan is
205 formed by an aggregation of spherical carbon nanoparticles composed of small
206 crystallites. OMCs present an ordered structure, which consists of amorphous carbon
207 nanorods with uniform mesopores. Finally, CNFs and CNCs show well-aligned
208 graphitic layers, forming carbon nanofilaments with "fishbone" morphology or curved
209 ribbons, respectively.

210 The crystalline structure of carbon materials was analysed by XRD. The
211 diffraction patterns have been previously published and can be consulted elsewhere
212 [22]. All the samples, with the exception of OMCs, showed a peak around $2\theta = 25^\circ$,
213 which is associated with the graphite (002) diffraction. The relative intensity of the
214 (002) peak, and hence, the graphitization degree of the carbons, increased in the order:
215 Vulcan < CNCs < CNFs. Finally, OMCs did not show diffraction at $2\theta = 25^\circ$ due to the
216 amorphous nature of carbon.

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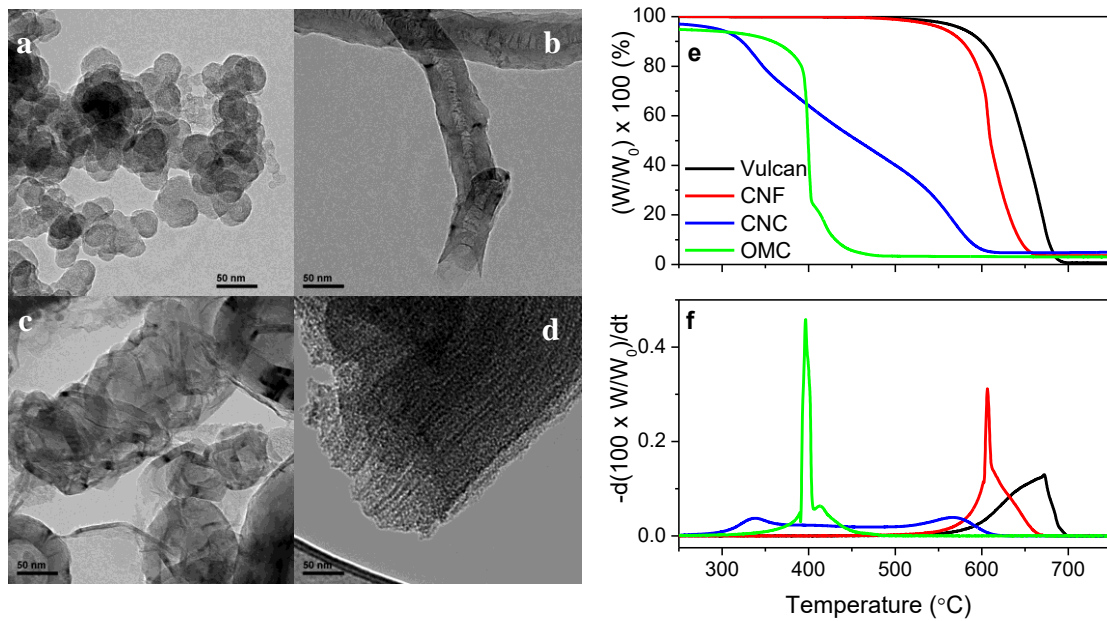


Figure 1. TEM images of (a) Vulcan, (b) CNF, (c) CNC and (d) OMC. TG profiles in air of carbon materials in terms of (e) weight percentage and (f) mass variation velocity as a function of the temperature.

Structural information of NCMs was deduced from TGA in air. Figure 1e shows the TG profiles for all the carbon materials, while Figure 1f displays the rate of mass loss. Different TG profiles were found for the NCMs. OMCs and CNFs presented a pronounced mass loss around 400 and 600°C, respectively, which is associated with carbon combustion. OMCs displayed less oxidation tolerance due to their amorphous character, while graphitic CNFs showed an improved condition toward combustion. In contrast, two broad oxidation peaks centred at 338 and 567 °C were obtained in the derivative curve vs. temperature (Figure 1f) for CNCs, indicating the presence of two kinds of carbon phases with different nature: the first peak can be ascribed to the oxidation of the amorphous phase, while the second one can be attributed to the graphitic fraction. Finally, Vulcan presented the highest oxidation resistance with a

236 gasification temperature at 672 °C. Other authors have obtained similar results [53-56].
 237 As general trend, the oxidation temperature is higher as the carbon crystallinity
 238 increases. Indeed, the synthetic materials follow this sequence. However, a lower
 239 thermal stability would be expected for Vulcan. This behaviour could be explained by
 240 the presence of sulphur groups (0.62 wt% from EA) which can increase the oxidation
 241 resistance [57, 58]. Additionally, despite the low residual metal content of CNCs and
 242 CNFs (below 1 wt% according to the results obtained by ICP (Table S3), it may act as
 243 an oxidation catalyst, decreasing the onset temperature for the burn-off of these carbons
 244 [47].

245 Textural properties of the NCMs were studied by N₂-physisorption and the
 246 results are summarized in Table 1. OMCs present the highest adsorption capacity
 247 whereas CNFs display the lowest surface area although with a significant mesoporosity
 248 (98% in terms of pore volume). On the other hand, the commercial carbon and CNCs
 249 show similar surface areas and mesopore contribution. Regarding the average pore size,
 250 Vulcan and CNFs exhibit larger pores (10-11 nm) than OMCs and CNCs (4 nm).

251

252 **Table 1.** Textural parameters of carbon materials: total BET surface area (S_{BET}), total
 253 pore volume (V_{T}), mesopore volume (V_{meso}), mesopore fraction (in terms of pore
 254 volume) and average pore diameter (D_{p}).

Sample	S_{BET} ($\text{m}^2 \text{g}^{-1}$)	V_{T} ($\text{cm}^3 \text{g}^{-1}$)	V_{meso} ($\text{cm}^3 \text{g}^{-1}$)	Mesopore fraction (%)	D_{p} (nm)
Vulcan	238	0.38	0.31	83	10.4
CNF	76	0.24	0.24	98	11.5
CNC	234	0.17	0.13	78	4.1
OMC	812	0.55	0.31	57	3.8

255

256 TPD experiments provided a good insight on surface oxygen group distribution
257 of the NCMs. Table 2 shows the amounts of CO and CO₂ released, obtained by the
258 integration of the areas under the TPD peaks versus time, together with the oxygen
259 content (O_{TPD}, wt%). The number of oxygen atoms per surface area is also presented,
260 considering the S_{BET} obtained on the N₂ physisorption experiments (Table 1).
261 Interestingly, CNCs and CNFs present high oxygen contents per surface area (11.0 and
262 3.7 atoms nm⁻², respectively) due to the creation of functional groups during the metal
263 removing treatment with nitric acid (see Supporting Information, Tables S1 and S2).
264 Although CNFs and CNCs were subjected to the same purification treatment, the
265 oxygen content for the former material was much lower (~3 times in terms of O atoms
266 nm⁻²). In this context, CNFs present a low amount of defects due to their highly
267 graphitic character, leading to a low reactivity for the creation of oxygenated species.

268 The oxygen content was also determined by means of elemental analysis (EA)
269 (Table 2, O_{EA}). This technique provides an oxygen content closer to the amount in the
270 samples considered as a bulk material. Results correlated quite well with the TPD
271 measurements, showing that the volatile matter of these samples corresponds with the
272 amounts of CO and CO₂ desorbed. However, an O_{TPD} amount of 4.8 wt% was obtained
273 on OMCs, while around 2 times more (8.4 wt%) was measured from EA. This
274 behaviour may be explained by surface groups in interior sites which are not desorbed at
275 1000 °C due to diffusion restrictions caused by the low pore size (4 nm) and the high
276 surface area (812 m²g⁻¹) of this material. TPD allows determining only oxygen groups
277 that are desorbed during temperature variation, *i.e.* available for desorption [59], while
278 EA considers the whole sample. This means that almost half of oxygen groups present
279 in OMC are occluded in small or even blind/closed pores and did not desorb at
280 temperatures below 1000°C.

281 Finally, XPS was also used as a complementary method to obtain the surface
 282 oxygen content (Table 2, O_{XPS}). Higher oxygen contents were determined by XPS for
 283 all the materials in comparison to those obtained by TPD or EA. XPS is a surface
 284 sensitive technique which accounts only for the elements a few nanometers close to the
 285 analysis surface. In our case, carbon atoms in the bulk do not contribute to the XPS
 286 signal. Thus, the general trend concerning higher O_{XPS} values compared to O_{TPD} and/or
 287 O_{EA} indicates that oxygen functional groups are mainly present on the surface of
 288 carbons and not in the carbon matrix, as expected.

289 The nature and the amount of surface oxygen functional groups were estimated
 290 from deconvolution of TPD profiles. Acidic groups (carboxylic and lactones) are
 291 decomposed into CO_2 at lower temperatures, whereas basic and neutral groups (phenols,
 292 quinones and carbonyls) are desorbed as CO at higher temperatures. Anhydrides
 293 originate both CO_2 and CO [49]. Table 3 summarizes the estimated distribution of
 294 oxygen functional groups obtained from the deconvolution of CO and CO_2 evolutions.

295

296 **Table 2.** Surface chemistry measured by TPD (total amount of CO and CO_2 released,
 297 CO/CO_2 ratio and total oxygen content), XPS (surface oxygen content) and EA (total
 298 oxygen content) of carbon materials. The number of oxygen atoms per surface area was
 299 obtained considering the total O_{TPD} and the S_{BET} from N_2 physisorption isotherms.

Sample	CO ($\mu\text{mol g}^{-1}$)	CO ₂ ($\mu\text{mol g}^{-1}$)	CO/CO ₂	O _{TPD} (wt%)	O (atoms nm ⁻²)	O _{EA} (wt%)	O _{XPS} (wt%)
Vulcan	174	106	1.7	0.6	1.0	0.4	2.3
CNF	320	71	4.5	0.7	3.7	1.2	4.7
CNC	2602	832	3.1	6.8	11.0	6.8	9.3
OMC	1475	770	1.9	4.8	2.2	8.4	11.1

300

301 **Table 3.** Results from deconvolution of CO₂ and CO TPD profiles of carbon materials
 302 (mol %). Carboxylic acids were obtained by the sum of the amounts obtained from
 303 peaks 1 and 2 of the CO₂ profiles.

Sample	Carboxylic acid	Anhydride	Lactone	CO desorption	Phenol	Carbonyl/Quinone
Vulcan	37	6	19	11	5	24
CNF	10	11	9	15	13	43
CNC	18	10	1	12	24	36
OMC	27	15	4	11	21	23

304

305 A different oxygen functional group distribution was found for the NCMs.
 306 Phenol and carbonyl/quinone groups were predominant for the materials subjected to
 307 the purification treatment with nitric acid. These groups are generated during the
 308 oxidation treatment with nitric acid, as it is shown in Supporting Information (Tables S1
 309 and S2). In contrast, a large contribution of acid groups (carboxylic acids and lactones)
 310 was developed for Vulcan and OMCs. In agreement with these results, a lower value of
 311 the ratio CO/CO₂ (see Table 2) was obtained for the last materials (around 2). In
 312 contrast, CNFs and CNCs presented high ratios (4.5 and 3.1, respectively), indicating an
 313 enhanced surface basicity as a result of the purification treatment with HNO₃ [60].

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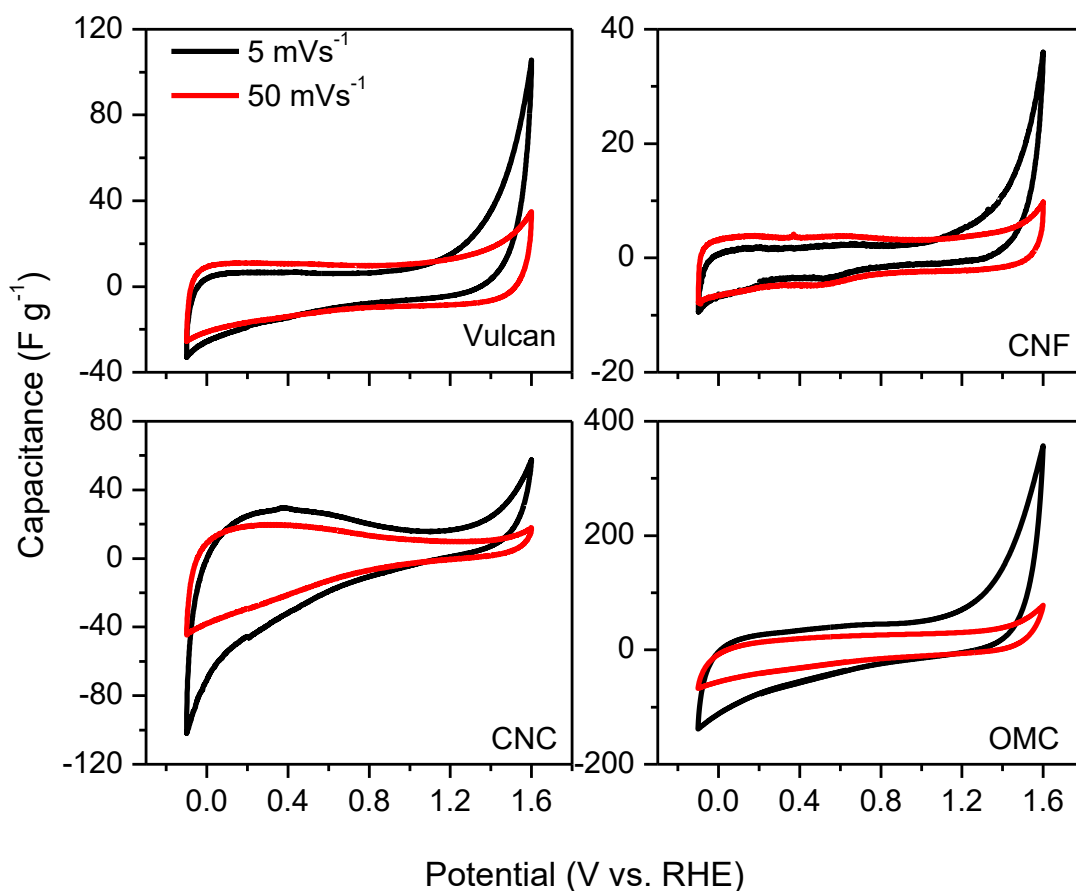
315 **3.2 Electrochemical and spectro-electrochemical characterization**

316 **3.2.1 Capacitance properties**

317 Cyclic voltammograms (CVs) were recorded at 5 and 50 mV s⁻¹ in 0.1 M
 318 NaHCO₃ cycling the potential between -0.1 and 1.6 V vs. RHE. The specific
 319 capacitance, *C*, was calculated from the correlation between current density, *i*, and the
 320 variation of potential, *E*, with time, *t*, by using the Equation 1:

$$321 \quad i \text{ [A g}^{-1}] = C \text{ [F g}^{-1}] \cdot dE(V)/dt(s) \quad (1)$$

322 where dE/dt is the scan rate, being constant in our experiments. The curves of specific
323 capacitance versus potential are given in Figure 2.



324

325 **Fig. 2.** CVs of carbon materials in 0.1 M NaHCO₃.

326

327 All carbon materials displayed a double-layer capacitive behaviour [61] together
328 with anodic current rapidly increasing with high positive potential starting at about 1 V
329 vs. RHE. The latter is associated to irreversible reaction (carbon oxidation as will be
330 discussed in following sections) as indicated by differences between the two scan rates
331 reported (5 and 50 mV s⁻¹). However, different profiles are evident from comparison of
332 the double layer currents and the behaviour at potentials approaching 0 V vs. RHE.
333 Capacitance values are summarized in Table 4, calculated from the averaged value in
334 the interval 0.3-0.8 V vs. RHE, where no carbon oxidation occurs. OMCs showed the

335 highest capacitance owing to their large specific surface area ($812 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$), while CNFs
336 presented the lowest value in correlation with the low BET surface area of this carbon
337 ($76 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$). Indeed, the capacitance (Table 4, F g^{-1}) approximately follows the trend of
338 BET surface area (Table 1, $\text{m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$). Furthermore, the graphitic character of CNFs
339 influences also the values of capacitance as charges are preferably accumulated on the
340 defects [61, 62]. In addition, a small pseudocapacitance contribution was observed on
341 CNCs and CNFs (0.4-0.7 V vs. RHE) associated with the reversible oxidation/reduction
342 of quinone groups generated during the oxidation treatment of the samples with nitric
343 acid [63], as was determined by TPD. This contribution was lower for CNFs due to the
344 smaller amount of oxygen per surface area. Interestingly, CNCs exhibited a dramatic
345 decrease of capacitance from about 0.5 V to 1.4 V vs. RHE, which may be related to the
346 porosity saturation as pointed out by Mysyk et al. [64]. They reported a decrease of the
347 double-layer current as a consequence of a porous volume not sufficiently developed, as
348 correlated to nitrogen physisorption ex-situ measurements.

349 In contrast, Vulcan and OMCs did not present pseudocapacitance as a higher
350 contribution of acid groups (e.g. carboxylic acids and lactones), which are
351 electrochemically inactive in the double layer region [65], was obtained for these
352 materials (Table 3). OMCs showed higher ohmic resistance than the other NCMs, as
353 envisaged from the positive slope of capacitance vs. potential, due to its amorphous
354 character, leading to a low electrical conductivity.

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359 **Table 4.** Electrochemical features of nanocarbon materials. Normalized ionic currents
 360 are referred to the $m/z = 44$, ascribed to CO_2 evolution.

Sample	Capacitance (F g^{-1})	Faradaic current at 1.5 V vs. RHE (A g^{-1})	Ionic current ($m/z = 44$) at 1.5 V vs. RHE (mA bar^{-1})	Normalized ionic current at 1.5 V vs. RHE ($\text{mA bar}^{-1} \text{F}^{-1}$)	Normalized ionic current at 1.5 V vs. RHE ($\text{mA bar}^{-1} \text{O.wt}\%^{-1}$)
Vulcan	15	0.36	22.2	36.8	9.7
CNF	4	0.09	2.4	15.5	0.5
CNC	16	0.17	5.0	7.6	0.5
OMC	24	0.38	32.4	34.0	2.9

361

362 Interestingly, redox couples associated with the formation/reduction of metal
 363 surface oxides (which appear in this potential window as shown in [66]) were not
 364 observed on CNFs and CNCs, confirming that the purification treatment with HNO_3
 365 was effective for removing metal impurities from the surface. In fact, the total metal
 366 content obtained from ICP was below 1 wt% (see Table S3). In addition, Ni, Cu or Co
 367 impurities were not detected by XPS confirming that the surface amount was negligible.
 368 Therefore, the residual metal load seems to be encapsulated in the carbon matrixes and
 369 it is not accessible for the electrochemical reactions.

370

371 **3.2.2 Carbon electrooxidation: CO_2 evolution**

372 The anodic faradaic currents observed in the voltammograms of the NCMs
 373 (Figure 2, in the potential region from 1.3 to 1.6 V) could be associated with the oxygen
 374 evolution reaction (EOR) by water oxidation and/or the CO_2 evolution by carbon
 375 corrosion. OER is a key reaction in the air electrode of some batteries and electrolyzers,
 376 while carbon corrosion is considered to be one of the main problems facing the
 377 performance of fuel cells. Although the electrochemical oxidation of carbon-based
 378 electrodes has been widely studied [7, 29, 67], few works have used

379 spectroelectrochemical techniques [16, 18, 19, 68], which could provide a robust
380 strategy to design effective/stable catalysts.

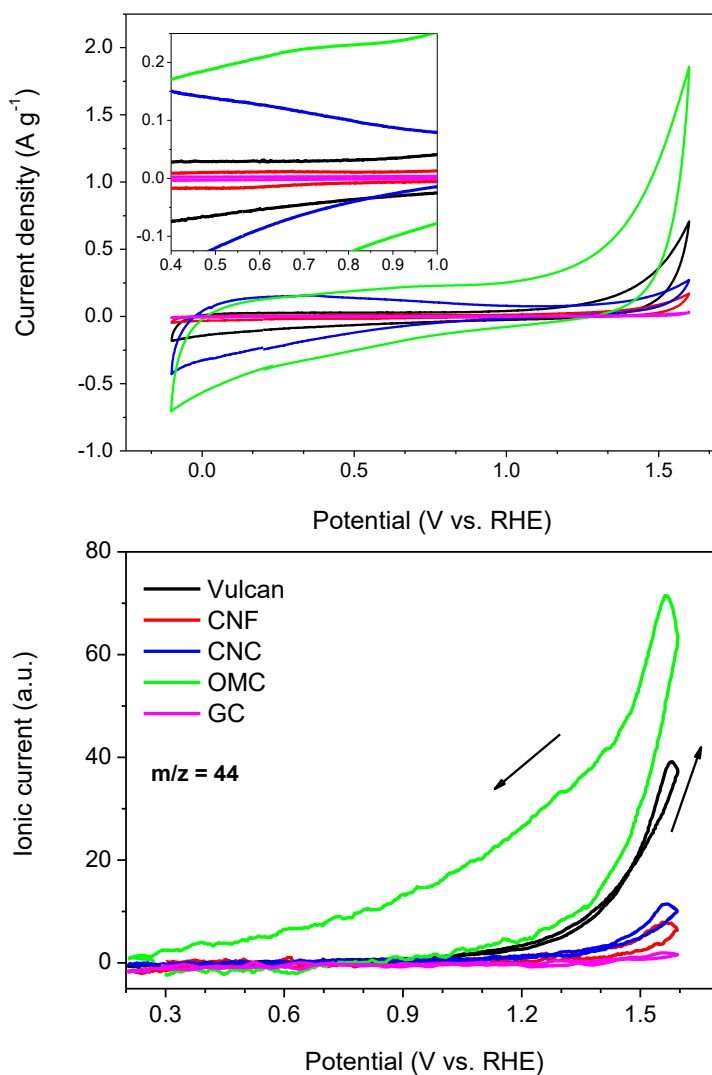
381 In this work the performance of nanostructured carbon catalysts in the base
382 electrolyte from -0.1 to 1.6 V was monitored by on line mass spectrometry following
383 the mass signals associated to the formation of O₂ (m/z = 32) and CO₂ (m/z = 44)
384 evolution reactions. The mass signal m/z = 32 did not present changes during the anodic
385 scan showing that oxygen evolution does not take place on carbons at these potentials,
386 and hence, the anodic faradaic currents (from 1.3 to 1.6 V) are only due to carbon
387 oxidation.

388 Figure 3 shows a comparison of the CVs (upper panel) and the corresponding
389 mass spectrometric cyclic voltammograms (MSCVs) for CO₂ evolution (m/z = 44) of
390 the samples at 5 mV s⁻¹ in 0.1 M NaHCO₃. First of all, it has to be noted that the GC
391 used as substrate does not contribute significantly to the total faradaic and ionic (m/z =
392 44) currents of the NCMs. As was expected, a decrease in the graphitic character of the
393 materials led to an increase of the CO₂ formation by corrosion following the sequence:
394 CNFs < CNCs < Vulcan < OMCs. This behavior is explained by differences in the
395 surface heterogeneity of the samples, and consequently, in the amount of surface
396 defects, as well as the surface area. On one hand, it is well known that the higher the
397 surface area the larger the amount of available labile carbon surface sites for carbon
398 oxidation. On the other hand, normalizing the ionic current (m/z = 44) by the
399 capacitance gives an indication of the carbon oxidation rate per unit of
400 electrochemically accessible surface area (Table 4), following the order CNCs < CNFs
401 < OMCs < Vulcan. Surface defects exhibit a higher activity for the adsorption of
402 oxygenated species, which may act as corrosion intermediates [68, 69]. Graphitic
403 materials (CNCs, CNFs) present reduced surface heterogeneity and low density of

404 surface defects, while non crystalline carbons (Vulcan, OMCs) develop a higher density
405 of active sites [68, 69]. Therefore, derived from a large surface area and a surface more
406 prone to oxidation due to its amorphous character, OMCs displayed the greatest
407 oxidation rate (A g^{-1}). In fact, this material presents the onset potential for CO_2
408 evolution at 1.0 V vs RHE and the intensity of the mass signal $m/z = 44$ is several times
409 higher in comparison to those obtained on graphitic carbons (CNCs and CNFs). A
410 significant difference was also found in terms of oxygen speciation and CO_2 evolution
411 rate. Upon normalization of the ionic current ($m/z = 44$) per surface oxygen content
412 obtained by XPS (Table 4, O_{XPS}) the samples characterized by a high graphitization
413 degree show the lowest normalized ionic current, whereas OMCs and Vulcan, with
414 more labile oxygen groups like carboxylic acids or lactones (Table 3) exhibit larger
415 normalized ionic currents. This corroborates that the presence of more stable oxygen
416 groups, together with low surface area (e.g. CNFs), prevent carbon from
417 electrochemical oxidation.

418

419



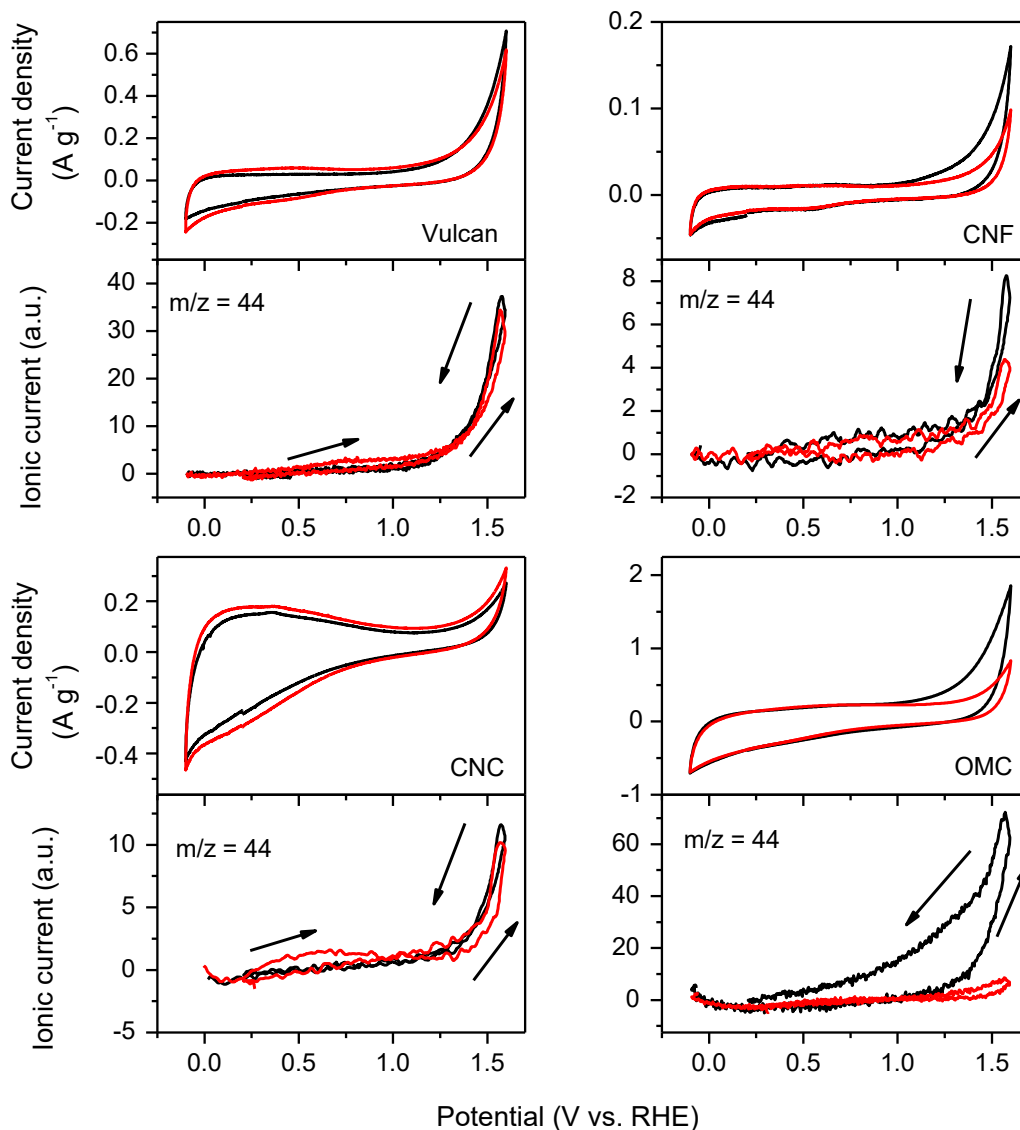
420

421 **Fig. 3.** CVs (upper panel) and MSCVs for CO₂, m/z = 44, (bottom panel) of carbon
 422 materials in 0.1 M NaHCO₃ ($v = 5 \text{ mV s}^{-1}$).

423

424 Subsequently, corrosion tests were carried out cycling 200 times the potential
 425 from 0.9 to 1.6 V at 50 mV s^{-1} . CVs were recorded between -0.1 and 1.6 V at 5 mV s^{-1} ,
 426 before and after these experiments to evaluate the influence of surface oxidation on the
 427 electrochemical behaviour of NCMs. Simultaneously to the electrochemical analysis,
 428 DEMS measurements were performed following the formation of CO₂ (m/z = 44). CVs
 429 (upper panel) and MSCVs for m/z = 44 (bottom panel) can be observed in Figure 4,

430 before (black curves) and after (red curves) potential cycling tests.



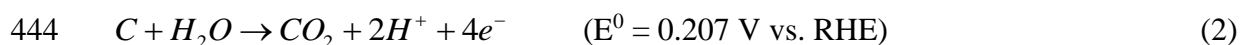
431

432 **Fig. 4.** CVs (upper panels) and MSCVs for CO₂, m/z = 44, (bottom panels) of carbon
433 materials in 0.1 M NaHCO₃ ($v = 5 \text{ mV s}^{-1}$). Black curves: prior to corrosion tests. Red
434 curves: after 200 cycles at 50 mV s^{-1} between 0.9 and 1.6 V vs. RHE.

435

436 Results depend on the nature of the carbon material: CNCs and Vulcan
437 preserved the anodic current and the CO₂ formation at high potentials (1.3-1.6 V),
438 whereas a decrease of both faradaic and ionic (m/z = 44) currents was observed for
439 OMCs and CNFs. Although the origin of this different behaviour is not completely

440 clear, it can be related to differences in the amount of oxygenated species of the NCMs
441 (Table 2) or in the textural properties (Table 1). According to bibliography [17, 70], a
442 high concentration of adsorbed species on the carbon surface facilitates the gasification
443 of carbon to CO₂ following the Equation 2:



445 On the other hand, textural properties play also an important role. A high surface
446 area increases the probability of corrosion. Furthermore, a developed mesoporosity
447 favours the water interaction needed for the formation of oxygenated species, while
448 small pore sizes hinder H₂O diffusion to the active sites. In this context, Vulcan
449 presented a low amount of functional groups and a moderate surface area, and
450 consequently, similar corrosion currents (both faradaic and a CO₂ ionic current) for the
451 first and the 200th cycle were recorded (Figure 4, upper left panel). In contrast, a high
452 content of O atoms nm⁻² was obtained on CNFs due to the treatment with nitric acid,
453 which may be responsible of the high anodic current related to CO₂ production obtained
454 in the first CV (Figure 4, black curve in upper right panel). In addition, although CNFs
455 exhibited the lowest surface area, they present a significant mesoporosity, which may
456 promote carbon corrosion.

457 In the case of OMCs, the noticeable current at potentials above 1.3 V in Figure 4
458 (black curve in bottom right panel) may be attributed to the high surface area of this
459 material and its amorphous character, which enhances carbon corrosion.

460 Finally, CNCs presented the highest oxygen content but similar corrosion
461 currents during anodic cycling (similar CO₂ production after and before long-term
462 corrosion test) (Figure 4, bottom left panel), which may be explained by their textural
463 features. In fact, CNCs presented similar surface area and mesopore contribution than
464 Vulcan and the same behaviour was obtained for both materials.

465 Future works will be designed using the identical location transmission electron
466 microscopy with carbon based electrodes to get insights on morphology changes of
467 NCMs upon potential cycling and carbon oxidation.

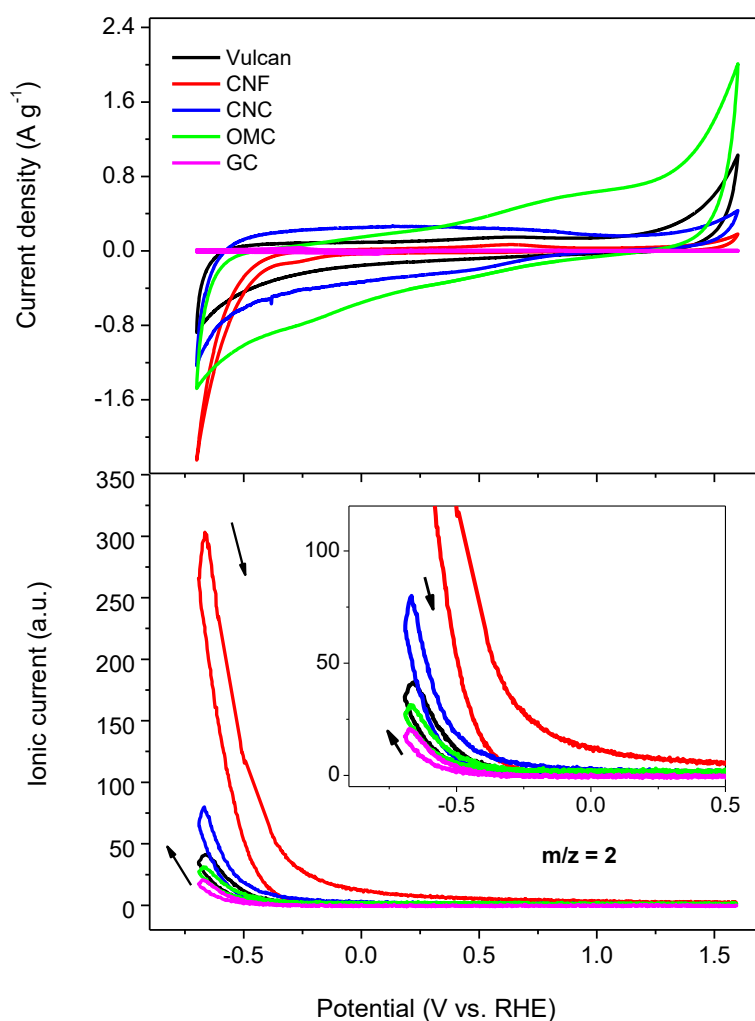
468

469 **3.2.3 Catalytic activity towards the HER**

470 At potentials below 0.0 V vs. RHE, the hydrogen evolution reaction (HER) takes
471 place by water reduction in aqueous electrolytes. H₂ evolution is a key reaction in
472 electrochemical energy conversion devices and a lot of works have studied the activity
473 of carbon-supported electrodes [71, 72]. However, the performance of carbon electrodes
474 has not been widely evaluated [32, 37]. In this work, the activity of carbon catalyst
475 based electrodes toward the hydrogen evolution was also evaluated by DEMS. CVs
476 were recorded in the potential range from -0.7 to 1.6 V at 5 mV s⁻¹ in the base
477 electrolyte. Simultaneously, the mass signal associated with molecular hydrogen (m/z =
478 2) was recorded (Figure 5).

479 It is observed that the HER was favoured in the following order OMC < Vulcan
480 < CNC << CNF. Indeed, a high faradaic current and a large H₂ production (about 15
481 fold times more than the GC used as substrate) was obtained for CNFs with an onset
482 potential at -0.3 V. Conversely, Vulcan and OMCs presented low H₂ formation (more
483 similar to the GC substrate) in the selected potential range. This improved condition for
484 HER on CNFs and CNCs may be ascribed to their highly graphitic character and/or the
485 presence of metal impurities. It has been reported that delocalized π -electrons of
486 graphene layers act as Lewis bases adsorbing protons from solution and thus aiding the
487 evolution of hydrogen at lower overpotentials [73]. The influence of residual metal
488 impurities, even if below 1wt% according to results from ICP, cannot be discarded even
489 if metal appears encapsulated in the carbonaceous matrixes. Nevertheless, metal traces

490 were not detected by XPS analyses and the redox couples associated with the
491 formation/reduction of metal oxides were not detected in the CVs for CNFs and CNCs,
492 so the contribution of metal traces to the total current for application in high hydrogen
493 evolution devices (water electrolyzers) is expected to be low even if the turnover
494 frequency is much higher on metals, since the density of metal active sites is much
495 lower than the ones coming from graphene layers in these materials.



496
497 **Fig. 5.** CVs (upper panel) and MSCVs for H₂, m/z = 2, (bottom panel) of carbon
498 materials in 0.1 M NaHCO₃ ($v = 5 \text{ mV s}^{-1}$).

499

500 It is remarkable that, in the positive-going potential scan, a significant anodic

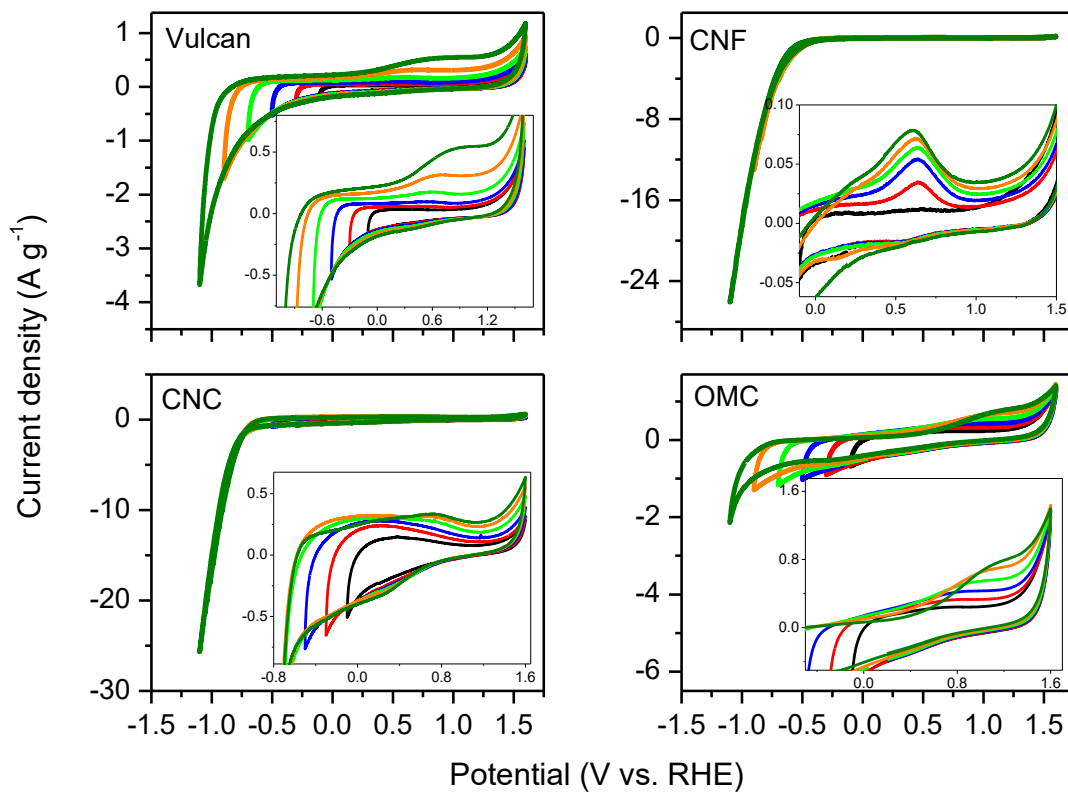
501 peak appears in the region from -0.2 to 1.2 V (Figure 5) for all NCMs, which is related
502 to hydrogen oxidation. It can be better observed by comparison of the voltammograms
503 in the potential region from -0.7 to 1.6 V and the blanks (see Figure S4). The high
504 overvoltage required for hydrogen oxidation suggests that hydrogen formed during the
505 cathodic excursion may penetrate inside the porous structure of the carbon bulk and be
506 retained (absorbed hydrogen) or be adsorbed. Then, during the anodic scan, this
507 hydrogen will be oxidized to protons. Several authors have obtained similar results [39,
508 74-76].

509 In order to study in detail the hydrogen absorption/adsorption capacity of the
510 NCMs, several CVs were recorded at 5 mV s^{-1} in the base electrolyte, with a stepwise (-
511 0.2 V) shift of cut-off potential to more negative values down to -1.1 V. The obtained
512 curves are given in Figure 6. During the first cycling with the cut-off potential at -0.1 V,
513 only a typical charging of the double layer takes place for all the carbons. At potentials
514 below -0.5 V, the hydrogen absorption/adsorption and its posterior oxidation start to be
515 evident for all the samples. All the NCMs displayed higher currents for hydrogen
516 oxidation while shifting the cut-off potential to more negative values (see graphic insets
517 in Figure 6). However, differences in the potential location of the hydrogen oxidation
518 region were obtained.

519 Vulcan and OMCs showed a more and more pronounced hump shift toward the
520 positive direction by cycling to more negative potentials. These results prove that
521 hydrogen adsorbs at these catalysts and this adsorption is stronger (at more energetic
522 sites) as the potential is shifted negatively. Consequently, the hydrogen oxidation
523 gradually requires a higher polarization [39, 74-76].

524 In contrast, the oxidation hump was set at a constant value for CNFs and CNCs,
525 although it is not as evident for the last material due to its wide and not defined

526 hydrogen oxidation region. Considering the CVs in Figure 6, very high currents for
 527 HER were found on these carbons at potentials below -0.7 V, showing that the main
 528 contribution is hydrogen formation. As a consequence, it is concluded that hydrogen is
 529 retained in these samples but the adsorption of hydrogen on high energy places does not
 530 proceed. Therefore, the oxidation of absorbed hydrogen is observed but no shift to more
 531 positive potentials is recorded. Other authors have obtained a low hydrogen-adsorption
 532 capacity on oxidized samples [74, 77].



533

534 **Fig. 6.** Dependence of the voltammetry properties of carbon materials in 0.1 M
 535 NaHCO₃ with the value of negative potential cut-off ($v = 5 \text{ mV s}^{-1}$, stepwise = 200 mV).

536

537

538 It is important to note that the oxidation of hydrogen (hump observed at 0.65 for
 539 CNFs and 0.74 V for CNCs during the anodic scan) overlaps with the current attributed

540 to the quinone/hydroquinone groups (created during the metal remove treatments with
541 nitric acid) [76]. Similarly, these carbons displayed a reduction peak during the cathodic
542 scans, at 0.5 V and 0.3 V, respectively.

543

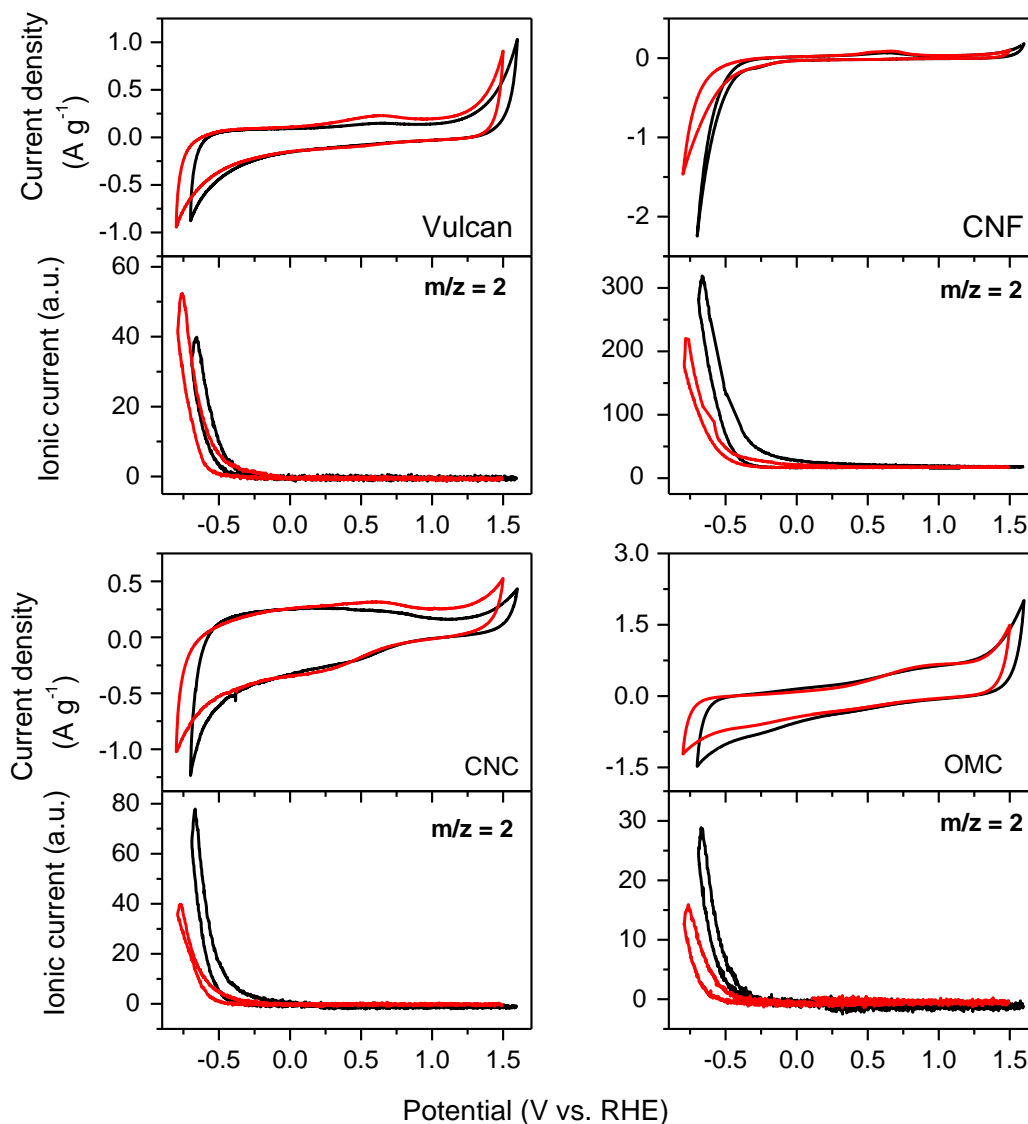
544 ***3.2.4 HER in the presence of CO₂ in the solution: evidences for CO₂ electroreduction***

545 During CO₂ conversion in aqueous electrolytes, the HER occurs as a competitive
546 reaction by the water reduction. However, the presence of adsorbed hydrogen onto the
547 catalyst surface is a requirement for CO₂ activation. Thus, an effective electrode for
548 CO₂ reduction must suppress the HER so that all the adsorbed hydrogen will be
549 consumed only by CO₂ hydrogenation. Recently, high electrocatalytic activities to
550 hydrocarbons and oxygenates have been reported on carbon electrodes [33-36].
551 However, to the best of our knowledge, this is the first work reporting the
552 electrochemical activity for CO₂ reduction of nanostructured carbons by on-line
553 electrochemical mass spectrometry.

554 In this work, DEMS experiments were recorded from -1.4 to 0.9 V vs. Ag/AgCl,
555 with the purpose of studying the electrochemical behavior of the nanostructured carbons
556 toward the CO₂ reduction in parallel to the HER. In order to consider the differences of
557 pH between the electrolytes (8.4 in the electrolyte saturated with N₂ and 6.8 after CO₂
558 saturation), voltammograms were represented versus the RHE using the Equation 3:

$$559 E_{\text{RHE}} = E_{\text{Ag/AgCl}} + 0.21 + 0.059 \text{ pH} \quad (3)$$

560 Figure 7 shows the CVs (upper panel) and the corresponding MSCVs for
561 hydrogen evolution (bottom panel) registered at 5 mV s⁻¹ in the base electrolyte, in
562 absence (black curves) or in presence (red curves) of dissolved CO₂.



563

564 **Fig. 7.** CVs (upper panels) and MSCVs for H₂, $m/z = 2$, (bottom panels) of carbon
 565 materials in 0.1 M NaHCO₃ ($v = 5 \text{ mV s}^{-1}$). Black curves: Ar saturated solution. Red
 566 curves: CO₂ saturated solution.

567

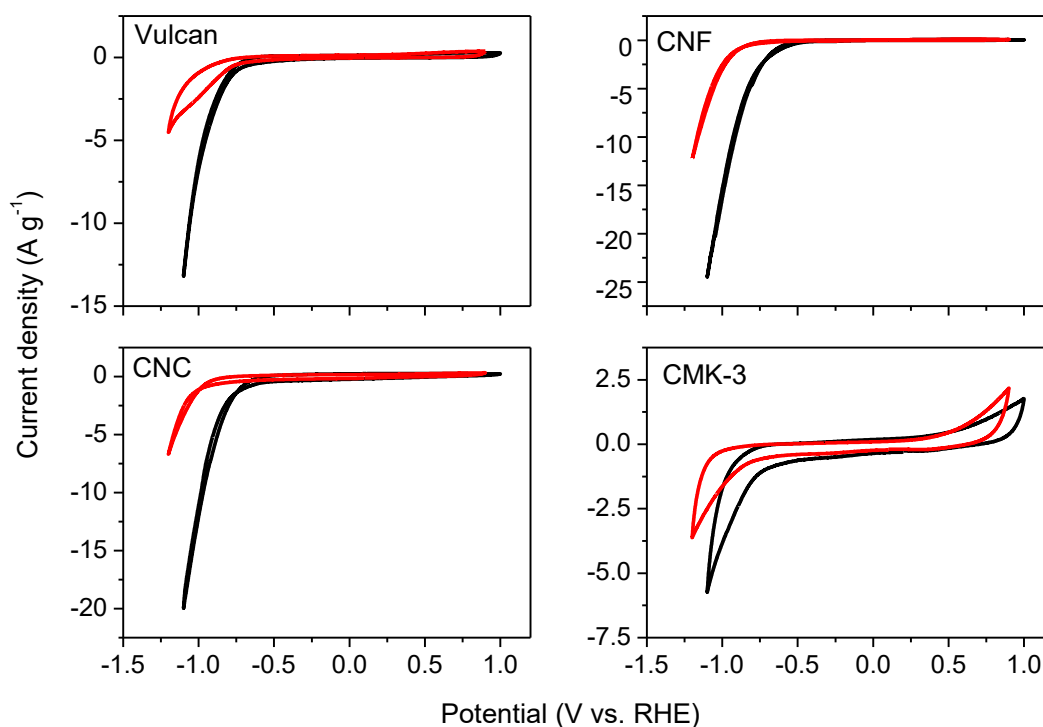
568 In the presence of CO₂, there is a clear shift of the potential for hydrogen
 569 evolution towards more negative values (between 90 and 150 mV negative shift) for all
 570 the nanocarbon catalysts. The evidences are clear in terms of both faradaic and ionic
 571 ($m/z = 2$, H₂) currents. This shift might be ascribed to the adsorption of reduced CO₂-
 572 related species (CO_{2,red}) on the surface of carbon catalysts hindering the adsorption of

573 hydrogen to the catalytic active sites, and therefore, leading to lower hydrogen evolution
574 rates. Among them, the largest decrease of hydrogen evolution rate was observed for the
575 CNF catalyst, with about 50 % lower faradaic and ionic current density. The extent of
576 diminution in HER rate in the presence of CO₂ can be related to the favorable
577 adsorption of (CO_{2,red}) species on the surface of catalytic active sites. This can be
578 interpreted as CNF presenting the highest density of (CO_{2,red}) adsorption sites among all
579 the NCMs herein investigated.

580 According to the bibliography [24, 78, 79], these adsorbates may be mainly
581 CO_{ad}, although the formation of other adsorbed species (such as formates) cannot be
582 discarded. To better identify the possible formation of CO₂ reduction intermediates,
583 current transients stepping the potential from 0.2 to -0.7 V vs. RHE were performed in
584 the CO₂ saturated electrolyte monitoring the mass signals $m/z = 15$ (CH₃⁺: methane), 30
585 (CH₃CH₃⁺ or H₂CO⁺: ethane or formaldehyde), 29 (CH₃CH₂⁺ or CHO⁺: ethane/ethanol
586 or an aldehyde), and 45 (HCHOO⁺ or CH₃CHOH⁺: formic acid or ethanol). The
587 formation of electrolysis products was not detected by DEMS indicating that volatile
588 species were not formed at these potentials. As a consequence, the decrease of HER rate
589 might be ascribed to the reversible adsorption of (CO_{2,red}) species on the surface of
590 carbon but not following the formation of volatile short-chain organic molecules in this
591 potential window.

592 CVs at more negative potentials were carried out for the NCMs from -1.8 V to
593 0.3 V vs. Ag/AgCl (from -1.1 V to 1 V vs. RHE in the case of the electrolyte saturated
594 with Ar and from -1.2 V to 0.9 V vs. RHE in the presence of CO₂) to further research
595 the activity of carbons for CO₂ reduction. The curves in the presence (red curves) and in
596 the absence of dissolved CO₂ (black curves) for each sample are shown in Figure 8.
597 After saturation with CO₂, lower hydrogen evolution cathodic currents were developed

598 for all carbon materials at -1.1 V vs. RHE that those obtained in the CO₂-free solution
599 corroborating the adsorption of species derived from CO₂ reduction.



600

601 **Fig. 8.** CVs of carbon materials in 0.1 M NaHCO₃ ($v = 5 \text{ mV s}^{-1}$) in presence and
602 absence of CO₂. Black curves: Ar saturated solution (from -1.1 V to 1 V vs. RHE). Red
603 curves: CO₂ saturated solution (from -1.2 V to 0.9 V vs. RHE).

604

605 Comparing the faradaic current at -1.1 V in the presence and in the absence of
606 CO₂ (black and red curves in Figure 8), a strong inhibition of the current was obtained
607 on the carbon black Vulcan (76%), CNFs (70%) and CNCs (83%), while a lower value
608 was obtained on OMCs (56%), which could be associated to a lower adsorption of
609 (CO_{2,red}) intermediates on the last carbon surface. In this context, OMCs exhibited a low
610 cathodic current in absence of CO₂ (see Figure 8, black curve) and consequently, a low
611 hydrogen coverage, resulting in a poor affinity for the adsorption of (CO₂)_{red} species.
612 Moreover, it is well established that the depletion of hydrogen ions in the near surface

613 of the electrode/electrolyte influences the catalytic behavior [80-82], which effect on the
614 hydrogen evolution is thus more evident for CNF and CNC. These samples are
615 characterized by the highest values of HER rate both in the base and the CO₂-saturated
616 electrolyte.

617 Finally, significant differences were observed in the HER currents depending on
618 the positive potential limit. On one hand, in the case of the amorphous NCMs (OMCs,
619 Vulcan), when they are cycled up to 1.6 V vs. RHE (Figure 6) the hydrogen evolution
620 current is noticeably lower than when the upper potential is 1.0 V vs. RHE (Figure 8,
621 black curves). More specifically, the current density at -1.1 V vs. RHE decreases from
622 13.3 A g⁻¹ to 3.7 A g⁻¹ for Vulcan (72%) and from 5.8 A g⁻¹ to 2.1 A g⁻¹ for OMCs
623 (64%) when cycling up to 1.6 V vs. RHE. The amorphous nature of carbon together
624 with the narrower porosity of these NCMs lead to the accumulation of oxygenated
625 species during the electrochemical oxidation at highly positive potentials, which results
626 in a decrease of the number of available active sites for HER. Whereas, in the case of
627 CNFs and CNCs there is a slight increase of current (~10%) when cycling up to 1.6 V
628 vs. RHE. Being less prone to corrosion, the catalytically active sites for HER in
629 graphitic carbons are not affected negatively upon applying highly positive potentials
630 but appear to be slightly more active or new active sites are created. Insights on this
631 phenomena will be studied by investigated the morphology of carbon materials by
632 identical location TEM analyses in the future.

633

634 **4. Conclusions**

635 In this work, the electrochemical and electrocatalytic performances of
636 nanostructured carbon electrodes (CNFs, CNCs, OMCs, Vulcan XC-72R) has been
637 studied by on-line differential electrochemical mass spectrometry (DEMS) in moderate

638 alkaline media (0.1 M NaHCO₃). The capacitance of the different materials is directly
639 related to their surface area and hydrophilicity, as derived from the chemical
640 characterization. DEMS results showed that the faradaic current in the base electrolyte
641 from 1.3 to 1.6 V vs. RHE were associated only with the CO₂ formation (m/z = 44) by
642 carbon corrosion and not with oxygen evolution (m/z = 32). Additionally, it was found
643 that an increase of the graphitic character of the carbons resulted in a decrease of CO₂
644 generation due to the lower amount of surface defects in graphitic carbons.

645 On the other hand, spectro-electrochemical measurements showed a different
646 activity toward the H₂ evolution reaction (m/z = 2), being the reaction favored on the
647 most graphitic carbon (CNFs) with an ionic current for m/z = 2 signal 15 fold times
648 higher than the GC used as substrate.

649 Finally, H₂ evolution reaction was studied in the presence of CO₂ for evaluation
650 of the materials in the electrochemical reduction of CO₂. A significant decrease in the
651 cathodic current developed in the H₂ evolution region (from -0.5 to -1.1 V vs. RHE)
652 was obtained in a CO₂-saturated 0.1 M NaHCO₃ solution for all carbon materials, which
653 demonstrates the adsorption of species derived from CO₂ reduction at all carbon
654 surfaces. However, volatile organic products were not detected by DEMS.

655

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661

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