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1 **Selectivity modulation during electrochemical reduction of nitrate by**
2 **electrolyte engineering**

3
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19

20 **Abstract**

21 This article explores how electrolyte engineering can control product selectivity and kinetics of
22 electrochemical reduction of nitrate (ERN). This is an alternative approach to the conventional catalyst
23 engineering methodology for controlling the electrode/electrolyte interface and impact on ERN activity and
24 selectivity. Electrolytic treatment was conducted in a membrane-less plug flow reactor (PFR) under batch
25 recirculation using a tin cathode. Operational parameters related to solution flow rate, mass transport
26 regime, initial pH, and dissolved oxygen demonstrated to have negligible impact on nitrate (NO_3^-) removal
27 under the operation conditions studied. In stark contrast, the presence of different alkali cations in solution
28 (Li^+ , Na^+ , K^+ and Cs^+) sharply impacted on NO_3^- removal rate and steered product selectivity in ERN, as
29 well as they did it for the case of nitrite (NO_2^-) reduction reaction. An evident increase in ammonia (NH_3)
30 production is achieved in both NO_3^- and NO_2^- removal by following the order $\text{Li}^+ < \text{Na}^+ \approx \text{K}^+ < \text{Cs}^+$. These
31 close tendencies observed for NO_3^- and NO_2^- reduction reactions point out the electrostatic effect stabilizing
32 negatively charged species at the electrode interface as the main responsible of selectivity modulation
33 through electrolyte engineering. Thus, we present the first evidence of a significant shift in products
34 selectivity in ERN from N_{gas} towards NH_3 production on tin electrodes by tuning the electrode-electrolyte
35 interface with suitable cations. Furthermore, an approximately 2-fold decrease in electrical energy per order
36 is achieved by solutions containing Cs^+ instead of Li^+ for both NO_3^- and NO_2^- reduction reactions. These
37 results open the pathway towards understanding interfacial impacts associated to different ionic species
38 present in solution that can enhance electrochemical pollutants removal, and resource recovery, as well as
39 lowering the process cost.

40

41 **Keywords:** Nitrate/nitrite-nitrogen pollution; Electrochemical water treatment; Tin electrode material;
42 Product selectivity; Alkali cation

43

44 **1. Introduction**

45 Nitrate (NO_3^-) is considered one of the ten most frequently reported drinking water quality violations
46 worldwide and commonly found at concentrations above the maximum contaminant level ($\text{MCL} > 10 \text{ mg}$
47 $\text{NO}_3^- \text{-N L}^{-1}$) [1,2]. During the last century, due to the anthropogenic nitrogen fertilizer inputs, NO_3^-
48 concentrations in surface and ground waters have dramatically increased [3]. Exposure to NO_3^- levels above
49 MCL in drinking water may lead to serious health risks in humans such as respiratory problems and cancer
50 [4–7]. To overcome this challenge that affects ca. 45 million people in the US [2,8], different water
51 treatment processes based on biological and physical methodologies have been applied to remove NO_3^-
52 from aquatic streams. However, the requirement of large facilities and post-treatment of waste generated
53 from those technologies became a major drawback for small water systems at household level for people
54 that rely on unmonitored wells [9–13]. For this reason, decentralized NO_3^- polluted water treatment by
55 electrocatalytic processes represents an emerging and sustainable alternative technology to conventional
56 methods [14].

57 A significant percentage of the electrochemical reduction of nitrate (ERN)-related literature corresponds to
58 the study of electrode materials that can selectively reduce NO_3^- to innocuous nitrogen gas (N_2) [15–20]
59 Additionally, ERN has recently gained attention for the green production of an interesting added value
60 product: ammonium ion (NH_4^+) or ammonia (NH_3) contributing to advance circular economy strategies and
61 at the same time decreasing the high costs associated to the Haber-Bosh process [21,22]. The
62 electrochemical process may therefore promote a sustainable decentralized ammonia recovery where
63 enriched water for crops irrigation can be a potential application for this added value product [23]. So far,
64 the electrocatalyst tailored design has been the preferred methodology for controlling the
65 electrode/electrolyte interface and impact on ERN. This is mainly focused on varying the electrode material
66 composition through crystallographic plane control [24,25], alloys [26,27], nanocomposite engineering
67 [28,29], or single-atom control [30,31]. Lately, Cu-Co-based materials concentrate a lot of attention for
68 enhancing ammonia production [32–37]. However, little attention has been paid to the effect that the
69 electrolyte, and particularly the cations, may have on the ERN activity and selectivity control, as well as on

70 the process cost. The electrolyte/electrode interface is where electrochemical reactions take place. Thus,
71 modulating the interfacial phenomena by varying the cation electrolyte might affect the local electric field,
72 the interfacial pH and/or the stabilization of reaction intermediates during the electrochemical reaction [38].
73 A few attempts to study the nature of the supporting electrolyte on ERN were reported [39,40]. But, to the
74 best of our knowledge, this is the first time that the study of electrolyte composition is applied to both NO_3^-
75 and nitrite (NO_2^-) reduction reactions using a batch recirculating plug flow reactor (PFR) under
76 galvanostatic conditions, which represent feasible conditions in large-scale applications.
77 This manuscript studies a broad variety of alkali cations (Li^+ , Na^+ , K^+ and Cs^+) in solution for exploring the
78 shift in selectivity from N_2 to NH_3 production during ERN on a Sn cathode, which is a well-established
79 active catalyst for N_2 and poor catalyst for NH_3 production [15,41,42]. This represents a proof of concept
80 for the electrolyte engineering strategy applied to water pollutants remediation, which is based on tuning
81 the electrode/electrolyte interfacial electric field [43–46] and represents a powerful and low-cost alternative
82 to alloying or modifying the morphology of the electrode material in electrocatalytic reactions. Moreover,
83 fundamental understanding on how electrolyte composition may steer selectivity and kinetics is essential,
84 since electrocatalysts are generally evaluated in ultrapure solutions containing only NO_3^- . Thus, NO_3^- and
85 NO_2^- reduction rates and products selectivity are reported here together with engineering figures of merit,
86 such as electrical energy per order (EE/O). Herein, it is demonstrated that the preferential selectivity of Sn
87 for N_2 evolution can be shifted towards NH_3 production at low NO_3^- concentration in an alkaline solution
88 by controlling the nature of the cation present in the electrode-electrolyte interface.

89

90 **2. Materials and methods**

91 *2.1 Chemicals*

92 The following chemicals, purchased from Sigma-Aldrich, were used to prepare solutions using ultrapure
93 water with resistivity $>18.2 \text{ M}\Omega \text{ cm}$ at $25 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ (Elga Purelab Flex, Veolia Water Technologies): sodium
94 nitrate (NaNO_3 , $\geq 99.0\%$), sodium nitrite (NaNO_2 , $\geq 99.0\%$), ammonium sulfate ($(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$, 99.5%),
95 cesium hydroxide (CsOH , 99.95%), lithium hydroxide (LiOH , 98.0%), potassium hydroxide (KOH , $>$

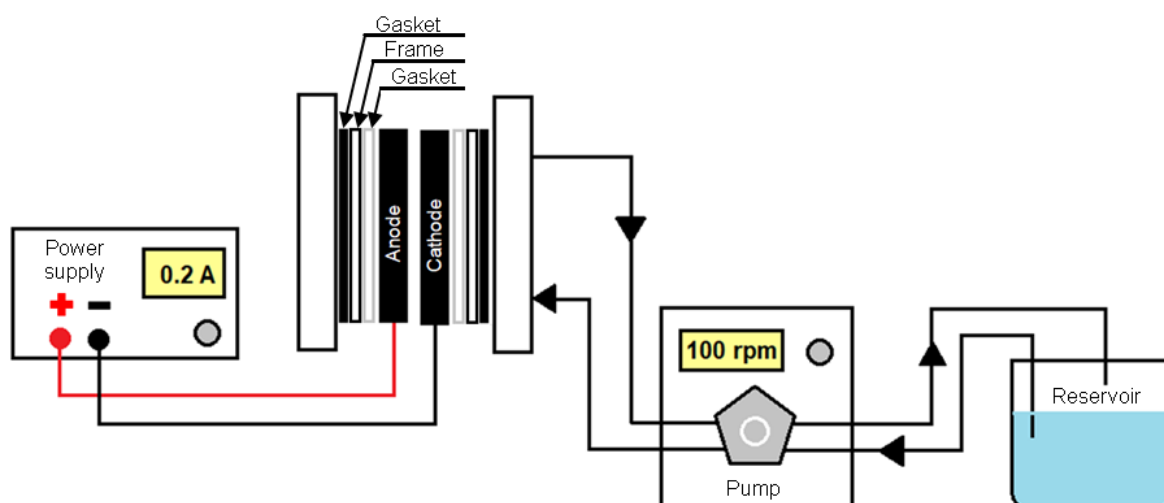
96 85.0%), sodium hydroxide (NaOH, 99.2%) and sulfamic (amidosulfonic) acid ($\text{H}_2\text{NSO}_3\text{H}$, $\geq 99\%$). These
97 reagents were of analytical grade and were used without further purification.

98

99 2.2 Electrolysis set-up and operation

100 Electrocatalytic reductions were carried out in a commercially available batch recirculating membrane-less
101 plug flow reactor (PFR) from ElectroCell Europe A/S. The scheme of the reactor configuration is illustrated
102 in Figure 1. The reactor contains a mass transfer promoter between the electrodes. The ERN electrolysis
103 setup treats 200 mL of a single solution under recirculation at 25 °C testing different flow rates (4.2, 21,
104 and 105 mL min^{-1}) with a peristaltic pump (MasterFlex L/S). All experiments were operated under
105 galvanostatic conditions at 20 mA cm^{-2} for 180 min using a power supply TENMA 72-2720 DC.
106 Commercial tin (Sn – 99.99%, Alfa Aesar) and a Ti/IrO₂ dimensional stable anode (from ElectroCell
107 Europe A/S) plates were used as cathode and anode materials, respectively. The Sn plate active area is
108 considered equivalent to its geometrical surface area (10 cm^2). The interelectrode gap distance between
109 cathode and anode is 4.0 mm. To guarantee a similar and homogeneous initial texture, the surface of the tin
110 cathode was polished with sandpaper (P400 and P1200 grit) before each new electrolysis.

111



112 **Figure 1.** Set-up of the electrochemical reduction system.

113

114 To study the electrochemical reduction of NO_3^- and NO_2^- , different solution compositions were prepared:

115 (i) 100 mg L^{-1} NO_3^- -N (from NaNO_3) and 50 mM Na_2SO_4 at neutral initial pH (5.85 ± 0.21).

116 (ii) 100 mg L^{-1} NO_3^- -N (from NaNO_3), 50 mM Na_2SO_4 and 0.01 mol L^{-1} NaOH at pH (12.03 ± 0.25).

117 (iii) 100 mg L^{-1} NO_3^- -N (from NaNO_3), 50 mM Na_2SO_4 and 0.01 mol L^{-1} NaOH at pH (12.03 ± 0.25)
118 deaerated solution (Ar bubbling).

119 (iv) 20 mg L^{-1} NO_3^- -N (from NaNO_3) and 0.02 mol L^{-1} of electrolyte (CsOH, LiOH, KOH or NaOH)
120 at alkaline pH (12.03 ± 0.25).

121 (v) 20 mg L^{-1} NO_2^- -N (from NaNO_2) and 0.02 mol L^{-1} of electrolyte (CsOH, LiOH, KOH or NaOH) at
122 alkaline pH (12.03 ± 0.25).

123 Most of the NO_3^- -contaminated natural treated effluents correspond to unbuffered solutions at neutral pH
124 such as solution (i) [47–50]. However, ERN at the cathode provokes the progressive alkalization of the
125 solution during the electrolysis, reaching very rapidly a stabilized value of the solution pH in the range 11-
126 12 [15] (see Figure S1). Thus, alkaline solutions of NO_3^- or NO_2^- (ii, iii, iv and v, respectively), were used
127 to study the influence of dissolved O_2 and the impact of individual cations in solution. In addition to this,
128 the amount Na^+ initially present in the NO_3^- and NO_2^- salts (NaNO_3 and NaNO_2) was minimized to
129 individually address the impact of other alkali cations in solution different than Na^+ . Then, the molar ratio
130 of cations in solutions (iv) and (v) coming from the hydroxide is 14-fold larger than those coming from the
131 NO_3^- or NO_2^- source salt. Samples were collected and analyzed for aqueous nitrogen species and pH all
132 along the electrolysis. Experiments were performed in duplicate and deviations between them were lower
133 than 5% for all trials.

134

135 2.3 Reactor characterization

136 The Reynolds number (Re) helps predict flow patterns in different fluid flow situations by measuring the
137 ratio of inertial and viscous forces. This parameter is determined in PFR following (Eq. 1) [51].

$$Re = \frac{\rho d_{hyd} u_{avg}}{\mu} \quad (1)$$

138 where, ρ corresponds to the density of the solution (kg m^{-3}), μ to the dynamic viscosity (Pa s), d_{hyd} to the
 139 equivalent hydraulic diameter of the flow path (m) and u_{avg} to the mean liquid cross-flow velocity. The
 140 d_{hyd} is a function of the breadth of the channel, which corresponds to 0.031 m in this case (B in Eq (2))
 141 and the interelectrode distance in the cell, which corresponds to 0.004 m in this case (S in Eq. (2)).

$$d_{hyd} = \frac{4 BS}{2(B + S)} \quad (2)$$

142 The u_{avg} is calculated using Eq. (3).

$$u_{avg} = \frac{Q}{\varepsilon BS} \quad (3)$$

143 where Q is the liquid volumetric flow rate ($\text{m}^3 \text{s}^{-1}$), ε is the porosity of the volume between the electrodes
 144 (accounting for the presence of the mass transfer promoter), and the product BS corresponds to the cross-
 145 sectional area perpendicular to the mean velocity.

146

147 *2.4 Analytical techniques*

148 The pH of the solution before and after treatment was measured using a pH meter Mettler Toledo Five
 149 Easy. The concentration of nitrogenated species in solution (NO_3^- , NO_2^- , and NH_3) was
 150 spectrophotometrically analyzed over time by a UV-vis spectrophotometer model DR1900 (HACH) using
 151 commercially available colorimetric kits: LCK 339 ($\text{mg NO}_3\text{-N L}^{-1}$), LCK 341 ($\text{mg NO}_2\text{-N L}^{-1}$) and LCK
 152 304 ($\text{mg NH}_3\text{-N L}^{-1}$). In some cases, if the NO_2^- concentration is higher than 2.0 mg L^{-1} might interfere in
 153 the spectrophotometric NO_3^- quantification and produce high-bias results. To solve this, 50 mg of sulfamic
 154 (amidosulfonic) acid ($\text{H}_2\text{NSO}_3\text{H}$) were added to 5.0 mL of sample before NO_3^- quantification to remove
 155 any NO_2^- interference by sequestration.

156 The conversion (NC) of the initial oxyanion pollutant ($x = \text{NO}_3^-$ or NO_2^-) was calculated using Eq. (4).

$$NC_x(\%) = \frac{C_{x,0} - C_{x,t}}{C_{x,0}} \times 100 \quad (4)$$

157 where $C_{x,0}$ is the concentration of the oxyanion pollutant in $\text{mg } x\text{-N L}^{-1}$ at time zero, and $C_{x,t}$ is the
 158 concentration of the oxyanion pollutant at time (t). Previous works that quantified N-gas species evolution

159 (i.e., N₂, NO, NO₂ or N₂O) demonstrated that in most cases all the obtained gas corresponded to N₂ [52,53].
 160 The quantification of gaseous nitrogen (N_{gas}) species was determined from mass balances on aqueous
 161 nitrogen species and assumed to be preferentially N₂. Some NH₃ volatilization might occur near or above
 162 the pK_a of 9.25 for NH₄⁺/NH₃ (this is the case of solutions *ii*, *iii*, *iv* and *v*), but the Henry's constant is not
 163 very large and such losses from solution of NH₃ gas would be highly depending upon mixing or gas-purging
 164 conditions. Figure S2 reports an electrolysis at 20 mA cm⁻² using NH₃ as the model pollutant at pH 12,
 165 which demonstrates that NH₃ volatilization is negligible in all experiments reported here. The selectivity
 166 towards nitrite (S_{NO₂⁻}), N_{gas} evolution (S_{N_{gas}}) and ammonia (S_{NH₃}) was calculated using Eq. (5).

$$S_y(\%) = \frac{C_y}{C_{x,0} - C_{x,t}} \times 100 \quad (5)$$

167 where C_y represents the concentration (mg N L⁻¹) of a species produced over time, y = NO₂⁻, N_{gas} or NH₃.
 168 Electrical energy per order (EE/O), was used as an engineering figure of merit to benchmark the electric
 169 energy required to reduce the concentration of the model pollutant by one order of magnitude in a unit
 170 volume calculated from Eq. (6) for batch recirculation operation mode despite using a plug-flow reactor.

$$EE/O(kWh m^{-3} order^{-1}) = \frac{E_{cell}It}{V_s \log(C_0/C_t)} \quad (6)$$

171 where E_{cell} is the average of the cell potential (V), I is current intensity (A), t is time (h), V_s is solution
 172 volume treated (L), and C₀ and C_t are the initial and final concentration after one order of magnitude
 173 reduction.

174

175 **3. Results and discussion**

176 *3.1 Effect of the residence time of the NO₃⁻ solution in a batch recirculating plug flow reactor (PFR)*

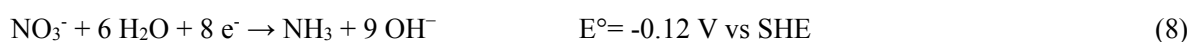
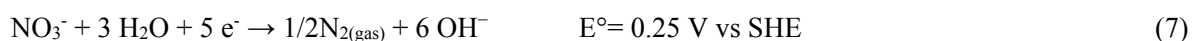
177 ERN in the PFR was evaluated at three different solution flow rates 4.2, 21 and 105 mL min⁻¹, which
 178 correspond to Reynolds numbers Re= 5, Re= 25 and Re= 123, respectively. These Re are representative of
 179 a laminar flow, but susceptible to being disrupted by the mass transfer promoter within the cell. The
 180 different hydrodynamic conditions result in different residence times of the electroactive species within the

181 reactor being shorter for higher flow-rates [51,54]. Moreover, the frequency of the NO_3^- in contact with the
 182 cathode in a recirculating reactor is also impacted by the flow rate, being higher for higher flow-rates.
 183 Figure 2 shows that NO_3^- removal after 180 min of electrolysis at initial pH 5.85 attain statistically the same
 184 NO_3^- conversion of ca. 57% for flow rates of 4.2 mL min^{-1} and 21.0 mL min^{-1} , but slightly higher removal
 185 of 66% for 105 mL min^{-1} . These results indicate that the frequency of the NO_3^- in contact with the cathode
 186 is more relevant than the residence time of NO_3^- within the recirculating reactor. Moreover, E_{cell} is similar
 187 among the different flow rates tested ($E_{\text{cell} - 4.2 \text{ mL min}^{-1}} = 4.6 \text{ V}$, $E_{\text{cell} - 21 \text{ mL min}^{-1}} = 4.5 \text{ V}$ and
 188 $E_{\text{cell} - 105 \text{ mL min}^{-1}} = 4.4 \text{ V}$). Nevertheless, the product selectivity (S) values for N_{gas} and NH_3 for each
 189 experiment remained constant. Resulting in a predominant selectivity of 70 – 73% for N_{gas} over the 18 –
 190 20% for NH_3 . These results support the fact that Sn cathode was selected in the present work for exploring
 191 the shift in selectivity from N_2 to NH_3 , since it is a model electrode material for N_{gas} production from ERN.
 192 The main product from ERN and the selectivity ratio as $S_{\text{N}_{\text{gas}}}/S_{\text{NH}_3}$ remain constant independently of the
 193 type of mass transfer and residence time within the reactor. EE/O presented similar values $\sim 36 \text{ kWh m}^{-3}$
 194 order^{-1} for the lower flow rate conditions. However, the increased removal percentage observed at 105 mL
 195 m^{-1} resulted in a slight decrease of 20% in the EE/O to $29 \text{ kWh m}^{-3} \text{ order}^{-1}$. These results suggest that higher
 196 flow rates may contribute to enhance mass transport and conversion if the solution is recirculated.

197

198 3.2 On the impact of pH control and dissolved O_2

199 During ERN at the cathode, there is the concomitant formation of hydroxyl anions at a high rate following
 200 Reactions (7) and (8) [55,56], which drastically change the pH at the proximity of the electrode and in the
 201 bulk. Figure S1 illustrates the fast pH change from neutral to alkaline (ca. 10.0) in only 5 min. A final pH
 202 value of 11.2 is reached at the end of 180 min electrolysis treatment. This pH increase is a commonly
 203 observed feature in unbuffered treated solutions, independently of the electrode material [57].

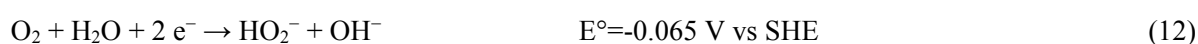
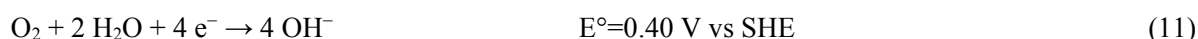
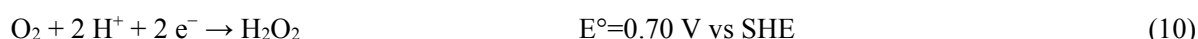
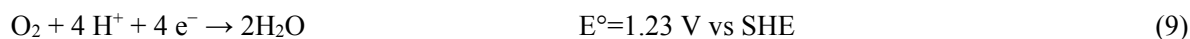


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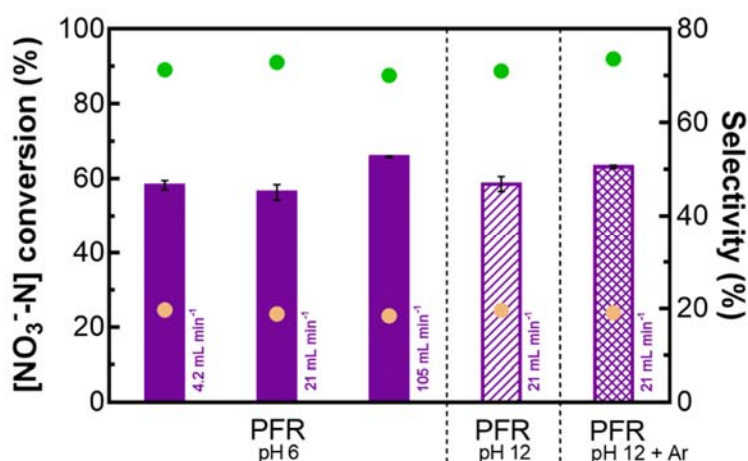
205 For this reason, an electrolysis for ERN at 21 mL min⁻¹ and starting from an initial pH 12 solution (through
206 base addition, i.e., NaOH) was performed to infer the pH effect (Fig. 2). At this initial pH, the electrolysis
207 was pH-controlled since this initial value barely fluctuated over electrolysis time (see Figure S1). Sodium
208 hydroxide is a common base used to rise pH during treatment and it was selected given its inert character
209 as electrolyte in the electrochemical system. The pH-controlled electrolysis shown in Fig. 2 led to a NO₃⁻
210 conversion of 59%, with *S* values for N_{gas} of 71% and NH₃ of 20%, and EE/O of 31 kWh m⁻³ order⁻¹. These
211 results at pH 12 are not significantly different from the performance of the electrolysis using a solution at
212 an initial pH 6 under the same experimental conditions ([NO₃⁻-N] conversion = 57%, *S*_{N₂} = 73%, *S*_{NH₃} =
213 19% and EE/O = 36 kWh m⁻³ order⁻¹), according to a statistical two-sample *t*-test analysis based on obtained
214 *p*-value of 0.206. These results imply a negligible impact of alkaline pH control on the overall ERN activity,
215 selectivity, and the corresponding figures of merit. Thus, experiments were conducted at pH 12.0 from this
216 point on.

217 The presence of dissolved oxygen gas in solution (≈ 0.26 mM) [58,59] represents a relevant factor to study,
218 since could interfere in the ERN performance due to the concomitant oxygen reduction reaction (ORR).
219 The ORR under acidic conditions can lead to the production of H₂O (Reaction (9)) and/or H₂O₂ (Reaction
220 (10)). Whereas, under alkaline pH the formation of OH⁻ (Reaction (11)) and HO₂⁻ (Reaction (12)) products
221 from ORR are favored [60–63]. A continuous flow of an inert gas within the treated solution has been
222 suggested to eliminate any contribution from ORR to the global reduction process [56]. Thus, to evaluate
223 the effect of dissolved O₂ on the performance of ERN, solutions were deaerated with argon (Ar) gas. Then,
224 the bubbling of Ar was maintained thereafter during the entire electrolytic treatment. According to Fig. 2,
225 the trial at 21 mL min⁻¹ bubbling Ar in a solution at pH 12, led to [NO₃⁻-N] conversion = 63%, *S*_{N₂} = 74%,
226 *S*_{NH₃} = 19% and EE/O = 30 kWh m⁻³ order⁻¹. Although the statistical two-sample *t*-test analysis shows a
227 significant difference for NO₃⁻ removal based on obtained *p*-value of 0.002 between this experiment and
228 the one in the presence of dissolved oxygen gas in solution, the difference among those values remains
229 within the experimental error. Thus, these results may indicate that the presence of a very low concentration

230 of dissolved oxygen coming from air does not inhibit or significantly compete with the ERN. Therefore, it
 231 is concluded that the slight increase on NO_3^- removal attained by removing O_2 during ERN electrolysis is
 232 not justified given the increased complexity that large scale systems will face to remove dissolved oxygen
 233 during treatment.



234



235 **Figure 2.** Nitrate conversion (bars) and selectivity towards N_{gas} (●) and NH_3 (●) obtained for the treatment
 236 of $100 \text{ mg NO}_3^- \text{-N L}^{-1}$ at 20 mA cm^{-2} and initial pH 6 or pH 12, with and without argon (Ar) bubbling, after
 237 180 min, using a batch recirculation plug flow reactor (PFR) reactor at 4.2 mL min^{-1} , 21 mL min^{-1} and 105
 238 mL min^{-1} , respectively.

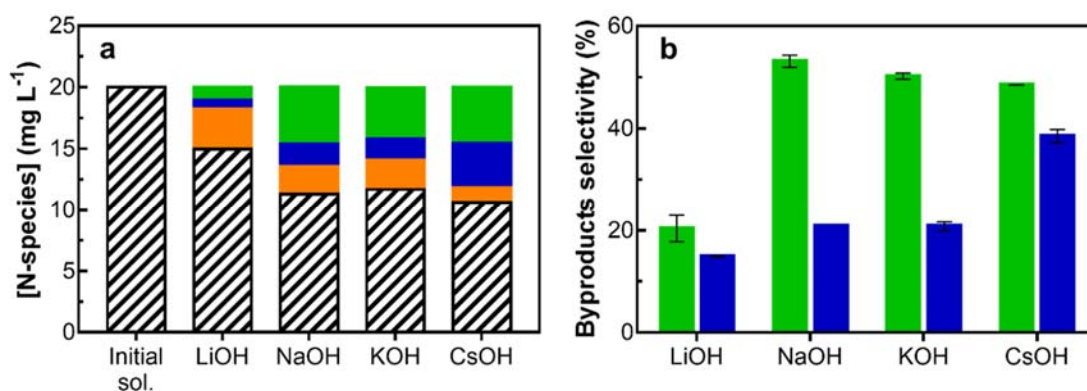
239

240 3.3 Effect of alkali metal cations at the electrode-electrolyte interface during ERN

241 The effect of the supporting electrolyte containing different alkali cations such as lithium (Li^+), sodium
 242 (Na^+), potassium (K^+), and cesium (Cs^+) in low ionic strength pH 12 solutions on the ERN performance on
 243 Sn cathode is evaluated in this subsection. In particular, low ionic strength solutions are selected for

244 minimizing the presence of the counter cation from the nitrate source, as well as to mimic nitrate content
 245 in contaminated natural effluents [64]. These alkali species are susceptible to forming ionic pairs with
 246 negatively charged NO_3^- affecting its transport towards the negatively charged cathodic surface. Only
 247 monovalent alkali cations are studied here because it was demonstrated in a previous work [55] that divalent
 248 cations such as calcium (Ca^{2+}) and magnesium (Mg^{2+}) contribute to the scaling formation at the electrode
 249 surface. Figure 3a presents the evolution of N-species (mg-N L^{-1}) after 180 min of electrolysis for ERN. As
 250 can be observed, the NO_3^- concentration decreases from its initial value of $20.0 \text{ mg NO}_3^- \text{-N L}^{-1}$, regardless
 251 of the supporting electrolyte used. However, the final NO_3^- concentrations were clearly affected by the
 252 nature of the cation present in solution. The NO_3^- conversion (and pseudo-first order kinetic constants) in
 253 each case were: 25% ($k_1=2.7 \times 10^{-5} \text{ s}^{-1}$), 41% ($k_1=5.0 \times 10^{-5} \text{ s}^{-1}$), 44% ($k_1=5.3 \times 10^{-5} \text{ s}^{-1}$) and 47% ($k_1=5.9 \times 10^{-5}$
 254 s^{-1}) using LiOH, KOH, NaOH and CsOH, respectively. Table 1 summarizes key parameters such as the
 255 NO_3^- conversion and the selectivity towards NO_2^- , N_{gas} , and NH_3 for each electrolyte.
 256 Thus, NO_3^- conversion is hardly impacted by the presence of Li^+ in solution. However, the presence of Na^+ ,
 257 K^+ or Cs^+ at low concentration display a minor effect on NO_3^- removal, which contrasts with some previous
 258 results reported for ERN in high ionic strength solutions [40]. Notably, product selectivity was severely
 259 impacted by the nature of the monovalent cation in solution as shown in Figure 3b and Table 1. The first
 260 alkali metal of the group (Li^+) favors the accumulation of NO_2^- and hinders further reduction to the final
 261 products. Nitrite reaches the highest concentration of $3.3 \text{ mg NO}_2^- \text{-N L}^{-1}$ with $S_{\text{NO}_2^-} = 65\%$ resulting in a
 262 poor selectivity ratio for N_{gas} ($S_{\text{N}_{\text{gas}}}/S_{\text{NO}_2^-} = 0.3$). In contrast, more bulky cations such as Cs^+ at the end of
 263 the alkali group increases the product selectivity for NH_3 generation ($3.6 \text{ mg NH}_3 \text{-N L}^{-1}$ and $S_{\text{NH}_3} = 39\%$),
 264 together with a more favorable product selectivity ratio for NH_3 ($S_{\text{N}_{\text{gas}}}/S_{\text{NH}_3} = 1.3$). The higher selectivity
 265 towards NH_3 for Sn electrocatalyst is a stark contrast to the usual reported values in literature generally <
 266 20 % for Na^+ containing electrolytes, in which N_{gas} evolution was always the main product formed from
 267 ERN [15,65]. These differences suggest that electrolyte engineering may impact kinetics and selectivity
 268 based on the transport of not only NO_3^- but the ionic pair NO_3^- -monovalent cation, which depending on

269 their affinity may affect coverage of N-species on the interface. Note that larger N-coverage might be
 270 required to favor the evolution for N_{gas} by the required formation of $N\equiv N$ bonds during the cathodic
 271 reduction. Bulky cations such as Cs^+ may decrease N-coverage steering selectivity towards formation of
 272 NH_3 . Despite N_{gas} remain as the main formed product from ERN in the presence of either NaOH, KOH and
 273 CsOH; the S_{NH_3} increases by 2.6-fold when transitioning from LiOH to CsOH (from 15% to 39%).
 274 Moreover, Table 1 shows a very different accumulation of NO_2^- in solution as a function of the alkali cation
 275 in the electrolyte, from $S_{\text{NO}_2^-} = 65\%$ in presence of Li^+ to $S_{\text{NO}_2^-} = 13\%$ in presence of Cs^+ , which might be
 276 due to additional ionic pairs formed between NO_2^- and monovalent cations in solution. To understand more
 277 deeply this selectivity shift observed on ERN by varying the cation present in the electrode-electrolyte
 278 interface, additional electrolysis starting from nitrite ($20.0 \text{ mg NO}_2^- \text{-N L}^{-1}$) as the model pollutant in the
 279 presence of different electrolytes containing Li^+ , Na^+ , K^+ and Cs^+ in low ionic strength pH 12 solutions on
 280 a Sn cathode were also performed.
 281



282 **Figure 3.** (a) Concentration of N-species (▨ NO_3^- -N, ■ NO_2^- -N, ■ NH_3 -N, ■ N_{gas} -N) and (b) selectivity
 283 towards N_{gas} (■) and NH_3 (■) for the electrolysis of $20 \text{ mg NO}_3^- \text{-N L}^{-1}$ at 20 mA cm^{-2} after 180 min, using
 284 0.02 M of different supporting electrolytes (LiOH, NaOH, KOH and CsOH) at pH 12 in a PFR.
 285

286 **Table 1.** Key fitted and calculated parameters from the electroreduction of 20 mg NO₃⁻-N L⁻¹ or 20 mg
 287 NO₂⁻-N L⁻¹ in different electrolytes at 20 mA cm⁻² and 180 min of treatment time.

Pollutant	Electrolyte	E _{cell} (V)	Pollutant conversion (%)	k ₁ ×10 ⁻⁵ (s ⁻¹)	S _{NO₂⁻} (%)	S _{NO₃⁻} (%)	S _{N_{gas}} (%)	S _{NH₃} (%)
Nitrate	LiOH	5.9 ± 0.2	25 ± 1	2.7 ± 0.1	65 ± 1	-	20 ± 3	15 ± 1
	NaOH	5.9 ± 0.2	44 ± 1	5.3 ± 0.1	26 ± 1	-	53 ± 1	21 ± 1
	KOH	5.9 ± 0.1	41 ± 1	5.0 ± 0.1	29 ± 1	-	50 ± 1	21 ± 1
	CsOH	5.6 ± 0.2	47 ± 2	5.9 ± 0.4	13 ± 1	-	49 ± 1	39 ± 1
Nitrite	LiOH	6.0 ± 0.1	36 ± 3	4.2 ± 0.5	-	61 ± 4	25 ± 1	14 ± 2
	NaOH	5.9 ± 0.1	52 ± 1	6.8 ± 0.1	-	33 ± 1	49 ± 1	18 ± 1
	KOH	6.0 ± 0.1	54 ± 2	7.2 ± 0.3	-	39 ± 2	44 ± 1	18 ± 1
	CsOH	5.6 ± 0.1	58 ± 1	8.1 ± 0.1	-	29 ± 1	36 ± 4	36 ± 4

288

289 *3.4 Effect of alkali metal cations at the electrode-electrolyte interface during NO₂⁻ reduction*

290 Figure 4a shows that the reduction of nitrite (20.0 mg NO₂⁻-N L⁻¹) follows a very similar trend to that
 291 obtained for NO₃⁻ removal (Figure 3a). After 180 min of treatment, the LiOH electrolyte remains the
 292 medium with the lowest pollutant conversion (36%), whereas the CsOH medium led to the highest NO₂⁻
 293 removal (58%). The intermediate positions were relegated to NaOH and KOH, with 52% and 55%,
 294 respectively. The final concentrations of NO₂⁻ (and pseudo-first order kinetic constants) were: 12.4 mg NO₂⁻
 295 -N L⁻¹ (k₁=4.2×10⁻⁵ s⁻¹), 9.7 mg NO₂⁻-N L⁻¹ (k₁=6.8×10⁻⁵ s⁻¹), 9.0 mg NO₂⁻-N L⁻¹ (k₁=7.2×10⁻⁵ s⁻¹) and 8.4
 296 mg NO₂⁻-N L⁻¹ (k₁=8.1×10⁻⁵ s⁻¹) for LiOH, NaOH, KOH and CsOH, respectively. Note that despite
 297 generally being the reduction of NO₃⁻ to NO₂⁻ considered the rate-limiting step, NO₂⁻ reduction can be also
 298 considered a sluggish reaction.

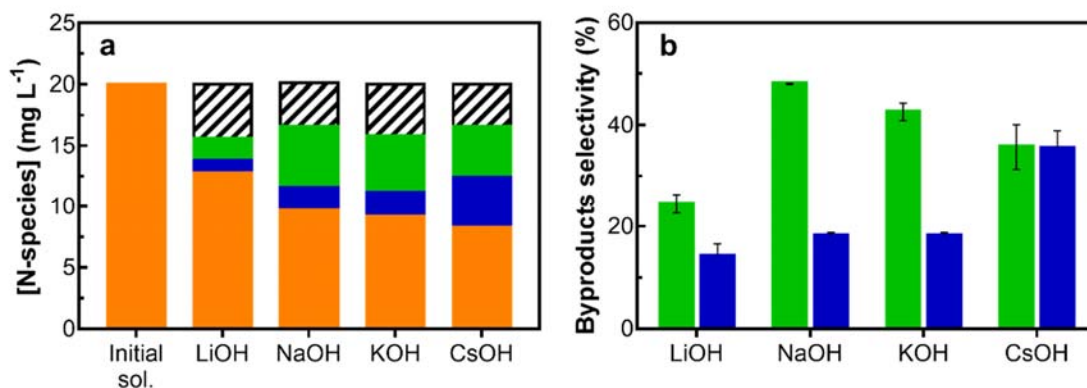
299 Evaluation of selectivity can be assessed from the NO₂⁻ reduction products as depicted in Figure 4b.
 300 Ammonia and nitrogen gas showing concentrations ranged from 1.0 to 4.4 mg NH₃-N L⁻¹ and from 1.9 to
 301 4.9 mg N_{gas}-N L⁻¹, respectively. However, there was observed some degree of NO₂⁻ oxidation yielding NO₃⁻
 302 [66,67]. At the end of the electrolysis, the concentration of NO₃⁻ accumulated decreased from 4.4 mg NO₃⁻

303 -N L^{-1} for Li^+ down to ca. $3.4 \text{ mg NO}_3\text{-N L}^{-1}$ for Cs^+ . This result reinforces the hypothesis of the enhanced
304 mass transport of NO_2^- to the cathode aided by the formation of different ionic pairs depending on the alkali
305 metal present in solution, which would result in a decrease on competitive NO_2^- oxidation at the anode and
306 affects product selectivity. In fact, using LiOH as electrolyte induces by-product NO_3^- to become the main
307 product formed by exhibiting the highest selectivity ($S_{\text{NO}_3^-} = 61\%$) due to the blockage of N_{gas} and NH_3
308 production from NO_2^- reduction (see Table 1). In contrast, using NaOH or KOH as electrolyte, N_{gas} becomes
309 the main product detected ($S_{\text{N}_{\text{gas}}} = 49\%$ and 44% , respectively). Meanwhile, CsOH steers again selectivity
310 towards NH_3 generation ($S_{\text{NH}_3} = 36\%$), which is equivalent to the one reported for N_{gas} ($S_{\text{N}_{\text{gas}}}/S_{\text{NH}_3} = 1.0$).
311 Finally, Table 1 also allows to compare the S_{NH_3} obtained for the NO_3^- and the NO_2^- reduction reactions for
312 the case of all 4 different cations present in the electrode-electrolyte interface and surprisingly almost
313 identical values are reached in both reactions.

314 The electrolyte ions effect on the performance of different electrochemical systems has been already
315 reported for other electrochemical reactions, such as for instance on the electrohydrodimerization of
316 acrylonitrile to adiponitrile [68], being electrolyte ions determinant on the reaction rate and selectivity.
317 However, this effect was not evidenced before for NO_3^- and NO_2^- reduction reactions on Sn-based
318 electrodes. Thus, we present the first evidence proving that a significant shift in products selectivity from
319 N_{gas} towards either NO_2^- or NH_3 on Sn electrode can be achieved by properly tuning the electrode-
320 electrolyte interface through alkali cations. In fact, as reported by some authors, the size of alkali cations
321 influences the surface charge density at the electrode, availability of water molecules, and stability of
322 reaction intermediates [69–73]. A key element of the complex process of the $\text{NO}_3^-/\text{NO}_2^-$ ion reduction path
323 on the surface of the Sn cathode at alkaline pH can be the adsorption of the nitrogen species [74]. Clearly,
324 adsorption takes place in the presence of the alkali cations, since these cations are located at the electrode-
325 electrolyte interface interacting with the negatively polarized cathode surface. The literature has
326 demonstrated that the generated electrical-field-surface-modified Sn, is determined by the atomic radius of
327 the cations: Li^+ (1.52 \AA) $<$ Na^+ (1.86 \AA) $<$ K^+ (2.31 \AA) $<$ Cs (2.62 \AA) [75]. Moreover, other studies have

328 suggested that the primary role of cations at the electrode-electrolyte interface is to act as a promoter,
329 stabilizing negatively charged reaction intermediates by favorable electrostatic interactions via a local
330 electric field effect, as has been proposed for the case of the electrochemical reduction of CO₂ [76]. Thus,
331 we propose that a more powerful local electrostatic field is generated by solvated Cs⁺ cations at the
332 electrode-electrolyte interface than by Li⁺, Na⁺ and K⁺ cations, which allow a stronger stabilization of
333 reaction intermediates via molecule dipole - cation interactions during both NO₃⁻ and NO₂⁻ reduction
334 reactions. However, the symmetrical trigonal geometry displayed by NO₃⁻ gives as a result a zero net dipole
335 moment, which makes NO₃⁻ insensitive to the dipole – cation interactions. In contrast, NO₂⁻ presents a net
336 dipole moment and is sensitive to the local electric field generated by the species in solution. This fact could
337 justify the very close proximity between the results displayed in Figs. 3 and 4 (summarized in Table 1),
338 where NO₃⁻ removal as a function of the cations present in solution mimics the NO₂⁻ removal trend and
339 exhibits an increase in NH₃ production in the following order Li⁺ < Na⁺ ≈ K⁺ < Cs⁺. Additionally, other
340 negatively charged intermediates formed during the reduction of NO₃⁻ and NO₂⁻ on Sn cathode, such as the
341 NO⁻ proposed by Katsounaros et al. (2012) [77], could also be favored by the stabilization provided by the
342 local electric field generated by different cations at the electrode-electrolyte interface.

343



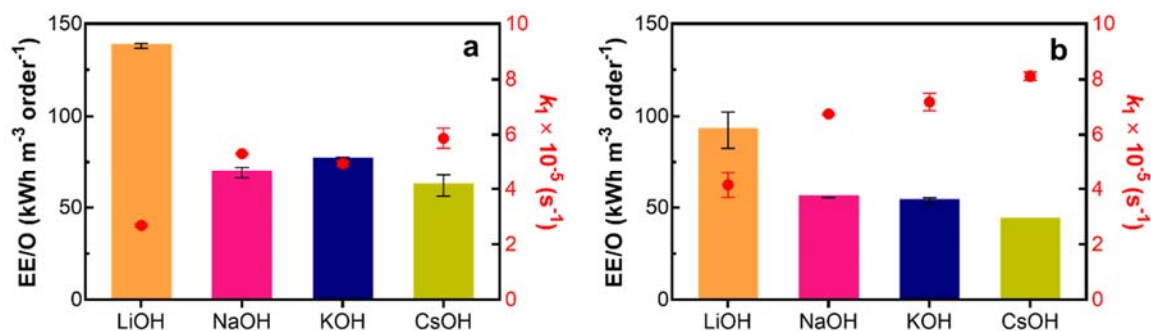
345 **Figure 4.** (a) Concentration of N-species (▨ NO₃⁻-N, ■ NO₂⁻-N, ■ NH₃-N, ■ N_{gas}-N) and (b) selectivity
 346 towards N_{gas} and NH₃ for the electrolysis of 20 mg NO₂⁻-N L⁻¹ at 20 mA cm⁻² after 180 min, using 0.02 M
 347 of different supporting electrolytes (LiOH, NaOH, KOH and CsOH) at pH 12 in a PFR.

348

349 3.5 Electrical energy per order considerations

350 Controlling electrode-electrolyte interfaces can become a prominent strategy not only to improve the
 351 reaction selectivity in electrochemical reactions and energy efficiency, but to minimize overall process
 352 costs. In Figure 5 is depicted the EE/O for the experiments related to the study of the effect of the alkali
 353 metal electrolytes on the reduction of NO₃⁻ and NO₂⁻ in low ionic strength alkaline solutions. For the case
 354 of NO₃⁻ removal (Fig. 5a), the EE/O ranged between 62 and 138 kWh m⁻³ order⁻¹. While for the case of
 355 NO₂⁻ removal (Fig. 5b), the same parameter ranged between 43 and 92 kWh m⁻³ order⁻¹. For both pollutants
 356 (i.e., NO₃⁻ and NO₂⁻), the EE/O followed a similar trend where Li⁺ led to the highest values and Cs⁺ to the
 357 lowest. The determination of EE/O (Eq. (6)) depends on two main factors: cell potential (E_{cell}, Table 1) and
 358 the pollutant reduction kinetics rate (k₁, Fig. 5). As it can be seen in Table 1, E_{cell} is practically the same for
 359 all the experiments (ca. 5.9 V), except for those using CsOH as electrolyte where is a bit smaller (5.6 V).
 360 However, k₁ is the factor that has more weight, as shown in Fig. 5 (red dots). For example, higher k₁ results
 361 in lower EE/O as is the case of Cs⁺ and the contrary situation for Li⁺ (lower higher k₁ leads to higher lower

362 EE/O). Therefore, electrode-electrolyte interface engineering can strongly modulate product selectivity as
 363 well as impact on reduction kinetics for both NO_3^- and NO_2^- reduction reactions.
 364



365 **Figure 5.** Electrical energy per order (bars) and pseudo-first order kinetics (red dots) for the electrolysis of
 366 (a) 20 mg NO_3^- -N L^{-1} and (b) 20 mg NO_2^- -N L^{-1} using 0.02 M of different supporting electrolytes (**LiOH**,
 367 **NaOH**, **KOH** and **CsOH**) at 20 mA cm^{-2} and pH 12 after 180 min in a PFR. Error bars do not exceed 5%
 368 of error.

369 4. Conclusions

371 In this work, the ERN performance at constant current on Sn electrode has been studied in a commercially
 372 available single compartment PFR, at natural or alkaline pH and in the presence of dissolved O_2 in solution,
 373 since it was demonstrated here that ORR does not significantly affect the performance of ERN. The aim of
 374 this work was to understand how solution composition, and particularly the electrolyte cation at the
 375 electrode-electrolyte interface, impacts on pollutants (NO_3^- and NO_2^-) removal rate and product selectivity
 376 in a membrane-less PFR. It is demonstrated the relevant effect of individual monovalent alkali cations in
 377 solution (Li^+ , Na^+ , K^+ and Cs^+), which control the main product formed, and modulate the selectivity in
 378 both NO_2^- and NO_3^- electrochemical reductions, as well as impact on the pollutant removal rate. In
 379 particular, it is reported for the first time a significant shift in ERN products selectivity from N_{gas} towards
 380 either NO_2^- or NH_3 production on a Sn cathode, which is a well-established highly active catalyst for N_{gas}
 381 and poor catalyst for NH_3 and NO_2^- production. Thus, tuning the electrode-electrolyte interface through the

382 electrolyte in solution represents a powerful tool for directing products selectivity and diminishing the
383 treatment's process cost (from Li^+ to Cs^+). An unprecedented and significant impact of Cs^+ in solution for
384 enhancing NH_3 selectivity in both NO_3^- and NO_2^- reduction reactions on Sn cathode was demonstrated. We
385 suggest that NO_2^- reduction reaction controls products selectivity during ERN because the exact same trends
386 were exhibited in both reactions. Additionally, Cs^+ in solution led to the lowest EE/O values with 62 kWh
387 m^{-3} order^{-1} and 43 kWh m^{-3} order^{-1} for the NO_3^- and NO_2^- removal experiments, respectively. These values
388 are 2-fold lower than compared with the same assays using Li^+ . The relevant impact of Cs^+ is explained in
389 terms of a higher strength of the local electric field generated at the electrode-electrolyte interface in
390 comparison with the other cations evaluated, which stabilize intermediate products via molecule dipole -
391 cation interactions. Thus, we propose modifying the main cation present in solution as a new tool to
392 modulate ERN product selectivity different from the conventional catalyst engineering approach.
393 Nevertheless, adding Cs^+ ions in solution to enhance NH_3 production from ERN is not intended nor
394 applicable. The understanding of the impact of electrode/electrolyte impact on selective and kinetics may
395 contribute to understand better significant shifts on product selectivity in different water matrices. For
396 example, nuclear streams may contain high concentrations of NO_3^- and Cs^+ ions. Enhanced selectivity based
397 on the electrode/electrolyte interface can be strategically used to benefit NH_3 production as well, which in
398 combination with highly active catalysts for NH_3 generation from the ERN, could make feasible a more
399 cost-efficient process than the Haber Bosh.

400

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408 **CRedit authorship contribution statement**

409 **Ana S. Fajardo:** Methodology, Investigation, Data curation, Formal analysis, Validation, Visualization,
410 Writing - original draft, Writing - review & editing. **Paul Westerhoff:** Project administration,
411 Methodology, Formal analysis, Writing - review & editing. **Sergi Garcia-Segura:** Project administration,
412 Data curation, Validation, Formal analysis, Writing - review & editing. **Carlos. M. Sánchez-Sánchez:**
413 Supervision, Project administration, Conceptualization, Methodology, Data curation, Validation, Formal
414 analysis, Writing - original draft, Writing - review & editing.

415

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1 **SUPPORTING INFORMATION**

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5 **Selectivity modulation during electrochemical reduction of nitrate by**
6 **electrolyte engineering**

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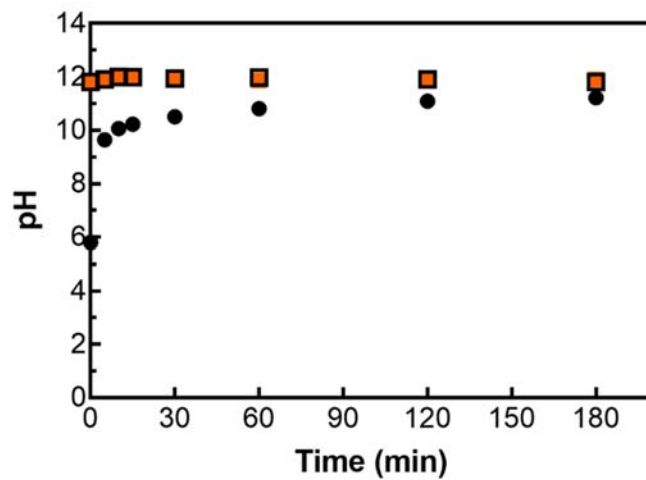
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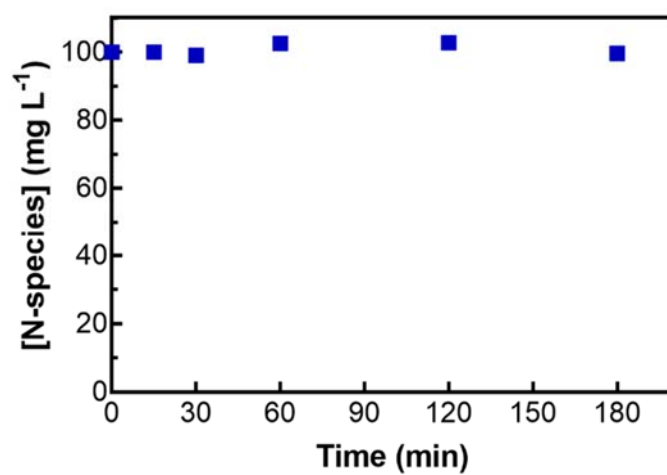
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22 **Figure S1.** pH evolution over time during the pollutant electroreduction on Sn cathode in a plug flow
23 reactor at 20 mA cm^{-2} of 3 different solutions: (●) $100 \text{ mg L}^{-1} \text{ NO}_3^- \text{-N}$ in $0.05 \text{ mol L}^{-1} \text{ Na}_2\text{SO}_4$, (□) 20 mg
24 $\text{L}^{-1} \text{ NO}_3^- \text{-N}$ in $0.02 \text{ mol L}^{-1} \text{ NaOH}$ and (■) $20 \text{ mg L}^{-1} \text{ NO}_2^- \text{-N}$ in $0.02 \text{ mol L}^{-1} \text{ NaOH}$.
25



26

27 **Figure S2.** Evolution of the NH₃-N concentration over time during the electroreduction of 100 mg L⁻¹ NH₃⁻

28 -N in 0.05 mol L⁻¹ Na₂SO₄ and 0.01 mol L⁻¹ NaOH (pH = 12) at 20 mA cm⁻² using Sn as the cathode material

29 in a plug flow reactor.